# Self similarity of dihedral tilings 

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## 1. Introduction

Tilings of euclidean plane with a dihedral $\left(D_{n^{-}}\right)$symmetry for $n \neq 2,3,4,6$ must be aperiodic, due to the crystallographic restriction: there is no translation preserving the tiling. However, there can be another type of ordering: self similarity. A tiling of the full plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is called self similar if its vertex set $V$ contains a subset $V^{\prime}$ which is a homothetic image of $V$, i.e. $V^{\prime}=\lambda V$ for some $\lambda>1$. It is our aim to show the following theorem:

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Theorem 1. When $n \geqslant 5$ is a prime, there exist self similar planar tilings with $D_{n}$-symmetry.

The case $n=5$ consists of the two well known Penrose tilings with exact pentagon symmetry [3,1], while $n=7,11$ have been discussed in [2]. Pictures of the $n=7$ tilings can be found in [2] and [4].

We construct the tilings using the projection method [1], see also [2]: Our tilings are obtained by orthogonal projection of a subset of the grid $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ onto a 2-dimensional affine subspace $E$; the projected subset is the intersection of $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ with the so called strip $\Sigma_{E}=E+I^{n}$ with $I=(0,1)$. The vertex set of the tiling is $V_{E}=\pi_{E}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n} \cap \Sigma_{E}\right)$, and the tiles are projections of unit squares in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ all of whose vertices belong to $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \cap \Sigma_{E}$. This tiling is well defined provided that $E$ is in general position with respect to $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$, i.e. for every point of $E$ at most 2 coordinates can be integers [1,5]. Assigning the $n$ vertices of an $n$-gon to the standard unit vectors $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, we obtain a linear action of the dihedral group $D_{n}$ onto $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. If $n=2 r+1$ is odd, this representation decomposes into a 1-dimensional fixed space $\mathbb{R} d$ with $d=\sum_{i} e_{i}$ and irreducible 2-dimensional subrepresentations $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{r}$. We will choose $E$ parallel to $E_{1}$, say $E=E_{1}+a$ for some $a \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. This tiling will have local $D_{n}$ symmetry at many places. But in order to have global $D_{n}$ symmetry we will choose $a=\frac{k}{n} d$ where $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n-1$.

The self similarity will be caused by a self adjoint $D_{n}$-invariant integer matrix $S$ ("inflation matrix") which is integer invertible on $W:=d^{\perp}$ (i.e. there is another $D_{n}$-invariant symmetric integer matrix $T$ with $S T=T S=I$ on $W$ ) and which has eigenvalues $\lambda_{i}$ with $\left|\lambda_{i}\right|>1$ on each 2-dimensional component $E_{i}$ of $W$ for $i \geqslant 2$. Then $S$ acts as a contraction on $E_{1}$ and an expansion on the other $E_{i}$, and we have ${ }^{1} S(\Sigma) \supset \Sigma^{\prime}$ where $\Sigma^{\prime}=E^{\prime}+I^{n}$ with $E^{\prime}=S(E)=E_{1}+S a$. Projecting the grid points in $\Sigma^{\prime}$ onto $E^{\prime}$ yields the point set $V_{E^{\prime}}$. By projecting the grid points in $S(\Sigma)$ onto $E^{\prime}$ we obtain a larger point set $S\left(V_{E}\right) \supset V_{E^{\prime}}$. Since $E_{1}$ is an eigenspace of $S$, the set $S\left(V_{E}\right)$ is homothetic to $V_{E}$. When $V_{E}$ is invariant under $D_{n}$, so is also $S\left(V_{E}\right)$ and $V_{E^{\prime}}$. There are only finitely many of such tilings with full $D_{n}$-symmetry. Therefore, passing to a power of $S$ if necessary, we can arrange for $V_{E^{\prime}}$ and $V_{E}$ to be homothetic. This reduces the proof of the theorem to the construction of such a matrix $S$.

The $D_{n}$-invariant tilings are not so special as it seems; in fact any tiling corresponding to $E_{1}+a$ with $a \in d^{\perp}$ is almost isometric to any of the symmetric tilings, as will be explained in Theorem 2 below.

