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## Covering families of triangles

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## RESEARCH

# Covering families of triangles 

Otfried Cheong ${ }^{*}$, Olivier Devillers ${ }^{\dagger}$, Marc Gliss用, Ji-won Park ${ }^{\dagger}$<br>Project-Teams Datashape and Gamble<br>Research Report n 9378 - December 2020 - 31 pages


#### Abstract

A cover for a family $\mathcal{F}$ of sets in the plane is a set into which every set in $\mathcal{F}$ can be isometrically moved. We are interested in the convex cover of smallest area for a given family of triangles. Park and Cheong conjectured that any family of triangles of bounded diameter has a smallest convex cover that is itself a triangle. The conjecture is equivalent to the claim that for every convex set $\mathcal{X}$ there is a triangle $Z$ whose area is not larger than the area of $\mathcal{X}$, such that $Z$ covers the family of triangles contained in $\mathcal{X}$. We prove this claim for the case where a diameter of $\mathcal{X}$ lies on its boundary. We also give a complete characterization of the smallest convex cover for the family of triangles contained in a half-disk, and for the family of triangles contained in a square. In both cases, this cover is a triangle.


Key-words: Triangles, Smallest area, Universal cover, Convex cover, Crescent, Half-disk, Square

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## Sur la couverture de familles de triangles

Résumé : Une couverture pour une famille $\mathcal{F}$ d'ensembles du plan est un ensemble dans lequel chaque ensemble de $\mathcal{F}$ peut être déplacé de manière isométrique. Nous nous intéressons à la couverture convexe ayant la plus petite surface pour une famille de triangles. Park et Cheong ont supposé que toute famille de triangles de diamètre borné a une plus petite couverture convexe qui est elle-même un triangle. Cette conjecture est équivalente à l'affirmation selon laquelle pour chaque ensemble convexe $\mathcal{X}$ il y a un triangle $Z$ dont la surface n'est pas plus grande que celle de $\mathcal{X}$, de sorte que $Z$ couvre la famille de triangles contenus dans $\mathcal{X}$. Nous prouvons cette affirmation dans le cas où un diamètre de $\mathcal{X}$ se trouve sur le bord de $\mathcal{X}$. Nous donnons également une caractérisation complète de la plus petite couverture convexe pour la famille de triangles contenus dans un demi-disque, et pour la famille de triangles contenus dans un carré.

Mots-clés : Triangles, Plus petite aire, Couverture universelle, Couverture convexe, Croissant, Demi-disque, Carré

## 1 Introduction

A cover for a family $\mathcal{F}$ of sets in the plane is a set into which every set in $\mathcal{F}$ can be isometrically moved. We call a cover smallest if it has smallest possible area. Smallest convex covers have been studied for various families of planar shapes. In 1914, Lebesgue asked for the smallest convex cover for the family of all sets of diameter one. The problem is still open, with the best known upper bound on the area being 0.845 [1, 5] and the best known lower bound being 0.832 [3]. Moser's worm problem asks for the smallest convex cover for the family of all curves of length one, with the best known upper bound of 0.271 [9, 10] and the best known lower bound of 0.232 [6]. More variants can be found in [11, 2].

These problems appear to be hard because we do not even have a conjecture on the shape of a smallest convex cover. The best lower bound for Lebesgue's problem, for instance, is based on an approximation to the optimal placement of a circle, a triangle, and a pentagon obtained through an exhaustive computer search [3].

While smallest convex covers have remained elusive for most families, we have a complete answer for some families of triangles. Kovalev showed that the smallest convex cover for the family of all triangles of perimeter one is a uniquely determined triangle 7, 4. Füredi and Wetzel showed that the same holds for the family of all triangles of diameter one 4], and Park and Cheong showed the same for the family of triangles of circumradius one, as well as for any family of two triangles [8]. These known results led Park and Cheong to make the following conjecture:
Conjecture 1 ([8). For any bounded family $\mathcal{T}$ of triangles there is a triangle $Z$ that is a smallest convex cover for $\mathcal{T}$.

It is easy to see that this is equivalent to the following conjecture:
Conjecture 2 ([8]). Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a convex set. Then there is a triangle $Z$ whose area is at most the area of $\mathcal{X}$, such that $Z$ is a convex cover for the family of triangles contained in $\mathcal{X}$.

In this paper, we add to the existing evidence motivating these conjectures. In particular, we prove that Conjecture 1 is true for the family of triangles contained in a given half-disk, and for the family of triangles contained in a given square. The half-disk result is a rather easy warm-up exercise, proven in Section 5 , see Figure ??.

Theorem 3. The triangle with sides $\sqrt{2}, 1+\sqrt{2}$, and $\sqrt{3}$ is a smallest convex cover for the family of triangles contained in the half-disk of radius one.

The family of triangles contained in the unit square turns out to be much harder. Intriguingly, there is a "nice" triangle $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ with angles $60^{\circ}, 75^{\circ}$, and $45^{\circ}$ and a longest edge of length $\sqrt{2}$ that covers "most" triangles contained in the unit square. However, some skinny triangles- the worst case being the isosceles triangle with apex angle $\approx 5.6^{\circ}$ - do not fit into $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$, and the actual smallest convex cover is a triangle $\mathcal{C}$ whose longest edge has length about $\sqrt{2}+0.005$. We prove that $\mathcal{C}$ indeed covers all triangles contained in the unit square in Section 6; see Figure 2.


Figure 1: The smallest convex cover (green triangle) for triangles in a half-disk.


Figure 2: The smallest convex cover (green triangle) for triangles in a square.

Theorem 4. The unique smallest convex cover for the family of triangles contained in the unit square is the triangle $\triangle X Y Z$ with $\measuredangle X Z Y=\frac{\pi}{3},|Z Y|=\frac{1}{\cos \frac{\pi}{12}}$, and

$$
\begin{gathered}
|X Z|=\frac{\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3}+2 \theta_{0}\right)}{\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4}-\theta_{0}\right) \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)} \approx 1.4195 \\
\text { where } \theta_{0}=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2+\sqrt{3}}}\right)-\frac{\pi}{6} \approx 0.049 \approx 2.81^{\circ} .
\end{gathered}
$$

In our second main result, we consider Conjecture 2. It is known to hold when $\mathcal{X}$ is a disk [8, a half-disk (Theorem 3), or a square (Theorem 4). In Section 3, we prove the following theorem, which extends this to a much larger family of shapes $\mathcal{X}$ :

Theorem 5. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a crescent, that is, a convex set that contains a diameter on its boundary. Then there is a triangle $Z$ whose area is at most the area of $\mathcal{X}$, such that $Z$ is a convex cover for the family of triangles contained in $\mathcal{X}$.

Note that we do not claim that the triangle $Z$ is a smallest cover for the family of triangles contained in $\mathcal{X}$. For instance, a half-disk is a crescent, but the triangle $Z$ constructed in the proof of Theorem 5 is larger than the optimal triangle cover of Theorem 3 . While proving Conjecture 2 would imply Conjecture 1 the special case of Theorem 5 does therefore not seem to imply any special case of Conjecture 1. In particular, it does not allow us to claim that the family of triangles contained in a given crescent has a triangular smallest convex cover.

## 2 Notation

For three points $A, B, C \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$, we let $A B$ denote the line through $A$ and $B$, let $\overline{A B}$ denote the line segment connecting $A$ and $B$, and let $\triangle A B C$ denote the triangle $A B C$. When $A B$ is not horizontal, then we let $\mathcal{H}_{A B}$ denote the horizontal strip bounded by the horizontal lines through $A$ and through $B$. For a point $P \in \mathcal{H}_{A B}$, we define $\zeta_{A B}(P)$ as the horizontal distance between $P$ and the line $A B$. Formally, $\zeta_{A B}(P)=|P X|$, where $X$ is the intersection point of $A B$ with the horizontal line through $P$.

For a point $P$ and a distance $t \geqslant 0$, we define points $P \ominus t=P-(t, 0)$ and $P \oplus t=P+(t, 0)$. In other words, $P \ominus t$ and $P \oplus t$ lie on the horizontal line through $P$ at distance $t$ to the left and to the right of $P$.

We say that a triangle $T$ fits into a convex planar set $\mathcal{X}$ if there is a triangle $T^{\prime} \subset \mathcal{X}$ such that $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ are congruent, that is, $T^{\prime}$ is the image of $T$ under a combination of translations,


Figure 3: Construction of a triangular cover from a crescent.
rotations, and symmetry. We say that $T$ maximally fits into $\mathcal{X}$ if $T$ fits into $\mathcal{X}$, but there is no triangle $T^{\prime} \supsetneq T$ that fits into $\mathcal{X}$.

We define a crescent to be a convex shape whose diameter lies on its boundary. Any triangle is itself a crescent. For a convex planar set $\mathcal{X}$, let $|\mathcal{X}|$ denote the area of $\mathcal{X}$.

