

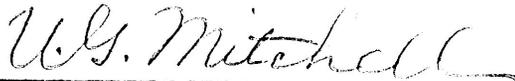
PARTIALLY REGULAR POLYGONS INSCRIPTIBLE IN A CIRCLE.

by

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PARTIALLY REGULAR POLYGONS INSCRIPTIBLE IN A CIRCLE.

Introduction.

The subject of simple, convex¹ polygons which are inscriptible in a circle, and which are regular, that is, whose sides are equal and whose angles are equal, has been studied² very thoroughly for many centuries, but the subject of simple, convex polygons which are inscriptible in a circle and which are only partially regular, that is, which have only certain elements equal, has received very little attention. It is the purpose of this paper to investigate and determine properties of some of these latter polygons.

¹"A convex polygon is one no side of which when produced can enter within the space enclosed by the perimeter." Chauvenet, Treatise on Elementary Geometry, Philadelphia, 1875, page 35.

²See article by Leonard Eugene Dickson on the subject of regular polygons in Mathematical Monographs, New York, 1911, by J. W. A. Young, page 379, and also references to other writings on the same subject given at the end of that article.

They will be discussed in the following order:

I. Polygons inscriptible in a circle and having their opposite sides equal. These we shall call contra-regular polygons.

II. Polygons inscriptible in a circle and having their alternate sides equal. These we shall call altra-regular polygons.

III. Polygons inscriptible in a circle and having pairs of adjacent sides equal. These we shall call juxta-regular polygons.

All constructions are assumed made in an Euclidean plane and the theorems of elementary Euclidean geometry are assumed.

I. CONTRA-REGULAR POLYGONS.

DEFINITION. Opposite vertices of an inscribed polygon are vertices between which are the same number of other vertices in either direction.

DEFINITION. Opposite sides of an inscribed polygon are those sides between which are the same number of other sides in either direction.

DEFINITION. Opposite angles of a polygon are the angles at opposite vertices of the polygon.

DEFINITION. A diagonal of a polygon is a line joining two non-consecutive vertices.

THEOREM 1. A diagonal joining opposite vertices of a contra-regular polygon is a diameter.

Proof: $s_1 = s'_1$ by hypothesis.

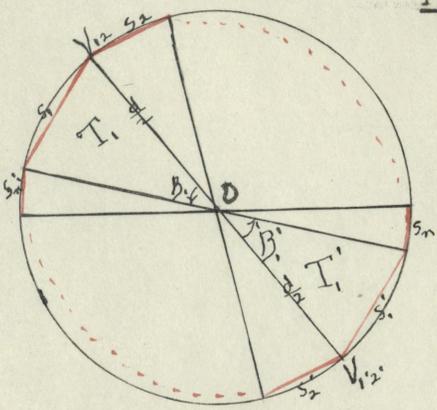


Fig. 1.

$$\frac{d}{2} = \frac{d}{2}$$

$\Delta T_1 \cong \Delta T'_1$ (Triangles having three sides of one respectively equal to three sides of the other are congruent.)

$\angle B_1 = \angle B'_1$ (Corresponding parts of congruent triangles are equal.)

Similarly $\angle B_2 = \angle B'_2$ and so on to $\angle B_n = \angle B'_n$. But $\angle B_1 + \angle B_2 + \dots + \angle B_n + \angle B'_1 + \angle B'_2 + \dots + \angle B'_n = 360^\circ$ and $2(\angle B_1 + \angle B_2 + \dots + \angle B_n) = 360^\circ$. Therefore, $\angle B_1 + \angle B_2 + \dots + \angle B_n = \frac{1}{2}(360^\circ) = 180^\circ = \angle V_{1,2} O V_{1,2}'$. Thus $V_{1,2} O V_{1,2}'$ is a straight line, and a diameter.

CONSTRUCTION. The above theorem gives us a method for constructing a contra-regular polygon.

In a semi-circle inscribe a semi-polygon of n sides. Draw diameters from each vertex of this semi-polygon. The vertices of the other half of a contra-regular polygon of 2n sides are determined where the diameters intersect the remaining semi-circle.

THEOREM 2. The opposite angles of a contra-regular polygon are equal.

Proof: $\Delta T_1 \cong \Delta T'_1$ and $\Delta T_2 \cong \Delta T'_2$

(See Theorem 1.)

Hence quadrilateral $\frac{ds}{2}, s_2, \frac{d}{2} \cong \frac{ds'}{2}, s'_2, \frac{d}{2}$. Therefore, angle $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)$ equals angle $(\alpha'_1 + \alpha'_2)$, i.e. $\angle V_{1,2} = \angle V'_{1,2}$. Similarly the remaining opposite angles, $V_{2,3}$ and $V_{2,3'}$, $V_{3,4}$ and $V_{3,4'}$, and so on to $V_{n,1}$ and $V_{n,1'}$, may be shown to be equal.

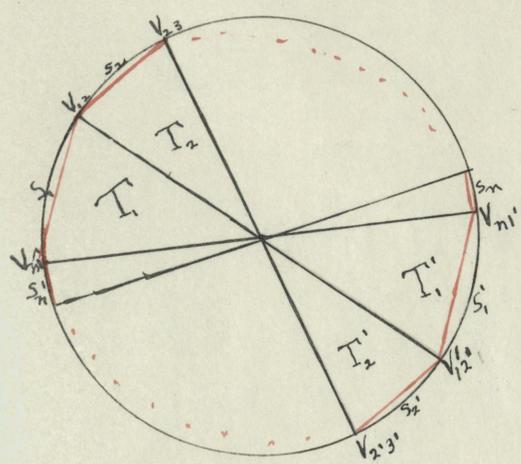


Fig. 2.

THEOREM 3. The opposite sides of a contra-regular polygon are parallel.

Proof: Triangles $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n, T'_1, T'_2, \dots, T'_n$

are isosceles. $T_i \cong T'_i$. (See Theorem 1.) $\angle d_1 = \angle \alpha'_1$. Thus $s_1 \parallel s'_1$.

(If, when two lines are crossed by a third, the alternate interior angles are equal, the lines are parallel.) Similarly $s_2 \parallel s'_2, \dots$ and $s_n \parallel s'_n$.

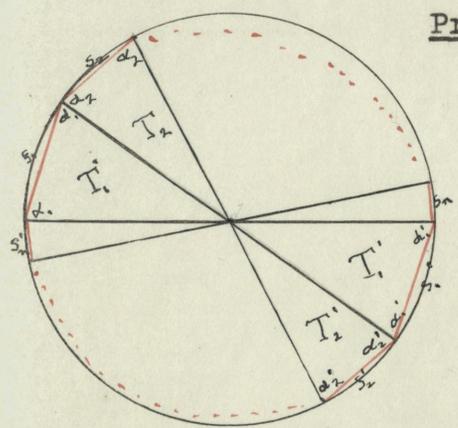


Fig. 3.

THEOREM 4. The area of a contra-regular polygon of 2n sides is equal to $\frac{1}{2}(s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + \dots + s_n \sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2})$.

Proof: The altitude of T_1 , an isosceles triangle of sides $\frac{d}{2}, \frac{d}{2}, s_1$, is $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}$ and its area $\frac{1}{4}s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}$. The area of $T_1 + T_1' = \frac{1}{2}s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}$. Similarly the area of $T_2 + T_2' = \frac{1}{2}s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}$, and the area of $T_n + T_n' = \frac{1}{2}s_n\sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2}$. Hence the area of the polygon is $\frac{1}{2}(s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + \dots + s_n\sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2})$.

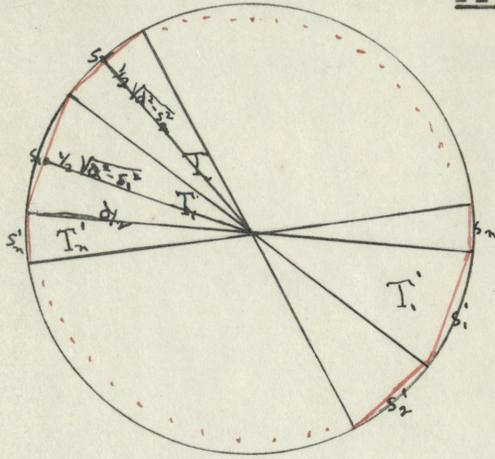


Fig. 4.

THEOREM 5. A contra-regular polygon of four sides is a rectangle whose area is $s_1 s_2$.

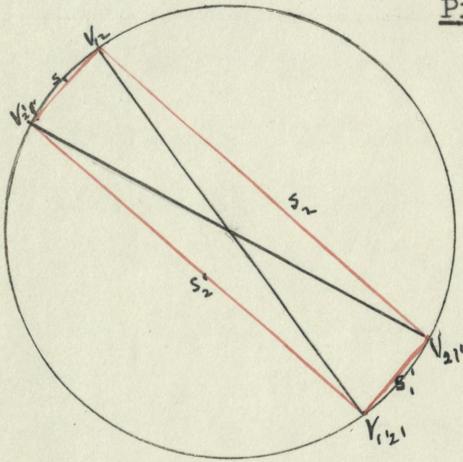


Fig. 5.

