

# SOME EXTREME FORMS DEFINED IN TERMS OF ABELIAN GROUPS

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## 1. Introduction

Let  $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  be a positive definite quadratic form of determinant  $D$ , and let  $M$  be the minimum of  $f(\mathbf{x})$  for integral  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Then we set

$$(1.1) \quad \gamma_n(f) = M/D^{1/n}$$

and

$$(1.2) \quad \gamma_n = \max \gamma_n(f),$$

the maximum being over all positive forms  $f$  in  $n$  variables.  $f$  is said to be *extreme* if  $\gamma_n(f)$  is a local maximum for varying  $f$ , *absolutely extreme* if  $\gamma_n(f)$  is an absolute maximum, i.e. if  $\gamma_n(f) = \gamma_n$ .

It is well known that  $\gamma_n$  is of order  $n$  for large  $n$ ; in fact, by the classical results of Blichfeldt and Hlawka (see [3], Ch. II, § 6),

$$(1.3) \quad \frac{1}{2\pi e} \leq \liminf \frac{\gamma_n}{n} \leq \limsup \frac{\gamma_n}{n} \leq \frac{1}{\pi e}.$$

On the other hand, no one has yet constructed a sequence of forms for which  $\gamma_n(f)$  is unbounded, let alone of order  $n$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We have therefore thought it worthwhile to describe, in some detail, a new class of extreme forms yielding values  $\gamma_n(f)$  of order  $n^{\frac{1}{2}}$  for suitable large  $n$ .

More specifically, corresponding to each  $N = 2^n$  ( $n = 2, 3, \dots$ ) and to each sequence of integers  $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  satisfying

$$\lambda_0 = 0, \lambda_r - 1 \leq \lambda_{r-1} \leq \lambda_r \quad (1 \leq r \leq n),$$

we construct a positive  $N$ -variable form  $f_{(\lambda)}$ , which we show to be extreme in most cases. We prove also that, for each  $N$ , there is an  $f_{(\lambda)}$  satisfying  $\gamma_N(f) = (\frac{1}{2}N)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , whence

$$(1.4) \quad \gamma_N \geq (\frac{1}{2}N)^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{ for } N = 2^n, n \geq 2.$$

Our method of construction is based on the structure of the elementary Abelian group of order  $2^n$ .

Further investigation shows that by an elaboration of the method, or by using a similar method based on Abelian groups of exponent 3, (1.4) can be strengthened for large  $N$ . It should also be noted that (1.4) is precise for  $N = 4$  or 8, since  $\gamma_4 = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $\gamma_8 = 2$ , and that, for sufficiently small  $N$ , (1.4) is a considerable improvement on known results.

The general properties of forms and lattices which we require are collected in § 2. The forms  $f_{(\lambda)}$  and their lattices  $\mathcal{A}_{(\lambda)}$  are defined in § 3, the determinant  $D$  and minimum  $M$  are calculated and a criterion for the minimal vectors is given. In § 4, we prove that the  $f_{(\lambda)}$  are extreme (under suitable conditions) and investigate the equivalences between them. In § 5, we enumerate the minimal vectors. A table of the inequivalent extreme forms  $f_{(\lambda)}$  in 4, 8, 16 and 32 variables is given at the end of the paper.

## 2. Forms and lattices\*

A positive quadratic form  $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is said to have lattice  $\mathcal{A}$  if

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \xi' \xi,$$

where  $\xi$  runs through the points of  $\mathcal{A}$  when  $\mathbf{x}$  runs through all integral vectors; i.e. if

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}' A \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}' T' T \mathbf{x}$$

where  $\mathcal{A}$  is specified by

$$(2.1) \quad \xi = T \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{x} \text{ integral.}$$

Then  $D(f) = \det A = (\det T)^2 = d^2(\mathcal{A})$ .

Clearly, if  $f$  has lattice  $\mathcal{A}$ , it also has lattice  $R\mathcal{A}$ , where  $R$  is any orthogonal transformation. Also, equivalent forms correspond to the same lattice; for if  $U$  is an integral unimodular transformation, then  $T$  and  $TU$  define the same lattice and correspond to the equivalent forms  $\mathbf{x}' A \mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}' U' A U \mathbf{x}$ . It is thus easy to see that two forms  $f_1, f_2$  with lattices  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$  are equivalent if and only if  $\mathcal{A}_2 = R\mathcal{A}_1$  for some orthogonal transformation  $R$ .

We define the reciprocal lattice  $\mathcal{A}^{-1}$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  to be the set of points  $\boldsymbol{\eta} = T'^{-1} \mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$  integral, where  $\mathcal{A}$  is given by (2.1). Then  $d(\mathcal{A}^{-1})d(\mathcal{A}) = 1$ , and the corresponding quadratic forms  $\mathbf{x}' T' T \mathbf{x}$ , and  $\mathbf{x}' (T' T)^{-1} \mathbf{x}$  are reciprocal (i.e. have inverse matrices).

We shall be concerned in this paper only with forms whose lattices are sublattices of the integer lattice  $\Gamma$ . For these, it is convenient to define the notion of dual lattices modulo  $k$ .

Let  $k$  be a positive integer, and  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2$  lattices such that

$$k\Gamma \subset \mathcal{A}_1, \quad \mathcal{A}_2 \subset \Gamma.$$

\* For further general information we refer the reader to Coxeter's paper [2].

Then  $\Lambda_2$  is said to be the *dual* of  $\Lambda_1$  modulo  $k$  if it consists of those  $\mathbf{x} \in \Gamma$  satisfying

$$(2.2) \quad \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y} \equiv 0 \pmod{k} \text{ for all } \mathbf{y} \in \Lambda_1.$$

It is easy to see that in fact

$$(2.3) \quad \Lambda_2 = k\Lambda_1^{-1}.$$

For if  $\Lambda_1$  is defined by (2.1), i.e.  $\Lambda_1 = T\Gamma$ , then an integral  $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda_2$  if and only if

$$\mathbf{x}'T\mathbf{y} \equiv 0 \pmod{k} \text{ for all } \mathbf{y} \in \Gamma,$$

i.e. if and only if

$$(2.4) \quad T'\mathbf{x} \in k\Gamma.$$

Now since  $k\Gamma \subset \Lambda_1$ , the relation  $k\mathbf{u} = T\mathbf{x}$  has a solution  $\mathbf{x} \in \Gamma$  for every  $\mathbf{u} \in \Gamma$ , so that  $kT^{-1}$  is an integral matrix. Hence (2.4) is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{x} \in kT'^{-1}\Gamma = k\Lambda_1^{-1}$$

and (2.3) is established.

