# Devil＇s infinite chessboard puzzle under a weaker choice principle 

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## 1 Devil＇s chessboard puzzle

As a usual convention in set theory，we identify a natural number $n$ and the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ of natural numbers less than $n$ ，and $\omega$ denotes the set of all natural numbers．For a set $S,{ }^{S} 2$ denotes the set of all functions from $S$ to $2=\{0,1\}$ ，whereas by $2^{n}$ we will mean the usual arithmetic exponentiation．We will often regard the set $2=\{0,1\}$ as the two－element cyclic group $\mathbb{Z}_{2}=(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z},+)$ ，and for $f, g \in{ }^{S} 2, f+g$ denotes the usual coordinatewise addition in ${ }^{S}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ ．

Devil＇s chessboard puzzle，also known as life or death problem，is a mathematical puzzle which can be formulated as follows．Fix a natural number $b \in \omega$ ．Alice wants to send Bob a $b$－bit message $m \in{ }^{b} 2$ under the following conditions：
（1）The only medium available to Alice is a given $2^{b}$－bit sequence $\sigma \in\left({ }^{b} 2\right) 2$ which Bob cannot see．
（2）Alice is allowed only to flip（change 0 to 1 or the other way round）exactly one place of the sequence $\sigma$ and to send Bob the resulting sequence．
（3）Alice and Bob can share a strategy in advance（before Alice sees $\sigma$ ）．
The question is to find a strategy with which Alice can successfully send Bob a message．The word＂chessboard＂comes from the special case when $b=6$（and hence $2^{b}=64=8 \times 8$ ）．It is known that there is such a strategy for each $b \in \omega$（folklore； see［1］for example）．

In the present paper we will generalize this question to infinity．
First，we just put any cardinal $\kappa$（either finite or infinite）into $b$ ，that is，Alice sends Bob a function $\mu \in{ }^{\kappa} 2$ using a given function $\sigma \in{ }^{\left({ }^{\kappa} 2\right)} 2$ as a medium．We will employ the concept of parity functions，which was suggested by Geschke，Lubarsky

[^0]and Rahn [2], to generalize a standard strategy for a finite case to infinite cases.
Second, we replace ${ }^{b} 2$ by $\omega$, that is, we consider the situation that Alice sends Bob a natural number $m \in \omega$ using a given $\sigma \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ as a medium.

## 2 Parity function

Geschke, Lubarsky and Rahn [2] introduced a notion of parity functions to investigate "infinite hat guessing games". We say, for a set $S$, a function $p$ from ${ }^{S} 2$ to 2 is a parity function on $S$ if it has the following property.

For $f, g \in{ }^{S} 2$, if $f(x) \neq g(x)$ holds for exactly one $x \in S$, then $p(f) \neq p(g)$.
Clearly, if $S$ is finite, then the function $p$ determined by $p(f)=\sum_{x \in S} f(x)$, where $\sum$ is taken in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, is a parity function on $S$. On the other hand, the existence of a parity function $p$ on $\omega$ cannot be proved under ZF alone, since the set $p^{-1}(\{1\}) \subseteq{ }^{\omega} 2$ would be Lebesgue nonmeasurable and fail to have the Baire property [2, Theorem 10].

The following theorem assures the existence of a parity function on $\omega$ under AC.
Theorem 2.1. [2, Lemma 6] There is a parity function $p$ on $\omega$.
The following proof, which is called "the $E_{0}$-transversal proof" in [2], is essentially the proof of Lenstra's theorem presented in [3]. What we actually need in the proof is a selection of representatives of the quotient set $2^{\omega} / E_{0}$, where $E_{0}$ denotes the equality modulo finitely many places. We may regard the existence of a set of representatives of $2^{\omega} / E_{0}$ as a weaker choice principle. See [2, Section 3] for more information.

Proof. Let $A$ be a set of representatives for the quotient set $2^{\omega} / E_{0}$. Define a function $p$ from ${ }^{\omega} 2$ to 2 in the following way. For $s \in{ }^{\omega} 2$, let $t$ be the unique element of $A$ with $s E_{0} t$, and let $p(s)=1$ if $|\{n \in \omega: s(n) \neq t(n)\}|$ is an odd number and $p(s)=0$ otherwise. It is easily checked that this $p$ works.

