Discrete Mathematics 91 (1991) 193-200 North-Holland 193

# **Rep-tiling for triangles**

Stephen L. Snover, Charles Waiveris and John K. Williams

University of Hartford, West Hartford, CT 06117, USA

Received 10 February 1989 Revised 21 November 1989

#### Abstract

Snover, S.L., C. Wavereis and J.K. Williams, Rep-tiling for triangles, Discrete Mathematics 91 (1991) 193–200.

In this paper we prove that one can only tile a triangle with tiles all congruent to each other and similar to the original triangle when  $k^2$ ,  $l^2 + k^2$ , or  $3k^2$  tiles are used. The result is based on the geometry of packing and a result of I. Niven's on rational trigonometric values. In addition we describe how to tile most triangles.

### Introduction

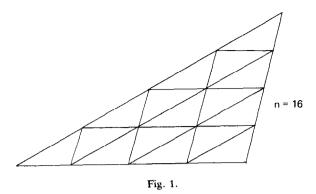
Golomb [2] introduced the notion of 'rep-tiling' in which a plane figure is partitioned into replicas of the original. In particular, we say that a triangle has been *n*-tiled if it can be partitioned into *n* pairwise congruent triangles each similar to the original. Of particular interest to us in Golomb's article was the statement that a triangle can be *n*-tiled if and only if *n* is in the form  $k^2$ ,  $k^2 + l^2$  or  $3k^2$ . In this paper we give a complete proof of Golomb's theorem and use the results from the proof to show exactly what the triangles that can be  $3k^2$  or  $(k^2 + l^2)$ -tiled must look like. We are grateful to the referee for pointing out the existence of a brief sketch of a proof published by Posner [4]. We begin by first restating the simple construction arguments that lead to  $k^2$ ,  $3k^2$ , and  $(k^2 + l^2)$ tilings.

## 1. Constructions

**Construction of a k^2-tiling.** Take any triangle and divide each of its sides into k pieces of equal length. Then draw the line segments joining the corresponding points as in Fig. 1.

0012-365X/91/\$03.50 (C) 1991 — Elsevier Science Publishers B.V. (North-Holland)

S.L. Snover et al.



**Construction of a 3k^2-tiling.** First 3-tile a 30-60-90 triangle as in Fig. 2. Then  $k^2$ -tile each of the three tiles.

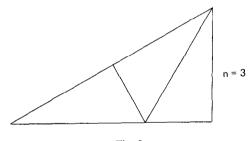


Fig. 2.

**Construction of a**  $(k^2 + l^2)$ -tiling. This construction is a bit more complicated than the previous two. Draw a right triangle with shorter sides of lengths k and l and draw the altitude to the hypotenuse as indicated in Fig. 3.

Now  $l^2$ -tile the triangle on the left and  $k^2$ -tile the triangle on the right. The area of a tile for the triangle on the left is:

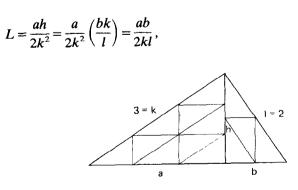


Fig. 3.

while the area of a tile for the triangle on the right is

$$R = \frac{bh}{2l^2} = \frac{b}{2l^2} \left(\frac{al}{k}\right) = \frac{ab}{2kl}$$

# 2. Main result

**Theorem** (the main result). There exists a triangle that can be n-tiled if and only if  $n = k^2$ ,  $n = k^2 + l^2$ , or  $n = 3k^2$ .

The proof of the if part of this implication was given in section one. For the only if part, the proof will consist of a result of I. Niven's on rational trigonometric values, two geometric lemmas, and the observation that if n is not a perfect square, 1 and  $\sqrt{n}$  are linearly independent over the rationals. First we need to set up some notation.

After scaling we may label the sides of the tiles 1, x, and y where  $1 \le x \le y$  and corresponding angles  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\delta$ , with  $\alpha \le \beta \le \delta$ . The large triangle will then have sides of length  $\sqrt{n}$ ,  $\sqrt{n}x$ , and  $\sqrt{n}y$  with the same angles (see Fig. 4).

If a triangle is tiled, each side of the large triangle must be packed with sides of the tiles. This leads to three linear equations:

$$a + bx + cy = \sqrt{n},\tag{1}$$

$$d + ex + fy = \sqrt{n} x, \tag{2}$$

$$g + hx + iy = \sqrt{n} y. \tag{3}$$

Here all the coefficients are nonnegative integers. We shall call these the packing equations.

The result of Niven we will need is the following [3, p. 41].

