

Kaleidoscopical configurations

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Abstract. Let G be a group and X be a G-space with the action $G \times X \to X$, $(g,x) \mapsto gx$. A subset A of X is called a kaleidoscopical configuration if there is a coloring $\chi: X \to \kappa$ (i.e. a mapping of X onto a cardinal κ) such that the restriction $\chi|_{gA}$ is a bijection for each $g \in G$. We survey some recent results on kaleidoscopical configurations in metric spaces considered as G-spaces with respect to the groups of its isometries and in groups considered as left regular G-spaces.

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1. Introduction

Let X be a set \mathfrak{F} be a family of subsets of X. The pair (X,\mathfrak{F}) is called a hypergraph. Following [9], we say that a coloring $\chi:X\to\kappa$ (i.e. a mapping of X onto a cardinal κ) is kaleidoscopical if $\chi|_F$ is bijective for all $F\in\mathfrak{F}$. A hypergraph (X,\mathfrak{F}) is called kaleidoscopical if there exists a kaleidoscopical coloring $\chi:X\to\kappa$. The adjective "kaleidoscopical" appeared in definition [13] of an s-regular graph $\Gamma(V,E)$ (each vertex $v\in V$ has degree s) admitting a vertex (s+1)-colloring such that each unit ball $B(v,1)=\{u\in V:d(u,v)=1\}$ has the vertices of all colors (d is the path metric on V). These graphs define the kaleidoscopical hypergraphs $(V,\{B(v,1):v\in V\})$ and can be considered as the graph counterparts of the Hamming codes [10].

In this paper we survey some recent results and open problems on kaleidoscopical configurations in G-spaces.

Let G be a group. A G-space is a set X endowed with an action $G \times X \to X$, $(g, x) \mapsto gx$. All G-spaces are suppose to be transitive: for any $x, y \in X$, there exists $g \in G$ such that gx = y. For a subset $A \subseteq X$, we denote $G[A] = \{gA : g \in G\}$ where $gA = \{ga : a \in A\}$.

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A subset $A \subseteq X$ is called a *kaleidoscopical configuration* if the hypergraph (X, G[A]) is kaleidoscopical, in words, if there exists a coloring $\chi: X \to |A|$ such that $\chi|_{gA}$ is bijective for every $g \in G$.

We note that finite kaleidoscopical configurations in a sense are antipodal to monochromatizable configurations defined and studied in [9, Chapter 8]: a subset A of a G-space X is called monochromatizable if, for any finite coloring of X, there is $g \in G$ such that gA is monochrome.

In Section 2 we discus a relationship between the kaleidoscopical configurations in a G-space X and transversals of the family $\{gA:g\in G\}$, $A\subseteq G$. We present also an effective method (namely, the splitting), of construction of kaleidoscopical configurations in a G-space X from the finite chains of G-invariant equivalence relations on X.

The main results of Section 3 are about kaleidoscopical configurations in \mathbb{R}^n considered as a G-space with respect to the group $G = \mathrm{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ of all Euclidean isometries. For n=1, it is easy to find a kaleidoscopical configuration in \mathbb{R} of any size \leq the cardinality of the continuum. The problem is much more difficult for $n \geq 2$. Surprisingly, the subsets $\mathbb{Z} \times \{0\}$, $\mathbb{Q} \times \{0\}$, $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$ and $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ are kaleidoscopical in \mathbb{R}^2 . The most intriguing open problem: for $n \geq 2$, does there exist a finite kaleidoscopical configuration K, $|K| \geq 2$ in \mathbb{R}^n . We show that if such a K exists in \mathbb{R}^2 then $|K| \geq 5$.

Each group G can be considered as a (left) regular G-space X = G, where $(g, x) \longmapsto gx$ is the group product. In Section 4 we show that kaleidoscopical configurations in G are tightly connected with factorizations of G = AB by subsets A, B. The factorizations were introduced by Hajoś [5] to solve the famous Minkowsky's problem on tiling of \mathbb{R}^n by the copies of a cube. For modern state of factorizations see [17, 18]. Also we establish a connection between kaleidoscopical configurations and T-sequences from [12].

2. Transversality and factorization

Let (X, \mathfrak{F}) be a hypergraph. A subset $T \subseteq X$ is called an \mathfrak{F} -transversal if $|F \cap T| = 1$ for each $F \in \mathfrak{F}$. All results of this section are from [1].

Theorem 2.1. A hypergraph (X,\mathfrak{F}) is kaleidoscopical if and only if X can be partitioned into \mathfrak{F} -transversals.

