# THE BRAID GROUP AND OTHER GROUPS

### By F. A. GARSIDE

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The braid group  $B_{n+1}$  was first defined by Artin in a paper published in 1926 (1). The word problem for the group was solved by Artin (1, 2), and the centre was given by Chow (3). The present paper incorporates the results of my D.Phil. Thesis (Oxford, November 1965), under the supervision of Professor G. Higman, whose help and advice I acknowledge with gratitude. The primary concern will be to give the solution of the conjugacy problem in  $B_{n+1}$ . A new solution of the word problem is also given, and a new method of finding the centre. In the last section a connection is traced between the braid groups and the truncated octahedron and higher dimensional polytopes. Examples are given of further groups connected with other even-faced Archimedean solids and polytopes, which can be dealt with in the same manner as that developed for the braid groups.

#### 1. Positive words

#### 1.1. Definitions and notation

The Braid Group  $B_{n+1}$ . We define  $B_{n+1}$  as the group generated by  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$  subject to the relations

$$a_{i} a_{i+1} a_{i} = a_{i+1} a_{i} a_{i+1} \quad (1 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1) \\ a_{i} a_{k} = a_{k} a_{i} \quad (|i-k| \geqslant 2)$$
 (1.1)

Words. If A, B are words in the generators and their inverses, then A = B will mean that A can be transformed into B by the use of the defining relations,  $A \equiv B$  will mean the two words are identical letter by letter,  $A \sim B$  will mean A is conjugate to B. A word consisting of an ordered sequence of the generators only, in which no inverse of any generator occurs will be called a *positive word*. We shall denote by L(W) the word-length of a word W.

Positively equal. Two positive words A, B will be said to be positively equal, if (a) they are identically equal, or (b) they are transformable into each other through a sequence of positive words, such that each word of the sequence is obtained from the preceding one by a single direct application of the defining relations (1.1), so that at no stage of the transformation does the inverse of any one of the generators occur.

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If A is positively equal to B we shall write

$$A = B$$

and such a statement will imply that A and B are both positive.

If 
$$A = B$$
, then  $L(A) = L(B)$ .

If A is transformed positively into B by a sequence of t single applications of the defining relations (1.1), then the whole transformation will be said to be of *chain-length* t.

Reverse. If  $P \equiv x_1 x_2 \dots x_l$  be any word, where each  $x_l$  is a generator or its inverse, the  $x_l$  being not necessarily distinct, then by the reverse of P we shall mean the word  $x_l \dots x_2 x_1$ . We shall write the reverse of P as rev P, and note that rev PQ = rev Q rev P. It is easily seen that if P = Q, then rev P = rev Q.

- 1.2. THEOREM H. In  $B_{n+1}$ , for i, k = 1, 2,..., n, given  $a_i X = a_k Y$ , it follows that
  - (i) if k = i, then X = Y,
  - (ii) if  $|k-i| \ge 2$ , then  $X = a_k Z$ ,  $Y = a_k Z$ , for some Z,
  - (iii) if |k-i| = 1, then  $X = a_k a_i Z$ ,  $Y = a_i a_k Z$ , for some Z.

The theorem for words X, Y of word-length s will be referred to as  $H_s$ . For s = 0, 1 the theorem takes the simpler forms which follow trivially from (1.1):

 $H_0$ . When X, Y are the empty word

- (i) if  $a_i X = a_i Y$ , then X = Y (i = 1, 2, ..., n),
- (ii) if  $i \neq k$ , then  $a_i X$  cannot be positively equal to  $a_k Y$ .

 $H_1$ . When X, Y are of word-length 1, for i = 1, 2, ..., n,

- (i) if  $a_i X = a_i Y$ , then X = Y,
- (ii) if  $a_i X = a_k Y$  ( $|k-i| \ge 2$ ), then  $X \equiv a_k$ ,  $Y \equiv a_i$ ,
- (iii) if |k-i|=1, then  $a_iX$  cannot be positively equal to  $a_kY$ .

The proof of the general theorem now follows by induction. For our induction hypothesis we assume

- (a)  $H_s$  is true for  $0 \le s \le r$  for transformations of all chain-lengths, and
  - ( $\beta$ )  $H_{t+1}$  is true for all chain-lengths  $\leq t$ .

Let X, Y be of word-length r+1, and let  $a_i X = a_k Y$  through a transformation of chain-length t+1. Let the successive words of the transformation be

$$W_1 \equiv a_i X$$
,  $W_2 \equiv ...$ ,  $W_{t+2} \equiv a_k Y$ .

Choose arbitrarily any intermediate word  $W_q \equiv a_m W$ , say, from the

middle of the chain somewhere. The transformations  $a_i X \to a_m W$ ,  $a_m W \to a_k Y$  are each of chain-length  $\leq t$ , and we can therefore apply  $(\beta)$  to them. We have then

$$a_i X = a_m W = a_k Y. (1.2)$$

For the complete proof (8) we have to consider all possible variations in the values of i, m, k. The general pattern of the proof is, however, exactly the same for each variation, and it will be sufficient here to deal with two cases only, as typical examples of the common method of proof.

(1) 
$$k = i$$
,  $|m-i| \ge 2$ . From (1.2) we have

$$a_i X = a_m W;$$
  $a_m W = a_i Y (|m-i| \geqslant 2).$ 

By 
$$(\beta)$$
  $X = a_m P$ ,  $W = a_i P$  for some  $P$ ;

and 
$$W = a_i Q$$
,  $Y = a_m Q$  for some  $Q$ .

The two expressions for W give  $a_i P = a_i Q$ , and hence by  $(\alpha)$ , P = Q. Hence  $X = a_m P = a_m Q = Y$  as required.

(2) 
$$|k-i| \ge 2$$
,  $|m-i| \ge 2$ ,  $|k-m| = 1$ . From (1.2) we have

$$a_i X = a_m W; \quad a_m W = a_k Y.$$

By 
$$(\beta)$$
  $X = a_m P$ ,  $W = a_i P$  for some  $P$ ;

and 
$$W = a_k a_m Q$$
,  $Y = a_m a_k Q$  for some  $Q$ .

By  $(\alpha)$  the two expressions for W give

$$P = a_k R$$
,  $a_m Q = a_i R$  for some  $R$ .

The last equation now gives

$$Q = a_i S$$
,  $R = a_m S$  for some  $S$ .

Therefore X =

$$X = a_m a_k a_m S, \qquad Y = a_m a_k a_i S.$$

Hence, using the defining relations, we have

$$X = a_k a_m a_k S$$
,  $Y = a_m a_i a_k S = a_i a_m a_k S$ ,

i.e. 
$$X = a_k Z$$
,  $Y = a_i Z$  as required, where  $Z \equiv a_m a_k S$ .

The proofs for other variations in the values of i, m, k are similar.

