18 SYMMETRY OF POLYTOPES AND POLYHEDRA

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INTRODUCTION

Symmetry of geometric figures is among the most frequently recurring themes in science. The present chapter discusses symmetry of discrete geometric structures, namely of polytopes, polyhedra, and related polytope-like figures. These structures have an outstanding history of study unmatched by almost any other geometric object. The most prominent symmetric figures, the regular solids, occur from very early times and are attributed to Plato (427-347 B.C.E.). Since then, many changes in point of view have occurred about these figures and their symmetry. With the arrival of group theory in the 19th century, many of the early approaches were consolidated and the foundations were laid for a more rigorous development of the theory. In this vein, Schläfli (1814-1895) extended the concept of regular polytopes and tessellations to higher dimensional spaces and explored their symmetry groups as reflection groups.

Today we owe much of our present understanding of symmetry in geometric figures (in a broad sense) to the influential work of Coxeter, which provided a unified approach to regularity of figures based on a powerful interplay of geometry and algebra [Cox73]. Coxeter's work also greatly influenced modern developments in this area, which received a further impetus from work by Grünbaum and Danzer [Grü77a, DS82]. In the past three to four decades, the study of regular figures has been extended in several directions that are all centered around an abstract combinatorial polytope theory and a combinatorial notion of regularity [MS02].

History teaches us that the subject has shown an enormous potential for revival. One explanation for this phenomenon is the appearance of polyhedral structures in many contexts that have little apparent relation to regularity such as their occurrence in nature as crystals [Fej64, Sen95, SF88, Wel77].

18.1 REGULAR CONVEX POLYTOPES AND REGULAR TESSELLATIONS IN $\mathbb{E}^d$

Perhaps the most important (but certainly the most investigated) symmetric polytopes are the regular convex polytopes in Euclidean spaces. See [Grü67] and [Zie95] for general properties of convex polytopes, or Chapter 15 in this Handbook. The most comprehensive text on regular convex polytopes and regular tessellations is [Cox73]; many combinatorial aspects are also discussed in [MS02].

GLOSSARY

Convex d-polytope: The intersection P of finitely many closed halfspaces in a Euclidean space, which is bounded and d-dimensional.

Preliminary version (July 16, 2017). To appear in the Handbook of Discrete and Computational Geometry,
J.E. Goodman, J. O'Rourke, and C. D. Tóth (editors), 3rd edition, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 2017.

Face: The empty set and P itself are ***improper faces*** of dimensions -1 and d, respectively. A ***proper face*** F of P is the (nonempty) intersection of P with a supporting hyperplane of P. (Recall that a hyperplane H ***supports*** P at F if $P \cap H = F$ and P lies in one of the closed halfspaces bounded by H.)

Vertex, edge, i-face, facet: Face of P of dimension $0, 1, i$, or $d-1$, respectively.

Vertex figure: A vertex figure of P at a vertex x is the intersection of P with a hyperplane H that strictly separates x from the other vertices of P. (If P is regular, one often takes H to be the hyperplane passing through the midpoints of the edges that contain x.)

Face lattice of a polytope: The set $\mathcal{F}(P)$ of all (proper and improper) faces of P, ordered by inclusion. As a partially ordered set, this is a ranked lattice. Also, $\mathcal{F}(P) \setminus \{P\}$ is called the ***boundary complex*** of P.

Flag: A maximal totally ordered subset of $\mathcal{F}(P)$. Two flags of P are ***adjacent*** if they differ in one proper face.

Isomorphism of polytopes: A bijection $\varphi : \mathcal{F}(P) \mapsto \mathcal{F}(Q)$ between the face lattices of two polytopes P and Q such that φ preserves incidence in both directions; that is, $F \subseteq G$ in $\mathcal{F}(P)$ if and only if $F\varphi \subseteq G\varphi$ in $\mathcal{F}(Q)$. If such an isomorphism exists, P and Q are ***isomorphic***.

Dual of a polytope: A convex d-polytope Q is the dual of P if there is a ***duality*** $\varphi : \mathcal{F}(P) \mapsto \mathcal{F}(Q)$; that is, a bijection reversing incidences in both directions, meaning that $F \subseteq G$ in $\mathcal{F}(P)$ if and only if $F\varphi \supseteq G\varphi$ in $\mathcal{F}(Q)$. A polytope has many duals but any two are isomorphic, justifying speaking of "the dual." (If P is regular, one often takes Q to be the convex hull of the facet centers of P, or a rescaled copy of this polytope.)

Self-dual polytope: A polytope that is isomorphic to its dual.

Symmetry: A Euclidean isometry of the ambient space (affine hull of P) that maps P to itself.

Symmetry group of a polytope: The group $G(P)$ of all symmetries of P.

Regular polytope: A polytope whose symmetry group $G(P)$ is transitive on the flags.

Schläfli symbol: A symbol $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$ that encodes the local structure of a regular polytope. For each $i = 1, \ldots, d-1$, if F is any $(i{+}1)$-face of P, then p_i is the number of i-faces of F that contain a given $(i{-}2)$-face of F.

Tessellation: A family T of convex d-polytopes in Euclidean d-space $\mathbb{E}^d$, called the ***tiles*** of T, such that the union of all tiles of T is $\mathbb{E}^d$, and any two distinct tiles do not have interior points in common. All tessellations are assumed to be ***locally finite***, meaning that each point of $\mathbb{E}^d$ has a neighborhood meeting only finitely many tiles, and ***face-to-face***, meaning that the intersection of any two tiles is a face of each (possibly the empty face); see Chapter 3.

Face lattice of a tessellation: A ***proper face*** of T is a nonempty face of a tile of T. ***Improper faces*** of T are the empty set and the whole space $\mathbb{E}^d$. The set $\mathcal{F}(T)$ of all (proper and improper) faces is a ranked lattice called the face lattice of T. Concepts such as isomorphism and duality carry over from polytopes.

Symmetry group of a tessellation: The group $G(T)$ of all symmetries of T; that is, of all isometries of the ambient (spherical, Euclidean, or hyperbolic) space that preserve T. Concepts such as regularity and Schläfli symbol carry over from polytopes.

Apeirogon: A tessellation of the real line with closed intervals of the same length. This can also be regarded as an infinite polygon whose edges are given by the intervals.

ENUMERATION AND CONSTRUCTION

The convex regular polytopes P in $\mathbb{E}^d$ are known for each d. If $d = 1$, P is a line segment and $|G(P)| = 2$. In all other cases, up to similarity, P can be uniquely described by its Schläfli symbol $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$. For convenience one writes $P = \{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$. If $d = 2$, P is a convex regular p-gon for some $p \geq 3$, and $P = \{p\}$; also, $G(P) = D_p$, the dihedral group of order $2p$.

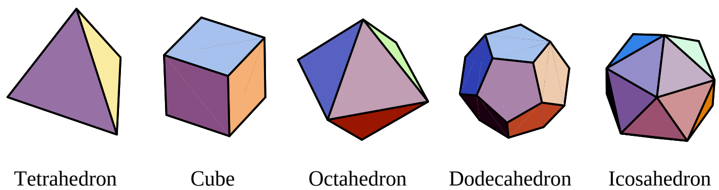

FIGURE 18.1.1
The five Platonic solids.

The regular polytopes P with $d \geq 3$ are summarized in Table 18.1.1, which also includes the numbers f_0 and f_{d-1} of vertices and facets, the order of $G(P)$, and the diagram notation (Section 18.6) for the group (following [Hum90]). Here and below, p^n will be used to denote a string of n consecutive p's. For $d = 3$ the list consists of the five Platonic solids (Figure 18.1.1). The regular d-simplex, d-cube, and d-cross-polytope occur in each dimension d. (These are line segments if $d = 1$, and triangles or squares if $d = 2$.) The dimensions 3 and 4 are exceptional in that there are 2 respectively 3 more regular polytopes. If $d \geq 3$, the facets and vertex figures of $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$ are the regular $(d-1)$-polytopes $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-2}\}$ and $\{p_2, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$, respectively, whose Schläfli symbols, when superposed, give the original Schläfli symbol. The dual of $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$ is $\{p_{d-1}, \ldots, p_1\}$. Self-duality occurs only for $\{3^{d-1}\}$, $\{p\}$, and $\{3, 4, 3\}$. Except for $\{3^{d-1}\}$ and $\{p\}$ with p odd, all regular polytopes are centrally symmetric.

TABLE 18.1.1 The convex regular polytopes in $\mathbb{E}^d$ $(d \geq 3)$.

DIMENSION	NAME	SCHLÄFLI SYMBOL	f_0	f_{d-1}	$\lvert G(P)\rvert$	DIAGRAM
$d \geq 3$	d-simplex	$\{3^{d-1}\}$	d+1	d+1	(d+1)!	A_d
	d-cross-polytope	$\{3^{d-2}, 4\}$	$2d$	2^d	$2^d d!$	B_d (or C_d)
	d-cube	$\{4, 3^{d-2}\}$	2^d	$2d$	$2^d d!$	B_d (or C_d)
$d = 3$	icosahedron	$\{3, 5\}$	12	20	120	H_3
	dodecahedron	$\{5, 3\}$	20	12	120	H_3
$d = 4$	24-cell	$\{3, 4, 3\}$	24	24	1152	F_4
	600-cell	$\{3, 3, 5\}$	120	600	14400	H_4
	120-cell	$\{5, 3, 3\}$	600	120	14400	H_4

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The regular tessellations T in $\mathbb{E}^d$ are also known. When $d = 1$, T is an apeirogon and $G(T)$ is the infinite dihedral group. For $d \geq 2$ see the list in Table 18.1.2. The first $d-1$ entries in $\{p_1, \ldots, p_d\}$ give the Schläfli symbol for the (regular) tiles of T, the last $d-1$ that for the (regular) vertex figures. (The vertex figure at a vertex of a regular tessellation is the convex hull of the midpoints of the edges emanating from that vertex.) The cubical tessellation occurs for each d, while for $d = 2$ and $d = 4$ there is a dual pair of exceptional tessellations.