Proof: $\Delta V_{2,1} V_{1,2} V_{2,1}'$ has two vertices on a diameter. Hence, $\angle V_{1,2}$ is a right angle, and since the opposite $\angle V_{1,2} = \angle V_{1,2}'$, $\angle V_{1,2}'$ is a right angle. Similarly, $\angle V_{2,1}$ and $\angle V_{2,1}'$ are right angles. $s_1 \parallel s_1'$, and $s_2 \parallel s_2'$. Therefore, $V_{1,2} V_{2,1}' V_{1,2}' V_{2,1}'$ is a rectangle and consequently the area of the quadrilateral is $s_1 s_2$.

THEOREM 6. The area of a contra-regular polygon of six sides may be expressed as $A = s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + 2\sqrt{s(s - s_2)(s - s_3)(s - \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2})}$

where $s = \frac{s_1 + s_2 + \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{2}$.

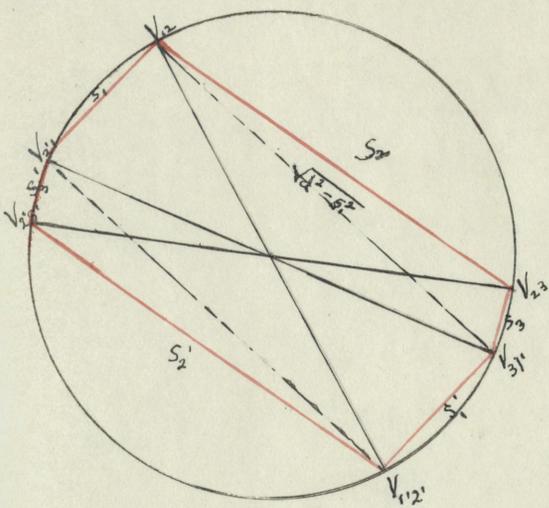


Fig. 6.

Proof: $V_{1,2} V_{3,1'} V_{1,2'} V_{3,1}$ is a rectangle of area equal to $s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}$. Removing $V_{1,2} V_{3,1'} V_{1,2'} V_{3,1}$ from the polygon leaves two congruent triangles $V_{1,2} V_{2,3} V_{3,1'}$ and $V_{1,2'} V_{2,3} V_{3,1}$, each having an area equal to

$$\frac{\sqrt{s(s - s_2)(s - s_3)(s - \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2})}}{2},$$

s being equal to one-half the sum of the three sides. (Formula from Trigonometry.) Hence $A = s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + 2\sqrt{s(s - s_2)(s - s_3)(s - \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2})}$.

THEOREM 7. The relation between the sides of a contra-regular hexagon and the diameter of the circumscribed circle is expressed by the equations $d^3 - d(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2) - 2s_1 s_2 s_3 = 0$, and $d^3 - d(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2) + 2s_1 s_2 s_3 = 0$.

Proof: In any triangle of sides a, b, c inscribed in a circle of diameter d , $d = \frac{abc}{2\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}}$

where $s = \frac{a+b+c}{2}$. In Fig. 6

$$d = \frac{s_2 s_3 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{\frac{2\sqrt{(s_2 + s_3 + \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2})(-s_2 + s_3 + \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2})(s_2 - s_3 + \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2})}}{4}}$$

$$= \frac{(s_2 + s_3 - \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2})}{2s_2 s_3 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}$$

$$= \frac{2s_2 s_3 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{\sqrt{[d^2 - s_1^2 - (s_2 - s_3)^2] [(s_2 + s_3)^2 - d^2 + s_1^2]}}$$

$$\frac{2s_2 s_3 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{\sqrt{(d^2 - s_1^2 - s_2^2 + 2s_2 s_3 - s_3^2)(s_2^2 + s_3^2 + 2s_2 s_3 - d^2 + s_1^2)}}$$

$$d^2 = \frac{4s_2^2 s_3^2 d^2 - 4s_1^2 s_2^2 s_3^2}{4s_2^2 s_3^2 - (s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2 - d^2)^2} =$$

$$\frac{-4s_2^2 s_3^2 d^2 + 4s_1^2 s_2^2 s_3^2}{-4s_2^2 s_3^2 + s_1^4 + s_2^4 + s_3^4 + d^4 + 2s_1^2 s_2^2 + 2s_1^2 s_3^2 - 2s_1^2 d^2 + 2s_2^2 s_3^2 - 2s_2^2 d^2 - 2s_3^2 d^2}$$

$$d^6 + d^4(-2s_1^2 - 2s_2^2 - 2s_3^2) + d^2(-4s_2^2 s_3^2 + s_1^4 + s_2^4 + s_3^4 + 2s_1^2 s_2^2 + 2s_1^2 s_3^2 + 2s_2^2 s_3^2 + 4s_2^2 s_3^2) - 4s_1^2 s_2^2 s_3^2 = 0.$$

$$d^6 - 2d^4(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2) + d^2(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2)^2 - 4s_1^2 s_2^2 s_3^2 = 0.$$

$$[d^3 - d(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2) - 2s_1 s_2 s_3][d^3 - d(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2) + 2s_1 s_2 s_3] = 0.$$

This relation is also shown by evaluating $\sin^2 V_{23}$ and $\cos^2 V_{23}$, and simplifying the equation $\sin^2 V_{23} + \cos^2 V_{23} = 1$. A third method of securing this result is as follows: $\cos V_{23} = \frac{s_2^2 + s_3^2 - d^2 + s_1^2}{2s_2 s_3} =$

$\cos(d + 90^\circ) = -\sin d = -\frac{s_1}{d}$. Simplifying, the equation reduces to $d^3 - d(s_1^2 + s_2^2 + s_3^2) - 2s_1 s_2 s_3 = 0$.

THEOREM 8. In a contra-regular polygon the values of the angles at the vertices are

$$\angle V_2 = \arcsin \frac{s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}$$

$$\angle V_{23} = \arcsin \frac{s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_3^2} + s_3 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2}$$

⋮

$$\angle V_{n-1, n} = \arcsin \frac{s_{n-1} \sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2} + s_n \sqrt{d^2 - s_{n-1}^2}}{d^2}$$

$$\angle V_{n, 1} = \arcsin \frac{s_n \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2}}{d^2}$$

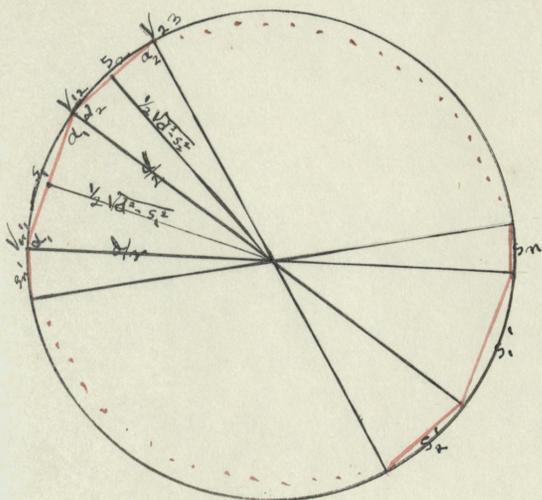


Fig. 7.

$$\text{Proof: } \sin \alpha_1 = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d}; \quad \cos \alpha_1 = \frac{s_1}{d}$$

$$\sin \alpha_2 = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d}; \quad \cos \alpha_2 = \frac{s_2}{d}$$

$$\sin(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = \sin \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2 + \cos \alpha_1 \sin \alpha_2 =$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} s_2}{d} + \frac{s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d} =$$

$$\frac{s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2}. \quad \text{There-}$$

fore, $V_{1,2} = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = \arcsin$

$$\frac{s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}.$$

In like manner,

$$V_{2,3} = \arcsin \frac{s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_3^2} + s_3 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$V_{n-1,n} = \arcsin \frac{s_{n-1} \sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2} + s_n \sqrt{d^2 - s_{n-1}^2}}{d^2}$$

$$V_{n,1} = \arcsin \frac{s_n \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2}}{d^2}$$

THEOREM 9. In a contra-regular polygon the values of the angles between the radii of the circumscribed circle which join the center of the circle and the vertices of the polygon are:

$$\angle B_1 = \arcsin \frac{2 s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}$$

$$\angle B_2 = \arcsin \frac{2 s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\angle B_n = \arcsin \frac{2 s_n \sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2}}{d^2}$$

Proof: The altitude of the isosceles triangle T , bisects the vertex angle B . $\sin \frac{B_1}{2} = \frac{s_1}{d}$; $\cos \frac{B_1}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d}$

$$\sin B_1 = 2 \sin \frac{B_1}{2} \cos \frac{B_1}{2} = \frac{2s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}.$$

$$B = \arcsin \frac{2s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}.$$

In like manner

$$B_2 = \arcsin \frac{2s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$B_n = \arcsin \frac{2s_n \sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2}}{d^2}.$$

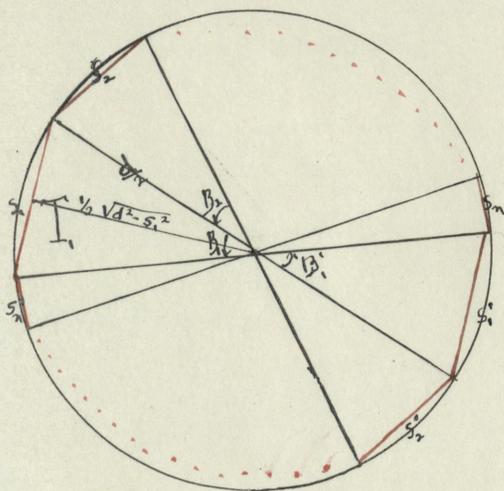


Fig. 8.

