Diophantine equations, Platonic solids, McKay correspondence, equivelar maps and Vogel’s universality

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Abstract. We notice that one of the Diophantine equations, $knm = 2kn + 2km + 2nm$, arising in the universality originated Diophantine classification of simple Lie algebras, has interesting interpretations for two different sets of signs of variables. In both cases it describes "regular polyhedrons" with $k$ edges in each vertex, $n$ edges of each face, with total number of edges $|m|$, and Euler characteristics $\chi = \pm 2$. In the case of negative $m$ this equation corresponds to $\chi = 2$ and describes true regular polyhedrons, Platonic solids. The case with positive $m$ corresponds to Euler characteristic $\chi = -2$ and describes the so called equivelar maps (charts) on the surface of genus 2. In the former case there are two routes from Platonic solids to simple Lie algebras — abovementioned Diophantine classification and McKay correspondence. We compare them for all solutions of this type, and find coincidence in the case of icosahedron (dodecahedron), corresponding to $E_8$ algebra. In the case of positive $k$, $n$ and $m$ we obtain in this way the interpretation of (some of) the mysterious solutions (Y-objects), appearing in the Diophantine classification and having some similarities with simple Lie algebras.

1. Introduction

Since ancient time natural numbers have been suggested as a basic notion in the construction of our knowledge about nature. However, it is rare when they are the part of the basis of construction of a given mathematical or physical theory. In this paper we consider several such cases and observe that they are based on the same Diophantine
equation. Moreover, since two of that cases are connected to simple Lie algebras, we are naturally led to comparison of that two superficially disjoint theories.

The focus of the present paper is the following Diophantine equation

\[ \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} = \frac{1}{2}, \]

\[ k, n, m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus 0 \]

or in more general form, which allows zero values of integers \( k, n, m \):

\[ knm = 2kn + 2km + 2nm. \]

We would like to point out that this equation appears in three circumstances, depending, particularly, on the signs of integers \( k, n, m \). In two of them there are (different) routes from this equation to simple Lie algebras.

One route is the famous McKay correspondence [1]. It is well-known that solutions of equation (1) with \((+ + -)\) signs of variables describe Platonic solids (see below in Section 2). Take invariance subgroup of given Platonic solid (it is finite subgroup of the group \( SO(3) \), lift it to group \( SU(2) \) by double-covering map

\[ 1 \to \mathbb{Z}_2 \to SU(2) \to SO(3) \to 1, \]

and assign to this subgroup of \( SU(2) \) by McKay procedure the simple Lie algebra from the list of ADE algebras (see Section 3). Note that one has to consider also degenerate "Platonic solids", and take into account different liftings of groups. All that is briefly described in Section 3.

Other route from Diophantine equation (1), with the same set of signs, to simple Lie algebras is given by recently developed [2] Diophantine classification of simple Lie algebras, based on Vogel’s universality [3, 4] and Deligne’s conjecture on exceptional simple Lie algebras [5]. This is briefly described in Section 4.

In section 5 we compare these two routes from solutions of Diophantine equation (1) to simple Lie algebras, and find several common features and differences.

Finally, we discuss relation of Diophantine equations (1) with the theory of equivelar maps [6, 7, 8] on orientable surfaces of genus two. They appear to correspond to the same equation (1) with \((+ + +)\) signs of variables. In Diophantine classification this case corresponds to mysterious \( Y \)-objects, which have certain similarity with simple Lie algebras, but up to now were not identified with any known objects. This is discussed in Section 6.
2. Platonic solids' Diophantine equation

Consider Platonic solid with number of edges of any face \( r \), number of edges at any vertex \( n \), total number of edges \( E \), total number of vertices \( V \), and total number of faces \( F \). We have

\[
 nV = 2E, \quad rF = 2E. 
\]

Then Euler’s theorem

\[
 V - E + F = 2 
\]

can be rewritten as

\[
 \frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{E} = \frac{1}{2}. 
\]

This is the particular case of Diophantine equation (1) with the special choice (+ + −) of signs of integers \( k, n, m \).

Solutions \((r, n, E)\) of equation (4) are:

- \((5, 3, 30)\) or \((3, 5, 30)\) — dodecahedron or icosahedron,
- \((4, 3, 12)\) or \((3, 4, 12)\) — cube (hexahedron) or octahedron,
- \((3, 3, 6)\) — tetrahedron,
- \((2, n, n)\) — regular \( n \)-polygon.