## 3 Every crescent has a triangular cover

We start by describing how to construct a triangular cover for the family of all triangles in a given crescent. See Figure 3 for illustration. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a crescent with diameter $A B \subset \partial \mathcal{X}$. We assume that $A B$ is horizontal. Let $C$ be a highest point on $\partial \mathcal{X}$, that is, a point maximizing the distance from $A B$, let $D$ be a point on the curve $A C \subset \partial \mathcal{X}$ maximizing the horizontal distance from $A C$, and let $E$ be a point on the curve $B C \subset \partial \mathcal{X}$ maximizing the horizontal distance from $B C$. In other words, $\mathcal{X}$ has a horizontal tangent in $C$, a tangent parallel to $A C$ in $D$, and a tangent parallel to $B C$ in $E$. Let $A^{\prime}=A \ominus \zeta_{B C}(E)$ and $B^{\prime}=B \oplus \zeta_{A C}(D)$. We claim that $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$ is indeed a cover for the set of triangles in $\mathcal{X}$, and that $\left|\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C\right| \leqslant|\mathcal{X}|$.

Theorem 6. If a triangle fits into the crescent $\mathcal{X}$, then it fits into the triangle $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$.
Before we prove Theorem 6, we show how it implies the result stated in the introduction.
Proof of Theorem 5. It suffices to observe that for the triangle $Z=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$ constructed in Theorem 6 we have $|Z| \leqslant|\mathcal{X}|$ since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Z=\triangle A^{\prime} A C \cup \triangle A B C \cup \triangle B B^{\prime} C \\
& \mathcal{X} \supset \triangle A D C \cup \triangle A B C \cup \triangle B E C
\end{aligned}
$$

and $\left|\triangle A^{\prime} A C\right|=|\triangle B E C|$ and $\left|\triangle B B^{\prime} C\right|=|\triangle A D C|$.
To prove Theorem 6, we first need a few lemmas. The first one characterizes triangles that maximally fit into a crescent.


Figure 4: Proof of Lemma 7.

Lemma 7. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a crescent with horizontal diameter $\overline{A B}$ contained in the upper halfplane bounded by $A B$. If a triangle $\triangle P Q R$ fits maximally into $\mathcal{X}$, then it is of one of the following three forms:
(i) $\quad P=A, Q=B$, and $R \in \partial \mathcal{X} \backslash \overline{A B}$;
(ii) $P=A, R, Q \in \partial \mathcal{X} \backslash \overline{A B}$, with $R$ to the left of and above $Q$;
(iii) $P=B, R, Q \in \partial \mathcal{X} \backslash \overline{A B}$, with $R$ to the left of and below $Q$.

Proof. Since $\triangle P Q R$ maximally fits into $\mathcal{X}$, we can assume that $P, Q, R$ all lie on the boundary $\partial \mathcal{X}$. If no vertex lies on $\overline{A B}$, we can translate the triangle downwards until it touches $\overline{A B}$, so we can assume that $P \in \overline{A B}$. If $Q \in \overline{A B}$, then $\triangle P Q R \subset \triangle A B R$, so the maximality implies that $\triangle P Q R=\triangle A B R$ and we are in case (i). It remains to consider the case where $P \in \overline{A B}$, while $Q$ and $R$ lie on the upper chain $\partial \mathcal{X} \backslash \overline{A B}$, so we can assume that $R$ lies to the left of $Q$.

Let us first assume that $R$ lies above $Q$. Let $K$ be the intersection point of $A B$ and $R Q$, and let $\ell$ be the bisector of the angle $\angle A K R$; see Figure 4. We reflect the points $R$ and $Q$ about $\ell$ to obtain points $R^{*}$ and $Q^{*}$ on the line $A B$. Since $\left|K R^{*}\right|=|K R|<|K B|+|B R| \leqslant|K B|+|B A|=$ $|K A|$, we have $R^{*} \in \overline{A B}$ but is not equal to $A$. We also note that $Q^{*}$ lies strictly between $R^{*}$ and $B$ and thus $Q^{*} \in \overline{A B}$.

If $P$ lies between $R^{*}$ and $Q^{*}$, then we can reflect it about $\ell$ to obtain a point $P^{*}$ on the segment $R Q$ so that $\triangle P^{*} Q^{*} R^{*}$ is congruent to $\triangle P Q R$; see Figure 4 left). Since $\triangle P^{*} Q^{*} R^{*} \subsetneq$ $\triangle A B P^{*}$, it does not maximally fit into $\mathcal{X}$.

If $P$ lies to the left of $R^{*}$ but is not equal to $A$, then we can slightly rotate $\triangle P Q R$ clockwise around $R$. This moves $Q$ and $P$ into the interior of $\mathcal{X}$, so $\triangle P Q R$ does not maximally fit into $\mathcal{X}$.

If $P$ lies to the right of $Q^{*}$, then we rotate $Q$ by $180^{\circ}$ about the midpoint of $\overline{P R}$ to obtain $Q^{\prime}$, see Figure 4(right). The quadrilateral $P Q R Q^{\prime}$ is a parallelogram, and $\triangle P R Q^{\prime}$ is congruent to $\triangle P Q R$. Then $Q^{\prime} \in \triangle P R R^{*}$ since $R$ above $Q$ implies $Q^{\prime}$ above $P$ and $P$ right of $Q Q^{*}$ implies $Q^{\prime}$ right of $R R^{*}$. Since $\triangle P R Q^{\prime} \subsetneq \triangle A P R, \triangle P Q R$ does not maximally fit into $\mathcal{X}$.

It follows that whenever $R$ lies above $Q$, then $P=A$ and we are in case (ii). By symmetry, whenever $R$ lies below $Q$, then $P=B$ and we are in case (iii).

Finally, when $R Q$ is horizontal, we let $\ell$ be the horizontal line equidistant from $A B$ and $R Q$. Again we mirror $R$ and $Q$ about $\ell$ to obtain $R^{*}$ and $Q^{*}$ on $\overline{A B}$. The arguments above apply literally, and we conclude that $P=A$. By symmetry, however, we can also conclude that $P=B$, a contradiction. It follows that when $R Q$ is horizontal, then $\triangle P Q R$ does not maximally fit into $\mathcal{X}$.

We now state two lemmas, postponing their proofs to Section 4


Figure 5: Lemma 8 ,

Lemma 8. Let $\triangle A B C$ be a triangle with the longest edge $|A B|$. Let $A B$ be horizontal, and let $Q \in \mathcal{H}_{A C}$ lie to the left of $A C$ with $|Q B| \leqslant|A B|$. Then $\triangle B C Q$ fits into $\triangle A B^{\prime} C$, where $B^{\prime}=B \oplus \zeta_{A C}(Q)$ (see Figure (5).

Lemma 9. Let $\triangle A B C$ be an isosceles triangle with $|A B|=|A C|$. Let $A B$ be horizontal, let $\overline{A H}$ be the height of $\triangle A B C$ with respect to $\overline{B C}$, and let $R \in \mathcal{H}_{A C}$ lie to the left of $A C$ with $|A R| \geqslant|A H|$ and $|B R| \leqslant|A B|$ (that is, $R$ lies in the green area of Figure 6). Let $A^{\prime}=A \ominus \mu$ for some $\mu \geqslant 0$ such that $\frac{\left|A^{\prime} B\right|}{|A B|} \leqslant \frac{|A B|}{|A H|}$, let $B^{\prime}=B \oplus \zeta_{A C}(R)$, let $H^{\prime}$ be the orthogonal projection of $A^{\prime}$ on $B C$, and let $R^{\star}$ be the horizontal projection of $R$ on $B C$. We rotate $B$ and $H^{\prime}$ around $A^{\prime}$ by angle $\measuredangle C A R$, obtaining points $B^{\prime \prime}$ and $H^{\prime \prime}$, respectively. Then $B^{\prime \prime}$ lies in $\triangle B B^{\prime} H$ and $H^{\prime \prime} \in$ $\triangle A^{\prime} H^{\prime} R^{\star}$.


Figure 6: Lemma 9


Figure 7: Proof of Theorem 6 $R$ not left of $C$.

Proof of Theorem 6. It suffices to prove the statement for an arbitrary triangle $\triangle P Q R$ that maximally fits into $\mathcal{X}$. By Lemma 7 , this implies that $\triangle P Q R$ is of one of the three types in the lemma.

Case $\triangle P Q R$ of type(i). If $\triangle P Q R$ is of type (i) with $P=A$ and $Q=B$, then, depending on the location of $R$, we translate it leftwards by $\zeta_{B C}(R)$ or rightwards by $\zeta_{A B}(R)$ to place it in $\triangle A^{\prime} B C$ or $\triangle A B^{\prime} C$, which are both included in $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$.

Types (ii) and (iii) are symmetric, so we break the symmetry and assume that $P=A$ and $R$ lies to the left and above $Q$.

Case $R$ not to the left of $C$. If $R$ does not lie to the left of $C$, we translate $\triangle P Q R$ leftwards by $\zeta_{B C}(R)$ to obtain a triangle $\triangle P^{\prime} Q^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ with $R^{\prime}$ on $\overline{B C}$; see Figure 7. If $Q^{\prime} \in \triangle A B C$, we are done since $\triangle P^{\prime} Q^{\prime} R^{\prime} \subset \triangle A^{\prime} B C$. Otherwise we apply Lemma 8 (after symmetry) to the triangle $\triangle B P^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ and the point $Q^{\prime}$ and obtain that $\triangle P Q R$ fits in the triangle $\triangle\left(P^{\prime}-\right.$ $\left.\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\right) B R^{\prime} \subset \triangle A^{\prime} B C$.

