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Coarse selectors of groups

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ABSTRACT. For a group G, \mathcal{F}_G denotes the set of all nonempty finite subsets of G. We extend the finitary coarse structure of G from $G \times G$ to $\mathcal{F}_G \times \mathcal{F}_G$ and say that a macro-uniform mapping $f: \mathcal{F}_G \to \mathcal{F}_G$ (resp. $f: [G]^2 \to G$) is a finitary selector (resp. 2selector) of G if $f(A) \in A$ for each $A \in \mathcal{F}_G$ (resp. $A \in [G]^2$). We prove that a group G admits a finitary selector if and only if Gadmits a 2-selector and if and only if G is a finite extension of an infinite cyclic subgroup or G is countable and locally finite. We use this result to characterize groups admitting linear orders compatible with finitary coarse structures.

1. Introduction and results

The notions of selectors came from *Topology*. Let X be a topological space, exp X denotes the set of all non-empty closed subsets of X endowed with some (initially, the Vietoris) topology, \mathcal{F} be a non-empty subset of exp X. A continuous mapping $f : \mathcal{F} \to X$ is called an \mathcal{F} -selector of X if $f(A) \in A$ for each $A \in \mathcal{F}$. The question on selectors of topological spaces was studied in a plenty of papers, we mention only [1], [4], [9], [10].

Formally, coarse spaces, introduced independently and simultaniously in [17] and [13], can be considered as asymptotic counterparts of uniform topological spaces. But actually, this notion is rooted in *Geometry, Geometric Group Theory* and *Combinatorics*, see [17, Chapter 1], [6, Chapter 4] and [13]. Every group G admits the natural finitary coarse structure which, in the case of finitely generated G, can be viewed as the metric structure of a Cayley graph of G. At this point, we need some basic definitions.

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Given a set X, a family \mathcal{E} of subsets of $X \times X$ is called a *coarse* structure on X if

- each $E \in \mathcal{E}$ contains the diagonal $\Delta_X := \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$ of X;
- if $E, E' \in \mathcal{E}$ then $E \circ E' \in \mathcal{E}$ and $\overline{E^{-1}} \in \mathcal{E}$, where $E \circ E' = \{(x, y) : \exists z \ ((x, z) \in E, \ (z, y) \in E')\}, E^{-1} = \{(y, x) : (x, y) \in E\};$
- if $E \in \mathcal{E}$ and $\Delta_X \subseteq E' \subseteq E$ then $E' \in \mathcal{E}$.

Elements $E \in \mathcal{E}$ of the coarse structure are called *entourages* on X.

For $x \in X$ and $E \in \mathcal{E}$ the set $E[x] := \{y \in X : (x, y) \in \mathcal{E}\}$ is called the *ball of radius* E centered at x. Since $E = \bigcup_{x \in X} (\{x\} \times E[x])$, the entourage E is uniquely determined by the family of balls $\{E[x] : x \in X\}$. A subfamily $\mathcal{E}' \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ is called a *base* of the coarse structure \mathcal{E} if each set $E \in \mathcal{E}$ is contained in some $E' \in \mathcal{E}'$.

The pair (X, \mathcal{E}) is called a *coarse space* [17] or a *ballean* [13], [16].

A coarse space (X, \mathcal{E}) is called *connected* if, for any $x, y \in X$, there exists $E \in \mathcal{E}$ such that $y \in E[x]$.

A subset $Y \subseteq X$ is called *bounded* if $Y \subseteq E[x]$ for some $E \in \mathcal{E}$ and $x \in X$. If (X, \mathcal{E}) is connected then the family \mathcal{B}_X of all bounded subsets of X is a bornology on X. We recall that a family \mathcal{B} of subsets of a set X is a *bornology* if \mathcal{B} contains the family $[X]^{<\omega}$ of all finite subsets of X and \mathcal{B} is closed under finite unions and taking subsets. A bornology \mathcal{B} on a set X is called *unbounded* if $X \notin \mathcal{B}$. A subfamily \mathcal{B}' of \mathcal{B} is called a base for \mathcal{B} if, for each $B \in \mathcal{B}$, there exists $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $B \subseteq B'$.

