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Reflecting a Triangle in the Plane

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Abstract. We prove that if the three angles of a triangle T in the plane are different from (60°, 60°, 60°), (30°, 30°, 120°), (45°, 45°, 90°),(30°, 60°, 90°), then the set of vertices of those triangles which are obtained from T by repeating 'edge-reflection' is everywhere dense in the plane.

Introduction

An edge-reflection of a triangle T_1 is a triangle T_2 which is symmetric to T_1 with respect to the line determined by an edge of T_1 (see Fig. 1). By a chain of triangles we mean a sequence of triangles

 T_1, T_2, T_3, \dots

such that T_i ($i \ge 2$) is an edge-reflection of T_{i-1} , and $T_i \ne T_{i-2}$ for $i \ge 3$. Two triangles *ABC* and *PQR* are *equivalent* to each other if *ABC* = *PQR* or there is a finite chain of triangles T_1, \ldots, T_n such that $T_1 = ABC$ and $T_n = PQR$. This is clearly an equivalence relation.

Let us denote by Ω_{ABC} (or simply by Ω) the set of vertices of the triangles equivalent to a given triangle ABC. Figure 2 shows part of Ω for four types of triangles with angles

We are going to prove that except for the above four types of triangles, Ω is everywhere dense in the plane (Theorems 2 and 3).

The Angles of a Triangle

In this paper all angles are measured by degree (°). A triangle ABC is called *rational* if its three angles are all rational angles, otherwise, ABC is called *irrational*. It is obvious that if ABC is irrational, then at least two angles are irrational.

Fig. 2







(30°,60°,90°)

(60°,60°,60°)

(30°,30°,120°)









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Let α be a rational angle and m/n be the irreducible fraction equatl to $\alpha/180^{\circ}$. If *m* is even, then the angle α is called *even-type*, otherwise it is called *odd-type*. Further, an odd-type angle is called (odd/odd)-type or (odd/even)-type accordingly as the denominator of the irreducible fraction is odd or even. For example, 30° is (odd/even)-type and 60° is (odd/odd)-type. If 2α is odd-type, then clearly α is (odd/even)-type.

Theorem 1. Among the three angles α , β , γ of a rational triangle ABC:

(1) At least one angle is odd-type.

(2) The number of (odd/even)-type angles is $\neq 1$.

(3) The number of (odd/odd)-type angles is $\neq 2$.

Proof. First suppose that the three angles α , β , γ are all even-type. Then since $\alpha/180^{\circ} + \beta/180^{\circ} + \gamma/180^{\circ} = 1$, we have

even/odd + even/odd + even/odd = 1

which implies even + even + even = odd, a contradiction. Thus (1) follows.

Next, suppose that α is (odd/even)-type, but β , γ are not. Then, from $2\alpha/180^{\circ} + 2\beta/180^{\circ} + 2\gamma/180^{\circ} = 2$, we have

$$dd/n + even/odd + even/odd = 2$$

which implies odd = $n \cdot \text{even}$, a contradiction. Thus (2) follows.

Finally, suppose α , β are (odd/odd)-type, but γ is even-type. Then we have

odd/odd + odd/odd + even/odd = 1

which implies that even = odd + odd + odd, a contradiction. Thus (3) follows.

Corollary 1. In a rational triangle ABC, one of the following three cases occurs:

- (1) Two or three angles are (odd/even)-type.
- (2) One angle is (odd/odd)-type, and the other two are even-type.

(3) Three angles are (odd/odd)-type.

Rational Triangles

Lemma 1. Let ABC be a rational triangle. Let AB'C' be the triangle symmetric to ABC with respect to the point A, and let AB''C'' be the triangle symmetric to AB'C' with respect to the bisector of the angle $\angle A = \alpha$ (see Fig. 3):

(1) If α is (odd/even)-type, then AB'C' is equivalent to ABC.

(2) If α is (odd/odd)-type, then AB''C'' is equivalent to ABC.

(3) If α is even-type, then AB''C'' is equivalent to AB'C'.

Proof. Suppose α is (odd/even)-type, i.e., $\alpha/180^{\circ} = (2m + 1)/(2n)$. Then $2n\alpha = (2m + 1)180^{\circ} \equiv 180^{\circ} \pmod{360^{\circ}}$. Hence, in a chain of triangles

$$ABC, ABC_1, AB_1C_1, AB_1C_2, AB_2C_2, \ldots, AB_nC_n$$



Fig. 3

with common vertex A (Fig. 3), the last triangle AB_nC_n will coincide with AB'C' or AB''C''. However, since an even number of edge-reflections results in a congruent triangle of the same 'sense', we must have $AB_nC_n = AB'C'$. This proves (1). Similarly, we can get (2) (3).