TABLE 18.1.2 The regular tessellations in $\mathbb{E}^d$ ($d \geq 2$).

DIMENSION	SCHLÄFLI SYMBOL	TILES	VERTEX-FIGURES
$d \geq 2$	$\{4, 3^{d-2}, 4\}$	d-cubes	d-cross-polytopes
$d = 2$	$\{3, 6\}$	triangles	hexagons
	$\{6, 3\}$	hexagons	triangles
$d = 4$	$\{3, 3, 4, 3\}$	4-cross-polytopes	24-cells
	$\{3, 4, 3, 3\}$	24-cells	4-cross-polytopes

As vertices of the plane polygon $\{p\}$ we can take the points corresponding to the pth roots of unity. The d-simplex can be defined as the convex hull of the $d+1$ points in $\mathbb{E}^{d+1}$ corresponding to the permutations of $(1, 0, \ldots, 0)$. As vertices of the d-cross-polytope in $\mathbb{E}^d$ choose the $2d$ permutations of $(\pm 1, 0, \ldots, 0)$, and for the d-cube take the 2^d points $(\pm 1, \ldots, \pm 1)$. The midpoints of the edges of a 4-cross-polytope are the 24 vertices of a regular 24-cell given by the permutations of $(\pm 1, \pm 1, 0, 0)$. The coordinates for the remaining regular polytopes are more complicated [Cox73, pp. 52,157].

For the cubical tessellation $\{4, 3^{d-2}, 4\}$ take the vertex set to be $\mathbb{Z}^d$ (giving the square tessellation if $d = 2$). For the triangle tessellation $\{3, 6\}$ choose as vertices the integral linear combinations of two unit vectors inclined at $\pi/3$. Locating the face centers gives the vertices of the hexagonal tessellation $\{6, 3\}$. For $\{3, 3, 4, 3\}$ in $\mathbb{E}^4$ take one set of alternating vertices of the cubical tessellation; for example, the integral points with an even coordinate sum. Its dual $\{3, 4, 3, 3\}$ (with 24-cells as tiles) has the vertices at the centers of the tiles of $\{3, 3, 4, 3\}$.

The concept of a regular tessellation extends to other spaces including spherical space (Euclidean unit sphere) and hyperbolic space. Each regular tessellation on the d-sphere is obtained from a convex regular $(d+1)$-polytope by radial projection from its center onto its circumsphere. In the hyperbolic plane there exists a regular tessellations $\{p, q\}$ for each pair p, q with $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} < \frac{1}{2}$. There are four regular tessellations in hyperbolic 3-space, and five in hyperbolic 4-space; there are none in hyperbolic d-space with $d \geq 5$ (see [Cox68b] and [MS02, Ch. 6J]). All these tessellations are locally finite and have tiles that are topological balls. For the more general notion of a hyperbolic regular honeycomb see [Cox68b].

The regular polytopes and tessellations have been with us since before recorded history, and a strong strain of mathematics since classical times has centered on them. The classical theory intersects with diverse mathematical areas such as Lie algebras and Lie groups, Tits buildings [Tit74], finite group theory and incidence geometries [Bue95, BC13], combinatorial group theory [CM80, Mag74], geometric and algebraic combinatorics, graphs and combinatorial designs [BCN89], singularity theory, and Riemann surfaces.

SYMMETRY GROUPS

For a convex regular d-polytope P in $\mathbb{E}^d$, pick a fixed (***base***) flag Φ and consider the maximal simplex C (***chamber***) in the barycentric subdivision (***chamber complex***) of P whose vertices are the centers of the nonempty faces in Φ. Then C is a fundamental region for $G(P)$ in P and $G(P)$ is generated by the reflections $R_0, \ldots, R_{d-1}$ in the walls of C that contain the center of P, where R_i is the reflection in the wall opposite to the vertex of C corresponding to the i-face in Φ. If $P = \{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$, then

$$\begin{cases} R_i^2 = (R_j R_k)^2 = 1 & (0 \leq i,j,k \leq d-1,\ |j-k| \geq 2) \\ (R_{i-1}R_i)^{p_i} = 1 & (1 \leq i \leq d-1) \end{cases}$$

is a presentation for $G(P)$ in terms of these generators. In particular, $G(P)$ is a finite (spherical) Coxeter group with string diagram

$$\bullet \underset{p_1}{\frac{\qquad}{}} \bullet \underset{p_2}{\frac{\qquad}{}} \bullet \cdots\cdots \bullet \underset{p_{d-2}}{\frac{\qquad}{}} \bullet \underset{p_{d-1}}{\frac{\qquad}{}} \bullet$$

(see Section 18.6).

If T is a regular tessellation of $\mathbb{E}^d$, pick Φ and C as before. Now $G(T)$ is generated by the $d+1$ reflections in all walls of C giving $R_0, \ldots, R_d$ (as above). The presentation for $G(T)$ carries over, but now $G(T)$ is an infinite (Euclidean) Coxeter group.

18.2 REGULAR STAR-POLYTOPES

The regular star-polyhedra and star-polytopes are obtained by allowing the faces or vertex figures to be *starry* (star-like). This leads to very beautiful figures that are closely related to the regular convex polytopes. See Coxeter [Cox73] for a comprehensive account; see also McMullen and Schulte [MS02]. In defining star-polytopes, we shall combine the approach of [Cox73] and McMullen [McM68] and introduce them via the associated starry polytope-configuration.

GLOSSARY

d-polytope-configuration: A finite family Π of affine subspaces, called ***elements***, of Euclidean d-space $\mathbb{E}^d$, ordered by inclusion, such that the following conditions are satisfied. The family Π contains the empty set $\emptyset$ and the entire space $\mathbb{E}^d$ as (*improper*) elements. The dimensions of the other (*proper*) elements takes the values $0, 1, \ldots, d-1$, and the affine hull of their union is $\mathbb{E}^d$. As a partially ordered set, Π is a ranked lattice. For $F, G \in \Pi$ with $F \subseteq G$ call $G/F := \{H \in \Pi | F \subseteq H \subseteq G\}$ the ***subconfiguration*** of Π defined by F and G; this has itself the structure of a $(\dim(G) - \dim(F) - 1)$-polytope-configuration. As further conditions, each G/F contains at least 2 proper elements if $\dim(G) - \dim(F) = 2$, and as a partially ordered set, each G/F (including Π itself) is connected if $\dim(G) - \dim(F) \geq 3$. (See the definition of an abstract polytope in Section 18.8.) It can be proved that in $\mathbb{E}^d$ every Π satisfies the stronger condition that each G/F contains exactly 2 proper elements if $\dim(G) - \dim(F) = 2$.

Regular polytope-configuration: A polytope-configuration Π whose symmetry group $G(\Pi)$ is flag-transitive. (A flag is a maximal totally ordered subset of Π.)

Regular star-polygon: For positive integers n and k with $(n,k) = 1$ and $1 < k < \frac{n}{2}$, up to similarity the regular star-polygon $\{\frac{n}{k}\}$ is the connected plane polygon whose consecutive vertices are $(\cos(\frac{2\pi kj}{n}), \sin(\frac{2\pi kj}{n}))$ for $j = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1$. If $k = 1$, the same plane polygon bounds a (nonstarry) convex n-gon with Schläfli symbol $\{n\}$ $(= \{\frac{n}{1}\})$. With each regular (convex or star-) polygon $\{\frac{n}{k}\}$ is associated a regular 2-polytope-configuration obtained by replacing each edge by its affine hull.

Star-polytope-configuration: A d-polytope-configuration Π is ***nonstarry*** if it is the family of affine hulls of the faces of a convex d-polytope. It is ***starry***, or a ***star-polytope-configuration***, if it is not nonstarry. For instance, among the 2-polytope-configurations that are associated with a regular (convex or star-) polygon $\{\frac{n}{k}\}$ for a given n, the one with $k = 1$ is nonstarry and those for $k > 1$ are starry. In the first case the corresponding n-gon is convex, and in the second case it is genuinely star-like. In general, the starry polytope configurations are those that belong to genuinely star-like polytopes (that is, star-polytopes).

Regular star-polytope: If $d = 2$, a regular star-polytope is a regular star-polygon. Defined inductively, if $d \geq 3$, a regular d-star-polytope P is a finite family of regular convex $(d-1)$-polytopes or regular $(d-1)$-star-polytopes such that the family consisting of their affine hulls as well as the affine hulls of their "faces" is a regular d-star-polytope-configuration $\Pi = \Pi(P)$. Here, the faces of the polytopes can be defined in such a way that they correspond to the elements in the associated polytope-configuration. The symmetry groups of P and Π are the same.

ENUMERATION AND CONSTRUCTION

Regular star-polytopes P can only exist for $d = 2$, 3, or 4. Like the regular convex polytopes they are uniquely determined by the Schläfli symbol $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$, but now at least one entry is not integral. Again the symbols for the facets and vertex figures, when superposed, give the original symbol. If $d = 2$, then $P = \{\frac{n}{k}\}$ for some k with $(n,k) = 1$ and $1 < k < \frac{n}{2}$, and $G(P) = D_n$. For $d = 3$ and 4 the star-polytopes are listed in Table 18.2.1 together with the numbers f_0 and f_{d-1} of vertices and facets, respectively.

