# Self-similar Simplices

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**Abstract.** A Euclidean d-simplex S is called k-self-similar if S can be dissected into  $k \geq 2$  simplices, each similar to S. Each triangle (d = 2) is k-self-similar for k = 4 and  $k \geq 6$  whereas for d > 2 most d-simplices are not self-similar. A first class of 3-simplices which are  $m^3$ -self-similar for all positive integers m is characterized.

#### 1. Introduction

The concept of self-similarity comes from fractal geometry, cf. [2]. Let  $\varphi_i$  be similarities of the Euclidean d-space  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , i.e.

$$\bigwedge_{x,y \in \mathbb{R}^d} \left( |\varphi_i(x) - \varphi_i(y)| = \lambda_i |x - y| \right)$$

where  $0 < \lambda_i < 1$  (i = 1, ..., k). Then a subset  $\mathcal{M}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is called k-self-similar  $(k \geq 2)$  if  $\mathcal{M}$  is invariant under  $\varphi_1, ..., \varphi_k$ , i.e. if

$$\mathcal{M} = \bigcup_{i=1}^k \varphi_i(\mathcal{M}).$$

We look for k-self-similar d-simplices. A d-simplex S is the convex hull of d+1 affinely independent points  $p_0, \ldots, p_d \in \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$S = \text{conv}\{p_0, \dots, p_d\} := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : x = \sum_{i=0}^d \lambda_i p_i \land \sum_{i=0}^d \lambda_i = 1 \land \lambda_i \ge 0 \ (i = 0, \dots, d)\}$$

(we don't distinguish points and vectors in notation). Thus, the set  $\operatorname{vert}(\mathcal{S}) := \{p_0, \ldots, p_d\}$  is the set of vertices of  $\mathcal{S}$ . Another way of specifying a d-simplex will be useful, namely

$$\mathcal{S} = \langle p_0; a_1, \dots, a_d \rangle = \{ x : x = p_0 + \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i a_i \land 1 \ge \lambda_1 \ge \dots \ge \lambda_d \ge 0 \},$$

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where  $a_i := p_i - p_{i-1}$  (i = 1, ..., d) denote the edges (edge-vectors) of a maximal simple edge path beginning in the vertex  $p_0$  (cf. Figure 1).

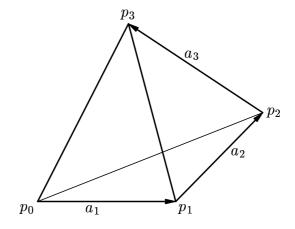


Figure 1

Furthermore, we say a set S is dissected or S admits a dissection into sets  $S_1, \ldots, S_k$ 

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^{k} S_i \quad :\iff \quad S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} S_i \quad \land \quad \operatorname{int}(S_i \cap S_l) = \emptyset \ (i \neq l). \tag{1}$$

#### 2. General k-self-similarity

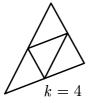
Now, we define the (general) self-similarity of simplices in a slightly more special manner than above:

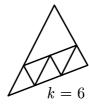
**Definition 1.** A d-simplex S is called k-self-similar if S admits a dissection into  $k \geq 2$  simplices, each similar to S.

For d=2 one has a complete classification of self-similar simplices (triangles), cf. [3, 6]:

**Proposition 1.** a) Each triangle is k-self-similar with k = 4 and  $k \ge 6$ .

- b) A triangle S is 2-self-similar if and only if S is a right triangle.
- c) A triangle S is 3-self-similar if and only if S is a right triangle.
- d) A triangle S is 5-self-similar if and only if S is a right triangle or S has angles of size  $\frac{2\pi}{3}$  and  $\frac{\pi}{6}$ .





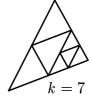


Figure 2

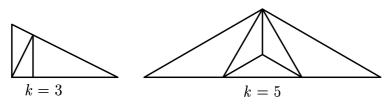


Figure 3

Figures 2 and 3 show the sufficency of the conditions in Proposition 1 (the principles of construction).

Also, in the two-dimensional case each simplex is (general-) self-similar. It's remarkable that the situation for d > 2 is quite different:

**Lemma 1.** Most d-simplices are not k-self-similar for d > 2.

Indeed, each k-self-similar d-simplex S admits a dissection (tiling) of the whole space  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . By a theorem of Debrunner [1], such a simplex S must be equidissectable to a d-cube. Hence, S has vanishing Dehn-functionals (Lemma 1 holds for any d-polyhedra with  $d \geq 3$ ).