## 2. Dihedral tilings

Let $D_{n}$ denote the group of all rotations and reflections of a regular $n$-gon (Dihedral group). It acts by certain permutations on the set of vertices of the $n$-gon which may

[^1]be identified with the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Thus we obtain an orthogonal integer representation of $D_{n}$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Let $A$ be the generator of the rotation subgroup $C_{n}$; hence $A e_{i}=e_{i+1}$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$ modulo $n$. The eigenbasis for $A$ is $v_{\zeta}=\left(1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{n-1}\right)$ where $\zeta^{n}=1$; in fact we have $A v_{\zeta}=\bar{\zeta} v_{\zeta}$. If $n=2 r+1$ is odd, the only real eigenvalue is 1 , corresponding to the eigenvector $d=\sum_{i} e_{i}$. The remaining eigenvalues come in complex conjugate pairs $\zeta_{j}, \bar{\zeta}_{j}$ where $\zeta_{j}=e^{2 j \pi i / n}$ and the real and imaginary parts of $v_{\zeta_{j}}$ span a 2-dimensional real subspace $E_{j}$ on which $A$ acts via rotation by the angle $2 \pi j / n$.

From now on we assume that $n=2 r+1$ is a prime $\geqslant 5$.
Lemma 1. $W=d^{\perp}$ is a rationally irreducible representation for $D_{n}$.

Proof. The 2-dimensional subspaces $E_{j}$ are inequivalent $D_{n}$-modules. Thus any $D_{n}$-module $W_{1} \subset W$ is a sum of some of the $E_{j}$. On the other hand, a nonzero rational vector $v=\sum \lambda_{\zeta} v_{\zeta} \in W \cap \mathbb{Q}^{n}$ has only nonzero coefficients, $\lambda_{\zeta} \neq 0$ for all $\zeta$. In fact, since $v$ is rational and $v_{\zeta} \in \mathbb{K}^{n}$ where $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{1}\right)$, we have $\lambda_{\zeta} \in \mathbb{K}$ for all $\zeta$. Now $v \in \mathbb{Q}^{n}$ iff $v^{\sigma}=v$ for all $\sigma \in G_{\mathbb{K}}$ where $G_{\mathbb{K}}$ denotes the Galois group of $\mathbb{K}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. Each $\sigma \in G_{\mathbb{K}}$ is of the type $\zeta \mapsto \zeta^{k}$ for $k \in\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$. Hence $v^{\sigma}=\sum_{\zeta}\left(\lambda_{\zeta}\right)^{\sigma} v_{\zeta^{k}}$, and $v^{\sigma}=v$ iff $\left(\lambda_{\zeta}\right)^{\sigma}=\lambda_{\zeta^{k}}$ for all $\zeta$. Therefore, if $\lambda_{\zeta} \neq 0$ for some $\zeta$, then also $\lambda_{\zeta^{k}} \neq 0$. Thus $\lambda_{\zeta} \neq 0$ for all $\zeta$, and hence $W_{1}$ cannot miss any $E_{j}$ if it contains a nonzero rational vector $v$.

Lemma 2. Let $n=2 r+1$ be a prime and $F=W \ominus E_{1}=E_{2}+\cdots+E_{r}$. Then the orthogonal projection $\pi_{F}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ of the grid onto $F$ is dense in $F$.

Proof. The closure of $\pi_{F}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ is a closed abelian subgroup of $(F,+)$ and hence of the type $V \oplus \Gamma$ where $V$ is a linear subspace of $F$ and $\Gamma$ a lattice in $F \ominus V$. Then $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \subset E_{1}+V+\Gamma$, and hence $S=\left(E_{1}+V+\Gamma\right) / \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ is a proper closed subgroup of $T=\mathbb{R}^{n} / \mathbb{Z}^{n}$. But $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ acts transitively on the set of cosets $\left\{E_{1}+V+\gamma: \gamma \in \Gamma\right\}$ and therefore $S=\pi\left(E_{1}+V\right)$ where $\pi: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n} / \mathbb{Z}^{n}=T$ is the canonical projection. Hence $S$ is connected, a proper subtorus of $T$. Since $\pi\left(E_{1}+V\right)$ is a torus, $E_{1}+V$ must contain a sublattice of $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$, and hence it is a "rational subspace", that is it is spanned by rational vectors. Since $E_{1}$ is $D_{n}$-invariant, so is its rational hull, the smallest rational subspace containing $E_{1}$. Thus the rational hull of $E_{1}$ is $W$ and therefore we have $E_{1}+V=W$ and $V=F$. But $V$ was the closure of the non-discrete part of $\pi_{F}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$. Since $V=F$, there is no discrete part and $\pi_{F}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ is dense in $F$.

Theorem 2. Let $E=E_{1}+a$ and $E^{\prime}=E_{1}+a^{\prime}$ with $a, a^{\prime} \in W$. Then the corresponding tilings are almost isometric, that is up to a translation the two tilings agree on the entire plane up to a set of errors spread over the entire plane with arbitrary small density everywhere.