Since  $H_{r+1}$  is true for chain length 1, an induction proves it for all chain lengths, and a further induction (on r) completes the proof of the theorem.

Theorem K. In  $B_{n+1}$ , for i, k = 1, 2, ..., n, given  $Xa_i = Ya_k$ , it follows that

(i) if 
$$k = i$$
, then  $X = Y$ ,

(ii) if 
$$|k-i| \ge 2$$
, then  $X = Za_k$ ,  $Y = Za_i$ , for some  $Z$ ,

(iii) if 
$$|k-i|=1$$
, then  $X=Za_ia_k$ ,  $Y=Za_ka_i$ , for some Z.

The theorem follows from Theorem H and the fact that X = Y implies rev X = rev Y.

As an immediate consequence of Theorems H (i), K (i) follows

THEOREM 1. In  $B_{n+1}$ , if  $A \neq P$ ,  $B \neq Q$ ,  $AXB \neq PYQ$  ( $L(A) \geqslant 0$ ,  $L(B) \geqslant 0$ ), then  $X \neq Y$ .

### 2. The fundamental word $\Delta$

#### 2.1. Definitions and notation

The word  $a_r a_{r+1} \dots a_s$   $(a_r a_{r-1} \dots a_s)$ , where all the generators from  $a_r$  to  $a_s$  inclusive occur in ascending (descending) sequence will be denoted by the abbreviation  $(a_r \dots a_s)$ . By the notation  $\Pi_s$  we shall mean the word  $(a_1 \dots a_s)$ .

In  $B_{n+1}$ , if  $\Re$  is the mapping of  $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$  onto itself given by  $\Re a_i = a_{n+1-i}$ , then by inspection of the relations  $\Re$  extends to an automorphism of  $B_{n+1}$ . This automorphism we continue to denote by  $\Re$ , and call it reflection in  $B_{n+1}$ . We note that if P = Q, then  $\Re P = \Re Q$ .

Associated with the ordered sequence of generators  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_r$  is the word  $\Delta_r \equiv \Pi_r \Pi_{r-1} ... \Pi_1,$ 

which is of fundamental importance in what follows. We shall refer to  $\Delta_r$  as the fundamental word of order r+1. When we are considering  $B_{n+1}$  we shall normally abbreviate  $\Delta_n$  to the simpler form  $\Delta$ .

LEMMA 1. In  $B_{n+1}$ , for  $1 < s \le t \le n$ ,  $a_s \Pi_t = \Pi_t a_{s-1}$ . For by use of the defining relations

$$\begin{split} a_s \, \Pi_t &\equiv \, a_s(a_1 \ldots a_{s-2}) a_{s-1} \, a_s(a_{s+1} \ldots a_t) \\ &= \, (a_1 \ldots a_{s-2}) a_s \, a_{s-1} \, a_s(a_{s+1} \ldots a_t) \\ &= \, (a_1 \ldots a_{s-2}) a_{s-1} \, a_s \, a_{s-1}(a_{s+1} \ldots a_t) \\ &= \, (a_1 \ldots a_{s-2}) a_{s-1} \, a_s(a_{s+1} \ldots a_t) a_{s-1} \\ &= \, \Pi_t a_{s-1} \quad \text{as required.} \end{split}$$

Lemma 2. In  $B_{n+1}$  (i)  $a_1 \Delta_i = \Delta_t a_t$  (t = 1, 2, ..., n); (ii)  $a_s \Delta = \Delta \Re a_s$ , (iii)  $a_s^{-1} \Delta = \Delta (\Re a_s)^{-1}$ , (iv)  $a_s \Delta^{-1} = \Delta^{-1} \Re a_s$ , (v)  $a_s^{-1} \Delta^{-1} = \Delta^{-1} (\Re a_s)^{-1}$  (s = 1, 2, ..., n).

(i) For 
$$t=1$$
,  $a_1 \Delta_1 \equiv a_1 a_1 = \Delta_1 a_1$  as required.

For t = 2, 3, ..., n,

$$\begin{split} a_1 \Delta_t &\equiv a_1 \{\Pi_t\} (a_1 \dots a_{t-1}) \Delta_{t-2} \\ &= a_1 (a_2 \dots a_t) \{\Pi_t\} \Delta_{t-2}, \quad \text{by Lemma 1,} \\ &= \Pi_t \{\Pi_{t-1} a_t\} \Delta_{t-2} \\ &= \Pi_t \Pi_{t-1} \Delta_{t-2} a_t \\ &= \Delta_t a_t \quad \text{as required.} \end{split}$$

(ii) For s = 1, by (i) above,

$$a_1 \Delta = \Delta a_n \equiv \Delta \Re a_1$$
 as required.

For s = 2, 3, ..., n,

$$\begin{split} a_s \Delta &\equiv a_s \, \Pi_n \, \Pi_{n-1} \dots \Pi_{n-s+2} \Delta_{n-s+1} \\ &= \Pi_n \, \Pi_{n-1} \dots \Pi_{n-s+2} \, a_1 \, \Delta_{n-s+1}, \quad \text{by Lemma 1,} \\ &= \Pi_n \, \Pi_{n-1} \dots \Pi_{n-s+2} \, \Delta_{n-s+1} \, a_{n-s+1}, \quad \text{by (i),} \\ &\equiv \Delta a_{n-s+1}, \end{split}$$

i.e.  $a_s \Delta = \Delta \Re a_s$  as required.

(iii), (iv), and (v) follow easily from (ii).

THEOREM 2. In  $B_{n+1}$ ,

- (i)  $P\Delta^{2m} = \Delta^{2m}P$ ,  $P\Delta^{2m+1} = \Delta^{2m+1}\Re P$  for all positive words  $P(m \ge 0)$ ,
- (ii)  $Q\Delta^{2m} = \Delta^{2m}Q$ ,  $Q\Delta^{2m+1} = \Delta^{2m+1}\Re Q$  for all words Q, m positive or negative.

This follows immediately from repeated applications of Lemma 2, remembering that  $\Re^2 P \equiv P$ ,  $\Re^2 Q \equiv Q$ .

- **2.2.** Lemma 3. In  $B_{n+1}$ , (i)  $\Re \Delta = \Delta$ , (ii) rev  $\Delta = \Delta$ .
  - (i) By Theorem 2,

$$(\Re \Delta)\Delta = \Delta\Re(\Re \Delta) = \Delta\Delta.$$

Hence, by Theorem 1,

$$\Re \Delta = \Delta$$
 as required.