II. ALTRA-REGULAR POLYGONS.

THEOREM 1. An ultra-regular polygon of $2n$ sides is, if $n=2k$, a contra-regular polygon, and hence has all of the properties of a contra-regular polygon.

Proof: Denoting the sides of an ultra-regular polygon as s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n , we have (1). $s_1 = s_3 = s_5 = \dots = s_{2n-1}$ and (2) $s_2 = s_4 = s_6 = \dots = s_{2n}$. The side opposite a given side s_i is s_{n+i} . If n is odd, s_{n+i} belongs to (2) and hence does not equal s_i , but if n is even, i.e. if $n=2k$, s_{n+i} belongs to (1) and hence

equals s_1 , and the polygon is a contra-regular polygon.

THEOREM 2. The angles of an ultra-regular polygon are equal.

Proof: $\Delta T_1 \cong \Delta T_3 \cong \Delta T_5 \cong \dots \cong \Delta T_{2n-1}$ and $\Delta T_2 \cong \Delta T_4 \cong \Delta T_6 \cong \dots \cong \Delta T_{2n}$. (Triangles having three sides of one respectively equal to three sides of the other are congruent.)
 $\angle \alpha_1 = \angle \alpha_3 = \angle \alpha_5 = \dots = \angle \alpha_{2n-1}$ and $\angle \alpha_2 = \angle \alpha_4 = \dots = \angle \alpha_{2n}$
 Thus, $\angle (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = V_{1,2} = V_{2,3} = V_{3,4} = V_{4,5} = \dots = V_{2n,1}$.

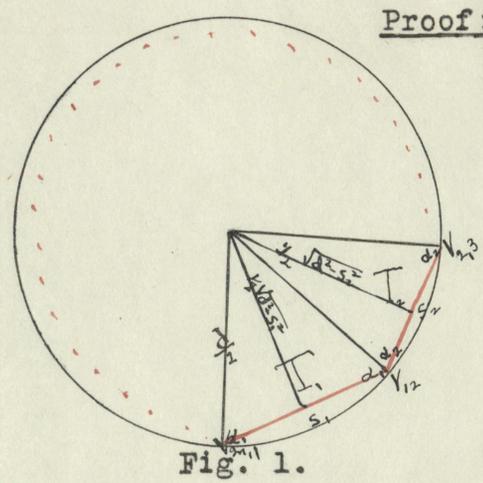


Fig. 1.

THEOREM 3. The value of each angle at the circumference of an ultra-regular polygon is $\sin^{-1} \left(\frac{s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2} \right)$.

Proof: (See Fig. 1.) $\sin \alpha_1 = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d}$; $\sin \alpha_2 = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d}$
 $\cos \alpha_1 = \frac{s_1}{d}$; $\cos \alpha_2 = \frac{s_2}{d}$. $\sin (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = \frac{s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}$
 But $\angle (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = V_{1,2} = V_{2,3} = V_{3,4} = V_{4,5} = \dots = V_{2n,1}$. Hence,
 $V_{i,i+1} = \sin^{-1} \frac{s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}$
 ($i = 1, 2, \dots, 2n$, and $2n + 1 = 1$).

THEOREM 4. Opposite sides of an ultra-regular polygon are parallel.

Proof: In an ultra-regular poly-

gon of $2n$ sides erect the mid-perpendicular to a given side s , and the mid-perpendicular to s_{n+1} , the side opposite s . Join their point of intersection, which is the center of the circle, with the vertices of the polygon. $\text{arc } MV_{2n,1} = \text{arc } MV_{1,2}$

(The bisector of an angle

bisects the arc subtended by it.)

$$\text{arc } V_{2n-1,2n} V_{2n,1} = \text{arc } V_{1,2} V_{2,3} = \dots =$$

$$\text{arc } V_{n-1,n} V_{n,n+1} = \text{arc } V_{n+1,n+2} V_{n+2,n+3}.$$

(Equal chords subtend equal arcs.)

$$\text{arc } RV_{n+1,n+2} = \text{arc } RV_{n,n+1}. \text{ Hence,}$$

$\text{arc } RM = \text{arc } MR$. But, $\text{arc } RMR$ subtends

a 360° angle. Therefore, $\text{arc } RM$ and $\text{arc } MR$

each subtend a 180° angle, and ROM is

a straight line. Hence s , is parallel to

s_{n+1} .

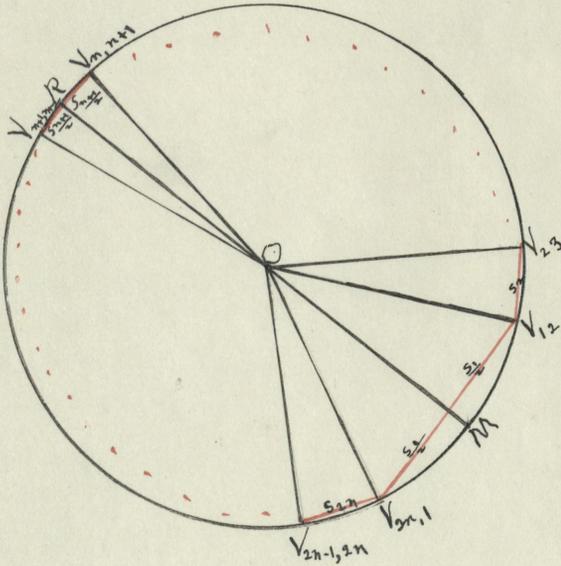


Fig. 2.

THEOREM 5. Diagonals between opposite vertices of an ultra-regular polygon are parallel to the sides opposite.

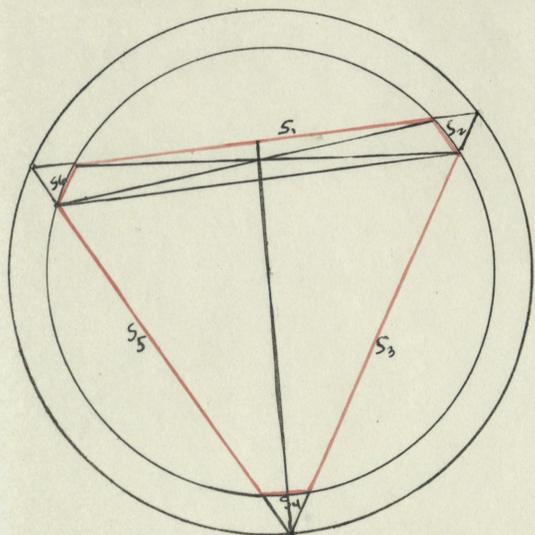


Fig. 3.

Proof: Erect the mid-perpendicular to the diagonal and the mid-perpendicular to one of the sides opposite it, say s_1 . Join their intersection with each vertex of the part of the polygon included within the diagonal and s_1 . The two triangles whose bases are $\frac{s_1}{2}$ are congruent. Those whose bases are s_2 and s_{2n} , and so on to those whose bases are one-half the dia-

gonal are also congruent since each pair has two sides and the included angle equal. The sum of the angles about the intersection of the mid-perpendiculars is 360° . The angle opposite $\frac{s_1}{2}$ equals the angle opposite $\frac{s_1}{2}$, that opposite s_2 equals that opposite s_{2n} and so on. Therefore, the sum of the central angles at O on the right of the mid-perpendiculars equals the sum of those on the left and hence is equal to 180° . Thus, the mid-perpendicular to s_1 is the mid-perpendicular to the diagonal, and the diagonal is parallel to s_1 . Since s_1 is parallel

to s_{n+1} , the diagonal is also parallel to s_{n+1} ¹

THEOREM 6. In an ultra-regular polygon the value of each angle at the center opposite a side equal to s_1 is $\sin^{-1} \frac{2s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}$ and of each angle opposite a side equal to s_2 is $\sin^{-1} \frac{2s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2}$.