From (2.3), we see that the relation between  $\Lambda_1$  and  $\Lambda_2$  is symmetrical, so that also  $\Lambda_1$  is the dual of  $\Lambda_2$  modulo  $k$ ; and

$$d(\Lambda_1)d(\Lambda_2) = d(k\Gamma) = k^n.$$

Further, if  $f_1, f_2$  are the quadratic forms corresponding to the dual lattices  $\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2$ , then each of  $f_1, f_2$  is a multiple of the reciprocal of the other.

### 3. The Form $f_{(\lambda)}$ and its Lattice

Let  $V$  be the  $n$ -dimensional vector space over the Galois field  $GF(2)$ ; in terms of a basis  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_n$ , we may write the elements as  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \sum \alpha_i \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$  with coordinates  $\alpha_i$  which are integers taken modulo 2. The additive group of  $V$ , which we shall also denote by  $V$ , is the elementary Abelian group of order  $N = 2^n$ . We shall generally use group, rather than vector space, terminology; we shall, however, speak of cosets "of dimension  $r$ " or say that a given subgroup "has basis  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_2, \dots$ ". Subgroups and cosets of dimension  $r$  will be denoted generically by  $V_r$  and  $C_r$  respectively.

In  $N$ -dimensional Euclidean space we consider integral vectors  $\mathbf{x} = (x_\boldsymbol{\alpha})$  with coordinates  $x_\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  indexed by the  $N$  elements  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  of  $V$ . For symmetry of notation, we write  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$  for the scalar product  $\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y}$ .

If  $W$  is any subset of  $V$ ,  $[W]$  will denote the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  defined by

$$x_\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \boldsymbol{\alpha} \in W, \\ 0 & \text{if } \boldsymbol{\alpha} \notin W. \end{cases}$$

Let  $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  be integral exponents satisfying

$$(3.1) \quad \lambda_0 = 0, \lambda_r - 1 \leq \lambda_{r-1} \leq \lambda_r \text{ for } 1 \leq r \leq n.$$

We denote by  $\Lambda(\lambda) = \Lambda(\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$  the sublattice of  $\Gamma$  generated by all vectors  $2^{\lambda_n-r}[C_r]$ , where  $C_r$  runs over all cosets in  $V$ . Clearly

$$2^{\lambda_n}\Gamma \subset \Lambda(\lambda) \subset \Gamma.$$

We now define  $f_{(\lambda)}$  to be the  $N$ -dimensional form with lattice  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ , so that the values assumed by  $f_{(\lambda)}$  for integral values of its variables are those of

$$\mathbf{x}^2 = \sum_{\alpha \in V} x_{\alpha}^2 \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda).$$

(We may remark here that the apparently arbitrary restrictions (3.1) involve very little loss of generality. If  $\lambda_0 > 0$ , we may consider  $2^{-\lambda_0}\Lambda(\lambda)$ , which corresponds to a multiple of  $f_{(\lambda)}$ . Also if the exponents satisfy only  $0 \leq \lambda_r \leq r$  ( $0 \leq r \leq n$ ), it is not difficult to show that there exists a set  $(\lambda)$  defining the same lattice and satisfying (3.1), with the possible exception of the inequality  $\lambda_n - 1 \leq \lambda_{n-1}$ .)

The exponents  $\lambda'_r$  defined by

$$(3.2) \quad \lambda'_r = \lambda_n - \lambda_{n-r} \quad (0 \leq r \leq n)$$

are said to be dual to the exponents  $\lambda_r$ . It is evident that  $(\lambda')$  satisfies (3.1), that  $\lambda'_n = \lambda_n$ , and that  $(\lambda)$  is dual to  $(\lambda')$ .

We can now prove

**THEOREM 3.1.** (i)  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  and  $\Lambda(\lambda')$  are dual lattices modulo  $2^{\lambda_n}$ ;  $f_{(\lambda)}$  and  $f_{(\lambda')}$  are multiples of reciprocal forms.

(ii) Let  $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$  be any basis of  $V$ . Then a basis of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is given by the  $N$  vectors

$$(3.3) \quad 2^{\lambda_n-r}[V_r],$$

where  $V_r$  runs through the subgroups of  $V$  which have a subset of  $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$  as basis.

(iii) The determinants  $d(\lambda)$ ,  $D(\lambda)$  of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ ,  $f_{(\lambda)}$  are given by

$$(3.4) \quad \log_2 d(\lambda) = \sum_{r=0}^n \lambda_r \binom{n}{r},$$

$$(3.5) \quad \log_2 D(\lambda) = 2 \sum_{r=0}^n \lambda_r \binom{n}{r}.$$

**PROOF.** (a) We first show that

$$(3.6) \quad \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{\lambda_n}} \text{ if } \mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda), \mathbf{y} \in \Lambda(\lambda').$$

For this, it suffices to prove that for any cosets  $C_r, C'_s$

$$(3.7) \quad 2^{\lambda_n-r+\lambda'_{n-s}}[C_r] \cdot [C'_s] \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{\lambda_n}}.$$

Now if  $r + s \leq n$ , then

$$\lambda_{n-r} + \lambda'_{n-s} = \lambda_n + \lambda_{n-r} - \lambda_s \geq \lambda_n,$$

and (3.7) is trivial. If  $r + s > \dot{n}$ , then  $C_r \cap C'_s$  is either empty or a coset of dimension at least  $r + s - n$ ; in either case

$$[C_r] \cdot [C'_s] \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{r+s-n}}.$$

Since, by (3.1),  $\lambda_s - \lambda_{n-r} \leq s - (n - r)$ , we have

$$\lambda_{n-r} + \lambda'_{n-s} + r + s - n = \lambda_n + r + s - n - (\lambda_s - \lambda_{n-r}) \geq \lambda_n,$$

and (3.7) follows at once.

(b) With the notation of part (ii) of the theorem, let  $A_1(\lambda)$  be the lattice spanned by the  $N$  vectors (3.3). Then clearly

$$(3.8) \quad 2^{\lambda_n} \Gamma \subset A_1(\lambda) \subset A(\lambda).$$

Further, we show that

$$(3.9) \quad \log_2 d(A_1(\lambda)) = \sum_{r=0}^n \lambda_r \binom{n}{r}.$$

Since there are  $\binom{n}{r}$  vectors  $2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r]$  for each  $r$ , (3.9) will follow when we show that the set of all vectors  $[V_r]$  forms a basis of  $\Gamma$ . To see this, suppose the  $[V_r]$  ordered in such a way that the dimensions  $r$  do not decrease. Then, for each  $V_r$ , there is an  $\alpha \in V$  such that  $[\alpha]$  has coefficient 1 in  $[V_r]$  and coefficient 0 in any predecessor of  $[V_r]$ ; in fact, if  $\varepsilon_{i_1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{i_r}$  is a basis of  $V_r$ ,  $\alpha = \varepsilon_{i_1} + \dots + \varepsilon_{i_r}$  satisfies this requirement. Hence the  $N$  unit vectors  $[\alpha]$  ( $\alpha \in V$ ) are integral linear combinations of the  $[V_r]$ , whence the  $[V_r]$  form a basis of  $\Gamma$ , as required.