Now we are left with the case where $R$ lies strictly to the left of $C$. Since $Q$ lies below $R$, $Q$ lies on the right chain from $B$ up to but not including $C$. Let $H$ be the foot of the height of $\triangle A B C$ with respect to $\overline{B C}$ and let $B^{*}$ be the mirror image of $B$ about $A H$.

Case $Q$ below $A H$. If $\measuredangle B A Q \leqslant \measuredangle B A H$, then we rotate $\triangle P Q R$ clockwise around $A$. During the rotation, both $\zeta_{A C}(R)$ and $\zeta_{B C}(Q)$ are decreasing. We continue the rotation to obtain $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ until either $\zeta_{A C}\left(R^{\prime}\right)=0$ or $Q^{\prime} \in \overline{A B}$; see Figure 8 . If $\zeta_{A C}\left(R^{\prime}\right)>0$, then $Q^{\prime} \in \overline{A B}$. We then translate the triangle rightwards by $\zeta_{A C}\left(R^{\prime}\right)<\left|B \bar{B}^{\prime}\right|$ to place it in $\triangle A B^{\prime} C$. Otherwise, $R^{\prime} \in \overline{A C}$. Since $\triangle A R^{\prime} Q^{\prime} \subset \triangle A C Q^{\prime}$ and $\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)<\left|A A^{\prime}\right|$, we apply Lemma 8 to $\triangle A B C$ and $Q^{\prime}$ to conclude that $\triangle A R^{\prime} Q^{\prime} \subset \triangle A^{\prime} B C$.


Figure 8: Proof of Theorem 6 $Q$ below $A H$.


Figure 9: Proof of Theorem 6 $R \in \triangle A H B^{*}$.

Case $R \in \triangle A H B^{*}$. We now have that $\measuredangle B A Q>\measuredangle B A H$. If $R \in \triangle A H B^{*}$, then we mirror $\triangle P Q R$ about $A H$ to obtain a new triangle $\triangle P R^{\prime} Q^{\prime}$ with $R^{\prime} \in \triangle A B H \subset \triangle A B C$ and $\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)=\zeta_{B C}(Q)$; see Figure 9 . We can then rotate the triangle clockwise. The rotation decreases $\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$. We stop when either $Q^{\prime} \in \overline{B C}$ or $R^{\prime} \in \overline{A B}$ and denote by $\triangle P Q^{\prime \prime} R^{\prime \prime}$ the triangle in the new position. In the first case, we have $\triangle P R^{\prime \prime} Q^{\prime \prime} \subset \triangle A B C$, in the second case we can translate leftwards by $\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime \prime}\right)<\zeta_{B C}(Q) \leqslant\left|A A^{\prime}\right|$ to place the triangle in $\triangle A^{\prime} B C$.

Case $|A R| \leqslant|A H|$. Consider now the case where $|A R| \leqslant|A H|$. We can rotate $\triangle P Q R$ clockwise around $A$ to obtain a new triangle $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ with $Q^{\prime} \in A B$; see Figure 10. Since $R^{\prime}$ lies in the interior of $\mathcal{X}$, the triangle $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ does not maximally fit into $\mathcal{X}$.


Figure 10: Proof of Theorem 6\} $|A R| \leqslant|A H|$.


Figure 11: Proof of Theorem 6; the final case.

Final Case. We are now left with the final case where $R \in \mathcal{H}_{A C} \subset \mathcal{H}_{A B^{*}}$ lying to the left of $A B^{*},|A R| \geqslant|A H|,|B R| \leqslant|A B|, \measuredangle B A Q>\measuredangle B A H$, and $Q \in \mathcal{H}_{A C} \subset \mathcal{H}_{A B^{*}}$ lying to the right of $B C$; see Figure 11. We let $\rho=\measuredangle B^{*} A R$. We first mirror $\triangle P Q R$ about $A H$ to obtain $\triangle P^{\prime} R^{\prime} Q^{\prime}$, with $R^{\prime}$ below $A B, \measuredangle R^{\prime} A B=\rho$, and $\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)=\zeta_{B C}(Q)$. We then translate $\triangle P^{\prime} R^{\prime} Q^{\prime}$ leftwards by $\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ to obtain $\triangle P^{\prime \prime} Q^{\prime \prime} R^{\prime \prime}$ and finally rotate counter-clockwise about $P^{\prime \prime}$ by angle $\rho$ to obtain $\triangle P^{\prime \prime} Q^{\prime \prime \prime} R^{\prime \prime \prime}$. To see that $\triangle P^{\prime \prime} R^{\prime \prime \prime} Q^{\prime \prime \prime}$ fits into $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$, it remains to show that $Q^{\prime \prime \prime} \in$ $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$, since $P^{\prime \prime} \in \overline{A^{\prime} A}$ and $R^{\prime \prime \prime} \in \overline{A B}$.

Let $H^{\prime}$ be the foot of the perpendicular from $P^{\prime \prime}$ to $B C$. Since the line $P^{\prime \prime} H^{\prime}$ is the image of a leftward translation of the line $P H$ by $\zeta_{B C}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$, and $Q^{\prime}$ lies below the line $A H$, we have $Q^{\prime \prime} \in \overline{H^{\prime} B}$. We rotate $H^{\prime}$ and $B$ about $P^{\prime \prime}$ by angle $\rho$ to obtain $H^{\prime \prime}$ and $B^{\prime \prime}$, respectively, so that $Q^{\prime \prime \prime} \in \overline{H^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}}$.

We now apply Lemma 9 to $\triangle A B B^{*}$ and $R$, with $\mu=\zeta_{B C}(Q)=\zeta_{B B^{*}}(Q)(C$ in the lemma is our $B^{*}, A^{\prime}$ in the lemma is our $P^{\prime \prime}$.) To check the lemma's condition on $\mu$, let $Q_{0}$ be the point on the line $A H$ at distance $|A B|$ from $A$ and let $A_{0}=A \ominus \zeta_{B B^{*}}\left(Q_{0}\right)$; see Figure 12.


Figure 12: Proof of Theorem 6 verifying the condition of Lemma 9 .

Since $\mu \leq \zeta_{B B^{*}}\left(Q_{0}\right)$ under the constraint $|A Q| \leqslant|A B|$, we have that $\frac{\mu+|A B|}{|A B|} \leq \frac{\left|A_{0} B\right|}{|A B|}$. Let $Y=Q_{0} \ominus \zeta_{B B^{*}}\left(Q_{0}\right)$ and let $Z=Q_{0} \oplus|A B|$. The quadrilateral $A B Z Q_{0}$ is a rhombus, and the triangle $\triangle B Z Y$ is right-angled at $B$, and therefore similar to $\triangle A B H$. It follows that $\frac{\left|A_{0} B\right|}{|A B|}=\frac{|Y Z|}{|A B|}=\frac{|A B|}{|A H|}$, and the condition in Lemma 9 is satisfied. The lemma implies that $B^{\prime \prime} \in$ $\triangle B B^{\prime} H$, and that $H^{\prime \prime} \in \triangle H^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime} R^{*}$, where $R^{*}$ is the horizontal projection of $R$ on the line $B B^{*}$. Since $R \in \mathcal{H}_{A C}$, the point $C$ must lie on the segment $\overline{R^{*} B^{*}}$, and thus $H^{\prime \prime} \in \triangle H^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime} R^{*} \subset$ $\triangle H^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime} C \subset \triangle A^{\prime} B C$.

Since $Q^{\prime \prime \prime} \in \overline{H^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}}, H^{\prime \prime} \in \triangle A^{\prime} B C \subset \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$ and $B^{\prime \prime} \in \triangle B B^{\prime} H \subset \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$, convexity of $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$ implies that $Q^{\prime \prime \prime} \in \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C$, completing the proof.


Figure 13: Lemma 8 Angle notation (left); Case 1 (right).

## 4 Proofs with trigonometry and calculus

In this section we provide the postponed proofs of Lemma 8 and Lemma 9 .
Proof of Lemma 8. We denote angles as in Figure 13 (left). Note that $\alpha+\phi=\psi+\theta$. We claim that $\triangle B C Q$ fits into $\triangle A B^{\prime} C$. We distinguish two cases.

Case 1: $\theta \geqslant \phi$ In this case, we rotate $\triangle B C Q$ by angle $\phi$ around $B$, resulting in $\triangle B R S$ with $S$ on the line $A B$; see Figure 13 (right). Since $|B S|=|B Q| \leqslant|A B|, S$ lies on $\overline{A B}$. On the other hand $\psi=\alpha+(\phi-\theta) \leqslant \alpha$, so $R$ lies below $A C$, and therefore in $\triangle A B C$.

Case 2: $\theta<\phi$ In this case, we rotate $\triangle B C Q$ by angle $\theta$ around $B$, resulting in $\triangle B R S$ with $R S$ parallel to $A C$; see Figure 14 (left). We let $\triangle B S^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ be the image of $\triangle B R S$ mirrored about the angular bisector of $\angle A B R$, which means that $R^{\prime}$ lies on $\overline{A B}$; see Figure 14 (right).

