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## The Polytopes with Regular-Prismatic Vertex Figures

H. S. M. Coxeter

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IX. *The Polytopes with Regular-Prismatic Vertex Figures.*By H. S. M. COXETER, *Trinity College, Cambridge.**(Communicated by H. F. BAKER, F.R.S.)*

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*Preface.*

The regular polytopes in two and three dimensions (polygons and polyhedra) and the “Archimedean solids” have been known since ancient times. To these, KEPLER and POINSOT added the regular star-polyhedra.

About the middle of last century, L. SCHLÄFLI\* discovered the (convex) regular polytopes in more dimensions. As he was ignorant of two of the four KEPLER-POINSOT polyhedra, his enumeration of the analogous star-polytopes in four dimensions remained to be completed by E. HESS.†

Recently, D. M. Y. SOMMERVILLE‡ interpreted the (convex) regular polytopes as partitions of elliptic space, and considered the analogous partitions of hyperbolic space.

Some particular processes, for constructing “uniform” polytopes analogous to the Archimedean solids, were discovered by Mrs. BOOLE STOTT§ and discussed in great detail (with the help of co-ordinates) by Prof. SCHOUTE.|| Further, E. L. ELTE¶ completely enumerated all the uniform polytopes having a certain “degree of regularity,” these including seven new ones (in six, seven and eight dimensions).

*The object of the present paper is to exhibit these seven polytopes (here named  $2_{21}$ ,  $1_{22}$ ,  $3_{21}$ ,  $2_{31}$ ,  $1_{32}$ ,  $4_{21}$ ,  $2_{41}$ ), along with certain others, as members of one family; and to investigate the relevant groups of symmetries.*

I should like to express here my thanks to Prof. BAKER for his advice and encouragement. The Appendix in regard to the cubic surface, was suggested by him.

\* “Réduction d’une Intégrale Multiple qui comprend l’arc du cercle et l’aire du triangle sphérique comme cas particuliers,” ‘LIUVILLE’s Journal,’ vol. 20, p. 361 (1855).

† “Einleitung in die Lehre von der Kugelteilung,” ‘Marburg. Ber.,’ p. 31 (1885).

‡ “The regular divisions of space of  $n$  dimensions and their metrical constants,” ‘Palermo Rendiconti,’ vol. 48, p. 9 (1923).

§ “Geometrical deduction of semiregular from regular polytopes and space fillings,” ‘Amsterdam Proceedings (Koninklijke Akademie van Wetenschappen),’ vol. 11, No. 1 (1913).

|| “Analytical treatment of the polytopes regularly derived from the regular polytopes,” *ibid.*, vol. 11, Nos. 3, 5; vol. 12, No. 2.

¶ “The Semiregular Polytopes of the Hyperspaces,” Hoitsema, Groningen, 1912.

## 1. INTRODUCTION.

1.1. A “polytope” is the appropriate extension, to many-dimensional space, of the familiar polygon and polyhedron, which we shall call  $\Pi_2$  and  $\Pi_3$ , respectively.  $\Pi_1$  is taken to mean a segment of a straight line, considered as bounded by its two end points  $\Pi_0$ .

An  $m$ -dimensional polytope  $\Pi_m$  is then defined inductively, as a simply-connected portion of  $m$ -space, bounded by a number (more than  $m$ ) of polytopes  $\Pi_{m-1}$ , such that every  $\Pi_{m-2}$  (occurring among the boundaries of the  $\Pi_{m-1}$ 's) belongs to just two of the  $\Pi_{m-1}$ 's. (The number of  $\Pi_{m-1}$ 's or  $\Pi_{m-2}$ 's to which any  $\Pi_{m-3}$  belongs is, of course, more than two.) As we shall consider none but “convex” polytopes, it is assumed that no two  $\Pi_{m-1}$ 's have any common points not on their boundaries.

1.2. It follows from this definition that  $\Pi_m$  possesses “elements”  $\Pi_r$  for all values of  $r$  from 0 to  $m - 1$ , and we can say it possesses one element  $\Pi_m$ , namely itself.

Let

$${}^r|m)$$

denote the number of elements  $\Pi_r$ ; so that

$${}^0|m), \quad {}^1|m) \quad \text{and} \quad {}^{m-1}|m)$$

are the numbers of “vertices,” “edges” and “bounding figures,” respectively, and

$$1.21 \quad {}^m|m) = 1.$$

The special property which distinguishes the general polytope from other kinds of “configuration” is

$$1.22 \quad \sum_{r=0}^m (-1)^r {}^r|m) = 1.$$

When  $m = 0$ , this is a particular case of 1.21. When  $m = 1$  and 2 it gives

$$1.23 \quad {}^0|1) = 2$$

(“a line has two ends”) and

$$1.24 \quad {}^0|2) = ({}^1|2) \\ 2 \cup 2$$

(“ a polygon has as many sides as vertices ”). When  $m = 3$ , it is the famous EULER’S theorem, of which the neatest proof is LEGENDRE’S\* (by means of spherical triangles). For a proof in the general case, see § 16 of H. POINCARÉ’S “ Analysis Situs.”†

We can replace  $m$  by any smaller number  $s$  in a general identity such as 1.21 or 1.22, if we let

$$\binom{r}{s} \quad (r \leq s \leq m)$$

denote the number of elements  $\Pi_r$  belonging to a particular element  $\Pi_s$ . It is convenient also to let

$$\binom{s}{r|_m} \quad (r \leq s \leq m)$$

denote the number of elements  $\Pi_s$  to which a particular element  $\Pi_r$  belongs. If we restrict the  $\Pi_s$ ’s and  $\Pi_r$  to belong to one  $\Pi_n$ , the number of  $\Pi_s$ ’s is naturally called

$$\binom{s}{r|_n} \quad (r \leq s \leq n \leq m).$$

Clearly

$$1.25 \quad \binom{n}{r|_n} = 1 = \binom{r}{r|_n}.$$

1.3. A “ sphere-analogue ” is the locus of points (in  $m$  dimensions) at a fixed distance (called the “ radius ”) from a fixed point called the “ centre.” If any straight line is drawn through a fixed point P to meet a fixed sphere-analogue in A and B, it can be proved that the harmonic conjugate of P with respect to A and B lies in a fixed “ prime ” or  $(m - 1)$ -space. P and the prime are said to be “ pole and polar ” with respect to the sphere-analogue.

Two polytopes are said to be “ reciprocals ” (of one another) if the vertices of one and the primes (containing the bounding figures) of the other are poles and polars with respect to a sphere-analogue whose centre is strictly inside the polytopes. Thus we can say that a vertex  $\Pi_0$  “ reciprocates ” into a bounding figure  $\Pi_{m-1}$ ; that an edge  $\Pi_m$  the join of two vertices, reciprocates into an element  $\Pi_{m-2}$ , the common part of two bounding figures; and, generally, that reciprocally corresponding elements are of dimensions adding up to  $m - 1$ . Since a polytope is supposed to have one element  $\Pi_m$  to which all its lower elements belong, it is natural to assume that the reciprocal polytope—and therefore any polytope—possesses one hypothetical element  $\Pi_{-1}$  which belongs at the same time to every proper element  $\Pi_s$ . Expressing this idea numerically :

$$1.31 \quad \binom{-1}{m} = 1,$$

$$1.32 \quad \binom{-1}{s} = 1,$$

$$1.33 \quad \binom{s}{-1|_m} = \binom{s}{m},$$

$$1.34 \quad \binom{s}{-1|_n} = \binom{s}{n}.$$

\* “ Éléments de Géométrie,” liv. 7, Prop. 25 (1794).

† ‘ Journal de l’École Polytechnique,’ vol. 1, p. 100 (1895).

If

$$1.35 \quad s + s' = r + r' = n + n' = m - 1,$$

the following pairs of properties are reciprocal (*i.e.*, are equal, when regarded as corresponding properties of reciprocal polytopes):

$$1.351 \quad (s|m) \text{ and } (s'|m),$$

$$1.352 \quad (s|n) \text{ and } (s'|n'),$$

$$1.353 \quad (s|r) \text{ and } (s'|r'),$$

1.34 exhibits 1.351 and 1.352 as special cases of 1.353.

By means of this rule, every identity can be reciprocated to give another identity. Thus 1.21 gives 1.31, while 1.23 and 1.24 give respectively

$$1.36 \quad \binom{m-1}{m-2}|m = 2$$

and

$$1.37 \quad \binom{m-1}{m-3}|m = \binom{m-2}{m-3}|m.$$

(These two identities can be generalized by changing  $m$  into  $n$  throughout.) 1.31 allows 1.22 to be written in the self-reciprocal form

$$1.38 \quad \sum_{r=-1}^m (-1)^r (r|m) = 0.$$

1.4. If  $\Pi_m$  possesses  $(r|\rho)_m$   $\Pi_r$ 's of a special type  $\rho$ , and  $(s|\sigma)_m$   $\Pi_s$ 's of type  $\sigma$ ; such that every  $\Pi_r$  of type  $\rho$  belongs to  $(s|\sigma)_m$   $\Pi_s$ 's of type  $\sigma$ , while every  $\Pi_s$  of type  $\sigma$  possesses  $(r|\rho)_m$   $\Pi_r$ 's of type  $\rho$ ; then, after a little consideration, it is seen that

$$1.41 \quad (r|\rho)_m (s|\sigma)_m = (r|\rho)_m (s|\sigma)_m \quad (r \leq s \leq m).$$

Here the " $\rho$ " and " $\sigma$ " can be omitted (independently) if all  $\Pi_r$ 's or all  $\Pi_s$ 's are of one type.

Changing  $m$  into  $n$ , reciprocating according to 1.352 and 1.353, and dropping the dashes, we obtain the more general theorem

$$1.42 \quad \binom{r|\rho}{n|m} \binom{s|\sigma}{n|r} = \binom{r|\rho}{s|m} \binom{s|\sigma}{n|r} \quad (n \leq s \leq r \leq m),$$

whose meaning should by this time be clear without detailed explanation of the symbols. 1.41 (with  $r$  and  $s$  interchanged) can be obtained from 1.42 by putting  $n = -1$ .

1.5. So far, we have tacitly assumed the polytope to be finite. But it is convenient to regard an infinite set of finite polytopes  $\Pi_{m-1}$ , fitting together to fill an  $(m-1)$ -space, as a “degenerate polytope” in  $m$  dimensions, the  $\Pi_{m-1}$ 's being its “bounding figures.” All the properties

$$\binom{r}{m} \quad (0 \leq r \leq m-1)$$

are now infinite, but can be regarded as tending to infinity in definite mutual ratios, the ratio  $\binom{r}{m} : \binom{s}{m}$  being given by 1.41. Selecting then a set of finite numbers  $\binom{r}{m}'$  having these proper ratios, 1.22 becomes

$$1.51 \quad \sum_{r=0}^{m-1} (-1)^r \binom{r}{m}' = 0.$$

To take a very simple example, “squared paper,” regarded as a degenerate polyhedron bounded by squares, has an infinity of vertices, edges and faces, but we can still say

$$\binom{0}{3} : \binom{1}{3} : \binom{2}{3} = 1 : 2 : 1,$$

and these numbers satisfy

$$1 - 2 + 1 = 0.$$

Degenerate polytopes, like finite ones, occur in reciprocal pairs; but now, of course, there are no sphere-analogues or harmonic ranges to help us. The rule given in 1.35 for reciprocally corresponding elements still applies, if we obtain the reciprocal of a given degenerate polytope by taking, for vertices, *any* points inside the original bounding figures, and joining them up suitably. The identity 1.51 is self-reciprocal.

1.6. The operation of moving or reflecting any polytope (preserving all distances among its component parts), in such a way as to leave it unchanged as a whole, is called a “symmetry” of the polytope. The totality of symmetries (including identity) of any given polytope  $\Pi_m$  forms a *group*, whose order will be called  $g_m$ .

If the symmetries of  $\Pi_m$  suffice to change (in turn) every one of a certain set of  $\Pi_r$ 's into a particular  $\Pi_r$  of the set, these  $\Pi_r$ 's are said to be “equivalent.” (Clearly, equivalent elements must be equal.)

1.7. We are now in a position to give an inductive definition of “uniform polytope.”  $\Pi_0$  and  $\Pi_1$  are supposed to be “uniform” always. As a basis for the induction, a polygon  $\Pi_2$  is said to be uniform if it is “regular,” *i.e.*, if its sides are equal and its vertices concyclic. Finally, a polytope in more than two dimensions is said to be uniform if its bounding figures are uniform and its vertices equivalent.

From now on, “ $\Pi_m$ ” will always mean a uniform polytope. Since the symmetries permute the vertices, which are equivalent, we have

$$1.71 \quad ({}^0|_m) \leq g_m \leq ({}^0|_m)! .$$

It follows that  $g_m$  is finite or infinite according as  $\Pi_m$  is finite or degenerate.

As three-dimensional examples: the equilateral-triangular right prism with height equal to side, is a finite uniform polyhedron; and the plane filled up with alternate infinite strips of squares and of equilateral triangles, is a degenerate one.

It is easily proved by induction that all the elements of a uniform polytope are uniform. In particular, all the two-dimensional elements are regular polygons. It can also be proved by induction that the edges of a uniform polytope are all equal. Their common length will usually be taken as unity. A polytope of edge  $a$  similar to  $\Pi_m$  will be called  $\Pi_m a$ , or, if  $a$  is unspecified,  $\Pi_m \times$ .

1.8. We shall assume that the vertices of a finite uniform polytope, being a finite set of equivalent points, necessarily lie on a sphere-analogue, whose centre (called the “centre” of the polytope) is invariant for all symmetries. The radius of this “circumscribing sphere-analogue” is called the “circum-radius” of the polytope. The  $(m-1)$ -space filled by a degenerate polytope may be regarded as a limiting kind of circumscribing sphere-analogue, with its centre at infinity in the normal direction.

For reciprocating a finite uniform polytope, we shall always use a *concentric* sphere-analogue. (The *shape* of the reciprocal polytope is, of course, independent of the *size* of the reciprocating sphere-analogue.) In order to reciprocate a degenerate uniform polytope, we shall always take for vertices the *centres* of the original bounding figures. The reciprocal of a uniform polytope is not in general uniform; but it obviously has precisely the same symmetries, and therefore equivalent elements reciprocate into equivalent elements.

1.9. If all the elements  $\Pi_r$  are equivalent, for each  $r$  less than some number  $l$ , while the elements  $\Pi_l$  are not all equivalent; it is convenient to give  $\Pi_m$  special names, for the larger values of  $l$ :  $\Pi_m$  is said to be “super-Archimedean,” “Archimedean” or “sub-Archimedean” if  $l = m - 1$ ,  $m - 2$  or  $m - 3$ , respectively. The Archimedean polytopes are further sub-divided into “pure,” “isohedral” and “mixed,” Archimedean polytopes: “pure” if the  $\Pi_{m-2}$ ’s (though not equivalent) are equal, and otherwise “isohedral” or “mixed” according as the  $\Pi_{m-1}$ ’s are, or are not, all equal.

The ordinary “Archimedean solids” belong to the “super-Archimedean” and “pure Archimedean” categories.

## 2. Vertex Figures.

2.1. The definition 1.7 may seem somewhat artificial. It was devised in order that a uniform polytope, so defined, should be uniquely determined (in shape) by the neighbourhood of one vertex, *i.e.*, by what happens inside an arbitrarily small sphere-analogue



drawn round one vertex. We shall assume then that, given any uniform polytope, there is no other uniform polytope of different shape having the same vertex neighbourhood. J. C. P. MILLER has made the interesting discovery of a non-uniform polytope (in three dimensions, bounded by 8 triangles and  $8 + 8 + 2$  squares) whose vertex neighbourhood is unique and the same as that of the uniform "small rhombicuboctahedron."\*

It is desirable to define some sort of indicatrix which will give a clear idea of the vertex neighbourhood of a uniform polytope. The vertex neighbourhood (*i.e.*, vertex angle) of a regular  $k$ -gon is determined by the distance,  $2 \cos \pi/k$ , between points measured off at unit distances along two covertical sides. We say that a line of length  $2 \cos \pi/k$  is the "vertex figure" of the polygon. This idea can be extended to more dimensions.

**2.2.** First suppose that the given uniform polytope  $\Pi_m$  is of *unit* edge. Those vertices which are the further ends of all edges at a particular vertex A, then lie on the sphere-analogue of unit radius, centre A, as well as on the circumscribing sphere-analogue (1.8) of the whole polytope. Being on the intersection of two sphere-analogues, these vertices lie in a prime  $\varpi$ , and are therefore the complete set of vertices of an  $(m - 1)$ -dimensional polytope  $\Pi_{m-1, 1}$ . This polytope is called the "vertex figure" of  $\Pi_m$ . (It is generally not of unit edge, nor even uniform.) Its  $(s - 1)$ -dimensional elements  $\Pi_{s-1, 1}$  may be seen to be the vertex figures of those  $s$ -dimensional elements of  $\Pi_m$  which occur at A. In particular, corresponding to any  $k$ -gonal  $\Pi_2$ 's of  $\Pi_m$ ,  $\Pi_{m-1, 1}$  has edges of length  $2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k}$ .

The vertex figure of a degenerate uniform polytope has unit circum-radius, since its centre is A. The centre of the vertex figure of a finite uniform polytope is the intersection of the prime  $\varpi$  with the line joining A to the centre of the polytope.

The vertex figure is independent of the choice of A, since all vertices are equivalent.

**2.3.** In order that similar polytopes may have identical vertex figures, we must define the vertex figure of a uniform polytope of *arbitrary* edge length as having for vertices points measured off at *unit* distances along a set of covertical edges. The figure so obtained is clearly similar to that determined by the *ends* of the edges.

In virtue of this definition, the assumption at the beginning of 2.1 implies that two uniform polytopes with the same vertex figure must be similar. In nearly all cases the similarity is "direct" (*i.e.*, the two polytopes can be superposed by means of shrinkage and motion in their own space). But the "snub cube"\* (KEPLER'S "Cubus Simus") and "snub dodecahedron"\* both exist in two enantiomorphous varieties (which cannot be superposed without reflection or four-dimensional motion). In each of these cases, the two varieties have the same vertex figure; *e.g.*, the lævo- and dextro-snub cube, each bounded by  $8 + 24$  triangles and 6 squares, both have four triangles and

\* 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' 11th edition, art. "Polyhedron."

one square at each vertex, so that the vertex figure of either solid is a cyclic pentagon of sides

$$1, 1, 1, 1, \sqrt{2}$$

(which is unique). No such exceptional polytopes have been found in more dimensions.

**2.4.** It is evident that all those symmetries of a uniform polytope which leave one vertex invariant occur as symmetries of the vertex figure. It is generally true that they include *all* the symmetries of the vertex figure. We shall assume that the only cases of failure of this theorem are those provided by the two “snub solids” (2.3), whose vertex figures (being cyclic pentagons with four equal sides) have a reflective symmetry not shared by the whole polyhedron. With these two exceptions then, if  $g_{m-1,1}$  denotes the order of the group of symmetries of  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$ ,

$$2.41 \quad g_m = \binom{0}{m} g_{m-1,1}.$$

For the snub solids, on the other hand

$$2.42 \quad g_m = \binom{0}{m}$$

although  $g_{m-1,1} = 2$ .

**2.5.** Let

$$\binom{s-1}{m-1,1}$$

denote the number of  $(s-1)$ -dimensional elements  $\Pi_{s-1,1}$  possessed by the vertex figure  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$ . We have seen (2.2) that these elements simply correspond to the  $\Pi_s$ 's at one vertex of  $\Pi_m$ . Hence

$$2.51 \quad \binom{s-1}{m-1,1} = \binom{s}{m}.$$

Substituting in 1.41, with  $r = 0$ , we have

$$\binom{0}{m} \binom{s-1}{m-1,1}^\sigma = \binom{0}{s}^\sigma \binom{s}{m}^\sigma,$$

*i.e.*,

$$2.52 \quad \binom{s}{m}^\sigma = \binom{0}{m} \binom{s-1}{m-1,1}^\sigma / \binom{0}{s}^\sigma.$$

If we know the properties of the vertex figure of  $\Pi_m$  and the number of vertices of  $\Pi_m$ , we can thus obtain the number of  $\Pi_s$ 's which have  $\binom{0}{s}^\sigma$  vertices.

Since the vertices of a polytope correspond to the bounding figures of its reciprocal, the reciprocal of  $\Pi_m$  has only one kind of bounding figure, and this bounding figure is the reciprocal of  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  (with respect to an  $(m-1)$ -dimensional sphere-analogue concentric with  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$ ). This agrees with the fact that (by 1.35)  $\binom{s}{m-1}$  and  $\binom{s'}{m-1,1}$  are reciprocal properties if  $s + s' = m - 2$ .

**2.6.** If  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  happens to be uniform, its vertex figure is denoted by  $\Pi_{m-2,2}$  and is called the “second vertex figure” of  $\Pi_m$ . Extending this idea: *if*  $\Pi_{m-u+1, u-1}$  *is uniform*, its vertex figure  $\Pi_{m-u, u}$  is called the “ $u$ th vertex figure” of  $\Pi_m$ . It follows that  $\Pi_{m-u, u}$  is the  $(u-v)$ th vertex figure of  $\Pi_{m-v, v}$ , and that the uniformity of  $\Pi_{m-u+1, u-1}$  implies the existence of  $\Pi_{m-v, v}$  for all  $v \leq u$ .  $\Pi_{m,0}$  must be taken to

mean  $\Pi_m$ . The existence of  $\Pi_{1,m-1}$  (*i.e.*, the regularity of  $\Pi_{2,m-2}$ ) would trivially imply the existence of  $\Pi_{0,m}$ .

The  $(s-u)$ -dimensional elements  $\Pi_{s-u,u}$  of  $\Pi_{m-u,u}$  may be seen to be the  $u$ th vertex figures of those  $s$ -dimensional elements of  $\Pi_m$  which occur at one  $\Pi_{u-1}$ . Expressing this fact numerically (the properties of  $\Pi_{p,u}$  being distinguished from those of  $\Pi_p$  by changing “ $p$ ” into “ $p, u$ ”), we have

$$2.61 \quad \binom{s-u}{m-u, u} = \binom{s}{u-1, m} \quad (u-1 \leq s \leq m).$$

This is a special case of the still more obvious relation

$$2.62 \quad \binom{s-u}{r-u, m-u, u} = \binom{s}{r, m} \quad (u-1 \leq r \leq s \leq m),$$

in which we may, as usual, replace  $m$  by  $n$  ( $\leq m$ ).

Substituting 2.61 in 1.41, with  $r = u-1$ , we have

$$2.63 \quad \binom{u-1}{m} \binom{s-u}{m-u, u} = \binom{u-1}{s} \binom{s}{m} \quad (u-1 \leq s \leq m).$$

(The assumption that  $\Pi_{m-u,u}$  exists implies that the  $\Pi_{u-1}$ 's are all of one type.)

If  $\Pi_m$  has a  $u$ th vertex figure, 2.41 can be extended so as to give

$$2.64 \quad g_m = \binom{0}{m} \binom{0}{m-1, 1} \binom{0}{m-2, 2} \cdots \binom{0}{m-u+1, u-1} g_{m-u, u}.$$

2.7. Let

$${}_r R_m \quad (r \leq m)$$

denote the central distance of a  $\Pi_r$ , *i.e.*, the distance from the centre of  $\Pi_m$  to the centre of one of its elements  $\Pi_r$ ; so that, in particular,  ${}_0 R_m$  denotes the circum-radius of  $\Pi_m$ . Analogously, let

$${}_r R_n \quad (r \leq n)$$

denote the distance from the centre of a  $\Pi_n$  to the centre of a  $\Pi_r$  belonging to the  $\Pi_n$ .

Since the line joining the centre of a sphere-analogue to the centre of the section by an  $n$ -space is perpendicular to the space of section,  ${}_n R_m$  and  ${}_r R_n$  and  ${}_r R_m$  must form a right-angled triangle. So

$$2.71 \quad ({}_r R_m)^2 = ({}_r R_n)^2 + ({}_n R_m)^2 \quad (r \leq n \leq m).$$

In particular (putting  $r = n$ )

$$2.72 \quad {}_n R_n = 0$$

and (putting  $r = 0$ )

$$2.73 \quad ({}_n R_m)^2 = ({}_0 R_m)^2 - ({}_0 R_n)^2.$$

2.8. Let  $2\theta_m$  denote the angle subtended at the centre of  $\Pi_m$  by an edge, and  $2\theta_{p,u}$  the corresponding property of  $\Pi_{p,u}$ . Then, supposing  $\Pi_m$  to be of unit edge,

$$2.81 \quad {}_0 R_m = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \theta_m.$$

If  $\Pi_m$  has a  $k$ -gonal  $\Pi_2$ ,  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  has an edge of length  $2 \cos \theta_2$  where  $\theta_2 = \pi/k$ . So, if  $\theta_{m-1,1}$  refers to this edge, the circum-radius of  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  is given by

$$2.82. \quad {}_0R_{m-1,1} = \cos \theta_2 \operatorname{cosec} \theta_{m-1,1}.$$

A glance at the diagram (Fig. 1; in which O is the centre of  $\Pi_m$ , AB an edge, and Q the centre of the actual vertex figure at A) reveals the fact that

$$2.83 \quad {}_0R_{m-1,1} = \cos \theta_m.$$

(Thus a given polytope  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  *cannot* be the vertex figure of a real polytope if

$$2.84 \quad {}_0R_{m-1,1} > 1.)$$

Combining 2.83 and 2.82,

$$2.85 \quad \cos \theta_m = \cos \theta_2 \operatorname{cosec} \theta_{m-1,1}$$

and so

$$2.86 \quad \sin^2 \theta_m = 1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_2}{\sin^2 \theta_{m-1,1}}.$$

If  $\Pi_m$  has a  $u$ th vertex figure, we may apply 2.86 to  $\Pi_{m-u+1, u-1}$ , obtaining

$$2.861 \quad \sin^2 \theta_{m-u+1, u-1} = 1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_{2, u-1}}{\sin^2 \theta_{m-u, u}}.$$

Therefore  $\sin^2 \theta_m$  can be expressed as a continued fraction\* :

$$2.87 \quad \sin^2 \theta_m = 1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_2}{1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_{2,1}}{1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_{2,2}}{1 - \dots - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_{2, u-1}}{1 - \cos^2 \theta_{m-u, u}}}}.$$

In particular, if  $\Pi_m$  has an  $(m-2)$ th vertex figure,

$$2.88 \quad \begin{aligned} \sin^2 \theta_m &= 1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_2}{1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_{2,1}}{1 - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_{2,2}}{1 - \dots - \frac{\cos^2 \theta_{2, m-3}}{1 - \cos^2 \theta_{2, m-2}}}} \\ &= \Delta_m / \Delta_{m-1,1} \end{aligned}$$

where, in accordance with the algebra of continued fractions,  $\Delta_m$  is defined by

$$2.89 \quad \begin{cases} \Delta_1 = 1, \\ \Delta_2 = \sin^2 \theta_2, \\ \Delta_{v+2} = \Delta_{v+1} - \Delta_v \cos^2 \theta_{2, v}, \end{cases}$$

and  $\Delta_{m-u, u}$  is obtained from  $\Delta_{m-u}$  by changing  $\theta_2$  into  $\theta_{2, u}$  and  $\theta_{2, v}$  into  $\theta_{2, v+u}$ .

\* This use of continued fractions is due to SCHLÄFLI.

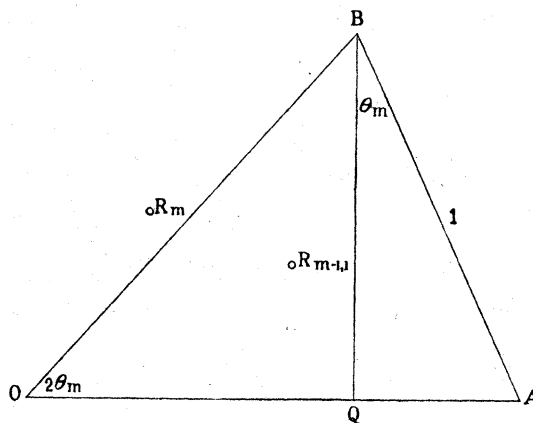


FIG. 1.

2.9. Applying 2.88 to  $\Pi_{m-u, u}$  (still supposing the existence of  $\Pi_{2, m-2}$ ).

$$\sin^2 \theta_{m-u, u} = \Delta_{m-u, u} / \Delta_{m-u-1, u+1} \quad (u \leq m-3).$$

Also

$$\sin^2 \theta_{2, m-2} = \Delta_{2, m-2}.$$

Hence

$$2.91 \quad \sin^2 \theta_m \sin^2 \theta_{m-1, 1} \sin^2 \theta_{m-2, 2} \dots \sin^2 \theta_{2, m-2} = \Delta_m,$$

and therefore

$$2.92 \quad \Delta_m \geq 0.$$

Combining 2.81 and 2.88,

$$2.93 \quad {}_0R_m = \frac{1}{2} (\Delta_{m-1, 1} / \Delta_m)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Thus the polytope is degenerate if

$$2.94 \quad \Delta_m = 0.*$$

The recurrence formula 2.89 enables  $\Delta_m$  to be expressed as an  $m$ -row determinant,† namely

$$2.95 \quad \Delta_m = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \cos \theta_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \cos \theta_2 & 1 & \cos \theta_{2,1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta_{2,1} & 1 & \cos \theta_{2,2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \cos \theta_{2, m-4} & 1 & \cos \theta_{2, m-3} & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \cos \theta_{2, m-3} & 1 & \cos \theta_{2, m-2} \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cos \theta_{2, m-2} & 1 \end{vmatrix}.$$

### 3. Regular Polytopes.

3.1. The very simple polytopes  $\Pi_0$  and  $\Pi_1$  are supposed to be automatically “regular.” A regular polygon has already been defined (1.7). We define a “regular polytope” inductively as a uniform polytope whose vertex figure is regular. This definition is exactly equivalent to saying that an  $m$ -dimensional polytope is “regular” if it has an  $m$ th vertex figure. Thus  $\Pi_m$ , if regular, possesses the complete set of vertex figures  $\Pi_{m-u, u}$ , from  $\Pi_{m, 0}$  ( $= \Pi_m$ ) down to  $\Pi_{0, m}$  (a mere point), and all these are regular. In particular, since there is an  $(m-2)$ th vertex figure, 2.9 is relevant.