(ii) The proof is by induction. Assume that for any particular  $\tau$  that rev  $\Delta_{\tau} = \Delta_{\tau}$ . Then

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{rev} \Delta_{r+1} & \equiv \operatorname{rev}\{(a_1 \dots a_{r+1}) \Delta_r\} \\ & \equiv \operatorname{rev} \Delta_r \operatorname{rev}(a_1 \dots a_{r+1}) \\ & = \Delta_r(a_{r+1} \dots a_1), \quad \text{using the induction hypothesis,} \\ \text{i.e.} \quad \operatorname{rev} \Delta_{r+1} & = \prod_r \prod_{r=1}^r \dots \prod_1 (a_{r+1} \dots a_1). \end{split}$$

Now  $a_{r+1}$  commutes with  $\Pi_1$ ,  $\Pi_2$ ,...,  $\Pi_{r-1}$ ;  $a_r$  commutes with  $\Pi_1$ ,  $\Pi_2$ ,...,  $\Pi_{r-2}$ ; ..., etc. Hence

$$\operatorname{rev} \Delta_{r+1} = \prod_{r} a_{r+1} \prod_{r-1} a_{r} \dots \prod_{2} a_{3} \prod_{1} a_{2} a_{1} \equiv \Delta_{r+1}.$$

The induction is now established, since the hypothesis is clearly true for r = 1, and the result follows.

LEMMA 4. In  $B_{n+1}$  there exist positive words  $X_r$ ,  $Y_r$  such that

$$a_r X_r = \Delta = Y_r a_r \quad (r = 1, 2, ..., n).$$

By definition

$$\Delta \equiv \Pi_n \Pi_{n-1} ... \Pi_2 \Pi_1,$$

i.e.  $\Delta = Y_1 a_1$ , where  $Y_1 \equiv \Pi_n \Pi_{n-1} \dots \Pi_2$ . (2.1)

We now observe that if  $f(a_2, a_3, ..., a_l)$  is any positive word involving the generators  $a_2, a_3, ..., a_l$  only, then by Lemma 1

$$\Pi_{t}f(a_{1}, a_{2}, ..., a_{t-1}) = f(a_{2}, a_{3}, ..., a_{t})\Pi_{t}.$$

Let  $a_i$  be any particular one of the generators  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$ ,...,  $a_n$ . Then, denoting  $\Pi_{t-1} \Pi_{t-2} \dots \Pi_1$  by  $f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{t-1})$ , we have

$$\begin{split} \Delta &\equiv \Pi_{n} \Pi_{n-1} \dots \Pi_{t+1} \Pi_{t} f(a_{1}, a_{2}, \dots, a_{t-1}) \\ &= \Pi_{n} \Pi_{n-1} \dots \Pi_{t+1} f(a_{2}, a_{3}, \dots, a_{t}) \Pi_{t} \\ &= \Pi_{n} \Pi_{n-1} \dots \Pi_{t+1} f(a_{2}, a_{3}, \dots, a_{t}) (a_{1} \dots a_{t-1}) a_{t} \\ &\equiv Y_{t} a_{t}, \quad \text{say}. \end{split}$$

$$(2.2)$$

(2.1) and (2.2) show that words  $Y_r$  exist for r = 1,..., n. Now putting  $X_r = \text{rev } Y_r$ , we have, for r = 1, 2,..., n,

$$a_r X_r \equiv a_r \operatorname{rev} Y_r \equiv \operatorname{rev}(Y_r a_r) = \operatorname{rev} \Delta = \Delta$$
, by Lemma 3.

Hence words  $X_r$  also exist, and the proof is complete.

COROLLARY. In  $B_{n+1}$ , if A is any positive word, then for r = 1, 2, ..., n, there exist words  $A_r$  such that  $\Delta A = A_r a_r$ .

For 
$$\Delta A = (\Re A)\Delta = (\Re A)Y_r a_r \equiv A_r a_r$$
, say.

LEMMA 5. Let  $a_i$  be any one of the n generators in  $B_{n+1}$ , and let  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_l$  be generators, not necessarily distinct, such that each  $x_r$  permutes with  $a_i$ . Then, if  $a_i P = x_1 x_2 ... x_l Q$ , there exists some R such that  $Q = a_i R$ .

We have  $a_i P = x_1 x_2 ... x_l Q$ . Hence, by making successive applications of Theorem H (ii), we have  $x_2 x_3 ... x_l Q = a_i R_2$  for some  $R_2$ ;  $x_3 x_4 ... x_l Q = a_i R_3$  for some  $R_3$ ; ...;  $x_l Q = a_i R_l$  for some  $R_l$ ; and finally  $Q = a_i R$  for some  $R_l$ , as required.

LEMMA 6. In  $B_{n+1}$ , if  $a_{i+1}P = \prod_i Q$ , then  $Q = a_{i+1}a_i R$ , for some R (i = 1, 2, ..., n-1).

By hypothesis  $a_{i+1}P = a_1 a_2 \dots a_i Q$  and hence, by Lemma 5,

$$a_i Q = a_{i+1} T$$

for some T. Hence, by Theorem H (iii), it follows that  $Q = a_{i+1}a_i R$  for some R, as required.

THEOREM 3. If W is any positive word in  $B_{n+1}$  such that either

(i) 
$$W = a_1 X_1 = a_2 X_2 = \dots = a_n X_n$$
,

or

(ii) 
$$W = Y_1 a_1 = Y_2 a_2 = ... = Y_n a_n$$
,

then  $W = \Delta Z$  for some Z.

(i) The proof is by induction. Let r be any natural number  $\leq n-1$ . Then as our induction hypothesis we assume that, in  $B_{n+1}$ , if

$$W = a_1 X_1 = a_2 X_2 = \dots = a_r X_r$$

then  $W = \Delta_r P_r$  for some  $P_r$ . Now suppose that

$$W = a_1 X_1 = a_2 X_2 = \dots = a_r X_r = a_{r+1} X_{r+1}.$$
 (2.3)

Then from (2.3) and the induction hypothesis it follows that

$$a_{r+1}X_{r+1} = W = \Delta_r P_r \equiv (a_1 \dots a_r)\Delta_{r-1}P_r.$$

Hence, by Lemma 6,

$$\Delta_{r-1} P_r = a_{r+1} a_r Q_r$$
 for some  $Q_r$ 

so that

$$W = (a_1 \dots a_r) a_{r+1} a_r Q_r,$$

or, putting

$$T \equiv a_r Q_r \tag{2.4}$$

$$W = (a_1 \dots a_{r+1})T \equiv \prod_{r+1} T. \tag{2.5}$$

From (2.3) and (2.5) we now have, for i = 1, 2, ..., r-1,

$$a_{i+1}X_{i+1} = (a_1 \dots a_i)(a_{i+1} \dots a_{r+1})T$$

so that, by Lemma 6,

$$(a_{i+1} \dots a_{r+1})T = a_{i+1} a_i S_i$$
, for some  $S_i$ .

Therefore, by Theorem 1,

$$(a_{i+2}...a_{r+1})T = a_i S_i$$

Applying Lemma 5 it follows that for some Q.

$$T = a_i Q_i \quad (i = 1, 2, ..., r-1).$$
 (2.6)

From (2.4), (2.6), and the induction hypothesis, it now follows that

$$T = \Delta_r P_{r+1}$$
, for some  $P_{r+1}$ ,

and hence, by (2.5)

$$W = \prod_{r+1} \Delta_r P_{r+1} \equiv \Delta_{r+1} P_{r+1}.$$

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Remarking that the induction hypothesis is clearly true for r = 1, the induction is now established, and the result follows.