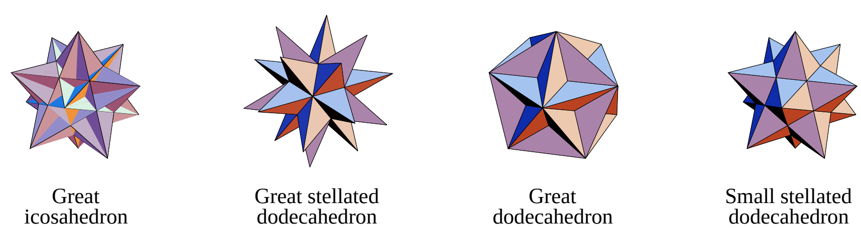

FIGURE 18.2.1
The four Kepler-Poinsot polyhedra.

Every regular d-star-polytope has the same vertices and symmetry group as a regular convex d-polytope. The four regular star-polyhedra (3-star-polytopes) are also known as the ***Kepler-Poinsot polyhedra*** (Figure 18.2.1). They can

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TABLE 18.2.1 The regular star-polytopes in $\mathbb{E}^d$ ($d \geq 3$).

DIMENSION	SCHLÄFLI SYMBOL	f_0	f_{d-1}
$d=3$	$\{3, \frac{5}{2}\}$	12	20
	$\{\frac{5}{2}, 3\}$	20	12
	$\{5, \frac{5}{2}\}$	12	12
	$\{\frac{5}{2}, 5\}$	12	12
$d=4$	$\{3, 3, \frac{5}{2}\}$	120	600
	$\{\frac{5}{2}, 3, 3\}$	600	120
	$\{3, 5, \frac{5}{2}\}$	120	120
	$\{\frac{5}{2}, 5, 3\}$	120	120
	$\{3, \frac{5}{2}, 5\}$	120	120
	$\{5, \frac{5}{2}, 3\}$	120	120
	$\{5, 3, \frac{5}{2}\}$	120	120
	$\{\frac{5}{2}, 3, 5\}$	120	120
	$\{5, \frac{5}{2}, 5\}$	120	120
	$\{\frac{5}{2}, 5, \frac{5}{2}\}$	120	120

be constructed from the icosahedron $\{3, 5\}$ or dodecahedon $\{5, 3\}$ by two kinds of operations, ***stellation*** or ***faceting*** [Cox73]. Loosely speaking, the former operation extends the faces of a polyhedron symmetrically until they again form a polyhedron, while in the latter operation the vertices of a polyhedron are redistributed in classes that are then the vertex sets for the faces of a new polyhedron. Regarded as regular maps on surfaces (Section 18.3), the polyhedra $\{3, \frac{5}{2}\}$ (***great icosahedron***) and $\{\frac{5}{2}, 3\}$ (***great stellated dodecahedron***) are of genus 0, while $\{5, \frac{5}{2}\}$ (***great dodecahedron***) and $\{\frac{5}{2}, 5\}$ (***small stellated dodecahedron***) are of genus 4.

The ten regular star-polytopes in $\mathbb{E}^4$ all have the same vertices and symmetry groups as the 600-cell $\{3, 3, 5\}$ or 120-cell $\{5, 3, 3\}$ and can be derived from these by 4-dimensional stellation or faceting operations [Cox73, McM68]. See also [Cox93] for their names, which describe the various relationships among the polytopes. For presentations of their symmetry groups that reflect the finer combinatorial structure of the star-polytopes, see also [MS02].

The dual of $\{p_1, \dots, p_{d-1}\}$ (which is obtained by dualizing the associated star-polytope-configuration using reciprocation with respect to a sphere) is $\{p_{d-1}, \dots, p_1\}$. Regarded as abstract polytopes (Section 18.8)), the star-polytopes $\{p_1, \dots, p_{d-1}\}$ and $\{q_1, \dots, q_{d-1}\}$ are isomorphic if and only if the symbol $\{q_1, \dots, q_{d-1}\}$ is obtained from $\{p_1, \dots, p_{d-1}\}$ by replacing each entry 5 by $\frac{5}{2}$ and each $\frac{5}{2}$ by 5.

18.3 REGULAR SKEW POLYHEDRA

The traditional regular skew polyhedra are finite or infinite polyhedra with convex faces whose vertex figures are skew (antiprismatic) polygons. The standard reference is Coxeter [Cox68a]. Topologically, these polyhedra are regular maps on surfaces. For general properties of regular maps see Coxeter and Moser [CM80], McMullen and Schulte [MS02], or Chapter 20 of this Handbook.

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GLOSSARY

(Right) prism, antiprism (with regular bases): A convex 3-polytope whose vertices are contained in two parallel planes and whose set of 2-faces consists of the two ***bases*** (contained in the parallel planes) and the 2-faces in the ***mantle*** that connects the bases. The bases are congruent regular polygons. For a (right) prism, each base is a translate of the other by a vector perpendicular to its affine hull, and the mantle 2-faces are rectangles. For a (right) antiprism, each base is a translate of a congruent reciprocal (dual) of the other by a vector perpendicular to its affine hull, and the mantle 2-faces are isosceles triangles. (The prism or antiprism is ***semiregular*** if its mantle 2-faces are squares or equilateral triangles, respectively; see Section 18.5.)

Map on a surface: A decomposition (tessellation) P of a closed surface S into nonoverlapping simply connected regions, the 2-***faces*** of P, by arcs, the ***edges*** of P, joining pairs of points, the ***vertices*** of P, such that two conditions are satisfied. First, each edge belongs to exactly two 2-faces. Second, if two distinct edges intersect, they meet in one vertex or in two vertices.

Regular map: A map P on S whose combinatorial automorphism group $\Gamma(P)$ is transitive on the flags (incident triples consisting of a vertex, an edge, and a 2-face).

Polyhedron: A map P on a closed surface S embedded (without self-intersections) into a Euclidean space, such that two conditions are satisfied. Each 2-face of P is a convex plane polygon, and any two adjacent 2-faces do not lie in the same plane. See also the more general definition in Section 18.4 below.

Skew polyhedron: A polyhedron P such that for at least one vertex x, the vertex figure of P at x is not a plane polygon; the ***vertex figure*** at x is the polygon whose vertices are the vertices of P adjacent to x and whose edges join consecutive vertices as one goes around x in P.

Regular polyhedron: A polyhedron P whose symmetry group $G(P)$ is flag-transitive. (For a regular skew polyhedron P in $\mathbb{E}^3$ or $\mathbb{E}^4$, each vertex figure must be a 3-dimensional antiprismatic polygon, meaning that it comprises the edges of an antiprism that are not edges of a base. See also Section 18.4.)

ENUMERATION

In $\mathbb{E}^3$ all, and in $\mathbb{E}^4$ all finite, regular skew polyhedra are known [Cox68a]. In these cases the (orientable) polyhedron P is completely determined by the extended Schläfli symbol $\{p, q|r\}$, where the 2-faces of P are convex p-gons such that q meet at each vertex, and r is the number of edges in each edge path of P that leaves, at each vertex, exactly two 2-faces of P on the right. The group $G(P)$ is isomorphic to $\Gamma(P)$ and has the presentation

$$R_0^2 = R_1^2 = R_2^2 = (R_0R_1)^p = (R_1R_2)^q = (R_0R_2)^2 = (R_0R_1R_2R_1)^r = 1$$

(but here not all generators R_i are hyperplane reflections). The polyhedra $\{p, q|r\}$ and $\{q, p|r\}$ are duals, and the vertices of one can be obtained as the centers of the 2-faces of the other.

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In $\mathbb{E}^3$ there are just three regular skew polyhedra: $\{4,6|4\}$, $\{6,4|4\}$, and $\{6,6|3\}$. These are the (infinite) ***Petrie-Coxeter polyhedra***. For example, $\{4,6|4\}$ consists of half the square faces of the cubical tessellation $\{4,3,4\}$ in $\mathbb{E}^3$.

TABLE 18.3.1 The finite regular skew polyhedra in $\mathbb{E}^4$.

SCHLÄFLI SYMBOL	f_0	f_2	GROUP ORDER	GENUS
$\{4,4\|r\}$	r^2	r^2	$8r^2$	1
$\{4,6\|3\}$	20	30	240	6
$\{6,4\|3\}$	30	20	240	6
$\{4,8\|3\}$	144	288	2304	73
$\{8,4\|3\}$	288	144	2304	73

The finite regular skew polyhedra in $\mathbb{E}^4$ (or equivalently, in spherical 3-space) are listed in Table 18.3.1. There is an infinite sequence of toroidal polyhedra as well as two pairs of duals related to the (self-dual) 4-simplex $\{3,3,3\}$ and 24-cell $\{3,4,3\}$. For drawings of projections of these polyhedra into 3-space see [BW88, SWi91]; Figure 18.3.1 represents $\{4,8|3\}$.

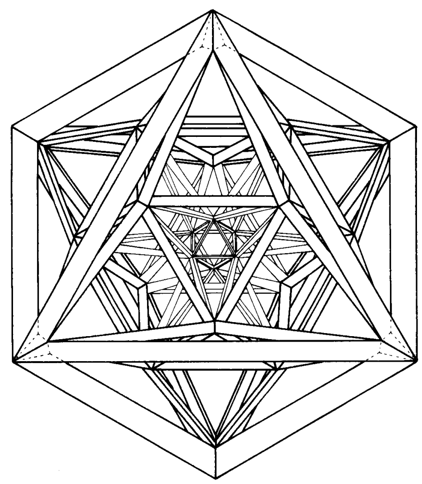

FIGURE 18.3.1
A projection of $\{4,8|3\}$ *into* $\mathbb{R}^3$.

These projections are examples of ***combinatorially regular polyhedra*** in ordinary 3-space; see [BW93] and Chapter 20 of this Handbook. For regular polyhedra in $\mathbb{E}^4$ with planar, but not necessarily convex, 2-faces, see also [ABM00, Bra00]. For regular skew polyhedra in hyperbolic 3-space, see [Gar67, WL84].