We claim that $\min \left\{\zeta_{A C}(S), \zeta_{A C}\left(S^{\prime}\right)\right\} \leqslant \zeta_{A C}(Q)=\left|B B^{\prime}\right|$, which implies that at least one of $\triangle B R S$ or $\triangle B S^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ can be translated rightward to fit into $\triangle A B^{\prime} C$. By the law of sines, applied to triangles $\triangle A\left(Q \oplus \zeta_{A C}(Q)\right)\left(B \oplus \zeta_{A C}(Q)\right), \triangle A\left(S \oplus \zeta_{A C}(S)\right)\left(B \oplus \zeta_{A C}(S)\right)$, and $\triangle A\left(S^{\prime} \oplus\right.$ $\left.\zeta_{A C}\left(S^{\prime}\right)\right)\left(B \oplus \zeta_{A C}\left(S^{\prime}\right)\right)$ (see blue shaded triangles in Figures 13 and 14), we have

$$
\frac{|B Q|}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{\zeta_{A C}(Q)+|A B|}{\sin (\alpha+\phi)}=\frac{\zeta_{A C}(S)+|A B|}{\sin \psi}=\frac{\zeta_{A C}\left(S^{\prime}\right)+|A B|}{\sin (\alpha+\beta-\phi)}
$$

so we need to prove $\min \{\sin (\psi), \sin (\alpha+\beta-\phi)\} \leqslant \sin (\alpha+\phi)$. Suppose this is not the case. Then we have $\sin (\alpha+\phi)<\sin \psi$. Since $\alpha+\phi=\psi+\theta>\psi$ and $x \mapsto \sin x$ is monotonously increasing on $\left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$, we must have $\alpha+\phi>\frac{\pi}{2}$ and $\pi-(\alpha+\phi)<\frac{\pi}{2}$. On the other hand, we also have $\sin (\alpha+\beta-\phi)>\sin (\alpha+\phi)=\sin (\pi-(\alpha+\phi))$, which implies $\alpha+\beta-\phi>\pi-(\alpha+\phi)$ and therefore $(\alpha+\phi)+(\alpha+\beta-\phi)>\pi$. However, since $\gamma$ is the largest angle in $\triangle A B C$, $(\alpha+\phi)+(\alpha+\beta-\phi)=2 \alpha+\beta \leq \alpha+\beta+\gamma=\pi$, a contradiction.


Figure 14: Lemma 8, Case 2.


Figure 15: Lemma 9, Notation.

Proof of Lemma 9. We scale the problem such that $|A B|=|A C|=1$ and place $A$ at the origin, so that $B=(1,0)$. Let $\beta=\measuredangle A B C, \alpha=\measuredangle B A C=\pi-2 \beta$, and $\rho=\measuredangle C A R$. We have $|A H|=\sin \beta$, and $\left|A^{\prime} B\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{\sin \beta}$; see Figure 15 .

We first observe that we can replace $R$ by the point at distance $\sin \beta$ from $A$ on $\overline{A R}$. This keeps $\rho$ unchanged, decreases $|B R|$, decreases $\zeta_{A C}(R)$, and decreases $\left|H^{\prime} R^{\star}\right|$ so that $\triangle A^{\prime} H^{\prime} R^{\star}$ becomes strictly smaller. So in the following, $|A R|=|A H|=\sin \beta$.

Let next $\delta=\zeta_{A C}(R)$, and let $X \in \overline{A C}$ be the point $R \oplus \delta$. Applying the law of sines to $\triangle A X R$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\delta}{\sin \rho}=\frac{\sin \beta}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{\sin \beta}{\sin 2 \beta}=\frac{\sin \beta}{2 \sin \beta \cos \beta}=\frac{1}{2 \cos \beta} \quad \text { so } \quad \delta=\frac{\sin \rho}{2 \cos \beta} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now analyse the interval of angles $\beta$ for which the conditions of the lemma can be satisfied. Consider the point $R_{0}=(-\sin \beta \cos 2 \beta, \sin \beta \sin 2 \beta)$ on $\overline{A C}$ with $\left|A R_{0}\right|=\sin \beta$, and let

$$
\phi(\beta):=\left|R_{0} B\right|^{2}=(1+\sin \beta \cos 2 \beta)^{2}+(\sin \beta \sin 2 \beta)^{2}
$$

Notic $\xi^{1}$ that $\frac{d}{d \beta} \phi(\beta)=2 \cos \beta\left(6 \cos ^{2} \beta+\sin \beta-5\right)$, which is negative on $\left[\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ since $6 \cos ^{2} \beta+$ $\sin \beta-5 \leqslant 6 \cos ^{2} \frac{\pi}{4}-4=-1$. Thus, as $\beta$ increases from $\frac{\pi}{4}$ to $\frac{\pi}{2}, \phi(\beta)$ decreases monotonously from $\phi\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)=\frac{3}{2}$ to $\phi\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)=0$, so there is a $\beta_{0} \in\left(\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ with $\phi(\beta)=1$. For $\beta<\beta_{0} \approx 1.003 \approx 57.47^{\circ}$, no point $R$ left of $A C$ at distance smaller than one from $B$ can exist; see Figure 16. In the following we therefore have $\beta \geqslant \beta_{0}$.

[^1]

Figure 16: Lemma 9; definitions of $\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$.

The point $R$ lies on an arc of circle around $A$ with right endpoint $R_{0}$. There are two other critical points on this circle: let $R_{1}$ be the point with $\left|A R_{1}\right|=\sin \beta$ and $\left|B R_{1}\right|=1$, and let $R_{2}$ be the point on the horizontal line through $C$ with $\left|A R_{2}\right|=\sin \beta$ and a positive $x$-coordinate. A point $R$ satisfying the conditions of the lemma cannot lie to the left of $R_{1}$ because $|B R| \leqslant 1$, and cannot lie to the left of $R_{2}$ since $R \in \mathcal{H}_{A C}$.

The triangle $\triangle A B R_{1}$ is isosceles with two sides of length one and a short side $\overline{A R_{1}}$ of length $\sin \beta$, so $\measuredangle A B R_{1}=2 \sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2} \sin \beta\right)$. The law of sines applied to triangle $\triangle\left(A \ominus \zeta_{A C}\left(R_{1}\right)\right) R_{1} B$ now shows that

$$
\frac{\zeta_{A C}\left(R_{1}\right)+1}{\sin \left(\pi-(\pi-2 \beta)-2 \sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2} \sin \beta\right)\right)}=\frac{1}{\sin 2 \beta} .
$$

We set

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(\beta):=\zeta_{A C}\left(R_{1}\right)=\frac{\sin \left(2 \beta-2 \sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2} \sin \beta\right)\right)}{\sin 2 \beta}-1 . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $C=(-\cos 2 \beta, \sin 2 \beta)$, the $x$-coordinate of $R_{2}$ is $\sqrt{\sin ^{2} \beta-\sin ^{2} 2 \beta}$. For $\beta=\beta_{1}:=$ $\cos ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\right) \approx 1.107 \approx 63.4^{\circ}$, we have $C=\left(\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}\right), R_{2}=\left(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{4}{5}\right)$, implying $\left|B R_{2}\right|=1$, that is, $R_{1}=R_{2}$; see Figure 16. We set

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(\beta):=\zeta_{A C}\left(R_{2}\right)=\left|R_{2} C\right|=-\cos 2 \beta-\sqrt{\sin ^{2} \beta-\sin ^{2} 2 \beta} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

To summarize:

- For $\beta_{0} \leqslant \beta \leqslant \beta_{1}, R$ lies on the arc between $R_{0}$ and $R_{1}$. The angle $\rho$ is maximized when $R=R_{1}$. For $\beta=\beta_{0}$, we have $R_{1}=R_{0}$ (so there is only a single choice for $R$ ), for $\beta=\beta_{1}$ we have $R_{1}=R_{2}=\left(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{4}{5}\right)$. Since $R$ cannot lie to the left of $R_{1}$, we have $\delta \leqslant h(\beta)$.
- For $\beta_{1} \leqslant \beta<\frac{\pi}{2}, R$ lies on the arc between $R_{0}$ and $R_{2}$, with $\rho$ maximized when $R=R_{2}$. Since $R$ cannot lie to the left of $R_{2}$, we have $\delta \leqslant g(\beta)$.
$B^{\prime \prime}$ position. Consider now the point $B^{\prime \prime}$. Since $\left|A^{\prime} B\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{\sin \beta}$, it has $y$-coordinate at most $\frac{\sin \rho}{\sin \beta}$. We will prove that $H B^{\prime}$ intersects the vertical line $x=1$ through $B$ at $y$-coordinate at least $\frac{\sin \rho}{\sin \beta}$, implying that $B^{\prime \prime}$ lies below $H B^{\prime}$, and therefore is in $\triangle B B^{\prime} H$.

Since $H=\left(\sin ^{2} \beta, \sin \beta \cos \beta\right)$ and $B^{\prime}=(1+\delta, 0)$, the line $x=1$ intersects $H B^{\prime}$ at $y$-coordinate

$$
\delta \cdot \frac{\sin \beta \cos \beta}{1+\delta-\sin ^{2} \beta}=\frac{\sin \rho}{2 \cos \beta} \cdot \frac{\sin \beta \cos \beta}{\cos ^{2} \beta+\delta}=\frac{\sin \rho \sin \beta}{2\left(\cos ^{2} \beta+\delta\right)}
$$

This is at least $\frac{\sin \rho}{\sin \beta}$ if and only if

$$
\frac{1}{\cos ^{2} \beta+\delta} \geqslant \frac{2}{\sin ^{2} \beta}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\delta \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \sin ^{2} \beta-\cos ^{2} \beta=\frac{3}{2} \sin ^{2} \beta-1
$$

Setting $f(\beta)=\frac{3}{2} \sin ^{2} \beta-1$, it remains to show that $\delta=\zeta_{A C}(R) \leqslant f(\beta)$ under the conditions of the lemma.