Each subset $Y \subseteq X$ defines a subspace $(Y, \mathcal{E}|_Y)$ of (X, \mathcal{E}) , where $\mathcal{E}|_Y = \{E \cap (Y \times Y) : E \in \mathcal{E}\}$. A subspace $(Y, \mathcal{E}|_Y)$ is called *large* if there exists $E \in \mathcal{E}$ such that X = E[Y], where $E[Y] = \bigcup_{y \in Y} E[y]$.

Let (X, \mathcal{E}) , (X', \mathcal{E}') be coarse spaces. A mapping $f : X \to X'$ is called *macro-uniform* if for every $E \in \mathcal{E}$ there exists $E' \in \mathcal{E}'$ such that $f(E(x)) \subseteq E'(f(x))$ for each $x \in X$. If f is a bijection such that f and f^{-1} are macro-uniform, then f is called an *asymorphism*. If (X, \mathcal{E}) and (X', \mathcal{E}') contain large asymorphic subspaces, then they are called *coarsely* equivalent.

Given a coarse spaces (X, \mathcal{E}) , we denote by $\exp X$ the set of all nonempty subsets of X and endow $\exp X$ with the coarse structure $\exp \mathcal{E}$ with the base { $\exp E : E \in \mathcal{E}$ }, where

$$(A, B) \in \exp E \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq E[B], \quad B \subseteq E[A].$$

The coarse space (exp X, exp \mathcal{E}) is called the *hyperballean* of (X, \mathcal{E}) , for hyperballeans see [2], [3], [14], [15].

Now we are ready to the key definition. Let (X, \mathcal{E}) be coarse space, \mathcal{F} be a non-empty subspace of exp X. A macro-uniform mapping $f : \mathcal{F} \longrightarrow X$ is called an \mathcal{F} -selector of (X, \mathcal{E}) if $f(A) \in A$ for each $A \in \mathcal{F}$. In the case $\mathcal{F} = \exp X$, $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B} \setminus \{0\}$, $\mathcal{F} = [X]^2$ we get a global selector, a bornologous selector and a 2-selector respectively. The investigation of selectors of coarse spaces was initiated in [11], [12].

Every group G with the identity e can be considered as the coarse spaces (G, \mathcal{E}) , where \mathcal{E} is the *(right) finitary coarse structure* with the base

$$\{\{(x,y): x \in Fy\} : F \in [G]^{<\omega}, \ e \in F\}.$$

We note that the bornology of (G, \mathcal{E}) coincides with \mathcal{F}_G and use the name *finitary selector* in place the bornologous selector.

Every metric d on a set X defines the coarse structure \mathcal{E}_d on X with the base $\{\{(x, y) : d(x, y) \leq r\} : r > 0\}$. Given a connected graph Γ , $\Gamma = \Gamma[V]$, we denote by d the path metric on the set V of vertices of Γ and consider Γ as the coarse space (V, \mathcal{E}_d) . We recall that Γ is *locally finite* if the set $\{y : d(x, y) \leq 1\}$ if finite for each $x \in V$.

Our goal is to prove the following theorem.

Theorem 1. For a group G, the following statements are equivalent:

(i) G admits a finitary selector;

(ii) G admits a 2-selector;

(iii) G is a finite extension of an infinite cyclic subgroup or G is countable and locally finite (i.e. every finite subset of G generates a finite subgroup).

In the proof of Theorem 1 we use the following characterization of locally finite graphs admitting selectors. By \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} , we denote graphs on the sets of natural and integer numbers in which two vertices a, b are incident if and only if |a-b| = 1. We note also that two graphs are coarsely equivalent if and only if they are quasi-isometric, see [6, Chapter 4] for quasi-isometric spaces.

Theorem 2. For a locally finite graph Γ , the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) Γ admits a finitary selector;
- (ii) Γ admits a 2-selector;
- (iii) Γ is either finite or coarsely equivalent to \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} .