(ii) Now suppose

$$W = Y_1 a_1 = Y_2 a_2 = \dots = Y_n a_n$$
.

Then

$$\operatorname{rev} W = a_1 \operatorname{rev} Y_1 = a_2 \operatorname{rev} Y_2 = \dots = a_n \operatorname{rev} Y_n = \Delta P$$
, by (i).

Hence

$$W = \operatorname{rev} P \operatorname{rev} \Delta = (\operatorname{rev} P)\Delta$$
, by Lemma 3,

$$=\Delta\Re(\text{rev }P)$$
, by Theorem 2,

and the result follows.

**2.3.** Lemma 7. If X, Y are any two positive words in  $B_{n+1}$ , then there exist words U, V such that UX = VY.

For let  $X \equiv r_1 r_2 \dots r_t$ ,  $Y \equiv s_1 s_2 \dots s_m$  be any two positive words, where the  $r_i$  and  $s_i$  are generators, not necessarily distinct. Then, by repeated application of the Conollary to Lemma 4,

$$\Delta^m X = \Delta^{m-1} A_1 s_m = \Delta^{m-2} A_2 s_{m-1} s_m = \dots = A_m Y.$$

The result follows on putting  $U \equiv \Delta^m$ ,  $V \equiv A_m$ .

Theorem 4. In  $B_{n+1}$  if two positive words are equal they are positively equal.

Let S be the semi-group generated by  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$  subject to the relations

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
a_{i} a_{i+1} a_{i} = a_{i+1} a_{i} a_{i+1} & (1 \leq i \leq n-1) \\
a_{i} a_{k} = a_{k} a_{i} & (|i-k| \geq 2)
\end{array}.$$
(2.7)

By Theorem 1 and Lemma 7, S is cancellative and right-reversible, and hence, by Öre's Theorem (4, 5), can be embedded in a group,  $G_{n+1}$ , say. Let  $\tilde{G}_{n+1}$  be the subgroup of  $G_{n+1}$  generated by  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ . Then  $\tilde{G}_{n+1}$  embeds S, and in virtue of (2.7) its relations include

which are precisely the relations of  $B_{n+1}$ .

Now suppose X, Y are any two equal positive words in  $B_{n+1}$ . The equality X = Y in  $B_{n+1}$  must be a consequence of the relations (1.1). These are also relations in  $\tilde{G}_{n+1}$ , and hence X = Y in  $\tilde{G}_{n+1}$ . Since  $\tilde{G}_{n+1}$  embeds S, X = Y in S also, i.e. X = Y, and the theorem is proved.

### 3. Cayley diagrams

3.1. Any group G with given generators and defining relations can be represented in a drawn diagram, called its *Cayley diagram* (6, 7). In the sequel, although all the proofs given will be purely algebraic, considerable use will be made of the general concept of the Cayley diagram, and in one or two instances actual diagrams will be drawn. In order to preserve algebraic rigour we proceed to make certain formal definitions.

#### 3.2. Definitions and notation

Links. The successive generators of a positive word will be called links. Thus the initial link of the word  $a_2 a_1 a_4 a_3$  is  $a_2$ ; the third link is  $a_4$ ; etc. In the drawn diagram the link  $a_7$  will be represented as



No arrow will be put in, as it will be understood always that the positive direction is left to right. The drawn figure will show the initial link on the left, the successive other links extending in order to the right.

Diagram. Let W be any positive word, and let W,  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,...,  $W_m$  be the complete set of distinct words which are positively equal to W (see Lemma 8). Then we shall refer to this set as the diagram of W, and write it D(W). Clearly  $D(W) \equiv D(W_1) \equiv ... \equiv D(W_m)$ . The words W,  $W_1$ ,...,  $W_m$  will be called the routes of D(W). The process of enumerating the routes of D(W) will be called drawing the diagram D(W). In the drawn figure the diagram of W is the Cayley diagram of all words positively equal to W. The name Cayley will be omitted from now on.

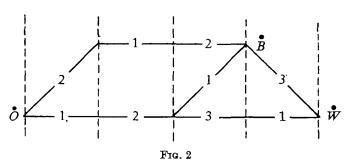
Nodes of D(W). Let W be any positive word, and D(W) its diagram. If A, X are any two positive words such that W = AX ( $0 \le L(A), L(X)$ ), then we shall call D(A) a node of D(W). When we are considering nodes we shall frequently write the node D(A) as the node A, or simply A. If L(A) = t we shall say the node A is of order t.

Sub-routes of D(W). If W = AXB  $(L(A) \ge 0, L(B) \ge 0)$ , we shall say that X is a sub-route of D(W). If L(A) = 0, we shall say X is an initial sub-route of D(W). If W = PXQ  $(L(P) \ge 0, L(Q) \ge 0)$ , we shall say the sub-route X starts at P. If W = RQ = PXQ we shall say the sub-route X ends at R.

Incidence. If the link  $a_r$  either (i) starts at P, or (ii) ends at P, we shall say the link  $a_r$  is incident at P. If the links  $a_r$ ,  $a_s$  are both incident at P, we shall say they meet at P. We shall also say that P is the meet

of the links  $a_r$ ,  $a_s$ . If a link  $a_r$  ends at  $\dot{P}$  and a link  $a_r$  starts at  $\dot{P}$ , we shall say the link  $a_r$  is repeated at  $\dot{P}$ .

W contains  $\Delta$ . W is prime to  $\Delta$ . If any sub-route of D(W) is  $\Delta$ , i.e. if  $W = A\Delta B$  ( $L(A) \ge 0$ ,  $L(B) \ge 0$ ), we shall say  $\Delta$  is a factor of W, or simply W contains  $\Delta$ . It follows from Theorem 2 that if W contains  $\Delta$ , then  $W = \Delta X$  for some X. If W is any positive word which does not contain  $\Delta$ , we shall say W is prime to  $\Delta$ .



Base of D(W). In  $B_{n+1}$  suppose W is of word-length L, and suppose D(W) consists of the t words  $W_1 \equiv a_t a_j a_k ..., W_2 \equiv a_p q_q a_r ..., ..., W_t \equiv a_x a_y a_z ...$  Then there is a one to one correspondence between the words  $W_1, W_2, ..., W_t$  and the set of numbers  $P_1 \equiv ijk..., P_2 \equiv pqr..., ..., P_t \equiv xyz...$ , where each number P is expressed in the scale of n+1, and consists of L digits. The numbers P are all distinct. Suppose the smallest is  $P_r$ . Then the corresponding word  $W_r$ , which is uniquely defined, will be called the base of D(W). If A is a positive word prime to A, we shall sometimes denote the base of A by A. The use of this notation will imply that A is positive and prime to A.