It is easy to generalize the theorem above to the one asserting the existence of a parity function on $\lambda$ for any infinite cardinal $\lambda$.

## 3 Strategies

This section is devoted to the construction of successful strategies in Devil's infinite chessboard puzzles.

Let $\kappa$ be a cardinal, either finite or infinite, and we deal with the case when Alice sends Bob a message $\mu \in{ }^{\kappa} 2$ using a $\sigma \in\left({ }^{\left({ }^{2}\right)} 2\right.$ as a medium. We call such a puzzle a ${ }^{\kappa} 2$-chessboard puzzle.

Theorem 3.1. For any cardinal $\kappa$, there is a successful strategy for $a^{\kappa} 2$-chessboard puzzle.
Proof. Fix a cardinal $\kappa$ and a parity function $p$ on ${ }^{\kappa} 2$. For a function $\tau \in{ }^{\left({ }^{\kappa} 2\right)} 2$, we define a function $\pi_{\tau} \in{ }^{\kappa} 2$ in the following way. For each $\alpha \in \kappa$, define $\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_{\alpha} \in{ }^{\left({ }^{\kappa} 2\right)} 2$ by
letting, for each $\eta \in{ }^{\kappa} 2$,

$$
\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_{\alpha}(\eta)= \begin{cases}\tau(\eta) & \text { if } \eta(\alpha)=1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then define $\pi_{\tau} \in{ }^{\kappa} 2$ by letting $\pi_{\tau}(\alpha)=p\left(\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_{\alpha}\right)$ for each $\alpha \in \kappa$. Observe that, if two functions $\tau, \tau^{\prime} \in{ }^{\left({ }^{\kappa} 2\right)} 2$ take different values only at one point $\zeta \in{ }^{\kappa} 2$, then $\pi_{\tau}(\alpha) \neq \pi_{\tau^{\prime}}(\alpha)$ if and only if $\zeta(\alpha)=1$. This property will help Alice find the right place to flip.

Suppose that Alice has a medium $\sigma \in\left({ }^{\kappa 2} 2\right) 2$ and wants to send Bob a message $\mu \in{ }^{\kappa} 2$.

Let $\zeta_{\sigma, \mu}=\pi_{\sigma}+\mu$, and $\sigma_{\mu}$ be the function which is obtained from $\sigma$ by flipping the value at $\zeta_{\sigma, \mu}$. By the observation, we have $\pi_{\sigma_{\mu}}(\alpha)=\mu(\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in \kappa$.

Therefore, the following strategy is successful: Alice and Bob share a parity function $p$ on $2^{\kappa}$ in advance. Alice calculates $\sigma_{\mu}$ and send it to Bob, and Bob regains $\mu$ by calculating $\pi_{\sigma_{\mu}}(\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in \kappa$.

Now we turn to the case when Alice sends Bob a message $m \in \omega$ using a medium $\sigma \in{ }^{\omega} 2$. We call this an $\omega$-chessboard puzzle.

Theorem 3.2. There is a successful strategy for an $\omega$-chessboard puzzle.
We will present two proofs. The first proof, due to Shohei Tajiri (in a private communication), uses a selection of representatives of the quotient set $2^{\omega} / E_{0}$. The second proof only uses a parity function on $\omega$.
First proof. In the beginning Alice and Bob share a set $A$ of representatives of $2^{\omega} / E_{0}$.
For $f, g \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ with $f E_{0} g$, let $N(f, g)=\min \{N<\omega: f(n)=g(n)$ for all $n \geq N\}$.
Suppose that Alice has a message $m \in \omega$ and a given medium $\sigma \in{ }^{\omega} 2$. Find the unique $h \in A$ with $h E_{0} \sigma$, and $l=N(h, \sigma)$. Let $\tilde{\sigma}$ is the function obtained from $\sigma$ by flipping the value at $N+m$. Note that $N(h, \tilde{\sigma})=N+m+1$. Alice sends Bob the function $\tilde{\sigma}$.

Now Bob can decode the message $m$ from $\tilde{\sigma}$ in the following way. Find the unique $h^{\prime} \in A$ with $h^{\prime} E_{0} \tilde{\sigma}$. Let $l^{\prime}=N\left(h^{\prime}, \tilde{\sigma}\right)$. Clearly $h^{\prime}=h$, and hence Bob can regain $\sigma$ from $\tilde{\sigma}$ by flipping the value at $l^{\prime}-1$, and also find $l=N(h, \sigma)$. Finally Bob obtains $m=\left(l^{\prime}-1\right)-l$.