If $\theta = 60^{\circ}$, 90°, 120°, or 180°, then $\cos \theta = 1/2$, 0, -1/2, or -1. And it is well known that if $|\cos \theta|$ is a rational number other than 0, 1, 1/2, then θ is irrational (see, e.g., Hadwiger-Debrunner [1], problem 8).

Lemma 2. Let θ (0° < $\theta \le 180^{\circ}$) be a rational angle. Then $\cos \theta$ is a rational number if and only if $\theta = 60^{\circ}$, 90°, 120°, or 180°.

Lemma 3. For a given angle α and a real number r > 0, let $\Lambda(r, \alpha)$ denote the set of all points represented by linear combinations of plane-vectors

 $(r \cdot \cos k\alpha, r \cdot \sin k\alpha), \qquad k = -1, 0, 1, 2,$

with integral coefficients. If $\cos \alpha$ is irrational, then $\Lambda(r, \alpha)$ is everywhere dense in the plane.

Proof. Suppose that $\lambda := 2 \cos \alpha$ is irrational. Since

 $(r \cdot \cos \alpha, r \cdot \sin \alpha) + (r \cdot \cos(-\alpha), r \cdot \sin(-\alpha)) = (\lambda r, 0)$

 $\Lambda(r, \alpha)$ contains

$${m(\lambda r, 0) + n(r, 0): m, n \in Z}$$

Hence the closure $\overline{\Lambda}(r, \alpha)$ of $\Lambda(r, \alpha)$ contains the x-axis. Similarly, $\overline{\Lambda}(r, \alpha)$ contains the line determined by the vector ($\cos \alpha, \sin \alpha$). Further, since $\Lambda(r, \alpha)$ is closed under the addition, we have the lemma.

In the rest of this section, let ABC be a rational triangle with vertex A at the

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origin. We use the same notation $\Lambda(r, \alpha)$ as in Lemma 3. The angles and edges of the triangle ABC are denoted by α , β , γ and a, b, c, as usual.

Lemma 4. If α , β are (odd/even)-type, then Ω contains $\Lambda(2c, 2\alpha)$. Hence, if $\alpha \neq 30^{\circ}$, 45°, 90°, then Ω is dense in the plane.

Proof. From Lemma 1(1) and Fig. 4, it follows that Ω contains $\Lambda(2c, 2\alpha)$. The latter part follows from Lemmas 2, 3 and $\alpha \neq 60^{\circ}$.



Fig. 4

Lemma 5. If α , β , γ are all (odd/odd)-type, then Ω contains $\Lambda(a + b + c, \alpha)$. Hence, if $\alpha \neq 60^{\circ}$, then Ω is dense in the plane.

Proof. From Lemma 1(2) and Fig. 5, Ω contains $\Lambda(a + b + c, \alpha)$. The latter part follows from Lemmas 2, 3.

Lemma 6. If α , β are even-type and γ is (odd/odd)-type, then Ω contains $\Lambda(a + b - c, \alpha)$. Hence Ω is dense in the plane.

Proof. From Lemma 1(2), (3) and Fig. 6, Ω contains $\Lambda(a + b - c, \alpha)$. Since one of α , β is less than 120°, the latter part follows from Lemmas 2,3.

Theorem 2. Let ABC be a rational triangle with angles $\alpha \leq \beta \leq \gamma$. If

$$(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \neq (60^{\circ}, 60^{\circ}, 60^{\circ}), \qquad (30^{\circ}, 30^{\circ}, 120^{\circ})$$

 $(45^{\circ}, 45^{\circ}, 90^{\circ}), \qquad (30^{\circ}, 60^{\circ}, 90^{\circ})$

then Ω_{ABC} is everywhere dense in the plane.



Fig. 5



Fig. 6

Proof. Let us consider the three cases (1), (2), and (3) of Corollary 1.

Case (1). If *ABC* has two (odd/even)-type angles different from 30°, 45°, 90°, then Ω is dense in the plane by Lemma 4. If the two angles are 30°, 45°, then the third angle is 105°, which is (odd/even)-type. Hence, unless (α, β, γ) = (30°, 30°, 120°), (45°, 45°, 90°), Ω is dense in this case.