By 2.2, the vertex figure of a bounding figure of  $\Pi_m$  is a bounding figure of the vertex figure of  $\Pi_m$ . This principle enables us to prove by induction (through the series of vertex figures) that the bounding figures of a regular polytope are regular, thence that

\* Polytopes for which  $\Delta_{m-1, 1} = 0$  are “improper,” since they require  $\cos \theta_2 \cos \theta_{2,1} \cos \theta_{2,2} \dots = 0$ . For by 2.91,  $\Delta_{m-1, 1} = 0$  implies  $\sin \theta_{m-u, u} = 0$  for some  $u > 0$ , while, by 2.861,  $\sin \theta_{m-u, u} = 0$  ( $u > 0$ ) implies  $\cos \theta_{2, u-1} = 0$ .

† Cf. SCHLÄFLI, *loc. cit.*, § VI.

all the elements are regular, and finally that everything of the form  $\Pi_{p,u}$  (which can be regarded either as a  $p$ -dimensional element of  $\Pi_{m-u,u}$  or as the  $u$ th vertex figure of  $\Pi_{p+u}$ ) is regular.

**3.2.** We proceed to prove by induction that the elements  $\Pi_n$  of a regular polytope  $\Pi_m$  are equivalent. As a basis for the induction, we know that the vertices of the  $n$ th vertex figure of  $\Pi_m$  are equivalent (since the  $n$ th vertex figure is regular and, *a fortiori*, uniform). Now suppose that the elements  $\Pi_{n-1,1}$  of the vertex figure  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  are equivalent.

Take any two  $\Pi_n$ 's of  $\Pi_m$ . Since the vertices of  $\Pi_m$  are equivalent, there exists a symmetry which will change the first  $\Pi_n$  into another  $\Pi_n$  having one vertex (A, say) in common with the second  $\Pi_n$ . We thus obtain two  $\Pi_n$ 's with a common vertex A. By 2.2, their actual vertex figures at A are elements  $\Pi_{n-1,1}$  of the actual vertex figure of  $\Pi_m$  at A. But we are supposing the elements  $\Pi_{n-1,1}$  of  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  to be equivalent. Hence there exists a symmetry of  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$  which will change one of these two  $\Pi_{n-1,1}$ 's into the other. By the assumption in 2.4 (since the exceptional snub solids are not regular), this symmetry, regarded as leaving A invariant, is a symmetry of  $\Pi_m$ . As such, it must change one of the two  $\Pi_n$ 's at A into the other; for, otherwise,  $\Pi_m$  would possess two different  $\Pi_n$ 's having the vertex A and their vertex figure at A in common, which is absurd.

The combination or "product" of the two symmetries here described establishes the equivalence of the original (arbitrarily chosen) pair of  $\Pi_n$ 's, and hence the equivalence of all the  $\Pi_n$ 's. *A fortiori*, all the  $\Pi_n$ 's are equal. Thus we can speak of *the*  $\Pi_n$ , and so also of *the*  $\Pi_{n-u,u}$ .

Throughout 3.2, we have really assumed, concerning  $\Pi_m$ , nothing more than that its  $n$ th vertex figure is uniform. We can therefore assert the following more general theorem:

If  $\Pi_m$  has a  $u$ th vertex figure, then for all  $n$  (strictly) less than  $u$ ,

3.21 the  $\Pi_{n+2}$ 's are regular,

3.22 the  $\Pi_{n+1}$ 's are equal,

3.23 the  $\Pi_n$ 's are equivalent.

(3.21 follows from the uniformity of the  $n$ th vertex figure, which implies the regularity of  $\Pi_{2,n}$ . 3.22 follows from 3.21, since unequal  $\Pi_{n+1}$ 's would somewhere have to belong to the same  $\Pi_{n+2}$ .)

**3.3.** We shall next prove that the reciprocal of a regular polytope is regular. This is trivially true in one dimension. Suppose it true for every regular polytope in  $m - 1$  dimensions.

Consider any regular polytope  $\Pi_m$  in  $m$  dimensions, and let  $\Pi'_m$  be its reciprocal. The bounding figure of  $\Pi'_m$ , being (by 2.5) reciprocal to the (regular) vertex figure of

$\Pi_m$ , is regular (by hypothesis). Also, since equivalent elements reciprocate into equivalent elements (1.8), the vertices of  $\Pi'_m$ , which correspond to the bounding figures of  $\Pi_m$ , are equivalent (3.2). Hence  $\Pi'_m$  is uniform (1.7). Its vertex figure, being reciprocal to the bounding figure of  $\Pi_m$ , is regular. Hence  $\Pi'_m$  is regular (3.1).

3.31. Since the bounding figure of  $\Pi'_m$  is reciprocal to the vertex figure of  $\Pi_m$ , it follows (by induction) that the  $(m - u)$ -dimensional element of  $\Pi'_m$  is reciprocal to  $\Pi_{m-u, u}$ .

3.32. If  $\Pi_m$  is uniform and has an  $(n + 1)$ th vertex figure, so that its  $\Pi_{n+1}$ 's are equal (3.22) and regular (3.21), then  $\Pi'_n$  will always be taken to mean the vertex figure of the reciprocal of  $\Pi_{n+1}$ .  $\Pi'_n$  has thus a definite edge-length, instead of being merely the reciprocal of  $\Pi_n$  (irrespective of size).

3.4. SCHLÄFLI\* devised the following ingenious notation for regular polytopes. The regular polygon of  $k$  sides is called

$$\{k\}.$$

The regular polyhedron whose bounding figure and vertex figure are respectively

$$\{k_1\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{k_2\} \times$$

is called

$$\{k_1, k_2\};$$

and, generally, the regular polytope whose bounding figure and vertex figure are respectively

$$\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\} \times$$

is called

$$\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\}.$$

The occurrence of " $k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}$ ," in both the bounding figure and the vertex figure, is justified by the principle (3.1) that the vertex figure of the bounding figure is the bounding figure of the vertex figure.

If

$$3.41 \quad \Pi_m = \{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\},$$

it is easily seen that

$$3.42 \quad \Pi_s = \{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{s-2}, k_{s-1}\},$$

and

$$\Pi_{m-u, u} = \{k_{u+1}, k_{u+2}, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\} \times$$

3.43

$$\Pi_{s-u, u} = \{k_{u+1}, k_{u+2}, \dots, k_{s-2}, k_{s-1}\} \times.$$

In particular,

$$3.44 \quad \Pi_{2, u} = \{k_{u+1}\} \times.$$

Hence

$$3.45 \quad k_{u+1} = ({}^0|_{2, u}) = ({}^1|_{2, u}).$$

\* See the Preface. Actually SCHLÄFLI used round brackets instead of curly ones. The same notation (without brackets or commas) was employed by SOMMERVILLE, and by VAN OSS, 'Amsterdam Proceedings,' vol. 12, No. 1 (1915).

Since  $\Pi_{s-u,u}$  is the vertex figure of  $\Pi_{s-u+1,u-1}$ , the edge of  $\Pi_{s-u,u}$  must be the vertex figure of  $\Pi_{2,u-1}$ , i.e. of  $\{k_u\} \times$ . This edge is therefore (2.1) of length  $2 \cos \pi/k_u$ , and 3.43 becomes more precisely

$$3.46 \quad \Pi_{s-u,u} = \{k_{u+1}, k_{u+2}, \dots, k_{s-2}, k_{s-1}\} 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_u}.$$

In particular,

$$3.47 \quad \Pi_{m-1,1} = \{k_2, k_3, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\} 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_1}.$$

The vertex figure being thus definite, 2.3 shows that two different regular polytopes cannot have the same Schläfli symbol. But it is only for certain special values of the  $k$ 's that the polytope  $\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\}$  can exist at all. These special values will now be determined.

By the definition of  $\theta_{p,u}$  in 2.8,

$$3.48 \quad \theta_{2,u} = \frac{\pi}{k_{u+1}}.$$

Hence, by 2.95,  $\Delta_m$  is a function of the  $k$ 's. In particular—

$$3.49 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Delta_1 = 1, \\ \Delta_2 = \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_1}, \\ \Delta_3 = \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_1} - \cos^2 \frac{\pi}{k_2}, \\ \Delta_4 = \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_1} \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_3} - \cos^2 \frac{\pi}{k_2}, \\ \Delta_5 = \left( \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_1} - \cos^2 \frac{\pi}{k_2} \right) \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_4} - \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_1} \cos^2 \frac{\pi}{k_3}. \end{array} \right.$$

3.5. Supposing

$$k_u > 2$$

(since the “digon”  $\{2\}$ , which encloses no space, is not strictly a polytope according to 1.1), we shall enumerate all the regular polytopes which can be obtained from the following two *necessary* conditions:

$$3.51 \quad \{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\}$$

exist and are finite; and

$$3.52 \quad k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}$$

satisfy  $\Delta_m \geq 0$ . (By 2.93, the polytope is finite if  $\Delta_m > 0$ .)

It will appear later that these conditions are not only *necessary* but *sufficient*.



In one dimension, we admit  $\Pi_1$  by writing

$$\Pi_1 = \{ \}.$$

In two dimensions,  $\{k_1\}$  is admitted for all  $k_1$ , the *degenerate* polygon  $\{\infty\}$  being an infinite straight line broken into consecutive segments of unit length.

In three, four and five dimensions, we have :—

	<i>(Finite)</i>	<i>(Degenerate)</i>
$m = 3.$	$\{3, 3\}, \{3, 4\}, \{4, 3\}, \{3, 5\}, \{5, 3\}$	$\{4, 4\}, \{3, 6\}, \{6, 3\}$
$m = 4.$	$\{3, 3, 3\}, \{3, 3, 4\}, \{4, 3, 3\}, \{3, 3, 5\}, \{5, 3, 3\}, \{3, 4, 3\}$	$\{4, 3, 4\}$
$m = 5.$	$\{3, 3, 3, 3\}, \{3, 3, 3, 4\}, \{4, 3, 3, 3\}$	$\{4, 3, 3, 4\}, \{3, 3, 4, 3\}, \{3, 4, 3, 3\}$

Since  $\{3, 3, 3, 3\}$ ,  $\{3, 3, 3, 4\}$  and  $\{4, 3, 3, 3\}$  are the only finite regular polytopes in five dimensions, it follows by repeated application of 3.51 that the only remaining possibilities ( $m > 5$ ) are :—

$$3.53 \quad \begin{cases} \alpha_m = \{3, 3, \dots, 3, 3\}, \\ \beta_m = \{3, 3, \dots, 3, 4\}, \\ \gamma_m = \{4, 3, \dots, 3, 3\}, \\ \delta_m = \{4, 3, \dots, 3, 4\}. \end{cases}$$

These all satisfy

$$\Delta_m(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}) \geq 0.$$

For, we can prove (by induction, using 2.89 in the form

$$\Delta_1 = 1, \quad \Delta_2 = \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{k_1}, \quad \Delta_{u+1} = \Delta_u - \Delta_{u-1} \cos^2 \frac{\pi}{k_u})$$

that

$$\Delta_m(3, 3, \dots, 3, 3) = (m+1)/2^m,$$

$$\Delta_m(3, 3, \dots, 3, 4) = \Delta_m(4, 3, \dots, 3, 3) = 1/2^{m-1}$$

and

$$\Delta_m(4, 3, \dots, 3, 4) = 0.$$

Thus  $\alpha_m, \beta_m, \gamma_m$  are finite, while  $\delta_m$  is degenerate.

Actually,  $\alpha_m, \beta_m$  and  $\gamma_m$  are well known under the respective names “regular simplex,” “cross polytope” and “measure polytope.” In particular,

$\alpha_3 = \{3, 3\}$  is the regular tetrahedron,

$\beta_3 = \{3, 4\}$  is the octahedron,

$\gamma_3 = \{4, 3\}$  is the cube.

Also

$\delta_3 = \{4, 4\}$  is the “squared paper” pattern (1.5).

It follows at once from 3.53 that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha_m \text{ has bounding figure } \alpha_{m-1} \text{ and vertex figure } \alpha_{m-1}, \\ \beta_m \text{ ,, ,, ,, } \alpha_{m-1} \text{ ,, ,, ,, } \beta_{m-1}, \\ \gamma_m \text{ ,, ,, ,, } \gamma_{m-1} \text{ ,, ,, ,, } \alpha_{m-1} \sqrt{2}, \\ \delta_m \text{ ,, ,, ,, } \gamma_{m-1} \text{ ,, ,, ,, } \beta_{m-1} \sqrt{2}. \end{array} \right.$$

Using these facts to define  $\alpha_m, \beta_m, \gamma_m, \delta_m$  when  $m$  is small, we have successively :—

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_2 &= \{3\}, & \alpha_1 &= \{\} = \Pi_1 \text{ (unit length)}, & \alpha_0 &= \Pi_0, \\ \beta_2 &= \{4\}, & \beta_1 &= \alpha_1 \sqrt{2}, \\ \gamma_2 &= \beta_2, & \gamma_1 &= \alpha_1, & \gamma_0 &= \alpha_0, \\ \delta_2 &= \{\infty\}. \end{aligned}$$

Since the bounding figure and vertex figure of a regular polytope are reciprocal to the vertex figure and bounding figure of the reciprocal polytope, it is easily proved by induction that the polytopes

$$\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{k_{m-1}, k_{m-2}, \dots, k_2, k_1\}$$

are reciprocal. In particular,  $\beta_m$  and  $\gamma_m$  are reciprocal, while  $\alpha_m$  and  $\delta_m$  are each self-reciprocal.

With the meaning assigned in 3.32, we now have

$$3.54 \quad \Pi'_n = \{k_{n-1}, k_{n-2}, \dots, k_2, k_1\} 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_n}.$$

**3.6.** In order to prove that all these polytopes really exist, we shall specify Cartesian co-ordinates for all the vertices of each polytope (except the polygons, whose existence is obvious).

The notation here employed for co-ordinates is as follows :—

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

denotes the set of points obtained by permuting the  $x$ 's in every possible way.

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)'$$

denotes the set obtained by permuting them *evenly*. The sign of ambiguity ( $\pm$ ) placed before a bracket indicates that every co-ordinate within may have either sign.

$$(x_1, \dots, x_p; x_{p+1}, \dots, x_q; x_{q+1}, \dots)$$

denotes the set obtained by permuting  $x_1, \dots, x_p$  among themselves,  $x_{p+1}, \dots, x_q$  among themselves, and so on. In particular,  $(x_1; x_2; \dots)$  denotes a single point.

For degenerate polytopes, the co-ordinates are taken to be all integers (positive, zero and negative), arranged in every possible way, subject to whatever conditions are stated.

Sometimes (*e.g.*, in the case of  $\alpha_m \sqrt{2}$ ) it is convenient to employ  $m + 1$  co-ordinates with a constant sum (instead of simply  $m$  co-ordinates), in which case the polytope is to be regarded as lying in a prime of the  $(m + 1)$ -space.

$\tau$  always stands for the positive root of the equation  $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$ , so that

$$3.61 \quad \tau = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} + 1) = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \dots}}} \text{ ad inf.}$$

On comparison with 3.5, it is seen that the following list contains co-ordinates (sometimes in two alternative forms) for the vertices of *all* the regular polytopes ( $m > 2$ ).

$\alpha_m \sqrt{2}$	:	$(1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ ;	$m$ zeros.
$\beta_m \sqrt{2}$	:	$\pm (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ ;	$m - 1$ zeros.
$\gamma_m^2$	:	$\pm (1, 1, 1, \dots, 1)$ ;	$m$ ones.
$\delta_m$	:	$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1})$	(all integers).
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{3, 5\} 2^* \\ \{3, 5\} 2\tau^{-1} \end{array} \right.$	:	$\pm (\tau, 1, 0)'$	(cyclically permuted).
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{5, 3\} 2\tau^{-1*} \\ \{5, 3\} 4\tau^{-1} \end{array} \right.$	:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \pm (\tau, \tau^{-1}, 0)' \\ \pm (1, 1, 1) \end{array} \right\}$	(together).
$\{3, 6\} \sqrt{2}$	:	$(3, -1, -1, -1),$ $(\sqrt{5}, 1, -1, -\sqrt{5})',$ $(1, 1, 1, -3).$	
$\{3, 6\} \sqrt{2}$	:	$(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ ;	$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0.$
$\{6, 3\} \sqrt{2}$	:	$(1, 0, -1) \pmod{3}$ ;	$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0.$
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{3, 3, 5\} 2\tau^{-1}\dagger \\ \{3, 3, 5\} 2\sqrt{2}\tau^{-1} \end{array} \right.$	:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \pm (\tau, 1, \tau^{-1}, 0)', \\ \pm (2, 0, 0, 0), \\ \pm (1, 1, 1, 1). \end{array} \right.$	
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{3, 3, 5\} 2\tau^{-1}\dagger \\ \{3, 3, 5\} 2\sqrt{2}\tau^{-1} \end{array} \right.$	:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\tau^2, \tau^{-1}, \tau^{-1}, \tau^{-1}) \text{ (1 or 3 minuses),} \\ (\tau, \tau, \tau, \tau^{-2}) \text{ (1 or 3 minuses),} \\ (\sqrt{5}, 1, 1, 1) \text{ (0, 2 or 4 minuses),} \\ \pm (2, 2, 0, 0). \end{array} \right.$	

\* Cf. SCHOUTE's "Analytical treatment of the polytopes ..." (*loc. cit.* in Preface), § 123.

† *Ibid.*, § 160.

$$\begin{array}{l}
\{5, 3, 3\} 2\tau^{-2*} : \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \pm (2, \tau, 1, \tau^{-1})', \\ \pm (\tau, \sqrt{5}, \tau^{-1}, 0)', \\ \pm (\tau^2, 1, \tau^{-2}, 0)', \\ \pm (\tau^2, \tau^{-1}, \tau^{-1}, \tau^{-1}), \\ \pm (\tau, \tau, \tau, \tau^{-2}), \\ \pm (\sqrt{5}, 1, 1, 1), \\ \pm (2, 2, 0, 0). \end{array} \right. \\
\hline
\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{3, 4, 3\} \sqrt{2}^\dagger : \\ \{3, 4, 3\} 2^\dagger : \end{array} \right. : \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \pm (1, 1, 0, 0). \\ \pm (2, 0, 0, 0), \\ \pm (1, 1, 1, 1). \end{array} \right. \\
\hline
\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{3, 3, 4, 3\} \sqrt{2} : \\ \{3, 3, 4, 3\} 2 : \end{array} \right. : \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4); \quad x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0 \pmod{2}. \\ (0, 0, 0, 0) \pmod{2}, \\ (1, 1, 1, 1) \pmod{2}. \end{array} \right. \\
\hline
\{3, 4, 3, 3\} \sqrt{2} : (1, 1, 0, 0) \pmod{2}.
\end{array}$$

3.7. Let  $g_m$  be the order of the group of symmetries of a regular polytope  $\Pi_m$ , and  $g_{s-u, u}$  the corresponding property of  $\Pi_{s-u, u}$ . By 1.71,

$$g_0 = 1 \quad (\text{so that } g_{0, u} = 1)$$

and

$$g_1 = 2 \quad (\text{so that } g_{1, u} = 2).$$

By 2.41,

$$3.71 \quad ({}^0|m) = g_m/g_{m-1, 1}.$$

Similarly

$$({}^0|_s) = g_s/g_{s-1, 1} \quad \text{and} \quad ({}^0|_{m-s, s}) = g_{m-s, s}/g_{m-s-1, s+1}.$$

Hence, by 2.52,

$$\begin{aligned}
(g_s/g_m) ({}^s|m) &= (g_{s-1, 1}/g_{m-1, 1}) ({}^{s-1}|_{m-1, 1}) \\
&= \dots \\
&= (g_{0, s}/g_{m-s, s}) ({}^0|_{m-s, s}) = 1/g_{m-s-1, s+1}
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$3.72 \quad ({}^s|m) = g_m/g_s g_{m-s-1, s+1}.$$

\* *Ibid.*, § 160.

† *Ibid.*, § 144.

It follows that

$$({}^s|_p, u) = g_{p, u} / g_{s, u} g_{p-s-1, u+s+1}$$

and

$$({}^s|_n) = ({}^{s-r-1}|_{n-r-1, r+1}) = g_{n-r-1, r+1} / g_{s-r-1, r+1} g_{n-s-1, s+1}$$

Putting

$$3.73 \quad \overline{r, n} = g_{n-r-1, r+1} \quad (r \leq n),$$

so that

$$\overline{r, r+1} = 1, \quad \overline{r, r+2} = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{-1, n} = g_n,$$

we have simply

$$3.74 \quad ({}^s|_n) = \overline{r, n} / \overline{r, s} \overline{s, n}.$$

It will be found that 1.42 is satisfied identically. By 1.25,

$$\overline{r, r} = 1.$$

We therefore say

$$g_{-1} = 1 \quad (\text{and} \quad g_{-1, u} = 1).$$

By 2.64,

$$3.75 \quad g_m = ({}^0|m) ({}^0|_{m-1, 1}) ({}^0|_{m-2, 2}) \cdots ({}^0|_{1, m-1}).$$

Similarly, by 3.72 with  $s = m - 1$ ,

$$3.76 \quad \begin{aligned} g_m &= ({}^{m-1}|_m) g_{m-1} \\ &= ({}^{m-1}|_m) ({}^{m-2}|_{m-1}) ({}^{m-3}|_{m-2}) \cdots ({}^0|_1). \end{aligned}$$

By 1.8, reciprocal polytopes have the same  $g_m$ . Thus 3.75 and 3.76 are reciprocal formulæ.

It is interesting to note that the first few  $g$ 's are *rational* functions of the  $k$ 's (3.45), namely,

$$3.77 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} g_{-1} = 1, & \text{implying } g_{-1, u} = 1; \\ g_0 = 1, & \text{,, } g_{0, u} = 1; \\ g_1 = 2, & \text{,, } g_{1, u} = 2; \\ g_2 = 2k_1, & \text{,, } g_{2, u} = 2k_{u+1}; \\ g_3 = 4 / \left( \frac{1}{k_1} + \frac{1}{k_2} - \frac{1}{2} \right), & \text{,, } g_{3, u} = 4 / \left( \frac{1}{k_{u+1}} + \frac{1}{k_{u+2}} - \frac{1}{2} \right). \end{array} \right.$$

The value of  $g_3$  comes by substituting 3.72 in EULER's theorem

$$({}^0|_3) - ({}^1|_3) + ({}^2|_3) = 2.$$

The higher  $g$ 's are *transcendental* functions.

3.8. In practice, we count the number of vertices of a polytope (given by co-ordinates, as in 3.6), deduce  $g_m$  by means of 3.75, and thence  $(^s|m)$  by 3.72.

For  $\alpha_m$ ,  $(^0|m) = m + 1$ . So

$$g_m = (m + 1)!, \quad g_s = (s + 1)!, \quad g_{m-s-1, s+1} = (m - s)!$$

and

$$3.81 \quad (^s|m) = \binom{m+1}{s+1},$$

the elements being  $\alpha_s$ .

For  $\beta_m$ ,  $(^0|m) = 2m$ , so that  $g_m = 2^m m!$ ,  $g_{m-s-1, s+1} = 2^{m-s-1} (m - s - 1)!$  and (since, for  $s < m$ ,  $\Pi_s = \alpha_s$ ),  $g_s = (s + 1)!$ .

Thus

$$3.82 \quad (^s|m) = 2^{s+1} \binom{m}{s+1} \quad (s < m),$$

the elements being again  $\alpha_s$ .

$\gamma_m$  is reciprocal to  $\beta_m$ . So  $g_m = 2^m m!$  again, and

$$3.83 \quad (^s|m) = 2^{m-s} \binom{m}{s} \quad (s > -1),$$

the elements being  $\gamma_s$ .

The elements of  $\delta_m$  are all  $\gamma_s$ , the number at a vertex being equal to the number of  $\alpha_{s-1}$ 's in  $\beta_{m-1}$ , viz.,  $2^s \binom{m-1}{s}$ .

The results for the remaining finite polytopes are as follows:—

	$g_m$	$(^0 m)$	$(^1 m)$	$(^2 m)$	$(^3 m)$
$\{k\}$	$2k$	$k$	$k$		
$\{3, 5\}$	120	12	30	20	
$\{5, 3\}$	120	20	30	12	
$\{3, 3, 5\}$	14400	120	720	1200	600
$\{5, 3, 3\}$	14400	600	1200	720	120
$\{3, 4, 3\}$	1152	24	96	96	24

3.9. The values of the circum-radii of the regular polytopes follow directly from the co-ordinates of the vertices, or can be calculated by means of 2.93. The other radii,  ${}_n R_m$ , are then given by 2.73. For all *degenerate* polytopes,

$${}_n R_m = \infty.$$

For the *finite* polytopes, the values are as follows :—

	${}_0R_m$	${}_1R_m$	${}_2R_m$	${}_3R_m$	${}_nR_m$
$\alpha_m$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{1}{m+1}\right)}$				$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{m+1}\right)}$
$\beta_m$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$				$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{n+1}}$ [n < m]
$\gamma_m$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{m}$				$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{m-n}$ [n > -1]
{k}	$\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{cosec} \frac{\pi}{k}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{\pi}{k}$			
{3, 5}	$\frac{1}{2}5^{\frac{1}{2}}\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}\tau$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}\tau^2$		$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}\tau + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)}$ [n < 3]
{5, 3}	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\tau$	$\frac{1}{2}\tau^2$	$\frac{1}{2}5^{-\frac{1}{2}}\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}$		$\tau^2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}\tau - \frac{1}{\tau^3-n}\right)}$ [n > -1]
{3, 3, 5}	$\tau$	$\frac{1}{2}5^{\frac{1}{2}}\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}\tau^2$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}\tau^3$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left(\tau^3 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)}$ [n < 4]
{5, 3, 3}	$\sqrt{2}\tau^2$	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\tau^3$	$5^{-\frac{1}{2}}\tau^{\frac{1}{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}\tau^4$	$\tau^2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\left(\tau^3 - \frac{1}{\tau^3-n}\right)}$ [n > -1]
{3, 4, 3}	1	$\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}$	$\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$	

(By 3.61,

$$\begin{aligned} \tau &= \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} + 1), & \tau^2 &= \frac{1}{2}(3 + \sqrt{5}), & \tau^3 &= \sqrt{5} + 2, \\ \tau^4 &= \frac{1}{2}(7 + 3\sqrt{5}), & \tau^5 &= \frac{1}{2}(5\sqrt{5} + 11) \quad \text{and} & \tau^7 &= \frac{1}{2}(13\sqrt{5} + 29). \end{aligned}$$

#### 4. The Generalized Prism.

4.1. Let

$$(x_1, \dots, x_p), (x_{p+1}, \dots, x_q), (x_{q+1}, \dots, x_r), \text{ etc.},$$

be the vertices of certain finite polytopes

$$4.11 \quad \Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3}^{(3)}, \text{ etc.},$$

respectively. Then the new polytope whose vertices are

$$(x_1, \dots, x_p; x_{p+1}, \dots, x_q; x_{q+1}, \dots, x_r; \dots)$$

(in the notation of 3.6) is called the “prism” having the “constituents” 4.11. It is denoted by the symbol

$$4.12 \quad [\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3}^{(3)}, \dots].$$

4.2. The following properties are immediate :—

- 4.21. The prism is uniform if its constituents are uniform and of equal edge-length.  
 4.22. The order of the constituents is immaterial, and any constituents which are themselves prisms can be replaced by their own constituents.  
 4.23. Constituents  $\alpha_0$  can be omitted.  
 4.24. A number  $n$  of constituents  $\alpha_1 (= \gamma_1)$  can be replaced by  $\gamma_n$ .  
 4.25. Constituents  $\gamma_n, \gamma_{n'}, \gamma_{n''}, \dots$  can be replaced by  $\gamma_{n+n'+n''+\dots}$ .  
 4.26. A prism with only one constituent is that constituent itself.  
 4.27. The number of dimensions of the prism is the sum of the numbers of dimensions of the constituents.  
 4.28. The number of vertices is the product of the numbers of vertices of the constituents.  
 4.29. The square of the circum-radius is equal to the sum of the squares of the circum-radii of the constituents.

In symbols, 4.27, 4.28, 4.29 can be written :

$$4.27 \quad m = m_1 + m_2 + m_3 + \dots,$$

$$4.28 \quad ({}^0|m) = ({}^0|m_1^{(1)}) ({}^0|m_2^{(2)}) ({}^0|m_3^{(3)}) \dots,$$

$$4.29 \quad ({}_0R_m)^2 = ({}_0R_{m_1}^{(1)})^2 + ({}_0R_{m_2}^{(2)})^2 + ({}_0R_{m_3}^{(3)})^2 + \dots$$

4.3. It is also true that the  $m$ -dimensional content of the prism is equal to the product of the contents of the constituents ; and that the magnitude of the vertex angle, measured as a fraction of the total angle at a point in  $m$  dimensions, is equal to the product of the magnitudes of the vertex angles of the constituents.

These two theorems are respectively very easy and very hard to prove. Neither is required later, so the proofs are omitted.

4.4. As three-dimensional examples of the generalized prism ( $a, b, c, h$  being lengths) :

$$4.41 \quad [\alpha_1 a, \alpha_1 b, \alpha_1 c]$$

is the rectangular solid of edges  $a, b, c$  ; and

$$[\{k\}, \alpha_1 h]$$

is the right prism of height  $h$  on a regular  $k$ -gon (of side 1) as base. This right prism is uniform (“pure Archimedean”) if  $h = 1$ .