Proof: The altitude of isosceles triangle T , bisects the vertex angle

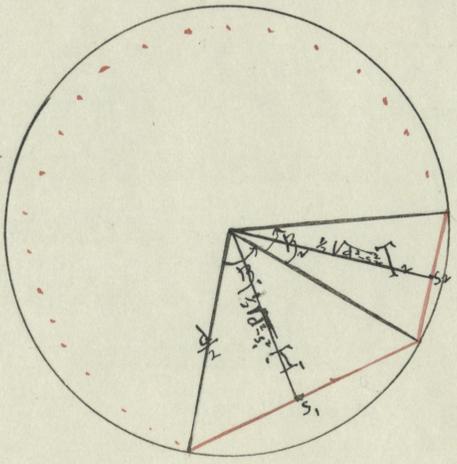


Fig. 4.

$$B_1. \sin \frac{B_1}{2} = \frac{s_1}{d}; \sin \frac{B_2}{2} = \frac{s_2}{d}$$

$$\cos \frac{B_1}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d}; \cos \frac{B_2}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d}$$

$$\sin B_1 = \frac{2s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2}; \sin B_2 = \frac{2s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2}$$

Therefore, since $T_1 \cong T_3 \cong \dots \cong T_{2n-1}$
and $T_2 \cong T_4 \cong \dots \cong T_{2n}$, $B_1 =$

$$\sin^{-1} \frac{2s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}}{d^2} = B_3 = B_5 = \dots = B_{2n-1} \text{ and}$$

$$B_2 = \sin^{-1} \frac{2s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}}{d^2} = B_4 = B_6 = B_8 = \dots = B_{2n}$$

THEOREM 7. The area of an ultra-regular polygon of $2n$ sides is $\frac{n}{4} (s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2})$.

¹Polygons in which $n=4k$ are not included in this discussion, since a vertex, and not a side, is opposite the diagonal.

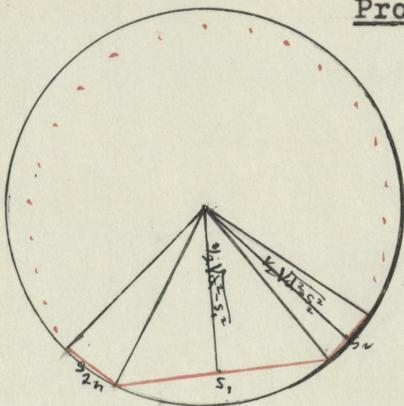


Fig. 5.

Proof: The polygon is composed of n triangles of area $\frac{s_1}{4}\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}$ and of n triangles of area $\frac{s_2}{4}\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}$. Hence the total area of the polygon is $\frac{n}{4}(s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2})$.

CONSTRUCTION 1. To construct any ultra-regular polygon which is inscriptible in a circle by means of ruler and compass.

Method. 1.

Construction: Inscribe in a circle a regular polygon¹ of n sides. Moving in a counter-clockwise direction at each vertex of the regular polygon as a center, and with a radius less than the side of the regular polygon, describe an arc cutting the circle. With the vertices of the regular polygon and the points where the arcs cut the circle as

¹"A regular polygon of n sides can be inscribed by ruler and compasses if, and only if, $n = 2^l p_1 p_2 \dots$, where $p, p_2 \dots$ are distinct primes of the form $2^{2^r} + 1$." J. W. A. Young, Mathematical Monographs, New York, 1911, page 379.

vertices construct a polygon. This is an ultra-regular polygon of $n = 2^{l+1} p_1 p_2 \dots$ sides where p_1, p_2, \dots are distinct primes of the form $2^{2^t} + 1$.¹ This construction leads us to

THEOREM 8. Only ultra-regular polygons of $2^{l+1} p_1 p_2 \dots$ sides where p_1, p_2, \dots are distinct primes of the form $2^{2^t} + 1$ can be inscribed in a circle by means of a ruler and compass.

Proof: Suppose it is possible to inscribe in a circle

by means of ruler and compass an ultra-regular polygon of $2k$ sides where $2k$ is not equal to $2^{l+1} p_1 p_2 \dots$, p_1, p_2 being distinct primes of the form $2^{2^t} + 1$. Draw $V_{2n,1} V_{2,3}$, $V_{2,3} V_{4,5}$, ... to $V_{2n-2,2n-1} V_{2n,1}$. Since $s_1 = s_3 = s_5 = \dots = s_{2n-1}$; $s_2 = s_4 = \dots = s_{2n}$, and $\angle V_{1,2} = \angle V_{2,3} = \angle V_{4,5} = \dots = \angle V_{2n-2,2n-1} V_{2n,1}$. Hence, $V_{2n,1} V_{2,3} = V_{2,3} V_{4,5} = \dots = V_{2n-2,2n-1} V_{2n,1}$, and the polygon formed by them is a regular polygon of k sides inscribed in a circle. But it is possible to inscribe in a circle by means of ruler and compass regular polygons of only $2^l p_1 p_2 \dots$ sides, p_1, p_2, \dots being distinct primes of the form

¹See Plates I. and II. for illustrations of this method of construction of ultra-regular polygons.

$2^{2^t} + 1$. Hence, it is possible to inscribe in a circle altra-regular polygons of only $2^{2^t} p_1 p_2 \dots$ sides, $p_1, p_2 \dots$ being distinct primes of the form $2^{2^t} + 1$.

CONSTRUCTION 1. To construct any ultra-regular polygon which is inscriptible in a circle by means of ruler and compass.

Method 2.

Construction: As in Method 1. inscribe in a circle a regular polygon of n sides. With the center of the circle, O , as a center, and a radius greater than the radius of a circle inscribed in the polygon and less than the radius of the circumscribed circle, describe a circle. The points at which the circle cuts the regular polygon are vertices of an altra-regular polygon of $2n$ sides.

Proof: Drop the perpendiculars $p_1, p_2 \dots p_n$ respectively to the sides $S_1, S_2, \dots S_n$ of the regular polygon. $p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_n$. (In the same circle, equal chords are equally distant from the center.) $\frac{d}{2} = \frac{d}{2}$. Therefore triangles of bases $\frac{s_1}{2}, \frac{s_2}{2}, \dots \dots \frac{s_{2n-1}}{2}$ are congruent. (Right triangles having

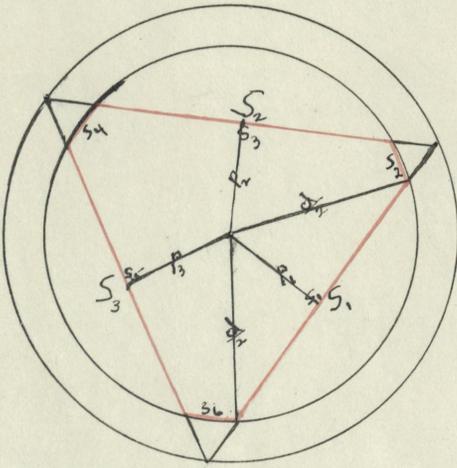


Fig. 6.

the hypotenuse and one side of one respectively equal to the hypotenuse and one side of the other, are congruent.) Hence, $\frac{s_1}{2} = \frac{s_2}{2} = \frac{s_3}{2} = \dots = \frac{s_{2n-1}}{2}$, and $s_1 = s_2 = \dots = s_{2n-1}$. The small triangles at the vertices of the regular polygon have two sides equal to $\frac{s_1}{2} - \frac{s_1}{2}$, and hence equal to each other, and their included angles, being angles of the regular poly-

gon are equal. Hence the triangles are congruent. (Triangles having two sides and the included angle of one respectively equal to two sides and the included angle of the other, are congruent.) Hence, $s_2 = s_4 = s_6 = s_8 = \dots = s_{2n}$. Thus the polygon of sides s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{2n} is an ultra-regular polygon.

LEMMA 1. The corners cut off from an equilateral triangle in the construction of an ultra-regular hexagon (Method 2, Construction 1) are themselves equilateral triangles of sides equal to s_2 .

Proof: In the Proof, Construction 1,

Method 2, it was shown that the corners cut off from a regular polygon in the construction of an ultra-regular polygon are congruent triangles having two sides equal to $\frac{s_1}{2} - \frac{s_2}{2}$. Hence, in Fig. 7, triangles AV_6V_5 , $BV_{12}V_{23}$, and $CV_{34}V_{45}$ are congruent isosceles triangles.

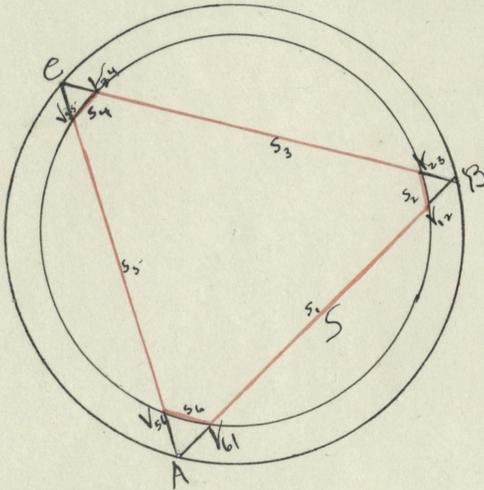


Fig. 7.