18.4 THE GRÜNBAUM-DRESS POLYHEDRA

A new impetus to the study of regular figures came from Grünbaum [Grü77b], who generalized the regular skew polyhedra by allowing skew polygons as faces as well as vertex figures. This restored the symmetry in the definition of polyhedra. For the classification of these "new" regular polyhedra in $\mathbb{E}^3$, see [Grü77b], [Dre85], and [MS02]. The proper setting for this subject is, strictly speaking, in the context of realizations of abstract regular polytopes (see Section 18.8).

GLOSSARY

Polygon: A figure P in Euclidean space $\mathbb{E}^d$ consisting of a (finite or infinite) sequence of distinct points, called the ***vertices*** of P, joined in successive pairs, and closed cyclically if finite, by line segments, called the ***edges*** of P, such that each compact set in $\mathbb{E}^d$ meets only finitely many edges.

Zigzag polygon: A (zigzag-shaped) infinite plane polygon P whose vertices alternately lie on two parallel lines and whose edges are all of the same length.

Antiprismatic polygon: A closed polygon P in 3-space whose vertices are alternately vertices of each of the two (regular convex) bases of a (right) antiprism Q (Section 18.3), such that the orthogonal projection of P onto the plane of a base gives a regular star-polygon (Section 18.2). This star-polygon (and thus P) has twice as many vertices as each base, and is a convex polygon if and only if the edges of P are just those edges of Q that are not edges of a base.

Prismatic polygon: A closed polygon P in 3-space whose vertices are alternately vertices of each of the two (regular convex) bases of a (right) prism Q (Section 18.3), such that the orthogonal projection of P onto the plane of a base traverses twice a regular star-polygon in that plane (Section 18.2). Each base of Q (and thus the star-polygon) is assumed to have an odd number of vertices. The star-polygon is a convex polygon if and only if each edge of P is a diagonal in a rectangular 2-face in the mantle of Q.

Helical polygon: An infinite polygon in 3-space whose vertices lie on a helix given parametrically by $(a\cos\beta t, a\sin\beta t, bt)$, where $a, b \neq 0$ and $0 < \beta < \pi$, and are obtained as t ranges over the integers. Successive integers correspond to successive vertices.

Polyhedron: A (finite or infinite) family P of polygons in $\mathbb{E}^d$, called the 2-***faces*** of P, such that three conditions are satisfied. First, each edge of a 2-face is an edge of exactly one other 2-face. Second, for any two edges F and F' of (2-faces of) P there exist chains $F = G_0, G_1, \ldots, G_n = F'$ of edges and $H_1, \ldots, H_n$ of 2-faces such that each H_i is incident with G_{i-1} and G_i. Third, each compact set in $\mathbb{E}^d$ meets only finitely many 2-faces.

Regular: A polygon or polyhedron P is regular if its symmetry group $G(P)$ is transitive on the flags.

Chiral: A polyhedron P is chiral if its symmetry group $G(P)$ has two orbits on the flags such that any two adjacent flags are in distinct orbits (see also Section 18.8). Here, two flags are ***adjacent*** if they differ in precisely one element: a vertex, an edge, or a face.

Petrie polygon of a polyhedron: A polygonal path along the edges of a regular polyhedron P such that any two successive edges, but no three, are edges of a 2-face of P.

Petrie dual: The family of all Petrie polygons of a regular polyhedron P. This is itself a regular polyhedron, and its Petrie dual is P itself.

Polygonal complex: A triple $K = (V, E, F)$ consisting of a set V of points in $\mathbb{E}^d$, called **vertices**, a set E of line segments, called **edges**, and a set F of polygons, called **faces**, such that four conditions are satisfied. First, the graph (V, E) is connected. Second, the vertex-figure of K at each vertex of K is connected; here the vertex-figure of K at a vertex v is the graph, possibly with multiple edges, whose vertices are the vertices of K adjacent to v and whose edges are the line segments (u, w), where (u, v) and (v, w) are edges of a common face of K. (There may be more than one such face in K, in which case the edge (u, w) of the vertex-figure at v has multiplicity given by the number of such faces.) Third, each edge of K is contained in at least two faces of K. Fourth, each compact set of $\mathbb{E}^3$ meets only finitely many faces of K. A polygonal complex K is **regular** if its symmetry group $G(K)$ is transitive on the flags.

ENUMERATION

For a systematic discussion of regular polygons in arbitrary Euclidean spaces see [Cox93]. In light of the geometric classification scheme for the new regular polyhedra in $\mathbb{E}^3$ proposed in [Grü77b], it is useful to classify the regular polygons in $\mathbb{E}^3$ into seven groups: convex polygons, plane star-polygons (Section 18.2, apeirogons (Section 18.1), zigzag polygons, antiprismatic polygons, prismatic polygons, and helical polygons. These correspond to the four kinds of isometries in $\mathbb{E}^3$: rotation, rotatory reflection (a reflection followed by a rotation in the reflection plane), glide reflection, and twist.

The 2-faces and vertex figures of a regular polyhedron P in $\mathbb{E}^3$ are regular polygons of the above kind. (The vertex figure at a vertex x is the polygon whose vertices are the vertices of P adjacent to x and whose edges join two such vertices y and z if and only if $\{y, x\}$ and $\{x, z\}$ are edges of a common 2-face in P. For a regular P, this is a single polygon.) It is convenient to group the regular polyhedra in $\mathbb{E}^3$ into 8 classes. The first four are the traditional regular polyhedra: the five Platonic solids; the three planar tessellations; the four regular star-polyhedra (Kepler-Poinsot polyhedra); and the three infinite regular skew polyhedra (Petrie-Coxeter polyhedra). The four other classes and their polyhedra can be described as follows: the class of nine finite polyhedra with finite skew (antiprismatic) polygons as faces; the class of infinite polyhedra with finite skew (prismatic or antiprismatic) polygons as faces, which includes three infinite families as well as three individual polyhedra; the class of polyhedra with zigzag polygons as faces, which contains six infinite families; and the class of polyhedra with helical polygons as faces, which has three infinite families and six individual polyhedra.

Alternatively, these forty-eight polyhedra can be described as follows [MS02]. There are eighteen finite regular polyhedra, namely the nine classical finite regular polyhedra (Platonic solids and Kepler-Poinsot polyhedra), and their Petrie duals. The regular tessellations of the plane, and their Petrie duals (with zigzag 2-faces), are the six planar polyhedra in the list. From those, twelve further polyhedra are obtained as blends (in the sense of Section 18.8) with a line segment or an apeirogon (Section 18.1). The six blends with a line segment have finite skew, or (infinite planar) zigzag, 2-faces with alternate vertices on a pair of parallel planes; the six blends with an apeirogon have helical polygons or zigzag polygons as 2-faces. Finally, there are twelve further polyhedra that are not blends; they fall into a single family and are related to the cubical tessellation of $\mathbb{E}^3$. Each polyhedron can be

Preliminary version (July 16, 2017). To appear in the Handbook of Discrete and Computational Geometry, J.E. Goodman, J. O'Rourke, and C. D. Tóth (editors), 3rd edition, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 2017.

described by a generalized Schläfli symbol, which encodes the geometric structure of the polygonal faces and vertex figures, tells whether or not the polyhedron is a blend, and signifies a presentation of the symmetry group. For more details see [MS02] (or [Grü77b, Dre85, Joh91]).

The Grünbaum-Dress polyhedra belong to the more general class of regular polygonal complexes in $\mathbb{E}^3$, which were completely classified in [PS10, PS13]. Polygonal complexes are polyhedra-like "skeletal" structures in $\mathbb{E}^3$, in which an edge can be surrounded by any finite number of faces, but at least two, unlike in a polyhedron where this number is exactly two. In addition to polyhedra there are 25 regular polygonal complexes in $\mathbb{E}^3$, all periodic and with crystallographic symmetry groups.

Chiral polyhedra are nearly regular polyhedra. Chirality does not occur in traditional polyhedra but it is striking that it does in skeletal structures. See [Sch04, Sch05] for the full classification of chiral polyhedra in $\mathbb{E}^3$. There are six very large families of chiral polyhedra: three with periodic polyhedra with finite skew faces and vertex-figures, and three with periodic polyhedra with helical faces and planar vertex-figures. Each chiral polyhedron with helical faces is combinatorially isomorphic to a regular polyhedron [PW10].

18.5 SEMIREGULAR AND UNIFORM CONVEX POLYTOPES

The very stringent requirements in the definition of regularity of polytopes can be relaxed in many different ways, yielding a great variety of weaker regularity notions. We shall only consider polytopes and polyhedra that are convex. See Johnson [Joh91] for a detailed discussion, or Martini [Mar94] for a survey.

GLOSSARY

Semiregular: A convex d-polytope P is semiregular if its facets are regular and its symmetry group $G(P)$ is transitive on the vertices of P.

Uniform: A convex polygon is uniform if it is regular. Recursively, if $d \geq 3$, a convex d-polytope P is uniform if its facets are uniform and its symmetry group $G(P)$ is transitive on the vertices of P.

Regular-faced: P is regular-faced if all its facets (and lower-dimensional faces) are regular.

ENUMERATION

Each regular (convex) polytope is semiregular, and each semiregular polytope is uniform. Also, by definition each uniform 3-polytope is semiregular. For $d = 3$ the family of semiregular (uniform) convex polyhedra consists of the Platonic solids, two infinite classes of prisms and antiprisms, as well as the thirteen polyhedra known as Archimedean solids [Fej64]. The seven semiregular polyhedra whose symmetry group is edge-transitive are also called the ***quasiregular*** polyhedra.

Besides the regular polytopes, there are only seven semiregular polytopes in higher dimensions: three for $d = 4$, and one for each of $d = 5, 6, 7, 8$ (for a short proof, see [BB91]). However, there are many more uniform polytopes but a complete list is known only for $d = 4$ [Joh91]. In addition to the regular 4-polytopes and the prisms over uniform 3-polytopes there are exactly 40 uniform 4-polytopes.