The four-dimensional uniform prism

$$[\{k\}, \{k'\}]$$

is bounded by  $k$   $\{\{k'\}, \alpha_1\}$ 's and  $k'$   $\{\{k\}, \alpha_1\}$ 's. It can be constructed as follows. Take the  $k$   $k'$ -gonal prisms  $[\{k'\}, \alpha_1]$  and place them base to base, bending them about the planes of the intermediate bases until the two extreme bases meet, the whole forming a kind of ring. Make an analogous ring by means of the  $k'$   $k$ -gonal prisms  $[\{k\}, \alpha_1]$ . Each of these rings has  $kk'$  untouched squares, and the complete polytope is made by interlocking the rings in such a way that the two sets of squares are brought into coincidence.

**4.5.** If a generalized prism is uniform (4.21), its vertex figure is obtained by taking the vertex figures of the constituents, in independent spaces, and joining every vertex of every one (of these vertex figures) to every vertex of every other, by lines of length  $\sqrt{2}$  (*i.e.*, by  $\beta_1$ 's); this construction being possible in  $m_1 + m_2 + m_3 + \dots - 1$  dimensions.

If the uniform prism has only two constituents,  $\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}$  and  $\Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}$ , we give its vertex figure the special symbol

$$(\Pi_{m_1-1,1}^{(1)} \text{---}_{\sqrt{2}} \Pi_{m_2-1,1}^{(2)}).$$

*e.g.*,

$$(\alpha_1 \text{---}_{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_0)$$

denotes the isosceles triangle, of sides 1,  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\sqrt{2}$ , which is the vertex figure of the triangular prism

$$[\alpha_2, \alpha_1].$$

**4.6.** The elements of the prism 4.12 consist of all possible prisms of the form

$$4.61 \quad [\Pi_{r_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{r_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{r_3}^{(3)}, \dots],$$

where  $\Pi_{r_1}^{(1)}$  is an element of  $\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}$ , and so on. By considering the number of ways in which the element 4.61 can occur, we find

$$4.62 \quad \binom{r}{m} = \sum_{r_1=0}^{m_1} \sum_{r_2=0}^{m_2} \sum_{r_3=0}^{m_3} \dots \binom{r_1}{m_1} \binom{r_2}{m_2} \binom{r_3}{m_3} \dots \binom{r_1+r_2+r_3+\dots}{r}.$$

(In verification of 1.22, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{r=0}^m (-1)^r \binom{r}{m} &= \sum_{r_1=0}^{m_1} \sum_{r_2=0}^{m_2} \sum_{r_3=0}^{m_3} \dots (-1)^{r_1+r_2+r_3+\dots} \binom{r_1}{m_1} \binom{r_2}{m_2} \binom{r_3}{m_3} \dots \\ &= \sum_{r_1=0}^{m_1} (-1)^{r_1} \binom{r_1}{m_1} \cdot \sum_{r_2=0}^{m_2} (-1)^{r_2} \binom{r_2}{m_2} \cdot \sum_{r_3=0}^{m_3} (-1)^{r_3} \binom{r_3}{m_3} \dots \\ &= 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \dots = 1.) \end{aligned}$$

In particular, the number of bounding figures is

$$4.63 \quad \binom{m-1}{m} = \binom{m_1-1}{m_1} + \binom{m_2-1}{m_2} + \binom{m_3-1}{m_3} + \dots;$$

the bounding figures being

$$4.64 \quad [\Pi_{m_1-1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3}^{(3)}, \dots], [\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2-1}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3}^{(3)}, \dots], [\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3-1}^{(3)}, \dots], \dots$$

4.7. Suppose the prism 4.12 to have been reduced (if necessary) in accordance with 4.24 and 4.25, so that not more than one constituent is a  $\gamma$ . Let  $g_{m_1}^{(1)}, g_{m_2}^{(2)}, g_{m_3}^{(3)}$ , etc., be the orders of the groups of symmetries of the constituents. Then the order of the group of symmetries of the prism is evidently

$$4.71 \quad g_m = \lambda g_{m_1}^{(1)} g_{m_2}^{(2)} g_{m_3}^{(3)} \dots;$$

where  $\lambda = 1$  if the constituents are all different, but  $\lambda = N! N'! \dots$  if  $N$  constituents are identical,  $N'$  others identical, and so on, since the identical constituents can be permuted among themselves.

For instance, if

$$4.72 \quad \begin{aligned} \Pi_{p+q} &= [\alpha_p, \alpha_q] & (p+q > 0^*), \\ g_{p+q} &= (1 + \varepsilon_{pq}) (p+1)! (q+1)! \end{aligned}$$

where

$$4.73 \quad \varepsilon_{pq} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \neq q, \\ 1 & \text{if } p = q. \end{cases}$$

4.8. Precisely as in 4.1, we can define the "degenerate prism"

$$4.81. \quad \Pi_{m+1} = [\Pi_{m_1+1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2+1}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3+1}^{(3)}, \dots]$$

whose constituents

$$\Pi_{m_1+1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2+1}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3+1}^{(3)}, \text{ etc.},$$

are *degenerate* polytopes.

4.21, 4.22 and 4.26 still apply; but 4.24, 4.25 and 4.27 must be replaced respectively by:—

4.82. A number  $n$  of constituents  $\delta_2$  can be replaced by  $\delta_{n+1}$ .

4.83. Constituents  $\delta_{n+1}, \delta_{n'+1}, \delta_{n''+1}, \dots$  can be replaced by  $\delta_{n+n'+n''+\dots+1}$ .

4.84. The number of dimensions of the space filled by the prism is the sum of the numbers of dimensions of the spaces filled by the constituents.

The description 4.5 of the vertex figure of a uniform prism still applies, except that the vertex figures of the constituents now lie in mutually perpendicular spaces (of  $m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots$  dimensions) *having a common point*, which point is the centre of each constituent's vertex figure; this construction being possible in  $m = m_1 + m_2 + m_3 + \dots$  dimensions.

4.9. The elements of the degenerate prism 4.81 consist of all possible (finite) prisms of the form 4.61, where now  $\Pi_{r_p}^{(p)}$  is an element of  $\Pi_{m_p+1}^{(p)}$  ( $r_p \leq m_p$ ). In particular, the bounding figures are of the form 4.12.

\* In order to cover the case  $p = 0 = q$ , 4.72 must be replaced by

$$g_{p+q} = (1 + \varepsilon_{pq} - \varepsilon_{p0\varepsilon_{q0}}) (p+1)! (q+1)! \\ 2 \text{ Z } 2$$

To take a simple example,

$$[\delta_2 a, \delta_2 b, \delta_2 c]$$

is the partition of three-dimensional space into rectangular solids 4.41. In particular (by 4.82 and 4.83)

$$[\delta_2, \delta_2, \delta_2] = [\delta_3, \delta_2] = \delta_4.$$

(“Prisms” whose constituents are partly finite and partly degenerate may be called “semi-degenerate,” but are uninteresting.)

### 5. Simple Truncation.

**5.1.** A polytope which consists of the portion of  $m$ -space common to two concentric and actually reciprocal regular polytopes ( $\Pi_m$  and  $\Pi'_m$ ) is called a “truncation” (of  $\Pi_m$  or  $\Pi'_m$ ). If the radius of reciprocation has the particular value  ${}_n R_m$ , so that the reciprocating sphere-analogue touches the  $n$ -dimensional elements of  $\Pi_m$  and (therefore) the  $(m - n - 1)$ -dimensional elements of  $\Pi'_m$ , the truncation is said to be “simple,” and is denoted by

$$5.11 \quad t_n \Pi_m \quad \text{or} \quad t_{m-n-1} \Pi'_m.$$

$t_n \Pi_m$  could have been defined simply as the polytope whose vertices are the centres of the  $\Pi_n$ 's of  $\Pi_m$ . But the mental picture of a fixed  $\Pi_m$  and a gradually diminishing reciprocal  $\Pi'_m$  is useful.

Genuine truncations are obtained for values of  $n$  from 0 to  $m - 1$ .

$$5.12 \quad t_0 \Pi_m = \Pi_m \quad \text{and} \quad t_{m-1} \Pi_m = \Pi'_m.$$

$t_m \Pi_m$  is merely a point, namely, the centre of  $\Pi_m$ . By 5.11,  $t_m \Pi_m$  is the same as  $t_{-1} \Pi'_m$ ; so we must take

$$t_{-1} \Pi_m$$

to mean the centre too.

As a familiar example of a truncation,  $t_1 \beta_3$  (or  $t_1 \gamma_3$ ) is the cuboctahedron. Still more simply

$$5.13 \quad t_1 \{k\} = \{k\}.$$

**5.2.** The properties of  $t_n \Pi_m$  are functions of the properties of  $\Pi_m$ , and will be distinguished from them by the suffix  $n$ , e.g.,  $({}^1 | m)_n$  means the number of edges of  $t_n \Pi_m$ .

It follows from the definition (5.1) that

$$5.21 \quad ({}^0 | m)_n = ({}^n | m).$$

Consider a fixed  $\Pi_m$  and a gradually shrinking reciprocal  $\Pi'_m$  (obtained by means of a gradually shrinking reciprocating sphere-analogue). While the radius of reciprocation is diminishing from the value  ${}_0 R_m$ ,  $\Pi_m$  has all its corners cut off and replaced by new

bounding figures similar to  $\Pi_{m-1,1}$ . These new bounding figures increase in size until the position corresponding to  $t_1 \Pi_m$  is reached. Then they too begin to be truncated, appearing as  $t_1 \Pi_{m-1,1}$ 's in  $t_2 \Pi_m$ . Thus it is clear that the bounding figures of  $t_n \Pi_m$  are of two kinds,

$$5.22 \quad t_n \Pi_{m-1} \quad \text{and} \quad t_{n-1} \Pi_{m-1,1},$$

corresponding respectively to the bounding figures and vertices of  $\Pi_m$ .

The  $(m-2)$ -dimensional elements of  $t_n \Pi_m$ , being the bounding figures of its bounding figures, must consequently be of the three kinds

$$t_n \Pi_{m-2}, \quad t_{n-1} \Pi_{m-2,1}, \quad t_{n-2} \Pi_{m-2,2}.$$

Similarly, or by induction, it is easy to see that all possible  $s$ -dimensional elements are of the form

$$5.23 \quad t_{n-u} \Pi_{s,u},$$

for a certain set of values of  $u$ .

In order that  $\Pi_{s,u}$  may have a meaning,

$$5.24 \quad 0 \leq u \leq m - s;$$

and in order that  $t_{n-u} \Pi_{s,u}$  may be a genuine truncation,

$$0 \leq n - u \leq s - 1,$$

*i.e.*,

$$5.25 \quad n - s + 1 \leq u \leq n.$$

The number of elements  $t_{n-u} \Pi_{s,u}$  for each  $u$ , is equal to the number of ways in which the figure  $\Pi_{s,u}$  can occur in  $\Pi_m$ . Now,  $\Pi_{s,u}$  is an  $s$ -dimensional element of  $\Pi_{m-u,u}$ , which, being the  $u$ th vertex figure of  $\Pi_m$ , indicates the form of the neighbourhood of an element  $\Pi_{u-1}$  (2.6). Hence  $\Pi_{m-u,u}$  occurs  $\binom{u-1}{m}$  times, and so  $\Pi_{s,u}$  must occur  $\binom{u-1}{m} \binom{s}{m-u,u}$  times.

Thus the total number of  $s$ -dimensional elements of  $t_n \Pi_m$  is

$$5.26 \quad \binom{s}{m}_n = \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{m} \binom{s}{m-u, u} \quad (s > 0)$$

where

$$\sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \text{ stands for } \sum_{u = \min.(m-s, n)}^{u = \max.(0, n-s+1)},$$

the typical element for each  $u$  being  $t_{n-u} \Pi_{s,u}$ .

Note that 5.26 does not include 5.21.

2.61 and 2.63 respectively enable 5.26 to be exhibited in two alternative forms :

$$5.27 \quad \binom{s}{m}_n = \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{m} \binom{s+u}{u-1}_m,$$

$$5.28 \quad \binom{s}{m}_n = \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{s+u} \binom{s+u}{m}.$$

By 5.21, applied to  $\sigma \equiv t_{n-u} \Pi_{s, u}$  ; for each  $u$ ,  $\binom{0}{s}_n = \binom{n-u}{s, u}$ .  
Hence, by 1.41 with  $r = 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{0}{m}_n \binom{s}{m}_n &= \sum_{\sigma} \binom{0}{s}_n \binom{s}{m}_n \\ &= \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{n-u}{s, u} \binom{u-1}{m} \binom{s}{m-u, u} \end{aligned} \quad (5.26)$$

$$= \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{m} \binom{n-u}{m-u, u} \binom{s}{m-u, u} \quad (1.41)$$

$$= \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{n} \binom{n}{m} \binom{s}{m-u, u} \quad (2.63)$$

$$= \binom{n}{m} \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{n} \binom{s+u}{n}_m. \quad (2.62)$$

Finally, using 5.21,

$$\binom{s}{m}_n = \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{n} \binom{s+u}{n}_m,$$

*i.e.*,

$$5.29 \quad \binom{s-1}{m-1, 1}_n = \sum_{0, n-s+1}^{m-s, n} \binom{u-1}{n} \binom{s+u-n-1}{m-n-1, n+1}.$$

**5.3.** Since  $\Pi_m$  and  $\Pi'_m$  have the same symmetries, these symmetries must belong also to  $t_n \Pi_m$ . The equivalence of the vertices of  $t_n \Pi_m$  therefore follows from the equivalence of the  $\Pi_n$ 's of  $\Pi_m$  (3.2). Since simple truncations are bounded by simple truncations, it is thus obvious (by induction) that  $t_n \Pi_m$  is uniform.

We now seek to justify the assumption that the vertex figure of  $t_n \Pi_m$  is

$$5.31 \quad [\Pi'_n, \Pi_{m-n-1, n+1}],$$

$\Pi'_n$  having the special meaning assigned in 3.32.

This is trivially true when  $n = 0$  or  $n = m - 1$ , and therefore when  $m = 2$ , so we have a basis for induction. Accordingly, we assume  $[\Pi'_n, \Pi_{s-n-1, n+1}]$  to be the vertex figure of  $t_n \Pi_s$  for  $0 \leq n < s < m$ , and consequently

$$5.32 \quad [\Pi'_{n-u, u}, \Pi_{s+u-n-1, n+1}]$$

to be the vertex figure of  $t_{n-u} \Pi_{s, u}$  for  $0 \leq n - u < s < m$ .

For each value of  $u$  satisfying 5.24 and 5.25, the vertex figure of  $t_n \Pi_m$  possesses, by 5.29,

$$\binom{u-1}{n} \binom{s+u-n-1}{m-n-1, n+1}$$

$(s-1)$ -dimensional elements 5.32. We have to show that these are precisely the  $(s-1)$ -dimensional elements of the prism 5.31.

By 4.61, the typical element of 5.31 is

$$5.33 \quad [\Pi'_{r_1, n-r_1}, \quad \Pi_{r_2, n+1}],$$

$\Pi'_{r_1, n-r_1}$  being (by 3.31, with  $n$  for  $m$  and  $n-r_1$  for  $u$ ) the  $r_1$ -dimensional element of  $\Pi'_n$ . Since the number of  $\Pi'_{r_1, n-r_1}$ 's in  $\Pi'_n$  is  $\binom{n-r_1-1}{n}$ ,\* while the number of  $\Pi_{r_2, n+1}$ 's in  $\Pi_{m-n-1, n+1}$  is  $\binom{r_2}{m-n-1, n+1}$ , it follows (by 4.62) that the number of  $(r_1+r_2)$ -dimensional elements 5.33 in 5.31 is

$$\binom{n-r_1-1}{n} \binom{r_2}{m-n-1, n+1},$$

where

$$5.34 \quad \begin{cases} 0 \leq r_1 \leq n, \\ 0 \leq r_2 \leq m-n-1. \end{cases}$$

We can identify the elements 5.32 and 5.33, and the number of times they occur, by putting

$$\begin{cases} r_1 = n-u, \\ r_2 = s+u-n-1. \end{cases}$$

The inequalities 5.34 then become

$$\begin{cases} 0 \leq u \leq n, \\ n-s+1 \leq u \leq m-s, \end{cases}$$

which are together equivalent to 5.24 and 5.25.

The argument, that 5.31 is consequently the vertex figure of  $t_n \Pi_m$ , (if not entirely justifiable, as assuming that the elements of such a prism cannot be re-arranged to form a new polytope,) appears convincing, especially as the vertex figure of  $t_n \Pi_m$  must possess the symmetries of both  $\Pi_n$  and  $\Pi_{m-n-1, n+1}$ .

Putting this result in terms of SCHLÄFLI symbols, the vertex figure of

$$t_n \{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\}$$

is

$$5.35 \quad \left[ \{k_{n-1}, k_{n-2}, \dots, k_2, k_1\} 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_n}, \quad \{k_{n+2}, k_{n+3}, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\} 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_{n+1}} \right].$$

(The two constituents of this prism are the vertex figures of

$$\{k_n, k_{n-1}, \dots, k_2, k_1\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{k_{n+1}, k_{n+2}, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\}$$

respectively.)

\* By 1.351 (with  $n$  for  $m$ ,  $r_1$  for  $s'$  and consequently  $n-r_1-1$  for  $s$ ), the number of  $(n-r_1-1)$ -dimensional elements of  $\Pi_n$  is the same as the number of  $r_1$ -dimensional elements of  $\Pi'_n$ .

5.4. Let  $O$  be the centre of a  $\Pi_{n+1}$  of  $\Pi_m$ ;  $Q$  the centre of a  $\Pi_{n-1}$  belonging to this  $\Pi_{n+1}$ ; and  $P, P'$  the centres of the two  $\Pi_n$ 's of the  $\Pi_{n+1}$  which meet at this  $\Pi_{n-1}$ . Let

$$(a)_n$$

be the edge-length of the actual truncation  $t_n \Pi_m$ . Then we have  $PP' = (a)_n$ ,  $OP = {}_n R_{n+1}$ ,  $OQ = {}_{n-1} R_{n+1}$ ,  $PQ = {}_{n-1} R_n$ , and  $OPQ$  is a right angle.

Hence

$$5.41 \quad (a)_n = 2 {}_{n-1} R_n {}_n R_{n+1} / {}_{n-1} R_{n+1}.$$

We shall in future regard  $t_n \Pi_m$  as having been magnified until its edge-length is unity.

Let  $({}_0 R_m)_n$  be the circum-radius of  $t_n \Pi_m$  (for unit edge). Then, since obviously

$$({}_0 R_m)_n (a)_n = {}_n R_m,$$

5.41 gives

$$5.42 \quad ({}_0 R_m)_n = {}_{n-1} R_{n+1} {}_n R_m / 2 {}_{n-1} R_n {}_n R_{n+1}.$$

5.5. The following simple truncations happen to be regular, as may be seen (by 4.25) from their vertex figures, here placed alongside:—

$$\begin{array}{l|l}
 t_1 \alpha_3 = \beta_3 & [\alpha_1, \alpha_1] = \beta_2 \\
 t_1 \delta_3 = \delta_3 & [\beta_1, \beta_1] = \beta_2 \sqrt{2} \\
 t_1 \beta_4 = t_2 \gamma_4 = \{3, 4, 3\} & [\alpha_1, \beta_2] = [\beta_2, \alpha_1] = \gamma_3 \\
 t_1 \{3, 3, 4, 3\} = t_2 \delta_5 = t_3 \{3, 4, 3, 3\} = \{3, 4, 3, 3\} & [\alpha_1, \gamma_3] = [\beta_2, \beta_2] = [\gamma_3, \alpha_1] = \gamma_4
 \end{array}$$

By 4.71, the order of the group of symmetries of the vertex figure 5.31 is

$$(g_{m-1, 1})_n = \lambda g_n g_{m-n-1, n+1},$$

where

$$\lambda = 1 \quad \text{in general,}$$

but

$$\lambda = 2 \quad \text{if } \Pi'_n = \Pi_{m-n-1, n+1}$$

(which implies

$$m = 2n + 1 \quad \text{and } \Pi'_m = \Pi_m).$$

Also

$$\lambda = \binom{m-1}{n} \quad \text{if } \Pi'_n = \gamma_n \alpha \quad \text{and } \Pi_{m-n-1, n+1} = \gamma_{m-n-1} \alpha$$

(which implies

$$\Pi_m = \{3, \dots, 3, 4, k_n, k_{n+1}, 4, 3, \dots, 3\} \quad \text{with} \quad k_n = k_{n+1},$$

since this case was excluded in formulating 4.71. Hence, by 2.41, 5.21 and 3.72, the order of the group of symmetries of  $t_n \Pi_m$  is

$$5.51 \quad (g_m)_n = \lambda g_m,$$

where

$$5.52 \quad \begin{cases} \lambda = 1 & \text{in general,} \\ \lambda = 2 & \text{for } t_n \alpha_{2n+1}, \\ \lambda = 3 & \text{for } t_1 \beta_4 = t_2 \gamma_4 (= \{3, 4, 3\}). \end{cases}$$

5.6. Here is a summary of the chief properties of the simple truncations (excluding those truncations which are regular):—

$\Pi_m$	$\Pi_{m-1,1}$	$(0 m)$	$g_m$	${}_0R_m$
$t_n \alpha_m$	$[\alpha_n, \alpha_{m-n-1}]$	$\binom{m+1}{n+1}$	$(1 + \varepsilon_m(2n+1))(m+1)!$	$\sqrt{\frac{(m-n)(n+1)}{2(m+1)}}$
$t_n \beta_m$	$[\alpha_n, \beta_{m-n-1}]$	$2^{n+1} \binom{m}{n+1}$	$2^m m!$	$\sqrt{\frac{n+1}{2}} \quad (n < m-1)$
$t_n \gamma_m$	$[\beta_n, \alpha_{m-n-1}]$	$2^{m-n} \binom{m}{n}$	$2^m m!$	$\sqrt{\frac{m-n}{2}} \quad (n > 0)$
$t_n \delta_m$	$[\beta_n, \beta_{m-n-1}]$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
$t_1 \{3, 5\} = t_1 \{5, 3\}$	$[\alpha_1 \tau, \alpha_1]$	30	120	$\tau$
$t_1 \{3, 6\} = t_1 \{6, 3\}$	$[\alpha_1 \sqrt{3}, \alpha_1]$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
$t_1 \{3, 3, 5\} = t_2 \{5, 3, 3\}$	$[\{5\}, \alpha_1]$	720	14400	$5^{\frac{1}{2}} \tau^{\frac{3}{2}}$
$t_1 \{5, 3, 3\} = t_2 \{3, 3, 5\}$	$[\alpha_2, \alpha_1 \tau]$	1200	14400	$\sqrt{3} \tau^2$
$t_1 \{3, 4, 3\} = t_2 \{3, 4, 3\}$	$[\alpha_2 \sqrt{2}, \alpha_1]$	96	1152	$\sqrt{3}$
$t_1 \{3, 4, 3, 3\} = t_3 \{3, 3, 4, 3\}$	$[\alpha_3 \sqrt{2}, \alpha_1]$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
$t_2 \{3, 3, 4, 3\} = t_2 \{3, 4, 3, 3\}$	$[\alpha_2 \sqrt{2}, \alpha_2]$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$

5.7. Let

$$(1^p, 0^q)$$

stand for

$$(1, \dots, 1, 0, \dots, 0) \quad \text{with } p \text{ ones and } q \text{ zeros.}$$

If  $p > 0$  and  $q > 0$ , the  $(\binom{p+q}{p})$  points

$$(1^p, 0^q)$$

are the vertices of  $t_{p-1} \alpha_{p+q-1} \sqrt{2} (= t_{q-1} \alpha_{p+q-1} \sqrt{2})$ . For, of these points, those nearest to  $(1^p; 0^q)$  are  $(1^{p-1}, 0; 1, 0^{q-1})$ , namely the vertices of  $[\alpha_{p-1}, \alpha_{q-1}] \sqrt{3}$ .





$$t_1 \{5, 3, 3\} 2\tau^{-2*} : \begin{cases} \pm (2\tau, 2\tau^{-1}, 0, 0) & (48 \text{ points}), \\ \pm (2, 2, 2, 0) & (32 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (3, 1, 1, 1) & (64 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (\sqrt{5}, \sqrt{5}, 1, 1) & (96 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (3, \tau, \tau^{-1}, 0)' & (96 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (\tau^2, \sqrt{5}, \tau^{-2}, 0)' & (96 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (\tau^2, 2, 1, \tau^{-2})' & (192 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (\sqrt{5}, 2, \tau, \tau^{-1})' & (192 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (2\tau, 1, \tau^{-1}, \tau^{-2})' & (192 \text{ ,, ,}), \\ \pm (\tau^2, \tau, 2\tau^{-1}, 1)' & (192 \text{ ,, ,}), \end{cases}$$


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$$(1200).$$

$$t_1 \{3, 4, 3\} \sqrt{2}^\dagger : \pm (2, 1, 1, 0).$$

$$t_1 \{3, 4, 3, 3\} \sqrt{2} : (2, \pm 1, \pm 1, 0) \pmod{4}.$$

$$t_2 \{3, 3, 4, 3\} 2 : \begin{cases} (\pm 2, \pm 2, \pm 2, 0) \pmod{6}, \\ (\pm 3, \pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1) \pmod{6}. \end{cases}$$

5.8. The general theory of truncation can be extended to the case where  $\Pi_m$ , though not regular, has a  $u$ th vertex figure,  $u$  being greater than  $n$ . For in this case, by 3.23, the  $\Pi_n$ 's are still equivalent, besides being regular and equal. We now define

$$t_n \Pi_m$$

as having for vertices the centres of these  $\Pi_n$ 's. Just as in 5.3, we can show that  $t_n \Pi_m$  is uniform, its vertex figure being

$$[\Pi'_n, \Pi_{m-n-1, n+1}].$$

Formulæ 5.42 and 5.21 continue to apply; and so does 5.28, provided we allow  $t_{n-u} \Pi_{s,u}$  to take several forms (for the same value of  $u$ ) corresponding to the various kinds of  $\Pi_{s+u}$  which may occur in  $\Pi_m$ .

5.9. By 4.21 and 5.35,  $t_1 t_n \{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\}$  exists if  $k_n = k_{n+1}$ , and then its vertex figure is found to be

$$\left[ \left( \{k_{n-2}, k_{n-3}, \dots, k_2, k_1\} 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_{n-1}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \{k_{n+3}, k_{n+4}, \dots, k_{m-2}, k_{m-1}\} 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_{n+2}} \right), \alpha_1 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{k_n} \right],$$

\* *Ibid.*, § 160.

† *Ibid.*, § 144.

in the notation of 4.5.\* Except in the trivial case of

$$t_1 t_1 \delta_3 = t_1 \delta_3 = \delta_3,$$

it always happens that  $k_n = 3$ . The actual cases are tabulated below :

$\Pi_m$ .	$\Pi_{m-1,1}$ .	$({}^0 m)$ .	${}_0R_m \dagger$
$t_1 t_n \alpha_m$	$[(\alpha_{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_{m-n-2}), \alpha_1]$	$\binom{m+1}{2} \binom{m-1}{n}$	$\sqrt{\left(1 + 2n - \frac{2(n+1)^2}{m+1}\right)}$
$t_1 t_n \beta_m \quad (n < m - 2)$	$[(\alpha_{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \beta_{m-n-2}), \alpha_1]$	$2^{n+2} \binom{m}{2} \binom{m-2}{n}$	$\sqrt{2n+1}$
$t_1 t_n \gamma_m \quad (n > 1)$	$[(\beta_{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_{m-n-2}), \alpha_1]$	$2^{m-n+1} \binom{m}{2} \binom{m-2}{n-1}$	$\sqrt{2m - 2n - 1}$
$t_1 t_n \delta_m \quad (1 < n < m - 2)$	$[(\beta_{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \beta_{m-n-2}), \alpha_1]$	$\infty$	$\infty$
$t_1 t_1 \{3, 3, 5\}$	$[(\alpha_1 \tau \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_0), \alpha_1]$	3600	$\sqrt{19 + 8\sqrt{5}}$

### 6. $h\gamma_m$ and $h\delta_m$ , $\alpha_m h$ and $ex_m$ .

6.1. In order to establish the uniformity of a polytope whose vertices are a given set of points in  $m$  dimensions, we have to prove :—

- (i) That the points are equivalent.
- (ii) That those points which are nearest to a particular point A (of the set) are sufficient to determine an  $(m - 1)$ -dimensional polytope.
- (iii) That the vertices of a typical bounding figure of each kind (*i.e.*, one typical bounding figure from every set which are known to be equivalent among themselves) of this  $(m - 1)$ -dimensional polytope, along with the point A and certain other points of the original set, are the complete set of vertices of some uniform  $(m - 1)$ -dimensional polytope.

This practical rule will be applied to special cases in the present chapter, and in chapter 9.

6.2. It is well known that the vertices of the cube ( $\gamma_3$ ) are also the vertices of two concentric tetrahedra ( $\alpha_3 \sqrt{2}$ ). It is almost equally obvious that the vertices of  $\gamma_4$  are also the vertices of two concentric  $\beta_4 \sqrt{2}$ 's. We accordingly write

$$h\gamma_4 = \beta_4,$$

$$h\gamma_3 = \alpha_3,$$

and seek a generalization,  $h\gamma_m$  (short for “hemi- $\gamma_m$ ”).

\* Thus  $t_1 t_n \Pi_m$  exists if  $\Pi_{1,n} = \Pi_{1,n+1}$ , and then its vertex figure is  $[(\Pi'_{n-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \Pi_{m-n-2, n+2}), \Pi_{1,n}]$ .

† Since  $k_n = 3$ , this is simply  $\sqrt{4({}_0R_m)_n^2 - 1}$ ,  $({}_0R_m)_n$  being given in the last column of 5.6.