## 3. Perfect k-self-similarity

Now we restrict our consideration to a first special case of k-self-similar simplices.

**Definition 2.** A simplex S is said to admit a perfect k-self-similar dissection, or, in short, S is called k-perfect, if S admits a dissection (1) into  $k \geq 2$  simplices  $S_i$  that are mutually incongruent (but similar to S).

For d=2 one has the following results:

**Proposition 2.** a) Each non-equilateral triangle is 2m-perfect for all  $m \geq 4$ .

- b) The equilateral triangle is non-k-perfect for any  $k \geq 2$ .
- c) A triangle S is k-perfect for all  $k \geq 2$  if and only if S is a non-isoceles right triangle.

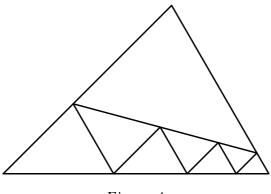


Figure 4

The principle of construction in case a) is shown in Figure 4, cf. [7]. Statement b) is a consequence of the fact that there is no dissection of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  into mutually incongruent equilateral

triangles, one of them being minimal [8], cf. also [10]. Concerning statement c) see Figure 3 (k = 3).

What happens in the situation of d > 2? We have only the following

Conjecture 1. For  $d \geq 3$  there isn't any perfect d-simplex.

### 4. Reptiles

Finally, we consider the following special case of self-similarity:

**Definition 3.** A d-simplex S is called a replicating tile, or, in short, S is called a k-reptile if S admits a dissection (1) into  $k \geq 2$  simplices  $S_i$  that are mutually congruent (and similar to S).

For d=2 the k-reptiles (triangles) are well known, cf. [9]:

**Proposition 3.** A triangle S is a k-reptile if and only if

- a)  $k = m^2$  ( $m \ge 2$ ; any triangle), or
- b)  $k = 3m^2$  ( $m \ge 1$ ;  $\mathcal{S}$  is a right triangle with acute angles  $\frac{\pi}{3}$  and  $\frac{\pi}{6}$ ), or c)  $k = m^2 + l^2$  ( $m, l \ge 1$ ;  $\mathcal{S}$  is a right triangle with cathetuses in the length ratio m: l.

Examples for the three cases are shown in Figure 5.

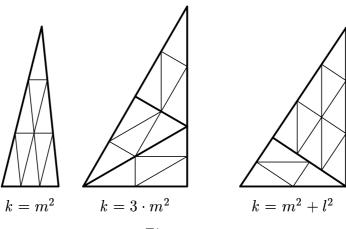


Figure 5

Thus, each triangle S is a k-reptile (with  $k=m^2$ ). The corresponding dissection should be called standard: Divide each side (edge) of S by m-1 points into m parts of equal length. Then dissect  $\mathcal{S}$  by straight lines through these points parallel to the sides of  $\mathcal{S}$ .

The situation for dimensions  $d \geq 3$  is rather more difficult (see Lemma 1). But we can apply the above standard dissection to a 3-simplex: Divide each edge  $p_i p_k$  of the tetrahedron

$$\mathcal{S} = \operatorname{conv}\{p_0, p_1, p_2, p_3\}$$

into congruent parts and dissect S by planes through these points parallel to the facets of  $\mathcal{S}$ . If we assume that  $\mathcal{S}$  can be dissected in this way (on the analogy of proposition 3 a) into  $m^3$  congruent tetrahedra, each similar to  $\mathcal{S}$ , then  $\mathcal{S}$  also admits such a dissection into  $8 = 2^3$  tetrahedra. Let  $m_i$  be the midpoints of the edges of  $\mathcal{S}$  (i = 1, ..., 6), cf. Figure 6.