Proof. Let $E=E_{1}+a$ and $E^{\prime}=E_{1}+a^{\prime}$ with $a, a^{\prime} \in W$; in fact we may assume $a, a^{\prime} \in F=W \ominus E_{1}$. Since $\pi_{F}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}\right)$ is dense in $F$, we may approximate $a^{\prime}-a \in F$ by some $\pi_{F}\left(z_{\epsilon}\right)$ with $z_{\epsilon} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}$. Hence $E^{\prime \prime}=E+z_{\epsilon}$ is arbitrary close to $E^{\prime}$. Consequently,
$\Sigma_{E^{\prime}}$ and $\Sigma_{E^{\prime \prime}}$ are almost equal which means that most lattice points admissible for $E^{\prime}$ are also admissible for $E^{\prime \prime}$ and vice versa. Deviations occur only for the grid points contained in $\left(\Sigma_{E^{\prime}} \backslash \Sigma_{E^{\prime \prime}}\right) \cup\left(\Sigma_{E^{\prime \prime}} \backslash \Sigma_{E^{\prime}}\right)$. Let $C=I^{n}$ be the open unit cube, $C_{k}=\left\{x \in C: \sum x_{i}=k\right\}$ for $k=1, \ldots, n-1$ and $V_{i}=\pi_{F}\left(C_{k}\right)$. Then $V_{k}+a+z$ is arbitrary close to $V_{k}+a^{\prime}$, and its intersection is a set of arbitrarily small measure $\epsilon$. The ratio $\epsilon / \operatorname{vol}\left(V_{k}\right)$ measures the probability for a grid point $z$ with $\sum z_{i}=k$ to behave differently for $E^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime \prime}$.

Remark. For the $D_{n}$-symmetric tilings we put $a=\frac{k}{n} d$. This seems to violate the condition of Theorem 2 since $a \notin W$. However, we may replace $a$ by (say) $a^{\prime}=a-k e_{1} \in W$; the translation by $k e_{1} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}$ does not change the geometry of the tiling.

## 3. General position

We must convince ourselves that the affine space $E_{1}+a$ with $a=\frac{k}{n} d$ is in general position, i.e. for any $x \in E_{1}$ at most two coordinates of $x+a$ can be integers. We are using the complex basis $v, \bar{v}$ for $E_{1}^{c}=E_{1} \otimes \mathbb{C}$ with $v=\left(\zeta, \zeta^{2}, \ldots, \zeta^{n}\right)$ and $\zeta=\zeta_{1}=e^{2 \pi i / n}$. Then any element $x \in E_{1}$ can be written in the form $x=c v+\bar{c} \bar{v}$ for some complex number $c$. We have to show that not more than two components of such a vector can be an integer.

More generally we assume for two different $k, l$

$$
c \zeta^{k}+\bar{c} \bar{\zeta}^{k}=p, \quad c \zeta^{l}+\bar{c} \bar{\zeta}^{l}=q
$$

for some nonzero rational numbers $p, q$. Multiplying the first equation by $\zeta^{l}$ and the second by $\zeta^{k}$ and substracting we obtain

$$
\bar{c}=\frac{p \zeta^{l}-q \zeta^{k}}{\zeta^{l-k}-\bar{\zeta}^{l-k}}, \quad c=\frac{-p \bar{\zeta}^{l}+q \bar{\zeta}^{k}}{\zeta^{l-k}-\bar{\zeta}^{l-k}} .
$$

Now suppose that we have a third such equation:

$$
c \zeta^{j}+\bar{c} \bar{\zeta}^{j}=r
$$

where $j, k, l$ are different modulo $n$ and $r \in \mathbb{Q} \backslash\{0\}$. Plugging in our results for $\bar{c}$ and $c$ we obtain

$$
\left(-p \bar{\zeta}^{l}+q \bar{\zeta}^{k}\right) \zeta^{j}+\left(p \zeta^{l}-q \zeta^{k}\right) \bar{\zeta}^{j}=r\left(\zeta^{l-k}-\bar{\zeta}^{l-k}\right)
$$

which is a rational linear dependence of certain powers of $\zeta$ or rather their imaginary parts, the corresponding sine values:

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(\zeta^{l-j}-\bar{\zeta}^{l-j}\right)+q\left(\zeta^{j-k}-\bar{\zeta}^{j-k}\right)+r\left(\zeta^{k-l}-\bar{\zeta}^{k-l}\right)=0 . \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $n$ is prime, the powers $\zeta, \zeta^{2}, \ldots, \zeta^{n-1}$ are linearly independent over the rationals, thus $p, q, r$ must vanish, unless two of the three numbers $l-j, j-k, k-l$ are equal up
to sign, say $l-j=j-k$. Then the trivial relation $p=-q, r=0$ remains, but this is excluded by the assumption $p, q, r \neq 0$.