In considering groups of symmetries, we have to suppose  $h\gamma_2 = \{2\}$  (the “digon”). For all other purposes, we drop a dimension and say

$$h\gamma_2 = \alpha_1.$$

Similarly

$$h\gamma_1 = \alpha_0.$$

In the notation of 5.7, the  $\sum_0^m \binom{m}{r} = 2^m$  points

$$6.21 \quad (1^r, 0^{m-r}); \quad r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m,$$

are the vertices of  $\gamma_m$ , since they can be obtained from  $\pm(1^m)$  by adding 1 to every co-ordinate and then halving throughout.

We define

$$h\gamma_m \sqrt{2}$$

as having for vertices half these points, namely the  $2^{m-1}$  points

$$6.22 \quad (1^{2r}, 0^{m-2r}); \quad r = 0, 1, \dots, \left[ \frac{m}{2} \right],$$

where, as usual,  $\left[ \frac{m}{2} \right]$  means “the greatest integer not greater than  $\frac{m}{2}$ .”

Applying the rule 6.1, we have :—

(i) These  $2^{m-1}$  points are equivalent, since the operation of subtracting two of the co-ordinates from unity, while leaving the set of points unchanged as a whole, changes, after a sufficient number of applications, any point of the set into any other.

(ii) Taking the typical point A to be  $(1^0, 0^m)$  or  $(0, 0, \dots, 0, 0)$ , the nearest points (distant  $\sqrt{2}$ ) are  $(1^2, 0^{m-2})$ , namely the vertices of  $t_1\alpha_{m-1}\sqrt{2}$ .

(iii)  $t_1\alpha_{m-1}\sqrt{2}$  has just two kinds of bounding figures :

$$\begin{cases} t_1\alpha_{m-2}\sqrt{2}, & \text{with vertices } (1^2, 0^{m-3}; 0), \\ \alpha_{m-2}\sqrt{2}, & \text{,, ,, } (1; 1, 0^{m-2}). \end{cases}$$

These points, along with A, occur among the vertices of

$$\begin{cases} h\gamma_{m-1}\sqrt{2}: & (1^{2r}, 0^{m-2r-1}; 0); \quad r = 0, 1, \dots, \left[ \frac{m-1}{2} \right], \\ \alpha_{m-1}\sqrt{2}: & (0^m), \quad (1; 1, 0^{m-2}), \end{cases}$$

respectively. But  $h\gamma_3$  is uniform. Hence, by induction,  $h\gamma_m$  is uniform; its vertex figure being

$$t_1\alpha_{m-1}.$$

By subtracting *one* of the co-ordinates from unity, it is clear that the rest of the points 6.21, namely

$$6.23 \quad (1^{2r+1}, 0^{m-2r-1}); \quad r = 0, 1, \dots \left[ \frac{m-1}{2} \right],$$

are the vertices of the complementary  $h\gamma_m\sqrt{2}$ .

6.3. By 3.81 and 5.28, the numerical properties of  $t_1\alpha_{m-1}$  are

$(0 m-1)$	$(1 m-1)$	$(s-1 m-1) \quad (s > 2)$
$\binom{m}{2}$	$3 \binom{m}{3}$	$\binom{m}{s} + (s+1) \binom{m}{s+1}$
		$t_1\alpha_{s-1} \quad   \quad \alpha_{s-1}$

The properties of  $h\gamma_m$  can now be deduced by means of 2.52, since we know that

$$(0|m) = 2^{m-1}.$$

Making “ $(s-1|m-1, 1)$ ” refer to  $t_1\alpha_{m-1}$ , the results are as follows:—

$(0 m)$	$(1 m)$	$(2 m)$	$(s m) \quad (s > 2)$
$2^{m-1}$	$2^{m-2} \binom{m}{2}$	$2^{m-1} \binom{m}{3}$	$2^{m-s} \binom{m}{s} + 2^{m-1} \binom{m}{s+1}$
		$\alpha_2$	$h\gamma_s \quad   \quad \alpha_s$

Putting  $s = m - 1$ , we see that (if  $m > 3$ )  $h\gamma_m$  is bounded by

$$2m \ h\gamma_{m-1}'s \quad \text{and} \quad 2^{m-1} \ \alpha_{m-1}'s.$$

On referring to the co-ordinates, it is found that the centres of the bounding  $h\gamma_{m-1}$ 's and of the bounding  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's are the vertices of  $\beta_m \times$  and  $h\gamma_m \times$  respectively. This is a particular case of the phenomenon called “semi-reciprocation,” explained in the next chapter (7.8).

6.4. By 3.9, the circum-radius of  $\gamma_m$  (and therefore of  $h\gamma_m\sqrt{2}$ ) is  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{m}$ . Hence that of  $h\gamma_m$  must be

$${}_0R_m = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{m}{2}}.$$

The order of the group of symmetries is given by 2.41 and 5.6 :

$$\begin{aligned} g_m &= 2^{m-1} \cdot (1 + \varepsilon_{(m-1)3}) m! \\ &= (1 + \varepsilon_{m4}) 2^{m-1} m!. \end{aligned}$$

Except when  $m = 4$ , this order is, as we should expect, half that of  $\gamma_m$ .

6.5. The vertices of  $\delta_m$  are (by 3.6) the points

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1})$$

whose co-ordinates are every possible set of  $m - 1$  integers. These points fall into

two categories, according as their co-ordinates have an even or odd sum. The points in either category are the vertices of a degenerate polytope called

$$h\delta_m \sqrt{2}.$$

Let us apply 6.1 to the former set—

$$6.51 \quad (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m-1}); \quad x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_{m-1} = 0 \pmod{2}.$$

(i) These points are equivalent, by means of the operation of adding 1 to each of two co-ordinates.

(ii) Taking A at the origin ( $0^{m-1}$ ), the nearest points are  $\pm (1^2, 0^{m-3})$ , namely the vertices of  $t_1\beta_{m-1} \sqrt{2}$ .

(iii)  $t_1\beta_{m-1} \sqrt{2}$  has two kinds of bounding figures :

$$\begin{cases} t_1\alpha_{m-2} \sqrt{2}, & \text{with vertices } (1^2, 0^{m-3}), \\ \beta_{m-2} \sqrt{2}, & \text{with vertices } (1; \pm 1, 0^{m-3}). \end{cases}$$

These points, along with A, occur among the vertices of

$$\begin{cases} h\gamma_{m-1} \sqrt{2} : (1^{2r}, 0^{m-2r-1}); \quad r = 0, 1, \dots, \left[ \frac{m-1}{2} \right], \\ \beta_{m-1} \sqrt{2} : (0^{m-1}), (1; \pm 1, 0^{m-3}), (2; 0^{m-2}), \end{cases}$$

respectively. Hence  $h\delta_m$  is uniform; its vertex figure being

$$t_1\beta_{m-1}.$$

6.6. Since, by 5.5,  $t_1\beta_4 = \{3, 4, 3\}$ , it follows that

$$h\delta_5 = \{3, 3, 4, 3\}.$$

Note also

$$\begin{cases} h\delta_3 = \delta_3, \\ h\delta_2 = \delta_2 \sqrt{2}. \end{cases}$$

$h\delta_4$  (the system of tetrahedra and octahedra filling three-dimensional space) is (by 1.9) “super-Archimedean,” as also are

$$\begin{cases} t_1\beta_3 & \text{(the cuboctahedron, vertex figure of } h\delta_4), \\ t_1\{3, 5\} & \text{(the icosidodecahedron),} \\ t_1\{3, 6\} & \text{(the system of triangles and hexagons, two and two at each vertex,} \\ & \text{filling a plane).} \end{cases}$$

Since  $t_1\beta_{m-1}$  is bounded by  $2^{m-1}$   $t_1\alpha_{m-2}$ 's and  $2(m-1)$   $\beta_{m-2}$ 's, it follows that  $h\delta_m$  has  $2^{m-1}$   $h\gamma_{m-1}$ 's and  $2(m-1)$   $\beta_{m-1}$ 's meeting at each vertex. On referring to the co-ordinates, it is found that the centres of the  $h\gamma_{m-1}$ 's and of the  $\beta_{m-1}$ 's are the vertices of  $\delta_m \times$  and  $h\delta_m$  respectively.

6.7. Since  $h\gamma_m$  and  $h\delta_m$  have uniform *second* vertex figures ( $[\alpha_1, \alpha_{m-3}]$  and  $[\alpha_1, \beta_{m-3}]$  respectively), it follows from 5.8 that they each have *two* simple truncations.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} t_1 h\gamma_m & \text{has vertex figure } [\alpha_1, \alpha_1, \alpha_{m-3}] = [\beta_2, \alpha_{m-3}], \\ t_2 h\gamma_m & \text{,, ,, } [\alpha_2, (\alpha_0 \frac{\alpha_{m-4}}{\sqrt{2}})], \\ t_1 h\delta_m & \text{,, ,, } [\alpha_1, \alpha_1, \beta_{m-3}] = [\beta_2, \beta_{m-3}], \\ t_2 h\delta_m & \text{,, ,, } [\alpha_2, (\alpha_0 \frac{\beta_{m-4}}{\sqrt{2}})]. \end{array} \right.$$

On comparing with 5.6, we thus find that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} t_1 h\gamma_m = t_2 \gamma_m, \\ t_1 h\delta_m = t_2 \delta_m. \end{array} \right.$$

6.8. Let

$$\alpha_m h \sqrt{2} \quad (\text{“} \alpha_m\text{-hedroid”})$$

denote the section of  $\delta_{m+2}$  or of  $h\delta_{m+2} \sqrt{2}$  by the  $m$ -space

$$x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_m + x_{m+1} = 0,$$

that is, the degenerate  $(m+1)$ -dimensional polytope whose vertices are the points

$$6.81 \quad (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{m+1}); \quad x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_{m+1} = 0.$$

Of these points, those nearest to (*i.e.*, distant  $\sqrt{2}$  from) the typical point  $(0^{m+1})$  are

$$6.82 \quad (1, 0^{m-1}, -1).$$

The  $m$ -dimensional polytope whose vertices are the  $m(m+1)$  points 6.82 will be called

$$e\alpha_m \sqrt{2} \quad (\text{“ expanded } \alpha_m \text{”}).$$

Of these points, those nearest to  $(1; 0^{m-1}; -1)$  are

$$(0; 1, 0^{m-2}; -1) \quad \text{and} \quad (1; 0^{m-2}, -1; 0),$$

namely the vertices of an  $(m-1)$ -dimensional polytope which may be described as an “antiprism” on  $\alpha_{m-2} \sqrt{2}$  as base. This antiprism (when reduced in linear dimensions by  $1 : \sqrt{2}$ ) is denoted by

$$6.83 \quad (\alpha_{m-2} \frac{\alpha_{m-2}}{\sqrt{2}}).$$

It is bounded by two  $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's, reciprocally situated in parallel  $(m-2)$ -spaces, together with  $\binom{m-1}{n}$   $(\alpha_{n-1} \frac{\alpha_{m-n-2}}{\sqrt{2}})$ 's each joining an  $\alpha_{n-1}$  of the first  $\alpha_{m-2}$  to the reciprocally corresponding  $\alpha_{m-n-2}$  of the second, for all relevant values of  $n$ .

By considering the points

$$6.84 \quad (1, 0^n; 0^{m-n-1}, -1),$$

we see that  $e\alpha_m$  is bounded by  $\binom{m+1}{n+1}$  prisms  $[\alpha_n, \alpha_{m-n-1}]$ , for all values of  $n$  from 0 to  $m-1$ . Therefore  $e\alpha_m$  is uniform, its vertex figure being the antiprism 6.83.

Hence also the  $(s-1)$ -dimensional elements of  $e\alpha_m$  consist of  $\binom{m+1}{s+1} \binom{s+1}{n+1}$  prisms  $[\alpha_n, \alpha_{s-n-1}]$ , for all values of  $n$  from 0 to  $s-1$ .

Now, the vertices 6.84 of a typical bounding figure of the  $e\alpha_m \sqrt{2}$  (vertices 6.82) occur, along with  $(0^{m+1})$ , among the points

$$(1^r, 0^{n-r+1}; 0^{m-n-r}, -1^r); \quad r = 0, 1, \dots, \min. (n+1, m-n).$$

These points are seen to be the vertices of the  $t_n\alpha_m \sqrt{2}$  obtained from  $(1^{n+1}, 0^{m-n})$  by subtracting 1 from each of the first  $n+1$  co-ordinates and then reversing all the signs. It follows by 6.1 that  $\alpha_m h$  is uniform. The vertex figure of  $\alpha_m h$  is  $e\alpha_m$ , and its bounding figures consist of all the simple truncations of  $\alpha_m$ , each vertex being surrounded by

$$\binom{m+1}{n+1} t_n\alpha_m \text{'s} \quad (0 \leq n \leq m-1).$$

Also the  $s$ -dimensional elements of  $\alpha_m h$  at one vertex consist of

$$\binom{m+1}{s+1} \binom{s+1}{n+1} t_n\alpha_s \text{'s} \quad (0 \leq n \leq s-1).$$

The figure obtained by drawing sphere-analogues (of unit diameter) with centres at all the vertices of  $\alpha_m h$ , seems to represent the closest possible packing of an infinity of rigid sphere-analogues in  $m$  dimensions. (The three-dimensional case is known as "normal piling.") The number of sphere-analogues which touch a given one is thus  $m(m+1)$ , the number of vertices of  $e\alpha_m$ .

Since  $\alpha_m h$  possesses a second vertex figure, it has (by 5.8) a truncation

$$t_1\alpha_m h,$$

bounded by  $e\alpha_m$ 's and  $t_1 t_n\alpha_m$ 's, whose vertex figure is

$$[\alpha_1, (\alpha_{m-2} \sqrt{2} \alpha_{m-2})].$$

**6.9.**  $e\alpha_m$  can be constructed as follows.\* Take  $\alpha_m$  (supposed of unit edge), and move all its bounding  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's symmetrically away from its centre, each through a distance equal to the circum-radius of  $\alpha_m$ . Two  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's which were originally adjacent are now separated to such an extent that their bounding  $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's, one of each, which originally coincided, now appear in parallel  $(m-2)$ -spaces at unit distance apart. These two  $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's can be connected by a prism  $[\alpha_{m-2}, \alpha_1]$ . The new polytope is still not completely

\* This construction is due to MRS. BOOLE STOTT (see Preface). The "e" of  $e\alpha_m$  is short for her " $e_{m-1}$ ."



bounded until we have inserted prisms  $[\alpha_{m-3}, \alpha_2], \dots [\alpha_1, \alpha_{m-2}]$ , and finally  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's (corresponding to the old vertices).

Since the same  $e\alpha_m$  can be constructed from the reciprocal  $\alpha_m$ ,  $e\alpha_m$  has twice as many symmetries as  $\alpha_m$ . Thus

$$g_m = 2(m+1)! \quad (m > 1).$$

This result can also be obtained by 2.41; since

$$({}^0|m) = m(m+1),$$

while the antiprism 6.83 possesses the  $(m-1)!$  symmetries of  $\alpha_{m-2}$  combined with the reflection in its own centre.

Note the following particular cases:—

$$\begin{array}{l|l} e\alpha_3 = t_1\beta_3, & \alpha_3h = h\delta_4, \\ e\alpha_2 = \{6\}, & \alpha_2h = \{3, 6\}, \\ e\alpha_1 = \beta_1\sqrt{2}, & \alpha_1h = \delta_2. \end{array}$$

#### 7. $\Pi_r^{+u}$ and $n_{pq}$ .

7.1. Let

$$\Pi_r^{+1}$$

denote the uniform  $(r+1)$ -dimensional polytope (if such exists) whose vertex figure is a given (finite) polytope  $\Pi_r$ , and

$$\Pi_r^{+u}$$

the uniform  $(r+u)$ -dimensional polytope (if there is one) whose vertex figure is  $\Pi_r^{+u-1}$ .

It follows from this definition, that the  $n$ th vertex figure of  $\Pi_r^{+u}$  is

7.11

$$\Pi_r^{+u-n},$$

$\Pi_r^{+0}$  being the same as  $\Pi_r$ .

The particular cases when  $\Pi_r$  is regular are as follows:—

$$\begin{array}{l|l} (\alpha_1 2 \cos \pi/k)^{+1} = \{k\}, & (\alpha_1 \sqrt{3})^{+2} = \{3, 6\}, \\ \alpha_r^{+u} = \alpha_{r+u}, & (\alpha_2 \sqrt{3})^{+1} = \{6, 3\}, \\ \beta_r^{+u} = \beta_{r+u}, & (\alpha_1 \tau)^{+3} = \{3, 3, 5\}, \\ (\alpha_r \sqrt{2})^{+1} = \gamma_{r+1}, & (\alpha_3 \tau)^{+1} = \{5, 3, 3\}, \\ (\beta_r \sqrt{2})^{+1} = \delta_{r+1}, & (\alpha_2 \sqrt{2})^{+2} = \gamma_3^{+1} = \{3, 4, 3\}, \\ (\alpha_1 \tau)^{+2} = \{3, 5\}, & (\alpha_2 \sqrt{2})^{+3} = \gamma_3^{+2} = \{3, 3, 4, 3\}, \\ (\alpha_2 \tau)^{+1} = \{5, 3\}, & (\alpha_3 \sqrt{2})^{+2} = \gamma_4^{+1} = \{3, 4, 3, 3\}. \end{array}$$

Note that  $(\alpha_r a)^{+u}$  and  $(\alpha_u a)^{+r}$  are reciprocal.

As a further example of the notation,  $(e\alpha_m)^{+1} = \alpha_m h$ .

Assuming  $\Pi_r^{+1}$  to have (by definition) unit edges  $(\alpha_1)$ , we can assert that every  $u$ -dimensional element of  $\Pi_r^{+u}$  is

$$\Pi_0^{+u} = (\Pi_0^{+1})^{+u-1} = (\alpha_1)^{+u-1} = \alpha_u.$$

Making the convention that

$$7.12 \quad \Pi_{n-u}^{+u} = \alpha_n \quad \text{if } n < u,$$

it follows that every  $n$ -dimensional element of  $\Pi_r^{+u}$  is of the form

$$7.13 \quad \Pi_{n-u}^{+u}.$$

In particular, the bounding figures are of the form  $\Pi_{r-1}^{+u}$ .

**7.2.** In 5.8 we remarked that  $\Pi_m$  has an  $n$ th truncation if it has an  $(n+1)$ th vertex figure. This condition is satisfied if  $\Pi_m = \Pi_r^{+n+1}$ , since then  $\Pi_{m-n-1, n+1} = \Pi_r$ .

By 5.31, the vertex figure of  $t_n \Pi_r^{+n+1}$  is  $[(\Pi_{-1}^{+n+1})', \Pi_r]$ , i.e.,  $[\alpha_n, \Pi_r]$ . Thus we may write

$$7.21 \quad t_n \Pi_r^{+n+1} = [\alpha_n, \Pi_r]^{+1}.$$

By 3.9 and 4.29, the squared circum-radius of  $[\alpha_n, \Pi_r]$  is

$$\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) + ({}_0R_r)^2.$$

Hence, by 2.84,  $\Pi_r^{+n+1}$  cannot exist if

$$\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) + ({}_0R_r)^2 > 1,$$

i.e., if

$$7.22 \quad 1 + \frac{1}{n+1} < 2 ({}_0R_r)^2.$$

By 2.83, it can only be degenerate in the critical case when

$$1 + \frac{1}{n+1} = 2 ({}_0R_r)^2,$$

since then  $[\alpha_n, \Pi_r]$  must have unit circum-radius.

The inequality 7.22 can alternatively be obtained as follows. By 2.83 and 2.81,

$${}_0R_m = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{x-1} \right)} \quad \text{if } {}_0R_{m-1, 1} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{x'} \right)}.$$

\* Meaning  $t_n (\Pi_r^{+n+1})$  and not  $(t_n \Pi_r)^{+n+1}$ .

Hence, if  $\Pi_r$  has circum-radius  ${}_0R_r = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}$ ,

then  $\Pi_r^{+u}$  has circum-radius  $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x-u}\right)}$ ,

which is imaginary if  $x < u < x + 1$ .

So  $\Pi_r^{+u}$  is impossible if  $x < u$ ,\*

*i.e.*, if  $1 + \frac{1}{u} < 2({}_0R_r)^2$ .

It is degenerate in the case of equality, because its circum-radius is then infinite.

**7.3.** The main object of this paper is to examine all polytopes of the form

$$[\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}]^{+u},$$

the constituents being regular. With these are intimately associated the polytopes of the form

$$7.31 \quad [\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3}^{(3)}]^{+1}.$$

But  $[\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3}^{(3)}]^{+2}$  and  $[\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}, \Pi_{m_3}^{(3)}, \Pi_{m_4}^{(4)}]^{+1}$  never occur; because  $[\alpha_2, \alpha_2, \alpha_1]^{+1}$  and  $[\alpha_2, \alpha_2, \alpha_2, \alpha_1]$  have circum-radii  $\sqrt{3}$  and  $\sqrt{\frac{5}{4}}$  respectively, while *a fortiori* more complicated would-be vertex figures have circum-radii exceeding unity.

It is easily verified that the only possible polytopes of the form

$$[\Pi_{m_1}^{(1)}, \Pi_{m_2}^{(2)}]^{+1},$$

with the existence-condition (by 2.84 and 4.29)

$$({}_0R_{m_1}^{(1)})^2 + ({}_0R_{m_2}^{(2)})^2 \leq 1,$$

\* For, if  $u \geq x + 1$ ,

let  $y = [u - x]$ .

Then  $u - x \geq y > u - x - 1$ ,

*i.e.*,  $x \leq u - y < x + 1$ .

Hence  $\Pi_r^{+u-y}$  is degenerate or impossible.

But  $y \geq 1$ .

Therefore  $\Pi_r^{+u}$  is still impossible.

are the simple truncations of the regular polytopes, namely :—

$$\begin{aligned} [\alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+1} &= t_p \alpha_{p+q+1} = t_q \alpha_{p+q+1}, \\ [\alpha_p, \beta_q]^{+1} &= t_p \beta_{p+q+1} = t_q \gamma_{p+q+1}, \\ [\beta_p, \beta_q]^{+1} &= t_p \delta_{p+q+1} = t_q \delta_{p+q+1}, \\ [\alpha_p, \alpha_q \sqrt{2}]^{+1} &= t_p \gamma_{q+1}^{+p} = t_q \gamma_{p+2}^{+q-1} \quad \left( \frac{1}{p+1} + \frac{2}{q+1} \geq 1 \right), \\ [\alpha_p, (\alpha_1 \tau)^{+u}]^{+1} &= t_p (\alpha_1 \tau)^{+p+u+1} = t_{u+1} (\alpha_{p+u+1} \tau)^{+1} \quad (p+u \leq 2^*), \\ [\alpha_1, \alpha_1 \sqrt{3}]^{+1} &= t_1 (\alpha_1 \sqrt{3})^{+2} = t_1 (\alpha_2 \sqrt{3})^{+1}. \end{aligned}$$

All these, except  $[\beta_p, \beta_q]^{+1}$ , are particular cases of

$$[\alpha_p, \Pi_q]^{+1} = t_p \Pi_q^{+p+1},$$

which is the same as 7.21.

By 5.6, the only truncations with circum-radii  $\leq 1$  are :

$$[\alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+1} \quad \text{with} \quad \frac{1}{p+1} + \frac{1}{q+1} \geq \frac{1}{2},$$

and

$$[\alpha_1, \beta_q]^{+1}.$$

Now

$$[\alpha_1, \beta_q]^{+2} = (t_1 \beta_{q+2})^{+1} = h \delta_{q+3}$$

is degenerate, and so cannot be a vertex figure.

We are thus naturally led to consider all possible polytopes of the special form

$$[\alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+u},$$

or more conveniently

$$[\alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+n+1},$$

for which, by 7.22, the existence-condition is

$$1 + \frac{1}{n+1} \geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{p+1}\right) + \left(1 - \frac{1}{q+1}\right),$$

i.e.,

$$7.32 \quad \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{p+1} + \frac{1}{q+1} \geq 1$$

(equality indicating degeneracy).

\* The circum-radius of  $\alpha_1 \tau$  being  $\frac{1}{2} \tau = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\tau}\right)}$ ,

that of  $(\alpha_1 \tau)^{+u}$  must be

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\tau - u}\right)}.$$

So  $(\alpha_1 \tau)^{+u}$  is impossible if

$$u > 2\tau;$$

and  $[\alpha_p, (\alpha_1 \tau)^{+u}]^{+1}$ , if

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p+1}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\tau - u}\right) > 1,$$

i.e., if

$$p + u > 2\tau - 1 (= \sqrt{5}).$$

The symmetrical character of this condition suggests the new notation

$$7.33 \quad n_{pq} = [\alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+n+1},$$

the  $p$  and  $q$  being of course interchangeable, so that

$$7.34 \quad n_{pq} = n_{qp}.$$

Putting  $[\alpha_p, \alpha_q]$  for  $\Pi_r$  in 7.21, we obtain the identity

$$7.35 \quad t_n n_{pq} = [\alpha_n, \alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+1},$$

from which it follows that

$$7.36 \quad t_n n_{pq} = t_p p_{qn} = t_q q_{np}.$$

Three polytopes,  $n_{pq}$ ,  $p_{qn}$ ,  $q_{np}$ , which are related in this manner, are said to be “semi-reciprocals” of one another.

7.4. The following are the special cases of 7.33 so far discussed :

$$7.41 \quad (-1)_{pq} = [\alpha_p, \alpha_q],$$

$$7.42 \quad 0_{pq} = t_p \alpha_{p+q+1}, \quad p_{q0} = \alpha_{p+q+1}, \quad q_{0p} = \alpha_{p+q+1},$$

$$7.43 \quad n_{11} = \beta_{n+3}, \quad 1_{1n} = h\gamma_{n+3}, \quad 1_{n1} = h\gamma_{n+3}.$$

To these might (by analogy) be added

$$(-2)_{pq} = (\alpha_{p-1} \sqrt{\alpha_{q-1}}).$$

The only remaining possibilities, according to 7.32, are :—

7.45

	$2_{21}$		$1_{22}$
$3_{21}$		$2_{31}$	$1_{32}$
$4_{21}$		$2_{41}$	$1_{42}$
$5_{21}$		$2_{51}$	$1_{52}$
	$3_{31}$		$1_{33}$
		$2_{22}$	

The existence of these fourteen polytopes remains to be established (in chapter 9). But let us first investigate their properties on the assumption that they do exist. Note that the last six of them satisfy the degeneracy-condition

$$7.46 \quad \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{p+1} + \frac{1}{q+1} = 1.$$

7.5. By 7.11, the  $u$ th vertex figure of

$$\begin{array}{c} n_{pq} \\ \text{is} \\ (n - u)_{pq}. \end{array}$$

The *elements* of  $n_{pq}$  fall into two categories: those of  $\leq n$  dimensions, which are all  $\alpha$ 's (simplexes) by 7.12; and those of  $> n$  dimensions, which, by 7.13, are all of the form

$$\begin{array}{c} n_{p'q'} \\ \text{where} \\ 0 \leq p' \leq p \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq q' \leq q. \end{array}$$

In spite of 7.34, it is useful to fix the order of the suffixes, so as to distinguish between equal elements which are of different type. Thus, if  $p > q \geq r > s \geq 0$ , we say  $n_{pq}$  has elements  $n_{rs}$  of two different types,

$$n_{rs} \quad \text{and} \quad n_{sr}.$$

If  $s > 0$ , an element of type  $n_{r(s-1)}$  belongs to an element of type  $n_{rs}$ , but cannot belong to one of type  $n_{sr}$ , since  $r > s$ .

We can prove by induction, proceeding as in 3.2, that all elements of the same type are equivalent, this being obvious when  $n = -1$ . Equal elements of different type are not equivalent, unless  $p = q$ ; and even then it is worth while to preserve the distinction, such elements being (like the faces  $0_{10}$  and  $0_{01}$  of the octahedron  $0_{11}$ ) uniquely divisible into two congruent sets.

7.6. Let

$$[n \ p \ q]$$

denote the number of vertices of  $[\alpha_n, \alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+1}$ . (Its value is thus independent of the order in which  $n, p, q$  occur.) By 7.35, it is also the number of  $\alpha_n$ 's in  $n_{pq}$ , so that (by 7.41)

$$7.61 \quad [(-1) \ p \ q] = 1.$$

By 7.42 and 7.43 respectively,

$$7.62 \quad [0 \ p \ q] = \binom{p+q+2}{p+1}$$

and

$$7.63 \quad [n \ 1 \ 1] = 2^{n+1} \binom{n+3}{2} = 2^n (n+2)(n+3),$$

Also, by 7.46,

$$7.64 \quad [5 \ 2 \ 1] = [3 \ 3 \ 1] = [2 \ 2 \ 2] = \infty.$$

Thus the only cases which still await calculation are

$$7.65 \quad [2 \ 2 \ 1], \quad [3 \ 2 \ 1], \quad [4 \ 2 \ 1].$$

(These numbers will be found, by means of indeterminate equations, in the next chapter, 8.7.)