We first consider the case $\beta \geqslant \beta_{1}$, where $\delta \leqslant g(\beta)$. Since $g(\beta)$ is a decreasing function, while $f(\beta)$ is an increasing function, this implies that $\delta \leqslant g(\beta) \leqslant g\left(\beta_{1}\right)=\frac{1}{5}=f\left(\beta_{1}\right) \leqslant f(\beta)$.

We next consider $\beta_{0} \leqslant \beta \leqslant \beta_{1}$. For $\beta=\beta_{1}, R_{2}=R_{1}$, so $h\left(\beta_{1}\right)=g\left(\beta_{1}\right)=\frac{1}{5}=f\left(\beta_{1}\right)$. We consider the function $\beta \mapsto f(\beta)-h(\beta)$. Plotting its derivative on the interval [ $\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}$ ] shows that it is smaller than -0.2 , so $f(\beta)-h(\beta)$ is decreasing on the interval. This implies that $\delta \leqslant h(\beta) \leqslant f(\beta)$ for $\beta \in\left[\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}\right]$, completing the proof of $B^{\prime \prime} \in \triangle B B^{\prime} H$.
$H^{\prime \prime}$ position. We now turn to the point $H^{\prime \prime}$. It is obtained by rotating $H^{\prime}$ counter-clockwise around $A^{\prime}$ by angle $\rho$. Since $A^{\prime} H^{\prime}$ is orthogonal to $B C, H^{\prime \prime}$ lies below the line $B C$. Since $\rho<\pi$, $H^{\prime \prime}$ lies above the line $A^{\prime} H^{\prime}$. To show that $H^{\prime \prime} \in \triangle A^{\prime} H^{\prime} R^{\star}$, it remains to prove that $H^{\prime \prime}$ lies below the line $A^{\prime} R^{\star}$. This is equivalent to proving $\rho \leqslant \measuredangle H^{\prime} A^{\prime} R^{\star}$.

Let $R_{0}^{\star}$ be the horizontal projection of $R_{0}$ on the line $B C$; see Figure 15. Since the $y$-coordinate of $R_{0}$ is $\sin \beta \sin 2 \beta$, we have $R_{0}^{\star}=(1-\cos \beta \sin 2 \beta, \sin \beta \sin 2 \beta)$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\measuredangle H^{\prime} A^{\prime} R^{\star} & =\measuredangle B A^{\prime} R^{\star}-\measuredangle B A^{\prime} H^{\prime}=\measuredangle B A^{\prime} R^{\star}-\measuredangle B A H \\
& =\measuredangle B A^{\prime} R^{\star}-\left(\frac{\pi}{2}-\beta\right) \geqslant \measuredangle B A^{\prime} R_{0}^{\star}-\left(\frac{\pi}{2}-\beta\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\left|A^{\prime} B\right| \leqslant \frac{1}{\sin \beta}$, we can therefore bound from below $\measuredangle H^{\prime} A^{\prime} R^{\star}$ by $r(\beta)$, where

$$
r(\beta):=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{\sin \beta \sin 2 \beta}{(1-\cos \beta \sin 2 \beta)+\left(\frac{1}{\sin \beta}-1\right)}\right)-\frac{\pi}{2}+\beta
$$

Plotting $r(\beta)$ shows that it is larger than 0.25 on the interval $\left[\beta_{0}, \frac{2 \pi}{5}\right]$.
We consider the case $\beta_{0} \leqslant \beta \leqslant \beta_{1}$. This implies that $\rho$ is maximized when $R=R_{1}$. Combining (1) and (22, this gives us $\sin \rho \leqslant 2 h(\beta) \cos \beta$. Plotting $\sin ^{-1}(2 h(\beta) \cos \beta)$ on the interval $\left[\beta_{0}, \beta_{1}\right]$ shows that $\rho<0.2<0.25<r(\beta)$.

Finally, we turn to the case $\beta_{1} \leqslant \beta<\frac{\pi}{2}$. Here, $\rho$ is maximized when $R=R_{2}$. Combining (1) and (3), this gives us $\sin \rho \leqslant 2 g(\beta) \cos \beta$. Plotting $\sin ^{-1}(2 g(\beta) \cos \beta)$ on the interval $\left[\beta_{1}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ shows that $\rho<0.2$ on that interval. For $\beta \leqslant \frac{2 \pi}{5}$, this implies $\rho<0.25<r(\beta)$. For $\beta \geqslant \frac{2 \pi}{5}$, we consider the function $t(\beta)=r(\beta)-\sin ^{-1}(2 g(\beta) \cos \beta)$. We plot the derivative of $t(\beta)$ on the interval $\left[\frac{2 \pi}{5}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ to show that it is smaller than -0.05 , so $t(\beta)$ is a decreasing function on that interval. Since $t\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)=0$, this implies that $t(\beta) \geqslant 0$, and therefore $\rho \leqslant r(\beta)$ for $\frac{2 \pi}{5} \leqslant \beta<\frac{\pi}{2}$.

To summarize, we have shown $\rho \leqslant r(\beta) \leqslant \measuredangle H^{\prime} A^{\prime} R^{\star}$, so $H^{\prime \prime} \in \triangle A^{\prime} H^{\prime} R^{\star}$ for all values of $\beta$.


Figure 17: Right triangles of diameter two.

## 5 Triangles contained in a half-disk

As a warm-up exercise to the square case, we determine the smallest convex cover for the family of triangles contained in the half-disk that is the intersection of the unit disk with the halfplane $y \geqslant$ 0 .

Proof of Theorem 3. We leave it as an exercise to the reader to first show that it suffices to cover only the right-angled triangles whose hypotenuse has length two.

By symmetry, we in fact only have to consider the triangles $T_{x}$ whose vertices are $(-1,0)$, $(1,0),\left(-x, \sqrt{1-x^{2}}\right)$, for $x \in[0,1]$; see Figure 17 (left). When translating $T_{x}$ horizontally so that its upper vertex is on the line segment $(-1,0)(0,1)$, the right vertex of the translation of $T_{x}$ is at coordinate $\left(x+\sqrt{1-x^{2}}, 0\right)$. The $x$-coordinate of this point is maximized for $x=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, so the triangle $Z$ with vertices $(-1,0),(\sqrt{2}, 0)$, and $(0,1)$ is a cover for all $T_{x}$; see the blue triangle in Figure 17(right).

To complete the proof of Theorem 3, we need to argue that $Z$ is a smallest cover for the family $T_{x}$. This is true since it is already a smallest cover for the two triangles $T_{0}$ and $T_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}$, as can be seen using Corollary 10 of Park and Cheong [8].

Notice that the half-disk is a crescent, but that the triangular cover constructed in Theorem 6 is not the smallest one.


Figure 18: Triangles that fit in a square.

## 6 Triangles contained in the unit square

In this section, we prove Theorem 4. We start again by characterizing triangles that maximally fit into the square.

Lemma 10. Let $\mathcal{X}=A B C D$ be a square. If a triangle $T=\triangle P Q R$ fits maximally into $\mathcal{X}$, then without loss of generality, we can assume that $P=A, Q$ lies on $B C$, and $R$ lies on $C D$.

Proof. Since $T$ maximally fits into $\mathcal{X}$, we can assume that $P, Q, R$ all lie on the boundary $\partial \mathcal{X}$. Suppose two vertices of $T$ lie on the same side of $\mathcal{X}$, say, $P, Q$ lie on $A B$. Then $T \subset \triangle A B R \subset \mathcal{X}$ as in Figure 18 (left). Since $T$ maximally fits into $\mathcal{X}$, this implies $P=A, Q=B$. Suppose next that no vertex of $T$ coincides with a vertex of $\mathcal{X}$. Then $P, Q, R$ lie on three different sides of $\mathcal{X}$, so we can assume that no vertex lies on $A D$. We can then translate $T$ upwards so that it no longer touches $B C$, which implies that $T$ does not maximally fit into $\mathcal{X}$; see Figure 18(right). It follows that we can assume that $P=A$ and that $Q, R$ lie on the sides $B C$ and $C D$.

By Lemma 10, it suffices to study the triangles with $P=A, Q \in \overline{B C}$, and $R \in \overline{C D}$. We parameterize these triangles $\triangle P Q R$ by the two angles $\theta$ and $\theta^{\prime}$ made by the edges $\overline{P Q}$ and $\overline{P R}$ with the diagonal $\overline{A C}$ of the square. We denote this triangle $T_{\theta, \theta^{\prime}}$; see Figure 18 (right). These parameters range in $\left[0, \frac{\pi}{4}\right]$ and the case $\theta=\theta^{\prime}=\frac{\pi}{6}$ corresponds to the largest equilateral triangle that can fit in the square. We denote this equilateral triangle as $T_{0}=\triangle P_{0} Q_{0} R_{0}=T_{\frac{\pi}{6}}, \frac{\pi}{6}$; see the blue triangle in Figure 19 .