(c) Let  $A_1(\lambda')$  be defined as in (b) for the exponent set  $(\lambda')$ . By (3.9), the determinants  $d_1, d'_1$  of  $A_1(\lambda), A_1(\lambda')$  satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} \log_2 (d_1 d'_1) &= \sum_{r=0}^n \lambda_r \binom{n}{r} + \sum_{r=0}^n \lambda'_{n-r} \binom{n}{n-r} \\ &= \sum \lambda_n \binom{n}{r} \\ &= \lambda_n 2^n = \log_2 (2^{N\lambda_n}) \end{aligned}$$

whence

$$d_1 d'_1 = d(2^{\lambda_n} \Gamma).$$

From this, and (3.6), it follows that  $A_1(\lambda)$  and  $A_1(\lambda')$  are dual lattices modulo  $2^{\lambda_n}$ . But it also follows from (3.6) that  $A(\lambda)$  is contained in the dual of  $A_1(\lambda')$ , i.e. that  $A(\lambda) \subset A_1(\lambda)$ . It follows from (3.8) that therefore

$$A_1(\lambda) = A(\lambda).$$

All parts of the theorem now follow at once after identifying  $A(\lambda), A(\lambda')$  with the dual lattices  $A_1(\lambda), A_1(\lambda')$ .

As a corollary, we obtain

LEMMA 3.1.  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is the set of integral  $\mathbf{x}$  satisfying the system of congruences

$$(3.10) \quad \sum_{\alpha \in C_r} x_\alpha \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{\lambda_r}}$$

taken over all cosets  $C_r$  of  $V$ .

PROOF. By Theorem 2.1,  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is the dual, modulo  $2^{\lambda_n}$ , of  $\Lambda(\lambda')$ , which is generated by the vectors  $2^{\lambda'_{n-r}}[C_r]$ . Hence, from the definition of dual lattices,  $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda)$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} \in \Gamma$  and

$$2^{\lambda'_{n-r}}[C_r] \cdot \mathbf{x} \equiv 0 \pmod{2^{\lambda_n}} \quad (0 \leq r \leq n).$$

Since  $\lambda'_{n-r} = \lambda_n - \lambda_r$ , these are precisely the congruences (3.10).

LEMMA 3.2.  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is invariant under the following orthogonal transformations:

(i) the permutation of the coordinates  $x_\alpha$  induced by the transformation

$$(3.11) \quad \alpha \rightarrow \tau\alpha + \gamma$$

of  $V$ , where  $\tau$  is a non-singular matrix over  $GF(2)$  and  $\gamma$  is any fixed element of  $V$ ;

(ii) the involution

$$(3.12) \quad y_\alpha = \begin{cases} x_\alpha & \text{if } \alpha \in W, \\ -x_\alpha & \text{if } \alpha \notin W, \end{cases}$$

where  $W$  is any fixed subgroup of  $V$  of dimension  $n - 1$ .

PROOF. (i) The transformation (3.11) of  $V$  permutes the cosets of each dimension  $r$ , and so induces a permutation of the generators  $2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[C_r]$  of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ .

(ii) Suppose first that  $\mathbf{x} = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[C_r]$  for some coset  $C_r$ . Then  $C_r \cap W$  is either empty or a coset of dimension at least  $r - 1$ , and in each case it is easy to show that  $\mathbf{y}$ , defined by (3.12), is a point of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ . For if  $C_r \cap W$  is empty,  $\mathbf{y} = -\mathbf{x}$ ; if  $C_r \cap W = C_r$ ,  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$ ; and if  $C_r \cap W = C_{r-1}$  and say  $C_r = C_{r-1} \cup C'_{r-1}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y} &= 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[C_{r-1}] - 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[C'_{r-1}] \\ &= 2^{\lambda_{n-r+1}}[C_{r-1}] - 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[C_r] \\ &\in \Lambda(\lambda) \end{aligned}$$

since  $\lambda_{n-r} + 1 \geq \lambda_{n-r+1}$ .

Since  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is generated by the vectors  $2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[C_r]$ , it follows that  $\mathbf{y} \in \Lambda(\lambda)$  whenever  $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda)$ . Since the transformation (3.12) is involutory, the converse statement holds.  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is therefore invariant, as asserted.

Our final task in this section is to determine the minimum  $M$  of  $f(\lambda)$ , i.e. the minimum of  $\mathbf{x}^2$  for points  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ . We shall show that in fact

$M$  is the minimum of  $\mathbf{x}^2$  over the set of vectors  $2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[C_r]$  which we have selected to generate  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ .

For this purpose, it is convenient to define the special lattices  $\Lambda_s$  ( $0 \leq s \leq n$ ):  $\Lambda_s$  is the lattice  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  whose exponents are defined by

$$(3.13) \quad \lambda_r = 0 \text{ if } r \leq s; \lambda_r = 1 \text{ if } r > s.$$

LEMMA 3.3. *Suppose that  $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda_s$  and that not all  $x_\alpha$  are even. Then at least  $2^{n-s}$  coordinates  $x_\alpha$  are odd.*

PROOF. If  $s = n$ , the result is trivial; hence we may suppose that  $0 \leq s < n$ . We shall proceed by induction on  $n$ , the result being obvious when  $n = 1$ .

After applying a suitable transformation (3.11), we may suppose that  $x_0$  is odd. By (3.10), with  $r = n$ ,  $\lambda_n = 1$ , we have

$$\sum_{\alpha \in V} x_\alpha \equiv 0 \pmod{2},$$

so that some other coordinate  $x_\gamma$ , say, is odd. Choose an  $(n-1)$ -dimensional subgroup  $W$  of  $V$  so that  $\gamma \notin W$ , and let  $W'$  be the other coset of  $W$ .

Now since (3.10) holds a fortiori whenever  $C_r \subset W$ , induction on  $n$  shows that  $x_\alpha$  is odd for at least  $2^{(n-1)-s}$  indices  $\alpha$  in  $W$ . The same result also holds for  $W'$ ; for, by the transformation  $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha + \gamma$  of (3.11),  $W'$  is transformed into  $W$ ; and, under the induced permutation of the coordinates,  $x_\gamma$ , which is odd, is transformed into  $x_0$ . Thus the odd coordinates  $x_\alpha$  number at least  $2^{n-1-s} + 2^{n-1-s} = 2^{n-s}$ , as asserted.

