## On stability of periodic billiard orbits in polyhedra

Suppose a group $G$ is generated by elements $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$. Then any element $g \neq 1$ of $G$ is represented as a product $g_{1} g_{2} \ldots g_{k}$, where each $g_{i}$ is a generator $a_{j}$ or an inverse $a_{j}^{-1}$. The smallest $k$ that allows such a representation is called the length of $g$. The length of the unit element is set to 0 . Notice that the length depends on the set of generators.

The group $G$ generated by $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ is called a free group with $n$ generators $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right.$ are called free generators) if for any group $H$ and any $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n} \in H$ there exists a unique homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow H$ such that $f\left(a_{i}\right)=h_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$. A nontrivial element $g \in G$ is represented as $a_{i_{1}}^{m_{1}} a_{i_{2}}^{m_{2}} \ldots a_{i_{l}}^{m_{l}}$, where $l \geq 1,1 \leq i_{j} \leq n$ and $m_{j} \neq 0$ for $1 \leq j \leq l$, and $i_{j} \neq i_{j+1}$ for $1 \leq j<l$. The group $G$ is free if and only if such a representation is unique for any $g \neq 1$.

For any $\phi \in[0,2 \pi)$ let

$$
A_{\phi}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \phi & -\sin \phi & 0 \\
\sin \phi & \cos \phi & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad B_{\phi}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\
0 & \sin \phi & \cos \phi
\end{array}\right) .
$$

$A_{\phi}$ and $B_{\phi}$ are matrices of two rotations in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ by the angle $\phi$.
Proposition 1 For all but countably many angles $\phi \in[0,2 \pi)$, the subgroup of $S O(3)$ generated by $A_{\phi}$ and $B_{\phi}$ is a free group with two generators.

Proof. Let $G$ be a free group with two generators $a$ and $b$. For any $\phi \in[0,2 \pi)$ let $F_{\phi}: G \rightarrow S O(3)$ be the homomorphism such that $F_{\phi}(a)=A_{\phi}$, $F_{\phi}(b)=B_{\phi}$. We have to prove that $F_{\phi}$ is injective for all but countably many angles $\phi$. For any $g \in G$ let $F_{\phi}(g)=\left(c_{j k}[g](\phi)\right)_{1 \leq j, k \leq 3}$. Then $c_{j k}[g]$ are functions on $[0,2 \pi)$.

Let $n \geq 1$ be an integer. Recall that a trigonometric polynomial of degree $n$ is a function $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that $p(\phi)=\alpha_{0}+\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(\alpha_{k} \cos k \phi+\beta_{k} \sin k \phi\right)$ for some $\alpha_{k}, \beta_{k} \in \mathbb{C}$, where $\left(\alpha_{n}, \beta_{n}\right) \neq(0,0)$. A trigonometric polynomial of degree 0 is a constant function. The degree of a trigonometric polynomial $p$ is denoted by $\operatorname{deg} p$. Since $\cos k \phi=\left(e^{i k \phi}+e^{-i k \phi}\right) / 2, \sin k \phi=\left(e^{i k \phi}-e^{-i k \phi}\right) /(2 i)$, a function $p$ is a trigonometric polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$ if and only if $p(\phi)=\sum_{k=-n}^{n} \alpha_{k} e^{i k \phi}$ for some $\alpha_{k} \in \mathbb{C}$, where $\left(\alpha_{n}, \alpha_{-n}\right) \neq(0,0)$. Hence if $p$ and $q$ are trigonometric polynomials, then so are $p+q$ and $p q$. Moreover, $\operatorname{deg}(p+q) \leq \max (\operatorname{deg} p, \operatorname{deg} q), \operatorname{deg} p q \leq \operatorname{deg} p+\operatorname{deg} q$. If $\operatorname{deg} q<\operatorname{deg} p$ then $\operatorname{deg}(p+q)=\operatorname{deg} p$. It is possible that $\operatorname{deg} p q<\operatorname{deg} p+\operatorname{deg} q$, for example,
$(\cos \phi+i \sin \phi)(\cos \phi-i \sin \phi)=1$. However for any integers $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{l}>0$ the product $\cos m_{1} \phi \cos m_{2} \phi \ldots \cos m_{l} \phi$ is a trigonometric polynomial in $\phi$ of degree $m_{1}+\cdots+m_{l}$. Indeed, the equality $2 \cos m \phi \cos m^{\prime} \phi=\cos \left(m+m^{\prime}\right) \phi+$ $\cos \left(m-m^{\prime}\right) \phi$ implies $\cos m_{1} \phi \cos m_{2} \phi \ldots \cos m_{l} \phi-2^{1-l} \cos \left(m_{1}+\cdots+m_{l}\right) \phi$ is a trigonometric polynomial in $\phi$ of degree less than $m_{1}+\cdots+m_{l}$.