7.7. Applying 2.63 (with  $n$  for  $s$ ) to  $n_{pq}$ , for which

$$7.71 \quad m = n + p + q + 1,$$

we have

$$({}^{u-1}|_m) [(n-u)pq] = \binom{n+1}{u} [n p q].$$

So the number of  $\alpha_{u-1}$ 's of the first category (7.5) is

$$({}^{u-1}|_m) = \binom{n+1}{u} \frac{[n p q]}{[(n-u)pq]} \quad (0 \leq u \leq n+1).$$

More symmetrically, the number of  $\alpha_{n-n'-1}$ 's is

$$7.72 \quad ({}^{n-n'-1}|_m) = \binom{n+1}{n'+1} \frac{[n p q]}{[n' p q]} \quad (-1 \leq n' \leq n).$$

Again, putting  $n + p' + q' + 1$  for  $s$  and  $n + 1$  for  $u$  in 2.63,

$$[n p q] \cdot \binom{p+1}{p'+1} \binom{q+1}{q'+1} = [n p' q'] ({}^{n+p'+q'+1}|_m).$$

So the number of elements of type

$$n_{p'q'}$$

is

$$7.73 \quad ({}^{n+p'+q'+1}|_m) = \binom{p+1}{p'+1} \binom{q+1}{q'+1} \frac{[n p q]}{[n p' q']} \quad (0 \leq p' \leq p, \quad 0 \leq q' \leq q).$$

Putting  $n' = n - 1$  in 7.72, the number of vertices of  $n_{pq}$  is

$$7.74 \quad ({}^0|_m) = (n+1) \frac{[n p q]}{[(n-1)pq]}.$$

Again, putting  $p' = p - 1$ ,  $q' = q$ , and then  $p' = p$ ,  $q' = q - 1$ , in 7.73, the number of bounding figures

$$7.75 \quad n_{(p-1)q} \quad \text{and} \quad n_{p(q-1)}$$

is

$$7.76 \quad ({}^{m-1}|_m) = (p+1) \frac{[n p q]}{[n(p-1)q]} + (q+1) \frac{[n p q]}{[n p(q-1)]}.$$

7.74 and 7.76 reveal the interesting fact that the numbers of vertices and of bounding figures of the two types, take the same values (in different order) for three semi-reciprocal polytopes. This fact naturally suggests, as a theorem worthy of consideration, that the centres of the bounding figures of  $n_{pq}$  are the vertices of polytopes similar to  $p_{qn}$  and  $q_{np}$ . Another way of saying this, is that the reciprocal of  $n_{pq}$  has the vertices of  $p_{qn} \times$  and  $q_{np} \times$ ; hence the name "semi-reciprocal." This fails when  $pq = 0$ , because

$n_{0q}$  ( $= \alpha_{q+n+1}$ ) has only one type of bounding figure. But the theorem can hold even in this case, if we make the convention

$$7.77 \quad n_{(-1)q} = \alpha_n$$

(which agrees with 7.36, 7.42, 7.61, 7.72 and 7.74, though violating 7.71), and re-enunciate it in the following form.

**7.8.** *The centres of the  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$  are the vertices of  $p_{qn} \times$ .*

Let this theorem (which we shall prove) be denoted by

$$(n, p, q).$$

In the first place, the particular cases

$$(0, p, q), \quad (n, 0, q), \quad (n, p, 0)$$

are obvious, since they state respectively, that

7.81 the centres of the  $t_{p-1} \alpha_{p+q}$ 's of  $t_p \alpha_{p+q+1}$  are the vertices of  $\alpha_{p+q+1} \times$ ,

7.82 the centres of the  $\alpha_n$ 's of  $\alpha_{q+n+1}$  are the vertices of  $t_n \alpha_{q+n+1} \times$ ,

7.83 the centres of the  $\alpha_{n+p}$ 's of  $\alpha_{n+p+1}$  are the vertices of  $\alpha_{n+p+1} \times$ .

(7.81 is true by 5.22, 7.82 by the definition of truncation, and 7.83 by reciprocation.)

From now on, therefore, we shall suppose

$$n > 0, \quad p > 0, \quad q > 0.$$

By the principle of induction, it will be sufficient to deduce  $(n, p, q)$  from the theorems

$$(n', p', q')$$

in which  $0 \leq n' \leq n$ ,  $0 \leq p' \leq p$ ,  $0 \leq q' \leq q$ , but  $n' + p' + q' < n + p + q$ .

For the purposes of the proof, we actually hypothesize

$$7.84 \quad \begin{cases} (n-1, p, q), & (n, p-1, q), & (n, p, q-1), & (n-1, p, q-1), \\ (n-2, p, q) \text{ (if } n > 1) & \text{and} & (n, p, q-2) \text{ (if } q > 1). \end{cases}$$

Two bounding figures (of given types) of  $n_{pq}$  are said to be "adjacent" if their contact is the closest possible.

$n_{(p-1)q}$  and  $n_{p(q-1)}$  (two bounding figures of different type) are adjacent if, and only if, they have a common  $n_{(p-1)(q-1)}$ . For,  $n_{(p-1)(q-1)}$  occurs as a bounding figure both of  $n_{(p-1)q}$  and of  $n_{p(q-1)}$ ; while  $n_{(p-2)q}$ , the other type of bounding figure of  $n_{(p-1)q}$ , cannot belong to  $n_{p(q-1)}$ , nor  $n_{p(q-2)}$  to  $n_{(p-1)q}$ . Further, since all elements of type



$n_{(p-1)(q-1)}$  are equivalent, every  $n_{(p-1)(q-1)}$  of  $n_{pq}$  belongs just to one  $n_{(p-1)q}$  and to one  $n_{p(q-1)}$ .

We shall now prove that the common element of two adjacent  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's (bounding figures of the same type) is  $n_{(p-2)q}$ . This is obvious when  $p > 1$ ; since  $n_{(p-2)q}$  is a bounding figure of  $n_{(p-1)q}$ , whereas  $n_{(p-1)(q-1)}$  cannot belong to two  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's. When  $p = 1$ , what we have to prove is that the common element of two adjacent  $\alpha_{q+n+1}$ 's of  $n_{1q}$  is  $\alpha_n$ . Now, the  $(n+1)$ th vertex figure of  $n_{1q}$  is  $[\alpha_1, \alpha_q]$ , which has two bounding  $\alpha_q$ 's. But the  $(n+1)$ th vertex figure always indicates the incidences at an  $n$ -dimensional element. Hence just two bounding  $\alpha_{q+n+1}$ 's of  $n_{1q}$  meet at every  $\alpha_n$ . (These two  $\alpha_{q+n+1}$ 's must be adjacent, since the two  $\alpha_q$ 's of  $[\alpha_1, \alpha_q]$  are trivially adjacent.) Thus the common element of two adjacent  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$  is  $n_{(p-2)q}$ , even if  $p = 1$ . Similarly, the common element of two adjacent  $n_{p(q-1)}$ 's is  $n_{p(q-2)}$ . Let  $\Pi$  denote the polytope whose vertices are the centres of all the  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$ . It has the same number of vertices as  $p_{qn}$ : we have to prove that it is  $p_{qn} \times$ .

Let us investigate those vertices of  $\Pi$  which are the centres of certain special sets of  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$ . To take the simplest possible set, it is clear that the centres of two adjacent  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's are two consecutive vertices of  $\Pi$  (i.e., two vertices joined by an edge).

Those  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's which are adjacent to a given  $n_{p(q-1)}$  meet the latter in its  $n_{(p-1)(q-1)}$ 's. Hence the centres of these  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's are the vertices of a polytope similar to that whose vertices are the centres of the  $n_{(p-1)(q-1)}$ 's of  $n_{p(q-1)}$ . By  $(n, p, q-1)$ , this polytope is

$$7.85 \quad p_{(q-1)n} \times.$$

Again, the centres of those  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's which meet at a given vertex of  $n_{pq}$  are the vertices of a polytope similar to that whose vertices are the centres of the bounding  $(n-1)_{(p-1)q}$ 's of the vertex figure  $(n-1)_{pq}$ . By  $(n-1, p, q)$ , this polytope is

$$7.86 \quad p_{q(n-1)} \times.$$

From the manner in which they were determined, the  $p_{(q-1)n} \times$  and  $p_{q(n-1)} \times$ , whose vertices are the centres of these two special sets of  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$ , are bounding figures of  $\Pi$ . In order to show that such figures completely bound  $\Pi$ , we must examine the bounding  $p_{(q-2)n} \times$ 's and  $p_{(q-1)(n-1)} \times$ 's of 7.85 and the bounding  $p_{(q-1)(n-1)} \times$ 's and  $p_{q(n-2)} \times$ 's of 7.86. If  $q = 1$  or  $n = 1$ , bounding  $p_{(q-2)n} \times$ 's or  $p_{q(n-2)} \times$ 's (respectively) do not occur.

The centres of those  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$  which are adjacent to a given  $n_{p(q-1)}$  and also occur at a given vertex of this  $n_{p(q-1)}$ , are the vertices of a polytope similar to that whose vertices are the centres of the bounding  $(n-1)_{(p-1)(q-1)}$ 's of  $(n-1)_{p(q-1)}$ . By  $(n-1, p, q-1)$ , this polytope is  $p_{(q-1)(n-1)} \times$ . From the manner of its construction, such a polytope occurs  $(n+1) \frac{[np(q-1)]}{[(n-1)p(q-1)]}$  times as a bounding figure of 7.85

(viz., once for every vertex of  $n_{p(q-1)}$ ), and  $(q+1) \frac{[(n-1)pq]}{[(n-1)p(q-1)]}$  times as a bounding figure of 7.86 (viz., once for every  $n_{p(q-1)}$  at a vertex of  $n_{pq}$ ). Thus every  $p_{(q-1)(n-1)} \times$  which belongs to a  $p_{(q-1)n} \times$  or  $p_{q(n-1)} \times$  of  $\Pi$  belongs also to a  $p_{q(n-1)} \times$  or  $p_{(q-1)n} \times$  respectively.

If  $q > 1$ , those  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$  which are adjacent to both of two given adjacent  $n_{p(q-1)}$ 's, meet the common  $n_{p(q-2)}$  of these  $n_{p(q-1)}$ 's in its  $n_{(p-1)(q-2)}$ 's. Hence the centres of these  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's are the vertices of a polytope similar to that whose vertices are the centres of the  $n_{(p-1)(q-2)}$ 's of  $n_{p(q-2)}$ . By  $(n, p, q-2)$ , this polytope is  $p_{(q-2)n} \times$ .

From the manner of its construction, such a polytope occurs  $q \frac{[np(q-1)]}{[np(q-2)]}$  times as a bounding figure of 7.85 (viz., once for every  $n_{p(q-2)}$  of  $n_{p(q-1)}$ ). Thus every  $p_{(q-2)n} \times$  which belongs to a  $p_{(q-1)n} \times$  of  $\Pi$  belongs also to another  $p_{(q-1)n} \times$ .

Again, if  $n > 1$ , the centres of those  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$  which occur at a given edge, are the vertices of a polytope similar to that whose vertices are the centres of the bounding  $(n-2)_{(p-1)q}$ 's of the second vertex figure  $(n-2)_{pq}$ . By  $(n-2, p, q)$ , this polytope is  $p_{q(n-2)} \times$ . From the manner of its construction, such a polytope occurs  $n \frac{[(n-1)pq]}{[(n-2)pq]}$  times as a bounding figure of 7.86 (viz., once for every edge at a vertex of  $n_{pq}$ ). Thus every  $p_{q(n-2)} \times$  which belongs to a  $p_{q(n-1)} \times$  of  $\Pi$  belongs also to another  $p_{q(n-1)} \times$ .

We have now proved that  $\Pi$  is completely bounded by the aforesaid  $p_{(q-1)n} \times$ 's and  $p_{q(n-1)} \times$ 's. Also, the vertices of  $\Pi$  are, like the  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$ , equivalent. Hence (by 1.7)  $\Pi$  is uniform. In order to identify it with  $p_{qn} \times$ , we have only to prove that its vertex figure is

$$(p-1)_{qn}.$$

In order to do this, consider those  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$  which are adjacent to a given  $n_{(p-1)q}$ . These  $n_{(p-1)q}$ 's meet the given  $n_{(p-1)q}$  in its  $n_{(p-2)q}$ 's. Hence their centres are the vertices of a polytope similar to that whose vertices are the centres of the  $n_{(p-2)q}$ 's of  $n_{(p-1)q}$ . By  $(n, p-1, q)$ , this polytope is  $(p-1)_{qn} \times$ .

Thus the vertex figure of  $\Pi$  is  $(p-1)_{qn} \times$ . But this vertex figure must be bounded by  $(p-1)_{(q-1)n}$ 's and  $(p-1)_{q(n-1)}$ 's, these being the vertex figures of  $p_{(q-1)n} \times$  and  $p_{q(n-1)} \times$  respectively. Hence the vertex figure of  $\Pi$  is precisely  $(p-1)_{qn}$ , and so  $\Pi = p_{qn} \times$ .

Since  $(0, p, q)$ ,  $(n, 0, q)$  and  $(n, p, 0)$  are all true, while  $(n, p, q)$  can be deduced from 7.84, it follows by induction that  $(n, p, q)$  is true for all relevant values of  $n, p, q$  (i.e., whenever  $n_{pq}$  exists).

This "semi-reciprocation theorem," as it may be called, is only a particular case of a more general theorem, to the effect that *the centres of the  $n_{p'q}$ 's of  $n_{pq}$  are the vertices of  $t_{p-p'-1} p_{qn} \times$ .*

7.9. Let  $g_m$  be the order of the group of symmetries of  $n_{pq}$ , so that  $g_{m-1,1}$  is the order of the group of symmetries of  $(n-1)_{pq}$ . We shall prove that, if  $p+q > 0$ ,\*

$$7.91 \quad g_m = (1 + \varepsilon_{pq})(n+1)!(p+1)!(q+1)![n p q].$$

This is true when  $n = -1$ , since it becomes 4.72. Also, it can be deduced from

$$g_{m-1,1} = (1 + \varepsilon_{pq})n!(p+1)!(q+1)![(n-1)pq]$$

by means of 2.41 and 7.74.

Hence it is true, by induction.

For the purposes of group-theory, the violation of 7.71 is a fatal defect of the convention 7.77, which must apply only when  $q = 0$ . When  $n$  and  $q$  are both positive, it is convenient to assume

$$7.92 \quad n_{(-1)q} = \{3, \dots, 3, 2, 3, \dots, 3\}$$

with  $n-1$  threes at the beginning and  $q-1$  threes at the end. "Improper" regular polytopes like this, whose SCHLÄFLI symbols contain the number 2, are found to have zero content, and are therefore most conveniently regarded as partitions of (the boundary of) a sphere-analogue. When so regarded, they become perfectly analogous to the central projection of a proper finite regular polytope on a concentric sphere-analogue. The simplest example is the "digon"

$$1_{(-1)1},$$

which can be regarded as the partition of (the circumference of) a circle into two semi-circles.

According to the new convention 7.92, the elements of  $n_{(-1)q}$  consist of

$$\binom{s}{m} = \binom{n+1}{s+1} \alpha_s' s, \quad \text{for } s \leq n-1,$$

and

$$\binom{n+q'}{m} = \binom{q+1}{q'+1} n_{(-1)q'} s, \quad \text{for } 0 \leq q' \leq q.$$

The chief disadvantage of this convention is that it makes  $\binom{n}{m} = q+1$ , in disagreement with  $[n(-1)q] = 1$  (7.61). (This happens because the  $n$ -dimensional elements now belong to the *second* category; instead of the *first*, as in 7.5.)

Note that  $n_{(-1)q}$  and  $q_{(-1)n}$  are reciprocal.

## 8. The Pure Archimedean Series.

8.1. We shall now investigate certain special cases of the polytope  $n_{pq}$ , with a view to evaluating the numbers 7.65.

\* As in 4.72, the  $\varepsilon_{pq}$  has to be omitted if  $p$  and  $q$  both vanish. In order to cover this exceptional case, 7.91 may be written in the form

$$g_m = (1 + \varepsilon_{pq} - \varepsilon_{p0} \varepsilon_{q0})(n+1)!(p+1)!(q+1)![n p q].$$

The  $\Pi_{m-3}$ 's ( $n_{00} = \alpha_{n+1}$ ) of  $n_{21}$  are all equivalent (7.5). So also are the  $\Pi_{m-4}$ 's ( $n_{00} = \alpha_{n+1}$ ) of  $n_{31}$ , and the  $\Pi_{m-3}$ 's ( $n_{10} = \alpha_{n+2} = n_{01}$ ) of  $n_{22}$ . Further, the  $\Pi_{m-2}$ 's ( $n_{10} = \alpha_{n+2} = n_{01}$ ) of  $n_{21}$ , and likewise the  $\Pi_{m-3}$ 's ( $n_{10} = \alpha_{n+2} = n_{01}$ ) of  $n_{31}$ , are equal but not equivalent. Also the  $\Pi_{m-1}$ 's ( $n_{21} = n_{12}$ ) of  $n_{22}$  are equal (in fact, equivalent), though the  $\Pi_{m-2}$ 's are not (being actually  $n_{20} = \alpha_{n+3} = n_{02}$  and  $n_{11} = \beta_{n+3}$ ). For these reasons, in accordance with 1.9, we call the polytopes

$$\begin{cases} n_{21} & \text{(for } -2 \leq n \leq 5) \text{ the "pure Archimedean series,"} \\ n_{31} & \text{(for } -2 \leq n \leq 3) \text{ the "sub-Archimedean series,"} \\ n_{22} & \text{(for } -2 \leq n \leq 2) \text{ the "isohedral Archimedean series" ;} \end{cases}$$

and adopt the alternative notation

$$8.11 \quad (\text{PA})_{n+4} = n_{21},$$

$$8.12 \quad (\text{SA})_{n+5} = n_{31},$$

$$8.13 \quad (\text{IA})_{n+5} = n_{22}.$$

Thus, *e.g.*,

$$8.14 \quad (\text{PA})_2 = (\alpha_1 \text{---} \sqrt{2} \text{---} \alpha_0), \quad (\text{PA})_3 = [\alpha_2, \alpha_1], \quad (\text{PA})_4 = t_1 \alpha_4, \quad (\text{PA})_5 = h\gamma_5;$$

$$8.15 \quad (\text{SA})_3 = (\alpha_2 \text{---} \sqrt{2} \text{---} \alpha_0), \quad (\text{SA})_4 = [\alpha_3, \alpha_1], \quad (\text{SA})_5 = t_1 \alpha_5, \quad (\text{SA})_6 = h\gamma_6;$$

$$8.16 \quad (\text{IA})_3 = (\alpha_1 \text{---} \sqrt{2} \text{---} \alpha_1), \quad (\text{IA})_4 = [\alpha_2, \alpha_2], \quad (\text{IA})_5 = t_2 \alpha_5.$$

8.2. In each of these series (as in the series of  $\alpha$ 's and of  $\beta$ 's) every polytope (except the last of all) is the vertex figure of the next.  $(\text{PA})_2$ , the vertex figure of  $[\alpha_2, \alpha_1]$ , is an isosceles triangle of sides

$$1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}.$$

$(\text{SA})_3$  and  $(\text{IA})_3$  both have some claim to the title "isosceles tetrahedron," the former being a triangular right pyramid, and the latter (in the language of crystallography) a "rhombic bisphenoid."

The highest members of the series, namely

$$(\text{PA})_9 = 5_{21}, \quad (\text{SA})_8 = 3_{31}, \quad (\text{IA})_7 = 2_{22},$$

are degenerate (by 7.46).

$(\text{SA})_7$  is semi-reciprocal to  $(\text{PA})_7$ , and  $(\text{IA})_6$  to  $(\text{PA})_6$ . It is therefore desirable to make a special study of the pure Archimedean series.

8.3. By 7.75,  $(\text{PA})_m$  is bounded by  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's ( $n_{20} = \alpha_{n+3}$  by 7.42) and  $\beta_{m-1}$ 's ( $n_{11} = \beta_{n+3}$  by 7.43). It is convenient to let  $P_m$  denote the number of  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's, so that, by 7.76 (with  $m - 4$  for  $n$ ),

$$P_m = 2 [(m - 4) 2 1] / \binom{m}{3} \quad (m > 2)$$

and

$$8.31 \quad [n 2 1] = \frac{1}{12} (n + 2) (n + 3) (n + 4) P_{n+4}.$$

Further, since  $(PA)_2$  is bounded by one  $\alpha_1$  and two  $\beta_1$ 's,  $P_2 = 1$ .

Putting  $m - 1$  for  $s$  in 2.63,  $\binom{u-1}{m} \binom{m-u-1}{m-\sigma, u} = \binom{u-1}{m-1} \binom{m-1}{m}^\sigma$ .

Applying this to  $(PA)_m$ , whose  $u$ th vertex figure is  $(PA)_{m-u}$ , and letting the “ $\sigma$ ” refer to the bounding  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's of  $(PA)_m$  (and to the corresponding  $\alpha_{m-u-1}$ 's of  $(PA)_{m-u}$ ), we have

$$\binom{u-1}{m} P_{m-u} = \binom{m}{u} P_m \quad (u \leq m - 2).$$

Thus the number of elements  $\alpha_{u-1}$  (for  $u \leq m - 2$ ) is

$$8.32 \quad \binom{u-1}{m} = \binom{m}{u} P_m / P_{m-u}.$$

In particular, the number of vertices (for  $m > 2$ ) is

$$8.33 \quad \binom{0}{m} = mP_m / P_{m-1}.$$

8.4. The  $(m - 2)$ -dimensional elements of  $(PA)_m (= n_{21})$ , though all of them  $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's, are of two types: those of type “ $\alpha\beta$ ” ( $= n_{10}$ ) each belong to one bounding  $\alpha_{m-1}$  ( $= n_{20}$ ) and to one bounding  $\beta_{m-1}$  ( $= n_{11}$ ), while those of type “ $\beta\beta$ ” ( $= n_{01}$ ) each belong to two bounding  $\beta_{m-1}$ 's. This is obviously true when  $m = 2$  (*i.e.*, for the isosceles triangle whose sides are  $\alpha_1, \beta_1, \beta_1$ ) and follows for greater  $m$  since  $(PA)_2$  is the  $(m - 2)$ th vertex figure of  $(PA)_m$ .

If  $\binom{m-2}{m}^{\alpha\beta}$  and  $\binom{m-2}{m}^{\beta\beta}$  are the numbers of  $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's of these two types, while  $\binom{m-1}{m}^\alpha$  and  $\binom{m-1}{m}^\beta$  are the numbers of bounding  $\alpha$ 's and  $\beta$ 's, we have the following relations:

$$8.41 \quad m \binom{m-1}{m}^\alpha = \binom{m-2}{m}^{\alpha\beta}$$

(since  $\alpha_{m-1}$  is bounded by  $m$   $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's) and

$$8.42 \quad 2^{m-1} \binom{m-1}{m}^\beta = \binom{m-2}{m}^{\alpha\beta} + 2 \binom{m-2}{m}^{\beta\beta}$$

(since  $\beta_{m-1}$  is bounded by  $2^{m-1}$   $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's).

Putting  $s = u = m - 2$  in 2.63,  $\binom{m-3}{m} \binom{0}{2, m-2}^\sigma = \binom{m-3}{m-2} \binom{m-2}{m}^\sigma$ .

This can be applied to  $(PA)_m$ , the “ $\sigma$ ” standing for either of the type-symbols  $\alpha\beta, \beta\beta$ . It follows that the obvious relation

$$\binom{0}{2, m-2}^{\alpha\beta} = 2 \binom{0}{2, m-2}^{\beta\beta}$$

implies

$$8.43 \quad \binom{m-2}{m}^{\alpha\beta} = 2 \binom{m-2}{m}^{\beta\beta}.$$

From

$$8.44 \quad \binom{m-1}{m}^\alpha = P_m$$

(the definition of  $P_m$ ), we can now deduce successively:

$$8.45 \quad \binom{m-2}{m}^{\alpha\beta} = mP_m \quad (\text{by 8.41}),$$

$$8.46 \quad \binom{m-2}{m}^{\beta\beta} = mP_m/2 \quad (\text{by 8.43}),$$

$$8.47 \quad \binom{m-1}{m}^\beta = mP_m/2^{m-2} \quad (\text{by 8.42}).$$

8.5. Summarising these properties of  $(PA)_m$ —

$(u-1 m)$ ( $u \leq m-2$ )	$(m-2 \alpha\beta) + (m-2 \beta\beta)$	$(m-1 m)$
$\binom{m}{u} P_m / P_{m-u}$	$mP_m + mP_m/2$	$P_m + mP_m/2^{m-2}$
$\alpha_{u-1}$	$\alpha_{m-2}$	$\alpha_{m-1} \mid \beta_{m-1}$

Substituting in 1.38, we have

$$P_m \left\{ \sum_{u=0}^{m-2} (-1)^{m-u} \frac{\binom{m}{u}}{P_{m-u}} - m - \frac{m}{2} + 1 + \frac{m}{2^{m-2}} \right\} - 1 = 0,$$

i.e.,

$$8.51 \quad \frac{m}{2^{m-2}} + 1 - \frac{3m}{2} + \sum_{r=2}^m (-1)^r \frac{\binom{m}{r}}{P_r} - \frac{1}{P_m} = 0.$$

This equation could alternatively have been obtained from either of the semi-reciprocals of  $(PA)_m$ , the elements of

$$2_{(m-4)1}$$

being—

$(0 m)$	$(1 m)$	$(2 m)$	$(3 m)$	$(r m)$ ( $r \geq 4$ )
$mP_m/2^{m-2}$	$mP_m/2$	$\binom{m}{3} P_m/2$	$\binom{m}{4} P_m$	$\binom{m}{r+1} P_m + \binom{m}{r} P_m/P_r$
		$\alpha_2$	$\alpha_3$	$\alpha_r \mid 2_{(r-4)1}$

and those of

$$1_{(m-4)2}$$

$(0 m)$	$(1 m)$	$(2 m)$	$(3 m)$	$(r m)$ ( $r \geq 4$ )
$P_m$	$\binom{m}{3} P_m/2$	$2 \binom{m}{4} P_m$	$5 \binom{m}{5} P_m/2 + \binom{m}{4} P_m$	$(r+2) \binom{m}{r+2} P_m/2 + (r+1) \binom{m}{r+1} P_m/2^{r-1} + \binom{m}{r} P_m/P_r$
	$\alpha_2$	$1_{10} = \alpha_3 \mid 1_{01} = \alpha_3$	$\alpha_r$	$h\gamma_r \mid 1_{(r-4)2}$

8.6. In accordance with the principle of 1.51, we can suppose 8.51 to be true even when  $m = 9$ , if we put

$$8.61 \quad P_9 = \infty.$$

The particular cases of 8.51, along with the fact that we are dealing with positive integers, just suffice to determine the rest of the P's. By 8.47,  $\frac{3}{8}P_6, \frac{7}{32}P_7, \frac{1}{8}P_8$  are integers; so, if we put

$$8.62 \quad P_6 = 8x, \quad P_7 = 32y, \quad P_8 = 8z,$$

then  $x, y, z$  must be integers.

$$m = 2 \text{ in 8.51 gives } 2 + 1 - 3 + (1 - 1)/P_2 = 0 \quad (\text{identity}).$$

$$m = 3 \text{ and } m = 4 \text{ give } \frac{3}{2} + 1 - \frac{9}{2} + 3/P_2 - 2/P_3 = 0,$$

$$1 + 1 - 6 + 6/P_2 - 4/P_3 = 0,$$

both of which reduce to

$$3/P_2 - 2/P_3 = 2,$$

whence

$$8.63 \quad P_2 = 1$$

and

$$8.64 \quad P_3 = 2.$$

$m = 5$  and  $m = 6$  give

$$\frac{5}{8} + 1 - \frac{15}{2} + 10 - 5 + 5/P_4 - 2/P_5 = 0,$$

$$\frac{3}{8} + 1 - 9 + 15 - 10 + 15/P_4 - 6/P_5 = 0,$$

both of which reduce to

$$5/P_4 - 2/P_5 = \frac{7}{8},$$

whence

$$8.65 \quad P_4 = 5$$

and

$$8.66 \quad P_5 = 16.$$

(For, since  $P_4$  would be fractional if  $P_5 = 1$ , we must have  $P_5 \geq 2$ , so that

$$1 + \frac{7}{8} \geq 5/P_4 > \frac{7}{8},$$

$$\frac{8}{3} \leq P_4 < \frac{40}{7},$$

$$P_4 = 3, 4 \text{ or } 5,$$

and correspondingly

$$P_5 = \frac{48}{19}, \frac{16}{3} \text{ or } 16.)$$

$m = 7$  and  $m = 8$  give

$$\frac{7}{32} + 1 - \frac{21}{2} + 21 - \frac{35}{2} + 7 - \frac{21}{16} + 7/P_6 - 2/P_7 = 0,$$

$$\frac{1}{8} + 1 - 12 + 28 - 28 + 14 - \frac{7}{2} + 28/P_6 - 8/P_7 = 0,$$

both of which reduce to

$$7/P_6 - 2/P_7 = \frac{3}{32}$$

or

$$8.67 \quad \frac{14}{x} - \frac{1}{y} = \frac{3}{32}$$

(in the notation of 8.62).