Let us now define the *rank* of a point  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  to be the largest  $r$  ( $0 \leq r \leq n$ ) for which all coordinates  $x_\alpha$  are divisible by  $2^{\lambda_r}$ . We then have

THEOREM 3.2. *The minimum  $M$  of  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is given by*

$$(3.14) \quad \log_2 M = m = \min_r (n - r + 2\lambda_r).$$

*A point  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is a minimal vector  $f_{(\lambda)}$  if and only if it is of rank  $R$ , where*

$$(3.15) \quad n - R + 2\lambda_R = m,$$

*and, for some subset  $H$  of  $V$  containing  $2^{n-R}$  elements,*

$$(3.16) \quad |x_\alpha| = 2^{\lambda_R} \text{ if } \alpha \in H, \quad x_\alpha = 0 \text{ if } \alpha \notin H.$$

PROOF. Each generator  $\mathbf{x} = 2^{\lambda_r}[C_{n-r}]$  of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  satisfies

$$\mathbf{x}^2 = 2^{n-r+2\lambda_r},$$

so that certainly  $M \leq 2^m$ , where  $m$  is defined by (3.14).

On the other hand, let  $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda)$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , and suppose that  $\mathbf{x}$  has rank  $r$  ( $0 \leq r \leq n$ ); set  $\mathbf{y} = 2^{-\lambda_r} \mathbf{x}$ , so that  $\mathbf{y}$  is integral,  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

If now all  $y_\alpha$  are even, then, by the definition of rank, we must have

$r = n$ ; since  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , we therefore have

$$\mathbf{x}^2 = 2^{2\lambda_n} \mathbf{y}^2 \geq 4 \cdot 2^{2\lambda_n} > 2^m.$$

If however some  $y_\alpha$  is odd, we see that  $\mathbf{y} \in \Lambda_r$ . For, since

$$\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n), \mathbf{y} = 2^{-\lambda_r} \mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(0, \dots, 0, \lambda_{r+1} - \lambda_r, \dots, \lambda_n - \lambda_r);$$

we have  $\lambda_{r+1} > \lambda_r$ , by the definition of rank, and so  $\lambda_s - \lambda_r \geq 1$  for  $s > r$ ; hence a fortiori  $\mathbf{y} \in \Lambda(0, \dots, 0, 1, \dots, 1) = \Lambda_r$ . Now Lemma 3.3 shows that at least  $2^{n-r}$  coordinates  $y_\alpha$  are odd, whence

$$\mathbf{x}^2 = 2^{2\lambda_r} \mathbf{y}^2 \geq 2^{n-r+2\lambda_r} \geq 2^m.$$

This establishes (3.14). The argument shows that in fact  $\mathbf{x}^2 = M = 2^m$  precisely when  $\mathbf{x}$  has rank  $R$  satisfying (3.15) and the corresponding  $\mathbf{y} = 2^{-\lambda_R} \mathbf{x}$  has  $2^{n-R}$  coordinates  $\pm 1$  and the rest zero. The proof of the theorem is therefore complete.

#### 4. The Extreme Forms $f_{(\lambda)}$

Although Theorem 3.2 takes us some way towards a specification of the minimal vectors of  $f_{(\lambda)}$ , the complete picture is rather complicated. (We shall give more precise results in § 5.) However, we can easily write down a sufficiently large set of minimal vectors to enable us to establish the extreme forms  $f_{(\lambda)}$ .

We denote generically by  $R$  an index satisfying (3.15), so that there are certainly minimal vectors of rank  $R$ .

Let  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  denote the set of vectors

$$(4.1) \quad 2^{\lambda_R} [C_{n-R}], \quad 2^{\lambda_R} [C_{n-R-1}] - 2^{\lambda_R} [C'_{n-R-1}]$$

and their negatives, taken over all cosets of the indicated dimensions, where  $C_{n-R-1}$ ,  $C'_{n-R-1}$  denote distinct cosets of the same subgroup.

LEMMA 4.1. (i)  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  is a set of  $2^{n+1} K_{n,R}$  minimal vectors of  $f_{(\lambda)}$  of rank  $R$ , where

$$K_{n,R} = \frac{(2^n - 1)(2^{n-1} - 1) \dots (2^{n-R+1} - 1)}{(2^R - 1)(2^{R-1} - 1) \dots (2 - 1)}.$$

(ii) The group  $\mathfrak{G}$  of automorphs of  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is transitive on  $\mathfrak{M}_R$ .

PROOF. Let  $\mathfrak{G}'$  be the group generated by all the orthogonal transformations given in Lemma 3.2. Since these leave  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  invariant,  $\mathfrak{G}'$  is a subgroup of  $\mathfrak{G}$ .

It is now easy to see that  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  is precisely the set of vectors which are the transforms by  $\mathfrak{G}'$  of any one of them. For, by suitable choice of  $\tau$  and  $\gamma$  in (3.11), any coset may be mapped into any other coset of the same dimension; and, for fixed  $C_{n-R-1}$ ,  $C'_{n-R-1}$  with  $C_{n-R-1} \cup C'_{n-R-1} = C_{n-R}$ ,

the transformation (3.12) interchanges the two vectors (4.1) if  $W$  is suitably chosen.

Since  $2^{\lambda R}[C_{n-R}]$  is a generator of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ , all vectors of  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  belong to  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ ; and, by the criterion of Theorem 3.2, they are all minimal vectors of  $f_{(\lambda)}$ . The argument also establishes part (ii) of the lemma.

Finally, if  $V_{n-R}$  is any fixed subgroup, we have from (4.1) the 2 vectors  $\pm 2^{\lambda R}[V_{n-R}]$  and the  $2(2^{n-R}-1)$  vectors  $2^{\lambda R}[C_{n-R-1}] - 2^{\lambda R}[C'_{n-R-1}]$  obtained by splitting  $V_{n-R}$  in all ways into 2 cosets. This gives  $2^{n-R+1}$  vectors of  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  corresponding to each  $V_{n-R}$ . Since  $V_{n-R}$  has  $2^R$  distinct cosets, and  $V$  contains  $K_{n,R}$  subgroups  $V_{n-R}$ , the total number of vectors in  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  is  $2^{n+1}K_{n,R}$ , as asserted.