We claim that for any $g \in G$ the function $c_{22}[g]$ is a trigonometric polynomial of degree $|g|$, where $|g|$ is the length of $g$. It is easy to see that $c_{22}\left[a^{n}\right](\phi)=c_{22}\left[b^{n}\right](\phi)=\cos n \phi$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now suppose $g=g_{1}^{m_{1}} \ldots g_{l}^{m_{l}}$, where $l>1, m_{j} \neq 0$ for $1 \leq j \leq l,\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}\right\}=\{a, b\}, g_{j}=g_{1}$ if $j$ is odd and $g_{j}=g_{2}$ if $j$ is even. Then

$$
c_{22}[g]=\sum_{1 \leq j_{1}, \ldots, j_{l-1} \leq 3} c_{2 j_{1}}\left[g_{1}^{m_{1}}\right] c_{j_{1} j_{2}}\left[g_{2}^{m_{2}}\right] \ldots c_{j_{l-1} 2}\left[g_{l}^{m_{l}}\right] .
$$

It is easy to see that $c_{k s}\left[g_{j}^{m_{j}}\right]$ is a trigonometric polynomial of degree at most $\left|m_{j}\right|$. Therefore each summand in the above sum is a trigonometric polynomial of degree at most $\left|m_{1}\right|+\cdots+\left|m_{l}\right|=|g|$. Let $p=c_{22}\left[g_{1}^{m_{1}}\right] \ldots c_{22}\left[g_{l}^{m_{l}}\right]$. Clearly, $p(\phi)=\cos m_{1} \phi \ldots \cos m_{l} \phi$, hence $\operatorname{deg} p=|g|$. Consider a set of indices $j_{1}, \ldots, j_{l-1} \in\{1,2,3\}$ such that $j_{k} \neq 2$ for some $k$. It is no loss to assume that $j_{s}=2$ for $1 \leq s<k$. In the cases $g_{k}=a, j_{k}=3$ and $g_{k}=b$, $j_{k}=1$, we have $c_{2 j_{k}}\left[g_{k}^{m_{k}}\right]=0$. In the cases $g_{k}=a, j_{k}=1$ and $g_{k}=b$, $j_{k}=3$, we have $c_{j_{k} j_{k+1}}\left[g_{k+1}^{m_{k+1}}\right]=0$ or 1 (here $j_{k+1}=2$ if $k+1=l$ ). In any case $c_{2 j_{1}}\left[g_{1}^{m_{1}}\right] c_{j_{1} j_{2}}\left[g_{2}^{m_{2}}\right] \ldots c_{j_{l-1} 2}\left[g_{l}^{m_{l}}\right]$ is a trigonometric polynomial of degree less than $|g|$. It follows that $\operatorname{deg}\left(c_{22}[g]-p\right)<|g|$, hence $\operatorname{deg} c_{22}[g]=|g|$.

Let $g \in G, g \neq 1$. Then $|g| \geq 1$. Since $c_{22}[g]$ is a trigonometric polynomial of degree $n=|g|$, so is $c_{22}[g]-1$. It follows that $c_{22}[g](\phi)-1=e^{-i n \phi} P\left(e^{i \phi}\right)$, where $P$ is a nonzero polynomial of degree at most $2 n$. Therefore $c_{22}[g](\phi)=$ 1 for at most $2 n$ values of $\phi \in[0,2 \pi)$. Clearly, $F_{\phi}(g)=1$ only if $c_{22}[g](\phi)=1$. Hence for all but countably many angles $\phi \in[0,2 \pi)$ we have $F_{\phi}(g)=1$ only if $g=1$. The latter property implies $F_{\phi}$ is injective.

Lemma 2 Suppose $G$ is a free group with two generators $a$ and $b$. Then the subgroup of $G$ generated by elements $g_{k}=b^{k} a b^{-k}, 1 \leq k \leq n$, is a free group with $n$ generators.