But $\angle A = \angle B = \angle C = 60^\circ$. Therefore,

$$\angle AV_6V_5 = \angle AV_5V_6 = \angle BV_{12}V_{23} = \angle BV_{23}V_{12} = \angle CV_{34}V_{45} = \angle CV_{45}V_{34} = 60^\circ. \text{ Thus}$$

triangles AV_6V_5 ; $BV_{12}V_{23}$; and $CV_{34}V_{45}$ are equiangular and hence equilateral. But one side of $\triangle BV_{12}V_{23}$ is s_2 . Therefore each side of each of the three triangles equals s_2 .

COROLLARY. The sides of the equilateral triangle used as a base of an ultra-regular hexagon in Method 2, Construction 1 are equal to $s_1 + 2s_2$.

LEMMA 2. The diameter D of the circle circumscribed about an equilateral triangle S S S equals $\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} S$.

Proof: $\frac{2}{3} A = \frac{D}{2}$ where A is the altitude of the triangle.

(The medians, which are also altitudes of an isos-

celes triangle, meet in a point, which is two-thirds of the distance from a vertex to the mid-point of the opposite side.)

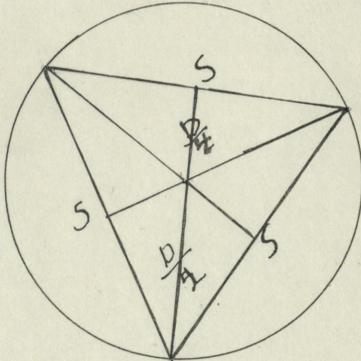


Fig. 8.

The area of the triangle is $\frac{3}{8} DS$.

$$D = \frac{S^3}{2 \cdot \frac{3DS}{8}} = \frac{S^2}{\frac{3}{4} D} \quad D^2 = \frac{4}{3} S^2.$$

$$D = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} S.$$

THEOREM 9. In an ultra-regular hexagon the diameter of the circumscribing circle is $d = \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{3} \sqrt{s_1^2 + s_2 + s_1 + s_2^2}$.

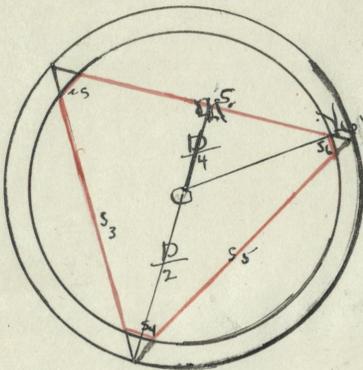


Fig. 9.

Proof: $ON = \frac{D}{4}$ (D equals the diameter of the circumscribing circle of triangle ABC.) $\overline{OV}_{61}^2 = \overline{ON}^2 + \overline{NV}_{61}^2$.

$$\frac{d^2}{4} = \frac{D^2}{16} + \frac{s_1^2}{4}. \quad \text{But } D = \frac{2S}{\sqrt{3}} = \frac{2(s_1 + 2s_2)}{\sqrt{3}}.$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \frac{d^2}{4} = \frac{4(s_1^2 + 4s_1s_2 + 4s_2^2)}{16} + \frac{s_1^2}{4}.$$

$$d^2 = \frac{s_1^2 + 4s_1s_2 + 4s_2^2 + 3s_1^2}{3} = \frac{4(s_1^2 + s_1s_2 + s_2^2)}{3}.$$

$$\text{Therefore, } d = \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{3} \sqrt{s_1^2 + s_1s_2 + s_2^2}.$$

COROLLARY. The area of an ultra-regular hexagon in terms of the sides is: $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} (s_1 \sqrt{s_1^2 + 4s_1s_2 + 4s_2^2} + s_2 \sqrt{4s_1^2 + 4s_1s_2 + s_2^2})$.

CONSTRUCTION 2. To construct an ultra-regular hexagon when the sides s_1 and s_2 are given.

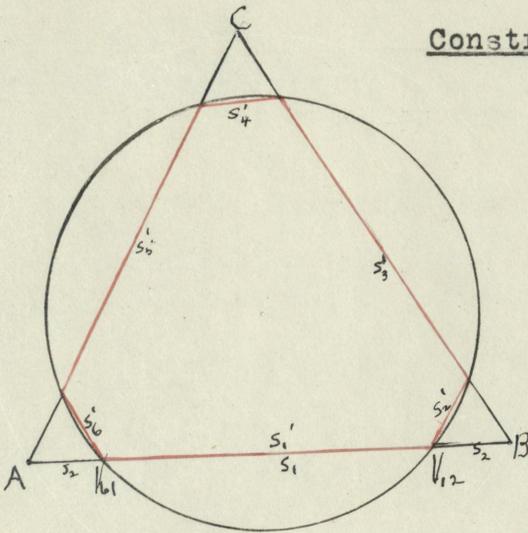


Fig. 10.

Construction: Construct an equilateral triangle ABC of base $s_1 + 2s_2$. With a center at A and an arc equal to s_2 describe an arc cutting AB at $V_{6,1}$. Determine O , the center of the circle which can be circumscribed about triangle ABC . With O as a center and $OV_{6,1}$ as a radius describe a circle. The intersections of the circle with $\triangle ABC$ are

the vertices of an ultra-regular hexagon of sides s_1 and s_2 .

Proof: $AV_{6,1} = s_2' = s_4' = s_6' = s_2$. (Lemma 1). $s_1 = AB - (AV_{6,1} + BV_{1,2}) = s_1' = s_3' = s_5'$. Therefore, $V_{6,1}, V_{1,2}, V_{2,3}, V_{3,4}, V_{4,5}, V_{5,6}$ is the required ultra-regular hexagon.

LEMMA. The corners cut off from a square by an ultra-regular octagon (Construction 1, Method 2) are congruent isosceles right triangles of sides equal to $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} s_2$ and hypotenuse s_2 .

Proof: In the Proof, Construction 1, Method 2, it was shown that the corners cut off from a regular polygon in the construction of an ultra-regular polygon are congruent triangles having two sides equal to $\frac{s_1}{2} - \frac{s_2}{2}$. Hence in Fig. 11 triangles $AV_{6,1}, V_{7,8}$;

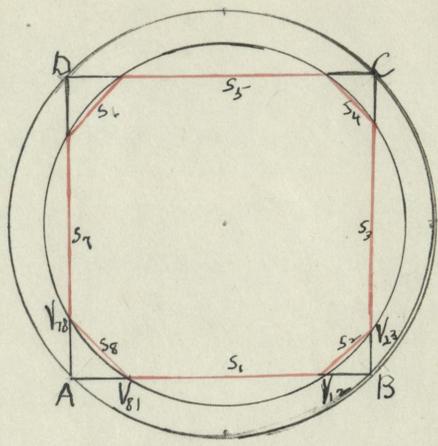


Fig. 11.

$BV_{1,2}, V_{2,3}$ etc. are congruent isosceles triangles, and since $\angle A = \angle B = \angle C = \angle D = 90^\circ$, they are right triangles each of base equal to s_2 . $2 \overline{AV_{81}}^2 = s_2^2$. Therefore, $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} s_2 = \overline{AV_{81}} = \overline{BV_{1,2}} = \overline{BV_{2,3}}$ etc.

THEOREM 10. In an ultra-regular octagon the diameter of the circumscribing circle is $d = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{s_1^2 + 2s_1s_2 + s_2^2}$.

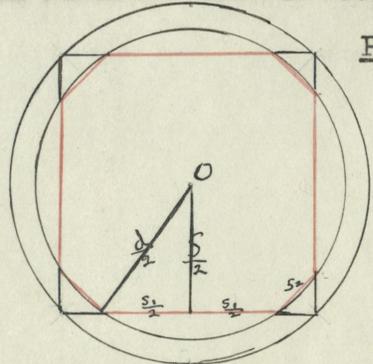


Fig. 12.

Proof: $\frac{d^2}{4} = \frac{S^2}{4} = \frac{s_1^2}{4}$ (S is a side of the

square). But $S = s_1 + 2\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} s_2$ (Lemma). $d^2 = (s_1 + \sqrt{2} s_2)^2 + s_1^2 = s_1^2 + 2\sqrt{2} s_1 s_2 + 2s_2^2 + s_1^2$. $d = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{s_1^2 + 2s_1s_2 + s_2^2}$.

COROLLARY. The area of an ultra-regular octagon in terms of its sides is: $s_1 \sqrt{s_1^2 + 2\sqrt{2} s_1 s_2 + 2s_2^2} + s_2 \sqrt{2s_1^2 + 2\sqrt{2} s_1 s_2 + s_2^2}$.