## 4. Construction of the inflation matrix

Consider the symmetric integer matrix $S_{k}=A^{k}+A^{-k}$ sending each $e_{j}$ onto $e_{j+k}+e_{j-k}$ (the indices have to be taken $\bmod n$ ). Being $D_{n}$-invariant it keeps the $E_{j}$ invariant, and the eigenvalue on $E_{j}$ is $\lambda_{j k}=\zeta^{j k}+\bar{\zeta}^{j k}$. We look for an integer matrix $S$, a polynomial in the $S_{k}$, which is invertible on $W=d^{\perp}$ such that $\left|\lambda_{i}\right|>1$ for all eigenvalues $\lambda_{i}$ with $i \geqslant 2$.

Let $\zeta$ be any primitive $n$-th unit root where $n=2 r+1$. For every positive integer $a \leqslant r$ we have $\frac{1-\zeta^{a}}{1-\zeta}=1+\zeta+\cdots+\zeta^{a-1}$. This number is invertible in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ since its inverse $\frac{1-\zeta}{1-\zeta^{a}}$ is a sum of powers of $\zeta^{a}$; note that $\zeta$ is itself a power of $\zeta^{a}$. Multiplying by $\zeta^{-b}$ with $b=\frac{a-1}{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{n}$ in the field $\mathbb{F}_{n}=\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ makes this sum of powers symmetric, hence real, and we obtain an invertible element $\xi_{a} \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta+\bar{\zeta}]$,

$$
\xi_{a}:=\zeta^{-b} \frac{1-\zeta^{a}}{1-\zeta}=\sum_{j=-c}^{c} \zeta^{j} \quad \text { where } c= \begin{cases}\frac{a-1}{2} & \text { if } a-1 \text { is even }  \tag{1}\\ \frac{n-a+1}{2} & \text { if } a-1 \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

For any $a \in\{2, \ldots, r\}$ we consider the matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{a}=\sum_{j=-c}^{c} A^{j}=I+S_{1}+\cdots+S_{c} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting $\zeta=\zeta_{j}$, the eigenvalue of $U_{a}$ on $E_{j}$ will be $\xi_{a}$ in (1) which now more precisely will be called $\xi_{j a}$. Since all $\xi_{a}$ are invertible in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta+\bar{\zeta}]$, all $U_{a}$ are integer invertible on $W=d^{\perp}$. Our inflation matrix will be of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
S=U_{2}^{t_{2}} U_{3}^{t_{3}} \cdots U_{r}^{t_{r}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for suitable powers $t_{2}, \ldots, t_{r} \in \mathbb{Z}$. The eigenvalue of $S$ on $E_{j}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{j}=\left(\xi_{j 2}\right)^{t_{2}} \cdots\left(\xi_{j r}\right)^{t_{r}} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We want $\left|\lambda_{j}\right|>1$ for all $j=2, \ldots, r$. Taking logarithms of absolute values we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{2} \log \left|\xi_{j 2}\right|+\cdots+t_{r} \log \left|\xi_{j r}\right|=\log \left|\lambda_{j}\right| \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $j=2, \ldots, r$. This is viewed as a system of $r-1$ linear equations for the unknowns $t_{2}, \ldots, t_{r}$ with coefficient matrix $X=\left(\log \left|\xi_{j k}\right|\right)_{j, k \geqslant 2}$. By [6, Theorem 8.2, p. 145], the determinant of $X$ is nonzero (the so called regulator). Thus the solution of (5) is $\vec{t}=X^{-1} \vec{l}$ where $\vec{l}=\left(l_{2}, \ldots, l_{r}\right)^{T}$ with $l_{j}=\log \left|\lambda_{j}\right|$. In particular, near any "positive" vector $\vec{l}$ with
$l_{2}, \ldots, l_{r}>0$ there is a positive vector $\overrightarrow{l^{\prime}}$ such that $\vec{t}=X^{-1} \overrightarrow{l^{\prime}}$ is a rational vector. Multiplying by the product (or the lcm) of the denominators we may assume that $\vec{t}$ is an integer vector. Thus the eigenvalues $\lambda_{j}$ of $S=U_{2}^{t_{2}} U_{3}^{t_{3}} \cdots U_{r}^{t_{r}}$ satisfy $\left|\lambda_{j}\right|>1$ for $j=2, \ldots, r$ and hence $S$ is an inflation matrix. This finishes the proof of Theorem 1.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ More precisely, since $S$ is not integer invertible on $\mathbb{R} d$, we might have to pass to a suitable power of $S$, see [2].

