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0–1 SEQUENCES HAVING THE SAME NUMBERS OF
(1–1)-COUPLES OF GIVEN DISTANCES

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Summary. Let \mathbf{a} be a 0–1 sequence with a finite number of terms equal to 1. The distance sequence $\delta^{(\mathbf{a})}$ of \mathbf{a} is defined as a sequence of the numbers of (1–1)-couples of given distances. The paper investigates such pairs of 0–1 sequences \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} that \mathbf{a} is different from \mathbf{b} and $\delta^{(\mathbf{a})} = \delta^{(\mathbf{b})}$.

Keywords: 0–1 sequence, distance sequence, uniform distribution, set covariance.

1. INTRODUCTION

Consider sets

$$\mathcal{A}_n = \{ \mathbf{a}; \mathbf{a} = \{a_i\}_{i=0}^{\infty}, a_0 = 1, a_i \in \{0, 1\} \text{ for } i \in \mathbf{N}, \max\{i; i \in \mathbf{N}_0, a_i = 1\} = n \}$$

for each $n \in \mathbf{N}_0$, where \mathbf{N} is the set of all positive integers and $\mathbf{N}_0 = \mathbf{N} \cup \{0\}$, and

$$\mathcal{A} = \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}_n.$$

For any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A}$ and $j \in \mathbf{N}_0$, put

$$n(\mathbf{a}) = \max\{i; i \in \mathbf{N}_0, a_i = 1\},$$

$$\delta_j^{(\mathbf{a})} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i a_{i+j}$$

and

$$\delta^{(\mathbf{a})} = \{\delta_j^{(\mathbf{a})}\}_{j=0}^{\infty}.$$

The value of $\delta_j^{(a)}$ expresses the number of pairs of elements of the sequence a such that both are equal to 1 and that their distance is j . We shall call $\delta^{(a)}$ the *distance sequence* generated by the sequence a .

It can be easily seen that the sets \mathcal{A}_n , $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, are disjoint and that the following relations are true for any $a \in \mathcal{A}$:

$$\begin{aligned} & a \in \mathcal{A}_{n(a)}, \\ (1) \quad & \delta_0^{(a)} = \text{card}\{i; i \in \mathbb{N}_0, a_i = 1\}, \\ (2) \quad & \delta_{n(a)}^{(a)} = 1, \\ & \delta_j^{(a)} \in \{0, 1, \dots, n(a) - j + 1\} \quad \text{if } j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n(a)\} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$(3) \quad \delta_j^{(a)} = 0 \quad \text{if } j \in \mathbb{N}, \quad j > n(a).$$

Let $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and define a sequence $r^{(a)} = \{r_i^{(a)}\}_{i=0}^\infty$ by

$$r_i^{(a)} = a_{n(a)-i} \quad \text{for } i \leq n(a),$$

and

$$r_i^{(a)} = 0 \quad \text{for } i > n(a).$$

We observe that $n(a) = n(r^{(a)})$ and that the finite subsequences

$$\{a_i\}_{i=0}^{n(a)} \quad \text{and} \quad \{r_i^{(a)}\}_{i=0}^{n(r^{(a)})}$$

are mutually centrally symmetric. We write $a \sim b$ for $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ if $b = a$ or if $b = r^{(a)}$. The relation \sim is obviously an equivalence on each of the sets \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{A}_0 , \mathcal{A}_1 , ... Note that the set \mathcal{B}_a of all elements of \mathcal{A} which are \sim -equivalent to a has either one or two elements for each $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Denote by $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ ($\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_0, \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_1, \dots$) the factor-set \mathcal{A}/\sim ($\mathcal{A}_0/\sim, \mathcal{A}_1/\sim, \dots$), i.e. the set of \sim -equivalence classes of \mathcal{A} ($\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1, \dots$). In the sequel, we shall treat any class from $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ as replaced by one of its elements, i.e. as a sequence from \mathcal{A} . Note that the mapping $a \rightarrow \delta^{(a)}$ is \sim -invariant.