LEMMA 4.2. *If  $0 < R < n$ ,  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is perfect with respect to the set  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  of minimal vectors; i.e. if  $g(\mathbf{x})$  is any quadratic form satisfying*

$$(4.2) \quad g(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{M}_R,$$

then  $g(\mathbf{x}) \equiv 0$ .

PROOF. Suppose that (4.2) holds, where  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in V} b_{\alpha\beta} x_\alpha x_\beta$  ( $b_{\alpha\beta} = b_{\beta\alpha}$ ); we have to show that  $b_{\alpha\beta} = 0$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in V$ .

Inserting the vectors (4.1), with  $C_{n-R} = C_{n-R-1} \cup C'_{n-R-1}$ , we obtain

$$(4.3) \quad \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C_{n-R}} b_{\alpha\beta} = 0,$$

$$\sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C_{n-R-1}} b_{\alpha\beta} + \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C'_{n-R-1}} b_{\alpha\beta} - 2 \sum_{\substack{\alpha \in C_{n-R-1} \\ \beta \in C'_{n-R-1}}} b_{\alpha\beta} = 0,$$

whence, by addition,

$$(4.4) \quad \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C_{n-R-1}} b_{\alpha\beta} + \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C'_{n-R-1}} b_{\alpha\beta} = 0.$$

Applying (4.4) to each pair of 3 distinct cosets of a  $V_{n-R-1}$  (which is possible since  $n - R - 1 \leq n - 2$ ), we deduce that

$$\sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C_{n-R-1}} b_{\alpha\beta} = 0.$$

We now make the inductive assumption that the relations

$$(4.5) \quad \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C_{r+1}} b_{\alpha\beta} = 0,$$

$$(4.6) \quad \sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C_r} b_{\alpha\beta} = 0$$

hold, for some  $r$  with  $0 < r \leq n - 2$ , for any cosets  $C_{r+1}$ ,  $C_r$ , and prove that (4.6) holds for cosets of dimension  $r - 1$ .

Let  $V_{r-1}$  be a subgroup and  $C_{r-1} = V_{r-1} + \gamma_1$  any coset of it. Since  $r - 1 \leq n - 3$ ,  $V_{r-1}$  has at least  $2^3$  cosets; let  $C^i = V_{r+1} + \gamma_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, 6$ )

be 6 distinct cosets of  $V_{r-1}$  such that  $C^i \cup C^{i+1}$  ( $i = 1, 3, 5$ ) are 3 cosets of a subgroup  $V_r$ . We write (temporarily)

$$B_{ij} = \sum_{\substack{\alpha \in C^i \\ \beta \in C^j}} b_{\alpha\beta}.$$

From (4.6), with  $C_r = C^i \cup C^j$ , we have

$$(4.7) \quad B_{ii} + B_{jj} + 2B_{ij} = 0 \quad (1 \leq i < j \leq 6).$$

From (4.5), with  $C_{r+1} = \cup_{i=1}^4 C^i$ , we have

$$(4.8) \quad \sum_{i=1}^4 B_{ii} + 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq 4} B_{ij} = 0.$$

Adding (4.7) for all  $i, j$  with  $1 \leq i < j \leq 4$  and subtracting (4.8), we obtain

$$(4.9) \quad \sum_{i=1}^4 B_{ii} = 0.$$

Adding (4.7) for  $i, j = 1, 2$  and  $i, j = 3, 4$ , and subtracting (4.9), we obtain

$$B_{12} + B_{34} = 0.$$

From this, and the two similar relations  $B_{12} + B_{56} = 0$ ,  $B_{34} + B_{56} = 0$ , we deduce that  $B_{12} = 0$ ; hence, by (4.7),

$$B_{11} + B_{22} = 0.$$

From this and the two similar relations  $B_{11} + B_{33} = 0$ ,  $B_{22} + B_{33} = 0$ , we deduce that  $B_{11} = 0$ , i.e.

$$\sum_{\alpha, \beta \in C_{r-1}} b_{\alpha\beta} = 0,$$

as required.

Now we have shown that (4.5), (4.6) hold for  $r = n - R - 1$ , where  $0 \leq n - R - 1 \leq n - 2$ . Hence by induction, (4.5) and (4.6) hold for  $r = 0$ . Thus, for any distinct  $\alpha, \beta$ ,

$$b_{\alpha\alpha} + b_{\beta\beta} + 2b_{\alpha\beta} = 0, \quad b_{\alpha\alpha} = 0.$$

It follows that  $b_{\alpha\beta} = 0$  for all  $\alpha, \beta$ , and our proof is complete.

It is now easy to prove our main result:

**THEOREM 4.1.**  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is extreme if and only if it has minimal vectors of rank  $R$  for some  $R$  with  $0 < R < n$ , or is the 4-variable form  $f_{(0,1,1)}$ .

**PROOF.** (i) If  $R$  satisfies (3.15), with  $0 < R < n$ , we have exhibited a set  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  of minimal vectors such that (a) the group  $\mathfrak{G}$  of automorphs of  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is transitive on  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  (Lemma 4.1); and (b)  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is perfect with respect to  $\mathfrak{M}_R$ . Hence, by [1], theorem 4,  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is extreme.

(ii) If (3.15) holds only with  $R = 0$  or  $R = n$ , it may be shown that, when  $f_{(\lambda)} \neq f_{(0,1,1)}$ , the total number of minimal vectors of rank 0 or  $n$  is

$2^{n+1} = 2^{n+1}K_{n,0}$ . Thus  $f_{(\lambda)}$  has at most  $2^{n+1} = 2N$  pairs of minimal vectors. Since  $2N < \frac{1}{2}N(N+1)$  if  $N \geq 4$ ,  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is not perfect, and so not extreme, if  $N \geq 4$ ; and trivially  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is not perfect if  $N = 2$ .

Although the  $2^n$  choices of  $(\lambda)$  satisfying (3.1) yield  $2^n$  distinct forms  $f_{(\lambda)}$  for each  $n$ , most of which are extreme, these forms are not all inequivalent. The following two theorems appear to settle the problem of finding the inequivalent  $f_{(\lambda)}$ , at least for small  $N$ .

**THEOREM 4.2.** *For any set  $(\lambda)$  of exponents satisfying (3.1), define the conjugate set  $(\mu)$  by*

$$(4.10) \quad \mu_r = r + \lambda_{n-r} - \lambda_n.$$

Then  $(\mu)$  satisfies (3.1) and

$$(4.11) \quad 2^{-\mu_n} f_{(\mu)} \sim 2^{-\lambda_n} f_{(\lambda)}.$$

**PROOF.** From (4.10),

$$\mu_0 = 0, \quad \mu_r - \mu_{r-1} = 1 - (\lambda_{n-r+1} - \lambda_{n-r}) = 0 \text{ or } 1 \quad (1 \leq r \leq n)$$

so that  $(\mu)$  satisfies (3.1). It is also clear that  $(\lambda)$  is conjugate to  $(\mu)$ , i.e.  $\lambda_r = r + \mu_{n-r} - \mu_n$ .

