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ACUTE TRIANGLES IN THE CONTEXT OF THE ILLUMINATION PROBLEM

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We consider strong *at*-subsets of the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n and estimate from below the growth of the maximal cardinality of such subsets (our method essentially differs from that of [6]). We then apply some properties of strong *at*-sets to the illumination problem.

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1. INTRODUCTION AND RESULTS

Let X be a subset of the n-dimensional Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n , where $n \geq 2$.

We shall say that X is an *at*-set (in \mathbb{R}^n) if any three-element subset of X forms either an acute-angled triangle or a right-angled triangle.

We shall say that X is a strong *at*-set (in \mathbb{R}^n) if any three-element subset of X forms an acute-angled triangle.

It directly follows from the above definitions that each subset of an at-set (respectively, of a strong at-set) is also an at-set (respectively, a strong at-set).

It is natural to envisage the question concerning the maximal value among the cardinalities of at-subsets of \mathbf{R}^{n} .

Denote by q(n) the maximum of the cardinalities of all *at*-sets in \mathbb{R}^n . Answering two questions posed by P. Erdös and V. L. Klee, it was demonstrated in

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the paper by Danzer and Grünbaum [5] that the inequality $q(n) \leq 2^n$ holds true. Moreover, the equality $\operatorname{card}(X) = 2^n$ for an *at*-set $X \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ is valid if and only if X coincides with the set of all vertices of some right rectangular *n*-dimensional parallelepiped in \mathbf{R}^n . Thus, one can directly see that q(n) has an exponential growth with respect to n. For more details, see the above-mentioned paper [5] or [2] or Chapter 15 of the remarkable book [1].

Denote by k(n) the maximum of the cardinalities of all strong *at*-sets in \mathbb{R}^n . It is easy to show that k(2) = 3 and it is also known that k(3) = 5. It immediately follows from the result of Danzer and Grünbaum [5] that one of the upper bounds for k(n) is $2^n - 1$, i.e., one has the trivial inequality

$$k(n) \le 2^n - 1.$$

In the general case the precise value of k(n) is still unknown. However, it was proved that k(n) also has an exponential growth with respect to n; in this connection, see [6] or Chapter 15 of the same book [1].

It should be noticed that in [1] and [6] an exponential growth of k(n) is proved with the aid of a probabilistic argument which seems to be somewhat artificial in this case. Indeed, a deterministic proof of the same fact can be presented by using another approach. We would like to give below a sketch of a different proof of the same fact. The suggested proof is simple, purely combinatorial, and so does not rely on any facts from probability theory.

In what follows, the symbol V_n will stand for the set of all vertices of the unit cube $C_n = [0, 1]^n$ of the space \mathbb{R}^n , so we have $\operatorname{card}(V_n) = 2^n$. First of all, we are going to present a precise formula for the total number r_n of right-angled triangles whose vertices belong to V_n . Clearly, this number coincides with the total number of all right-angled triangles whose vertices belong to the set of vertices of any *n*-dimensional right rectangular parallelepiped *P* in \mathbb{R}^n .

Let t_n stand for the number of all right-angled triangles in C_n , the right angle of which is a fixed vertex v from V_n and the other two vertices also belong to V_n . Consider some facet C_{n-1} of C_n incident to v. Obviously, we have t_{n-1} right angles with the same vertex v, all of which lie in C_{n-1} . Further, each of the abovementioned angles is a projection of exactly two right angles which do not lie in C_{n-1} . Besides, there are precisely $2^{n-1} - 1$ right angles, all of which have a fixed common side, namely, the edge of C_n passing through v and orthogonal to C_{n-1} .

Thus, we come to the following recurrence formula:

$$t_n = 3t_{n-1} + 2^{n-1} - 1.$$

This formula allows us to readily deduce (e.g., by induction) that

$$t_n = (3^n + 1)/2 - 2^n.$$

Therefore, ranging v over the whole of V_n , we finally get

$$r_n = 2^n ((3^n + 1)/2 - 2^n).$$

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As an immediate consequence of the above formula, we obtain that the total number of all those acute-angled triangles whose vertices belong to V_n is equal to

$$\frac{2^{n!}}{3!(2^n-3)!} - r_n = \frac{2^{n!}}{3!(2^n-3)!} - 2^n((3^n+1)/2 - 2^n).$$

Now, let us try to apply the formula for r_n in evaluating from below the function k(n) = k.

Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_p be an injective enumeration of all (k + 1)-element subsets of V_n , so

$$p = \frac{2^{n!}}{(k+1)!(2^n - (k+1))!},$$

and let, for each natural index $i \in [1, p]$, the symbol a_i denote the number of the right-angled triangles in X_i . Since no X_i is a strong *at*-set, we obviously may write

$$1 \le a_i \qquad (1 \le i \le p).$$

At the same time, it is clear that

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_p = \frac{(2^n - 3)!}{(k - 2)!(2^n - 3 - (k - 2))!} \cdot r_n.$$

The above equality is easily deduced if we consider the set of all pairs (Z, X_i) , where X_i ranges over the family of all (k + 1)-element subsets of V_n and Z is a three-element subset of X_i which forms a right-angled triangle. Calculating in two possible ways the cardinality of the set of all these pairs, we come to the required equality.