The aim of this paper is to characterize those pairs of sequences $a, b \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ which satisfy

$$(4) \quad \delta(a) = \delta(b) \quad \text{and} \quad a \neq b.$$

The restriction to the factor-sets together with the assumption that $a_0 = 1$ for $a \in \mathcal{A}$ makes it possible to formulate the assertions without the usual appendix "up to translation and central reflection".

H. Rost found an example (see [4]) of a pair $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}_{15}$ such that (4) holds, i.e. the distance sequence $\delta^{(\mathbf{a})}$ does not determine in general the "parent" sequence \mathbf{a} uniquely. We shall show how to construct all pairs $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying (4) in Section 3. By (2) and (3), we find that for such a pair $n(\mathbf{a}) = n(\mathbf{b})$ is true, i.e. there exists an $n \in \mathbf{N}_0$ such that $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}_n$. This n plays an important role in our investigation. Section 4 provides, for each $n \in \mathbf{N}_0$, some estimates of cardinality of the sets

$$\{\{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}\}; \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}_n, \mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{b}, \delta^{(\mathbf{a})} = \delta^{(\mathbf{b})}\}$$

and

$$\{\mathbf{b}; \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}_n, \delta^{(\mathbf{a})} = \delta^{(\mathbf{b})}\} \quad \text{for } \mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A}_n,$$

respectively. Section 5 is devoted to the structure of those $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}$ which satisfy (4).

2. TWO EQUIVALENT FORMULATIONS OF THE PROBLEM IN QUESTION

Let $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A}$, put

$$A = \{i; i \in \mathbf{N}_0, a_i = 1\}$$

and consider two independent random variables X and Y having the uniform distribution concentrated on the set A . Then the distribution of $Z = X - Y$ is by (1)

$$(5) \quad P(Z = j) = \sum_{i \in A} P(X = i + j)P(Y = i) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i a_{i+j} \left(\frac{1}{\delta_0^{(\mathbf{a})}}\right)^2 = \delta_j^{(\mathbf{a})} \left(\frac{1}{\delta_0^{(\mathbf{a})}}\right)^2$$

for any $j \in \mathbf{N}_0$ and

$$P(Z = j) = P(Z = -j) \quad \text{for any integer } j.$$

R. Pyke posed in [3] the following question:

Let X and Y be independently distributed uniform random variables over the same closed subset of the real line. Given the distribution of $Z = X - Y$, can one determine B (up to translation and reflection)?

We observe that if only the sets $B \subset \mathbf{N}_0$ were considered (as a matter of fact, the Rost's example in [4] has this property) then it would require by (5) to decide whether the distance sequence $\delta^{(\mathbf{a})}$ determines $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A}$ uniquely or not.

Another situation in which this problem appeared concerns stochastic geometry. A compact set $K \subset \mathbf{R}^d$ is characterized in [1] by the volumes of its dilations by compact sets C , i.e. the values of

$$\Phi_C(K) = \mu(K \oplus C)$$

are considered, where μ is a translation invariant measure on \mathbb{R}^d with $\mu(K) < \infty$ (usually the Lebesgue measure or the counting measure), \oplus denotes the Minkowski addition of sets and

$$\check{C} = \{-x; x \in C\}.$$

Assume that $\Phi_C(K)$ is known for each set $C \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ containing at most two elements. Thus, the function

$$\Psi_1^K(y) = \sum_{C \subset \{0, y\}} (-1)^{\text{card } C+1} \Phi_C(K) \quad \text{for } y \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

is known as well and, moreover,

$$\Psi_1^K(y) = \mu(K \cap (K \oplus \{-y\})).$$

Note that the function Ψ_1^K is called the *set covariance* of K and is widely used in mathematical morphology and automatic image analysis—see [5]. It is proved in [2] that the values $\{\Psi_1^K(y); y \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$ determine a planar convex polygon up to translation and central reflection. On the other hand, the paper [1] shows that their knowledge is not sufficient to determine each compact subset of \mathbb{R}^d (up to translation, central reflection, and symmetric difference of μ -measure zero) even for $d = 1$. In [1], μ is the Lebesgue measure on \mathbb{R}^1 but it can be easily seen that the essence of the example given there is to consider the above mentioned problem for sets $K \subset \mathbb{N}_0$ with μ being the counting measure on \mathbb{R}^1 . To observe the connection with the 0-1 sequences discussed in the introduction, let μ be the counting measure on \mathbb{R}^1 , let $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and let

$$K = \{i; i \in \mathbb{N}_0, a_i = 1\}.$$

Then

$$\Psi_1^K(j) = \delta_j^{(a)} \quad \text{for } j \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