We prove Theorem 2 in Section 2 and Theorem 1 in Section 3. In Section 4, we apply Theorem 1 to characterize groups admitting linear orders compatible with finitary coarse structures.

2. Proof of Theorem 2

The implication $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$ is evident. To prove $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$, we choose a 2-selector f of $\Gamma[V]$ and get (iii) at the end of some chain of elementary observations.

We define a binary relation \prec on V as follows: $a \prec b$ if and only if $a \neq b$ and $f(\{a, b\}) = a$.

We use also the Hausdorff metric on the set of all non-empty finite subsets of V defined by $d_H(A, B) = \max\{d(a, B), d(b, A) : a \in A, b \in B\},$ $d(a, B) = \min\{d(a, b) : b \in B\}$. We note that the coarse structure on $[V]^2$ is defined by d_H . Since f is macro-uniform, there exists the minimal natural number r such that if $A, B \in [V]^2$ and $d_H(A, B) \leq 1$ then $d(f(A), f(B)) \leq r$. We fix and use this r.

We recall that a sequence of vertices a_0, \ldots, a_m is a geodesic path if $d(a_0, a_m) = m$ and $d(a_i, a_{i+1}) = 1$ for each $i \in \{0, \ldots, m-1\}$.

Lemma 1. Let a_0, \ldots, a_m be a geodesic path in V and $m \ge r$. If $a_0 \prec a_r$ (resp. $a_r \prec a_0$) then $a_i \prec a_j$ (resp. $a_j \prec a_i$) for all i, j such that $j - i \ge r$.

Let $a_0 \prec a_r$. By the choice of r, we have $a_0 \prec a_{r+1}, \ldots a_0 \prec a_j$ and $a_1 \prec a_j, \ldots a_i \prec a_j$.

Lemma 2. Let $v \in V$, $B(v,r) = \{x \in V : d(x,v) \leq r\}$ and U be a subset of $V \setminus B(v,r)$ such that the graph $\Gamma[U]$ is connected. Then either $v \prec u$ for each $u \in U$ or $u \prec v$ for each $u \in U$.

We take arbitrary $u, u' \in U$ and choose a_0, \ldots, a_k in U such that $a_0 = u, a_k = u'$ and $d(a_i, a_{i+1}) = 1$ for each $i \in \{0, \ldots, k-1\}$. Let $a_0 \prec v$. By the choice of r, we have $a_1 \prec v, \ldots, a_k \prec v$.

Lemma 3. Let $u, v, v' \in V$, d(v, v') = n and d(u, v) > n + r. If $u \prec v$ (resp. $v \prec u$) then $u \prec v'$ (resp. $v' \prec u$).

We choose a geodesic path a_0, \ldots, a_m from v to v'. Let $u \prec v$. By the choice of $r, u \prec a_0, u \prec a_1, \ldots, u \prec a_n$.

Lemma 4. Let a_0, \ldots, a_m be a geodesic path in $V, v \in V, d(v, \{a_0, \ldots, a_m\}) = d(v, a_k), k > 2r + 1, m - k > 2r + 1$. Then $d(v, a_k) \leq r$.

We take the first alternative given by Claim 1, the second is analogical. Then $a_0 \prec a_k, a_k \prec a_m$. Assuming that $d(v, a_k) > r$, we can replace v to some point on a geodesic path from v to a_k and get $d(v, a_k) = r + 1$. We take the first alternative given by Claim 2, the second is analogical. Then $v \prec a_0, v \prec a_m$. But $v \prec a_0$ and $a_0 \prec a_k$ contradict Claim 3. We recall that a sequence $(a_n)_{n < \omega}$ in V is a ray if $d(a_i, a_j) = j - i$ for all i < j. Evidently, $\Gamma[\{a_n : n < \omega\}]$ is asymorphic to \mathbb{N} .

