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CSI Math Club Talk

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Euclidean Polygons

A polygon is a plane region bounded by finitely many straight lines, connected to form a polygonal chain.

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polygon = polus (many) + gonia (corner)
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Example:



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By polygon, we will mean a simple polygon i.e. a polygon that does not intersect itself and has no holes, equivalently, whose boundary is a single closed polygonal path (simple closed curve). A polygonal decomposition of a polygon P in the Euclidean plane is a finite collections of polygons $P_1, P_2, \ldots P_n$ whose union is Pand which pairwise intersect only in their boundaries. A polygonal decomposition of a polygon P in the Euclidean plane is a finite collections of polygons $P_1, P_2, \ldots P_n$ whose union is Pand which pairwise intersect only in their boundaries.

Example: Tangrams



Scissors Congruence

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Polygons P and Q are scissors congruent if there exist polygonal decompositions P_1, \ldots, P_n and Q_1, \ldots, Q_n of P and Q respectively such that P_i is congruent to Q_i for $1 \le i \le n$.

In short, two polygons are scissors congruent if one can be cut up and reassembled into the other. Let us denote scissors congruence by \sim_{sc} . We will write $P \sim_{sc} Q$

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Example: All the polygons below are scissors congruent.





The idea of scissors congruence goes back to Euclid. By "equal area" Euclid really meant scissors congruent (though not using this term and without proof !).

Scissors congruence proofs of the Pythagorean Theorem



 $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$

Scissors congruence proofs of the Pythagorean Theorem



Scissors congruence proofs of the Pythagorean Theorem



- (Reflexive) $P \sim_{sc} P$.
- (Symmetric) $P \sim_{sc} Q$ then $Q \sim_{sc} P$.
- (Transitive) $P \sim_{sc} Q$ and $Q \sim_{sc} R$ then $P \sim_{sc} R$.

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Transitivity follows by juxtaposing the two decompositions of Q and using the resulting common sub-decomposition of Q to reassemble into P and R, thus showing that $P \sim_{sc} R$.





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Theorem (Wallace-Bolyai-Gerwien)

Any two simple polygons of equal area are scissors congruent, i.e. they can be dissected into a finite number of congruent polygonal pieces.

Wallace-Bolyai-Gerwien Theorem

Any two simple polygons of equal area are equidecomposable.

This apparently simple statement is of relatively recent origins. It's been associated with the names of Lowry, W. Wallace, Farkas Bolyai, and P. Gerwien and usually goes by the name of *Wallace-Bolyai-Gerwien Theorem*. The accounts, however, differ. According to *Greg Frederickson*, Lowry (1814) provided a simple explanation in answer to a problem posed by Wallace around 1808. (Wallace presumably had a solution at that time, which he gave in expanded form in 1831.) Frederickson acknowledges the methods of Bolyai (1832) and Gerwien (1833).

According to *lan Stewart*, the statement is usually called Bolyai-Gerwien Theorem, because Wolfgang Bolyai raised the question, and P. Gerwien answered it in 1833. However, Stewart adds, William Wallace got there earlier: he gave a proof in 1807.

According to Andreescu and Gelca, the property was proved independently by F. Bolyai (1833) and Gerwien (1835). A Russian math encyclopedia concurs.

(It should be mentioned that the Bolyai in question was a noted Hungarian mathematician Wolfgang Farkas Bolyai (1775-1856) and, sometimes *Farkas Wolfgang Bolyai*, father of Janos Bolyai, the co-inventor of the *non-Euclidean geometry*, and a dear friend of Johann Carl Friedrich Gauss. Like the *birthplace of I. Kant*, the birthplace of F. Bolyai has also changed hands. It is now a part of Romania.)

Source: https://www.cut-the-knot.org/do_you_know/Bolyai.shtml

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Step 4: Finish proof of Theorem.

Step 1: Triangulate polygon i.e. Every polygon has a polygonal decomposition into triangles.

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Proof:



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For a polygon, choose a line of slope m which is distint from the slopes of all its sides. Lines of slope m through the vertices of the polygon decompose it into triangles and trapezoids, which again can be decomposed into (acute) angled triangles.

Step 2: Scissors congruence for parallelograms and triangles of same base and equal height.

Proof: Let *ABCD* be a rectangle with base *AB* and height *AD*. Let *ABXY* be a parallelogram with height *AD*. Assume $|DY| \leq |DC|$. Then

 $ABCD \sim_{sc} AYD + ABCY \sim_{sc} ABCY + BXC \sim_{sc} ABXY.$



If |DY| > |DC|, then cutting along the diagonal BY and regluing the triangle BXY, we obtain the scissors congruent parallelogram $ABYY_1$ such that $|DY_1| = |DY| - |DC|$. Continuing this process ktimes, for k = [|DY|/|DC|], we obtain the parallelogram $ABY_{k-1}Y_k$ such that $|DY_k| < |DC|$, which is scissors congruent to ABCD as above.



Since any triangle is scissors congruent to a parallelogram with the same base and half height, this implies that any two triangles with same base and height are scissors congruent.



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Proof: By Step 2, we can assume both the triangles are right angles triangles.

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Let Area
$$(ABC)$$
 = Area (AXY)
 $\implies \frac{|AB||AC|}{2} = \frac{|AY||AX|}{2}$
 $\implies \frac{|AY|}{|AC|} = \frac{|AB|}{|AX|}$
 $\implies ABY \sim AXC$ SAS test



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This implies *BY* is parallel to *XC*. Hence triangles *BYC* and *BYX* have same base and same height which implies by Step 2 that they are scissors congruent i.e. $ABC \sim_{sc} ABY + BYC \sim_{sc} ABY + BYX \sim_{sc} AXY$.