Finally,  $m = 9$  gives

$$\frac{9}{128} + 1 - \frac{27}{2} + 36 - 42 + \frac{126}{5} - \frac{63}{8} + 84/P_6 - 36/P_7 + 9/P_8 - 2/P_9 = 0,$$

which, in virtue of 8.61, reduces to

$$28/P_6 - 12/P_7 + 3/P_8 = \frac{707}{1920}$$

or

$$\frac{28}{x} - \frac{3}{y} + \frac{3}{z} = \frac{707}{240}.$$

But, by 8.67,

$$\frac{28}{x} - \frac{2}{y} = 3.$$

Hence, by subtraction,

$$8.68 \quad \frac{1}{y} - \frac{3}{z} = \frac{13}{240}.$$

8.7. We have now to solve the indeterminate equations 8.67 and 8.68. By 8.67, since  $x$  would be fractional if  $y = 1$ ,

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \geq \frac{14}{x} > \frac{3}{2},$$

$$7 \leq x < \frac{28}{3},$$

and correspondingly

$$x = 7, \quad 8 \quad \text{or} \quad 9,$$

$$y = 2, \quad 4 \quad \text{or} \quad 18,$$

so that, by 8.68,

$$z = \frac{720}{107}, \quad \frac{720}{47} \quad \text{or} \quad 2160. \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} x = 7, & 8 & \text{or} & 9, \\ y = 2, & 4 & \text{or} & 18, \\ z = \frac{720}{107}, & \frac{720}{47} & \text{or} & 2160. \end{matrix}} \right\}$$

But  $z$  must be an integer. Hence the *unique* solution :

$$8.71 \quad x = 9, \quad y = 18, \quad z = 2160.$$

It follows (by 8.62) that

$$8.72 \quad P_6 = 72,$$

$$8.73 \quad P_7 = 576,$$

$$8.74 \quad P_8 = 17280 ;$$

and, by 8.31 (thus solving the problem proposed in 7.65),

$$[2 \ 2 \ 1] = 720,$$

$$[3 \ 2 \ 1] = 10080,$$

$$[4 \ 2 \ 1] = 483840.$$

8.8. By 7.91, the order of the group of symmetries of  $(PA)_m$  is

$$8.81 \quad g_m = 12(m-3)! [(m-4) \ 2 \ 1] = m! P_m,$$



which takes the following values :—

$m$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$g_m$	2	12	120	1920	51840	2903040 = $8 \times 9!$	696729600 = $192 \times 10!$	$\infty$

8.9. Let

$$S_m = 2[(m - 5) 3 1]/\binom{m}{4} \quad \text{and} \quad I_m = 3[(m - 5) 2 2]/\binom{m}{4}.$$

Then the numerical properties of  $(SA)_m$  can be expressed in the form—

$\binom{u-1}{u} _m \ (u \leq m - 3)$	$\binom{m-3}{m}^{\alpha\alpha\beta} + \binom{m-3}{m}^{\beta\beta\beta}$	$\binom{m-2}{m}$	$\binom{m-1}{m}$
$\binom{m}{u} S_m / S_{m-u}$	$\binom{m}{2} S_m + \binom{m}{2} S_m / 3$	$m S_m + \binom{m}{2} S_m / 2^{m-3}$	$S_m + m S_m / P_{m-1}$
$\alpha_{u-1}$	$\alpha_{m-3}$	$\alpha_{m-2} \quad \beta_{m-2}$	$\alpha_{m-1} \quad (PA)_{m-1}$

(the type-symbols referring to the  $\alpha_{m-2}$ 's and  $\beta_{m-2}$ 's which meet at an  $\alpha_{m-3}$ ), and those of  $(IA)_m$ —

$\binom{u-1}{u} _m \ (u \leq m - 2)$	$\binom{m-2}{m}$	$\binom{m-1}{m}$
$\binom{m}{u} I_m / I_{m-u}$	$m I_m / 2 + \binom{m}{2} I_m / 2^{m-3}$	$m I_m / P_{m-1}$
$\alpha_{u-1}$	$\alpha_{m-2} \quad \beta_{m-2}$	$(PA)_{m-1}$

Analogously to 8.81, the values of  $g_m$  for  $(SA)_m$  and  $(IA)_m$  are respectively

$$m! S_m \quad \text{and} \quad m! I_m.$$

Here are the actual values of  $S_m$  and  $I_m$ , with those of  $P_m$  for comparison :

$m$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$P_m$	1	2	5	16	72	576	17280	$\infty$
$S_m$		1	2	6	32	576	$\infty$	
$I_m$		$\frac{4}{3}$	3	12	144	$\infty$		

The explicit expression of

$$P_m, \quad S_m, \quad I_m,$$

in terms of  $m$ , involves the ‘‘SCHLÄFLI functions,’’ on which a paper should appear shortly.

Actually, in the notation of § VII of SCHLÄFLI'S "Réduction ..." (*loc. cit.* in Preface),

$$\begin{aligned} 2^m/(m! P_m) &= f_m(\mu_8, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \dots) + 2f_m(\frac{1}{2}\pi - \frac{1}{2}\mu_8, \frac{1}{4}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \dots) \\ &= F_m(\mu_8) + 2G_m(\frac{1}{2}\pi - \frac{1}{2}\mu_8), \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2^m/(m! S_m) &= f_m(\mu_7, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \dots) + f_m(\frac{2}{3}\pi - \mu_7, \mu_8, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \dots) \\ &\quad + 2f_m(\frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{2}\pi - \frac{1}{2}\mu_8, \frac{1}{4}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \dots), \end{aligned}$$

$$2^m/(m! I_m) = f_m(2\mu_4, \mu_8, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \dots) + 2f_m(\frac{1}{2}\pi - \mu_4, \frac{1}{2}\pi - \frac{1}{2}\mu_8, \frac{1}{4}\pi, \frac{1}{3}\pi, \dots);$$

where  $\mu_p = \frac{1}{2} \sec^{-1} p$ .

### 9. Eight-dimensional Co-ordinates.

9.1. Consider the infinite set of points in eight dimensions whose Cartesian co-ordinates are either all even or all odd and add up to a multiple of 4. These points are the vertices of a degenerate nine-dimensional polytope which we seek to identify with

$$(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}.$$

That the points are equivalent (in the sense of 1.6) may be seen by applying certain symmetries (in this case *translations*) which we call

$$R \text{ and } U_{ij}^* \quad (i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; i \neq j).$$

R increases every co-ordinate by 1.

$U_{ij}$  increases  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  (the  $i$ th and  $j$ th co-ordinates) each by 2, leaving the remaining six co-ordinates unchanged. (Thus

$$R^2 = U_{12} U_{34} U_{56} U_{78}.)$$

Products of these symmetries clearly suffice to change any point of the set into any other.

9.2. The points nearest to (*i.e.*, distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from) any particular point of the set, are 240 in number. For, those nearest to the origin (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) are

$$9.21 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \pm (2, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0), \\ \text{and} \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1) \text{ with } 0, 2, 4, 6 \text{ or } 8 \text{ minuses.} \end{array} \right.$$

We shall eventually identify these 240 points with the vertices of

$$(PA)_8 2\sqrt{2}.$$

They possess symmetries which we call

$$S, T_{ij} \text{ and } (ij) \quad (i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; i \neq j).$$

\* Here, and generally, whenever two or more suffix numbers occur without commas between, they are supposed to be permutable, *e.g.*,  $U_{ij} = U_{ji}$ .

S diminishes every co-ordinate by the quarter sum of the co-ordinates.

$T_{ij}$  changes the sign of  $x_i$  and of  $x_j$ , leaving the remaining six co-ordinates unchanged.

$(ij)$  is the "transposition" which interchanges the co-ordinates  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ , leaving the rest unchanged.

Thus S is the *reflection* in the 7-space

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 + x_7 + x_8 = 0,$$

$T_{ij}$  is the *rotation* (through angle  $\pi$ ) about the 6-space

$$x_i = 0 = x_j,$$

and  $(ij)$  is the *reflection* in the 7-space

$$x_i = x_j.$$

The points 9.21 are equivalent. For,  $T_{ij}$  gives all the necessary changes of sign,  $(ij)$  gives all the required permutations, and finally

$$(2, 2; 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) T_{12} ST_{12} = (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).$$

Actually,  $(ij)$  is expressible in terms of S and  $T_{ij}$ . For

$$9.22 \quad (ij) = (ST_{ij})^3 \quad \text{or} \quad (T_{ij}S)^3.$$

The following are the simplest properties of S and  $T_{ij}$ :

$$S^2 = 1,$$

$$(ST_{ij})^6 = 1,$$

$$9.23 \quad T_{ij}T_{kl} = T_{kl}T_{ij}.$$

The convention

$$T_{kk} = 1$$

makes 9.23 include

$$T_{ij} = T_{ji} = T_{ki}T_{kj}, \quad T_{ij}T_{kl} = T_{kl}T_{ij}, \quad T_{ij}^2 = 1,$$

all of which are trivial.

S and  $T_{ij}$ , being symmetries also of the original infinite set of points, are related to R and  $U_{ij}$  by the equations

$$\begin{aligned} (RS)^2 = 1 &= (T_{ij}U_{ij})^2, \\ R = SU_{ij}^{-1}SU_{ij} &= ST_{ij}SU_{ij}ST_{ij}S = T_{ij}SU_{ij}^{-1}ST_{ij}, \\ U_{ij} = T_{ij}R^{-1}T_{ij}R &= T_{ij}ST_{ij}RT_{ij}ST_{ij} = ST_{ij}R^{-1}T_{ij}S. \end{aligned}$$

Note that these relations remain true if

$$\begin{array}{cccc} R, & S, & T_{ij}, & U_{ij} \\ \text{are replaced respectively by} & & & \\ U_{ij}, & T_{ij}, & S, & R. \end{array}$$

It will be found convenient to let

$$T_{ijkl} = T_{ij} T_{kl}$$

and

$$T = T_{1234} T_{5678} \quad (\text{i.e., reflection in the origin}),$$

so that  $(ST_{ijkl})^4 = 1 = (ST)^2$ . Note that

$$(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)ST = (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).$$

9.3. Of the 240 points 9.21, those nearest to (i.e., distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from) any one, are 56 in number. For, those nearest to  $(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$  are

$$9.31 \quad (2, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad (-1, -1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).$$

For simplicity, let

$$9.32 \quad \begin{cases} C_{12} = (2, 2; 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0), \\ c_{12} = (-1, -1; 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1). \end{cases}$$

Then the 56 points 9.31 are simply

$$9.33 \quad C_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad c_{ij},$$

where  $i$  and  $j$  can be any unequal pair of the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

These points, lying in the 7-space

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 + x_7 + x_8 = 4,$$

are to be identified with the vertices of

$$(PA)_7 \ 2\sqrt{2}.$$

They are equivalent, since the transformation  $2R^{-1}$  puts them into the symmetrical form

$$(3, 3, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1), \quad (-3, -3, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1).$$

Besides the obvious symmetries— $(ij)$ , which interchanges the suffix-numbers  $i$  and  $j$  wherever they occur; and  $ST$ , which interchanges  $C$  and  $c$ , leaving the suffixes unchanged—the points 9.31 or 9.33 possess also the symmetry  $T_{ijkl} ST_{ijkl}$  ( $i, j, k, l$  being all different). This is the reflection in

$$x_e + x_f + x_g + x_h = x_i + x_j + x_k + x_l,$$

where  $e, f, g, h$  are the rest of the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8. Thus

$$T_{ijkl} ST_{ijkl} = T_{efgh} ST_{efgh}.$$

Introducing a new notation, let

$$9.34 \quad [efgh \cdot ijkl] = T_{ijkl} ST_{ijkl}.$$

Naturally

$$[efgh . ijkl] = [ijkl . efgh],$$

and the order of the numbers on one side of the dot is quite arbitrary. This new symmetry interchanges  $C_{ef}, c_{gh}$ ;  $C_{ij}, c_{kl}$ ; and so on; but leaves, *e.g.*,  $C_{el}$  and  $c_{el}$  unchanged. It is called a “bifid reflection,” by analogy with CAYLEY’S “bifid substitution.”\*

Note that

$$9.35 \quad (ij) = [efgi . jhkl] [efgj . ihkl] [efgi . jhkl]$$

and

$$9.36 \quad ST = [3567 . 1248] [1467 . 2358] [1257 . 3468] [1236 . 4578] [2347 . 1568] \\ [1345 . 2678] [2456 . 1378].$$

(The order of these seven factors is quite immaterial. The essential thing is that every pair have just two common numbers on each side of the dot.)

It is convenient to omit the numbers 7 and 8 (in a bifid reflection) when they occur respectively *before* and *after* the dot. Thus we write

$$9.37 \quad [fgh . ijk] = [fgh7 . ijk8].$$

Of course

$$[fgh . ijk] \neq [ijk . fgh].$$

9.4. Of the 56 points 9.33, those nearest to (*i.e.*, distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from) any one, are 27 in number. For, those nearest to  $C_{78}$  are

$$9.41 \quad (2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; 2, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad (-1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1; 1, 1).$$

Changing the notation by putting

$$9.42 \quad a_i = C_{i7} \quad \text{and} \quad b_i = C_{i8} \quad (i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6),$$

these 27 points are simply

$$9.43 \quad a_i, b_i \quad \text{and} \quad c_{ij},$$

where  $i$  and  $j$  can be any unequal pair of the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

These points, lying in the 6-space

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 = 2 = x_7 + x_8,$$

will shortly be identified with the vertices of

$$(PA)_6 2\sqrt{2}.$$

\* SALMON’S “Higher Plane Curves,” § 261.

That they are equivalent, may be seen by considering the 20 symmetries  $[fgh . ijk]$ , where  $f, g, h, i, j, k$  are all the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, arranged in any order. Expressed in terms of transpositions of the symbols,

$$9.44 \quad [fgh . ijk] = (a_f c_{gh}) (a_g c_{fh}) (a_h c_{fg}) (b_i c_{jk}) (b_j c_{ik}) (b_k c_{ij}).$$

Of the 27 points 9.43, those nearest to (*i.e.*, distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from) any one, are 16 in number. For, those nearest to  $a_6$  are

$$9.45 \quad b_6, \quad c_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad a_i \quad (i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5; i \neq j).$$

Applying the congruent transformation  $T_{68}SU_{68}TR^*$ , these 16 points become respectively

$$(0, 0, 0, 0, 0; 0, 0, 0), \quad (2, 2, 0, 0, 0; 0, 0, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad (0, 2, 2, 2, 2; 0, 0, 0).$$

By 6.22, they are the vertices of

$$h\gamma_5 \ 2\sqrt{2}.$$

9.5. Since (by 8.14)

$$h\gamma_5 = (PA)_5,$$

and since (by 8.2)  $(PA)_m$  is always the vertex figure of  $(PA)_{m+1}$  (when the latter exists), the rule 6.1 enables us successively to identify the sets of points

$$9.43, \quad 9.33, \quad 9.21 \quad \text{and} \quad 9.1,$$

with the vertices of

$$(PA)_6 \ 2\sqrt{2}, \quad (PA)_7 \ 2\sqrt{2}, \quad (PA)_8 \ 2\sqrt{2} \quad \text{and} \quad (PA)_9 \ 2\sqrt{2},$$

respectively. Conditions (i) and (ii) (of 6.1) are clearly satisfied in each case. Condition (iii) is automatically satisfied for such bounding figures as are  $\alpha$ 's, since then no "other points of the original set" are required. So we have only to consider the  $\beta$  bounding figures.

Now, if we are given one vertex of  $\beta_m$  and the vertices of the actual vertex figure at this vertex, there remains only *one* more vertex of  $\beta_m$ , this vertex being the image of the first vertex in the centre. Also the centre of  $\beta_m$  is the centre of the vertex figure. Thus if, in (iii), the "typical bounding figure" of the " $(m-1)$ -dimensional polytope" is a  $\beta_{m-2} \times$  whose centre is O, then we have only to show that the image of A in O belongs to the given set of points.

$$\text{Taking} \quad b_6, \quad c_{12}, \quad c_{13}, \quad c_{23}, \quad c_{14}, \quad c_{24}, \quad c_{34}, \quad a_5$$

as the vertices of a typical bounding  $\beta_4 2\sqrt{2}$  of the  $h\gamma_5 \ 2\sqrt{2}$  9.45, O is

$$(0, 0, 0, 0; 1, 1, 1, 1),$$

\* Products of operations are, in this paper, to be worked from left to right. Thus, in the present case, we apply  $T_{68}$  first and R last.

and the successive A's and images are as follows :—

Polytope to be identified	$(PA)_6, 2\sqrt{2}$	$(PA)_7, 2\sqrt{2}$	$(PA)_8, 2\sqrt{2}$	$(PA)_9, 2\sqrt{2}$
A	$a_6$	$C_{78}$	$(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$	$(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$
Image of A in O	$b_5$	$C_{56}$	$(-1, -1, -1, -1; 1, 1, 1, 1)$	$(0, 0, 0, 0; 2, 2, 2, 2)$

Thus the identification is complete.

Incidentally, we observe that the numbers

$$16, 27, 56, 240, \infty,$$

agree with the formula 8.33.

We have now established the existence of

$$(PA)_m \quad (\text{for } m \leq 9),$$

*i.e.*, of

$$n_{21} \quad (\text{for } n \leq 5).$$

The existence of

$$2_{n1} \quad \text{and} \quad 1_{n2}$$

follows by semi-reciprocation (7.8). Of the fourteen polytopes 7.45, we have thus established all save three, namely

$$(SA)_8 = 3_{31},$$

$$1_{33} \quad (\text{its semi-reciprocal})$$

and

$$(IA)_7 = 2_{22}.$$

**9.6.** Consider now the totality of points whose eight co-ordinates, all even or all odd, add up to *zero*. These points, whose equivalence can be established by means of the symmetries

$$T_{ijkl} \text{ RT}_{ijkl},$$

are the vertices of a degenerate eight-dimensional polytope which can be regarded as the section of  $(PA)_9, 2\sqrt{2}$  by the 7-space

$$9.61 \quad x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 + x_7 + x_8 = 0.$$

This polytope will be found to be

$$(SA)_8, 2\sqrt{2}.$$

The 126 points distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from

$$9.62 \quad (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$$

are

$$9.63 \quad (2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -2) \quad \text{and} \quad (1, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1, -1).$$

These points are equivalent by means of the bifid reflections  $T_{ijkl}ST_{ijkl}$ . They will be identified with the vertices of

$$(SA)_7, 2\sqrt{2}.$$

Of these, the 32 points distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from

$$9.64 \quad (2; 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -2)$$

are

$$(0; 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -2), \quad (1; 1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1; -1), \quad (2; 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -2; 0).$$

By means of the transformation  $T_{18}SR$ , these points become recognisable as the vertices

$$9.65 \quad (0; 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; 2), \quad (0; 2, 2, 2, 0, 0, 0; 2), \quad (0; 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 0; 2)$$

of  $h\gamma_6, 2\sqrt{2}$  (6.23).

Now, by 8.15,

$$h\gamma_6 = (SA)_6;$$

and (by 8.9)  $(SA)_m$  is bounded by  $\alpha_{m-1}$ 's and  $(PA)_{m-1}$ 's. For the purposes of 6.1, we need only consider the  $(PA)_{m-1}$ 's. A typical bounding  $(PA)_5, 2\sqrt{2}$  or  $h\gamma_5, 2\sqrt{2}$  of the  $h\gamma_6, 2\sqrt{2}$  9.65, has the vertices

$$(0; 2, 0, 0, 0, 0; 0; 2), \quad (0; 2, 2, 2, 0, 0; 0; 2), \quad (0; 2, 2, 2, 2, 2; 0; 2),$$

which, by the reverse transformation  $R^{-1}ST_{18}$ , become

$$(0; 2, 0, 0, 0, 0; 0; -2), \quad (1; 1, 1, 1, -1, -1; -1; -1), \quad (2; 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -2; 0).$$

These points, along with 9.64 and certain other points from 9.63, make up the complete sets of vertices

$$9.66 \quad (2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; 0, -2) \quad \text{and} \quad (1, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1; -1, -1)$$

of a  $(PA)_6, 2\sqrt{2}$  (obtainable from 9.41 by means of the transformation  $U_{78}^{-1}$ ). Hence the points 9.63 are the vertices of  $(SA)_7, 2\sqrt{2}$ , of which a typical bounding  $(PA)_6, 2\sqrt{2}$  has the vertices 9.66.

But the points 9.66, along with 9.62 and certain other points of the infinite set 9.6, make up the complete set of vertices of that  $(PA)_7, 2\sqrt{2}$  which is obtained from 9.31 by means of the transformation  $U_{78}^{-1}$ . Hence the points 9.6 are the vertices of  $(SA)_8, 2\sqrt{2}$ .

The existence of

$$(SA)_8 \quad \text{or} \quad 3_{31}$$

is thus established. That of

$$1_{33}$$

follows by semi-reciprocation. There remains now only  $2_{22}$ .



9.7. Since  $T_{78}ST_{78}$ , a symmetry of  $(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$ , transforms 9.61 into  $x_7 + x_8 = 0$ , we have the interesting fact that the section of  $(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$  by the 7-space  $x_7 + x_8 = 0$  is another  $(SA)_8 2\sqrt{2}$ .

9.8. The common part of these two  $(SA)_8 2\sqrt{2}$ 's, *i.e.*, the section of  $(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$  by the 6-space

$$9.81 \quad x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 = 0 = x_7 + x_8,$$

is a degenerate seven-dimensional polytope, which we shall identify with

$$(IA)_7 2\sqrt{2}.$$

Of its vertices, which are equivalent by means of the symmetries

$$T_{ijks} RT_{ijks} \quad (i, j, k, = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6; i \neq j \neq k \neq i),$$

those distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from

$$9.82 \quad (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$$

are

$$9.83 \quad (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; 2, -2), \quad (1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1; 1, -1), \\ (2, 0, 0, 0, 0, -2; 0, 0).$$

These 72 points, which will soon be seen to be the vertices of

$$(IA)_6 2\sqrt{2},$$

are equivalent by means of the bifid reflections

$$T_{ijks} ST_{ijks} \quad (i, j, k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6; i \neq j \neq k \neq i).$$

(Note that they, unlike 9.41, possess also the symmetry T.)

Of these points, those distant  $2\sqrt{2}$  from

$$9.84 \quad (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -2; 2)$$

are

$$9.85 \quad (1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1; -1; 1).$$

The transformation R makes these 20 points recognisable as the vertices of

$$t_2\alpha_5 2\sqrt{2}.$$

Now, by 8.16,

$$t_2\alpha_5 = (IA)_5;$$

and (by 8.9)  $(IA)_m$  is bounded entirely by  $(PA)_{m-1}$ 's, these being all equivalent. A typical bounding  $(PA)_4 2\sqrt{2}$  or  $t_1\alpha_4 2\sqrt{2}$  of the  $t_2\alpha_5 2\sqrt{2}$  9.85, has the vertices

$$(1, 1, 1, -1, -1; -1; -1; 1).$$

These points, along with 9.84 and

$$(2, 0, 0, 0, 0; -2; 0; 0)$$

(which also occur among 9.83), make up the complete set of vertices of a  $(PA)_5 2\sqrt{2}$  or  $h_{\gamma_5} 2\sqrt{2}$  (obtainable from 9.45 by means of the transformation  $U_{67}^{-1}$ ). Hence the points 9.83 are the vertices of  $(IA)_6 2\sqrt{2}$ , of which this  $(PA)_5 2\sqrt{2}$  is a typical bounding figure.

But the vertices of this typical bounding figure, along with 9.82 and certain other points satisfying 9.81, make up the complete set of vertices of the  $(PA)_6 2\sqrt{2}$  which we obtain from 9.41 by means of the transformation  $U_{67}^{-1}$ . Hence the infinite set of points whose eight co-ordinates, all even or all odd, satisfy 9.81, are the vertices of  $(IA)_7 2\sqrt{2}$ .

Thus we have established the existence of

$$(IA)_7 \text{ or } 2_{22},$$

the last of the polytopes 7.45.

9.9. By applying certain other symmetries of  $(PA)_8 2\sqrt{2}$  in the way in which  $T_{78}ST_{78}$  was applied in 9.7, it is found that there are in all 120 sections of  $(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$ , through any one vertex, which are  $(SA)_8 2\sqrt{2}$ 's; namely, one section for every pair of opposite vertices of the vertex figure,  $(PA)_8$ . The 7-spaces of these sections are as follows:—

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} (1) & x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 + x_7 + x_8 = 0, \\ 28 \text{ like} & x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 - x_7 - x_8 = 0, \\ 35 \text{ like} & x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 - x_5 - x_6 - x_7 - x_8 = 0, \\ 28 \text{ like} & x_7 - x_8 = 0, \\ 28 \text{ like} & x_7 + x_8 = 0. \end{array} \right.$$

These 7-spaces may be called “primes of symmetry” of  $(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$  or of  $(PA)_8 2\sqrt{2}$ . For, the reflections in them, *viz.*,

$$S, T_{ij}ST_{ij}, T_{ijkl}ST_{ijkl}, (ST_{ij})^3 \text{ or } (ij), (ST_{ij})^2S \text{ or } (ij) T_{ij},$$

are symmetries of the polytopes.

### 10. *Nine-dimensional Co-ordinates.*

10.1. Consider the infinite set of points whose *nine* Cartesian co-ordinates are mutually congruent modulo 3 and add up to zero. These points, lying in the 8-space

$$10.11 \quad x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 + x_7 + x_8 + x_9 = 0,$$

can be identified with the vertices of

$$(PA)_9 3\sqrt{2}$$

by applying to them the transformation

$$\frac{2}{3} \Omega T_8,$$

where

$$10.12 \quad \Omega = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 5 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & 5 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & 5 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 5 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 5 & -1 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 5 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and  $T_8$  changes the sign of  $x_8$ . (It is easily verified that  $\Omega$  satisfies the conditions which make it a *congruent* transformation.)

Since we are only considering points satisfying 10.11, the relation

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_9) \frac{2}{3} \Omega T_8 = (x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4, x'_5, x'_6, x'_7, x'_8, x'_9)$$

implies

$$10.13 \quad \begin{cases} x'_r = \frac{1}{3} (2x_r + x_9) & (r < 8), \\ x'_8 = -\frac{1}{3} (2x_8 + x_9), \\ x'_9 = 0. \end{cases}$$

The general point

$$10.14 \quad (3y_1 + z, \quad 3y_2 + z, \quad 3y_3 + z, \quad 3y_4 + z, \quad 3y_5 + z, \quad 3y_6 + z, \\ 3y_7 + z, \quad 3y_8 + z, \quad 3y_9 + z)$$

of the set considered, therefore becomes

$$10.15 \quad (2y_1 + z', \quad 2y_2 + z', \quad 2y_3 + z', \quad 2y_4 + z', \quad 2y_5 + z', \\ 2y_6 + z', \quad 2y_7 + z', \quad 2y'_8 + z', \quad 0),$$

where

$$\begin{cases} z' = y_9 + z, \\ y'_8 = -y_8 - y_9 - z. \end{cases}$$

The sum of the new co-ordinates is

$$\sum_{r=1}^9 x'_r = \frac{2}{3} \sum_{r=1}^9 x_r + \frac{4}{3} (x_9 - x_8) = \frac{4}{3} (x_9 - x_8) = 4 (y_9 - y_8).$$

Thus we have obtained a vertex of  $(PA)_9$   $2\sqrt{2}$  as given in 9.1.

Conversely, if the point 10.15, satisfying

$$y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + y_4 + y_5 + y_6 + y_7 + y'_8 = 2t$$

(which makes the co-ordinates add up to a multiple of 4), is a general vertex of

$$(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2},$$

we can make it correspond to the point 10.14 of the original set (10.1) by putting

$$\begin{cases} z = y'_8 - t, \\ y_8 = -y'_8 - z', \\ y_9 = -y'_8 + z' + t. \end{cases}$$

The identification is now complete.

**10.2.** By taking those points of the set 10.1 which are distant  $3\sqrt{2}$  from the origin, we obtain the vertices of

$$(PA)_8 3\sqrt{2}$$

in the beautiful form

$$10.21 \quad (2, 2, 2, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1), \quad (3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -2, -2, -2).$$

Thence we obtain two different sets of co-ordinates for the vertices of

$$(PA)_7 3\sqrt{2},$$

namely

$$(2, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1; 2, 2, -1), \quad (1, 1, 1, -2, -2, -2; 1, 1, 1), \\ (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3; 3, 0, 0)$$

and

$$10.22 \quad (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3; 0; 3), \quad (2, 2, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1; -1; 2), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -2, -2; -2; 1), \quad (3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -3; 0).$$

Trivially transforming\* the former set to make it more symmetrical, we have, for the vertices of

$$(PA)_7 6\sqrt{2},$$

$$10.23 \quad (5, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1; 2, 2, -4), \quad (3, 3, 3, -3, -3, -3; 0, 0, 0), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -5; 4, -2, -2).$$

Proceeding one stage further, we get the vertices of

$$(PA)_6 3\sqrt{2}$$

in the alternative forms

$$10.24 \quad (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -2; -2, -2; 1), \quad (2, 2, -1, -1, -1, -1; -1, -1; 2), \\ (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3; 0, 0; 3)$$

and

$$10.25 \quad (0, 0, 0; 2, -1, -1; 1, 1, -2), \quad (1, 1, -2; 0, 0, 0; 2, -1, -1), \\ (2, -1, -1; 1, 1, -2; 0, 0, 0).$$

\* By means of  $2U_{780}^{-1}$ , in the notation of 10.6.

The latter form (10.25) is of special interest, as it corresponds to Mr. P. HALL's notation for the twenty-seven lines on the general cubic surface. For, if we associate the nine co-ordinates with the symbols

$$s_1, s_2, s_3, \quad t_1, t_2, t_3, \quad u_1, u_2, u_3,$$

and accordingly write (*e.g.*),

$$10.26 \quad \begin{cases} t_1 u_3 = (0, 0, 0; 2; -1, -1; 1, 1; -2), \\ u_1 s_3 = (1, 1; -2; 0, 0, 0; 2; -1, -1), \\ s_1 t_3 = (2; -1, -1; 1, 1; -2; 0, 0, 0), \end{cases}$$

then the 27 points 10.25 are represented by the symbols

$$10.27 \quad t_j u_k, \quad u_k s_i, \quad s_i t_j$$

(where  $i, j, k = 1, 2, 3$  independently), in such a way that any two of the points are mutually distant 6 or  $3\sqrt{2}$  according as the number of the letters  $s, t, u$  which occur with different suffixes in the two symbols is even or odd. For instance,

$$s_2 t_2, s_2 t_3, s_3 t_2, s_3 t_3, \quad u_1 s_1, u_2 s_1, u_3 s_1, \quad t_1 u_1, t_1 u_2, t_1 u_3$$

are all distant 6 from  $s_1 t_1$ ; while the three points specified in 10.26 form a triangle of sides  $3\sqrt{2}$ .

**10.3.** In 9.9, we saw that  $(SA)_8$  can be obtained as the section of  $(PA)_9$  by the 7-space through any vertex perpendicular to any diameter (*i.e.*, join of a pair of opposite vertices) of the vertex figure at that vertex. Of such 7-spaces, 120 pass through the origin. According to the co-ordinates 10.21, these consist of

$$\begin{cases} 84 \text{ like } & x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0, \\ 36 \text{ like } & x_1 - x_2 = 0 \end{cases}$$

(10.11 being understood). In this manner, we obtain the co-ordinates of

$$(SA)_8 \ 3\sqrt{2}$$

in various ways as a section of  $(PA)_9 \ 3\sqrt{2}$ .

