# Combinatorial geometry and coding theory 

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## Combinatorial geometry: the space chromatic number

## Definition (Nelson, 1950; Hadwiger, 1944).

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- (AMR, 2000) $\chi\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right) \geqslant(1.239 \ldots+o(1))^{n}$.


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- (Rogers, 1971) True for sets which are invariant under the actions of the symmetry group of a regular simplex.


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- Which exponent - $n$ or $\sqrt{n}$, or another one - is true??


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## Definition.

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## Error-correcting codes.

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## Remark.

For ( 0,1 )-vectors, "large enough" Hamming distance is the same as "small enough" scalar products. Thus, the problem is in finding the maximum cardinality of a set of $(0,1)$-vectors whose pairwise scalar products are small enough.

## Three most important extremal values in coding theory

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Let $g(n, r, s)$ be the maximum cardinality of a binary code, in which any word has exactly $r$ ones and any two words have scalar product not exceeding $s$.

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## Codes with pairwise small Hamming distances.

Let $f(n, r, s)$ be the maximum cardinality of a binary code, in which any word has exactly $r$ ones and any two words have scalar product at least $s$.

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## Codes with forbidden Hamming distances.

Let $m(n, r, s)$ be the maximum cardinality of a binary code, in which any word has exactly $r$ ones and any two words have scalar product not equal to $s$.

## Where are the connections between our subjects?

## Distance graphs.

Any graph $G=(V, E)$ with $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and

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E \subseteq\{\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\}:|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}|=a\}, \quad a>0
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Of course $\chi\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right) \geqslant \chi(G)$ for any distance graph $G$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, where $\chi(G)$ is the usual chromatic number of the graph (the minimum number of colors needed to color all the vertices so that any two adjacent vertices have different colors).

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Consider a sequence $G(n, r, s)=(V(n, r), E(n, r, s))$ of distance graphs with

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Eventually, we have:

$$
\chi\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right) \geqslant \chi(G(n, r, s)) \geqslant \frac{|V(n, r)|}{\alpha(G(n, r, s))}=\frac{\binom{n}{r}}{m(n, r, s)}
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Bit more difficult connections for Borsuk's problem. Anyway, one has to find $m(n, r, s)$ and $\chi(n, r, s)=\chi(G(n, r, s))$.

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## Theorem (Frankl, Füredi, 1985).

If $r \geqslant 2 s+1$, then

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m(n, r, s)=\binom{n-s-1}{r-s-1} \sim \frac{n^{r-s-1}}{(r-s-1)!} .
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For simplicity, we concentrate only on the case of constant $r, s$.

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m(n, r, s)=\binom{n-s-1}{r-s-1} \sim \frac{n^{r-s-1}}{(r-s-1)!} .
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## Theorem (Frankl, Wilson, 1981, and Rödl, 1985).

If $r<2 s+1$ and $r-s$ is a prime power, then

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## Theorem (Nagy, 1972).

If $n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, then $m(n, 3,1)=n$. If $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then $m(n, 3,1)=n-1$. If $n \equiv 2,3(\bmod 4)$, then $m(n, 3,1)=n-2$.

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One has $m(n, r, 0)=\binom{n-1}{r-1}$.
Note that the graph $G(n, r, 0)$ is the classical Kneser graph.

## The value $\chi(n, r, s)$

# Theorem (using Frankl, Füredi, 1985, and Turán numbers). <br> If $r \geqslant 2 s+1$, then $\chi(n, r, s) \asymp n^{s+1}$. 

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## Theorem (Balogh, Kostochka, Raigorodskii).

If $n=2^{k}$, then $\chi(n, 3,1)=\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{6}$. Anyway, $\chi(n, 3,1) \sim \frac{n^{2}}{6}$.

## The value $\chi(n, r, s)$

Theorem (Bobu, Kostina, Kupriyanov, 2014+).
If $n=2^{k}$, then

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Theorem (Lovász, 1975).
One has $\chi(n, r, 0)=n-2 r+2$.
This result is the classical proof of Kneser's conjecture.

## Random subgraphs of $G(n, r, s)$

Let $p=p(n) \in[0,1]$. Let $G_{p}(n, r, s)$ be a random element taking values in the set of all spanning subgraphs $G=(V(n, r), E)$ of the graph $G(n, r, s)$ with binomial distribution

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(G_{p}(n, r, s)=G\right)=p^{|E|}(1-p)^{|E(n, r, s)|-|E|}
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i.e., any edge of $G(n, r, s)$ belongs to $G_{p}(n, r, s)$ with probability $p$ independently of all the other edges.

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## The main question.

Let $m_{p}(n, r, s)=\alpha\left(G_{p}(n, r, s)\right), \chi_{p}(n, r, s)=\chi\left(G_{p}(n, r, s)\right)$. How, with high probability, do these quantities differ from the original ones?

## Stability of $m_{p}(n, r, 0)$

## Theorem (Bollobás, Narayanan, AMR, 2014+).

Fix an $\varepsilon>0$ and let $r=r(n)$ be a natural number such that $2 \leqslant r=o\left(n^{1 / 3}\right)$. Then

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\mathbb{P}\left(m_{p}(n, r, 0)=m(n, r, 0)\right) \rightarrow 1
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provided $p \geqslant(1+\varepsilon) p_{c}(n, r)$, where

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p_{c}(n, r)=\frac{(r+1) \ln n-r \ln r}{\binom{n-1}{r-1}} .
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An absolutely incredible stability! What's with other values $r, s$ ?

## Other quantities $m_{p}(n, r, s)$

Theorem (Bogoliubski, Gusev, Pyaderkin, AMR, 2014+).
If $r \leqslant 2 s+1$, then, w.h.p.,

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m_{1 / 2}(n, r, s) \asymp m(n, r, s) \ln n .
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Both theorems are true for a much larger range of values $p$.

## Quantities $\chi_{p}(n, r, s)$

Theorem (Kupavskiy, 2014+).
If $p$ is constant and $2 \leqslant r \ll \frac{n}{2}$, then. w.h.p., $\chi_{p}(n, r, 0) \sim \chi(n, r, 0)$.

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The same is true for many other values of $p$.