Proof. Suppose $g=g_{i_{1}}^{m_{1}} g_{i_{2}}^{m_{2}} \ldots g_{i_{l}}^{m_{l}}$, where $l \geq 1,1 \leq i_{j} \leq n$ and $m_{j} \neq 0$ for $1 \leq j \leq l$, and $i_{j} \neq i_{j+1}$ for $1 \leq j<l$. We have to prove that $g \neq 1$. If $l=1$ then $g=b^{i_{1}} a^{m_{1}} b^{-i_{1}}$. Otherwise $g=b^{i_{1}} a^{m_{1}} b^{i_{2}-i_{1}} a^{m_{2}} \ldots b^{i_{l}-i_{l-1}} a^{m_{l}} b^{-i_{l}}$. Since none of the integers $i_{1}, i_{2}-i_{1}, \ldots, i_{l}-i_{l-1},-i_{l}$ and $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{l}$ is equal to zero, it follows that $g \neq 1$.

Suppose a group $G$ is generated by $n$ elements $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}$ of order 2 . The group $G$ is called the free product of $n$ groups of order 2 (we say that $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}$ freely generate $G$ ) if $G=\left\langle g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n} \mid g_{1}^{2}=\ldots=g_{n}^{2}=1\right\rangle$ or, equivalently, for any group $H$ and any elements $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n} \in H$ of order 2 there exists a unique homomorphism $f: G \rightarrow H$ such that $f\left(g_{i}\right)=h_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$. A nontrivial element $g \in G$ is represented as $g_{i_{1}} g_{i_{2}} \ldots g_{i_{l}}$, where $l \geq 1,1 \leq i_{j} \leq n$ for $1 \leq j \leq l$, and $i_{j} \neq i_{j+1}$ for $1 \leq j<l$. The group $G$ is freely generated by $n$ involutions if and only if such a representation is unique for any $g \neq 1$.

Lemma 3 Suppose $G$ is a group generated by $n \geq 2$ elements $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}$ of order 2. Then $G$ is freely generated by $n$ involutions if and only if elements $g_{1} g_{2}, g_{1} g_{3}, \ldots, g_{1} g_{n}$ generate a free group with $n-1$ generators.

Proof. Let $H$ denote the subgroup of $G$ generated by elements $h_{i}=g_{1} g_{i}$, $2 \leq i \leq n$. Consider an element $h=h_{i_{1}}^{\varepsilon_{1}} h_{i_{2}}^{\varepsilon_{2}} \ldots h_{i_{l}}^{\varepsilon_{l}}$, where $l \geq 1,2 \leq i_{j} \leq n$, $\varepsilon_{j}=1$ or -1 , and $\varepsilon_{j}=\varepsilon_{j+1}$ whenever $i_{j}=i_{j+1}$. Since $h_{i}=g_{1} g_{i}$ and $h_{i}^{-1}=g_{i} g_{1}$ for $2 \leq i \leq n$, we have $h=g_{0}^{\prime} g_{i_{1}} g_{1}^{\prime} \ldots g_{i} g_{l}^{\prime}$, where $g_{j}^{\prime}=g_{1}$ or 1 , $0 \leq j \leq l$. Moreover, $g_{j}^{\prime}=g_{1}$ whenever $\varepsilon_{j}=\varepsilon_{j+1}$. In particular, $h \neq 1$ if $G$ is freely generated by the involutions $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}$. It follows that $H$ is a free group with $n-1$ generators if $G$ is freely generated by $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}$.

Now suppose $H$ is the free group with free generators $h_{2}, \ldots, h_{n}$. To prove that $G$ is freely generated by $n$ involutions, it is sufficient to show that $g \neq 1$ whenever $g=g_{i_{1}} \ldots g_{i_{l}}$, where $l \geq 1,1 \leq i_{j} \leq n, i_{j} \neq i_{j+1}$. Note that $g_{i} g_{j}=h_{i}^{-1} h_{j}$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$, where by definition $h_{1}=1$. On the other hand, none of the elements $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n}$ belongs to $H$ as a free group has no elements of order 2 . Hence if $l$ is odd then $g \notin H$, in particular, $g \neq 1$. Consider the case when $l$ is even. Here $g=h_{i_{1}}^{-1} h_{i_{2}} \ldots h_{i_{l-1}}^{-1} h_{i_{l}} \in H$. It is easy to see that the length of $g$ in $H$ is equal to the number of indices $j \in\{1, \ldots, l\}$ such that $i_{j} \neq 1$. As this number is positive, $g \neq 1$.