For $d = 3$ all, for $d = 4$ all save one, and for $d \geq 5$ many, uniform polytopes can be obtained by a method called ***Wythoff's construction***. This method proceeds from a finite Euclidean reflection group W in $\mathbb{E}^d$, or the even (rotation) subgroup W^+ of W, and constructs the polytopes as the convex hull of the orbit under W or W^+ of a point, the initial vertex, in the fundamental region of the group, which is a d-simplex (chamber) or the union of two adjacent d-simplices in the corresponding chamber complex of W, respectively; see Sections 18.1 and 18.6.

The regular-faced polytopes have also been described for each dimension. In general, such a polytope can have different kinds of facets (and vertex figures). For $d = 3$ the complete list contains exactly 92 regular-faced convex polyhedra and includes all semiregular polyhedra. For each $d \geq 5$, there are only two regular-faced d-polytopes that are not semiregular. Except when $d = 4$, each regular-faced d-polytope has a nontrivial symmetry group.

There are many further generalizations of the notion of regularity [Mar94]. However, in most cases complete lists of the corresponding polytopes are either not known or available only for $d = 3$. The variants that have been considered include: ***isogonal*** polytopes (requiring vertex-transitivity of $G(P)$), or ***isohedral*** polytopes, the reciprocals of the isogonal polytopes, with a facet-transitive group $G(P)$; more generally, ***k-face-transitive*** polytopes (requiring transitivity of $G(P)$ on the k-faces), for a single value or several values of k; ***congruent-faceted***, or ***monohedral***, polytopes (requiring congruence of the facets); and ***equifaceted*** polytopes (requiring combinatorial isomorphism of the facets). Similar problems have also been considered for nonconvex polytopes or polyhedra, and for tilings [GS87].

18.6 REFLECTION GROUPS

Symmetry properties of geometric figures are closely tied to the algebraic structure of their symmetry groups, which often are subgroups of finite or infinite reflection groups. A classical reference for reflection groups is Coxeter [Cox73]. A more recent text is Humphreys [Hum90].

GLOSSARY

Reflection group: A group generated by (hyperplane) reflections in a finite-dimensional space V. In the present context the space is a real or complex vector space (or affine space). A ***reflection*** is a linear (or affine) transformation whose eigenvalues, save one, are all equal to 1, while the remaining eigenvalue is a primitive kth root of unity for some $k \geq 2$; in the real case the eigenvalue is -1. If the space is equipped with further structure, the reflections are assumed to preserve it. For example, if V is real Euclidean, the reflections are Euclidean reflections.

Coxeter group: A group W, finite or infinite, that is generated by finitely many generators $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$ and has a presentation of the form $(\sigma_i\sigma_j)^{m_{ij}} = 1$ $(i, j = 1, \ldots, n)$, where the m_{ij} are positive integers or ∞ such that $m_{ii} = 1$ and $m_{ij} =$

$m_{ji} \geq 2$ $(i \neq j)$. The matrix $(m_{ij})_{ij}$ is the ***Coxeter matrix*** of W.

Coxeter diagram: A labeled graph $\mathcal{D}$ that represents a Coxeter group W as follows. The nodes of $\mathcal{D}$ represent the generators σ_i of W. The ith and jth node are joined by a (single) branch if and only if $m_{ij} > 2$. In this case, the branch is labeled m_{ij} if $m_{ij} \neq 3$ (and remains unlabeled if $m_{ij} = 3$).

Irreducible Coxeter group: A Coxeter group W whose Coxeter diagram is connected. (Each Coxeter group W is the direct product of irreducible Coxeter groups, with each factor corresponding to a connected component of the diagram of W.)

Root system: A finite set $\mathcal{R}$ of nonzero vectors, the ***roots***, in $\mathbb{E}^d$ satisfying the following conditions. $\mathcal{R}$ spans $\mathbb{E}^d$, and $\mathcal{R} \cap \mathbb{R}e = \{\pm e\}$ for each $e \in \mathcal{R}$. For each $e \in \mathcal{R}$, the Euclidean reflection S_e in the linear hyperplane orthogonal to e maps $\mathcal{R}$ onto itself. Moreover, the numbers $2(e,e')/(e',e')$, with $e, e' \in \mathcal{R}$, are integers (***Cartan integers***); here $(\ ,\ )$ denotes the standard inner product on $\mathbb{E}^d$. (These conditions define ***crystallographic*** root systems. Sometimes the integrality condition is omitted to give a more general notion of root system.) The group W generated by the reflections S_e $(e \in \mathcal{R})$ is a finite Coxeter group, called the ***Weyl group*** of $\mathcal{R}$.

GENERAL PROPERTIES

Every Coxeter group $W = \langle \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \rangle$ admits a faithful representation as a reflection group in the real vector space $\mathbb{R}^n$. This is obtained as follows. If W has Coxeter matrix $M = (m_{ij})_{ij}$ and $e_1, \ldots, e_n$ is the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^n$, define the symmetric bilinear form $\langle\ ,\ \rangle_M$ by

$$\langle e_i, e_j \rangle_M := -\cos(\pi/m_{ij}) \quad (i,j = 1, \ldots, n),$$

with appropriate interpretation if $m_{ij} = \infty$. For $i = 1, \ldots, n$ the linear transformation $S_i : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ given by

$$xS_i := x - 2\langle e_i, x \rangle_M \, e_i \qquad (x \in \mathbb{R}^n)$$

is the orthogonal reflection in the hyperplane orthogonal to e_i. Let $O(M)$ denote the orthogonal group corresponding to $\langle\ ,\ \rangle_M$. Then $\sigma_i \mapsto S_i$ $(i = 1, \ldots, n)$ defines a faithful representation $\rho : W \mapsto GL(\mathbb{R}^n)$, called the ***canonical representation***, such that $W\rho$ is a subgroup of $O(M)$.

The group W is finite if and only if the associated form $\langle\ ,\ \rangle_M$ is positive definite; in this case, $\langle\ ,\ \rangle_M$ determines a Euclidean geometry on $\mathbb{R}^n$. In other words, each finite Coxeter group is a finite Euclidean reflection group. Conversely, every finite Euclidean reflection group is a Coxeter group. The finite Coxeter groups have been completely classified by Coxeter and are usually listed in terms of their Coxeter diagrams.

The finite irreducible Coxeter groups with string diagrams are precisely the symmetry groups of the convex regular polytopes, with a pair of dual polytopes corresponding to a pair of groups that are related by reversing the order of the generators. See Section 18.1 for an explanation about how the generators act on the polytopes. Table 18.1.1 also lists the names for the corresponding Coxeter diagrams.

For $p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1} \geq 2$ write $[p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}]$ for the Coxeter group with string diagram $\bullet\underset{p_1}{\text{———}}\bullet\underset{p_2}{\text{———}}\bullet\cdots\cdots\bullet\underset{p_{n-2}}{\text{———}}\bullet\underset{p_{n-1}}{\text{———}}\bullet$. Then $[p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}]$ is the automorphism group of the universal abstract regular n-polytope $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}\}$; see Section 18.8 and [MS02]. The regular honeycombs $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}\}$ on the sphere (convex regular polytopes) or in Euclidean or hyperbolic space are particular instances of universal polytopes. The spherical honeycombs are exactly the finite universal regular polytopes (with $p_i > 2$ for all i). The Euclidean honeycombs arise exactly when $p_i > 2$ for all i and the bilinear form $\langle\ ,\ \rangle_M$ for $[p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}]$ is positive semidefinite (but not positive definite). Similarly, the hyperbolic honeycombs correspond exactly to the groups $[p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}]$ that are Coxeter groups of "hyperbolic type" [MS02].

There are exactly two sources of finite Coxeter groups, to some extent overlapping: the symmetry groups of convex regular polytopes, and the Weyl groups of (crystallographic) root systems, which are important in Lie Theory. Every root system $\mathcal{R}$ has a set of ***simple roots***; this is a subset $\mathcal{S}$ of $\mathcal{R}$, which is a basis of $\mathbb{E}^d$ such that every $e \in \mathcal{R}$ is a linear combination of vectors in $\mathcal{S}$ with integer coefficients that are all nonnegative or all nonpositive. The distinguished generators of the Weyl group W are given by the reflections S_e in the linear hyperplane orthogonal to e ($e \in \mathcal{S}$), for some set $\mathcal{S}$ of simple roots of $\mathcal{R}$. The irreducible Weyl groups in $\mathbb{E}^2$ are the symmetry groups of the triangle, square, or hexagon. The diagrams A_d, B_d, C_d, and F_4 of Table 18.1.1 all correspond to irreducible Weyl groups and root systems (with B_d and C_d corresponding to a pair of dual root systems), but H_3 and H_4 do not (they correspond to a noncrystallographic root system [CMP98]). There is one additional series of irreducible Weyl groups in $\mathbb{E}^d$ with $d \geq 4$ (a certain subgoup of index 2 in B_d), whose diagram is denoted by D_d. The remaining irreducible Weyl groups occur in dimensions 6, 7 and 8, with diagrams E_6, E_7, and E_8, respectively.

Each Weyl group W stabilizes the lattice spanned by a set $\mathcal{S}$ of simple roots, the ***root lattice*** of $\mathcal{R}$. These lattices have many remarkable geometric properties and also occur in the context of sphere packings (see Conway and Sloane [CS88]). The irreducible Coxeter groups W of Euclidean type, or, equivalently, the infinite discrete irreducible Euclidean reflection groups, are intimately related to Weyl groups; they are also called ***affine Weyl groups***.

The complexifications of the reflection hyperplanes for a finite Coxeter group give an example of a complex ***hyperplane arrangement*** (see [BLS+93], [OT92], and Chapter 6). The topology of the set-theoretic complement of these ***Coxeter arrangements*** in complex space has been extensively studied.