Note that the two examples given in [1] and [4] are not identical. Moreover, the corresponding pairs of sets (or, equivalently, sequences) are elements of different sets \mathcal{A}_n because $n = 11$ in the former case and $n = 15$ in the latter one. Their structure is, however, analogous—cf. Section 5.

3. THE POLYNOMIAL APPROACH

This section shows how to find all pairs $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying (4). Let $n \in \mathbf{N}_0$ and let $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{A}_n$. The sequence \mathbf{a} determines a polynomial

$$p^{(\mathbf{a})}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^i = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i.$$

For each polynomial h of a degree $k \in \mathbf{N}_0$ we put

$$\hat{h}(x) = x^k \cdot h(x^{-1}).$$

The values of $\delta_j^{(\mathbf{a})}$ appear in the product

$$q^{(\mathbf{a})}(x) = p^{(\mathbf{a})}(x) \cdot \hat{p}^{(\mathbf{a})}(x) = \sum_{j=-n}^n \delta_{|j|}^{(\mathbf{a})} x^{j+n}.$$

Thus, the relation (4) is equivalent to

$$(6) \quad q^{(\mathbf{a})} = q^{(\mathbf{b})},$$

$$(7) \quad p^{(\mathbf{a})} \neq p^{(\mathbf{b})}$$

and

$$(8) \quad p^{(\mathbf{a})} \neq \hat{p}^{(\mathbf{b})}.$$

The polynomial $p^{(\mathbf{a})}$ can be written as a product

$$p^{(\mathbf{a})} = s \cdot u$$

of two polynomials. Further, put

$$p^{(\mathbf{b})} = s \cdot \hat{u},$$

so that

$$\hat{p}^{(\mathbf{a})} = \hat{s} \cdot \hat{u}$$

and

$$\hat{p}^{(\mathbf{b})} = \hat{s} \cdot u.$$

Thus, the relation (6) is fulfilled and the conditions (7) and (8) are equivalent to

$$(9) \quad u \neq \hat{u}$$

and

$$(10) \quad s \neq \hat{s}.$$

Conversely, if two polynomials s and u are taken in such a way that (9) and (10) hold and that the products $s \cdot u$ and $s \cdot \hat{u}$ are polynomials all coefficients of which belong to $\{0, 1\}$ then we get $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying (4) by putting $p^{(a)} = s \cdot u$ and $p^{(b)} = s \cdot \hat{u}$.

Since each of the polynomials $p^{(a)}$, $\hat{p}^{(a)}$, $p^{(b)}$ and $\hat{p}^{(b)}$, for any $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$, contains obviously the absolute term 1, the polynomials s and u have the same property as well. Many pairs $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfying (4) can be obtained by using polynomials s and u such that all their coefficients belong to $\{0, 1\}$. The two examples presented in [1] and [4]—see also Tables 1 and 2 below—use the polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} s(x) &= 1 + x + x^4, \\ u(x) &= 1 + x^2 + x^7 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} s(x) &= 1 + x^4 + x^{12}, \\ u(x) &= 1 + x + x^3, \end{aligned}$$

respectively.

i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	≥ 12
a_i	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0
b_i	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0
$\delta_i^{(a)} = \delta_i^{(b)}$	9	6	5	5	5	4	3	3	2	1	1	1	0

Table 1

i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	≥ 16
a_i	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
b_i	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
$\delta_i^{(a)} = \delta_i^{(b)}$	9	4	4	4	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	0