Lemma 5. Let $(a_n)_{n < \omega}$, $(c_n)_{n < \omega}$ be rays in V, $A = \{a_n : n < \omega\}$, $C = \{c_n : n < \omega\}$ and $A \cap C = \emptyset$. Let t_0, \ldots, t_k be a geodesic path from a_0 to c_0 , $T = \{t_0, \ldots, t_k\}$. Assume that $T \cap \{A\} = \{a_0\}$, $T \cap C = \{c_0\}$. If there exists a finite subset H of V such that every geodesic path from a vertex $a \in A$ to a vertex $c \in C$ meets H then $(A \cup C \cup T, d)$ is asymorphic to \mathbb{Z} .

We define a bijection $f: A \cup C \cup T \to \mathbb{Z}$ by

$$f(c_i) = -i - 1, \quad f(t_i) = i, \quad f(a_i) = i + k + 1$$

and show that f is an asymorphism.

If $x, y \in A \cup C \cup T$ then $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq d(x, y)$. Hence, f^{-1} is macro-uniform.

We denote by $p = \max\{d(a_0, h), d(b_0, h) : h \in H\}$. Then the restriction of f to $C \cup T \cup \{a_0, \ldots, a_p\}$ is an asymorphism and the restriction of fto $A \cup T \cup \{c_0, \ldots, c_p\}$ is an asymorphism. Let n > p, m > p. Since a geodesic path from c_n to a_m meets H, we have

$$d(a_m, c_n) \leq n - p + m - p = |f(a_m) - f(c_n)| - k - 2p,$$

so f is macro-uniform and the claim is proven.

We suppose that V is infinite. Since $\Gamma[V]$ is locally finite, there exists a ray $(a_n)_{n < \omega}$ in V. We put $A = \{a_n : n < \omega\}$. If $V \setminus B(A, r)$ is finite then $\Gamma[V]$ is coarsely equivalent to \mathbb{N} .

We suppose $V \setminus B(A, r)$ is infinite, take $u \in V \setminus B(A, r)$ and show that every path P from u to a point from B(A, r) meets $B(\{a_0, \ldots, a_{2r+1}\}, r+1)$. We take a point $v \in P$ such that d(v, A) = r + 1 and take k such that $d(v, a_k) = r + 1$. By Claim 4, $k \leq 2r + 1$, so $v \in B(\{a_0, \ldots, a_{2r+1}\}, r+1)$. We choose a ray $(c_n)_{n < \omega}$ in $V \setminus B(A, r)$ and put $C = (c_n)_{n < \omega}$. We delete (if necessary) a finite number of points from A so that A, C and T satisfy the assumptions of Claim 5 with $F = B(\{a_0, \ldots, a_{2r+1}\}, r+1)$. Then $(B(A \cup C \cup T), d)$ is coarsely equivalent to \mathbb{Z} .

We show that $V \setminus B(A \cup C, r)$ is finite, so $\Gamma[V]$ is coasly equivalent to \mathbb{Z} . We suppose the contrary and choose a ray $(x_n)_{n < \omega}$ in $V \setminus B(A \cup C, r)$. Applying arguments from above paragraph, we can construct a subset X of V such that (X, d) is coarsely equivalent to a tree T which is a union of three rays with common beginning. Since (X, d) has a 2-selector, by Proposition 5 from [12], T also admits a 2-selector. On the other hand, Claim 4 states that T does not admit a 2-selector and we get a contradiction.

It remains to prove $(iii) \Rightarrow (i)$. This is evident if Γ is finite. By [12, Proposition 5], it suffices to show that \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} admit finitary selectors. In both cases, a mapping f defined by $f(A) = \max A$ is finitary selector.

3. Proof of Theorem 1

Let G be a group with the finite system S of generators, $S = S^{-1}$. We recall that the Cayley graph Cay(G, S) is a graph with the set of vertices G and the set of edges $\{(x, y) : x \neq y, xy^{-1} \in S\}$. We note that the finitary coarse space of G is asymorphic to the coarse space of Cay(G, S).

Now let G be an arbitrary group. The implication $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$ is evident.

We prove $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$. By [12, Theorem 4], G is countable. Let f be a 2-selector of G. We use the binary relation \prec on G, defined in Section 2, and consider two cases.