For hyperbolic reflection groups, see Vinberg [Vin85]. In hyperbolic space, a discrete irreducible reflection group need not have a fundamental region that is a simplex.

18.7 COMPLEX REGULAR POLYTOPES

Complex regular polytopes are subspace configurations in unitary complex space that share many properties with regular polytopes in real spaces. For a detailed account see Coxeter [Cox93]. The subject originated with Shephard [She52].

GLOSSARY

Complex d-polytope: A d-polytope-configuration as defined in Section 18.2, but now the elements, or ***faces***, are subspaces in unitary complex d-space $\mathbb{C}^d$. However, unlike in real space, the subconfigurations G/F with $\dim(G) - \dim(F) = 2$ can contain more than 2 proper elements. A ***complex polygon*** is a complex 2-polytope.

Regular complex polytope: A complex polytope P whose (unitary) symmetry group $G(P)$ is transitive on the flags (the maximal sets of mutually incident faces).

ENUMERATION AND GROUPS

The regular complex d-polytopes P are completely known for each d. Every d-polytope can be uniquely described by a ***generalized Schläfli symbol***

$$p_0\{q_1\}p_1\{q_2\}p_2 \ldots p_{d-2}\{q_{d-1}\}p_{d-1},$$

which we explain below. For $d = 1$, the regular polytopes are precisely the point sets on the complex line, which in corresponding real 2-space are the vertex sets of regular convex polygons; the Schläfli symbol is simply p if the real polygon is a p-gon. When $d \geq 2$ the entry p_i in the above Schläfli symbol is the Schläfli symbol for the complex 1-polytope that occurs as the 1-dimensional subconfiguration G/F of P, where F is an $(i-1)$-face and G an $(i+1)$-face of P such that $F \subseteq G$. As is further explained below, the p_i i-faces in this subconfiguration are cyclically permuted by a hyperplane reflection that leaves the whole polytope invariant. Note that, unlike in real Euclidean space, a hyperplane reflection in unitary complex space need not have period 2 but instead can have any finite period greater than 1. The meaning of the entries q_i is also explained below.

The regular complex polytopes P with $d \geq 2$ are summarized in Table 18.7.1, which includes the numbers f_0 and f_{d-1} of vertices and facets ($(d-1)$-faces) and the group order. Listed are only the nonreal polytopes as well as only one polytope from each pair of duals. A complex polytope is ***real*** if, up to an affine transformation of $\mathbb{C}^d$, all its faces are subspaces that can be described by linear equations over the reals. In particular, $p_0\{q_1\}p_1 \ldots p_{d-2}\{q_{d-1}\}p_{d-1}$ is real if and only if $p_i = 2$ for each i; in this case, $\{q_1, \ldots, q_{d-1}\}$ is the Schläfli symbol for the related regular polytope in real space. As in real space, each polytope $p_0\{q_1\}p_1 \ldots p_{d-2}\{q_{d-1}\}p_{d-1}$ has a dual (reciprocal) and its Schläfli symbol is $p_{d-1}\{q_{d-1}\}p_{d-2} \ldots p_1\{q_1\}p_0$; the symmetry groups are the same and the numbers of vertices and facets are interchanged. The polytope $p\{4\}2\{3\}2 \ldots 2\{3\}2$ is the ***generalized complex d-cube***, and its dual $2\{3\}2 \ldots 2\{3\}2\{4\}p$ the ***generalized complex d-cross-polytope***; if $p = 2$, these are the real d-cubes and d-cross-polytopes, respectively.

The symmetry group $G(P)$ of a complex regular d-polytope P is a finite unitary reflection group in $\mathbb{C}^d$; if $P = p_0\{q_1\}p_1 \ldots p_{d-2}\{q_{d-1}\}p_{d-1}$, then the notation for the group $G(P)$ is $p_0[q_1]p_1 \ldots p_{d-2}[q_{d-1}]p_{d-1}$. If $\Phi = \{\emptyset = F_{-1}, F_0, \ldots, F_{d-1}, F_d = \mathbb{C}^d\}$ is a flag of P, then for each $i = 0, 1, \ldots, d-1$ there is a unitary reflection R_i that fixes F_j for $j \neq i$ and cyclically permutes the p_i i-faces in the subconfiguration F_{i+1}/F_{i-1} of P. These generators R_i can be chosen in such a way that in terms of

TABLE 18.7.1 The nonreal complex regular polytopes (up to duality).

DIMENSION	POLYTOPE	f_0	f_{d-1}	$\|G(P)\|$
$d \geq 1$	$p\{4\}2\{3\}2\ldots2\{3\}2$	p^d	pd	$p^d d!$
$d = 2$	$3\{3\}3$	8	8	24
	$3\{6\}2$	24	16	48
	$3\{4\}3$	24	24	72
	$4\{3\}4$	24	24	96
	$3\{8\}2$	72	48	144
	$4\{6\}2$	96	48	192
	$4\{4\}3$	96	72	288
	$3\{5\}3$	120	120	360
	$5\{3\}5$	120	120	600
	$3\{10\}2$	360	240	720
	$5\{6\}2$	600	240	1200
	$5\{4\}3$	600	360	1800
$d = 3$	$3\{3\}3\{3\}3$	27	27	648
	$3\{3\}3\{4\}2$	72	54	1296
$d = 4$	$3\{3\}3\{3\}3\{3\}3$	240	240	155 520

$R_0, \ldots, R_{d-1}$, the group $G(P)$ has a presentation of the form

$$\begin{cases} R_i^{p_i} = 1 & (0 \leq i \leq d-1), \\ R_iR_j = R_jR_i & (0 \leq i < j-1 \leq d-2), \\ R_iR_{i+1}R_iR_{i+1}R_i \ldots = R_{i+1}R_iR_{i+1}R_iR_{i+1} \ldots \\ \text{with } q_{i+1} \text{ generators on each side } (0 \leq i \leq d-2). \end{cases}$$

This explains the entries q_i in the Schläfli symbol. Conversely, any d unitary reflections that satisfy the first two sets of relations, and generate a finite group, determine a regular complex polytope obtained by a complex analogue of Wythoff's construction (see Section 18.5). If P is real, then $G(P)$ is conjugate, in the general linear group of $\mathbb{C}^d$, to a finite (real) Coxeter group (see Section 18.6). Complex regular polytopes are only one source for finite unitary reflection groups; there are also others [Cox93, ST54, MS02].

See Cuypers [Cuy95] for the classification of quaternionic regular polytopes (polytope-configurations in quaternionic space).

18.8 ABSTRACT REGULAR POLYTOPES

Abstract regular polytopes are combinatorial structures that generalize the familiar regular polytopes. The terminology adopted is patterned after the classical theory. Many symmetric figures discussed in earlier sections could be treated (and their structure clarified) in this more general framework. Much of the research in this area is quite recent. For a comprehensive account see McMullen and Schulte [MS02].

GLOSSARY

Abstract d-polytope: A partially ordered set P, with elements called ***faces***, that satisfies the following conditions. P is equipped with a ***rank function*** with range $\{-1, 0, \dots, d\}$, which associates with a face F its ***rank***, denoted by rank F. If rank $F = j$, F is a ***j-face***, or a ***vertex***, an ***edge***, or a ***facet*** if $j = 0, 1$, or $d-1$, respectively. P has a unique minimal element F_{-1} of rank -1 and a unique maximal element F_d of rank d. These two elements are the ***improper*** faces; the others are ***proper***. The ***flags*** (maximal totally ordered subsets) of P all contain exactly $d+2$ faces (including F_{-1} and F_d). If $F < G$ in P, then $G/F := \{H \in P | F \leq H \leq G\}$ is said to be a ***section*** of P. All sections of P (including P itself) are ***connected***, meaning that, given two proper faces H, H' of a section G/F, there is a sequence $H = H_0, H_1, \dots, H_k = H'$ of proper faces of G/F (for some k) such that H_{i-1} and H_i are incident for each $i = 1, \dots, k$. (That is, P is ***strongly connected***.) Finally, if $F < G$ with $0 \leq \text{rank } F + 1 = j = \text{rank } G - 1 \leq d-1$, there are exactly two j-faces H such that $F < H < G$. (In some sense this last condition says that P is topologically real. Note that the condition is violated for nonreal complex polytopes.)

Faces and co-faces: We can safely identify a face F of P with the section $F/F_{-1} = \{H \in P | H \leq F\}$. The section $F_d/F = \{H \in P | F \leq H\}$ is the ***co-face*** of P, or the ***vertex figure*** if F is a vertex.

Regular polytope: An abstract polytope P whose ***automorphism group*** $\Gamma(P)$ (the group of order-preserving permutations of $\mathcal{P}$) is transitive on the flags. (Then $\Gamma(P)$ must be simply flag-transitive.)

C-group: A group Γ generated by involutions $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m$ (that is, a quotient of a Coxeter group) such that the ***intersection property*** holds:

$$\langle \sigma_i | i \in I \rangle \cap \langle \sigma_i | i \in J \rangle = \langle \sigma_i | i \in I \cap J \rangle \ \text{ for all } I, J \subset \{1, \dots, m\}.$$

The letter "C" stands for "Coxeter." (Coxeter groups are C-groups, but C-groups need not be Coxeter groups.)

String C-group: A C-group $\Gamma = \langle \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m \rangle$ such that $(\sigma_i \sigma_j)^2 = 1$ if $1 \leq i < j-1 \leq m-1$. (Then Γ is a quotient of a Coxeter group with a string Coxeter diagram.)

Realization: For an abstract regular d-polytope P with vertex-set $\mathcal{F}_0$, a surjection $\beta : \mathcal{F}_0 \mapsto V$ onto a set V of points in a Euclidean space, such that each automorphism of P induces an isometric permutation of V. Then V is the ***vertex set*** of the realization β.

