

# 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  $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$  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  ${}^S(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ .

*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  $\sigma \in ({}^b 2)$  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  $\sigma \in ({}^\kappa 2)$  as a medium. We will employ the concept of *parity functions*, which was suggested by Geschke, Lubarsky

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and Rahn [2], to generalize a standard strategy for a finite case to infinite cases.

Second, we replace  ${}^b2$  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.  $\square$

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  $\sigma \in {}^{(\kappa 2)} 2$  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  $\tau \in {}^{(\kappa 2)} 2$ , we define a function  $\pi_\tau \in {}^\kappa 2$  in the following way. For each  $\alpha \in \kappa$ , define  $\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_\alpha \in {}^{(\kappa 2)} 2$  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  $\pi_\tau(\alpha) = p(\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_\alpha)$  for each  $\alpha \in \kappa$ . Observe that, if two functions  $\tau, \tau' \in ({}^\kappa 2)2$  take different values only at one point  $\zeta \in {}^\kappa 2$ , then  $\pi_\tau(\alpha) \neq \pi_{\tau'}(\alpha)$  if and only if  $\zeta(\alpha) = 1$ . This property will help Alice find the right place to flip.

Suppose that Alice has a medium  $\sigma \in ({}^\kappa 2)2$  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  $\alpha \in \kappa$ .  $\square$

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  $N(f, g) = \min\{N < \omega : f(n) = g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq N\}$ .

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  $h' \in A$  with  $h' E_0 \tilde{\sigma}$ . Let  $l' = N(h', \tilde{\sigma})$ . Clearly  $h' = h$ , and hence Bob can regain  $\sigma$  from  $\tilde{\sigma}$  by flipping the value at  $l' - 1$ , and also find  $l = N(h, \sigma)$ . Finally Bob obtains  $m = (l' - 1) - l$ .  $\square$

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  $\text{lh}(n) = \min\{N \in \omega : f^{-1}(\{1\}) \subseteq N\}$ .

*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  $\pi_\tau(a) = p(\llbracket \tau \rrbracket_a)$  for each  $a \in \omega$ . If two functions  $\tau, \tau' \in {}^\omega 2$  disagree only at one point  $z \in \omega$ , then  $\pi_\tau(a) \neq \pi_{\tau'}(a)$  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  $n \geq \text{lh}(z)$ .

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

$$\langle \tilde{m} \rangle_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i < N_m, \\ 1 & \text{if } i = N_m, \\ \langle m \rangle_{i-(N_m+1)} & \text{if } N_m + 1 \leq i < 2N_m + 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } 2N_m + 1 \leq i. \end{cases}$$

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

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

where  $+$  is calculated in  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ . Let  $\sigma_m \in {}^\omega 2$  be the one obtained from  $\sigma$  by flipping the value at  $\ddagger(z_{\sigma, m})$ . Alice sends Bob the function  $\sigma_m$ .

Bob calculates  $m_a = \pi_{\sigma_m}(a)$  for all  $a \in \omega$  and regains  $N_m = \min\{a \in \omega : m_a = 1\}$ . Then Bob obtains the message  $m$  by calculating

$$\sum_{i=N_m+1}^{2N_m} m_i 2^{i-(N_m+1)},$$

which concludes the proof.  $\square$

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  $\beta < \kappa$ ,  $\varphi^{<(\beta \times 2)}$  is bounded in  $\kappa$ . Details are left to the reader as an exercise.

## References

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