For a cardinal κ , $cf\kappa$ denotes the cofinality of κ .

Theorem 2.2. Let κ be an infinite cardinal, (X,\mathfrak{F}) be a hypergraph such that $|\mathfrak{F}| = \kappa$ and $|F| = \kappa$ for each $F \in \mathfrak{F}$. If $|F \cap F'| < cf\kappa$ for all distinct $F, F' \in \mathfrak{F}$ then there is a disjoint family \mathfrak{T} of \mathfrak{F} -transversals such that $|\mathfrak{T}| = \kappa$ and $|T| = \kappa$ for each $T \in \mathfrak{T}$.

For a hypergraph (X,\mathfrak{F}) , $x \in X$ and $A \subseteq X$, we put

$$St(x,\mathfrak{F}) = \bigcup \{F \in \mathfrak{F} : x \in F\},\$$

$$St(A,\mathfrak{F}) = \bigcup \{St(a,F) : a \in A\}.$$

Theorem 2.3. A hypergraph (X,\mathfrak{F}) is kaleidoscopical provided that, for some infinite cardinal κ , the following two conditions are satisfied:

- (i) $|\mathfrak{F}| \leq \kappa$ and $|F| = \kappa$ for each $F \in \mathfrak{F}$;
- (ii) for any subfamily $\mathfrak{A} \subset \mathfrak{F}$ of cardinality $|\mathfrak{A}| < \kappa$ and any subset $B \subset X \setminus (\bigcup \mathfrak{A})$ of cardinality $|B| < \kappa$ the intersection $St(B,\mathfrak{F}) \cap (\bigcup \mathfrak{A})$ has cardinality less than κ .

Now we present some construction of kaleidoscopical configurations in arbitrary G-space, called the splitting. The kaleidoscopical configurations obtained in this way will be called splittable.

Given an equivalence relation $E \subseteq X \times X$ on a set X, let $X/E = \{[x]_E : x \in X\}$ be the quotient space consisting of the equivalence classes $[x]_E = \{y \in X : (x,y) \in E\}$, $x \in X$. Denote by $q_E : X \to X/E$, $q_E(x) = [x]_E$, the quotient mapping. For a subset K of X, let $K/E = \{[x]_E : x \in K\} \subseteq X/E$ and $[K]_E = \bigcup_{x \in K} [x]_E \subseteq X$.

Let E be an equivalence relation on a set X. A subset $K \subseteq X$ is defined to be

- E-parallel if $K \cap [x]_E = [x]_E$ for all $x \in K$;
- E-orthogonal if $K \cap [x]_E = \{x\}$ for all $x \in K$.

Given two equivalence relations E, F on X such that $F \subseteq E$, we generalize these two notions defining $K \subseteq X$ to be

- E/F-parallel if $[K]_F \cap [x]_E = [x]_E$ for all $x \in K$;
- E/F-orthogonal if $[K]_F \cap [x]_E = [x]_F$ for all $x \in K$.

We observe that $K \subseteq X$ is E-parallel (E-orthogonal) if it is E/Δ_X -parallel (E/Δ_X -orthogonal), where $\Delta_X = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$.

An equivalence relation E on a G-space X is called G-invariant if, for each $(x,y) \in E$ and every $g \in G$ we have $(gx,gy) \in E$. For a G-invariant equivalence relation E on X, the quotient space X/E is a G-space under the induced action

$$G \times X/E \to X/E, \quad (g, [x]_E) \mapsto [gx]_E$$

of the group G.

Theorem 2.4. Let $\Delta_X = E_0 \subset E_1 \subset \cdots \subset E_m = \{X \times X\}$ be a chain of G-invariant equivalence relations on a G-space X. A subset K of X is kaleidoscopical provided that, for every $i \in \{0, \ldots, m-1\}$, K is either E_{i+1}/E_i -parallel or E_{i+1}/E_i -orthogonal.

A subset K of a G-space X is called *splittable* if there is a chain $\Delta_X = E_0 \subset E_1 \subset \cdots \subset E_m = \{X \times X\}$ of G-invariant equivalence relations on X such that, for each $i \in \{0, \ldots, m-1\}$, K is either E_{i+1}/E_i -parallel or E_{i+1}/E_i -orthogonal. By Theorem 2.4, each splittable subset of X is a kaleidoscopical configuration.

Some partial answers to the following general question are in the next sections.

Question 2.1. Given a G-space X, how one can detect whether each kaleidoscopical configuration in X is splittable?

For motivation of the following definition see [1, Section 4].