Case 1. G has an element a of infinite order. We denote by A the subgroup of G, generated by a, and show that |G:A| is finite.

On the contrary, let |G:A| is infinite. We put $S = \{e, a, a^{-1}\}$, denote by $\Gamma[A]$ the graph Cay(A, S) and choose a natural number r such that if $B, C \in [A]^2$ and $d_H(B, C) \leq 1$ then $d(f(A), f(B)) \leq r$. By Claim 1, either $a^m \prec a^n$ for all $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n - m \geq r$ or $a^n \prec a^m$ for all $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n - m \geq r$.

Since $f: [G]^2 \to G$ is macro-uniform, there exists a finite subset F of G such that $F = F^{-1}$, $e \in F$ and if $B, C \in [G]^2$ and $A \subseteq SB$, $B \subseteq SA$ then $f(A) \in Ff(B)$. Since |G:A| is infinite, we can choose $h \in G \setminus FA$, so $Fh \cap A = \emptyset$. Then either $a^n \prec h$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ or $h \prec a^n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. We consider the first alternative, the second is analogical.

Since f is macro-uniform, we can choose $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \ge r$ such that $e \prec a^m$ and $h \prec a^m$, but $h \prec a^m$ contradicts above paragraph.

Case 2. G is a torsion group. We suppose that G is not locally finite, choose a finite subset S of G such that the subgroup H, generated by S, is infinite. We denote $\Gamma[H] = Cay(H, S)$. By Theorem 2, $\Gamma[H]$ is coarsely equivalent to N or Z.

We take $v \in \Gamma[H]$ and denote $S(v, n) = \{u \in H : d(v, u) = n\}, n \in \mathbb{N}$. By [8, Theorem 1] or [16, Theorem 5.4.1], there exists a natural number k such that $|S(v, n)| \leq k$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, H is of linear growth. Applying either [5] or [7], we conclude that H has an element of infinite order, a contradiction with the choice of G. It remains to verify $(iii) \Rightarrow (i)$. If G is a finite extension of an infinite cyclic subgroup then we apply Theorem 2. If G is countable and locally finite, one can refer to Theorem 5 in [12], but we give the following direct proof to use in the proof of Theorem 3.

We write G as the union of an increasing chain $\{G_n : n < \omega\}, G_0 = \{e\}$ of finite subgroup. For each n, we choose some system $R_n, e \in R_n$ of representatives of right cosets of G_{n+1} by G_n , so $G_{n+1} = G_n R_n$. We denote

$$X = \{(x_n)_{n < \omega} : x_n \in R_n \text{ and } x_n = e \text{ for all but finitery many } n\}$$

and define a bijection $h: G \to X$ as follows.

We put $h(e) = (x_n)_{n < \omega}$, $x_n = e$. Let $g \in G$, $g \neq e$. We choose n_0 such that $g \in G_{n_0+1} \setminus G_{n_0}$ and write $g = g_0 r_{n_0}$, $g_0 \in G_{g_0}$, $r_{n_0} \in R_{n_0}$. If $g_0 \neq e$ then we find $n_1, g_1 \in G_{n_1}, r_{n_1} \in R_{n_1}$ such that $g_0 = g_1 r_{n_1}$. After a finite number k of steps, we get $g = r_{n_k} \ldots r_{n_1} r_{n_0}$. We put $h(g) = (y_n)$, where $y_n = r_n$ if $n \in \{n_k, \ldots, n_0\}$, otherwise, $y_n = e$.

Now we define a linear order \leq on X. For each $n < \omega$, we choose some linear order \leq_n on R_n with the minimal element e. If $(x_n)_{n < \omega} \neq (y_n)_{n < \omega}$ then we choose the minimal k such that $x_n = y_n$ for each n > k. If $x_k <_k y_k$ then we put $(x_n)_{n < \omega} < (y_n)_{n < \omega}$.

We note that (X, \leq) is well-ordered, so every non-empty subset of X has the minimal element. To define a finitary selector $f : \mathcal{F}_G \to G$, we take an arbitrary $A \in \mathcal{F}_G$ and put $f(A) = \min h(A)$.