Now let  $B: \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots, \varepsilon_n$  be any fixed basis of  $V$ , and define a scalar product on  $V$  by

$$\alpha \cdot \beta = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \beta_i \text{ if } \alpha = \sum \alpha_i \varepsilon_i, \beta = \sum \beta_i \varepsilon_i.$$

$\alpha \cdot \beta$  is thus an element of  $GF(2)$ , written as an integer modulo 2. We now consider the transformation

$$(4.12) \quad y_\alpha = 2^{-\lambda_n} \sum_{\beta \in V} (-1)^{\alpha \cdot \beta} x_\beta,$$

and we shall show that

$$(4.13) \quad y \in \Lambda(\mu) \text{ if } x \in \Lambda(\lambda),$$

$$(4.14) \quad 2^{-\mu_n} y^2 = 2^{-\lambda_n} x^2.$$

By Theorem 3.1(ii), a basis of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  is given by the vectors  $2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r]$ , where  $V_r$  runs through the subgroups of  $V$  having a subset of  $B$  as basis. Hence, to prove (4.13), it suffices to show that  $y \in \Lambda(\mu)$  if  $x = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r]$  ( $0 \leq r \leq n$ ). For each such  $V_r$ , let  $V'_{n-r}$  be the complementary subgroup of  $V$ ; i.e.  $V_r$  and  $V'_{n-r}$  have complementary subsets of  $B$  as basis. We then have

$$(4.15) \quad \sum_{\beta \in V_r} (-1)^{\alpha \cdot \beta} = \begin{cases} 2^r & \text{if } \alpha \in V'_{n-r}, \\ 0 & \text{if } \alpha \notin V'_{n-r}. \end{cases}$$

For if  $\alpha \in V'_{n-r}$ , then  $\alpha \cdot \beta = 0$  for all  $\beta \in V_r$ . If, however,  $\alpha \notin V'_{n-r}$ , then there is some  $\gamma \in V_r$  with  $\alpha \cdot \gamma = 1$ ; then

$$\sum_{\beta \in V_r} (-1)^{\alpha \cdot \beta} = \sum_{\beta \in V_r} (-1)^{\alpha \cdot (\beta + \gamma)} = - \sum_{\beta \in V_r} (-1)^{\alpha \cdot \beta} = 0.$$

If now  $x = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r]$ , (4.12) and (4.15) give

$$y_\alpha = 2^{-\lambda_n} \sum_{\beta \in V_r} (-1)^{\alpha \cdot \beta} 2^{\lambda_{n-r}} = \begin{cases} 2^{r+\lambda_{n-r}-\lambda_n} & \text{if } \alpha \in V'_{n-r}, \\ 0 & \text{if } \alpha \notin V'_{n-r}, \end{cases}$$

i.e.  $y = 2^{\mu_r}[V'_{n-r}]$ , which is a generator of  $\Lambda(\mu)$ . This proves (4.13).

To prove (4.14), we use the case  $r = n$ ,  $V_r = V$  of (4.15) to obtain

$$y^2 = \sum_{\alpha \in V} y_\alpha^2 = 2^{-2\lambda_n} \sum_{\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in V} (-1)^{\alpha \cdot (\beta + \gamma)} x_\beta x_\gamma = 2^{n-2\lambda_n} \sum_{\alpha \in V} x_\alpha^2,$$

whence (4.14) follows at once.

The desired equivalence (4.11) follows from (4.13), (4.14), on observing that, since the relations between  $(\lambda)$ ,  $(\mu)$  and between  $x$ ,  $y$  are symmetrical,  $y \in \Lambda(\mu)$  if and only if  $x \in \Lambda(\lambda)$ .

**THEOREM 4.3.** *For the exponent sets  $(\lambda)$ ,  $(\mu)$  given by*

$$(4.16) \quad \lambda_r = \left[ \frac{r}{2} \right] \quad (0 \leq r \leq n),$$

$$(4.17) \quad \mu_r = \left[ \frac{r+1}{2} \right] \quad (0 \leq r \leq n),$$

we have

$$f_{(\mu)} \sim 2f_{(\lambda)}$$

**PROOF.** Take any fixed subgroup  $W$  of dimension  $n - 1$  and any element  $\gamma \notin W$ , and consider the transformation defined by

$$(4.18) \quad \begin{aligned} y_\alpha &= x_\alpha + x_{\alpha+\gamma} \quad (\alpha \in W) \\ y_{\alpha+\gamma} &= x_\alpha - x_{\alpha+\gamma} \end{aligned}$$

Then clearly  $y^2 = 2x^2$ , and so the required equivalence will follow when we show that  $y \in \Lambda(\mu)$  if and only if  $x \in \Lambda(\lambda)$ .

Let  $V_r$  be any subgroup of  $V$  and  $x = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r] \in \Lambda(\lambda)$ . Then  $V_r \cap W$  is either  $V_r$  or a subgroup  $V_{r-1}$ ; we must now distinguish three cases.

(a) If  $V_r \subset W$ , (4.18) shows that  $y = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r] + 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r + \gamma]$ , i.e.  $y = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_{r+1}] = 2^{\mu_{n-r-1}}[V_{r+1}] \in \Lambda(\mu)$ .

(b) If  $V_r \cap W = V_{r-1}$  and  $V_r = V_{r-1} \cup (V_{r-1} + \gamma)$ , (4.18) gives

$$y = 2 \cdot 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_{r-1}] = 2^{\mu_{n-r+1}}[V_{r-1}] \in \Lambda(\mu).$$

(c) The remaining possibility is that  $V_r = V_{r-1} \cup (V_{r-1} + \beta)$ , where  $V_{r-1} \subset W$ ,  $V_{r-1} + \beta \subset W + \gamma$ , but the cosets  $V_{r-1} + \beta$ ,  $V_{r-1} + \gamma$  are distinct. Then observing that  $V_{r-1} + \beta + \gamma \subset W$ , we obtain from (4.18)

$$y = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}\{[V_{r-1}] + [V_{r-1} + \gamma] + [V_{r-1} + \beta + \gamma] - [V_{r-1} + \beta]\}.$$

With  $V_{r+1} = V_{r-1} \cup (V_{r-1} + \beta) \cup (V_{r-1} + \gamma) \cup (V_{r-1} + \beta + \gamma)$ , this gives

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_{r+1}] - 2 \cdot 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_{r-1} + \beta] \\ &= 2^{\mu_{n-r-1}}[V_{r+1}] - 2^{\mu_{n-r+1}}[V_{r-1} + \beta] \in \Lambda(\mu). \end{aligned}$$

We have therefore shown that, in all cases,  $y \in \Lambda(\mu)$  if  $x = 2^{\lambda_{n-r}}[V_r]$ ; since these vectors generate  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ , it follows that  $y \in \Lambda(\mu)$  if  $x \in \Lambda(\lambda)$ . A precisely similar argument, using the inverse transformation  $x_\alpha = \frac{1}{2}(y_\alpha + y_{\alpha+\gamma})$ ,  $x_{\alpha+\gamma} = \frac{1}{2}(y_\alpha - y_{\alpha+\gamma})$ , shows that conversely  $x \in \Lambda(\lambda)$  if  $y \in \Lambda(\mu)$ . This completes the proof of the theorem.