A vector plane in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ is uniquely determined by the orthogonal straight line. Therefore the set of planes in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ is parametrized by the projective plane $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$. Recall that elements of $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ are one-dimensional subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, i.e., straight lines passing through the origin. For any straight line $\gamma \in$ $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ let $R[\gamma] \in O(3)$ be the matrix of the reflection of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ in the vector plane orthogonal to $\gamma$. Given $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n} \in \mathbb{R} P^{2}$, let $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right]$ denote the homomorphism of the group $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{* n}=\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \mid a_{1}^{2}=\ldots=a_{n}^{2}=1\right\rangle$ to $O(3)$ such that $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right]\left(a_{i}\right)=R\left[\gamma_{i}\right], 1 \leq i \leq n$.

Theorem 4 There exists a dense $G_{\delta}$-set $U_{n} \subset\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2}\right)^{n}$ such that for any $\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right) \in U_{n}$ the homomorphism $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right]$ is injective.

Proof. The case $n=1$ is trivial as $J[\gamma]$ is always injective. Consider the case $n>1$. Let $\gamma_{1}$ denote the $x$-axis in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. For any $\phi \in[0,2 \pi)$ the matrices $B_{\phi} A_{\phi} B_{\phi}^{-1}, B_{\phi}^{2} A_{\phi} B_{\phi}^{-2}, \ldots, B_{\phi}^{n-1} A_{\phi} B_{\phi}^{-(n-1)} \in S O(3)$ are matrices of rotations by $\phi$ about axes orthogonal to $\gamma_{1}$. It follows that there exist straight lines $\gamma_{2}, \ldots, \gamma_{n} \in \mathbb{R} P^{2}$ such that $B_{\phi}^{k-1} A_{\phi} B_{\phi}^{-(k-1)}=R\left[\gamma_{1}\right] R\left[\gamma_{k}\right]$ for $2 \leq k \leq n$. By Proposition 1, we can choose $\phi$ so that $A_{\phi}$ and $B_{\phi}$ generate a free subgroup of $S O(3)$ with two generators. Then Lemmas 2 and 3 imply that the subgroup of $O(3)$ generated by $R\left[\gamma_{1}\right], \ldots, R\left[\gamma_{n}\right]$ is freely generated by $n$ involutions. This means $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right]$ is an injective map.

Given $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{* k}$, let $U_{n}(g)$ denote the set of $\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right) \in\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2}\right)^{n}$ such that $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right](g) \neq 1$. Notice that $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ is an analytic manifold. For any $\gamma \in \mathbb{R} P^{2}$ the orthogonal reflection of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ in the vector plane orthogonal to $\gamma$ is given by the formula $v \mapsto v-2 \frac{\left(v, n_{\gamma}\right)}{\left(n_{\gamma}, n_{\gamma}\right)} n_{\gamma}$, where $(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the scalar product and $n_{\gamma}$ is a nonzero vector parallel to $\gamma$. The formula shows that $R[\gamma]$ is a real analytic matrix-valued function of $\gamma \in \mathbb{R} P^{2}$. Therefore $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right](g)$ is a real analytic matrix-valued function of $\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right) \in$ $\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2}\right)^{n}$. Since $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ is connected, it follows that $U_{n}(g)$ is an open set that is either dense in $\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2}\right)^{n}$ or empty. By the above $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right]$ is injective for some $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n} \in \mathbb{R} P^{2}$. This implies $U_{n}(g)$ is not empty for any $g \neq 1$. Hence $U_{n}=\bigcap_{g \neq 1} U_{n}(g)$ is a dense $G_{\delta}$-set. Obviously, $J\left[\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right]$ is injective for any $\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right) \in U_{n}$.

Let $\Pi$ be a polyhedron in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. A billiard orbit in $\Pi$ is a (finite or infinite) broken line $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots$ such that (i) each $x_{i}$ lies on the boundary of $\Pi$, moreover, $x_{i}$ is an interior point of a face unless it is an endpoint of the broken line, (ii) the interior of each segment $x_{i} x_{i+1}$ is contained in the interior of $\Pi$, and (iii) the unit vectors $\frac{x_{i+1}-x_{i}}{\left|x_{i+1}-x_{i}\right|}$ and $\frac{x_{i+2}-x_{i+1}}{\left|x_{i+2}-x_{i+1}\right|}$ are symmetric with respect to the orthogonal reflection in the face containing $x_{i+1}$. The latter condition (the reflection rule) means that a billiard orbit is a trajectory of a pointmass moving freely within $\Pi$ subject to elastic rebounds off the faces. One or both endpoints of a billiard orbit in $\Pi$ may lie on edges of $\Pi$. A billiard orbit is called singular if this is the case. Any finite nonsingular billiard orbit can be continued to a singular or infinite one. A finite billiard orbit $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$ is called periodic if $x_{n}=x_{0}$ and the infinite periodic broken line $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n} x_{1} \ldots x_{n} x_{1} \ldots$ is a billiard orbit.