**Lemma 1.** If  $\alpha$  is a rational multiple of  $\pi$  and  $\cos(\alpha)$ ,  $\sin(\alpha)$  or  $\tan(\alpha)$  is rational, then  $\alpha$  is 0,  $\pi/6$ ,  $\pi/4$ , or  $\pi/3 \mod(\pi/2)$ .

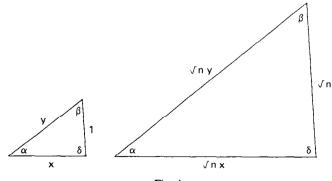
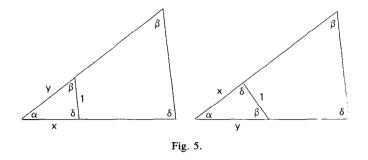


Fig. 4.

S.L. Snover et al.



The two geometric lemmas we need are the following.

**Lemma 2.** In the packing equations, either e and i are nonzero or f and h are nonzero.

**Lemma 3.** In the packing equations, if i = 0 then  $\delta = \pi/2$  or  $\delta = \beta$ .

**Proof of Lemma 2.** Since  $\alpha$  is the smallest angle, the  $\alpha$  angle in the large triangle can only be filled with the  $\alpha$  angle of a tile. That forces the tile to be placed in one of the two ways pictured in Fig. 5.

**Proof of Lemma 3.** If i = 0, then only sides of tiles of length 1 and x pack the side of length  $\sqrt{n} y$ . Therefore the  $\delta$  angle always touches the  $\sqrt{n} y$  side. Either  $\delta$ packs  $\alpha$ ,  $\delta$  packs  $\beta$ , or  $\delta$  meets  $\delta$  somewhere in between (see Fig. 6). If  $\delta$  packs  $\alpha$ , then  $\alpha = \beta = \delta$ . If  $\delta$  packs  $\beta$ , then  $\delta = \beta$ . If  $\delta$  meets  $\delta$ , then  $\delta + \delta + \theta = \pi$ where  $\theta$  is some combination of  $\delta$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$ . Use  $\alpha \le \beta \le \delta$  and  $\alpha + \beta + \delta = \pi$ (since they are angles of a triangle) along with the previous equation to obtain:  $\alpha - \theta = \delta - \beta \ge 0$ . But since  $\alpha$  is the smallest angle,  $\theta$  is either equal to  $\alpha$  or  $\theta$  is zero. If  $\theta = \alpha$ , then  $\delta = \beta$ . If  $\theta = 0$ , then  $\delta$  is  $\pi/2$ .  $\Box$ 

Now we will complete the proof of the main theorem in three steps found in Lemmas 4, 5, and 7.

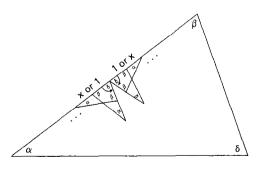


Fig. 6.

**Lemma 4.** If a triangle is n-tiled and x is rational, then  $n = k^2$  or  $n = k^2 + l^2$ .

**Proof of Lemma 4.** Assume that x is rational and n is not a perfect square. From the first two packing equations, if either c or f is zero,  $\sqrt{n}$  would be rational, hence n would be a perfect square. Therefore both c and f are not zero.

Use Equations (1) and (2) to eliminate y and obtain:

$$fa - cd + (fb - ec)x = \sqrt{n}(f - cx).$$

Since the left side is rational, the right side must be, too. Therefore, x = f/c. Plug x into equation (1) and solve for y to obtain:

$$y=-\frac{(ca+fb)}{c^2}+\frac{1}{c}\sqrt{n}.$$

Plug these values for x and y into Equation (3). Equating irrational parts then gives the following equation:

$$ci = -(ca + fb).$$

~

Since a, b, and i are non-negative and c and f are positive, i = a = b = 0. This makes  $y = (1/c)\sqrt{n}$ . From Lemma 3, i = 0 implies  $\delta = \pi/2$  or  $\delta = \beta$ . If  $\delta = \beta$ , then x = y. But since  $y = (1/c)\sqrt{n}$  and x is rational,  $\sqrt{n}$  is rational contradicting the assum<sub>1</sub> ion that n is not a perfect square. If  $\delta$  is  $\pi/2$ , then  $y^2 = x^2 + 1$ . This gives

$$\frac{n}{c^2} = \frac{f^2}{c^2} + 1$$
 or  $n = f^2 + c^2$ .