Example. We proceed to give an example to illustrate the correspondence between these definitions and the drawn figure. In  $B_4$  consider the word  $W \equiv a_1 a_2 a_3 a_1$ . The drawn diagram of D(W) is shown in Fig. 2.

Algebraically, D(W) is the set  $a_1 a_2 a_1 a_3$ ,  $a_1 a_2 a_3 a_1$ ,  $a_2 a_1 a_2 a_3$ . The node O, of order 0, is the empty set. The node B, of order 3, is the set  $a_1 a_2 a_1$ ,  $a_2 a_1 a_2$ . The links  $a_2$ ,  $a_1$  end at B. The links  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$  are incident at B.  $\overline{W}$ , the base of D(W), is  $a_1 a_2 a_1 a_3 ...$ , etc.

LEMMA 8. The diagram of any positive word W in  $B_{n+1}$  can be systematically drawn, and is finite.

Let the set of all distinct words positively equal to W through a transformation of chain-length 1 be  $W_1, ..., W_t$ . It is clear that this set

can be enumerated, and is finite. Now consider the set of words positively equal to  $W_1$  through a transformation of chain-length 1. Denote those which are distinct from  $W, W_1, ..., W_l$  and from each other, by  $W_{l+1}, W_{l+2}, ...$ . Continue to repeat the process successively for  $W_2, W_3, ..., W_{l+2}, ...$ , etc. Clearly the number of positive words of word-length equal to L(W) is finite, and hence the set of words positively equal to W is finite. Hence the sequence  $W, W_1, ...$  ultimately terminates. It is clear that any word which is positively equal to W must ultimately be reached through the process outlined above, and the lemma is proved.

# 3.3. Solution of the word problem

THEOREM 5. In  $B_{n+1}$  every word W can be expressed uniquely in the form  $\Delta^m \bar{A}$ .

- (i) First suppose P is any positive word. From the set D(P) select any route starting with as many consecutive sub-routes  $\Delta$  as possible, equal to t, say  $(t \ge 0)$ . Suppose  $P = \Delta^t A$ . Then A is prime to  $\Delta$ , as otherwise there would be a route of D(P) starting with more than t consecutive sub-routes  $\Delta$ . Denoting the base of A by  $\overline{A}$ , we have  $P = \Delta^t \overline{A}$ .
  - (ii) Now let W be any word in  $B_{n+1}$ . Then clearly we may put

$$W \equiv W_1(x_1)^{-1}W_2(x_2)^{-1}...(x_s)^{-1}W_{s+1},$$

where each  $W_r$  is a positive word of word-length  $\geqslant 0$ , and the  $x_r$  are generators. Now for each  $x_r$  there exists, by Lemma 4, a positive word  $X_r$  such that  $x_r X_r = \Delta$ , so that  $(x_r)^{-1} = X_r \Delta^{-1}$ , and hence

$$W = W_1 X_1 \Delta^{-1} W_2 X_2 \Delta^{-1} ... W_s X_s \Delta^{-1} W_{s+1}.$$

Hence, moving the factors  $\Delta^{-1}$  to the left by Theorem 2, we have  $W = \Delta^{-s}P$ , where P is positive. Now using (i) above to express P in the form  $\Delta^{t}\overline{A}$ , we have  $W = \Delta^{-s}\Delta^{t}\overline{A}$ , or, putting t-s=m,

$$W = \Delta^m \bar{A}. \tag{3.1}$$

(iii) It now merely remains to show that the form (3.1) is unique. Suppose  $\Delta^m \bar{A} = \Delta^p \bar{B}. \tag{3.2}$ 

First suppose p < m, and let m-p = t, where t > 0. Then (3.2) gives  $\Delta^t \overline{A} = \overline{B}$  and hence, by Theorem 4,  $\Delta^t \overline{A} = \overline{B}$ . Hence  $\overline{B}$  contains  $\Delta$ , which is impossible. Therefore p < m, and similarly m < p. Hence p = m, and from (3.2) we now have  $\overline{A} = \overline{B}$ , and on using Theorem 4,  $\overline{A} = \overline{B}$ . But any positive word has one and only one base. Hence  $\overline{A} \equiv \overline{B}$ , and the uniqueness of the form (3.1) is established.

Definitions. Any word W of  $B_{n+1}$  expressed in the unique form  $\Delta^m \overline{A}$ of Theorem 5 will be said to be in standard form. The index m will be called the power of W.

THEOREM 6. The necessary and sufficient condition that two words in  $B_{n+1}$  are equal is that their standard forms are identical.

The condition is clearly sufficient. The necessity has been shown in section (iii) of the proof of Theorem 5.

# 3.4. The centre of $B_{n+1}$

THEOREM 7. (i) When n = 1 the centre of  $B_{n+1}$  is generated by  $\Delta$ . (ii) When n > 1 the centre of  $B_{n+1}$  is generated by  $\Delta^2$ . (3)

- (i) This case is trivial.
- (ii) Let W be any word in the centre. Then, by the definition of centre, if X is any word in  $B_{n+1}$ ,  $X^{-1}WX = W$ , so that

$$WX = XW. (3.3)$$

There are three possible forms for W:(a)  $W=\Delta^p \overline{A}$ , where  $L(\overline{A})>0$ ; (b)  $W = \Delta^{2m+1}$ ; (c)  $W = \Delta^{2m}$ . We proceed to consider each in turn.

(a) 
$$W = \Delta^p \overline{A} (L(\overline{A}) > 0)$$
.

Let  $\bar{A} = a_i A_i$   $(L(A_i) \ge 0)$ . Let |s-i| = 1. Considering first the case p even, put  $X \equiv a_{i}a_{i}$ . Then (3.3) gives

$$\Delta^p a_i A_i a_i a_i = a_i \Delta^p a_i A_i = \Delta^p a_i a_i A_i.$$

Hence  $a_i A_i a_s a_i = a_s a_i a_i A_i$ . Applying Theorem 4,

$$a \cdot A \cdot a \cdot a \cdot = a \cdot a$$

 $a_iA_ia_sa_i=a_sa_ia_iA_i,$  and hence by Theorem H,  $a_ia_iA_i=a_ia_sA_s$  for some  $A_s$ , so that by Theorem 1  $a_i A_i = a_i A_i$ 

The case p odd gives exactly the same result on putting  $X = \Re(a_n a_i)$ . Repeated application of (3.4) now gives

$$a_1A_1 = a_2A_2 = \dots = a_nA_n = \bar{A}.$$

Hence by Theorem 3,  $\overline{A}$  contains  $\Delta$ , which is impossible. Therefore there are no words in the centre of the form (a).

(b) 
$$W = \Delta^{2m+1}$$
.