In 9.8, we saw that the section of  $(PA)_9 \ 2\sqrt{2}$  by the 6-space 9.81 is  $(IA)_7 \ 2\sqrt{2}$ . It follows (by applying  $T_{4567}$ , in the notation of 9.2) that the section by the 6-space

$$x'_1 + x'_2 + x'_3 = x'_4 + x'_5 + x'_6, \quad x'_7 = x'_8$$



and

$$(4, 4, 4, -2, -2, -2, -2, -2, -2), \quad (6, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -6),$$

$$(2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, -4, -4, -4).$$

The last 240 points are obviously the vertices of  $(PA)_8 \ 6\sqrt{2}$ , being the same as 10.21, only doubled throughout.

It is easily proved that the points

$$10.41, \quad 10.42, \quad 10.43$$

are respectively the vertices of

$$2_{41} \ 3\sqrt{2}, \quad t_1 4_{21} \ 3\sqrt{2}, \quad 1_{42} \ 3\sqrt{2}.$$

Since these polytopes all have precisely the same symmetries as  $(PA)_8$ , it is only necessary to identify one vertex of each.

By 7.8, the centres of the  $4_{11}$ 's ( $\beta_7$ 's) of  $4_{21}$  ( $= (PA)_8$ ) are the vertices of  $2_{14} \times$  ( $= 2_{41} \times$ ). A typical  $\beta_7 \ 3\sqrt{2}$  of  $(PA)_8 \ 3\sqrt{2}$  (as given in 10.21) has the vertices

$$(3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; 0; -3), \quad (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -2; -2; -2).$$

Its centre,

$$(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1; -2; -5) \frac{1}{2},$$

after multiplication by 2, occurs in 10.41.

Similarly, the centres of the  $4_{20}$ 's ( $\alpha_7$ 's) of  $4_{21}$  are the vertices of  $1_{42} \times$ .

A typical  $\alpha_7 \ 3\sqrt{2}$  of  $(PA)_8 \ 3\sqrt{2}$  has the vertices

$$(3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -3).$$

Its centre,

$$(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1; -8) \frac{3}{8},$$

after multiplication by  $\frac{8}{3}$ , occurs in 10.43.

Finally, by the definition of truncation, the centres of the edges of  $(PA)_8$  are the vertices of

$$t_1 (PA)_8 \times.$$

A typical edge of  $(PA)_8 \ 3\sqrt{2}$  is terminated by the points

$$(3, 0; 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -3).$$

Its centre,

$$(1, 1; 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; -2) \frac{3}{2},$$

after multiplication by 2, occurs in 10.42.

**10.5.** The following table exhibits some particularly interesting sections of  $(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$  and of  $(PA)_9 3\sqrt{2}$  :—

$x_1 = x_2$	$(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$	$(PA)_9 3\sqrt{2}$
$x_1 = x_2 = x_3$	$(SA)_8 2\sqrt{2}$	$(SA)_8 3\sqrt{2}$
$x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4$	$(IA)_7 2\sqrt{2}$	$(IA)_7 3\sqrt{2}$
$x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = x_5$	$h\delta_6 2\sqrt{2}$	$h\delta_6 3\sqrt{2}$
$x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = x_6$	$\alpha_4 h 2\sqrt{2}$	$\alpha_4 h 3\sqrt{2}$
$x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = x_6 = x_7$	$[a_2 h, \delta_2] 2\sqrt{2}$	$[a_2 h, \delta_2] 3\sqrt{2}$
$x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = x_6 = x_7 = x_8$	$(\alpha_1 \frac{\quad}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_0) h 2\sqrt{2}$	$(\alpha_1 \frac{\quad}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_0) h 3\sqrt{2}$
$x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = x_6 = x_7 = x_8$	$\delta_2 2\sqrt{2}$	$\delta_2 3\sqrt{2}$

Here

$$(\alpha_1 \frac{\quad}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_0) h$$

stands for an infinity of  $(PA)_2$ 's (isosceles triangles of sides 1,  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\sqrt{2}$ ) filling a plane. It can be obtained by uniformly compressing a  $\{3, 6\}$  or  $\alpha_2 h$  in the direction of one edge.

The fact that corresponding sections of  $(PA)_9 2\sqrt{2}$  and of  $(PA)_9 3\sqrt{2}$  are similar, in the linear ratio 2 : 3, except in the last case (eight co-ordinates equal), is merely a consequence of 10.13.

**10.6.**  $(PA)_9 3\sqrt{2}$  clearly possesses 84 symmetries  $U_{ijk}$  and 84 symmetries  $V_{ijk}$ , defined as follows :—

$U_{ijk}$  increases the co-ordinates  $x_i, x_j, x_k$  each by 2, and diminishes the remaining six each by 1.

$V_{ijk}$  diminishes  $x_i, x_j, x_k$  each by two-thirds of their sum, and diminishes each of the remaining six co-ordinates by one-third of the sum of those six.

Thus  $U_{ijk}$  is a translation (through distance  $3\sqrt{2}$ ); and  $V_{ijk}$  is the rotation (through angle  $\pi$ ) about, or the reflection in, the 7-space

$$x_i + x_j + x_k = 0 = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6 + x_7 + x_8 + x_9,$$

according as we are considering the whole 9-space or only the 8-space in which  $(PA)_9 3\sqrt{2}$  lies.

Let  $c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k$  denote all the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, arranged in arbitrary order, and let  $(ij)$  (as usual) denote the transposition of the two co-ordinates  $x_i, x_j$ . The simplest relations between our new symmetries are as follows :—

$$10.61 \quad V_{ijk}^2 = (V_{ghk} V_{ijk})^2 = (U_{ijk} V_{ijk})^2 = U_{cde} U_{fgh} U_{ijk} = 1,$$

$$10.62 \quad U_{ghi} (ij) = (ij) U_{ghj},$$

$$10.63 \quad V_{ghi} (ij) = (ij) V_{ghj} = V_{ghj} V_{ghi},$$

$$10.64 \quad V_{cde} V_{fgh} = V_{fgh} V_{ijk}.$$

Note that  $U_{cde} U_{fgh} U_{ijk}$  simply increases  $x_c$  and diminishes  $x_k$ , each by 3.



10.7. Now let  $i, j, k$  be any three different numbers among 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.

The transformation 10.13 gives the following correlation between the symmetries of

$(PA)_9 \cdot 2\sqrt{2}$	and	$(PA)_9 \cdot 3\sqrt{2}$ :
$U_{ij} U_{ks} R^{-1}$		$U_{ijk}$
$U_{ij} R^{-1}$		$U_{ijs}$
$U_{ij} U_{js}^{-1}$		$U_{is9}$
$U_{ij}$		$U_{ij9}$
$U_{js}$		$U_{is9}^{-1} U_{ij9}$
$R$		$U_{is}^{-1} U_{ij9}$
$(ij)$		$(ij)$
$(i8) T_{is}$		$(i8)$
$S$		$(89)$
$T_{is} S T_{is}$		$(i9)$
$T_{ij} S T_{ij}$		$V_{ijs}$
$T_{ijks} S T_{ijks} = [efgh \cdot ijk8]$		$V_{ijk}$
$(i8)$		$V_{is9}$
$(ij) T_{ij}$		$V_{ij9}$
$T_{ij}$		$(ij) V_{ij9}$
$T_{is}$		$(i8) V_{is9}$
$ST$		$V_{124} V_{235} V_{346} V_{457} V_{561} V_{672} V_{713}$

The factors in this last product of seven  $V$ 's are all permutable, by 10.61, since every pair of them have just one suffix-number in common. It is interesting that  $V_{ijk}$  appears as an extension of the bifid reflection.

In verification of 9.22, we have:

when  $i, j < 8$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \{(89) (ij) V_{ij9}\}^3 &= (ij)^3 \cdot (89) V_{ij9} (89) \cdot V_{ij9} (89) V_{ij9} \\ &= (ij) \cdot V_{ij8} \cdot V_{ijs} \\ &= (ij), \end{aligned}$$

and when  $j = 8$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \{(89) (i8) V_{i89}\}^3 &= (89) \cdot (i8) V_{i89} (i8) \cdot (i9) V_{i89} (i9) \cdot (89) V_{i89} \\ &= (89) \cdot V_{i89} \cdot V_{i89} \cdot (89) V_{i89} \\ &= V_{i89}. \end{aligned}$$

10.8. Let  $a, b, c$  be three different numbers among 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9;  $d, e, f$ , three different numbers among 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7;  $g, h, i$ , three different numbers among 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6;  $j, j'$ , two of 1, 2, 3;  $k, k'$ , two of 4, 5, 6;  $l, l'$ , two of 7, 8, 9. Also let  $T$  denote the reflection in the origin (*i.e.*, the simultaneous change of sign of *all* the co-ordinates).

With this notation, the chief symmetries of the polytopes under consideration may be tabulated as follows:—

Polytope.	Co-ords.	Symmetries.	No. of cases.
$(PA)_9 3\sqrt{2}$	10·1	$(ab), V_{abc}, U_{abc}$	36 + 84 + 84
$(PA)_8 3\sqrt{2}$	10·21	$(ab), V_{abc}$	36 + 84
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (PA)_7 3\sqrt{2} \\ (PA)_7 6\sqrt{2} \end{array} \right.$	10·22	$(de), V_{def}, V_{f89}$	21 + 35 + 7
	10·23	$(gh), (ll'), V_{ghl}$	15 + 3 + 45
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (PA)_6 3\sqrt{2} \\ (PA)_6 3\sqrt{2} \end{array} \right.$	10·24	$(gh), V_{ghi}, V_{789}^*$	15 + 20 + 1
	10·25	$(jj'), (kk'), (ll'), V_{jkl}$	9 + 27
$(IA)_6 3\sqrt{2}$	10·32	$(jj'), (kk'), (ll'), V_{jkl}, T$	9 + 27 + 1
$(IA)_7 3\sqrt{2}$	10·31	$(jj'), (kk'), (ll'), V_{jkl}, T, U_{jkl}$	9 + 27 + 1 + 27

10.9. Below are summarized the most convenient co-ordinates for each of the polytopes 7.45.

$$\begin{aligned}
 2_{21} 3\sqrt{2} = (PA)_6 3\sqrt{2} : & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (0, 0, 0; 2, -1, -1; 1, 1, -2), \\ (1, 1, -2; 0, 0, 0; 2, -1, -1), \\ (2, -1, -1; 1, 1, -2; 0, 0, 0). \end{array} \right. \\
 1_{22} 3\sqrt{2} = (IA)_6 3\sqrt{2} : & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (2, -1, -1; 2, -1, -1; 2, -1, -1), \\ (3, 0, -3; 0, 0, 0; 0, 0, 0), \\ (0, 0, 0; 3, 0, -3; 0, 0, 0), \\ (0, 0, 0; 0, 0, 0; 3, 0, -3), \\ (1, 1, -2; 1, 1, -2; 1, 1, -2). \end{array} \right. \\
 3_{21} 4\sqrt{2} = (PA)_7 4\sqrt{2} : & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (3, 3, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -3, -3). \end{array} \right. \\
 2_{31} 2\sqrt{2} = (SA)_7 2\sqrt{2} : & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -2), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1, -1). \end{array} \right. \\
 1_{32} 4\sqrt{2} : & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (7, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1), \\ (5, 1, 1, 1, 1, -3, -3, -3), \\ (3, 3, 3, -1, -1, -1, -1, -5), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -7). \end{array} \right.
 \end{aligned}$$

\* By 10.64,  $V_{789} = V_{123} V_{456} V_{123}$ .

$$4_{21} 3\sqrt{2} = (\text{PA})_8 3\sqrt{2} : \begin{cases} (2, 2, 2, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1), \\ (3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -2, -2, -2). \end{cases}$$

$$2_{41} 3\sqrt{2} : \begin{cases} (5, 2, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1), \\ (4, 1, 1, 1, 1, -2, -2, -2, -2), \\ (3, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3, -3), \\ (2, 2, 2, 2, -1, -1, -1, -1, -4), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -2, -5). \end{cases}$$

$$1_{42} 3\sqrt{2} : \begin{cases} (8, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1), \\ (7, 1, 1, 1, -2, -2, -2, -2, -2), \\ (6, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3, -3, -3), \\ (5, 5, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -4), \\ (5, 2, 2, 2, -1, -1, -1, -4, -4), \\ (3, 3, 3, 3, 0, -3, -3, -3, -3), \\ (4, 4, 1, 1, 1, -2, -2, -2, -5), \\ (4, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -5, -5), \\ (3, 3, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, -3, -6), \\ (2, 2, 2, 2, 2, -1, -1, -1, -7), \\ (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, -8). \end{cases}$$

$$5_{21} 3\sqrt{2} = (\text{PA})_9 3\sqrt{2} : \quad 9 \text{ co-ordinates, mutually congruent modulo } 3, \text{ sum zero.}$$

$$2_{51} 3\sqrt{2} : \quad \text{The same, but with 4 or 8 of them } \textit{odd}.$$

$$1_{52} 3\sqrt{2} : \quad 9 \text{ co-ordinates,* mutually congruent modulo } 3, \text{ sum zero, satisfying the following further conditions:—}$$

(a) If the co-ordinates are divisible by 3, then the three possible residues modulo 9 (namely 0, 3, 6) all occur (for the co-ordinates of each such point), one of them only once and the other two four times each.

(b) If not, then the residues modulo 9 either are all equal or take one of the following forms:

$$\begin{aligned} &(4^3, 1^6), \quad (1^3, 7^6), \quad (7^3, 4^6), \\ &(5^6, 2^3), \quad (2^6, 8^3), \quad (8^6, 5^3), \\ &(7^3, 4^3, 1^3), \quad (8^3, 5^3, 2^3). \end{aligned}$$

\* For these co-ordinates I am indebted to MR. P. DU VAL.

$3_{31} 2\sqrt{2} = (\text{SA})_8 2\sqrt{2}$  : 8 co-ordinates, mutually congruent modulo 2, sum zero.

$1_{33} 2\sqrt{2}$  : The same, but with the further condition that the residues modulo 4 of the eight co-ordinates consist of two tetrads, such that the residues for each tetrad are equal among themselves, those for different tetrads not necessarily being different. (Thus the residues must consist of either eight 0's, 1's, 2's, 3's, four 0's and four 2's, or four 1's and four 3's.)

$2_{22} 3\sqrt{2} = (\text{IA})_7 3\sqrt{2}$  : 9 co-ordinates, mutually congruent modulo 3, falling into three definite triads (the same triads for every point) each with sum zero.

These co-ordinates can be verified by the method of 6.1, the work being simplified by the consideration that, if  $p \neq q$ ,  $n_{pq}$  possesses all the symmetries of  $n_{pq}$ .

### 11. Groups Generated by Two Operations.

11.1. The group of symmetries of each existent polytope of the form

$$n_{pq} \quad (n \geq -1),$$

except

$$(-1)_{pp} \quad (= [\alpha_p, \alpha_p]),$$

can be generated by means of two or three special symmetries, two or three according as the polytope is finite or degenerate. We shall prove this by considering each case in detail, with the help of the following two general principles.

11.11. If certain given symmetries of the vertex figure  $(n-1)_{pq}$  of a given polytope  $n_{pq}$  are known to generate the whole group of symmetries of  $(n-1)_{pq}$ , and are expressible in terms of certain symmetries  $X, X'$ , etc., of  $n_{pq}$ ; and if  $X, X'$ , etc., suffice to change any vertex of  $n_{pq}$  into any other; then  $X, X'$ , etc., will generate the whole group of symmetries of  $n_{pq}$ .

11.12. If two symmetries,  $X$  and  $X'$ , of a given polytope which differs from a second given polytope only by lacking a certain symmetry  $Y$  of period 2 (*i.e.*, such that  $Y^2 = 1$ ), are known to generate the whole group of symmetries of the first polytope; and if  $X$ , of odd order (say  $h$ ), is permutable with  $Y$ ; then (since  $(XY)^h = Y$  and  $(XY)^{h+1} = X$ ) the two symmetries  $XY$  and  $X'$  will generate the whole group of symmetries of the second polytope.

11.2. The group of symmetries of

$$n_{p0} = \alpha_m \quad (m = n + p + 1),$$

being simply the “symmetric group” on  $m + 1$  symbols (which can be taken to represent the vertices), is generated by any two cyclic permutations which “overlap” (*i.e.*, which have at least one symbol in common, the common symbols, if more than one, being arranged consecutively in the same order in the two cyclic permutations) and together involve all the symbols, without both involving an odd number of symbols. Thus the simplest generation is by

$$11.21 \quad (12 \dots r) \quad \text{and} \quad (m \ m + 1),$$

where  $r = m$  or  $m + 1$  (either, equally well). Another suitable pair of symmetries is

$$11.22 \quad (12 \dots r) \quad \text{and} \quad (m - 1 \ m \ m + 1),$$

where

$$r = 2 \left[ \frac{m}{2} \right] \quad \text{or} \quad 2 \left[ \frac{m + 1}{2} \right].*$$

The truncation

$$O_{np} = t_n \alpha_m$$

has precisely the same group of symmetries as  $\alpha_m$ , except when  $n = p$ , *i.e.*,  $m = 2n + 1$ .

$$O_{nn} = t_n \alpha_{2n+1}$$

possesses in addition the reflection in its centre, which we shall call T. By 11.12 and 11.21, its group of symmetries is generated by

$$11.23 \quad (12 \dots r)T \quad \text{and} \quad (m \ m + 1),$$

where

$$r = 2 \left[ \frac{m}{2} \right] + 1.$$

Alternatively, by 11.22, it is generated by

$$11.24 \quad (12 \dots r) \quad \text{and} \quad (m - 1 \ m \ m + 1)T,$$

where

$$r = 2 \left[ \frac{m}{2} \right] \quad \text{or} \quad 2 \left[ \frac{m + 1}{2} \right].$$

11.3. If

$$p \neq q,$$

the group of symmetries of

$$(-1)_{pq} = [\alpha_p, \alpha_q]$$

(which is the “direct product” of symmetric groups on  $p + 1$  symbols  $a_i$  and  $q + 1$  symbols  $b_j$ ) is generated by

$$11.31 \quad (a_1 a_2 \dots a_r) (b_q b_{q+1}) \quad \text{and} \quad (b_1 b_2 \dots b_s) (a_p a_{p+1}),$$

where

$$r = 2 \left[ \frac{p}{2} \right] + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad s = 2 \left[ \frac{q}{2} \right] + 1.$$

\* “ $\left[ \frac{m}{2} \right]$ ” means “the greatest integer not greater than  $\frac{m}{2}$ .”

For, calling these two operations A and B, we have

$$A^r = (b_q b_{q+1}) \quad \text{and} \quad B^s = (a_p a_{p+1}),$$

$$A^{r+1} = (a_1 a_2 \dots a_r) \quad \text{and} \quad B^{s+1} = (b_1 b_2 \dots b_s).$$

Thus  $A^{r+1}$  and  $B^s$  give all the permutations of the  $a$ 's, while  $B^{s+1}$  and  $A^r$  give all the permutations of the  $b$ 's.

If  $p$  and  $q$  were equal, we should require a further operation (of period 2) to interchange the  $a$ 's and  $b$ 's bodily.

**11.4.** The group of symmetries of

$$n_{11} = \beta_m \quad (m = n + 3)$$

is generated by the permutations of the vertices of one bounding  $\alpha_{m-1}$ , together with the reflection ( $T_1$ , say) which simply interchanges one pair of opposite vertices. By 11.12 and 11.22, the group is therefore generated by

$$11.41 \quad (12 \dots r) \quad \text{and} \quad (m-2 \ m-1 \ m) T_1,$$

where

$$r = 2 \left[ \frac{m-1}{2} \right] \quad \text{or} \quad 2 \left[ \frac{m}{2} \right].$$

In considering

$$1_{n1} = h\gamma_m,$$

we shall use the co-ordinates 6.22. Let  $(12 \dots r)$  denote the cyclic permutation of the co-ordinates  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r$ ; and let  $T_{ij}$  subtract the co-ordinates  $x_i, x_j$  each from 1. Then clearly the group of symmetries is generated by

$$11.42 \quad (12 \dots r) \quad \text{and} \quad (m-2 \ m-1 \ m) T_{12},$$

where  $r$  is the same as in 11.41.

When  $m = 5$ , there is an interesting alternative generation. Let

$$[ij] = (ij) T_{ij}.$$

Then, since

$$(12) = [14] [24] [14]$$

and

$$[14] = (12345)^2 [24] (12345)^{-2},$$

the group of symmetries of

$$(PA)_5 = 1_{21} = h\gamma_5$$

is generated by

$$11.43 \quad (12345) \quad \text{and} \quad [24].$$

**11.5.** The principle 11.11 now proves that the group of symmetries of

$$(PA)_6 = 2_{21}$$

is generated by the *three* operations

$$11.51 \quad (12345), \quad (56) \quad \text{and} \quad [135 \cdot 246]$$

in the notation of 9.44. For, these symmetries suffice to change any vertex into any other, while the (magnified) vertex figure 9.45 possesses the symmetries 11.43, which are related to 11.51 by the identity

$$[24] = [135 \cdot 246].$$

In the next section (11.6) we shall reduce these three symmetries to two.

The same principle proves that the group of symmetries of

$$(PA)_7 = 3_{21}$$

is generated by the two,

$$11.52 \quad (1234567) \quad \text{and} \quad [1357 \cdot 2468],$$

in the notation of 9.34. For, the symmetries 11.52 together give [2461 . 3578], this and [1357 . 2468] give (by 9.35) the transposition (18), this and (1234567) give all the permutations of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and these with [1357 . 2468] give all the bifid reflections. Finally, we can express the symmetries 11.51 of the vertex figure in terms of those we have just found, in virtue of 9.37.

Incidentally, it follows that the group (of order  $\frac{1}{2} 7! P_7 = 1451520$ ) of automorphisms of the 28 bitangents  $c_{ij}$  of the general plane quartic curve, can be generated by means of the cyclic permutation

$$(1234567)$$

of seven of the eight suffix-numbers, together with the " bifid substitution "

$$1357 \cdot 2468.$$

(Regarded as a symmetry of  $(PA)_7$ , the latter is the " bifid rotation " which, in our notation, takes the value

$$[1357 \cdot 2468] T = T_{1357} ST_{2468}.)$$

11.6. In 10.8, we saw that

$$(PA)_6 \ 3\sqrt{2},$$

in the form 10.25, possesses the  $9 + 27$  symmetries

$$11.61 \quad (jj'), \quad (kk'), \quad (ll'), \quad V_{ikl};$$

where

$$j, j' \text{ are two of } 1, 2, 3; \quad k, k', \text{ two of } 4, 5, 6; \quad l, l', \text{ two of } 7, 8, 9.$$

Now, the points 10.25 or 10.27 can be actually transformed into the points 9.41 or 9.43, by means of the transformation

$$2\Omega T_{123} RU_{78} \frac{1}{3},$$

where  $\Omega$  is defined in 10.12,  $R$  and  $U_{78}$  in 9.1, while  $T_{123}$  changes the signs of  $x_1, x_2$  and  $x_3$ . This means that we take in turn each point of 10.25, double all its co-ordinates, operate with  $\Omega$ , change the first three signs, drop the ninth co-ordinate (which is now constantly zero), add one to each of the remaining co-ordinates and a further two to

to the seventh and eighth, and finally divide throughout by 3. Explicitly, in virtue of 10.11, the relation

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7, x_8, x_9) 2\Omega T_{123} RU_{78} \frac{1}{3} = (x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4, x'_5, x'_6, x'_7, x'_8)$$

implies

$$\begin{cases} x'_j = \frac{1}{3}(1 - 2x_j - x_9) & (j = 1 \text{ or } 2 \text{ or } 3), \\ x'_k = \frac{1}{3}(1 + 2x_k + x_9) & (k = 4 \text{ or } 5 \text{ or } 6), \\ x'_l = \frac{1}{3}(3 + 2x_l + x_9) & (l = 7 \text{ or } 8). \end{cases}$$

The symmetries 11.61 become (by the same transformation) the 15 + 1 + 20 symmetries,

$$11.62 \quad (ij), (78), [fgh \cdot ijk] \quad (f, g, h, i, j, k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6),$$

of the

$$(PA)_6 2\sqrt{2}$$

whose vertices are 9.43;  $(ij)$  being a transposition of the suffix-numbers, (78) the transposition of  $a$  and  $b$ , and  $[fgh \cdot ijk]$  the operation 9.44.

The details of the correlation are as follows:

Vertices.	
$u_1 s_j$	$a_j$
$u_2 s_j$	$b_j$
$u_3 s_j$	$c_{j'j''}$
$s_j t_{k-3}$	$c_{jk}$
$t_{k-3} u_1$	$b_k$
$t_{k-3} u_2$	$a_k$
$t_{k-3} u_3$	$c_{k'k''}$

Symmetries.	
$(jj')$	$(jj')$
$(kk')$	$(kk')$
(78)	(78)
(79)	[123 . 456]
(89)	[456 . 123]
$V_{jk7}$	[ $j'j''k \cdot jk'k''$ ]
$V_{jk8}$	[ $jk'k'' \cdot j'j''k$ ]
$V_{jk9}$	$(jk)$



Here

$$j, j', j'' \quad \text{are } 1, 2, 3 \quad \text{in any order,}$$

and

$$k, k', k'' \quad \text{are } 4, 5, 6 \quad \text{in any order.}$$

We have seen that the whole group of symmetries of

$$(\text{PA})_6 = 2_{21}$$

is generated by 11.51 and *a fortiori* by 11.62. Hence it is also generated by 11.61, and consequently by the *two* symmetries

$$11.63 \quad (147258369) \quad \text{and} \quad V_{169}.$$

For, we at once obtain

$$V_{149}, V_{147}, V_{247}, V_{257}, V_{258}, V_{358}, V_{368}, V_{369};$$

and thence, by 10.63, all the transpositions

$$(64), (97), (12), (45), (78), (23), (56), (89), (31);$$

which in turn give the rest of the  $V_{jkl}$ 's.

Incidentally, it follows that the group (of order  $6! P_6 = 51840$ ) of automorphism of the 27 lines on the general cubic surface, can be generated by two operations. For details, see the Appendix.

11.7. Since

$$(1234567) = (12) (23) (34) (45) (56) (67)$$

and

$$(ij) = (\text{ST}_{ij})^3$$

and

$$[1357 \cdot 2468] = T_{13} T_{57} \text{ST}_{13} T_{57},$$

it follows (by 11.11 and 11.52) that the group of symmetries of

$$(\text{PA})_8 = 4_{21}$$

is generated by

$$S \quad \text{and} \quad T_{ij} \quad (i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; i \neq j),$$

in the notation of 9.2.

The correlation 10.7 changes these particular symmetries into

$$(89) \quad \text{and} \quad (ij) V_{ij9}.$$

But, by 10.63,

$$(ij) = V_{ghi} V_{ghj} V_{ghi}.$$

Hence the group is generated by

$$V_{ijk} \quad (i, j, k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; i \neq j \neq k \neq i),$$

where the suffix-number 9 may be excluded, in virtue of 10.64. Finally, it is generated by the two symmetries

$$11.71 \quad (12345678) \quad \text{and} \quad V_{123}.$$

For, these together give

$$V_{234}, \quad V_{456}, \quad V_{567}, \quad V_{781}, \quad V_{812};$$

whence we obtain the particular transpositions

$$(14), \quad (47), \quad (72).$$

Since

$$(12) = (72) (47) (14) (47) (72),$$

we can deduce all the permutations of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and thence the rest of the  $V_{ijk}$ 's.

It follows now from 11.11 that the group of symmetries of

$$(PA)_9 = 5_{21}$$

is generated by

$$11.72 \quad (12345678) \quad \text{and} \quad V_{123} \quad \text{and} \quad U_{123},$$

in the notation of 10.6.

11.8. From the point of view of symmetry,  $(PA)_6$  differs from its semi-reciprocal

$$(IA)_6 = 1_{22}$$

only by lacking the reflection in its centre. Hence, by 11.12 and 11.63, the group of symmetries of the latter polytope is generated by

$$11.81 \quad (147258369) T \quad \text{and} \quad V_{169}.$$

For the degenerate

$$(IA)_7 = 2_{22},$$

we have to insert a translation. So its group of symmetries is generated by

$$11.82 \quad (147258369) T \quad \text{and} \quad V_{169} \quad \text{and} \quad U_{169}.$$

(It seems possible that the "T" is here unnecessary, but this has not been proved.)

$$2_{31} \quad \text{and} \quad 1_{32} \quad \text{have the same symmetries (11.52) as} \quad (PA)_7 = 3_{21}.$$

$$2_{41} \quad ,, \quad 1_{42} \quad ,, \quad ,, \quad ,, \quad (11.71) \quad ,, \quad (PA)_8 = 4_{21}.$$

$$2_{51} \quad ,, \quad 1_{52} \quad ,, \quad ,, \quad ,, \quad (11.72) \quad ,, \quad (PA)_9 = 5_{21}.$$

By 11.11, the group of symmetries of

$$(SA)_8 = 3_{31}$$

is generated by 11.52 along with a suitable translation, in fact by

$$11.83 \quad (1234567) \quad \text{and} \quad T_{1357} ST_{1357} \quad \text{and} \quad T_{1357} RT_{1357}$$

(see 9.6).

Now only  $1_{33}$  remains to be examined.