This information is listed in the first and second column of table 1.

| Solutions (k,n,m) | Platonic solids | Subgroups of SU(2) | McKay correspondence | Diophantine classification |
|------------------|----------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| \((5,3,-30)\)    | Icosahedron    | \(2I, |2I| = 120\)   | \(E_3\)              | \(E_8\)                   |
| \((3,5,-30)\)    | Dodecahedron   |                    |                      |                           |
| \((4,3,-12)\)    | Cube           | \(2O, |2O| = 48\)    | \(E_7\)              | \(E_6\)                   |
| \((3,4,-12)\)    | Octahedron     | \(2T, |2T| = 24\)    | \(E_6\)              | \(SO(8)\)                 |
| \((3,3,-6)\)     | Tetrahedron    | \(C_n, |C_n| = n\)   | \(A_{n-1}\)          | \(A_n\)                   |
| \((2,n,-n)\)     | n-polygon      | \(C_{2n}, |C_{2n}| = 2n\) | \(A_{2n-1}\)         | \(D_{n-2}\)               |
| \((0,0,0)\)      |                | \(BD_{2n}, |BD_{2n}| = 4n\) |                     | \(D_{2,1,\lambda}\)       |

3. McKay correspondence

McKay correspondence assigns to finite subgroups of \( SU(2) \) group Dynkin diagrams of some simple Lie algebras in the following way. Let \( G \) be an arbitrary finite subgroup of the group \( SU(2) \) and let \( V \) be the restriction of 2-dimensional representation of \( SU(2) \) on that subgroup.
Let \( \{V_i\} \) be the set of all irreducible representations of group \( G \), including trivial one. Then consider decomposition

\[
V \otimes V_i = \sum_j m_{ij} V_j.
\]

One can prove that for all pairs \((ij)\), \( m_{ij} \) are symmetric, i.e. \( m_{ij} = m_{ji} \), and that coefficients \( m_{ij} \) are equal to 0 or 1. Thus one comes to graphs \( \Gamma_G \) with vertices corresponding to spaces \( V_i \) and edges between vertices \( V_i, V_j \) iff \( m_{ij} \neq 0 \). These graphs appear to be Dynkin diagrams of all affine untwisted Kac-Moody algebras of types \( \tilde{A}, \tilde{D}, \tilde{E} \), (McKay, 1980, II).

Particularly, among finite groups \( G \) there are subgroups of \( SU(2) \) which are double coverings (through the double covering \( SU(2) \rightarrow SO(3) \)) of finite subgroups of \( SO(3) \) which are groups of rotational symmetries of Platonic solids. These are

- \( 2I \) — binary icosahedral group, which is double covering of icosahedral group \( I \) - the group of rotational symmetries of icosahedron and dodecahedron. It has \( 2 \times 60 = 120 \) elements.
- \( 2O \) — binary octahedral group, double covering of octahedral group \( O \) - the group of rotational symmetries of cube and octahedron. It has \( 2 \times 24 = 48 \) elements.
- \( 2T \) — binary tetrahedral group, double covering (extension) of tetrahedral group \( T \) - the group of rotational symmetries of tetrahedron. It has \( 2 \times 12 = 24 \) elements.

Besides these three groups, there are only two families of finite subgroups of \( SU(2) \): \( C_n \) and \( BD_{2n} \). They correspond to degenerate Platonic solids, namely regular \( n \)-polygons, which can be considered as “polyhedrons” with two faces, \( n \) vertices and \( n \) edges.

- \( C_n \) — cyclic group, preimage of cyclic group \( C_n \) of rotations of regular \( n \)-polygon, if \( n \) is even, or \( C_n \) — preimage of cyclic group \( C_n \) of rotations of regular \( n \)-polygon, if \( n \) is odd, or \( C_{2n} \) — preimage of cyclic group \( C_n \) of rotations of regular \( n \)-polygon, if \( n \) is odd.
- \( 2D_{2n} = BD_{2n} \), binary dihedral group \( BD_{2n} \), double covering of dihedral group \( D_{2n} \) of rotations and reflections of \( n \)-polygon. (Reflections of \( n \)-polygon can be considered as rotation in 3-dimensional space.) Group \( D_{2n} \) has \( n + n = 2n \) elements and group \( BD_{2n} \) has \( 2 \times 2n = 4n \) elements.

McKay correspondence assigns to all these subgroups simple Lie algebras whose Dynkin diagrams are defined by relation (5). They are listed in third and fourth columns of table II.
4. **Diophantine classification of simple Lie algebras.**

Now turn to the Diophantine classification of simple Lie algebras obtained in [2]. The idea is based on the analysis of the so called universal character of adjoint representation.