For the second proof we employ the binary expression of natural numbers. For $f \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ such that $f^{-1}(\{1\})$ is finite, we define $\sharp(f)=\sum_{i \in \omega} f(i) 2^{i}$. For the other way round, for each $n \in \omega,\langle n\rangle$ denotes the unique $f \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ with $n=\sharp(f),\langle n\rangle_{i}=f(i)$ for each $i$, and $\operatorname{lh}(n)=\min \left\{N \in \omega: f^{-1}(\{1\}) \subseteq N\right\}$.
Second proof. In the beginning Alice and Bob share a parity function $p$ on $\omega$. We set an encoding and decoding scheme which is similar to the one in the proof of the preceding theorem. For a function $\tau \in{ }^{\omega} 2$, we define a function $\pi_{\tau} \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ in the
following way. For each $a \in \omega$, define $\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_{a} \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ by letting, for each $k \in \omega$,

$$
\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_{a}(k)= \begin{cases}\tau(k) & \text { if }\langle k\rangle_{a}=1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then define $\pi_{\tau} \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ by letting $\pi_{\tau}(a)=p\left(\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_{a}\right)$ for each $a \in \omega$. If two functions $\tau, \tau^{\prime} \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ disagree only at one point $z \in \omega$, then $\pi_{\tau}(a) \neq \pi_{\tau^{\prime}}(a)$ if and only if $\langle z\rangle_{a}=1$. Note that flipping the value of $\tau$ at $z \in \omega$ does not affect values of $\pi_{\tau}$ at $n \geq \operatorname{lh}(z)$.

Suppose that Alice has a message $m \in \omega$ and a given medium $\sigma \in{ }^{\omega} 2$. Let $N_{m}=$ $\operatorname{lh}(m)$ and $\tilde{m}=(2 m+1) \cdot 2^{N_{m}}$. Note that

$$
\langle\tilde{m}\rangle_{i}= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } i<N_{m} \\ 1 & \text { if } i=N_{m} \\ \langle m\rangle_{i-\left(N_{m}+1\right)} & \text { if } N_{m}+1 \leq i<2 N_{m}+1 \\ 0 & \text { if } 2 N_{m}+1 \leq i\end{cases}
$$

Alice will embed $\tilde{m}$ into $\sigma$ in a similar, but slightly different, way as in the proof of the preceding theorem.

Define a function $z_{\sigma, m} \in{ }^{\omega} 2$ by

$$
z_{\sigma, m}(i)= \begin{cases}\pi_{\sigma}(i)+\langle\tilde{m}\rangle_{i} & \text { if } i<2 N_{m}+1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

where + is calculated in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Let $\sigma_{m} \in^{\omega} 2$ be the one obtained from $\sigma$ by flipping the value at $\sharp\left(z_{\sigma, m}\right)$. Alice sends Bob the function $\sigma_{m}$.

Bob calculates $m_{a}=\pi_{\sigma_{m}}(a)$ for all $a \in \omega$ and regains $N_{m}=\min \left\{a \in \omega: m_{a}=1\right\}$. Then Bob obtains the message $m$ by calculating

$$
\sum_{i=N_{m}+1}^{2 N_{m}} m_{i} 2^{i-\left(N_{m}+1\right)}
$$

which concludes the proof.
It seems natural to ask, for an infinite cardinal $\lambda$, if there is a successful strategy when Alice wants to send Bob a message $\mu \in \lambda$ using a given $\sigma \in{ }^{\lambda} 2$ as a medium. Theorem 3.1 applies in the case when $\lambda=2^{\kappa}$ holds for some cardinal $\kappa$. Also, when $2^{<\lambda}=\lambda$ holds, it is not so hard to modify Theorem 3.2 to fit in this case. AC will be used only to ensure the existence a parity function on $\lambda$, and Alice and Bob will share two bijections: one is $\psi: \lambda \rightarrow{ }^{<\lambda} 2$, and the other is $\varphi: \kappa \times 2 \rightarrow \kappa$ such that, for any $\beta<\kappa, \varphi^{\prime \prime}(\beta \times 2)$ is bounded in $\kappa$. Details are left to the reader as an exercise.

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