**Lemma 5.** If a triangle is n-tiled and y is rational, then  $n = k^2$  or  $n = 3k^2$ .

**Proof of Lemma 5.** Assume y is rational and n is not a perfect square. Repeating the argument in the proof of the previous lemma switching y with x and Equation (2) with Equation (3) yields the following information: b and h are not zero, a = c = e = 0,  $x = (1/b)\sqrt{n}$  and y = h/b. Now plug these values of x and y into equation (3). The rational part of this equation yields:

$$bg + ih = 0.$$

Since g and i are nonnegative and b and h are positive, g = i = 0. From Lemma 3, since i = 0 either  $\delta = \pi/2$  or  $\delta = \beta$ . If  $\delta = \beta$  then x = y and as before this contradicts the assumption that n is not a perfect square. Therefore  $\delta$  is  $\pi/2$ . Since i and g are zero, the  $\sqrt{n} y$  side is packed entirely with sides of tiles of length x. Therefore angle  $\beta$  in the large triangle must be packed entirely with  $\alpha$ 's. Since  $\delta$  is  $\pi/2$  and  $\beta$  is a multiple of  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$  must be a rational multiple of  $\pi$ . Also since  $\sin(\alpha)$  is 1/y,  $\sin(\alpha)$  is rational. Therefore by Lemma 1,  $\alpha = \pi/6$ . Hence  $x = \sqrt{3}$ .

Therefore

$$\sqrt{3} = \frac{1}{b}\sqrt{n}$$
 or  $n = 3b^2$ .

The last part of the proof of the theorem involves showing that when x and y are irrational, n must be a perfect squre. In order to do this we need to introduce some more notation. If n is not a perfect square then

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{n}) = \{w \colon w = u + v\sqrt{n}, u, v \text{ in } \mathbb{Q}\}$$

is an extension of the rationals with basis 1 and  $\sqrt{n}$ . Any number in  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{n})$  can then be written uniquely as  $u + v\sqrt{n}$  where u and v are rational numbers. We shall call u the rational part of w and denote it Ra(w) and v the irrational part of w and denote it Ir(w). Finally we shall denote the conjugate of w,  $u - v\sqrt{n}$ , as  $\bar{w}$ .

Observe that we may solve for x and y in Equations (1) and (2) in terms of the integers a through f and  $\sqrt{n}$ . Therefore x and y are in  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{n})$ .

**Lemma 6.** If  $\sqrt{n}$ , x, and y are irrational then either:

$$Ra(x) < 0, Ir(x) > 0, Ra(y) > 0, Ir(y) < 0, and Ir(\bar{x}y) < 0$$
$$Ra(x) > 0, Ir(x) < 0, Ra(y) < 0, Ir(y) > 0, and Ir(\bar{x}y) > 0.$$

or

**Proof of Lemma 6.** The rational part of Equation (1) is  $a + b \operatorname{Ra}(x) + c \operatorname{Ra}(y) = 0$ . Therefore either  $\operatorname{Ra}(x)$ ,  $\operatorname{Ra}(y)$ , or both are negative.

Assume that  $\operatorname{Ra}(x) < 0$ . Since x > 0,  $\operatorname{Ir}(x) > 0$ . The irrational part of Equation (2) is  $e \operatorname{Ir}(x) + f \operatorname{Ir}(y) = \operatorname{Ra}(x)$ . Since  $\operatorname{Ir}(x) > 0$  and  $\operatorname{Ra}(x) < 0$ ,  $\operatorname{Ir}(y) < 0$ . Again since y > 0 and  $\operatorname{Ir}(y) < 0$ ,  $\operatorname{Ra}(y) > 0$ .

Now since  $\operatorname{Ra}(x) < 0$  and  $\operatorname{Ir}(x) > 0$ ,  $\bar{x} < 0$ . Since  $\operatorname{Ra}(y) > 0$  and  $\operatorname{Ir}(y) < 0$ ,  $\bar{y} > 0$ . Therefore  $\bar{x}y < 0$  and  $x\bar{y} > 0$ . Putting these two together, we obtain:

 $2\sqrt{n}\operatorname{Ir}(\bar{x}y) = \bar{x}y - x\bar{y} < 0.$ 

The proof of the second case is obtained by switching y with x and substituting Equation (3) for Equation (2).  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 7.** If x and y are irrational then  $n = k^2$ .

**Proof of Lemma 7.** Assume *n* is not a perfect square. Using the packing equations, multiply Equation (2) by  $\bar{y}$  and equate irrational parts. This yields:

$$-d \operatorname{Ir}(y) + e \operatorname{Ir}(x\overline{y}) = \operatorname{Ra}(x\overline{y})$$

Now multiply Equation (3) by  $\bar{x}$  and equate the irrational parts. This yields:

$$-g \operatorname{Ir}(x) + i \operatorname{Ir}(\bar{x}y) = \operatorname{Ra}(\bar{x}y).$$

198

Now using the relationship  $\operatorname{Ra}(\bar{x}y) = \operatorname{Ra}(x\bar{y})$  and  $\operatorname{Ir}(\bar{x}y) = -\operatorname{Ir}(x\bar{y})$ , we can combine the two equations above to obtain:

$$-g \operatorname{Ir}(x) + d \operatorname{Ir}(y) + (e+i) \operatorname{Ir}(\bar{x}y) = 0.$$

From Lemma 6, g = d = e = i = 0.