Now, since we have the trivial inequality

$$\frac{(2^n-3)!}{(k-2)!(2^n-3-(k-2))!} \le \frac{(2^n)!}{(k-2)!(2^n-(k-2))!},$$

we infer that

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_p \le \frac{(2^n)!}{(k-2)!(2^n - (k-2))!} \cdot r_n.$$

Consequently,

$$\frac{2^{n!}}{(k+1)!(2^n - (k+1))!} \le \frac{2^{n!}}{(k-2)!(2^n - (k-2))!} \cdot 2^n ((3^n + 1)/2 - 2^n).$$

The last inequality directly implies

$$(2^n - (k+1))^3 \le (k+1)^3 \cdot 2^n ((3^n+1)/2 - 2^n)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\frac{2^n}{1 + (2^n((3^n + 1)/2 - 2^n))^{1/3}} \le k + 1.$$

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Further, taking into account the two trivial relations

$$1 + (2^n((3^n + 1)/2 - 2^n))^{1/3} \le 2 \cdot (2^n((3^n + 1)/2 - 2^n))^{1/3},$$
$$(3^n + 1)/2 - 2^n < 3^n,$$

we can conclude that

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot (\frac{2}{6^{1/3}})^n \le k+1.$$

Since $2 > 6^{1/3}$, we see that k + 1 (and, consequently, k = k(n)) has an exponential growth with respect to n.

Remark 1. The argument presented above and the argument given in [6] are not effective in the sense that they do not allow one to indicate or geometrically describe any strong *at*-subset X of V_n whose cardinality is of an exponential growth with respect to n. In this connection, it would be interesting to have some concrete examples of such subsets X of V_n and to give their geometric characterization.

Remark 2. The notions of at-sets and of strong at-sets can be introduced for any Hilbert space H over the field \mathbf{R} of all real numbers. In this more general situation the question concerning maximal cardinality of such sets also makes sense and deserves to be investigated. In particular, for an infinite-dimensional H the question is interesting from the purely set-theoretical view-point.

Strong *at*-sets in \mathbb{R}^n are also of interest in connection with the well-known problem of illumination of the boundary of a compact convex body in \mathbb{R}^n . There is a rich literature devoted to this important problem of combinatorial geometry. See, for example, [2], [3], and [4].

Actually, the famous hypothesis of Hadwiger says that the minimum number of rays in \mathbb{R}^n which suffice to illuminate the boundary of every compact convex body in \mathbb{R}^n is equal to 2^n and, moreover, any *n*-dimensional parallelepiped *P* in \mathbb{R}^n needs at least 2^n rays. Notice that the set of all singular boundary points of *P* is infinite (moreover, it is of cardinality continuum).

In this context, we would like to recall the following old result of Hadwiger.

Theorem 1. If the boundary of a convex body $T \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ is smooth, then n + 1 rays in \mathbf{R}^n suffice to illuminate the boundary of T.

Actually, Theorem 1 states that if n + 1 rays $l_1, l_2, \ldots, l_n, l_{n+1}$ are given in \mathbf{R}^n , which have common end-point 0 and do not lie in a closed half-space of \mathbf{R}^n , then $l_1, l_2, \ldots, l_n, l_{n+1}$ are enough to illuminate the boundary of any convex smooth body in \mathbf{R}^n (the compactness of the body is not required here).

Recall also that Hadwiger's above-mentioned result was strengthened by Boltyanskii (see, e.g., [2]). Namely, Boltyanskii established the following statement.

Theorem 2. If the boundary of a convex body $T \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ has at most n singular points, then n + 1 rays in \mathbf{R}^n suffice to illuminate the boundary of T.

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Boltyanskii's theorem does not admit further generalizations to the case where the boundary of a compact convex body $T \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ may have more than n singular points (see [4] and [7]). In addition to this, the n+1 rays of Theorem 2 substantially depend on the convex body T.

It is natural to ask whether there is a compact convex body in \mathbb{R}^n with a finite number of singular boundary points, which needs a large number of rays for illuminating its boundary (i.e., the number of illuminating rays must be of an exponential growth with respect to the dimension n of \mathbb{R}^n).

Let X be a strong *at*-subset of \mathbb{R}^n with cardinality equal to k(n). Recall that k(n) is of an exponential growth with respect to n. By starting with this X, one can obtain the following statement.

Theorem 3. There exists a compact convex body $B \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ such that:

- (1) X coincides with the set of all singular boundary points of B;
- (2) at least k(n) rays are necessary to illuminate the boundary of B.

Let us present a sketch of the proof of Theorem 3.

Denote by M the convex hull of the set X. Clearly, M is an n-dimensional convex polyhedron in \mathbb{R}^n and the set of all vertices of M coincides with X. For every point $x \in X$, denote by M(x) the polyhedral angle of M with vertex x, and let C(x) be a convex cone with the same vertex x, such that $M(x) \subset C(x)$. We may assume that the conical hypersurface of C(x) is smooth (of course, except for its vertex x). If each C(x) slightly differs from M(x), then the boundary of the compact convex body

$$B' = \cap \{C(x) : x \in X\}$$

has isolated singular points x, where $x \in X$, and continuum many other singular points y, where $y \in Y$. We may suppose that the distance between the sets Xand Y is strictly positive. Now, all singular boundary points of B' belonging to Ycan be deleted by using a standard trick, without touching the points of X. So, proceeding in this way, we will be able to replace B' by the compact convex body B satisfying both conditions (1) and (2) of Theorem 3.

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