DEFINITION. A regular star polygon or cross polygon is a polygon produced by the lines joining alternate vertices of a regular polygon.

Thus only regular star polygons¹ of $2^l p_1 p_2 \dots$ points where p_1, p_2, \dots are distinct primes of the form $2^{2^r} + 1$, can be constructed by means of ruler and compass.

CONSTRUCTION 3. To construct any ultra-regular polygon having as a basis a regular star-polygon of $2^l 5$; $2^l 6$; $2^l 8$ sides.²

Construction: Inscribe in a circle a regular star polygon of $2^l 5$; $2^l 6$; or $2^l 8$ points. Describe a second circle concentric with the first, but smaller, cutting the points of the star polygon. With the intersections of this circle and the star polygon as vertices construct a polygon.

Proof: Draw OP_6, OP_1 , etc. and $OV_{1,2,1}, OV_{1,2}$, etc. (Fig. 13) $ON_1 = ON_3 = ON_5$, etc. $ON_9 \perp P_6 P_7$; $ON_1 \perp P_6 P_7$ etc. $OV_{10,11} = OV_{11,12} = OV_{12,1}$, etc. Therefore, $\triangle ON_9 V_{10,11} \cong \triangle ON_1 V_{11,12} \cong \triangle ON_3 V_{1,2}$ etc. Therefore, $N_9 V_{10,11} = N_1 V_{11,12} = N_3 V_{1,2}$ etc. $N_9 P_6 = N_1 P_7 = N_3 P_1 = N_5 P_2$ etc. Therefore, $P_6 V_{10,11} = P_1 V_{11,12} = P_3 V_{12,1} = P_5 V_{1,2}$ etc. $\angle P_6 = \angle P_7 = \angle P_2$ etc. Therefore, $\triangle V_{10,11} P_6 V_{11,12} \cong \triangle V_{12,1} P_1 V_{1,2}$ etc. Therefore,

¹See History of Mathematics, Macmillan, N.Y., 1894, by Cajori, pages 22, 135, 156 for references to work on star polygons by the Pythagoreans, Thomas Bradwardine, and Kepler.

²This method of construction produces figures which are of interest chiefly in "Design".

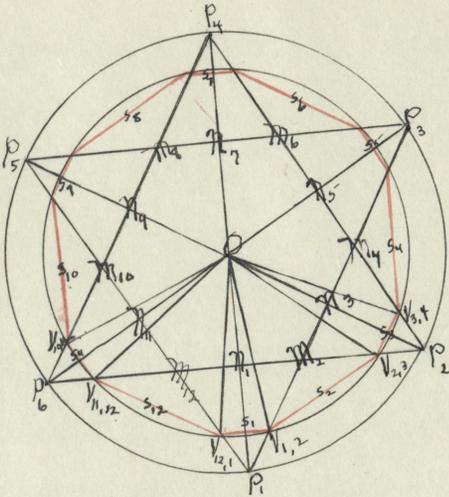


Fig. 13.

$s_1 = s_2 = s_3$ etc. $P_6 M_{1,2} = P_1 M_{1,2} =$
 $P_1 M_2$ etc. Thus, $V_{1,1,2} M_{1,2} = V_{1,2,1} M_{1,2}$
 $V_{1,2} M_2$ etc. $\angle P_6 M_{1,2} P_1 = \angle P_1 M_2 P_2$
 etc. Therefore, $\Delta V_{1,1,2} M_{1,2} V_{1,2,1} \cong$
 $\Delta V_{1,2} M_2 V_{2,3}$ etc. Therefore, $s_{1,2} =$
 $s_2 = s_4$ etc. and the polygon
 of sides s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4 etc.
 is an ultra-regular polygon.¹

Ultra-Regular Polygons as Found in Mineralogy.

There are found in the isometric system of mineralogy
 a number of substances which tend to crystallize in forms
 which are combinations of positive and negative tetrahedrons;
 of the tetrahedron and dodecahedron; of the cube and octahe-
 dron; of the cube, octahedron, and dodecahedron; and of the
 cube and trapezohedron. In the first two cases it very
 frequently happens that there are produced solids whose
 faces are ultra-regular hexagons, and in the last three
 cases, solids whose faces are ultra-regular octagons. On

¹Although the figure used here is the dodecagon, the proof
 itself is general and will apply to all cases in which the
 construction is possible.

crystals of galena, fluorite, boracite, sphalerite, tetrahedrite, and pyrite are found faces in the shape of ultra-regular hexagons; and on crystals of gold, halite, sylvite, analcite, galena, fluorite, cuprite, and magnetite are found faces which are ultra-regular octagons. It is interesting to note that some crystals of galena and fluorite, for example, show ultra-regular hexagons, and that others show ultra-regular octagons. Ultra-regular polygons seem to be limited to the crystals of the isometric system.

Ultra-Regular Polygons as Found in Design.

In the work in Design produced during a long period of time, and in many countries, we find a wide range of examples of designs having as their bases ultra-regular polygons, especially the ultra-regular octagon. There are few historical examples of the ultra-regular hexagon although it makes a basis for attractive designs. The polygons of a greater number of sides than eight do not lend themselves very readily to effective use in Design, and hence are seldom found there. The designs based on the ultra-regular polygons range from the purely geometric, thru those based on plant forms, to the purely imaginative.

In architecture ultra-regular polygons, and especially

those produced by Construction 3, are found as outlines of rose windows and as medallions in stone and wood carvings.

In designs used in the interior of buildings, especially in homes, ultra-regular polygons are found on wall and fire-place tiles, in mosaic flooring, on the single teapot tiles, on the tops of decorative boxes of porcelain or wood in color and in carving, on floor coverings such as rugs and linoleums, and on textile fabrics both in the cases where the designs are reproduced by machinery and where they are worked by hand.

Of special interest are certain old Coptic and Byzantine designs, those woven in Chinese brocades, those of the Renaissance period, and Russian embroidery designs, all of which use the ultra-regular octagon as a basis but not as a dominant feature. These figures are sometimes used in a large pattern, sometimes as small figures they are repeated on a border, and sometimes they are repeated in such a way as to cover the fabric. In one particular Chinese-Japanese design the ultra-regular octagon itself was an outstanding feature. A Japanese pattern combined in an interesting manner the ultra-regular octagon with other geometric designs and a flower design. Another example of the ultra-regular octagon was as a part of a design used on a woollen carriage cushion from Skåne, Sweden. In this the octagon stood out prominently. In another case, the octagon was

used as an outline of a flower pattern in an old Persian prayer carpet.

A very unusual design which was of primitive origin, was one of sixteen sides based on a regular eight point star polygon. This showed the radii of both circles which are used in the construction of the polygon by Construction 3.

Several examples of the modern usage of ultra-regular polygons in Design are given in Plates I, II, and III.

ALTRA-REGULAR HEXAGONS WITH DESIGNS BASED THEREON.

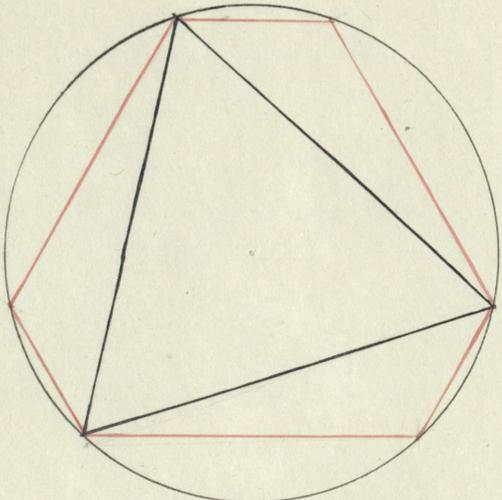


Fig. 14a.

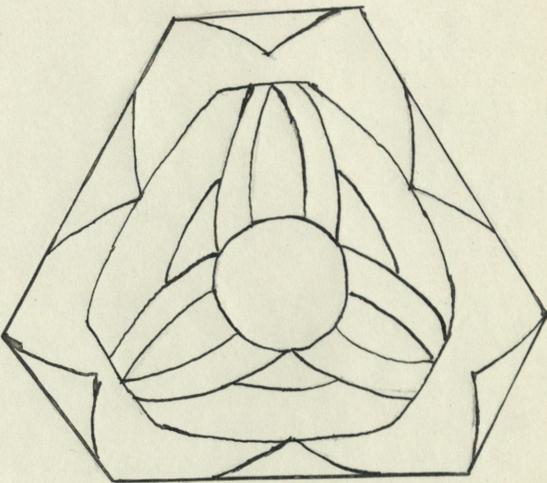


Fig. 14b.