Chiral polytope: An abstract polytope P whose automorphism group $\Gamma(P)$ has exactly two orbits on the flags, with adjacent flags in different orbits [SWe91]. Here two flags are ***adjacent*** if they differ in exactly one face. Chiral polytopes are an important class of nearly regular polytopes. They are examples of abstract ***two-orbit polytopes***, with just two orbits on flags under the automorphism group [Hub10].

Preliminary version (July 16, 2017). To appear in the Handbook of Discrete and Computational Geometry,
J.E. Goodman, J. O'Rourke, and C. D. Tóth (editors), 3rd edition, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 2017.

GENERAL PROPERTIES

Abstract 2-polytopes are isomorphic to ordinary n-gons or apeirogons (Section 18.2). All abstract regular polyhedra (3-polytopes) with finite faces and vertex-figures are regular maps on surfaces (Section 18.3); and conversely, most regular maps on surfaces are abstract regular polyhedra with finite faces and vertex-figures. Accordingly, a finite abstract 4-polytope P has facets and vertex figures that are isomorphic to maps on surfaces.

The automorphism group $\Gamma(P)$ of every abstract regular d-polytope P is a string C-group. Fix a flag $\Phi := \{F_{-1}, F_0, \ldots, F_d\}$, the ***base flag*** of P. Then $\Gamma(P)$ is generated by ***distinguished generators*** $\rho_0, \ldots, \rho_{d-1}$ (*with respect to* Φ), where ρ_i is the unique automorphism that keeps all but the i-face of Φ fixed. These generators satisfy relations

$$(\rho_i \rho_j)^{p_{ij}} = 1 \quad (i, j = 0, \ldots, d-1),$$

with $p_{ii} = 1$, $p_{ij} = p_{ji} \geq 2$ $(i \neq j)$, and $p_{ij} = 2$ if $|i-j| \geq 2$; in particular, $\Gamma(P)$ is a string C-group with generators $\rho_0, \ldots, \rho_{d-1}$. The numbers $p_i := p_{i-1,i}$ determine the (*Schläfli*) ***type*** $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$ of P. The group $\Gamma(P)$ is a (usually proper) quotient of the Coxeter group $[p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}]$ (Section 18.6).

Conversely, if Γ is a string C-group with generators $\rho_0, \ldots, \rho_{d-1}$, then it is the group of an abstract regular d-polytope P, and $\rho_0, \ldots, \rho_{d-1}$ are the distinguished generators with respect to some base flag of P. The i-faces of P are the right cosets of the subgroup $\Gamma_i := \langle \rho_k | k \neq i \rangle$ of Γ, and in P, $\Gamma_i \varphi \leq \Gamma_j \psi$ if and only if $i \leq j$ and $\Gamma_i \varphi \cap \Gamma_j \psi \neq \emptyset$. For any $p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1} \geq 2$, $[p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}]$ is a string C-group and the corresponding d-polytope is the ***universal*** regular d-polytope $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$; every other regular d-polytope of the same type $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$ is derived from it by making identifications. Examples are the regular spherical, Euclidean, and hyperbolic honeycombs. The one-to-one correspondence between string C-groups and the groups of regular polytopes sets up a powerful dialogue between groups on one hand and polytopes on the other.

For abstract polyhedra (or regular maps) P of type $\{p, q\}$ the group $\Gamma(P)$ is a quotient of the triangle group $[p, q]$ and the above relations for the distinguished generators ρ_0, ρ_1, ρ_2 take the form

$$\rho_0^2 = \rho_1^2 = \rho_2^2 = (\rho_0\rho_1)^p = (\rho_1\rho_2)^q = (\rho_0\rho_2)^2 = 1.$$

There is a wealth of knowledge about regular maps on surfaces in the literature (see Coxeter and Moser [CM80], and Conder, Jones, Širáň and Tucker [CJST]).

A similar dialogue between polytopes and groups also exists for chiral polytopes (see Schulte and Weiss [SWe91, SW94]). If P is an abstract chiral polytope and $\Phi := \{F_{-1}, F_0, \ldots, F_d\}$ is its base flag, then $\Gamma(P)$ is generated by automorphisms $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{d-1}$, where σ_i fixes all the faces in $\Phi \setminus \{F_{i-1}, F_i\}$ and cyclically permutes consecutive i-faces of P in the (polygonal) section F_{i+1}/F_{i-2} of rank 2. The orientation of each σ_i can be chosen in such a way that the resulting ***distinguished generators*** $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{d-1}$ of $\Gamma(P)$ satisfy relations

$$\sigma_i^{p_i} = (\sigma_j \sigma_{j+1} \ldots \sigma_k)^2 = 1 \quad (i, j, k = 1, \ldots, d-1 \text{ and } j < k),$$

with p_i determined by the type $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$ of P. Moreover, a certain intersection property (resembling that for C-groups) holds for $\Gamma(P)$. Conversely, if Γ is a group generated by $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{d-1}$, and if these generators satisfy the above relations and the intersection property, then Γ is the group of an abstract chiral polytope, or the rotation subgroup of index 2 in the group of an abstract regular polytope. Each isomorphism type of chiral polytope occurs combinatorially in two ***enantiomorphic*** (mirror image) forms; these correspond to two sets of generators σ_i of the group determined by a pair of adjacent base flags.

Following the publication of [MS02], which focused on abstract regular polytopes, there has been a lot of research on other kinds of highly symmetric abstract polytopes including chiral polytopes. Chiral polytopes were known to exist in small ranks [SW94] (see also [CJST] for chiral maps), but the existence in all ranks $d \geq 3$ was only recently established in [Pel10] (see also [CHP08] for ranks 5 and 6).

There is an invariant for chiral (or more general) polytopes, called the chirality group, which in some sense measures the degree of mirror asymmetry (irreflexibility) of the polytope (see [BJS11, Cun14]). For a regular polytope the chirality group would be trivial.

There are several computer based atlases that enumerate all small regular or chiral abstract polytopes of certain kinds (for example, see [Con, Har06, LV06, HHL12]).

Abstract polytopes are closely related to buildings and diagram geometries [Bue95, Tit74]. They are essentially the "thin diagram geometries with a string diagram." The universal regular polytopes $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{d-1}\}$ correspond to "thin buildings." Over the past decade there has been significant progress on polytope interpretations of finite simple groups and closely related groups (see [CLM14, FL11]).

CLASSIFICATION BY TOPOLOGICAL TYPE

Abstract polytopes are not a priori embedded into an ambient space. The traditional enumeration of regular polytopes is therefore replaced by a classification by global or local topological type. At the group level this translates into the enumeration of finite string C-groups with certain kinds of presentations.

The traditional theory of polytopes deals with spherical or locally spherical structures. An abstract polytope P is said to be ***(globally) spherical*** if P is isomorphic to the face lattice of a convex polytope. An abstract polytope P is ***locally spherical*** if all facets and all vertex-figures of P are spherical.

Every ***locally spherical*** abstract regular polytope P of rank $d+1$ is a quotient of a regular tessellation $\{p_1, \ldots, p_d\}$ in spherical, Euclidean, or hyperbolic d-space; in other words, P is a regular tessellation on the corresponding spherical, Euclidean, or hyperbolic space form. In this context, the classical convex regular polytopes are precisely the abstract regular polytopes that are locally spherical and globally spherical. The ***projective regular polytopes*** are the regular tessellations in real projective d-space, and are obtained as quotients of the centrally symmetric convex regular polytopes under the central inversion.

Much work has also been done in the toroidal and locally toroidal case [MS02]. A ***regular toroid*** of rank $d+1$ is the quotient of a regular tessellation $\{p_1, \ldots, p_d\}$ in Euclidean d-space by a lattice that is invariant under all symmetries of the vertex figure of $\{p_1, \ldots, p_d\}$; in other words, a regular toroid of rank $d+1$ is a regular tessellation on the d-torus. If $d = 2$, these are the reflexible regular torus maps of [CM80]. For $d \geq 3$ there are three infinite sequences of ***cubical toroids*** of type $\{4, 3^{d-2}, 4\}$, and for $d = 4$ there are two infinite sequences of ***exceptional toroids*** for each of the types $\{3, 3, 4, 3\}$ and $\{3, 4, 3, 3\}$. Their groups are known in terms of generators and relations.

For $d \geq 2$, the d-torus is the only d-dimensional compact Euclidean space form that can admit a regular or chiral tessellation. Further, chirality can only occur if $d = 2$ (yielding the irreflexible torus maps of [CM80]). Little is known about regular tessellations on hyperbolic space forms (again, see [CM80] and [MS02]).

A main thrust in the theory of abstract regular polytopes is that of the amalgamation of polytopes of lower rank [MS02, Ch. 4]. Let P_1 and P_2 be two regular d-polytopes. An ***amalgamation*** of P_1 and P_2 is a regular $(d{+}1)$-polytope P with facets isomorphic to P_1 and vertex figures isomorphic to P_2. Let $\langle P_1, P_2\rangle$ denote the class of all amalgamations of P_1 and P_2. Each nonempty class $\langle P_1, P_2\rangle$ contains a ***universal polytope*** denoted by $\{P_1, P_2\}$, which "covers" all other polytopes in its class [Sch88]. For example, if P_1 is the 3-cube $\{4, 3\}$ and P_2 is the tetrahedron $\{3, 3\}$, then the universal polytope $\{P_1, P_2\}$ is the 4-cube $\{4, 3, 3\}$, and thus $\{\{4, 3\}, \{3, 3\}\} = \{4, 3, 3\}$; on the other hand, the hemi-4-cube (obtained by identifying opposite faces of the 4-cube) is a nonuniversal polytope in the class $\langle\{4, 3\}, \{3, 3\}\rangle$. The automorphism group of the universal polytope $\{P_1, P_2\}$ is a certain quotient of an amalgamated product of the automorphism groups of P_1 and P_2 [Sch88, MS02].