Step 4: Putting it all together.

Any triangle T is scissors congruent to a right triangle with height 2 and base equal to the area of T, which is scissors congruent to a rectangle with **unit height** and base equal to area of T. Lets denote such a rectangle by R_x where x is its area (= base).

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Thus for any polygon \boldsymbol{P} ,

$$\begin{aligned} P \sim_{sc} T_1 + \ldots + T_n \text{ by Step 1} \\ \sim_{sc} R_{\text{Area}(T_1)} + \ldots + R_{\text{Area}(T_n)} \text{ by Step 3} \\ \sim_{sc} R_{\text{Area}(T_1) + \ldots + \text{Area}(T_n)} \text{ by laying rectangles side by side} \\ \sim_{sc} R_{\text{Area}(P)} \text{ by Step 1} \end{aligned}$$
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$$\begin{split} P \sim_{sc} T_1 + \ldots + T_n \text{ by Step 1} \\ \sim_{sc} R_{\text{Area}(T_1)} + \ldots + R_{\text{Area}(T_n)} \text{ by Step 3} \\ \sim_{sc} R_{\text{Area}(T_1) + \ldots + \text{Area}(T_n)} \text{ by laying rectangles side by side} \\ \sim_{sc} R_{\text{Area}(P)} \text{ by Step 1} \end{split}$$

Hence, if polygons P, Q have equal area then $P \sim_{sc} R_{\text{Area}(P)} = R_{\text{Area}(Q)} \sim_{sc} Q.$ Visualization application by Satyan L. Devadoss, Ziv Epstein, and Dmitriy Smirnov is implemented in HTML5 and JavaScript.

The interface allows the user to input her own intial and terminal polygons. It then rescales the polygons so that they are of the same area, by calculating the optimal scaling factor for each polygon such that the following two constraints are satisfied: both polygons are of equal area, and the wider of the two is not too wide that is goes off the screen.

http://dmsm.github.io/scissors-congruence/.

A polyhedron is a solid in the Euclidean 3-space \mathbb{E}^3 whose faces are polygons.

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The 5 regular polyhedra called the Platonic solids

Scissors Congruence in 3 dimensions

small

rhombicosidodecahedron rhombicosidodecahedron

A polyhedron is a solid in the Euclidean 3-space \mathbb{E}^3 whose faces are polygons.

Archimedean solids cuboctahedron icosidodecahedron truncated truncated truncated cube tetrahedron octahedron truncated truncated small great icosahedron dodecahedron rhombicuboctabedron rhombicuboctabedron

snub cube

areat

snub dodecahedron © Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc. A polyhedron is a solid in the Euclidean 3-space \mathbb{E}^3 whose faces are polygons.



We will not allow solids whose boundary in not a sphere (i.e. \mathbb{S}^2)

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• If $P \sim_{sc} Q$ then $\operatorname{Volume}(P) = \operatorname{Volume}(Q)$.

Scissors Congruence in 3 dimensions

- If $P \sim_{sc} Q$ then $\operatorname{Volume}(P) = \operatorname{Volume}(Q)$.
- \sim_{sc} is an equivalence relation on the set of all polyhedra \mathbb{E}^3
 - (Reflexive) $P \sim_{sc} P$.
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As before, transitivity follows by juxtaposing the two decompositions of Q and using the resulting common sub-decomposition of Q to reassemble into P and R, thus showing that $P \sim_{sc} R$. This is harder to visualize or draw.





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Hilbert's Third Problem

Given any two polyhedra of equal volume, is it always possible to cut the first into finitely many polyhedral pieces that can be reassembled to yield the second?



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Hilbert made clear that he expected a negative answer.

Solution to Hilbert's Third Problem



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Dehn showed that the regular tetrahedron and the cube of the same volume were not scissors congruent.



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Dehn defined a new invariant of scissors congruence, now known as the Dehn invariant.

Dehn invariant

For an edge e of a polyhedron P, let $\ell(e)$ and $\theta(e)$ denote its length and dihedral angles respectively. The Dehn invariant $\delta(P)$ of P is

$$\delta(P) = \sum_{ ext{all edges e of P}} \ell(e) \otimes \theta(e) \in \mathbb{R} \otimes (\mathbb{R}/\pi\mathbb{Q})$$

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The \otimes symbol is called **tensor product** and implies that $\delta(P)$ does not change when you cut along an edge or cut along an angle i.e. $\delta(P)$ in an invariant of scissors congruence.

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- $\delta(\text{unit cube}) = 0 \neq 6 \times a \otimes \arccos(\frac{1}{3}) = \delta(\text{tetrahedra})$
- Thus the unit cube and the unit tetrahedra are not scissors congruent !

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It is known that area determines scissors congruence in 2-dimensional spherical geometry \mathbb{S}^2 and hyperbolic geometry \mathbb{H}^2 .

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- "Dehn invariant sufficiency" is still unsolved for 3-dimensional spherical and hyperbolic geometry ℍ³, as well as in higher dimensions.
- Dupont and Sah (1982) related scissors congruence to the homology of groups of isometries of various geometries and *K*-theory of fields !
- ▶ Walter Neumann and Jun Yang (1999) used a "complexified" Dehn invariant in ℍ³ to define invariants of hyperbolic 3-manifolds.

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https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ysV6iF3Rmjo