Table 2

4. THE QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

All pairs $a, b \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ were investigated for $n = 1, 2, \dots, 14, 15$ with the use of PC Olivetti M 28. There are no pairs $a, b \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ satisfying (4) for $n \leq 10$. Table 3 contains the list of the pairs $a, b \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ satisfying (4), the corresponding sequences

n	$\begin{matrix} \{a_i\}_{i=0}^n \\ \{b_i\}_{i=0}^n \end{matrix}$	$\{\delta_i^{(a)}\}_{i=0}^n = \{\delta_i^{(b)}\}_{i=0}^n$	$s(x)$	$u(x)$
11	111000101001 110000110101	62211 22111 11	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3$ $+ x^4 + x^6 + x^8$	$1 - x^3 + x^5$
	111110111001 110011111101	96555 43321 11	$1 + x + x^4$	$1 + x^2 + x^7$
12	1101001110001 1100011101001	73222 33211 011	$1 - x^2 + x^3$	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3$ $+ x^7 + x^8 + x^9$
	1110010101001 1100010110101	72322 31311 111	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3$ $+ x^4 + x^5 + x^7$	$1 - x^3 + x^5$
	1111011101001 1101111100101	95554 44312 111	$1 + x + x^7$	$1 + x^2 + x^5$
	1111101011001 110010111101	95554 34232 111	$1 + x + x^4$	$1 + x^2 + x^8$
	1101110101101 1101011011101	94554 43323 111	$1 + x + x^3$	$1 + x^5 + x^9$
	1111010110011 1110111001011	95444 43322 221	$1 - x^3 + x^5$	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3$ $+ 2x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7$

Table 3

$\delta^{(a)} = \delta^{(b)}$ and the polynomials s and u for $n = 11$ and $n = 12$. The number of such pairs for $n = 11, 12, 13, 14, 15$ is given in Table 4. (There is no group of more than two elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ with the same distance sequence for those n 's—cf. Proposition 2). Since the cardinality of the set $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ grows exponentially in n there is a little chance to get such complete information for larger n . A lower bound for the number of pairs $a, b \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ satisfying (4) can be obtained for any $n \geq 11$ as follows: Put

$$\begin{aligned} s(x) &= 1 + x + x^m, \\ u(x) &= 1 + x^2 + x^{n-m} \end{aligned}$$

for any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $4 \leq m \leq \frac{n-3}{2}$ if $n \geq 11$ and

$$\begin{aligned} s(x) &= 1 + x^2 + x^m, \\ u(x) &= 1 + x + x^{n-m} \end{aligned}$$

for any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $5 \leq m \leq \frac{n-2}{2}$ if $n \geq 12$. Since these polynomials s and u generate in total $\lfloor \frac{n-2}{2} \rfloor + \lfloor \frac{n-10}{2} \rfloor = n - 10$ disjoint pairs $\{a, b\} \subseteq \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ with a, b satisfying (4), where $\lfloor y \rfloor$ means the integer part of y , we have the following estimate.

Proposition 1. *There exist at least $n - 10$ disjoint pairs $\{a, b\} \subseteq \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ with a, b satisfying (4) for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 11$.*

We know that the distance sequence $\delta^{(a)}$ defined in the introduction does not determine in general the "parent" sequence $a \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ uniquely. All the examples given in Table 3 have a common feature that just two elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ correspond to the same distance sequence. It seems to be useful to demonstrate that more than two elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ can have the same distance sequence. Put

$$\begin{aligned} s(x) &= 1 + x + x^3, \\ u(x) &= 1 + x^4 + x^9, \\ w(x) &= 1 + x^{13} + x^{27} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} p^{(a)} &= s \cdot u \cdot w, \\ p^{(b)} &= s \cdot u \cdot \hat{w}, \\ p^{(c)} &= s \cdot \hat{u} \cdot w, \\ p^{(d)} &= s \cdot \hat{u} \cdot \hat{w}. \end{aligned}$$

The reader can easily verify that all the coefficients of the polynomials $p^{(a)}$, $p^{(b)}$, $p^{(c)}$ and $p^{(d)}$ belong to $\{0, 1\}$, that a, b, c, d are different elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{39}$ and that

$$\delta^{(a)} = \delta^{(b)} = \delta^{(c)} = \delta^{(d)}.$$

Proposition 2. *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $z \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that*

$$n \geq \sum_{i=1}^{z+1} 3^i.$$

Then there exist at least 2^z different elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ having the same distance sequence.