Figure 19: Notations.


Figure 20: Construction of the smallest convex cover for the equilateral triangle $T_{0}$ and the isosceles triangle $T_{\theta, \theta}$.

### 6.1 The isosceles case: construction of the cover

We first consider the isosceles triangle $T_{\theta, \theta}$ with $\theta \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6}$. Then, as described by Park and Cheong [8], the smallest convex cover $C_{\theta}=\triangle X_{\theta} Y_{\theta} Z_{\theta}$ for $T_{\theta, \theta}$ and $T_{0}$ is obtained when $P^{\prime} R^{\prime}$ is aligned with $P_{0} R_{0}$, and $Q^{\prime}$ is on $Q_{0} R_{0}$; see Figure 20. We have $\left|P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}\right|=\left|P_{0} Q\right|=\frac{1}{\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4}-\theta\right)}$. Hence we compute the distance $\ell(\theta)$ between $P^{\prime}$ and $R_{0}$ by the law of sines in $\triangle X_{\theta} Q^{\prime} Z_{\theta}$ :

$$
\ell(\theta)=\frac{\left|P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}\right| \cdot \sin \measuredangle Z_{\theta} Q^{\prime} X_{\theta}}{\sin \measuredangle X_{\theta} Z_{\theta} Q^{\prime}}=\frac{\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3}+2 \theta\right)}{\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4}-\theta\right) \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}
$$

When $\theta=0, T_{0,0}$ degenerates to the diagonal of the square and $\ell(0)=\sqrt{2}$. As $\theta$ increases from zero, $\ell(\theta)$ increases to a maximum ${ }^{2}$ at

$$
\theta_{0}=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2+\sqrt{3}}}\right)-\frac{\pi}{6} \approx 0.049 \approx 2.81^{\circ}
$$

then decreases to $\ell\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right)=1 / \cos \frac{\pi}{12}$. We have $\ell\left(\theta_{0}\right) \approx 1.4195$.
It follows that the triangle $\mathcal{C}=\triangle X Y Z$, where $X=X_{\theta_{0}}, Y=Y_{\theta_{0}}, Z=Z_{\theta_{0}}$, is a cover for the family of all isosceles triangles $T_{\theta, \theta}$ for $0<\theta \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6}$. We note that $\measuredangle X Z Y=\frac{\pi}{3},|X Z|=\ell\left(\theta_{0}\right)$, and $|Z Y|=\ell\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right)$.

It is intriguing that $\mathcal{C}$ is just slightly larger than the much "nicer" triangle $\triangle X_{0} Y_{0} Z_{0}$ obtained for $\theta=0$. We will denote this triangle as $\mathcal{C}^{\star}=\triangle X^{\star} Y^{\star} Z^{\star}$. The angles of $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ are $\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{5 \pi}{12}=75^{\circ}$, and $\frac{\pi}{3}$, and $\left|X^{\star} Z^{\star}\right|=\sqrt{2}$, and we have $\mathcal{C}^{\star} \subset \mathcal{C}$.

We have $\ell(\theta) \geqslant \sqrt{2}$ when $\theta \in\left[0, \theta_{1}\right]$ with

$$
\theta_{1}=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{4 \sin ^{2} \frac{\pi}{12}+1}{8 \sin ^{2} \frac{\pi}{12}-6+\sqrt{16 \sin ^{4} \frac{\pi}{12}-72 \sin ^{2} \frac{\pi}{12}+57}}\right)-\frac{\pi}{6} \approx 0.0996 \approx 5.7^{\circ}
$$

so the triangle $T_{\theta, \theta}$ actually fits into $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ for $\theta_{1} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6}$.

[^2]In the following six sections, we discuss why each triangle $T_{\theta, \theta^{\prime}}$ indeed fits into $\mathcal{C}$. Figure 21 shows how the six cases cover the entire domain of $\left(\theta, \theta^{\prime}\right)$. Since $\mathcal{C}$ is already a smallest convex cover for $T_{0}$ and $T_{\theta_{0}, \theta_{0}}$, this makes it a smallest convex cover the family of all triangles contained in the unit square.

It turns out that only case A requires the cover $\mathcal{C}$, in all other cases $T_{\theta, \theta^{\prime}}$ fits into the nicer triangle $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$-so in a sense $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ is a cover for "most" triangles contained in the unit square.

Moreover, $\mathcal{C}$ is indeed the unique smallest cover for the family of all isosceles triangles contained in the unit square. To show this, we can directly adapt the proof of Lemma 13 by Park and Cheong [8] to argue that a smallest cover for $T_{0}$ and $T_{\theta_{0}, \theta_{0}}$ that is different from $\mathcal{C}$ is a quadrilateral, and that this quadrilateral does not cover either $T_{\theta_{0}+\varepsilon, \theta_{0}+\varepsilon}$ or $T_{\theta_{0}-\varepsilon, \theta_{0}-\varepsilon}$ for small enough $\varepsilon$.


Figure 21: Six cases cover all possible triangles. All cases but Case A fit in $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$.


Figure 22: Case A: covering $\triangle P Q R$ with $\theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \theta_{1}$.

### 6.2 Case A

We start with the skinny triangles where $\theta, \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \theta_{1} \approx 5.7^{\circ}$. This is the only case where we need to use the cover $\mathcal{C}$ - that should not come as a surprise, since $T_{\theta_{0}, \theta_{0}}$ falls into this case.

Let $\triangle P Q R=T_{\theta, \theta^{\prime}}$ be a triangle with $\theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \theta_{1}$. Let $Q^{\prime} \in \overline{B C}$ be such that $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R=T_{\theta, \theta}$. We have seen in Section 6.1 that $\mathcal{C}_{\theta} \subset \mathcal{C}$ covers $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R$ as in Figure 22. The point $Q$ lies on the segment $\overline{B Q^{\prime}}$, so $\triangle P Q R \subset \mathcal{C}_{\theta}$ as long as $\theta+\theta^{\prime} \leqslant \measuredangle Y_{\theta} X_{\theta} Z_{\theta}$. Since the angle $\measuredangle Y_{\theta} X_{\theta} Z_{\theta}$ is minimized by $\measuredangle Y_{\theta_{0}} X_{\theta_{0}} Z_{\theta_{0}}>44.8^{\circ}$, this holds for $\theta, \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \theta_{1}$.

### 6.3 Case B

Case B is nearly identical to case A, but here we can use our "nice" cover $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$. We consider the situation where $\theta_{1} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{4}-\theta$. We place $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ with $X^{\star}=A$ and such that $R$ is on $\overline{X^{\star} Z^{\star}}$, and let again $Q^{\prime} \in \overline{B C}$ be such that $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R=T_{\theta, \theta}$. We argued in Section 6.1 that $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ covers $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R$ as in Figure 23. Note that unlike in case A, $Q^{\prime}$ lies in the interior of $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$. Since $\measuredangle R A Q \leqslant \frac{\pi}{4}=\measuredangle Z^{\star} X^{\star} Y^{\star}, Q \in \mathcal{C}^{\star}$ and so $\triangle P Q R \subset \mathcal{C}^{\star}$.


Figure 23: Case B: covering $\triangle P Q R$ when $\theta_{1} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{4}-\theta$.


Figure 24: Case C: covering $\triangle P Q R$ when $\frac{\pi}{6} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime}$.

### 6.4 Case C

We now consider the triangles where $\theta, \theta^{\prime} \geqslant \frac{\pi}{6}$. In other words, $Q \in \overline{B Q_{0}}, R \in \overline{R_{0} D}$.
We first observe that $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ can be placed such that $\overline{X^{\star} Y^{\star}}$ is vertical and lies on the line $A B$, while $Z^{\star}$ lies on the line $C D$ (recall that $\measuredangle Y^{\star} X^{\star} Z^{\star}=\frac{\pi}{4}$ while $\left|X^{\star} Z^{\star}\right|=\sqrt{2}$ ). When $Z^{\star} \in \overline{R_{0} D}$, then the side $\overline{X^{\star} Y^{\star}}$ covers the entire square edge $\overline{A B}$. Figure 24 shows the two extreme cases where $Z^{\star}=R_{0}$ (left) and where $Z^{\star}=D$ (middle).

Consider now our triangle $\triangle P Q R$, and assume without loss of generality that $\theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime}$. We place $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ such that $Z^{\star}=R$; see Figure 24 (right). Since the line $Z^{\star} X^{\star}$ has slope -1 , it intersects $\overline{B C}$ in a point $Q^{\prime}$ such that $\triangle P Q^{\prime} R=T_{\theta, \theta}$. By symmetry, we can assume $\theta^{\prime} \geqslant \theta$, that implies that $Q \in \overline{B Q^{\prime}} \subset \mathcal{C}^{\star}$ and thus $\triangle P Q R \subset \mathcal{C}^{\star}$.

### 6.5 Case D

We now look at the situation where we have $\frac{\pi}{12}=15^{\circ}<\theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6}$. In other words, we have $Q \in \overline{Q_{0} Q_{1}}$ and $R \in \overline{R_{1} R_{0}}$ where $\measuredangle Q_{1} A C=\measuredangle R_{1} A C=\frac{\pi}{12}$ as in Figure 25 (left).