Recall briefly the main ideas of the universality approach to simple Lie algebras [3, 4]. Vogel plane is a space which provides coordinates of simple Lie algebras. It is 2-dimensional projective space $\mathbb{CP}^2$ factorized by the action of group $S_3$ of permutations of homogeneous coordinates $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ on $\mathbb{CP}^2$. Functions on Vogel plane are functions on coordinates $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$, which are scaling invariant and symmetric. To every simple Lie algebra corresponds the separate point on Vogel plane. The values of Vogel parameters (defined up to a rescaling and permutations) for all simple Lie algebras are given in the table 2. All exceptional algebras belong to the line $Exc(n)$ and are parameterized by numbers $n = -2/3, 0, 1, 2, 4, 8$ for exceptional algebras $G_2, D_4, F_4, E_6, E_7$ and $E_8$, respectively.

**Table 2. Simple Lie algebras on Vogel’s plane**

| Algebra | $\alpha$ | $\beta$ | $\gamma$ |
|---------|----------|----------|----------|
| $sl(N)$ | $-2$     | $2$      | $N$      |
| $so(N)$ | $-2$     | $4$      | $N-4$    |
| $sp(N)$ | $-2$     | $1$      | $N/2 + 2$|
| $Exc(n)$ | $-2$ | $2n + 4$ | $3n + 6$ |

We say that a function $f$ universalizes some quantity if $f$ is an ‘reasonable’ function on Vogel plane which is equal to this quantity at the points of Vogel plane corresponding to given simple Lie algebras (see table 2). For example consider such a quantity as dimension of Lie algebra. One can see that function

$$d(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = \frac{(\alpha - 2t)(\beta - 2t)(\gamma - 2t)}{\alpha\beta\gamma}, \quad \text{where} \quad t = \alpha + \beta + \gamma,$$

is universal function for dimension of Lie algebra. The value of this functions at coordinates of an arbitrary simple Lie algebra (see table 2) is equal to the dimension of that simple Lie algebra.

We come to another very important universal function considering such a quantity as values of character of adjoint representation at the Weyl line. Namely, let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a simple Lie algebra, and let $\chi_{\text{ad}}^{(g)}$ be character of its adjoint representation. Let $\{\mu\}$ be a set of roots of Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$. Then consider Weyl vector which is equal to half-sum of all positive roots: $\rho = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mu > 0} \mu$. Consider a function $f(x) = f_\rho(x) =$
\( \chi^{(\mathfrak{g})}_{\text{ad}}(x \rho) \). One can see that for this function the following relation holds:

\[
(6) \quad f_{\mathfrak{g}}(x) = \chi^{(\mathfrak{g})}_{\text{ad}}(x \rho) = r + \sum_{\mu} e^{x(\mu, \rho)},
\]

where \( r \) is rank of algebra \( \mathfrak{g} \).

In the papers \([9, 10]\) it was suggested the universalisation of function (6):

\[
(7) \quad f(x) = f(x|\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = \frac{\sinh(x^{\alpha - 2t}) \sinh(x^{\beta - 2t}) \sinh(x^{\gamma - 2t})}{\sinh(x^{\frac{\alpha}{4}}) \sinh(x^{\frac{\beta}{4}}) \sinh(x^{\frac{\gamma}{4}})}.
\]

The values of this function at points of Vogel plane corresponding to an arbitrary simple Lie algebra \( \mathfrak{g} \) are equal to character of adjoint representation of the algebra \( \mathfrak{g} \) on Weyl line:

\[
(8) \quad \chi^{(\mathfrak{g})}_{\text{ad}}(x \rho) = f(x|\alpha, \beta, \gamma).
\]

This function is very important for construction of universal expression for volumes of groups and partition function of Chern-Simons theory (see \([11]\)). Moreover it turns out that this function can be used for Diophantine classification of simple Lie algebras, \([2]\). Let’s briefly recall results of \([2]\).