Proof. In a similar way as above, we put

$$\begin{aligned} m &= n - \sum_{i=1}^z 3^i \\ \alpha_i &= \frac{1}{2}(3^i - 1) \quad \text{for } i \in \mathbb{N}, \\ \beta_i &= 3^i \quad \text{for } i \in \mathbb{N} \end{aligned}$$

and form the polynomials

$$(1+x+x^3) \prod_{i=2}^z (1+x^{\alpha_i}+x^{\beta_i})^{y_i} (1+x^{\alpha_{i+1}}+x^{\beta_i})^{1-y_i} \\ \times (1+x^{\alpha_{z+1}}+x^m)^{y_{z+1}} (1+x^{m-\alpha_{z+1}}+x^m)^{1-y_{z+1}}$$

for all $(y_2, \dots, y_{z+1}) \in \{0, 1\}^z$. These polynomials generate 2^z different elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ having the required properties. \square

n	11	12	13	14	15
number of unordered pairs $\mathbf{a, b} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ which satisfy (4)	2	6	12	16	37

Table 4

5. THE STRUCTURE OF THE PAIRS $\mathbf{a, b} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ SATISFYING (4)

To any finite subset $A \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ we attach the uniform probability measure P_A over A with respect to the counting measure. We shall say that such a subset A has a property \mathcal{P} if there exist two non-empty finite subsets $S, U \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ such that

$$(11) \quad S, U \neq \{0\}$$

and

$$(12) \quad P_A = P_S * P_U,$$

where $*$ denotes the operation of convolution. Further, we shall say that a sequence $\mathbf{a} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ has the property \mathcal{P} if its support set

$$(13) \quad A = \{i; a_i = 1\}$$

has the property \mathcal{P} . It can be easily seen that the property \mathcal{P} is \sim -invariant so that we can deal with the elements of the factor-set $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$.

R. Pyke posed in [4] a question which can be re-formulated as follows: Consider a pair $\mathbf{a, b} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ satisfying (4). Have \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} necessarily the property \mathcal{P} ? The answer is negative, as can be found considering the first example given in Table 3 for $n = 11$. In this case, the support sets—cf. (13)—corresponding to those $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}, \tilde{\mathbf{b}} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{11}$ are (up to central reflection)

$$(14) \quad A = \{0, 1, 2, 6, 8, 11\}$$

and

$$(15) \quad B = \{0, 1, 6, 7, 9, 11\}.$$

Suppose that the set A given by (14) has the property \mathcal{P} and let S, U be the finite nonempty subsets of \mathbb{R} such that (11) and (12) hold. Since $\min S + \min U = \min A = 0$ and

$$(16) \quad \max S + \max U = \max A = 11$$

we can assume without loss of generality that $\min S = \min U = 0$ and that $\max S \leq \max U$, i.e.

$$(17) \quad \max U \geq 6.$$

This implies $S \cup U \subset A$. Since all the three measures in question are uniform, $S \cap U = \{0\}$ holds. Finally, there are three possibilities by (17):

1) if $\max U = 6$ then $\max S = 5$ by (16) but $5 \notin A$;

2) if $\max U = 8$ then $\max S = 3$ by (16) but $3 \notin A$;

3) if $\max U = 11$ then $\max S = 0$ by (16), i.e. $S = \{0\}$, which contradicts to (11).

Thus, the set A given by (14) cannot have the property \mathcal{P} . Similarly, the same result is obtained for the set B given by (15). We conclude that none of the elements \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} of the set \mathcal{A}_{11} given in the first row of Table 3 has the property \mathcal{P} .

The example just discussed concerned the particular case of $n = 11$. General n 's are considered in

Proposition 3. For any integer $n \geq 11$, there exists a pair $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}_n$ satisfying (4) and such that neither \mathbf{a} nor \mathbf{b} has the property \mathcal{P} .