4. Linear orders

Let (X, \mathcal{E}) be a coarse space. We say that a linear order \leq on X is compatible with the coarse structure \mathcal{E} if, for every $E \in \mathcal{E}$, there exists $F \in \mathcal{E}$ such that $E \subseteq F$ and if $\{x, y\} \in [X]^2$, x < y (y < x) and $y \in X \setminus F[x]$ then x' < y (y < x') for each $x' \in E[x]$.

Let (X, \mathcal{E}) be a coarse space, \leq be a linear order on X. We say that an entourage $E \in \mathcal{E}$ is interval (with respect to \leq) if, for each $x \in X$, there exist $a_x, b_x \in X$ such that $a_x \leq x \leq b_x$ and $E[x] = [a_x, b_x]$. We say that \mathcal{E} is an *interval* coarse structure if there is a base of \mathcal{E} consisting of interval entourages. Clearly, if \mathcal{E} is interval then \leq is compatible with \mathcal{E} .

Theorem 3. Let G be a group, \mathcal{E} denotes the finitary coarse structure on G. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(i) there exists a linear order \leq on G such that \mathcal{E} is interval with respect to \mathcal{E} ;

(ii) there exists a linear order \leq on G compatible with \mathcal{E} ;

(iii) G admits a 2-selector.

Proof. The implication $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$ is evident, $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$ follows from Proposition 2 in [12]. To prove $(iii) \Rightarrow (i)$, we use Theorem 1 and consider two cases.

Case 1. G is a finite extension of an infinite cyclic group A. We can suppose that A is a normal subgroup. Let $A = \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}, \{f_0, \ldots, f_m\}$ be a set of representatives of cosets of G by A, $f_0 = e, F = \{f_0, \ldots, f_m\}$. We set $F_n = F\{a^{-n}, \ldots, a^n\}, E_n = \{(x, y) : xy^{-1} \in F_n\}$ and note that $\{E_n : n \in \omega\}$ is a base for \mathcal{E} .

We endow G with a linear order \leq defined by the rule: $f_i a^k < f_j a^n$ if and only if either k < n or k = n and i < j.

We choose the minimal natural number d such that $f_j f_j \in F\{a^{-d}, \ldots, a^d\}$ for all $i, j \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$. Since $f_i^{-1}af_j \in \{a, a^{-1}\}$, we have

$$E_n[f_i a^k] \subseteq [f_0 a^{k-n-d}, f_m a^{k+n+d}].$$

On the other hand, $[f_0 a^{k-n}, f_m a^{k+n}] \subseteq F_n a^k \subseteq F_n f_i^{-1} (f_i a^k)$. Hence, \mathcal{E} has an interval base with respect to \leq .

Case 2. G is countable and locally finite. Then \mathcal{E} is interval with respect to the linear order \leq defined in the proof of Theorem 1.

Let \leq be a linear order on G compatible with \mathcal{E} . Does there exist a global selector of G? The following theorem gives the negative answer.

Theorem 4. The group \mathbb{Z} does not admit a global selector.

Proof. We suppose the contrary and let f be a global selector. Since f is macro-uniform, there exists a natural number n such that if $X, Y \in \exp G$ and $X \subset \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + Y, \quad Y \subset \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + Y$

$$A \subseteq [-1,1] + I, \ I \subseteq [-1,1] + A$$

then $f(Y) \in [f(X) - n, \ f(x) + n].$
We put $A = (n+1)\mathbb{Z}, \ a = f(A), \ A' = A \setminus \{a\}.$ Then
 $f(A' \cup \{a - 1\}) \in \{a - 1, a - (n+1)\},$
 $f(A' \cup \{a - 2\}) \in \{a - 2, a - (n+1)\}, \dots,$
 $f(A') = a - (n+1),$
 $f(A' \cup \{a + 1\}) \in \{a + 1, a + n + 1\},$
 $f(A' \cup \{a + 2\}) \in \{a + 2, a + n + 1\}, \dots,$
 $f(A') = a + n + 1,$

and we get a contradiction.

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