The particular interest of the (equivalent) exponent sets (4.16) and (4.17) is shown by:

**THEOREM 4.4.** *For each  $N = 2^n$  ( $n \geq 2$ ), the extreme form  $f_N$  whose exponents are given by (4.16) has*

$$(4.19) \quad \gamma_N(f_N) = \left(\frac{1}{2}N\right)^{\frac{1}{2}};$$

and this is the largest value of  $\gamma_N(f_{(\lambda)})$ .

**PROOF.** Since  $\gamma_N(f) = M/D^{1/N}$ , the values of  $M$  and  $D$  given in Theorems 3.1 and 3.2 show that

$$\begin{aligned} \log_2 \gamma_N(f_{(\lambda)}) &= m - \frac{2}{N} \sum_{r=0}^n \lambda_r \binom{n}{r} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}n - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=0}^n (n - r + 2\lambda_r - m) \binom{n}{r}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $m = \min(n - r + 2\lambda_r)$ , we have  $n - r + 2\lambda_r - m \geq 0$  for all  $r$ ; and the parity of  $n - r + 2\lambda_r - m$  is determined by the parity of  $r$ . It is thus easy to see that  $\gamma_N(f_{(\lambda)})$  is greatest when the expressions  $n - r + 2\lambda_r - m$  ( $r = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) take alternately the values 0 and 1; and the only exponent sets satisfying this condition are those given in (4.16) and (4.17). This shows that  $\gamma_N(f_N)$  is maximal, and a simple calculation now gives (4.19).

It is perhaps worth noting here that, by Theorem 3.1 (i), the reciprocal of  $f_{(\lambda)}$  is a multiple of  $f_{(\lambda')}$ , where  $\lambda'_r = \lambda_n - \lambda_{n-r}$  ( $0 \leq r \leq n$ ). For the exponent set (4.16) corresponding to  $f_N$ , it is easily verified that the dual set  $(\lambda')$  is either (4.16) or (4.17), according as  $n$  is odd or even; thus  $f_N$  is equivalent to (a multiple of) its reciprocal.

## 5. The Minimal Vectors of $f_{(\lambda)}$

For each  $R$  satisfying (3.15), we have exhibited a set  $\mathfrak{M}_R$  of  $2^{n+1}K_{n,R}$  minimal vectors of  $f_{(\lambda)}$ . Denoting by  $s_R$  the total number of pairs of minimal vectors of rank  $R$ , we therefore have certainly

$$(5.1) \quad 2s_R \geq 2^{n+1}K_{n,R}.$$

It is not difficult to obtain an upper bound for  $s_R$ , in the following way. First, the second part of theorem 3.2 may be sharpened to the statement that  $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda)$  is a minimal vector of rank  $R$  if and only if, for some coset  $C_{n-R}$ , we have

$$(5.2) \quad |x_\alpha| = 2^{\lambda_R} \text{ if } \alpha \in C_{n-R}, \quad x_\alpha = 0 \text{ otherwise.}$$

We may say that a minimal vector (5.2) has carrier  $C_{n-R}$ . By using the transformation (3.11), we see that the number of minimal vectors with carrier  $C_{n-R}$  is the same for all cosets of dimension  $n - R$ ; call this number  $N_R$ , so that

$$(5.3) \quad 2s_R = 2^R K_{n,R} N_R.$$

For a minimal vector (5.2) with carrier a subgroup  $V_{n-R}$ , set

$$(5.4) \quad x_\alpha = 2^{\lambda_R}(1 - 2z_\alpha) \text{ if } \alpha \in V_{n-R}, \quad x_\alpha = 0 \text{ otherwise,}$$

so that  $z_\alpha$  is defined on  $V_{n-R}$  and has the value 0 or 1. It may now be verified that  $\mathbf{x} \in \Lambda(\lambda)$  if and only if

$$(5.5) \quad \mathbf{z} \in \Lambda(0, 0, \lambda_{R+2} - \lambda_R - 1, \lambda_{R+3} - \lambda_R - 1, \dots, \lambda_n - \lambda_R - 1)$$

(a  $2^{n-R}$ -dimensional lattice), with each  $z_\alpha = 0$  or 1.

We must now distinguish the cases:  $\lambda_{R+2} = \lambda_R + 2$ ;  $\lambda_{R+2} = \lambda_R + 1$ .

(a) If  $\lambda_{R+2} = \lambda_R + 2$ , (5.5) implies that certainly

$$(5.6) \quad \mathbf{z} \in \Lambda(0, 0, 1, 1, \dots, 1), \quad z_\alpha = 0 \text{ or } 1;$$

the number of solutions of (5.6) is precisely the number of solutions in  $GF(2)$  of a set of equations of rank  $\binom{n-R}{2} + \dots + \binom{n-R}{n-R}$ , and nullity  $1 + \binom{n-R}{1}$ , i.e. it is  $2^{1+n-R}$ . Thus now

$$N_R \leq 2^{1+n-R}, \quad 2s_R \leq 2^{n+1} K_{n,R}.$$

This shows that the bound (5.1) is precise, i.e. that

$$2s_R = 2^{n+1} K_{n,R} \text{ if } \lambda_{R+2} = \lambda_R + 2.$$

The same result is easily seen to hold if  $\lambda_{R+2}$  is undefined, i.e. if  $R \geq n-1$ .