Since d = e = 0,  $fy = \sqrt{n}x$ . Therefore  $f \operatorname{Ra}(y) = n \operatorname{Ir}(x)$  and  $f \operatorname{Ir}(y) = \operatorname{Ra}(x)$ . We may put these two equations together to yield:

 $f^2 \operatorname{Ra}(y)\operatorname{Ir}(y) = n \operatorname{Ra}(x)\operatorname{Ir}(x).$ 

Since i = 0, Lemma 3 gives  $\delta = \pi/2$  or  $\delta = \beta$ . If  $\delta = \beta$  then x = y contradicting Lemma 6. If  $\delta = \pi/2$  then  $y^2 = x^2 + 1$ . The irrational part of this equation yields:

 $2 \operatorname{Ra}(y) \operatorname{Ir}(y) = 2 \operatorname{Ra}(x) \operatorname{Ir}(x).$ 

Since both the rational and irrational parts of x and y are nonzero from Lemma 6, we may combine this equation with the previous equation giving  $n = f^2$ , contradicting the original assumption.  $\Box$ 

#### Conclusion

First note that our list of admissible integers does not exhaust the integers.

**Corollary 1.** The set of integers n for which there is no triangle which can be *n*-tiled is infinite.

The corollary follows by noting that our result shows that n is admissible only if n is the sum of three or fewer squares and then by applying Lagrange's four-square theorem. The latter includes the result that no integer of the form  $4^r(8s + 7)$  can be written as the sum of three or fewer squares [1, theorem 12-5]. Note that the set of non-admissible integers is larger than this and starts 6, 7,  $11, \ldots$ 

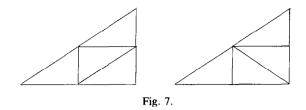
We can also draw a few conclusions from the last section on what the triangles for specific n-tilings look like.

**Corollary 2.** If a triangle is  $(k^2 + l^2)$ -tiled when  $k^2 + l^2$  is not a perfect square, then the triangle is a right triangle.

Note that there is a unique triangle for each pair of integers k and l. However, some integers can be written as the sum of squares of integers in several different ways. For example, 65 is  $1^2 + 8^2$  and  $7^2 + 4^2$ . Therefore there may be several right triangles that are *n*-tilable when  $n = k^2 + l^2$ .

**Corollary 3.** If a triangle is  $3k^2$ -tiled, then the triangle is a 30-60-90 triangle.

S.L. Snover et al.



We cannot say exactly what form a tiling may take. Actually there may be several ways to n-tile a triangle. Any right triangle may be 4-tiled in either of the two ways in Fig. 7.

This means that one could  $4^r$ -tile any right triangle by first 4-tiling it in either of the ways above and then 4-tiling each tile in either of the two ways above and so on.

The authors have found 117 ways to 12-tile a 30-60-90 triangle!

Finally, if we relax the condition that n-tiling requires congruent tiles and instead ask whether for any integer n there exists a triangle that can be tiled with n tiles all *similar* to the original, we find that indeed the answer is yes.

**Corollary 4.** For any integer *n*, there exists a triangle that can be tiled with *n* tiles each similar to the original triangle.

**Proof of Corollary 4.** By Lagrange's four-square theorem, we may represent any integer *n* as the sum of one, two, three or four squares [1, theorem 12-7]. The main theorem covers the first two cases. If  $n = j^2 + k^2 + l^2$  where *j*, *k*, and *l* are all nonzero, first 3-tile a 30-60-90 triangle and then  $j^2$ -tile the first tile,  $k^2$ -tile the second, and  $l^2$ -tile the third. If  $n = j^2 + k^2 + l^2 + m^2$  where *j*, *k*, *l*, and *m* are all nonzero, 4-tile any triangle and then  $j^2$ -tile the first tile,  $k^2$ -tile the second,  $l^2$ -tile the fourth.  $\Box$ 

#### References

- [1] D. Burton, Elementary Number Theory (Allyn and Bacon, Newton, MA, 1980).
- [2] S.W. Golomb, Replicating figures in the plane, Math. Gaz. 48 (1964) 403-412.
- [3] I. Niven, Irrational Numbers, The Carus Mathematical Monographs, No. 11 (The Mathematical Association of America, 1967).

200

<sup>[4]</sup> E.C. Posner, Replicating triangles, JPL Program Summary, No. 37–20, Vol. IV (April 1963) 97–98.