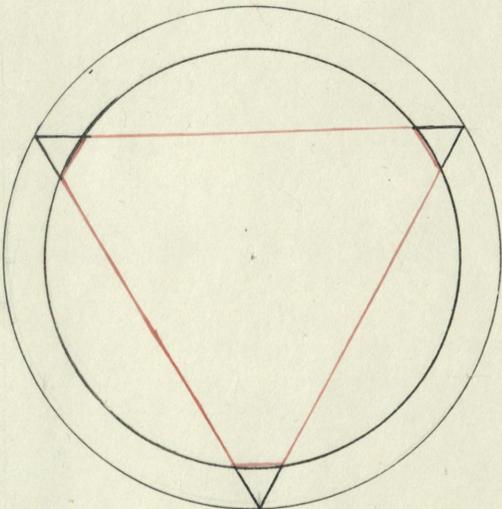


Fig. 15a.

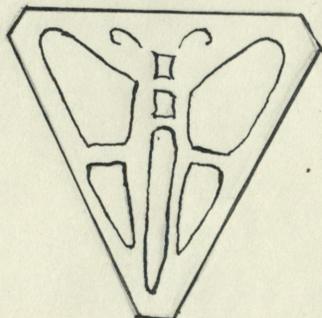


Fig. 15b.

ALTRA-REGULAR OCTAGONS WITH DESIGNS BASED THEREON.

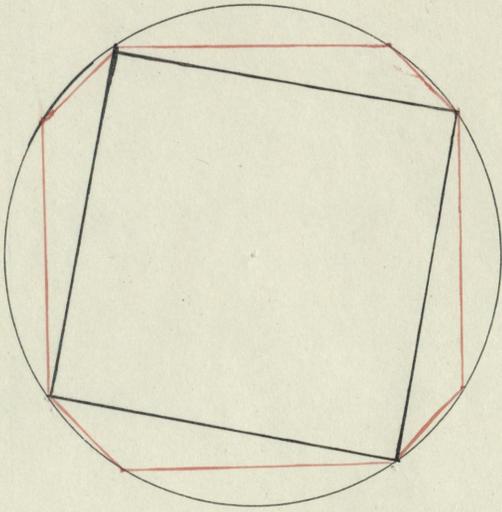


Fig. 16a.

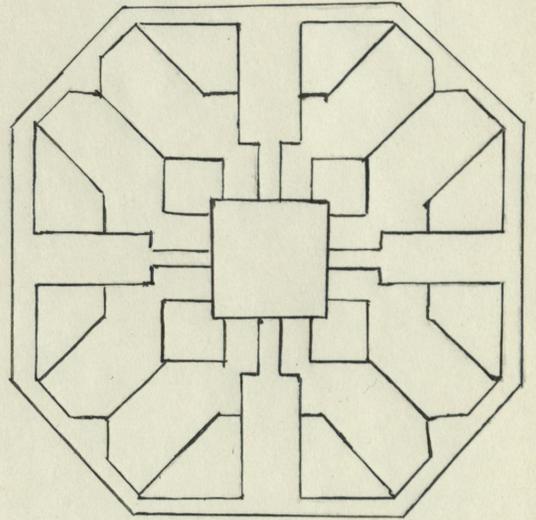


Fig. 16b.

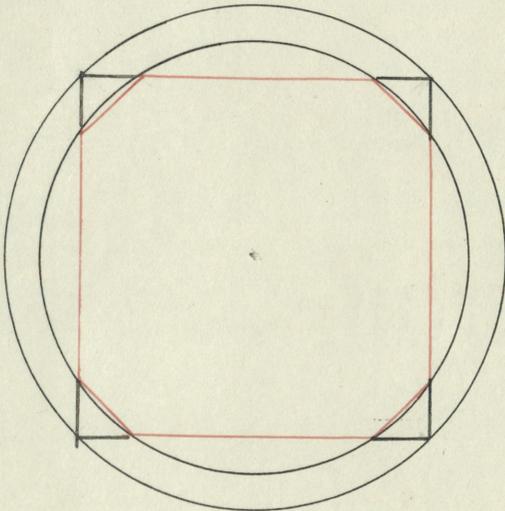


Fig. 17a.

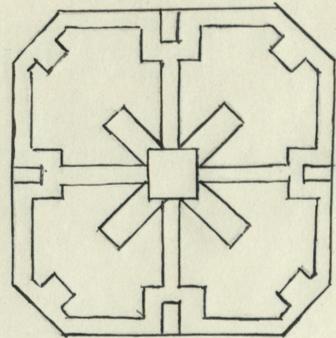


Fig. 17b.

ALTRA-REGULAR POLYGONS WITH DESIGNS BASED THEREON.

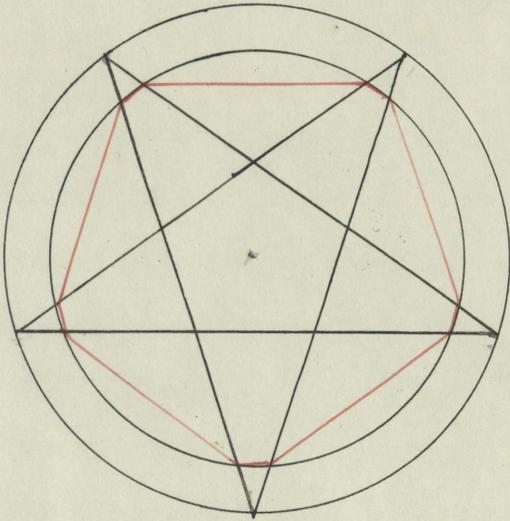


Fig. 18a.

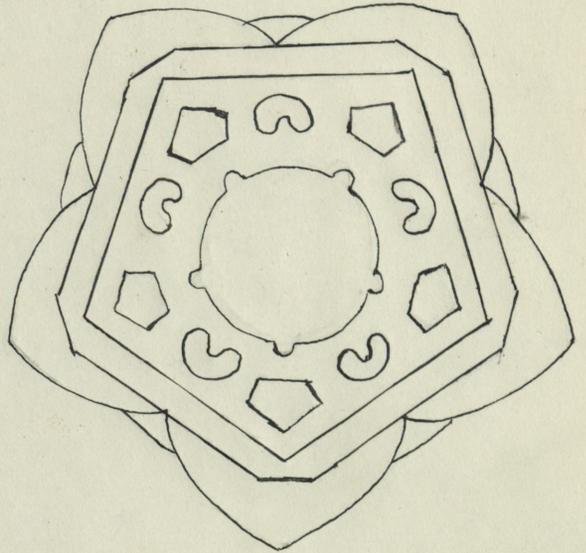


Fig. 18b.

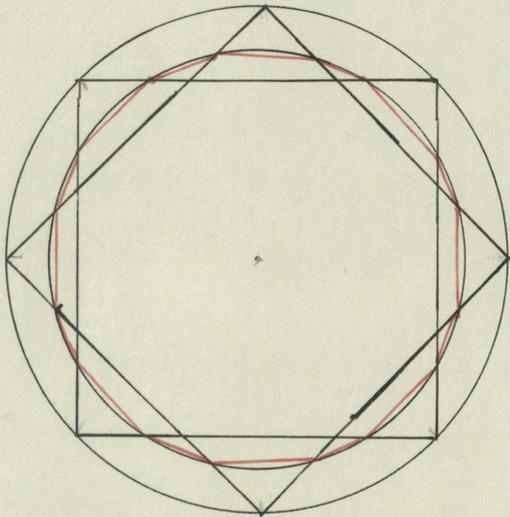


Fig. 19a.

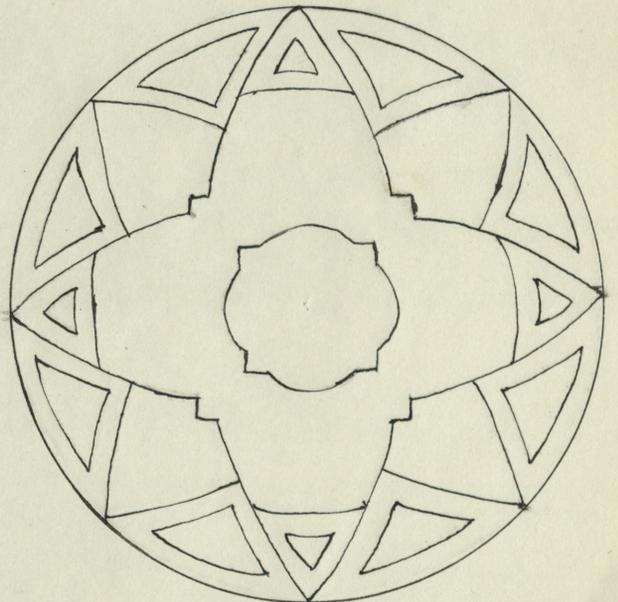


Fig. 19b.