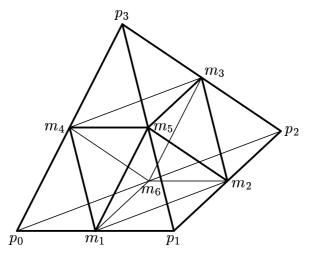


Figure 6

Thus,  $\mathcal{S}$  is dissected into the four tetrahedra

$$\mathcal{S}_0 := \operatorname{conv}\{p_0, m_1, m_4, m_6\}, \quad \mathcal{S}_1 := \operatorname{conv}\{m_1, p_1, m_2, m_5\},$$
  
 $\mathcal{S}_2 := \operatorname{conv}\{m_2, p_2, m_3, m_6\}, \quad \mathcal{S}_3 := \operatorname{conv}\{m_3, p_3, m_4, m_5\}$ 

and the "middle octahedron"  $\mathcal{O} := \operatorname{conv}\{m_1, \dots, m_6\}$ . Obviously, the middle octahedron of any tetrahedron is centrally symmetric. We need the following

**Lemma 2.** If a centrally symmetric octahedron  $\mathcal{O}$  is divided into four tetrahedra

$$\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{S}_1 + \mathcal{S}_2 + \mathcal{S}_3 + \mathcal{S}_4$$

then two of them form a quadrangular pyramid, and hence the others do as well.

*Proof.* Each edge of  $S_i$  is either an edge of O or its relative interior is in the interior of O. Hence, each triangular facet of O is an "outer" facet of exactly one of the simplices  $S_i$ . We consider any vertex p of  $O = \text{conv}\{a, b, c, d, p, q\}$ . At p there meet outer facets of a) four, b) three, or c) two tetrahedra.

In case a) the four simplices must be

$$\mathcal{S}_1 = \operatorname{conv}\{a, b, p, q\}, \quad \mathcal{S}_2 = \operatorname{conv}\{b, c, p, q\},$$
 
$$\mathcal{S}_3 = \operatorname{conv}\{c, d, p, q\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{S}_4 = \operatorname{conv}\{d, a, p, q\}.$$

Hence  $S_1 + S_2$  is the pyramid  $P = \text{conv}\{a, p, c, q, b\}$  with the parallelogram apcq as base.

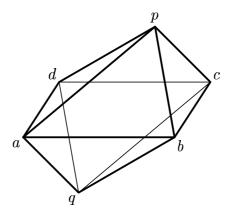


Figure 7

In b), for example,  $S_1$  has facets abp and bcp while cdp is a facet of  $S_2$  and dap is a facet of  $S_3$ . Then  $S_2 + S_3$  must form the pyramid apcqd with the base apcq.

In c), let abp and bcp be facets of  $S_1$  and cdp and dap facets of  $S_2$ . Then  $S_1 + S_2$  is the pyramid abcdp with the base abcd which completes the proof.

Now we go back to the standard dissection of the tetrahedron S into four tetrahedra  $S_i$  and the middle octahedron O. If S is an 8-reptile then O must admit a dissection into four mutually congruent tetrahedra

$$\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{T}_1 + \mathcal{T}_2 + \mathcal{T}_3 + \mathcal{T}_4,$$

each of them similar to S. Without loss of generality we will assume that  $\mathcal{P} = \text{conv}\{m_1, ..., m_5\}$  is the pyramid in accordance with Lemma 2, cf. Figure 6. This pyramid is dissected into two tetrahedra  $\mathcal{T}_1$  and  $\mathcal{T}_2$ , each congruent to the tetrahedron

$$S_1 = \operatorname{conv}\{m_1, p_1, m_2, m_5\}.$$

Hence,  $\mathcal{P} + \mathcal{S}_1 = \mathcal{T}_1 + \mathcal{T}_2 + \mathcal{S}_1$  is a triangular prism that can be dissected into three mutually congruent tetrahedra. Then  $\mathcal{S}_1$ , and also  $\mathcal{S}$ , must be a Hill-tetrahedron, cf. [5, 4]. A *d*-simplex

$$\mathcal{S} = \langle p_0; a_1, a_2, \dots, a_d \rangle$$

is called a *Hill-simplex* (of the first type) if there exist real numbers c>0 and  $\alpha$  ( $0<\alpha<\frac{2\pi}{3}$ ) with

$$a_i \cdot a_k = \begin{cases} c^2 & \text{for } i = k, \\ c^2 \cos \alpha & \text{for } i \neq k. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, in contrast to the two dimensional case, we have only a very special class of 3-simplices which are  $m^3$ -reptiles by the standard construction:

**Theorem.** Any 3-simplex S is an  $m^3$ -reptile using the standard dissection if and only if S is a Hill-simplex.

Finally, we postulate the following

Conjecture 2. A tetrahedron S is a k-reptile if and only if S is a Hill-simplex.

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