If we prescribe two topological types for the facets and respectively vertex-figures of polytopes, then the classification of the regular polytopes with these data as local topological types amounts to the enumeration and description of the universal polytopes $\{P_1, P_2\}$ where P_1 and P_2 respectively are of the prescribed topological types [MS02]. The main interest typically lies in classifying all finite universal polytopes $\{P_1, P_2\}$.

A polytope Q in $\langle P_1, P_2\rangle$ is ***locally toroidal*** if P_1 and P_2 are convex regular polytopes (spheres) or regular toroids, with at least one of the latter kind. For example, if P_1 is the torus map $\{4, 4\}_{(s,0)}$, obtained from an s by s chessboard by identifying opposite edges of the board, and P_2 is the 3-cube $\{4, 3\}$, then the universal locally toroidal 4-polytope $\{\{4, 4\}_{(s,0)}, \{4, 3\}\}$ exists for all $s \geq 2$, but is finite only for $s = 2$ or $s = 3$. The polytope $\{\{4, 4\}_{(3,0)}, \{4, 3\}\}$ can be realized topologically by a decomposition of the 3-sphere into 20 solid tori [CS77, Grü77a].

Locally toroidal regular polytopes can only exist in ranks 4, 5, and 6 [MS02]. The enumeration is complete for rank 5, and nearly complete for rank 4. In rank 6, a list of finite polytopes is known that is conjectured to be complete. The enumeration in rank 4 involves analysis of the Schläfli types $\{4, 4, r\}$ with $r = 3, 4$, $\{6, 3, r\}$ with $r = 3, 4, 5, 6$, and $\{3, 6, 3\}$, and their duals. Here, complete lists of finite universal regular polytopes are known for each type except $\{4, 4, 4\}$ and $\{3, 6, 3\}$; the type $\{4, 4, 4\}$ is almost completely settled, and for $\{3, 6, 3\}$ partial results are known. In rank 5, only the types $\{3, 4, 3, 4\}$ and its dual occur, and these have been settled. In rank 6, there are the types $\{3, 3, 3, 4, 3\}$, $\{3, 3, 4, 3, 3\}$, and $\{3, 4, 3, 3, 4\}$, and their duals. At the group level the classification of toroidal and locally toroidal polytopes amounts to the classification of certain C-groups that are defined in terms of generators and relations. These groups are quotients of Euclidean or hyperbolic Coxeter groups and are obtained from those by either one or two extra defining relations.

Every finite, abstract n-polytope is covered by a finite, abstract regular n-polytope [MS14]. This underlines the significance of abstract regular polytopes as umbrella structures for arbitrary abstract polytopes, including convex polytopes. The article [MPW14] studies coverings of polytopes and their connections with monodromy groups and mixing of polytopes.

The concept of a universal polytope also carries over to chiral polytopes [SW94]. Very little is known about the corresponding classification by topological type.

REALIZATIONS

A good number of the geometric figures discussed in the earlier sections could be described in the general context of realizations of abstract regular polytopes. For an account of realizations see [MS02] or McMullen [McM94, McM].

Let $\beta : \mathcal{F}_0 \mapsto V$ be a realization of a regular d-polytope P, and let $\mathcal{F}_j$ denote the set of j-faces of P ($j = -1, 0, \dots, d$). With $\beta_0 := \beta$, $V_0 := V$, then for $j = 1, \dots, d$, the surjection β recursively induces a surjection $\beta_j : \mathcal{F}_j \mapsto V_j$, with $V_j \subset 2^{V_{j-1}}$, given by

$$F\beta_j := \{G\beta_{j-1} | G \in \mathcal{F}_{j-1}, G \leq F\}$$

for each $F \in \mathcal{F}_j$. It is convenient to identify β and $\{\beta_j\}_{j=0}^{d}$ and also call the latter a realization of $\mathcal{P}$. The realization is ***faithful*** if each β_j is a bijection; otherwise, it is ***degenerate***. Its ***dimension*** is the dimension of the affine hull of V. Each realization corresponds to a (not necessarily faithful) representation of the automorphism group $\Gamma(P)$ of P as a group of Euclidean isometries.

The traditional approach in the study of regular figures starts from a Euclidean (or other) space and describes all figures of a specified kind that are regular according to some geometric definition of regularity. For example, the Grünbaum-Dress polyhedra of Section 18.4 are the realizations in $\mathbb{E}^3$ of abstract regular 3-polytopes P that are both discrete and faithful; their symmetry group is flag-transitive and is isomorphic to the automorphism group $\Gamma(P)$.

Another approach proceeds from a given abstract regular polytope P and describes all the realizations of P. For a finite P, each realization β is uniquely determined by its ***diagonal vector*** Δ, whose components are the squared lengths of the diagonals (pairs of vertices) in the diagonal classes of P modulo $\Gamma(P)$. Each orthogonal representation of $\Gamma(P)$ yields one or more (possibly degenerate) realizations of P. Then taking a sum of two representations of $\Gamma(P)$ is equivalent to an operation for the related realizations called a ***blend***, which in turn amounts to adding the corresponding diagonal vectors. If we identify the realizations with their diagonal vectors, then the space of all realizations of P becomes a closed convex cone $C(P)$, the ***realization cone of*** P, whose finer structure is given by the irreducible representations of $\Gamma(P)$. The extreme rays of $C(P)$ correspond to the ***pure*** (unblended) realizations, which are given by the irreducible representations of $\Gamma(P)$. Each realization of P is a blend of pure realizations.

For instance, a regular n-gon P has $\lfloor \frac{1}{2}n \rfloor$ diagonal classes, and for each $k = 1, \dots, \lfloor \frac{1}{2}n \rfloor$, there is a planar regular star-polygon $\{\frac{n}{k}\}$ if $(n, k) = 1$ (Section 18.2), or a "degenerate star-polygon $\{\frac{n}{k}\}$" if $(n, k) > 1$; the latter is a degenerate realization of P, which reduces to a line segment if $n = 2k$. For the regular icosahedron P there are 3 pure realizations. Apart from the usual icosahedron $\{3, 5\}$ itself, there is another 3-dimensional pure realization, namely the great icosahedron $\{3, \frac{5}{2}\}$ (Section 18.2). The final pure realization is induced by its covering of $\{3, 5\}/2$, the ***hemi-icosahedron*** (obtained from P by identifying antipodal vertices), all of whose diagonals are edges; thus its vertices must be those of a 5-simplex. The regular d-simplex has (up to similarity) a unique realization. The regular d-cross-polytope and d-cube have 2 and d pure realizations, respectively. For the realizations of other polytopes see [BS00, MS02, MW99, MW00].

Preliminary version (July 16, 2017). To appear in the Handbook of Discrete and Computational Geometry, J.E. Goodman, J. O'Rourke, and C. D. Tóth (editors), 3rd edition, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 2017.

18.9 SOURCES AND RELATED MATERIAL

SURVEYS

[Ban95]: A popular book on the geometry and visualization of polyhedral and nonpolyhedral figures with symmetries in higher dimensions.

[BLS+93]: A monograph on oriented matroids and their applications.

[BW93]: A survey on polyhedral manifolds and their embeddings in real space.

[BCN89]: A monograph on distance-regular graphs and their symmetry properties.

[Bue95]: A Handbook of Incidence Geometry, with articles on buildings and diagram geometries.

[BC13]: A monograph on diagram geometries.

[CJST]: A monograph on regular maps on surfaces.

[CS88]: A monograph on sphere packings and related topics.

[Cox70]: A short text on certain chiral tessellations of 3-dimensional manifolds.

[Cox73]: A monograph on the traditional regular polytopes, regular tessellations, and reflection groups.

[Cox93]: A monograph on complex regular polytopes and complex reflection groups.

[CM80]: A monograph on discrete groups and their presentations.

[DGS81]: A collection of papers on various aspects of symmetry, contributed in honor of H.S.M. Coxeter's 70th birthday.

[DV64]: A monograph on geometric aspects of the quaternions with applications to symmetry.

[Fej64]: A monograph on regular figures, mainly in 3 dimensions.

[Grü67]: A monograph on convex polytopes.

[GS87]: A monograph on plane tilings and patterns.

[Hum90]: A monograph on Coxeter groups and reflection groups.

[Joh91]: A monograph on uniform polytopes and semiregular figures.

[Mag74]: A book on discrete groups of Möbius transformations and non-Euclidean tessellations.

[Mar94]: A survey on symmetric convex polytopes and a hierarchical classification by symmetry.

[Mon87]: A book on the topology of the three-manifolds of classical plane tessellations.

[McM94]: A survey on abstract regular polytopes with emphasis on geometric realizations.

[McM]: A monograph on geometric regular polytopes and realizations of abstract regular polytopes.

[MS02]: A monograph on abstract regular polytopes and their groups.

[OT92]: A monograph on hyperplane arrangements.

[Rob84]: A text about symmetry classes of convex polytopes.

[Sen95]: An introduction to the geometry of mathematical quasicrystals and related tilings.

[SF88]: A text on interdisciplinary aspects of polyhedra and their symmetries.

[SMT+95]: A collection of twenty-six papers by H.S.M. Coxeter.

[Tit74]: A text on buildings and their classification.

[Wel77]: A monograph on three-dimensional polyhedral geometry and its applications in crystallography.

[Zie95]: A graduate textbook on convex polytopes.

RELATED CHAPTERS

Chapter 3: Tilings
Chapter 6: Oriented matroids
Chapter 15: Basic properties of convex polytopes
Chapter 20: Polyhedral maps
Chapter 64: Crystals, periodic and aperiodic

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