We observe that $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ can be placed to cover $T_{0}=\triangle P Q_{0} R_{0}$ as in Figure 25 (middle left). Starting in this position, we can translate $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ downwards until $Y^{\star}=R_{1}$. Since $X^{\star} Y^{\star}$ is parallel to $A R_{1}, A$ lies in $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ during the entire translation; see Figure 25 (middle right).

Among these positions for $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$, we choose the one where $Y^{\star}=R$; see Figure 25 (right). Since the line $Y^{\star} Z^{\star}$ has slope -1 , it intersects $\overline{B C}$ in a point $Q^{\prime}$ such that $\triangle P Q^{\prime} \bar{R}=T_{\theta, \theta}$. Since $\theta^{\prime} \geqslant \theta$, we have $Q \in \overline{Q_{0} Q^{\prime}} \subset \mathcal{C}^{\star}$ and thus $\triangle P Q R \subset \mathcal{C}^{\star}$.


Figure 25: Case D: covering $\triangle P Q R$ when $\frac{\pi}{12}<\theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6}$.


Figure 26: Case E: covering $\triangle P Q R$ when $\theta \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6} \leqslant \theta^{\prime}$ and $\frac{\pi}{4}-\theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{3}-\theta$.

### 6.6 Case E

We consider the situation where $\theta \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6} \leqslant \theta^{\prime}$, with the constraints $\frac{\pi}{4}-\theta \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{3}-\theta$. In other words, $R$ lies on $\overline{C R_{0}}$, while $Q$ lies on $\overline{B Q_{0}}$ in Figure 26 , with $\frac{\pi}{4} \leqslant \measuredangle R A Q \leqslant \frac{\pi}{3}$. We place $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ with $Y^{\star}=A$ and $X^{\star}=C$. Rotating $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ clockwise around $A$, the line $X^{\star} Z^{\star}$ intersects $B C$ and $C D$ in two points $Q^{\prime}$ and $R^{\prime}$, respectively; see Figure 26 (top right).

We claim that $\measuredangle R^{\prime} A Q^{\prime}=\frac{\pi}{4}$. To see this, consider the point $H \in \overline{X^{\star} Z^{\star}}$ such that $\overline{Y^{\star} H}$ is a height of $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$. Since the height $|A H|=1$, we have $\triangle A D R^{\prime} \equiv \triangle A H R^{\prime}$ and $\triangle A B Q^{\prime} \equiv \triangle A H Q^{\prime}$.

We continue rotating $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$ until either $R$ lies on $\overline{X^{\star} Z^{\star}}$ or $Q$ lies on $\overline{Y^{\star} Z^{\star}}$.
In the first case, $R=R^{\prime}$; see Figure 26 (bottom left). Then $\measuredangle R A Q \geqslant \frac{\pi}{4}=\measuredangle R^{\prime} A Q^{\prime}$ implies that $Q$ lies to the right of $Q^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$. Since the line $Y^{\star} Z^{\star}$ has not yet passed the point $Q, Q$ lies on the highlighted segment in $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$.

The second case is illustrated in Figure 26(bottom right). The line $X^{\star} Z^{\star}$ has not yet reached $R$, so $R$ lies above that line. Since $\measuredangle Q A R \leqslant \frac{\pi}{3}=\measuredangle Z^{\star} Y^{\star} X^{\star}, R$ lies below the line $X^{\star} Y^{\star}$, and therefore on the highlighted segment in $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$.

### 6.7 Case F

In the final case we consider the angles $\frac{\pi}{12}=15^{\circ} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \frac{\pi}{6}$ and $\frac{\pi}{6} \leqslant \theta^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{4}$. In other words, $Q$ lies on $\overline{B Q_{0}}$, while $R \in \overline{R_{1} R_{0}}$; see Figure 27 (top left).

We again start by covering $T_{0}=\triangle P Q_{0} R_{0}$ with $\mathcal{C}^{\star}$, but this time we need to cover it in two different ways; see Figure 27(top right). The first copy $\mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$ has $Y_{1}^{\star}=Q_{0}$ and $Z_{1}^{\star}=A$ and the second copy $\mathcal{C}_{2}^{\star}$ has $Z_{2}^{\star}=Q_{0}$ and $Y_{2}^{\star}=A$. Note that $\overline{X_{1}^{\star} Z_{1}^{\star}}$ and $\overline{X_{2}^{\star} Z_{2}^{\star}}$ intersect exactly at $R_{0}$.

Consider now the point $Q \in \overline{B Q_{0}}$. We rotate $\mathcal{C}_{2}^{\star}$ counter-clockwise around $A$ until $Q \in$ $\overline{X_{2}^{\star} Z_{2}^{\star}}$ and translate $\mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$ to the right until $Y_{1}^{\star}=Q$. This places $A$ outside of $\mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$, so we then rotate $\mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$ counter-clockwise around $Q$ until $A \in \overline{X_{1}^{\star} Z_{1}^{\star}}$. Figure 27 depicts the situation for different positions of $Q$.

Let $M_{1}$ be the intersection of $\overline{X_{1}^{\star} Y_{1}^{\star}}$ and $\overline{C D}$ and let $M_{2}$ be the intersection of $\overline{X_{2}^{\star} Y_{2}^{\star}}$ and $\overline{C D}$; see Figure 27(middle right). When $Q$ moves from $Q_{0}$ to $B$, the line $A M_{2}$ rotates around $A$ and thus $M_{2}$ moves downwards monotonously. We let $Q^{\prime}$ be the position of $Q$ when $B \in \overline{Y_{2}^{\star} Z_{2}^{\star}}$ and $M_{2}=R_{0}$; see Figure 27(bottom left).

Let $N$ be the intersection of $\overline{X_{1}^{\star} Z_{1}^{\star}}$ and $\overline{X_{2}^{\star} Z_{2}^{\star}}$. We will show below that for $Q \in \overline{B Q_{0}}$, the point $N$ always lies on or to the left of $C D$. This will imply that the segment $\overline{M_{1} M_{2}}$ lies entirely in $\mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star} \cup \mathcal{C}_{2}^{\star}$, so as long as $R \in \overline{M_{1} M_{2}}$, we have $\triangle P Q R \subset \mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$ or $\triangle P Q R \subset \mathcal{C}_{2}^{\star}$.

Assume now that $R$ lies above $M_{2}$, that is on $\overline{M_{2} R_{0}}$. This implies that $R \in \overline{R_{2} R_{0}}$, where $R_{2}$ is the position of $M_{2}$ when $Q=B$ as in Figure 27 (bottom right). Such a triangle $\triangle P Q R$ is covered by $\mathcal{C}_{2}^{\star}$ in its position when $Q=Q^{\prime}$, as illustrated in Figure 27(bottom left).

Otherwise $R$ lies below $M_{1}$, that is on $\overline{R_{2} M_{1}}$. (This is indeed possible: while $Q$ moves from $Q_{0}$ to $B, M_{1}$ initially moves slightly upwards above $R_{1}$ before starting a monotone movement downwards.) In this case we rotate $\mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$ further counter-clockwise until $R \in X_{1}^{\star} Y_{1}^{\star}$. Since $\measuredangle R Q A \leqslant$ $\measuredangle R_{1} Q A \leqslant \measuredangle R_{1} Q_{0} A=75^{\circ}=\measuredangle X^{\star} Y^{\star} Z^{\star}$, we then have $P=A \in \mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$ and $\triangle P Q R \subset \mathcal{C}_{1}^{\star}$.

It remains to prove the claim that the point $N$ lies on or to the left of the line $C D$. We will compute the $x$-coordinate of $N$ as a function of $q:=|A Q|$. As $Q$ ranges from $B$ to $Q_{0}, q$ ranges from 1 to $1 / \cos \frac{\pi}{12} \approx 1.035$. Let $h$ be the height of $Y^{\star}$ in $\triangle X^{\star} Y^{\star} Z^{\star}$. We have

$$
h=\left|Z^{\star} Y^{\star}\right| \sin \frac{\pi}{3}=\left|A Q_{0}\right| \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{3}=\frac{1}{\cos \frac{\pi}{12}} \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{3}=\sqrt{6-3 \sqrt{3}}
$$

We next observe that $Z_{1}^{\star} X_{1}^{\star}$ is the line at distance $h$ from $Q$ through $A$, while $Z_{2}^{\star} X_{2}^{\star}$ is the line at distance $h$ from $A$ through $Q$. This implies that $\triangle A Q N$ is isosceles, with two equal heights of length $h$; see Figure 28. Let $\alpha:=\measuredangle Q A N=\measuredangle A Q N$ and $d:=|A N|=|Q N|$. We have $\sin \alpha=\frac{h}{q}$ and $\cos \alpha=\frac{q}{2 d}$. Let $\beta:=\measuredangle B A Q$. Then, $\cos \beta=\frac{1}{q}$.