Putting  $X\equiv a_1$ , (3.3) gives  $\Delta^{2m+1}a_1=a_1\Delta^{2m+1}=\Delta^{2m+1}\Re a_1$  by Theorem 2. Hence  $a_1 = \Re a_1$ , which is impossible since n > 1. Therefore there are no words in the centre of the form (b).

(c)  $W = \Delta^{2m}$ 

Clearly  $X^{-1}WX = W$  for all words X in virtue of Theorem 2. Hence any word of the form  $\Delta^{2m}$  is in the centre, and no other words, i.e. the centre of  $B_{n+1}$  is generated by  $\Delta^2$ .

### 3.5. The structure of $D(\Delta)$

THEOREM 8. In  $B_{n+1}$ , if  $W = \Delta V$  is any positive word containing  $\Delta$ , then each of the n links  $a_r$  (r = 1, 2, ..., n) is incident at each node of  $D(\Delta)$ .

By Lemma 4,  $W = a_1 W_1 = a_2 W_2 = ... = a_n W_n$ , so the theorem is certainly true for the initial node O. The proof of the theorem will be by induction. As our induction hypothesis we assume the theorem is true for all nodes of D(W) of order  $\leq m$ . Let C be any node of order m, and let  $a_s$  be any link of the diagram starting at C and ending at D.

- (a) We first consider the links  $a_i$ , where  $|i-s| \ge 2$ . By the induction hypothesis D(W) includes either (i), a link  $a_i$  ending at C, or (ii), a link  $a_i$  starting at C, or (iii), both (i) and (ii) are true.
- (i)  $a_i$  ends at  $C(|i-s| \ge 2)$ . The diagram D(W) includes Fig. 3. By the defining relations this implies Fig. 4, i.e. D(W) includes a link  $a_i$  ending at D.
- (ii)  $a_i$  starts at  $C(|i-s| \ge 2)$ . The diagram D(W) includes Fig. 5. By Theorem H this implies Fig. 6, i.e. D(W) includes a link  $a_i$  starting at D.
- (iii) If (i) and (ii) are both true D(W) must include both a link  $a_i$  ending at D, and a link  $a_i$  starting at D.

Hence in all cases, for  $|i-s| \ge 2$ , at least one link  $a_i$  is incident at  $\vec{D}$ .

(b) It remains to consider the links  $a_i$ , where |t-s|=1. The proof will be omitted. It follows the same pattern as (a) above. In all cases, if |t-s|=1, at least one link  $a_i$  is incident at D.

Now by hypothesis there is a link  $a_s$  ending at  $\dot{D}$ . Hence, by (a) and (b) together, we see that the n links  $a_r$  (r = 1, 2, ..., n) are incident at  $\dot{D}$ . The induction is now established, and the result follows.

THEOREM 9. In  $B_{n+1}$  every node of  $D(\Delta)$  is the meet of the n links  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ . Furthermore only n links are incident at each node.

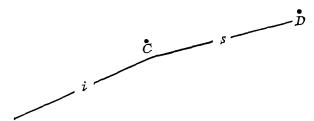
By Theorem 8 it follows at once that each node of  $D(\Delta)$  is the meet of the *n* links  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ . It therefore remains only to prove that we cannot have a repeated link at any node. For suppose the contrary is true, so that for some A, r, B we have  $\Delta = Aa_ra_rB$ . Then

$$Aa_ra_rB\Re A=\Delta\Re A=A\Delta$$
,

by Theorem 2. Hence  $a_r a_r X = \Delta$ , (3.5)

where  $X \equiv BRA$ . Using Lemma 4 then, (3.5) gives

$$a_r a_r X = a_1 A_1 = \ldots = a_{r-1} A_{r-1} = a_{r+1} A_{r+1} = \ldots = a_n A_n,$$



F1G. 3

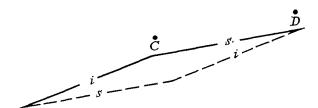
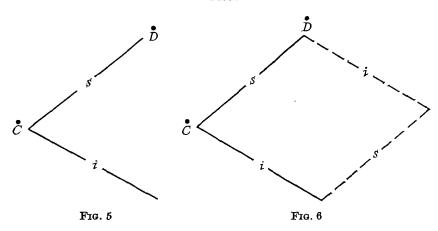


Fig. 4



and Theorem H now gives

$$a_r X = a_1 B_1 = \ldots = a_{r-1} B_{r-1} = a_{r+1} B_{r+1} = \ldots = a_n B_n.$$

Hence, by Theorem 3,  $a_rX$  contains  $\Delta$ , which is impossible since  $L(a_rX) < L(\Delta)$ , from (3.5). The theorem therefore follows.

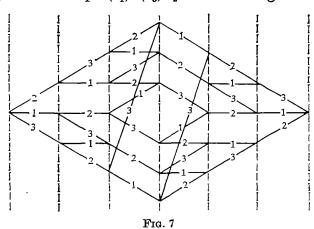
Drawn diagram of  $\Delta_3$ .

The drawn diagram of  $\Delta_3$  is given in Fig. 7.

# 4. Solution of the conjugacy problem in $B_{n+1}$

# 4.1. Index length

The algebraic sum of the indices of any given word will be called its index length. For example  $(a_1)^{-3}(a_3)^4a_2$  is of index length 2.



**Lemma 9.** In  $B_{n+1}$  the number of words in standard form of index length t and power  $\geq p$  is finite.

Let  $\Delta^m \overline{A}$  be any word satisfying the conditions. Then if  $L(\Delta) = d$ , we have  $m \geqslant p$ , (4.1)

and 
$$t = md + L(\bar{A})$$
. (4.2)

Since  $L(\overline{A}) \geqslant 0$  and d is positive, the last equation gives

$$m \leqslant t/d. \tag{4.3}$$

(4.1) and (4.3) together show that the number of values of m is finite. (4.2) shows that for any fixed m,  $L(\overline{A})$  is constant, and so the number of possible values of  $\overline{A}$  is finite. The result now follows.

Definitions. In the diagram  $D(\Delta)$  in  $B_{n+1}$ , let  $\alpha$  be any initial sub-route, so that  $\Delta = \alpha X$  ( $0 \leq L(X) \leq L(\Delta)$ ). We shall call such a sub-route an  $\alpha$ -route. If W is any word in  $B_{n+1}$ , the word  $\alpha^{-1}W\alpha$ , reduced to standard form, will be called an  $\alpha$ -transformation of W. If  $\bar{\alpha}$  is the base of any  $\alpha$ -route  $\alpha$ , then we shall call  $\bar{\alpha}$  an  $\bar{\alpha}$ -route and the transformation  $\bar{\alpha}^{-1}W\bar{\alpha}$  an  $\bar{\alpha}$ -transformation of W. It is clear that any  $\alpha$ -transformation is equal to the corresponding  $\bar{\alpha}$ -transformation.

Summit form. Summit set. Summit. Summit power.