(b) If  $\lambda_{R+2} = \lambda_R + 1$ , then  $\lambda_{R+3} = \lambda_{R+2} + 1$  and (5.5) implies that

$$(5.7) \quad \mathbf{z} \in \Lambda(0, 0, 0, 1, 1, \dots, 1), \quad z_\alpha = 0 \text{ or } 1.$$

Arguing as above, we obtain

$$(5.8) \quad N_R \leq 2^{1 + \binom{n-R}{1} + \binom{n-R}{2}},$$

whence by (5.3)

$$(5.9) \quad 2s_R \leq 2^{n+1 + \binom{n-R}{2}} K_{n,R}.$$

By a deeper investigation into the case  $\lambda_{R+2} = \lambda_R + 1$ , based on the theory of  $(n - R)$ -dimensional quadratic forms over  $GF(2)$ , we have

established the precise result

$$(5.10) \quad 2s_R = 2^{n+1} K_{n,R} \sum_{0 \leq \delta \leq d} 2^{\delta(\delta-1)} \frac{(2^{n-R}-1)(2^{n-R-1}-1) \dots (2^{n-R-2\delta+1}-1)}{(4^\delta-1)(4^{\delta-1}-1) \dots (4-1)}$$

where  $d \geq 0$  is the largest integer such that there are minimal vectors of ranks  $R, R+2, R+4, \dots, R+2d$ ; alternatively expressed,  $d$  is the largest integer for which

$$(5.11) \quad \lambda_{R+i} = \lambda_R + \left\lceil \frac{i+1}{2} \right\rceil \text{ for } 0 \leq i \leq 2d.$$

From (5.10), or pursuing the direct argument which led to (5.9), it follows that the bound (5.9) is precise if (5.11) holds for all  $i \geq 0$ . In particular, for the form  $f_N$  whose exponents are given by (4.16) (or equivalently by (4.17)) we obtain

$$2s_R = 2^{n+1+\binom{n-R}{2}} K_{n,R} \text{ for all odd } R \leq n,$$

whence

$$s(f_N) = 2^n \sum_{R \text{ odd}} 2^{\binom{n-R}{2}} K_{n,R}.$$

## 6. Conclusion

Our analysis of the lattices  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  has yielded a large number of extreme forms  $f_{(\lambda)}$ , nearly all of which are new. The form  $f_{(0, \dots, 0, 1)}$  is the known form  $B_N$  of [2]. The special form  $f_N$ , corresponding to the exponent set  $\lambda_r = \lceil \frac{1}{2}r \rceil$  ( $0 \leq r \leq n$ ), is equivalent to the known absolutely extreme form when  $N = 4$  or  $N = 8$ , and may well be absolutely extreme for some larger  $N$ .

For all sufficiently large  $N$ ,  $f_N$  cannot be absolutely extreme, since  $\gamma_N(f_N)$  is of order  $N^{\frac{1}{2}}$  only. We can hope that, by methods similar to those used here, a sequence of forms can be constructed with larger values of  $\gamma_N(f)$  for large  $N$ . A preliminary investigation suggests the existence of such a sequence with  $\gamma_N(f)$  of order  $N^{2/3}$  whenever  $N = 2 \cdot 3^n$ .

We add finally some notes on further results which may be obtained from our analysis of the lattices  $\Lambda(\lambda)$ .

(i) By choosing suitable sublattices of  $\Lambda(\lambda)$  of lower dimension, it is possible to construct further forms with relatively large values of  $\gamma_N(f)$ . Thus the sublattice of  $\Lambda(0, 1, 1, 2)$  defined by

$$\sum_{\alpha \in V_3} x_\alpha = 0$$

gives a 7-variable form with  $\gamma_7(f) = 2^{8/7}$ ; since  $\gamma_7 = 2^{8/7}$ , this form is absolutely extreme. Similarly, the sublattice of  $\Lambda(0, 0, 1, 1, 2)$  defined by

$$\sum_{\alpha \in V_4} x_\alpha = 0$$

gives a 15-variable form with  $\gamma_{15}(f) = 2^{7/5}$ ; thus we obtain the new inequalities

$$\gamma_{15} \geq 2^{7/5}; \Delta_{15} \leq 2^{1/5}.$$

(ii) Many of our results will apply with very little modification to give upper bounds for the critical determinant of the  $N$ -dimensional convex body

$$K_\nu: \sum_{\alpha \in V} |x_\alpha|^\nu \leq 1 \quad (\nu \geq 1, V = V_n).$$

For example, for  $x \in \Delta(0, 1, 2, \dots, n)$ ,  $x \neq \mathbf{0}$ , we find that

$$\min \sum_{\alpha \in V} |x_\alpha| = 2^n = N;$$

thus, for the 'octahedron'  $K_1$ , we have

$$\Delta(K_1) \leq d(N^{-1} \Delta(0, 1, 2, \dots, n)) = N^{-N} 2^{\sum r \binom{n}{r}} = N^{-\frac{1}{2}N} \quad (N = 2^n).$$

This represents an improvement on known results for small  $N \geq 4$ .

We append a table of the distinct extreme forms  $f_{(\lambda)}$  for  $N = 4, 8, 16$  and  $32$ , giving the values of  $\log_2 M = m$ ;  $\log_2 D$ ; the number  $s$  of pairs of minimal vectors; and  $\log_2 \Delta$  (where  $\Delta = (2/M)^N D$ ). The values of  $\Delta$  for  $f_{(0,0,1)}$  and  $f_{(0,0,1,1)}$  show that they are the known absolutely extreme forms in 4 and 8 variables respectively. The italicized figures in the exponent sets  $(\lambda)$  are the  $\lambda_R$  for which there exist minimal vectors of rank  $R$ , i.e. for which  $n - R + 2\lambda_R = m$ .

$N$	$(\lambda)$	$\log_2 M$	$\log_2 D$	$s$	$\log_2 \Delta$
4	(0, 0, 1)	1	2	12	2
8	(0, 0, 0, 1)	1	2	56	2
	(0, 0, 1, 1)	2	8	120	0
16	(0, 0, 0, 0, 1)	1	2	240	2
	(0, 0, 0, 1, 1)	2	10	1,136	-6
	(0, 0, 0, 1, 2)	2	12	560	-4
	(0, 0, 1, 1, 2)	3	24	2,160	-8
	(0, 0, 1, 2, 2)	3	32	240	0
32	(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1)	1	2	992	2
	(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1)	2	12	9,952	-20
	(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 2)	2	14	4,960	-18
	(0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 2)	3	34	40,672	-30
	(0, 0, 0, 1, 2, 2)	3	44	4,960	-20
	(0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 2)	3	54	992	-10
	(0, 0, 1, 1, 2, 2)	4	64	73,440	-32
	(0, 0, 1, 2, 2, 2)	4	84	1,024	-12
	(0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 3)	4	96	992	0
	(0, 1, 1, 1, 2, 2)	4	74	9,952	-22

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### References

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