Now we compute the horizontal distance $f(q)$ between $A$ and $N$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(q) & =d \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{2}-\alpha-\beta\right)=d \sin (\alpha+\beta)=d \sin \alpha \cos \beta+d \cos \alpha \sin \beta \\
& =\frac{q}{2 \cos \alpha} \frac{h}{q} \frac{1}{q}+\frac{q}{2} \sin \beta=\frac{h}{2 q \sqrt{1-\frac{h^{2}}{q^{2}}}}+\frac{q}{2} \sqrt{1-\frac{1}{q^{2}}} \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{h}{\sqrt{q^{2}-h^{2}}}+\sqrt{q^{2}-1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Plotting the function $f(q)$ shows that $f(q)>1.01$ on the interval $1 \leqslant q \leqslant 1.02$. Plotting the derivative $f^{\prime}(q)$ shows that $f^{\prime}(q)<-0.9$ on the interval $1.01 \leqslant q \leqslant 1.05$, so $f(q)$ is decreasing on this interval. We also know that $f\left(\left|A Q_{0}\right|\right)=1$ since then $N=R_{0}$. This implies that $f(q) \geqslant 1$ for any $Q \in \overline{B Q_{0}}$. It follows that $N$ lies on or to the left of $\overline{C D}$, completing this case and the entire proof.


Figure 27: Case F: top left: locations of $Q$ and $R$; top right: double-covering of $T_{0}$; middle left: $Q=Q_{0}$; middle right: $Q$ moving right, $M_{2}$ moving down, bottom left: when $M_{2}$ reaches $R_{0}$, let $Q^{\prime}$ be the position of $Q$, bottom right: $Q=B$.


Figure 28: Case F: computing the $x$-coordinate of $N$.

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## A Computations

Here we perform the computations needed in the paper using Maple. Maple source file is available as an auxiliary file on HAL with this document.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { Proof of Lemma } 9 \\
& \operatorname{ph}_{2}:=\text { beta } \rightarrow\left(1+\sin (\text { beta }) * \cos (2 * \text { beta) })^{\wedge} 2+(\sin (\text { beta }) * \sin (2 * \text { beta }))\right. \\
& \phi:=\beta \mapsto(1+\sin (\beta) \cos (2 \beta))^{2}+\sin (\beta)^{2} \sin (2 \beta)^{2}  \tag{1}\\
& \text { simplify(diff(phi(beta), beta)); } \\
& 2 \cos (\beta)\left(6 \cos (\beta)^{2}+\sin (\beta)-5\right)  \tag{2}\\
& \text { beta0:=solve(phi (beta)=1)[1];evalf(beta0);evalf(beta0*180/Pi); } \\
& \beta 0:=\arctan \left(\frac{8\left(\frac{1}{8}+\frac{\sqrt{33}}{8}\right)}{\sqrt{30-2 \sqrt{33}}}\right) \\
& 1.002966954 \\
& 57.46577344 \\
& \mathrm{~h}:=\operatorname{beta}->\sin (2 * \text { beta-2*arcsin(sin(beta)/2))/sin(2*beta)-1; } \\
& h:=\beta \mapsto \frac{\sin \left(2 \beta-2 \arcsin \left(\frac{\sin (\beta)}{2}\right)\right)}{\sin (2 \beta)}-1 \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

beta1: =arccos(1/sqrt(5));evalf(beta1);evalf(beta1*180/Pi);

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta 1:= & \arccos \left(\frac{\sqrt{5}}{5}\right) \\
& 1.107148718 \\
& 63.43494883
\end{aligned}
$$

g := beta-> $-\cos \left(2 *\right.$ beta) $-\operatorname{sqrt}\left(\sin \left(\right.\right.$ beta) ${ }^{\wedge} 2-\sin \left(2 *\right.$ beta) $\left.{ }^{\wedge} 2\right)$;

$$
g:=\beta \mapsto-\cos (2 \beta)-\sqrt{\sin (\beta)^{2}-\sin (2 \beta)^{2}}
$$

f := beta-> 3/2*sin(beta)^2-1;

$$
\begin{equation*}
f:=\beta \mapsto \frac{3 \sin (\beta)^{2}}{2}-1 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

B"position
$>\operatorname{plot}([f($ beta $), h($ beta $)]$, beta=beta0. .beta1) ; plot ([f(beta), g(beta)], beta=beta1..Pi/2);

[H"position
> r:= beta-> arctan( $\sin ($ beta)*sin(2*beta)/((1-cos(beta)*sin(2*beta)) $-(1-1 / \sin ($ beta) $)))-\mathrm{Pi} / 2+$ beta;

$$
\begin{equation*}
r:=\beta \mapsto \arctan \left(\frac{\sin (\beta) \sin (2 \beta)}{-\cos (\beta) \sin (2 \beta)+\frac{1}{\sin (\beta)}}\right)-\frac{\pi}{2}+\beta \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

plot([r(beta), 1/4],beta=beta0..2*Pi/5);




## Isoscele triangles

$1:=$ theta-> $\sin (P i / 3+2 *$ theta) $/(\cos (P i / 4-t h e t a) * \sin (P i / 3))$;

$$
\begin{equation*}
l:=\theta \mapsto \frac{\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3}+2 \theta\right)}{\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4}-\theta\right) \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

= plot( [1(theta), sqrt(2)],theta=0..Pi/6);

$\theta$
$>$ theta0:=simplify(solve( $\operatorname{diff(l(t),t),t)[1]);~evalf([theta0,theta0*~}$ 180/Pi]);
maxl:=simplify(l(theta0)) ;evalf(maxl);
thetal:=solve( $1(t)=\operatorname{sqrt}(2), t)[3] ; \operatorname{evalf}([$ theta1,theta1*180/Pi]);
RR n ${ }^{\circ} 9378$

## $X$ angle of the cover

[> xxx:=simplify(solve(sin(xx)/l(Pi/6)=sin(2*Pi/3-xx)/l(theta0), xx)); evalf([xxx, xxx*180/Pi]);

$$
\begin{aligned}
x x x & :=-\frac{\pi}{6}-\arctan \left(\left(2 \operatorname { s i n } ( \frac { \pi } { 1 2 } ) \operatorname { c o s } ( \frac { \pi } { 1 2 } ) \left(\sqrt{3}(2+\sqrt{3})^{1 / 3} \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)\right.\right.\right. \\
& -2 \sin \left(2 \arctan \left((2+\sqrt{3})^{2 / 3}(\sqrt{3}-2)\right)\right) \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right) \sqrt{(2+\sqrt{3})^{2 / 3}+1} \\
& \left.\left.+\sqrt{3} \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)\right)\right) /\left(( 2 \operatorname { c o s } ( \frac { \pi } { 1 2 } ) ^ { 2 } - 1 ) \left(\sqrt{3}(2+\sqrt{3})^{1 / 3} \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)\right.\right. \\
& +2 \sin \left(2 \arctan \left((2+\sqrt{3})^{2 / 3}(\sqrt{3}-2)\right)\right) \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right) \sqrt{(2+\sqrt{3})^{2 / 3}+1} \\
& \left.\left.\left.+\sqrt{3} \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)\right)\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
[0.7824625782,44.83180336]
$$

## Position of N , x coordinate

[> ff:=q-> 1/2*(sqrt(6-3*sqrt(3))/sqrt(q^2-6+3*sqrt(3))+sqrt(q^2-1));

$$
\begin{equation*}
f f:=q \mapsto \frac{\sqrt{6-3 \sqrt{3}}}{2 \sqrt{q^{2}-6+3 \sqrt{3}}}+\frac{\sqrt{q^{2}-1}}{2} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

= plot(ff(q),q=1..1.05);

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \theta 0:=\arctan \left(\frac{1}{(2+\sqrt{3})^{1 / 3}}\right)-\frac{\pi}{6} \\
& \text { [0.0490343963, 2.809463958] } \\
& \text { maxl }:=\frac{2 \sin \left(2 \arctan \left(\frac{1}{(2+\sqrt{3})^{1 / 3}}\right)\right) \sqrt{3}}{3 \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12}+\arctan \left(\frac{1}{(2+\sqrt{3})^{1 / 3}}\right)\right)} \\
& 1.419493024 \\
& \theta 1:=\arctan \left(\frac{4 \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)^{2}+1}{8 \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)^{2}-6+\sqrt{16 \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)^{4}-72 \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right)^{2}+57}}\right)-\frac{\pi}{6}
\end{aligned}
$$


[Position of M1, y coordinate
plot $((1-\tan (x)) * \tan (\arcsin (\operatorname{sqrt}(6-3 * \operatorname{sqrt}(3)) * \cos (x))+x-P i / 4), x=$ 0..Pi/12);

plot ((1-tan(x))* tan(arcsin(sqrt(6-3*sqrt(3))*cos(x))+x-Pi/4), $x=$ Pi/16..Pi/12);


RESEARCH CENTRE
NANCY - GRAND EST
615 rue du Jardin Botanique
CS20101
54603 Villers-lès-Nancy Cedex

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Inria
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BP 105-78153 Le Chesnay Cedex
inria.fr


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    * School of Computing, KAIST, Daejeon, Korea. otfried@kaist.airpost.net.
    $\dagger$ Université de Lorraine, CNRS, Inria, LORIA, F-54000 Nancy, France. Olivier.Devillers@inria.fr.
    $\ddagger$ Université Paris-Saclay, CNRS, Inria, Laboratoire de Mathématiques d’Orsay, 91405, Orsay, France. Marc.Glisse@inria.fr.

    ```
    RESEARCH CENTRE
    NANCY - GRAND EST
    6 1 5 \text { rue du Jardin Botanique}
    CS20101
    54603 Villers-lès-Nancy Cedex
    ```

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ The computations can be found in the appendix.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ The computations in Maple can be found in the appendix.