Let W be any word in  $B_{n+1}$  with standard form  $\Delta^m \bar{A} = W_1$ , say. Consider now the following chains of  $\alpha$ -transformations of W. Take all

the  $\alpha$ -transformations of  $W_1$  and let those which are of power  $\geqslant m$  and which are distinct from  $W_1$  and from each other, be  $W_2$ ,  $W_3$ ,...,  $W_t$ . Now repeat the process for each of the words  $W_2$ ,  $W_3$ ,...,  $W_t$  in turn, denoting successively by  $W_{t+1}$ ,  $W_{t+2}$ ,... any new words occurring, the condition being always that each new word must be of power  $\geqslant m$ . Continue to repeat the process for every new distinct word arising, as the sequence  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,...,  $W_{t+2}$ ,... expands. Now each word of the sequence is of the same index length as W. Hence, by Lemma 9, the sequence is finite, and ultimately a stage must be reached when further applications of the process will yield no new words.

Suppose that in the set  $W_1, W_2,...$  the highest power reached is s, and that the words of power s form the subset  $V_1, V_2,...$ . Then any  $V_r$  will be said to be a summit form of W. The set  $V_1, V_2,...$  will be called the summit set of W, or simply the summit of W. The power s of any summit form will be called the summit power of W. It is clear from the definitions given above that no single  $\alpha$ -transformation of a summit form can be of power greater than the summit power.

LEMMA 10. In  $B_{n+1}$ , if  $W = \Delta^m V$ , where V is positive, and P is a positive word such that  $P^{-1}WP$  is of power m+r (r>0), then VP contains  $\Delta$ .

By hypothesis 
$$P^{-1}\Delta^m VP = \Delta^{m+r} \overline{Q}$$
, so that

$$VP = \Delta^{-m} P \Delta^{m+r} \vec{Q}. \tag{4.4}$$

Put  $\tilde{P} \equiv P \ (m+r \text{ even})$ ,  $\tilde{P} \equiv \Re P \ (m+r \text{ odd})$ . Then, by Theorem 2, (4.4) gives  $VP = \Delta^r \tilde{P} \bar{Q}$ , so that by Theorem 4,  $VP = \Delta^r \tilde{P} \bar{Q}$ . Hence VP contains  $\Delta$ .

LEMMA 11. In  $B_{n+1}$ , if  $W \sim V$ , then there exists a positive word X such that  $X^{-1}WX = V$ .

By hypothesis there exists a word A such that  $A^{-1}WA = V$ . Let  $A = \Delta^m \overline{P}$ . Then  $\overline{P}^{-1}\Delta^{-m}W\Delta^m \overline{P} = V$ . (4.5)

If m is even, Theorem 2 now gives  $\overline{P}^{-1}W\overline{P} = V$  ( $\overline{P}$  positive). If m is odd, (4.5) may be written  $\overline{P}^{-1}\Delta^{-1}(\Delta^{-m+1}W\Delta^{m-1})\Delta\overline{P} = V$ , i.e. using Theorem 2 again,  $(\Delta\overline{P})^{-1}W(\Delta\overline{P}) = V$  ( $\Delta\overline{P}$  positive), and the lemma is proved.

LEMMA 12. In  $B_{n+1}$ , suppose (i) that  $W \equiv \Delta^p \overline{P}$  is a summit form of any given word A, (ii) that X is any positive word such that  $X^{-1}WX = \Delta^q \overline{Q}$ , where  $q \geqslant p$ , and (iii) that X = uY where u is an  $\alpha$ -route of maximum length. Then  $u^{-1}Wu$ , reduced to standard form, is a summit form of A.

When  $u = \Delta$  the proof is trivial. For  $u \neq \Delta$ , since u is an  $\alpha$ -route, there exists a word U(L(U) > 0) such that

$$uU = \Delta. \tag{4.6}$$

Now, by Theorem 9, every node of  $D(\Delta)$  is the meet of the n links  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ , and of these n links only. In the diagram  $D(\Delta)$  denote

the links ending at the node 
$$D(u)$$
 by  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_s$ ; (4.7)

and the links starting at 
$$D(u)$$
 by  $y_1, y_2, ..., y_{n-s}$ . (4.8)

By hypothesis,

$$\Delta^{q} \overline{Q} = X^{-1} W X = Y^{-1} u^{-1} \Delta^{p} \overline{P} u Y \quad (q \geqslant p). \tag{4.9}$$

Now from (4.6),  $u^{-1}Wu \equiv u^{-1}\Delta^p \overline{P}u = u^{-1}uU\Delta^{p-1}\overline{P}u = U\Delta^{p-1}\overline{P}u$ , so that, putting  $\widetilde{U} \equiv \Re U$  (p even), and  $\widetilde{U} \equiv U$  (p odd), and using Theorem 2,  $u^{-1}Wu = u^{-1}\Delta^p \overline{P}u = \Delta^{p-1}\widetilde{U}\overline{P}u$ . (4.10)

Substituting in (4.9) we now get  $Y^{-1}\Delta^{p-1}\bar{U}\bar{P}uY = \Delta^q\bar{Q}$   $(q \geqslant p)$ , and hence, by Lemma 10,  $\bar{U}\bar{P}uY$  contains  $\Delta$ . By Theorem 8, therefore, each of the n links  $x_1, x_3, ..., x_s, y_1, y_2, ..., y_{n-s}$  is incident at each node of  $D(\bar{U}\bar{P}uY)$ . Now in the diagram  $D(\bar{U}\bar{P}uY)$  no link  $y_i$  can start at the node  $D(\bar{U}\bar{P}u)$ . For in this case we would have  $Y=y_iZ$  for some Z, and hence  $X=uy_iZ$  where  $uy_i$  would be an  $\alpha$ -route of length greater than L(u), vitiating condition (iii) of the hypothesis. Hence the n-s links  $y_1, y_2, ..., y_{n-s}$  all end at the node  $D(\bar{U}\bar{P}u)$ . Furthermore, by (4.7), the s links  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_s$  end at  $D(\bar{U}\bar{P}u)$ . Hence by Theorem 3,  $\bar{U}\bar{P}u$  contains  $\Delta$ , so that, from (4.10),  $u^{-1}Wu$  reduced to standard form is of power at least p. Now it cannot be of power > p, since it is an  $\alpha$ -transformation of the summit form W. Hence  $u^{-1}Wu$ , reduced to standard form, is an  $\alpha$ -transformation of the summit form W of A, of the same power as W, and is therefore itself a summit form of A.

THEOREM 10 (CONJUGACY). In  $B_{n+1}$ ,  $A \sim B$  if and only if their summit sets are identical.