Left hand side of equation (8) is the finite sum of exponents, which happens if all possible poles of right hand side of this equation are canceled by the zeros of numerator at the points of Vogel plane corresponding to simple Lie algebra. One can put things upside down and seek all points on the Vogel’s plane for which this happens. One of the possible patterns of cancellation is the following

\[
(9) \quad \begin{cases} 
2t - \alpha = (k - 1)\alpha \\
2t - \beta = (n - 1)\beta \\
2t - \gamma = (m - 1)\gamma
\end{cases}, \quad t = \alpha + \beta + \gamma,
\]

where \( k, n, m \) are integers. Generally it can be seven such patterns. The pattern (9) requires that determinant of corresponding \( 3 \times 3 \) matrix vanishes. Thus we come to the condition

\[
(10) \quad knm = 2kn + 2km + 2nm.
\]

We obtain our main equation (1) in a more general form (2). If condition (10) is obeyed and all integers are non-zero, then solutions of equations (9) are

\[
(11) \quad \alpha = \frac{2t}{k}, \beta = \frac{2t}{n}, \gamma = \frac{2t}{m}.
\]
Besides that, the non-singular form of Diophantine equation (1),
equation (10), has solution \((0, 0, m)\), with an arbitrary \(m\). Solution with \(m = 0\) is particularly interesting, and it is the most general in a certain sense. It corresponds to an object with \(E = 0\), and hence \(V + F = 2\). Corresponding solution for Vogel’s parameters is an arbitrary triple \(\alpha, \beta, \gamma\) with only restriction \(\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 0\). This solution corresponds to superalgebra \(D_{2,1,\lambda}\), see [3].

The list of solutions, with corresponding Vogel’s parameters and simple Lie algebras, is given in the tables 3 and 4 below, series solutions in table 3 and isolated solutions in table 4. Simple Lie (super)algebras, corresponding, in Diophantine classification, to solutions from the first column of table 1, are presented in the last, fifth column of table 1.

Table 3. Points in Vogel’s plane: series

| g     | \(\alpha, \beta, \gamma\) | k.n.m               |
|-------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| \(2n(n+1)\) | -2,2,n+1               | -n,n,2               |
|        | \(D_{2,1,\lambda}\)     | \(\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 0\) | 0,0,0               |

Table 4. Isolated solutions

| k n m | \(\alpha\beta\gamma\) | Dim | Rank | Algebra |
|-------|-----------------------|-----|------|---------|
| 5 3 -30 | -6 -10 1 | 248 | 8 | \(\xi_8\) |
| 4 3 -12 | -3 -4 1 | 78  | 6 | \(\xi_6\) |
| 3 3 -6   | -2 -2 1 | 28  | 4 | \(\mathfrak{so}(8)\) |
| 1 -4 -4  | 4 -1 -1 | 0   | 0 | \(\mathfrak{0d}_3\) |
| 1 -3 -6  | 6 -2 -1 | 0   | 0 | \(\mathfrak{0d}_4\) |
| 6 6 6    | 1 1 1 | -125 | -19 | \(Y_1\) |
| 10 5 5   | 1 2 2 | -144 | -14 | \(Y_{10}\) |
| 8 8 4    | 1 1 2 | -147 | -17 | \(Y_{11}\) |
| 12 6 4   | 1 2 3 | -165 | -13 | \(Y_{15}\) |
| 20 5 4   | 1 4 5 | -228 | -10 | \(Y_{29}\) |
| 12 12 3  | 1 1 4 | -242 | -18 | \(Y_{31}\) |
| 15 10 3  | 2 3 10 | -252 | -8  | \(Y_{35}\) |
| 18 9 3   | 1 2 6 | -272 | -14 | \(Y_{38}\) |
| 24 8 3   | 1 3 8 | -322 | -12 | \(Y_{43}\) |
| 42 7 3   | 1 6 14 | -492 | -10 | \(Y_{47}\) |

5. Comparison of McKay correspondence and Diophantine classification.

Now we turn to comparison of connection between solutions and simple Lie algebras in McKay correspondence and in Diophantine classification. All necessary information is already combined in table 1 so we have to look on its rows.
We first notice that both approaches combine Platonic solids in dual pairs: dodecahedron with icosahedron, cube with octahedron, and tetrahedron is alone as it is self-dual. Duality is standard, including vertex ↔ face correspondence, etc.

The corresponding algebra is the same in both routes, in the first case of dodecahedron/icosahedron solution \((5, 3, -30)\), and is the largest of exceptional algebras, \(E_8\). Two other cases give different outputs in McKay and Diophantine classification: solution \((4, 3, -12)\) gives \(E_6\) (instead of \(E_7\) in McKay correspondence), solution \((3, 3, -6)\) gives \(SO(8)\) (instead of \(E_6\) in McKay correspondence).