Case (2). If ABC has one (odd/odd)-type angle and two even-type angles then Ω is dense in the plane by Lemma 6.

Case (3). If *ABC* has three (odd/odd)-type angles, and *ABC* is not equilateral, then Ω is dense in the plane by Lemma 5.

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Irrational Triangles

The following lemma will be obvious.

Lemma 7. Let

 $PQR, PQR_1, PQ_1R_1, PQ_1R_2, PQ_2R_2, \dots$

be an infinite chain of triangles with common vertex P. Then:

(1) for any point $X \neq P$, there exists an n such that

 $\min(\angle XPQ_n, \angle XPR_n) \le 60^\circ$

and

(2) if $\angle QPR$ is irrational, then the closures of the sets

 $\{Q, Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, \ldots\}$ and $\{R, R_1, R_2, R_3, \ldots\}$

are concentric circles with center P.

Lemma 8. For any irrational triangle PQR and a point $Y \neq P$, there is a triangle PUV equivalent to PQR with irrational angle $\angle U$ and $30^{\circ} \leq \angle YPU \leq 150^{\circ}$.

Proof. Note that an irrational triangle has at least two irrational angles. Hence, if $\angle QPR$ is irrational then the lemma follows from Lemma 7(2). In the case $\angle P$ rational, the two angles $\angle Q$, $\angle R$ are both irrational, whence, applying Lemma 7(1) for a point X such that $\angle XPY = 90^\circ$, we have the lemma.

Theorem 3. If ABC is an irrational triangle, then Ω_{ABC} is everywhere dense in the plane.

Proof. Suppose there is a point Y in the plane for which

$$d := \inf\{|Y - W| \colon W \in \Omega\}$$

is positive. Then for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a triangle PQR which is equivalent to ABC and

$$|P-Y| < d + \varepsilon.$$

By Lemma 8, we may always suppose that $\angle Q$ is irrational and $30^{\circ} \le \angle YPQ \le 150^{\circ}$. Hence, if ε is sufficiently small, the circle with center Q and radius PQ cuts the circle with center Y and radius d. Therefore, by Lemma 7(2), there is a point P' of Ω with distance < d from Y, a contradiction.

Remarks

Remark 1. For a triangle T = ABC, let $\Phi(T)$ denote the set of triangles obtained from T by repeated reflections. Describing a triangle $T' \in \Phi(T)$ by its vertex $A' \in R^2$, the angle of side A'B' and x-axis, and its orientation, we can identify $\Phi(T)$ with a set in $R^2 \times [0, 360) \times \{-1, 1\}$. Our result asserts that except for the four exceptional cases, the canonical projection of $\Phi(T)$ into R^2 is everywhere dense in R^2 . The same proof gives the following: If T is irrational, then $\Phi(T)$ is everywhere dense in $\mathbb{R}^2 \times [0, 360) \times \{-1, 1\}$. If T is rational, then the canonical projection of $\Phi(T)$ onto [0, 360) takes only finitely many values, say $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$. Further, except for the four exceptional cases, $\Phi(T) \cap (\mathbb{R}^2 \times \{\alpha_i\} \times \{-1, 1\})$ is everywhere dense in $\mathbb{R}^2 \times \{\alpha_i\} \times \{-1, 1\}$ for every *i*.

Remark 2. In [2], Laczkovich studied the problem of tiling polygons with similar triangles. A triangle T is said to tile the polygon P, if P can be decomposed into finitely many non-overlapping triangles similar to T. Among others, he proved that, except right triangles, only three types of triangles with angles

(22.5°, 45°, 112.5°), (45°, 60°, 75°) or (15°, 45°, 120°)

can tile the square. Further, among *rational* right triangles, only two types of triangles with angles $(45^\circ, 45^\circ, 90^\circ)$, $(15^\circ, 75^\circ, 90^\circ)$ can tile the square.

Remark 3. A sequence of (at least two) congruent regular tetrahedra in R^3 is called a *tetrahedral snake* if two consecutive tetrahedra share exactly one face, and every three consecutive tetrahedra are distinct. In 1956, Steinhaus posed the question: In a tetrahedral snake of finite length, can the last tetrahedron be a translation of the first one? This problem was solved negatively by Swierczkowski (see Wagon [4], p. 68).

It was proved in [3] that the set of those points which are obtained as the vertices of tetrahedra in tetrahedral snakes starting from a fixed regular tetrahedron is everywhere dense in the space. Analogous results hold in any dimension $n \ge 3$.

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