Proof. It remains to deal with $n \geq 12$ only. Use the polynomials

$$s(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^{n-5} + x^{n-4} + x^{n-3}$$

and

$$u(x) = 1 - x^2 + x^3.$$

The sequences $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{A}_n$ corresponding to $p^{(\mathbf{a})} = s \cdot u$ and $p^{(\mathbf{b})} = s \cdot \hat{u}$ have the support sets

$$(18) \quad A = \{i; a_i = 1\} = \{0, 1, 3, 6, n-5, n-4, n\}$$

and

$$(19) \quad B = \{i; b_i = 1\} = \{0, 3, 5, 6, n-5, n-1, n\}.$$

Following the ideas applied in the example above, we find that the sets A, B given by (18) and (19) cannot have the property \mathcal{P} . (In the cases of

$$\max S = \max U = 6 \quad \text{if} \quad n = 12,$$

or

$$\max U = n - 5 \quad \text{and} \quad \max S = 5$$

if the set B is considered, the second greatest elements of S, U should be discussed to find the contradiction to (12). \square

6. OPEN PROBLEMS

1) In spite of the fact that the number of elements of \mathcal{A} having the same distance sequence is not bounded—cf. Proposition 2, no example that this number equals 3 is known to the authors of this paper. This problem seems to be associated with the question whether there exist $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ satisfying (4) such that $\text{card } \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{a}} = 1$ and $\text{card } \mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{b}} = 2$ (the set $\mathcal{S}_{\mathbf{a}}$ has been introduced in Section 1). In the words of polynomials, these conditions can be expressed by $p^{(\mathbf{a})} = \hat{p}^{(\mathbf{a})}$ and $p^{(\mathbf{b})} \neq \hat{p}^{(\mathbf{b})}$.

2) A question whether there exist 5 different elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ having the same distance sequence seems to be much harder than the problem 1.

3) Proposition 2 provides an upper bound for the minimum of those $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that there exist at least $2^z = 2, 4, 8, \dots$ different elements of $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ having the same distance sequence. What is the minimal n with this property for each $z \in \mathbb{N}$? Note that the upper bound is equal to 12 and 39 for $z = 1$ and $z = 2$, respectively, but it is possible to take $n = 11$ for $z = 1$ and $n = 35$ for $z = 2$ —see Tables 3 and 5, respectively.

$\{a_i\}_{i=0}^{35}$	110100111011110011100011101001110001
$\{b_i\}_{i=0}^{35}$	100011100111101110010111000111001011
$\{c_i\}_{i=0}^{35}$	100101110011110111000111001011100011
$\{d_i\}_{i=0}^{35}$	110001110111100111010011100011101001
$\{\delta_i^{(\mathbf{e})}\}_{i=0}^{35}$ for $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{d}$	21,12,9,8,10,13,13,11,8,8,9,9,9,6,6,7,7,7,6,4,4, 5,7,4,3,2,2,3,3,2,1,1,0,1,1

Table 5

4) The computer search study shows that the number $\delta_0^{(\mathbf{a})}$ of 1's in the sequences $\mathbf{a} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ for which there exists $\mathbf{b} \in \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_n$ such that the pair \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} satisfies (4) is as

follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_0^{(a)} &\in \{6, 9\} && \text{for } n = 11, \\ \delta_0^{(a)} &\in \{7, 9\} && \text{for } n = 12, \\ \delta_0^{(a)} &\in \{6, 7, 8, 9\} && \text{for } n = 13, \\ \delta_0^{(a)} &\in \{6, 7, 8, 9, 10\} && \text{for } n = 14\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\delta_0^{(a)} \in \{7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\} \quad \text{for } n = 15.$$

Is it possible to state that the distance sequence determines the "parent" element of \mathcal{A} uniquely if $\delta_0^{(a)}$ is small enough or large enough (compared to n)? And if it is so what are the limits for a given $n \in \mathbb{N}$?

5) When looking for the polynomials s and u (cf. Section 3) such that the pair $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$ corresponding to $p^{(a)} = s \cdot u$ and $p^{(b)} = s \cdot \hat{u}$ satisfies (4), the following basic problem appears to be of interest: For which polynomials s exists there such a polynomial u (both s and u having arbitrary coefficients) that all the coefficients of the product polynomial $s \cdot u$ are from $\{0, 1\}$?

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