Suppose that faces of the polyhedron are labelled by elements of a finite set $\mathcal{A}$. Then each nonsingular billiard orbit $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2} \ldots$ is assigned a code word $w=a_{1} a_{2} \ldots$, where $a_{i} \in \mathcal{A}$ labels the face containing $x_{i}$.

Suppose $\Pi_{1}$ and $\Pi_{2}$ are polyhedra in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Given $\varepsilon>0$, we say that a face
$f_{1}$ of $\Pi_{1}$ is $\varepsilon$-close to a face $f_{2}$ of $\Pi_{2}$ if the distance from any point of $f_{1}$ to $f_{2}$ is less than $\varepsilon$ and the distance from any point of $f_{2}$ to $f_{1}$ is less than $\varepsilon$. Note that $\varepsilon$-close faces need not have the same number of edges. Further, we say that the polyhedron $\Pi_{2}$ is an $\varepsilon$-perturbation of $\Pi_{1}$ if $\Pi_{2}$ have the same number of faces as $\Pi_{1}$, and each face of $\Pi_{2}$ is $\varepsilon$-close to a face of $\Pi_{1}$. Assume $\varepsilon$ is so small that distinct faces of $\Pi_{1}$ are not $2 \varepsilon$-close. Then $\varepsilon$-closeness provides a one-to-one correspondence between faces of $\Pi_{1}$ and $\Pi_{2}$. In particular, any labeling of faces of $\Pi_{1}$ induces a labeling of faces of $\Pi_{2}$. We shall say that a property of polyhedra can be achieved by an arbitrarily small perturbation of faces of a polyhedron $\Pi$ if for any $\varepsilon>0$ there exists an $\varepsilon$-perturbation of $\Pi$ with this property.

Lemma 5 Let $\Pi$ be a polyhedron in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ and $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{m}$ be faces of $\Pi$. Let $\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{m} \in \mathbb{R} P^{2}$ be straight lines such that $\gamma_{i}$ is orthogonal to $f_{i}$. Then for any $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ with the following property: given $\tilde{\gamma}_{1}, \ldots, \tilde{\gamma}_{m} \in$ $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ such that the angle between $\gamma_{i}$ and $\tilde{\gamma}_{i}$ is less than $\delta$, there exists an $\varepsilon$-perturbation $\widetilde{\Pi}$ of $\Pi$ such that each $\tilde{\gamma}_{i}$ is orthogonal to a face of $\widetilde{\Pi}$.

Let $\Pi$ be a polyhedron and $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$ be a finite nonsingular billiard orbit in $\Pi$. Given $\delta>0$, there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that any $\varepsilon$-perturbation of $\Pi$ admits a nonsingular billiard orbit $y_{0} y_{1} \ldots y_{n}$ such that $y_{i}$ and $x_{i}$ lie on $\varepsilon$-close faces and $\left|y_{i}-x_{i}\right|<\delta$. Assuming that faces of $\Pi$ are labelled and $\varepsilon$ is small enough, $y_{0} y_{1} \ldots y_{n}$ has the same code word as $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$. In the case $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$ is a periodic billiard orbit, we wish to know whether the billiard orbit $y_{0} y_{1} \ldots y_{n}$ can be chosen periodic too. The following theorem gives a partial answer to this question.