III. JUXTA-REGULAR POLYGONS.

A juxta-regular polygon may be constructed by the bisection of the arcs subtended by the sides of any convex polygon inscribed in a circle, and then using the vertices of the original polygon and the points where the arcs were bisected as vertices for the new polygon, which is thus juxta-regular, since equal arcs are subtended by equal chords. Since the original polygon which is the basis for the juxta-regular polygon has no limitations placed upon it except that it be convex and cyclic, the properties of the juxta-regular polygon can be determined only when the character of its basis is known. Thus, no generalizations can be made on the subject of juxta-regular polygons as a class.

If the basis of a juxta-regular polygon is a regular polygon, the juxta-regular polygon is also a regular polygon, and hence further discussion is out of the field of this paper.

If the juxta-regular polygon is a quadrilateral, it is known as a cyclic kite¹, a subject which is given con-

¹See "Kite" page 49, Second-Year Mathematics, Chicago, 1910, by Breslich.

siderable attention, especially in the form of problems, in our text-books of Elementary Euclidean Geometry. Thus, it need not be discussed in this paper.

THEOREM 1. If the basis of a juxta-regular polygon is a contra-regular polygon, the juxta-regular polygon is also contra-regular, and consequently has all of the properties of a contra-regular polygon.

Proof: $S_1 = S_{\frac{n+1}{2}}$ and $\text{arc } V_{2n,1} V_{2,3} =$

$\text{arc } V_{n,n+1} V_{n+2,n+3}$. But $\frac{\text{arc } V_{2n,1} V_{2,3}}{2} =$

$\text{arc } V_{2n,1} V_{1,2} = \text{arc } V_{1,2} V_{2,3} = \text{arc } V_{n,n+1}$

$V_{n+1,n+2} = \text{arc } V_{n+1,n+2} V_{n+2,n+3}$.

Hence, $s_1 = s_2 = s_{n+1} = s_{n+2}$.

(Equal arcs are subtended by equal chords.) Similarly, all other opposite sides of the polygon may be shown to be equal.

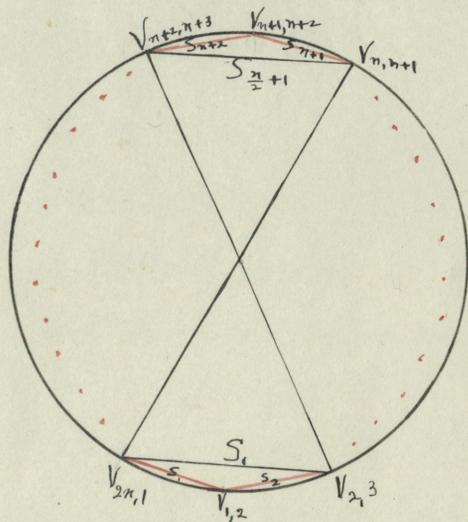


Fig. 1.

THEOREM 2. The area of a juxta-regular polygon which is based on a contra-regular polygon is

$$(s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + s_3 \sqrt{d^2 - s_3^2} + \dots + s_{n-1} \sqrt{d^2 - s_{n-1}^2}).$$

Proof: A juxta-regular polygon based on a contra-

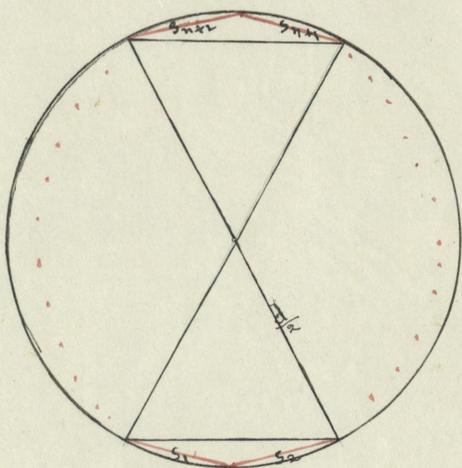


Fig. 2.

regular polygon is a contra-regular polygon. Hence, its area is

$$\frac{1}{2}(s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2\sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2} + \dots + s_n\sqrt{d^2 - s_n^2}).$$

But $s_1 = s_2$, $s_3 = s_4$, etc. Hence, the area of the polygon is

$$(s_1\sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_3\sqrt{d^2 - s_3^2} + s_5\sqrt{d^2 - s_5^2} + \dots + s_{n-1}\sqrt{d^2 - s_{n-1}^2}).$$

THEOREM 3. The number of sides possessed by a juxta-regular polygon based on either a contra-regular polygon or an altra-regular polygon must be divisible by four, and the least number of sides possible is eight.

Proof: It is possible for a contra-regular, altra-regular, or juxta-regular polygon to exist only when the polygon has $2n$ sides. If the contra-regular or altra-regular polygon used as a basis for the juxta-regular polygon has n sides where $n = 2k$, then the juxta-regular polygon has $4k$ sides. Since the basic polygon must have at least four sides in order to exist, the smallest number of sides which it is possible for the

juxta-regular polygon to have is eight.

THEOREM 4. The area of a juxta-regular polygon of $2n$ sides based on an altra-regular polygon is

$$\frac{n}{4} (s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}).$$

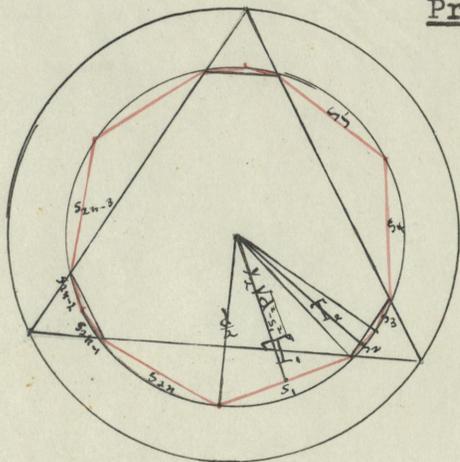


Fig. 3.

Proof: $s_{1n} = s_1 = s_4 = s_5 = s_8 = s_9 = \dots = s_{2n-4} = s_{2n-3}$,

and $s_2 = s_3 = s_6 = s_7 = \dots = s_{2n-2} = s_{2n-1}$.

(Equal arcs are subtended by equal chords.)

Therefore, the polygon

is composed of n isosceles tri-

angles of bases equal to s_1 , and

n triangles of bases equal to s_2 .

The area of $T_1 = \frac{1}{4} s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2}$ and of

$T_2 = \frac{1}{4} s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2}$. Hence, the total

area of the polygon is $\frac{n}{4} (s_1 \sqrt{d^2 - s_1^2} + s_2 \sqrt{d^2 - s_2^2})$.

COROLLARY. The area of a juxta-regular polygon based on an altra-regular polygon equals the area of an altra-regular polygon of the same number of sides and having its sides equal to those of the juxta-regular polygon.

THEOREM 5. In a juxta-regular polygon based on an altra-regular polygon, those vertices which are not also vertices of the basic polygon are the vertices of a regular polygon.

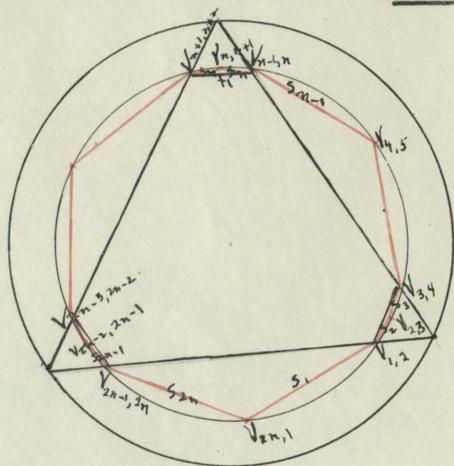


Fig. 4.

Proof: arc $V_{2n-1, 2n} V_{2n, 1} = \text{arc } V_{2n, 1} V_{1, 2} =$
 arc $V_{3, 4} V_{4, 5} = \text{arc } V_{4, 5} V_{5, 6}$ etc.
 and arc $V_{1, 2} V_{2, 3} = \text{arc } V_{2, 3} V_{3, 4} =$
 arc $V_{5, 6} V_{6, 7} = \dots =$
 arc $V_{2n-3, 2n-2} V_{2n-2, 2n-1}$. Hence,
 arc $(V_{2n-2, 2n-1} V_{2n-1, 2n} + V_{2n-1, 2n} V_{2n, 1}) =$
 arc $(V_{2n, 1} V_{1, 2} + V_{1, 2} V_{2, 3})$ etc.
 Hence, chords $V_{2n-2, 2n-1} V_{2n-1, 2n} = V_{2n, 1} V_{2, 3} =$
 $V_{2, 3} V_{4, 5}$ etc.

THEOREM 6. In a juxta-regular polygon based on an ultra-regular polygon, the lines joining opposite vertices which are not also vertices of the basic polygon, are diameters.

Proof: The juxta-regular polygon has $4k$ sides. Hence, the regular polygon (Theorem 5) has $2k$ sides, and opposite sides are equal, making it contra-regular. Therefore, the joins of the vertices of this regular polygon are diameters.

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