11.9. By 7.8, the vertices of  $1_{33} \times$  are the centres of the  $\alpha_7$ 's of  $3_{31}$ .

Consider the  $(SA)_8$   $8\sqrt{2}$  whose vertices have eight co-ordinates, all congruent to 0 or to 4, modulo 8, and adding up to zero. The centre of a typical bounding  $\alpha_7$   $8\sqrt{2}$  is

$$11.91 \quad (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1; -7).$$

In virtue of the symmetries

$$(1234567) \quad \text{and} \quad T_{1357} ST_{1357} \quad \text{and} \quad T_{1357} R^4 T_{1357},$$

this point gives rise to the totality of points whose eight co-ordinates, adding up to zero, have, as residues modulo 8, either eight 1's, 3's, 5's, 7's, four 1's and four 5's, or four 3's and four 7's. Since these points possess the additional symmetry  $T'^*$  which reflects in the point 11.91, they must be the vertices of  $I_{33} \times$  (in fact, of  $I_{33} 4\sqrt{2}$ ).

Hence the group of symmetries of

$$I_{33}$$

is generated by

$$11.92 \quad (1234567) T' \quad \text{and} \quad T_{1357} ST_{1357} \quad \text{and} \quad T_{1357} R^4 T_{1357}.$$

## 12. *Truncations of $n_{pq}$ . Tables.*

12.1. The only non-trivial polytopes of the form 7.31 are

$$12.11 \quad O_{npq} = [\alpha_n, \alpha_p, \alpha_q]^{+1},$$

with the existence condition 7.32. For otherwise, the simplest possible vertex figure which does not reduce to a prism with only two constituents is

$$[\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_q],$$

which has circum-radius

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2}\right)} > 1.$$

Clearly

$$12.12 \quad O_{0pq} = O_{pq} = t_p \alpha_{p+q+1}$$

and

$$12.13 \quad O_{n11} = [\alpha_n, \beta_2]^{+1} = t_2 \gamma_{n+3}.$$

In particular,

$$O_{000} = \alpha_1$$

and

$$O_{111} = \{3, 4, 3\}.$$

Thus the only new polytopes which arise in this way are

12.14

$$\begin{array}{c} O_{221} \\ O_{321} \\ O_{421} \\ O_{521} \\ O_{331} \\ O_{222} \end{array}$$

of which the last three are degenerate (by 7.46).

\* In terms of the usual symbols,

$$T' = (U_{18}U_{28}U_{12}^{-1})^2 R^{-1} TR (U_{12}U_{28}^{-1}U_{18}^{-1})^2.$$

As in the case of  $n_{pq}$ , the number of dimensions is

$$m = n + p + q + 1.$$

12.2. By 7.6, the number of vertices of  $O_{npq}$  is

$$12.21 \quad ({}^0|m) = [n \ p \ q]$$

Also, by 4.6, the elements of

$$[\alpha_n, \alpha_p, \alpha_q]$$

consist of

$$\binom{n+1}{n'+1} \binom{p+1}{p'+1} \binom{q+1}{q'+1} [\alpha_{n'}, \alpha_{p'}, \alpha_{q'}]'s,$$

for all  $n', p', q'$  satisfying

$$\begin{cases} 0 \leq n' \leq n, \\ 0 \leq p' \leq p, \\ 0 \leq q' \leq q. \end{cases}$$

Hence, by 2.52, the elements, other than vertices, of  $O_{npq}$ , consist of

$$12.22 \quad \binom{n'+p'+q'+1}{m} = \binom{n+1}{n'+1} \binom{p+1}{p'+1} \binom{q+1}{q'+1} \frac{[n \ p \ q]}{[n' \ p' \ q']} \\ O_{n'p'q'}'s.$$

As in the case of  $n_{pq}$ , we fix the order of the suffixes so as to distinguish between equal elements (such as  $O_{rst}$  and  $O_{srt}$ ,  $r \neq s$ ) which are of different type. In the case of  $O_{222}$ , equal elements are always equivalent, but the division into types indicates that various kinds of elements can be divided uniquely into three (indeed the  $t_1\alpha_4$ 's into six) congruent sets.

By 2.41 and 4.71, the order of the group of symmetries of  $O_{npq}$  is

$$12.23 \quad g_m = \lambda(n+1)! (p+1)! (q+1)! [n \ p \ q],$$

where

$$\lambda = 1 + \epsilon_{pq} + \epsilon_{qn} + \epsilon_{np} + 2\epsilon_{pq} \epsilon_{qn} \epsilon_{np} - \epsilon_{p0} \epsilon_{q0} - \epsilon_{q0} \epsilon_{n0} - \epsilon_{n0} \epsilon_{p0} - 2\epsilon_{n0} \epsilon_{p0} \epsilon_{q0}.$$

12.3. We saw in 7.35 that

$$12.31 \quad O_{npq} = t_n n_{pq}.$$

There are, by 5.8, other truncations

$$t_l n_{pq}$$

for all

$$l < n$$

and also (since all  $(n+1)$ -dimensional elements of  $n_{pq}$  are of type  $n_{00}$ ) for

$$l = n + 1.$$

12.4. One naturally tries to obtain some sort of higher truncations by taking for vertices the centres of all those elements of  $n_{pq}$  which are of the same type

$$n_{p'q'} \quad (p' + q' > 0).$$

The results are as follows :—

If  $q' = q$  we obtain  $t_{p-p'-1} p_{qn}$  (by the theorem stated at the end of 7.8).

Similarly, if  $p' = p$  we obtain  $t_{q-q'-1} q_{np}$ .

But if  $p > p' \neq q' < q$ , the resulting polytope is not uniform, its edges being unequal. (The case  $p' = q'$  offers a new field for research.)

To take a very simple example, consider the edges of the triangular prism  $(-1)_{21}$ . The centres of the lateral edges, which are of type  $(-1)_{01}$  (since they do not belong to the base  $(-1)_{20}$ ), are the vertices of  $t_1 2_{1(-1)} = \alpha_2$ . But the centres of the basal edges, of type  $(-1)_{10}$ , are the vertices of the *thin* triangular prism  $[\alpha_2 \frac{1}{2}, \alpha_1]$ .

**12.5.** By 7.72, if  $l \leq n$ ,  $t_l n_{pq}$  has  $\binom{n+1}{l+1} \frac{[n p q]}{[(n-l-1) p q]}$  vertices. By 5.8, its vertex figure is  $[\alpha_l, (n-l-1)_{pq}]$ .

But, by 7.73,  $t_{n+1} n_{pq}$  has  $(p+1)(q+1) \frac{[n p q]}{n+2}$  vertices. Its vertex figure is  $[\alpha_{n+1}, (\alpha_{p-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha_{q-1})]$ .

These facts are sufficient to determine all the numerical properties of

$$t_l n_{pq} \quad (l \leq n+1).$$

In particular, it is bounded by

$$(n+1) \frac{[n p q]}{[(n-1) p q]} \quad t_{l-1} (n-1)_{pq}'\text{s}$$

and

$$(p+1) \frac{[n p q]}{[n (p-1) q]} \quad t_l n_{(p-1)q}'\text{s}$$

and

$$(q+1) \frac{[n p q]}{[n p (q-1)]} \quad t_l n_{p(q-1)}'\text{s}.$$

**12.6.** In the following tables, the elements of each polytope are given in a column. The numbers referring to equal elements of different type are bracketed. In 12.7 and 12.8, the type-symbols are given immediately after the numbers; in 12.9 they appear at the ends of the lines. In 12.7 and 12.8, the numbers unaccompanied by type-symbols refer to  $\alpha$ 's in the first category of 7.5; in 12.9, such numbers refer to vertices (*i.e.*, every line ends in a type-symbol except that headed " $\alpha_0$ ").

Everything in these tables is deducible from 7.4, 7.7, 7.9, 12.1 and 12.2, the values of

being (by 7.6 and 8.7)—

$$[n p q]$$

$$[(-1) p q] = 1,$$

$$[0 p q] = \binom{p+q+2}{p+1},$$

$$[n 1 1] = 2^n (n+2) (n+3),$$

$$[2 2 1] = 720,$$

$$[3 2 1] = 10080,$$

$$[4 2 1] = 483840,$$

$$[5 2 1] = [3 3 1] = [2 2 2] = \infty.$$

12.7. TABLE of the Simpler Polytopes  $n_{pq}$ , namely, those belonging to Infinite Series of Polytopes.

Name :	Order of group :	No. of dimensions :	Order of group :	Order of group :	Order of group :
					$n_{11} = \beta_{n+3}$
					$2^{n+3} (n+3)!$
					$n+3$
(Vertices)	$\alpha_0$				$2(n+3)$
(Edges)	$\alpha_1$				$2(n+2)(n+3)$
	$\alpha_{r+2}$				$2^{r+3} \binom{n+3}{r+3} (r < n-1)$
	$\alpha_{n+1}$				$2^{n+2} (n+3)$
	$\alpha_{n+2}$				$2^{n+2}$
	$[\alpha_r, \alpha_s]$				$2^{n+2}$
	$t_r \alpha_{r+s+1}$				$n_{00}$
	$h_r \gamma_{r+3}$				$n_{10}$
					$n_{01}$
					$1_{r0}$
					$1_{r1}$

N.B.—This table includes the properties of :—

- $(PA)_3 = (-1)_{21}$ ,  $(PA)_4 = 0_{21}$
- $(SA)_4 = (-1)_{31}$ ,  $(SA)_5 = 0_{31}$
- $(IA)_4 = (-1)_{22}$ ,  $(IA)_5 = 0_{22}$

- $(PA)_5 = 1_{21}$
- $(SA)_6 = 1_{31}$

Name :	$2_{21}=(PA)_6$	$1_{22}=(IA)_6$	$3_{21}=(PA)_7$	$2_{31}=(SA)_7$	$1_{32}$	$4_{21}=(PA)_8$	
Order of group :	51840	103680	2903040	2903040	2903040	696729600	
No. of dimensions :	6	6	7	7	7	8	
(Vertices) $\alpha_0$	27	72	56	126	576	240	
(Edges) $\alpha_1$	216	720	756	2016	10080	6720	
$\alpha_2$	720	2160	$1_{00}$ 4032	10080	40320	$1_{00}$ 60480	
$\alpha_3$	1080	$2_{00}$ { 1080 1080	$1_{10}$ 10080	20160	$2_{00}$ { 30240 20160	$1_{10}$ 241920	
$\alpha_4$	{ 432 216	$2_{10}$ { 216 $2_{01}$ 216	$1_{20}$ 12096	$3_{00}$ { 12096 4032	$2_{10}$ { 12096 $2_{01}$ 4032	$1_{20}$ 483840	
$\beta_4$		270	$1_{11}$		7560	$1_{11}$	
$\alpha_5$	72	$2_{20}$	{ 4032 2016	$3_{10}$ $3_{01}$	4032	$2_{20}$ 2016	$1_{30}$ 483840
$\beta_5$	27	$2_{11}$			756	$2_{11}$	
$h\gamma_5$		{ 27 27	$1_{21}$ $1_{12}$		{ 1512 756	$1_{21}$ $1_{12}$	
$\alpha_6$			576	$3_{20}$	576	$2_{30}$	{ 138240 69120
$\beta_6$			126	$3_{11}$			$4_{10}$ $4_{01}$
$h\gamma_6$					126	$1_{31}$	
$(PA)_6 = 2_{21}$				56	$2_{21}$		
$(IA)_6 = 1_{22}$					56	$1_{22}$	
$\alpha_7$							17280
$\beta_7$							$4_{20}$
$h\gamma_7$							2160
$(PA)_7 = 3_{21}$							$4_{11}$
$(SA)_7 = 2_{31}$							
$1_{32}$							
$\alpha_8$							
$\beta_8$							
$h\gamma_8$							
$2_{41}$							
$1_{42}$							

Polytopes  $n_{pq}$ .

$2_{41}$		$1_{42}$		$5_{21}=(PA)_9$		$2_{51}$		$1_{52}$		$3_{31}=(SA)_8$		$1_{33}$		$2_{22}=(IA)_7$	
696729600		696729600		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$	
8		8		9		9		9		8		8		7	
2160		17280		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$	
69120		483840		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$	
483840		2419200	$1_{00}$	$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$	$1_{00}$	$\infty$		$\infty$	$1_{00}$	$\infty$	
1209600	$2_{00}$	2419200	$1_{10}$	$\infty$		$\infty$	$2_{00}$	$\infty$	$1_{10}$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$1_{10}$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$2_{00}$
		1209600	$1_{01}$	$\infty$		$\infty$			$1_{01}$	$\infty$		$1_{01}$	$\infty$		
967680	$2_{10}$	1451520	$1_{20}$	$\infty$		$\infty$	$2_{10}$	$\infty$	$1_{20}$	$\infty$	$3_{00}$	$1_{20}$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$2_{10}$
		241920	$1_{02}$	$\infty$		$\infty$			$1_{02}$	$\infty$		$1_{02}$	$\infty$		
241920	$2_{01}$	604800	$1_{11}$	$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$	$1_{11}$	$\infty$		$1_{11}$	$\infty$		
483840	$2_{20}$	483840	$1_{30}$	$\infty$		$\infty$	$2_{20}$	$\infty$	$1_{30}$	$\infty$	$3_{10}$	$1_{30}$	$\infty$	$2_{20}$	
											$3_{01}$	$1_{03}$		$1_{03}$	$\infty$
60480	$2_{11}$	181440	$1_{21}$	$\infty$		$\infty$	$2_{11}$	$\infty$	$1_{21}$	$\infty$		$1_{21}$	$\infty$	$2_{11}$	
		60480	$1_{12}$	$\infty$		$\infty$			$1_{12}$		$1_{12}$	$1_{12}$		$1_{12}$	$1_{12}$
138240	$2_{30}$	69120	$1_{40}$	$\infty$	$5_{00}$	$\infty$	$2_{30}$	$\infty$	$1_{40}$	$\infty$	$3_{20}$	$1_{31}$	$\infty$	$2_{21}$	
											$3_{11}$	$1_{13}$		$1_{13}$	$2_{12}$
		30240	$1_{31}$	$\infty$		$\infty$		$\infty$	$1_{31}$	$\infty$		$1_{31}$	$\infty$	$2_{21}$	
6720	$2_{21}$					$\infty$	$2_{21}$	$\infty$	$1_{22}$		$\infty$			$1_{22}$	$1_{22}$
		6720	$1_{22}$	$\infty$	$5_{10}$	$\infty$	$2_{40}$	$\infty$	$1_{22}$	$\infty$		$1_{22}$	$\infty$	$2_{12}$	
17280	$2_{40}$				$5_{01}$	$\infty$	$2_{40}$	$\infty$	$1_{50}$		$\infty$	$3_{30}$			$1_{22}$
		2160	$1_{41}$			$\infty$		$\infty$	$1_{41}$	$\infty$			$\infty$		
											$3_{21}$				
240	$2_{31}$					$\infty$	$2_{31}$	$\infty$		$\infty$		$1_{32}$	$\infty$	$2_{31}$	
		240	$1_{32}$			$\infty$		$\infty$	$1_{32}$		$\infty$			$1_{23}$	$1_{23}$
				$\infty$	$5_{20}$	$\infty$	$2_{50}$	$\infty$		$\infty$			$\infty$		
				$\infty$	$5_{11}$	$\infty$		$\infty$	$1_{51}$		$\infty$				
						$\infty$	$2_{41}$	$\infty$	$1_{42}$						



TABLE of Polytopes  $O_{npp}$ .

Name :	$O_{221}$	$O_{321}$	$O_{421}$	$O_{521}$	$O_{331}$	$O_{222}$	Type
	Order of group :	2903040	696729600	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
No. of dimensions :	6	7	8	9	8	7	
(Vertices) $\alpha_0$	720	10080	483840	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$O_{000}$
(Edges) $\alpha_1$	6480	120960	7257600	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$O_{100}$ $O_{010}$ $O_{001}$
$\alpha_2$	4320	120960	9676800	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$O_{200}$ $O_{020}$ $O_{002}$
$\alpha_3$	4320	80640	4838400	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$O_{110}$ $O_{101}$ $O_{011}$
	2160	40320	2419200	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$O_{300}$ $O_{030}$
	1080	60480	7257600	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$O_{210}$ $O_{120}$ $O_{201}$ $O_{021}$ $O_{102}$ $O_{012}$
	1080	20160	1209600	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	$O_{111}$
$\beta_3$	2160	60480	4838400	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
	1080	30240	2419200	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
	1080	20160	1209600	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
$\alpha_4$		12096	2903040	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
$t_1\alpha_4$	432	24192	2903040	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
	432	12096	967680	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
	216	12096	1451520	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
	216	4032	241920	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	
{3, 4, 3}	270	7560	604800	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$	

REGULAR-PRISMATIC VERTEX FIGURES.

$\alpha_5$																	$O_{400}$
$t_1\alpha_5$																	$O_{310}$ $O_{130}$ $O_{301}$ $O_{031}$
$t_2\alpha_5$			72														$O_{220}$ $O_{202}$ $O_{022}$
$t_2\gamma_5$			27	27													$O_{211}$ $O_{121}$ $O_{112}$
$\alpha_6$																	$O_{500}$
$t_1\alpha_6$																	$O_{410}$ $O_{401}$
$t_2\alpha_6$																	$O_{320}$ $O_{230}$
$t_2\gamma_6$																	$O_{311}$ $O_{131}$
$O_{221}$																	$O_{221}$ $O_{212}$ $O_{122}$
$t_1\alpha_7$																	$O_{510}$ $O_{501}$
$t_2\alpha_7$																	$O_{420}$
$t_3\alpha_7$																	$O_{330}$
$t_2\gamma_7$																	$O_{411}$
$O_{321}$																	$O_{321}$ $O_{231}$
$t_2\alpha_8$																	$O_{520}$
$t_2\gamma_8$																	$O_{511}$
$O_{421}$																	$O_{421}$

Name :	$O_{n11}$	
Order of group :	$(1 + 2\varepsilon_{n1}) 2^{n+3} (n + 3) !$	
No. of dimensions :	$n + 3$	Type
(Vertices) $\alpha_0$	$2^n (n + 2) (n + 3)$	
$\alpha_{n'+1}$	$2^{n+2} (n + 3) \binom{n+2}{n'+2}$	$O_{n'00}$
$t_1\alpha_{n'+2}$	$2^{n+2} \binom{n+3}{n'+3}$	$O_{n'10}$
	$2^{n+2} \binom{n+3}{n'+3}$	$O_{n'01}$
$t_2\gamma_{n'+3}$	$2^{n-n'} \binom{n+3}{n'+3}$	$O_{n'11}$

## APPENDIX

*On the Generation of the Group of the Lines of a Cubic Surface by Two Operations.*

**13.1.** The group of symmetries of  $(PA)_6$  is simply isomorphic with the group of automorphisms of the lines on a general cubic surface. For, there is a perfect correspondence between the distances occurring among the vertices of  $(PA)_6$  and the intersections occurring among the lines. This may easily be seen by comparing 9.43 with the ordinary SCHLÄFLI notation for the lines.

**13.2.** It is known\* that the group is generated by the combination of every permutation of the suffix-numbers

$$1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$$

with any particular "bifid substitution" such as

$$[135 . 246]$$

(defined in 9.44), and therefore, for example, by the *three* operations consisting of this bifid substitution and the two cyclic permutations

$$(16), (123456).$$

\* BURNSIDE, 'Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.,' vol. 10, p. 301 (1911).

13.3. In 11.63, we found (in terms of a different notation) a generation of the group by *two* operations. It is of interest to translate this into the familiar SCHLÄFLI notation.

Let

$$\begin{cases} H_0 = V_{169}, \\ \omega = (147258369)^4. \end{cases}$$

Then, since

$$\omega^7 = (147258369),$$

it must be possible to generate the group by means of  $H_0$  and  $\omega$ .

13.4. On reverting to the SCHLÄFLI notation, we find (by the correlation given in 11.6)—

$$H_0 = (16)$$

and

$$\omega = XYZ,$$

where X, Y, Z are cyclic permutations, each of nine of the twenty-seven lines, namely,

$$X = (a_3 b_6 c_{26} \ c_{13} c_{46} c_{15} \ b_1 a_4 c_{34}),$$

$$Y = (c_{23} a_5 c_{14} \ b_3 b_4 c_{36} \ a_2 c_{45} c_{25}),$$

$$Z = (b_2 c_{56} c_{35} \ a_1 a_6 c_{24} \ c_{12} b_5 c_{16}).$$

13.5. To verify that the group is generated by the single operation  $\omega$ , of period 9, and the transposition  $H_0$ ; it is sufficient to express, in terms of  $\omega$  and  $H_0$ , five consecutive transpositions (thus providing all permutations of the six suffix-numbers) and the bifid substitution. Let

$$H_n = \omega^n H_0 \omega^{9-n}$$

(the operations written to the left being those *first* performed). We then have

$$(23) = H_6 H_8 H_6, \quad (36) = H_2, \quad (61) = H_0, \quad (14) = H_7, \quad (45) = H_3 H_1 H_3,$$

and

$$[135 \ . \ 246] = H_1.$$

13.6. That  $\omega$  is actually an operation of the group may be directly verified. Let the lines

$$a_3, \quad c_{23}, \quad b_2,$$

or any other three lines which occur in corresponding places in the three brackets X, Y, Z, written down above, be respectively denoted by

$$\xi, \eta, \zeta.$$

Then the three sets, each of nine lines, take the form

$$\xi \omega^i, \eta \omega^j, \zeta \omega^k \quad (i, j, k = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8).$$

If “ $\sim$ ” means “intersects,” (remembering that  $\omega^9 = 1$ ) the rules of intersection are as follows :—

$$\begin{aligned} \xi \omega^i &\sim \eta \omega^i \sim \zeta \omega^i, \\ \xi \omega^i &\sim \xi \omega^{i+3} \sim \xi \omega^{i+6}, \\ \eta \omega^j &\sim \eta \omega^{j+3} \sim \eta \omega^{j+6}, \\ \zeta \omega^k &\sim \zeta \omega^{k+3} \sim \zeta \omega^{k+6}, \\ \xi \omega^i &\sim \xi \omega^{i+1}, \\ \eta \omega^j &\sim \eta \omega^{j+2}, \\ \zeta \omega^k &\sim \zeta \omega^{k+4}, \\ \eta \omega^i &\sim \zeta \omega^{i+\lambda} \quad \text{if } \lambda \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}, \\ \zeta \omega^i &\sim \xi \omega^{i+\mu} \quad \text{if } \mu \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{9}, \\ \xi \omega^i &\sim \eta \omega^{i+\nu} \quad \text{if } \nu \equiv \pm 4 \pmod{9}. \end{aligned}$$

(The numbers  $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4$  are the residues, modulo 9, of the various powers of 2, and the notation can be further elaborated.) These rules, it is easy to see, give the 135 intersections, which are therefore unaffected by  $\omega$ . So  $\omega$  belongs to the group, as required.

**13.7.** The operation  $\omega$  may be regarded as a product PQ, in which each of P, Q is of period 2; Q being in fact

$$(16)(25)(34).$$

This is seen at once by applying to each of X, Y, Z (of which no two have a line in common) the obvious decomposition of a cyclic permutation of period 9,

$$(123456789) = (17)(26)(35)(89) \cdot (18)(27)(45)(36).$$

**13.8.** It is manifest that instead of  $\omega$  we may take any power of  $\omega$ , say  $\omega^n$ , where  $n$  is not a multiple of 3. Or we may take, instead of  $\omega$ , an operation obtained from it by any permutation of the suffix-numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

**13.9.** By 9.35,

$$[fgi . jhk][fgj . ihk][fji . jhk] = (ij).$$

Beside the equation

$$H_1 = [135 . 246],$$

we have also

$$H_3 = [134 . 256],$$

$$H_4 = [345 . 126],$$

$$H_5 = [234 . 156],$$

$$H_6 = [346 . 125],$$

$$H_8 = [246 . 135].$$

Thus many identities, besides those utilised in 13.5, are obtainable; as for instance

$$H_1 H_4 H_1 = H_7,$$

$$H_3 H_5 H_3 = (12),$$

$$(H_3 H_5)^3 = 1.$$

Also, from the equations in 13.5, it is clear that, instead of the particular transposition (16), we might quite similarly have used (14) or (36).

## TABLE of Symbols,

together with equivalent symbols used by previous authors (see Preface).

“ A. ”—A. B. STOTT and P. H. SCHOUTE.

“ B. ”—E. L. ELTE.

“ C. ”—D. M. Y. SOMMERVILLE.

(The method adopted is to go through the Latin alphabet, then the Greek alphabet, and finally to take miscellaneous symbols, brackets, etc.)

Symbol.	Reference.	“ A. ”	“ B. ”	“ C. ”
$a_i, b_i$	9.43			
$C_{ij}, c_{ij}$	9.33			
$e\alpha_m$	6.8	$e_{m-1} S(m+1)$		
$g_m$	1.6			
$g_{m-1,1}$	2.4			
$g_{s-u}, u$	3.7			
$g_{-1}$	3.7			
$h\gamma_m$	6.2	$HM_m$	$HM_m$	
$h\delta_m$	6.5	$NH_{m-1}$		
$h\delta_4 = \alpha_3 h$	6.9	$N(O, T)$		
$I_m$	8.9			
$(IA)_m$	8.1			
$(IA)_6 = 1_{22}$	11.8		$V_{72}$	
$(IA)_7 = 2_{22}$	11.8			
$\{k\}$	3.4	$p_k$	$p_k$	
$[\{k\}, \alpha_1]$	4.4	$P_k$	$P_k$	
$[\{k\}, \{k'\}]$	4.4	$(k; k')$		
$k_u$	3.4			$k_u$
$\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{m-1}\}$	3.4			$k_1 k_2 \dots k_{m-1}$
$n_{pq}$	7.33			
$n_{(-1)q}$	7.77, 7.92			
$[n p q]$	7.6, 12.6			
$O_{npq}$	12.11			
$P_m$	8.3			
$(PA)_m$	8.1			
$(PA)_6 = 2_{21}$	11.6		$V_{27}$	
$(PA)_7 = 3_{21}$	11.5		$V_{56}$	
$(PA)_8 = 4_{21}$	11.7		$V_{240}$	
$(PA)_9 = 5_{21}$	9.1, 10.1			
$rR_m, rR_n$	2.7			
$R$	9.1			
$S$	9.2			
$S_m$	8.9			
$(SA)_m$	8.1			
$(SA)_7 = 2_{31}$	9.6		$V_{126}$	
$(SA)_8 = 3_{31}$	9.6			
$T$	9.2, 10.8			
$T_{ij}$	9.2			
$T_{ijkl} = T_{ij} T_{kl}$	9.2			
$t_1(\ ); t_n(\ )$	5.1	$ce_1(\ ); ce_n(\ )$	$t(\ ); (\ )^n$	
$t_1 t_1(\ ); t_1 t_n(\ )$	5.9	$e_2(\ ); ce_{n-1} e_{n+1}(\ )$		
$U_{ij}$	9.1			
$U_{ijk}, V_{ijk}$	10.6			

Table of Symbols—(continued).

Symbol.	Reference.	"A."	"B."	"C."
$(\alpha_{p-1} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\alpha_{q-1})$	4.5			
$\alpha_m$	3.53	$S(m+1)$	$S_m$	
$\alpha_m h$	6.8			
$\alpha_3; \alpha_4$	3.5	$T; C_5$	$T; C_5$	33; 333
$\beta_m$	3.53	$Cr_m$	$Cr_m$	
$\beta_3; \beta_4$	3.5	$O; C_{16}$	$O; C_{16}$	34; 334
$\gamma_m$	3.53	$M_m$	$M_m$	
$\gamma_3; \gamma_4$	3.5	$C; C_8$	$C; C_8$	43; 433
$\delta_m$	3.53	$NM_{m-1}$		
$\delta_4$	4.9	$NC$		434
$\Delta_{m-u, u}$	2.8, 2.9			$K(u+1, m-1)$
$\epsilon_{pq}$	4.73			
$\theta_m$	2.8			$R_{01}$
$\theta_{m-u, u}$	2.8			$\theta_u$
$\lambda$	4.71, 5.51			
$\Pi_m$	1.1			$(Po)_m$
$\Pi_r$	1.2			$(Po)_r$
$\Pi_{-1}$	1.3			
$\Pi'_m, \Pi'_n$	3.3			
$\Pi_{m_p}^{(p)}$	4.11			
$\Pi_r^{+u}$	7.1			
$\tau$	3.61	$\frac{1}{2}(e+1)$	$\frac{1}{2}(e+1)$	$\frac{1}{2}(e+1)$
$\Omega$	10.12			
$1_{32}$	7.45		$V_{576}$	
$2_{41}$	7.45		$V_{2160}$	
$\{2\}$	6.2			
$\{3, 4, 3\} = t_1\beta_4 = O_{111}$	12.1	$C_{24}$	$C_{24}$	343
$\{3, 3, 5\}; \{5, 3, 3\}$	3.5	$C_{600}; C_{120}$	$C_{600}; C_{120}$	335; 533
$\{3, 3, 4, 3\} = h\delta_5$	6.6	$NC_{16}$		3343
$\{3, 4, 3, 3\}$	3.5	$NC_{24}$		3433
$(1^p, 0^q)$	5.7			
$\pm(x_1, x_2, \dots)'$	3.6	$[x_1, x_2, \dots]: 2$	$[x_1, x_2, \dots] \frac{1}{2}$	
$\binom{r}{m}$	1.2		$R_r$	$N_r$
$\binom{r}{s}$	1.2			$N_{rs}$
$\binom{s}{r}$	1.2			$N_{sr}$
$\binom{s}{r n}$	1.2			${}_n N_{sr}$
$\binom{-1}{m}, \binom{s}{-1 n}$	1.3			
$\binom{s-1}{m-1, 1}$	2.5			$V_{s-1}$
$\binom{s-u}{m-u, u}$	2.6			
$\binom{r}{m}'$	1.5			
$( ) \times$	1.7			
$( )_n$	5.2			
$( )^{+u}$	7.1			
$(ij)$	9.2			
$[efgh \cdot ijkl]$	9.34			
$[fgh \cdot ijk]$	9.37			
$\left[ \frac{m}{2} \right]$	6.2			

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