Next we see that Diophantine classification choose one of two series corresponding to polygon solution \((2, n, -n)\) in McKay correspondence, namely \(A_n\) series (i.e. \(sl(n + 1)\) algebras). In McKay correspondence for that degenerate "Platonic solid" we get either \(A_{n-1}\), \(A_{2n-1}\) or \(D_{2n}\). So, there is no exact coincidence for polygon solution.

6. Equivelar maps and solutions with positive \(k, n, m\).

In equation (4) we considered solutions of Diophantine equation (1) with signs \((+ - -)\). These solutions correspond to Platonic solids. There is a number of solutions of equation (1) with ‘wrong’, i.e. all positive, signs. They are presented in last 10 lines of table [4], and correspond to the so called Y-objects [2]. E.g. triple \((6, 6, 6)\) is a solution of equation (1), and it cannot be interpreted in terms of Platonic solids. However, we can get a reasonable interpretation of these solutions assigning to them so called equivelar maps on double torus (compact Riemannian surface of genus \(g = 2\), and Euler characteristics \(\chi = -2\)).

**Equivelar map** on compact Riemann surface is [6] polyhedral map with faces all having equal (say \(p\)) edges and vertices all having equal (say \(q\)) number of edges. Initially theory of equivelar maps were developed under the name of *regular maps* in [7, 8]. Another names for equivelar maps are: equivelar \(\{p, q\}\) maps, or simply \(\{p, q\}\) maps, where \(\{p, q\}\) is Schlafli symbol, and *locally regular maps* (see below).

In the same way as for equation (4) one immediately derives for an arbitrary equivelar map on double torus an equation

\[
\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{E} = \frac{1}{2}.
\]

Thus we come to equation (1) with positive \(k, n, m\). Correspondingly, we get a connection of Y-objects (which have some features of simple Lie algebras, see [2]) with equivelar maps on genus two surfaces.

Note that there is a notion of *regular maps*, which are equivelar maps with additional transitivity requirement on automorphism group.
of the graph of the map. Actually transitivity itself already implies that the map is equivelar. (See [12, 13] for definitions and discussion.) Accordingly, another name for equiveral maps is \textit{locally regular maps}.

Among solutions of equation (12), listed in table 4, only \(Y_1\), \(Y_{10}\), \(Y_{11}\), \(Y_{15}\) and \(Y_{43}\) give rise to regular maps (see table 9 in [12]).

7. Conclusion

In this paper we present some observations, which connect Diophantine equations (1), (2) with Platonic solids, McKay correspondence, equivelar maps and Diophantine classification of simple Lie algebras. Latter, in turn, is based on Vogel's universality approach. It appears that there are two routes from these equations to simple Lie algebras, and they have some similar features and some differences. Particularly, maximal exceptional \(E_8\) algebra has the same Diophantine solution origin in both routes. We also observe the connection of these equations with equivelar and regular maps on surface of genus 2 (double tori), and in this way get some interpretation of \(Y\)-objects. These objects share some features with simple Lie algebras.

One can ask on the similar interpretation of other six equations [2] of Diophantine classification:

\begin{align}
(13) \quad kmn &= mn + 2kn + 2km \\
(14) \quad kmn &= mn + 2kn + 2km + 2n - 2k \\
(15) \quad kmn &= mn + kn + 2km + 3n + 2k \\
(16) \quad kmn &= mn + 2kn + 2km + 2n + 2m - 3k - 5 \\
(17) \quad kmn &= 2mn + 2kn + 2km - 2n - 3m \\
(18) \quad kmn &= 2mn + 2kn + 2km - 2n - 2m - 2k + 5
\end{align}

Origin of these equations are different patterns of cancellation of zeros in denominator and numerator in universal character (7), so that final answer is regular function in the entire complex \(x\) plane, as is the case for all simple Lie algebras. One can try to compare them with Artur Caylay’s [14] form of Euler theorem for some polyhedrons:

\begin{equation}
(19) \quad d_v V - E + d_f F = 2D,
\end{equation}

where \(d_v, d_f, D\) are called vertex figure density, face density and density, respectively.

Another possibly relevant remark is that for a given number of edges, vertices and faces, one can construct another polyhedrons, sometimes
with the same Euler characteristics, so called Kepler-Poinsot polyhedrons \[14, 15\], which however are not convex.

Hopefully on the bases of observations in present work one can extend the area of the common Diophantine equations origin of different objects, such as simple Lie algebras, equiveral maps on surfaces of different genus, etc. Another important direction is an interpretation (identification) of \(Y\)-objects, and their deeper understanding, which is an interesting challenge.

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