Theorem 6 Suppose there is a periodic billiard orbit with a code word $w$ in a polyhedron $\Pi$. Then there exists an arbitrarily small perturbation of faces of $\Pi$ such that the perturbed polyhedron admits at most one periodic billiard orbit with the code word $w$ if $w$ has even length, and no periodic billiard orbit with the code word $w$ if $w$ has odd length.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be the set whose elements label faces of $\Pi$. For any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ let $f_{a}$ denote the face with label $a$ and $S_{a}$ denote the orthogonal reflection of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ in the affine plane containing $f_{a}$. Let $w=a_{1} \ldots a_{n}$. Obviously, $a_{i} \neq a_{i+1}$ for $1 \leq i<n$, and $a_{n} \neq a_{1}$. Suppose $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$ is a nonsingular billiard orbit in $\Pi$ such that $x_{0} \in f_{a_{n}}$ and $x_{i} \in f_{a_{i}}, 1 \leq i \leq n$. We apply the socalled unfolding procedure to this orbit. Namely, consider polyhedra $\Pi_{0}=$ $\Pi, \Pi_{1}, \ldots, \Pi_{n}$ and affine orthogonal transformations $T_{0}=\mathrm{id}, T_{1}, \ldots, T_{n}$ such
that $\Pi_{i}=T_{i}(\Pi)(1 \leq i \leq n)$ and $\Pi_{i}$ is symmetric to $\Pi_{i-1}$ with respect to their common face $T_{i-1}\left(f_{a_{i}}\right)$. The polyhedra and the transformations are uniquely determined. By construction, $T_{i} T_{i-1}^{-1}=T_{i-1} S_{a_{i}} T_{i-1}^{-1}$. Hence $T_{i}=S_{a_{1}} S_{a_{2}} \ldots S_{a_{i}}, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Now let $x_{i}^{\prime}=T_{i}\left(x_{i}\right), 1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $x_{0} x_{1}^{\prime}=x_{0} x_{1} \subset \Pi$ and $x_{i}^{\prime} x_{i+1}^{\prime}=T_{i}\left(x_{i} x_{i+1}\right) \subset \Pi_{i}$ for $1 \leq i<n$. The reflection rule implies that segments $x_{0} x_{1}^{\prime}, x_{1}^{\prime} x_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{n-1}^{\prime} x_{n}^{\prime}$ form the single segment $x_{0} x_{n}^{\prime}$, which is called the unfolding of the billiard orbit $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$. Now suppose $x_{n}=x_{0}$. Then the vector $T_{n} x_{0}-x_{0}$ is of the same direction as $x_{1}-x_{0}$. It is easy to see that $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$ is a periodic billiard orbit if and only if the segment $T_{n}\left(x_{0} x_{1}\right)=x_{n}^{\prime} T_{n}\left(x_{1}\right) \subset \Pi_{n}$ continues $x_{0} x_{n}^{\prime}$. An equivalent condition is that $T_{n}\left(x_{1}\right)-T_{n}\left(x_{0}\right)=x_{1}-x_{0}$, i.e., the vector $x_{1}-x_{0}$ is invariant under the linear part $L$ of $T_{n}$. In particular, 1 has to be an eigenvalue of $L$.

Suppose $x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{n}$ and $y_{0} y_{1} \ldots y_{n}$ are distinct periodic billiard orbits in $\Pi$ with the code word $w$. Their unfoldings are $x_{0} T_{n}\left(x_{0}\right)$ and $y_{0} T_{n}\left(y_{0}\right)$. Since the two orbits are distinct, it follows that $y_{0} \neq x_{0}$. By the above vectors $T_{n}\left(x_{0}\right)-x_{0}$ and $T_{n}\left(y_{0}\right)-y_{0}$ are invariant under $L$. So is the vector $L v-v$, where $v=y_{0}-x_{0}$. Hence $(L-1)^{2} v=0$. Since $L$ is an orthogonal operator, we obtain $L v=v$. Note that $v$ is parallel to the face $f_{a_{n}}$ while $T_{n}\left(x_{0}\right)-x_{0}$ is not. This implies that 1 is a multiple eigenvalue of $L$.

For any $a \in \mathcal{A}$ let $\gamma_{a} \in \mathbb{R} P^{2}$ be the straight line orthogonal to the plane containing the face $f_{a}$. Then $R\left[\gamma_{a}\right]$ is the matrix of the linear part of $S_{a}$. Consequently, $M=R\left[\gamma_{a_{1}}\right] R\left[\gamma_{a_{2}}\right] \ldots R\left[\gamma_{a_{n}}\right]$ is the matrix of the linear part of $T_{n}$. Assume that the involutive matrices $R\left[\gamma_{a}\right], a \in \mathcal{A}$, freely generate a subgroup of $O(3)$. Since $a_{i} \neq a_{i+1}$ and $a_{n} \neq a_{1}$, it follows that $M \neq 1$ and $M^{2} \neq 1$. Hence if $n$ is even then 1 is a simple eigenvalue of the matrix $M$. If $n$ is odd then 1 is not an eigenvalue of $M$.

By Theorem 4 and Lemma 5, there exists an arbitrarily small perturbation of faces of $\Pi$ such that matrices of the linear parts of orthogonal reflections in faces of the perturbed polyhedron $\widetilde{\Pi}$ freely generate a subgroup of $O(3)$. It follows from the above that the polyhedron $\widetilde{\Pi}$ admits at most one periodic billiard orbit with any fixed code word of even length and no periodic billiard orbits with code words of odd length.