A G-space has the semi-Hajós property if, for every kaleidoscopical subset $K \subset X$, there is an equivalence relation E on X, $E \neq \Delta_X$ such that K is E-parallel or E-orthogonal and K/E is kaleidoscopical in the G-space K/E.

Theorem 2.5. If each kaleidoscopical subset of a G-space X is splittable, then X has the semi-Hajós property.

On some partial conversions of Theorem 2.5 see [1, Section 4].

A G-space X is called primitive if each G-invariant equivalence relation on X is either Δ_X or $\{X \times X\}$. Clearly, each splittable configuration K in a primitive G-space X is trivial, i.e. either K = X or K is a singleton. It is natural to ask whether every kaleidoscopical configuration in a primitive G-space is trivial? The answer to this question is affirmative if X is 2-transitive: for any $(x,y),(x',y')\in X^2\setminus \Delta_X$, there is $g\in G$ such that (x',y')=(gx,gy). But for $n\geq 2$, the primitive space \mathbb{R}^n endowed with the action of its group of all Euclidean isometries has a plenty of infinite kaleidoscopical configurations, see Section 3.

Question 2.2. Is every finite kaleidoscopical configuration in a (finite) primitive G-space trivial?

3. Kaleidoscopical configurations in metric spaces

Here we consider each metric space (X, d) as a G-space endowed with the natural action of its isometry group G = Iso(X). If this action is transitive, X is called *isometrically homogeneous*.

Let us recall that a metric space (X, d) is *ultrametric* if the metric d satisfies the strong triangle inequality

$$d(x, z) \le \max\{d(x, y), d(y, z)\}$$

for all x, y, z. In this case, for every $\varepsilon \geq 0$, the relation

$$E_{\varepsilon} = \{(x, y) \in X^2 : d(x, y) \le \varepsilon\}$$

is an invariant equivalence relation on X.

Theorem 3.1 ([1]). Let (X,d) be an isometrically homogeneous ultrametric space with the finite distance scale $d(X \times X) = \{\varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n\}$ where $0 = \varepsilon_0 < \varepsilon_1 < \dots < \varepsilon_n$. Then every kaleidoscopical configuration in X is $(E_{\varepsilon_0}, E_{\varepsilon_1}, \dots, E_{\varepsilon_n})$ -splittable.

Let (X, d) be a metric space. By $S(x, r) = \{y \in X : d(x, y) = r\}$, we denote the sphere of radius r centered at x.

A subset K of X is called rigid if, for any distinct points $x, y, z \in K$ and numbers $r_x, r_y, r_z \in d(K \times K)$ the spheres $S(x, r_x), S(y, r_y), S(z, r_z)$ have no common points in $X \setminus K$. A proof of the following theorem uses Theorem 2.3.

Theorem 3.2 ([1]). Let X be a metric space and let $G \subseteq Iso(X)$ be a group of isometries of X. Then each infinite rigit subset K of X of cardinality $|K| \ge |G|$ is kaleidoscopical.

Now we consider the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n as a G-space with respect to the group $G = Iso(\mathbb{R}^n)$ of all isometries of \mathbb{R}^n . Given a cardinal $\kappa \leq \mathfrak{c}$, it is easy to find a kaleidoscopical configurations of cardinality κ in \mathbb{R} , but the problem is much more delicate for R^n , $n \geq 2$.

Theorem 3.3 ([1]). Any algebraically independent over \mathbb{Q} subset A of an affine line (identified with \mathbb{R}) in the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n is rigid. For any $n \geq 2$, \mathbb{R}^n contains $2^{\mathfrak{c}}$ kaleidoscopical configurations of cardinality \mathfrak{c} .

Following [8], we say that a subset A of \mathbb{R}^n has the Steinhaus property if the family $\{gA:g\in \mathrm{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)\}$ has a transversal B. In this case, B is a transversal of the family $\{x+A:x\in\mathbb{R}^n\}$. By Theorem 4.1 $\{B-a:a\in A\}$ is a partition of \mathbb{R}^n . Since each subset B-a is a transversal of the family $\{gA:g\in \mathrm{Iso}(\mathbb{R}^n)\}$, by Theorem 2.1, A is a kaleidoscopical configuration.

Theorem 3.4 ([6,7]). The subsets $\mathbb{Z} \times \{0\}$, $\mathbb{Q} \times \{0\}$, \mathbb{Q} of \mathbb{R} have the Steinhaus property and hence are kaleidoscopical configurations.

Theorem 3.5 ([2–4]). The subset $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ of \mathbb{R}^2 has a Steinhaus property and hence is a kaleidoscopical configuration.