- (i) If the condition is satisfied, let C be any member of the common summit set. Then  $A \sim C$ ,  $B \sim C$ . Hence  $A \sim B$ , so that the condition is certainly sufficient.
  - (ii) We now proceed to show that the condition is necessary. Suppose

$$A \sim B. \tag{4.11}$$

Let  $\Delta^p \overline{P} \sim A$  be any summit form of A, (4.12)

and  $\Delta^q \bar{Q} \sim B$  be any summit form of B. (4.13)

First suppose  $q \geqslant p$ . Clearly  $\Delta^p \overline{P} \sim \Delta^q \overline{Q}$ , and hence, by Lemma 11, there exists a positive word X such that

$$X^{-1}\Delta^p \overline{P}X = \Delta^q \overline{Q} \quad (q \geqslant p).$$
 (4.14)

Let  $X = u_1 X_1$ ,  $X_1 = u_2 X_2$ ,..., etc., and finally  $X_s = u_{s+1}$ , where  $u_1$ ,  $u_2$ ,... are defined successively as  $\alpha$ -routes of maximum length, and  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,... are words of steadily reducing length, so that the final word  $X_{s+1}$  is the empty word. Then

$$X = u_1 u_2 \dots u_{s+1}. \tag{4.15}$$

Using (4.15) the transformation (4.14) may be regarded as the product of the s+1 successive transformations  $(u_1)^{-1}\Delta^p \overline{P}u_1 = W_1$  say, in standard form;  $(u_2)^{-1}W_1u_2 = W_2$  say, in standard form; . . .;  $(u_{s+1})^{-1}W_su_{s+1} = \Delta^q \overline{Q}$ . Now, by Lemma 12,  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,... and finally  $\Delta^q \overline{Q}$  are each summit forms of A. Hence we cannot have q > p, and similarly we cannot have p > q. Hence q = p, and by the argument given above  $\Delta^q \overline{Q} \equiv \Delta^p \overline{Q}$  is a summit form of A. We have thus proved that any summit form of B is a summit form of A. Similarly any summit form of A is a summit form of B, i.e. the summit sets of A and B are identical.

#### 4.2. Remark on the definition of summit set

In  $B_{n+1}$  suppose any word  $W = \Delta^p \overline{A}$  has summit power p+r, where r > 0. Then in the process of finding the summit set of W outlined in § 4.1, we have constantly to include in the words considered all words of powers p, p+1, p+2,... until finally the complete set of words of power p+r is established. In the process we must at some stage reach a first word of power p+1,  $W_1$  say. Now since  $W_1 \sim W$  it follows from Theorem 10 that their summits are the same. Hence it now suffices to find the summit of  $W_1$ , and in doing this we can ignore all words of power p. Similarly, when once a word of power p+2 is reached we can thereafter ignore words of powers p and p+1... etc. . . . . Moreover, since any  $\alpha$ -transformation is equal to the corresponding  $\bar{\alpha}$ -transformation, it is in fact sufficient to consider  $\bar{\alpha}$ -transformations only.

# 5. Other groups

5.1. Considered as a diagram in 3-space, the drawn Cayley diagram of  $\Delta_3$ , given in Fig. 7, will be seen to be the 2-skeleton of the truncated octahedron (4.62). Similarly, in  $B_{n+1}$ , the drawn diagram of  $\Delta_n$  is the 2-skeleton of the *n*-dimensional polytope (4<sup>1(n-1)(n-2)</sup>, 6<sup>n-1</sup>).

Groups similar to the braid groups exist whose Cayley  $\Delta$ -diagrams are the 2-skeletons of the other even-faced Archimedean solids (including

the prisms), and their higher-dimensional counterparts. The methods given in the present paper can be applied to solving the word problems and the conjugacy problems of these groups. In the next three sections examples will be given of groups for which it may be verified that the above remarks apply.

For all the examples given, Theorems H, K, 1-6, 8-10, and Lemmas 3, 4, 7-12, are true. The centres are given by methods of the same general pattern as for the braid groups (Theorem 7), but there are considerable differences in detail. In each example given,  $\Delta$  is the shortest element of the group which can start with each one of the generators.

## 5.2. The truncated cuboctahedron (4. 6. 8)

The group,  $T_3$  say, is generated by  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$  subject to the relations

$$a_1 a_2 a_1 a_2 = a_2 a_1 a_2 a_1, \quad a_2 a_3 a_2 = a_3 a_2 a_3, \quad a_1 a_3 = a_3 a_1.$$

For  $T_3$ ,  $\Delta=(a_1a_2a_3)^3$ , and  $\Delta a_i=a_i\Delta$  (i=1, 2, 3). The centre is generated by  $\Delta$ .

# 5.3. The truncated icosidodecahedron (4. 6. 10)

The group,  $I_3$  say, is generated by  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$  subject to the relations

$$a_1 a_2 a_1 a_2 a_1 = a_2 a_1 a_2 a_1 a_2, \quad a_2 a_3 a_2 = a_3 a_2 a_3, \quad a_1 a_3 = a_3 a_1.$$

For  $I_3$ ,  $\Delta = (a_1 a_2 a_3)^5$ , and  $\Delta a_i = a_i \Delta$  (i = 1, 2, 3). The centre is generated by  $\Delta$ .

# 5.4. The hypercube $(4^m)$

Naming the groups  $C_m$ , say, there are two cases according as m is odd or even.

(1) The group  $C_{2n-1}$  is generated by  $a_1,\ a_2,...,\ a_{2n-1}$  subject to the relations

$$\begin{array}{l} a_r a_{2n-r} = a_{2n-r} a_r \quad (r=1,\,2,...,\,2n-1), \\ a_r a_s = a_s a_{2n-r} \quad (r,\,s\colon s \text{ lies between } r \text{ and } 2n-r) \end{array} \right).$$

For 
$$C_{2n-1}$$
,  $\Delta = (a_1 a_{2n-1})(a_2 a_{2n-2})...(a_{n-1} a_{n+1})a_n$ 

and 
$$\Delta a_r = a_{2n-r} \Delta$$
  $(r = 1, 2, ..., 2n-1).$ 

The *n* products  $(a_r a_{2n-r})$  (r = 1, 2,..., n) generate the centre.  $\Delta^2$  is in the centre, but  $\Delta$  is not.

(2) The group  $C_{2n}$  is generated by  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_{2n}$  subject to the relations

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a_r a_{2n-r+1} = a_{2n-r+1} a_r & (r=1,\,2,...,\,2n) \\ a_r a_s = a_s \, a_{2n-r+1} & (r,\,s\colon s \text{ lies between } r \text{ and } 2n-r+1) \end{array} \right\}.$$

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For 
$$C_{2n}$$
,  $\Delta = (a_1 a_{2n})(a_2 a_{2n-2})...(a_n a_{n+1})$ ,

and 
$$\Delta a_r = a_r \Delta \quad (r = 1, 2, ..., 2n).$$

The *n* products  $(a_r a_{2n-r+1})$  (r = 1, 2,..., n) generate the centre, and in this case  $\Delta$  is in the centre.

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Magdalen College School Oxford