Theorem 3.6 ([15]). The subset $\mathbb{Z}^m \times \{0\}^{n-m}$ does not have the Steinhaus property for $4 \le m < n$.

Question 3.1. Does there exist a non-trivial finite kaleidoscopical configuration in \mathbb{R}^n for $n \geq 2$?

We put $k(\mathbb{R}^n) = \min\{|F| : |F| > 1 \text{ and } F \text{ is a kaleidoscopical configuration in } \mathbb{R}^n\}$. It is easy to see that $\kappa(\mathbb{R}^n) \geq \chi(\mathbb{R}^n)$, where $\chi(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is a chromatic number of \mathbb{R}^n . We recall that $\chi(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is the smallest number of colors for which there is a coloring of \mathbb{R}^n without monochrome points at the distance 1. It is well known that $4 \leq \chi(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq 7$ and there is a conjecture that $\chi(\mathbb{R}^n) = 2^{n+1} - 1$, see [16, §47]. Thus, $\kappa(\mathbb{R}^2) \geq 4$. We show that $\kappa(\mathbb{R}^2) \geq 5$.

For $n \geq 1$ and d > 0, a rather red coloring of \mathbb{R}^n with respect to d is a 2-coloring of \mathbb{R}^n , with red and blue, such that no two blue points are a distance d apart. Let $m_c = \min\{|F| : F \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ and each isometric copy of } F$ is forbidden for red by some rather red coloring of \mathbb{R}^2 . By [14, p. 102], $5 \leq m_c \leq 8$.

Now assume that there is a kaleidoscopical configuration K in \mathbb{R}^2 of cardinality |K| = 4. Let $\chi : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ be the corresponding kaleidoscopical coloring. We recolor $\chi' : \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \{red, blue\}$ by the following rule $\chi'(x)$ is blue if and only if $\chi'(x) = 4$. Let d be a distance between some two points of K. Since χ is kaleidoscopical, we conclude that χ' is rather red and each isometric copy of F is forbidden for red, contradicting $m_c \geq 5$.

4. Kaleidoscopical configurations in groups

A subset A of a group G is defined to be *complemented* if there exists a subset B of G such that the multiplication mapping $\mu: A \times B \to G$, $(a,b) \mapsto ab$, is bijective. Following [18], we say that B is a *complementer factor* to A and G = AB is a *factorization* of G. In this case, we have the partitions

$$G = \bigsqcup_{a \in A} aB = \bigsqcup_{b \in B} Ab.$$

A subset $A \subseteq G$ is called doubly complemented if there are factorizations G = AB = BC for some subsets B, C of G.

The following interrelations between kaleidoscopical configurations and factorizations are observed in [1].

Theorem 4.1. Let A, B be subsets of a group G. Then B is G[A]-transversal if and only if $G = AB^{-1}$ is a factorization of G. In particular, each kaleidoscopical configuration in G is complemented.

Theorem 4.2. A subset A of an Abelian group G is a kaleidoscopical configuration if and only if A is complemented.

Question 4.1. Is each complemented subset of a (finite) group kaleido-scopical?

The remaining results of this section are from [11]. We say that a subset A of a group G is rigid if, for each $g \in G \setminus A$, the set $g^{-1}A \cap A^{-1}A$ is finite. Applying Theorem 2.3 we get:

Theorem 4.3. If A is a countable rigid subset of a group G then A is a kaleidoscopical configuration.

An injective sequence $(a_n)_{n\in\omega}$ in a group G is called a T-sequence [12] if there exists a Hausdorff group topology in which $(a_n)_{n\in\omega}$ converges to the identity e of G.

Theorem 4.4. For every T-sequence $(a_n)_{n\in\omega}$ in a group G, the set $A = \{e, a_n, a_n^{-1} : n \in \omega\}$ is a kaleidoscopical configuration. In particular, A is complemented and G can be partitioned into right translations of A.

Theorem 4.5. Every infinite subset S of an Abelian group G contains an infinite kaleidoscopical configuration.

Corollary 4.1. If S is an infinite subset of an Abelian group, then S contains an infinite complemented subset.

Let G be a group defined by the following generators and relations

$$\langle x_m, y_m : x_m^2 = y_m^2 = e, \ x_n x_m x_n = y_m, \ m < n < \omega \rangle.$$

Then the subset $\{x_n : n \in \omega\}$ has no infinite rigid subsets.

Question 4.2. Does every infinite subset of an arbitrary infinite group contains an infinite kaleidoscopical (complemented) subset?

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