

σ Automata

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Outline

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- 2 Reversibility
- 3 π Polynomials
- 4 Irreversible Squares
- 5 Orbits

A Beer-Fueled Challenge

- Suppose a chessboard is wired up with lights and buttons.
- Each square has one light and one button.
- Pushing the button toggles the light.
- Alas, it also toggles the lights of the 4 edge-adjacent squares.

Starting from all lights off, can one turn all the lights on?

A Toy



Obviously by Induction . . .

$1 \times m$ is easy

$2 \times m$ still easy

$3 \times m$ already annoying

No real hope to do induction $n \times m \rightsquigarrow (n+1) \times m$

If you can't prove something, generalize.

Global Operation σ

Let $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ be some undirected graph.

$A \in \mathbf{2}^{V \times V}$ its adjacency matrix.

$\mathcal{C} = V \rightarrow \mathbf{2}$ the space of all configurations over G .

\mathcal{C} is a boolean group under pointwise addition mod 2.

In fact, think of \mathcal{C} as a vector space over \mathbb{F}_2 .

Define the following global operator on configuration space:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma : \mathcal{C} &\longrightarrow \mathcal{C} \\ \sigma(X) &= (A + I) \cdot X \end{aligned}$$

Notation

The graph G is usually clear from context.

For emphasis we sometimes write

$$\sigma_G \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma(G)$$

The definition makes sense for any (locally finite directed graph, but we will focus on undirected graphs.

Forget Grids

Theorem (1989)

The all-ones configuration $\mathbf{1}$ lies in the range of σ .

Proof.

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = |X \cap Y| \pmod 2$$

σ is self-adjoint

$\text{rng}(\sigma)$ is the orthogonal complement of $\ker(\sigma)$

for X in the kernel the induced subgraph has only odd-degree vertices

every element of the kernel has even cardinality (handshake lemma)

$\mathbf{1}$ is orthogonal to the kernel

□

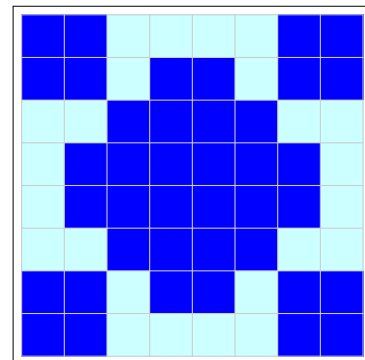
Aside: A Universal Configuration

So $\mathbf{1}$ is **universal** in the sense that it lies in the range of σ for any graph.

Theorem (P. Winkler, Y. Dodis (2001))

$\mathbf{1}$ is essentially the only universal pattern.

Chessboard Solution



100 by 100



Discrete Dynamics

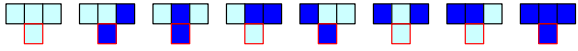
Think of $\langle C, \sigma \rangle$ as a **discrete dynamical system**.

- reversibility
- predecessors
- (maximal) transients
- (maximal) cycle length
- cycle length distribution

We want computationally simple descriptions.

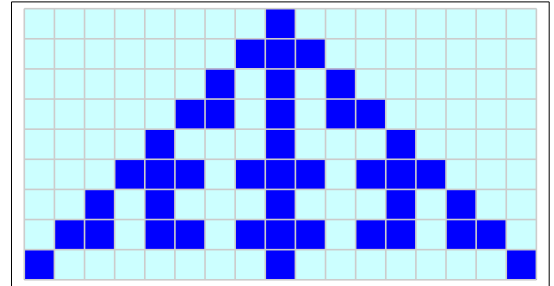
Cellular Automata

On the bi-infinite path P_∞ rule σ is known as **elementary cellular automata** number 150.

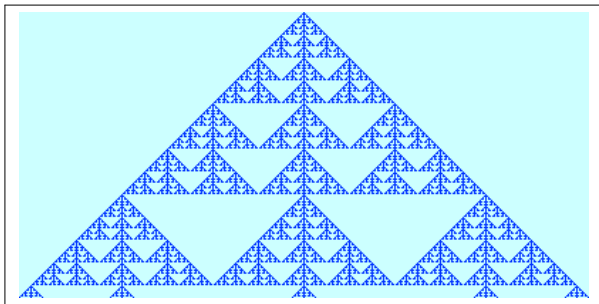


Studied in great detail Martin, Odlyzko and Wolfram 25 years ago.

ECA 150



A Fractal



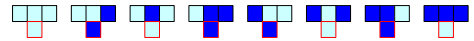
A Similar ECA

Elementary cellular automaton number 150 has a slightly simpler counterpart: ECA 90.

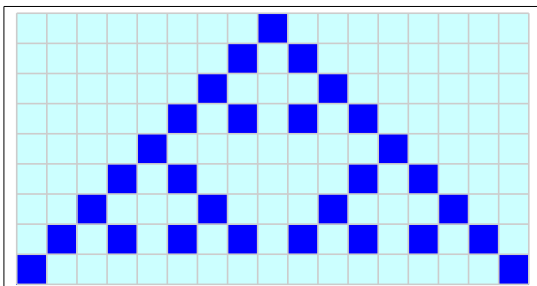
$$\sigma^- : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$$

$$\sigma^-(X) = A \cdot X$$

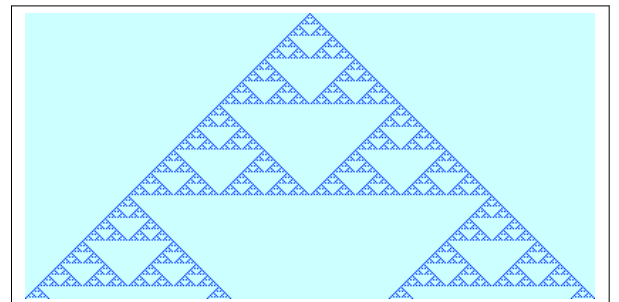
Uses open neighborhood instead of closed neighborhood.



ECA 90



Sierpinski

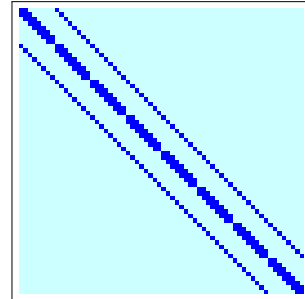


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Reversible Grids

So when is the $n \times m$ grid $P_{n,m}$ reversible under rule σ ?

Note that the adjacency matrix for $P_{n,m}$ is a Kronecker matrix of size $nm \times nm$.



Reducing Dimension

The matrices are sparse and we can avoid large dimensions as follows.

Consider a configuration

$$X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \quad X_i \in \mathbf{2}^m$$

Then X is in the kernel of σ iff

$$X_{i+1} = \sigma_m(X_i) + X_{i-1}$$

where σ_m is the operator on the path P_m .

Fibonacci Polynomials

But then the first row Z determines the rest of X .

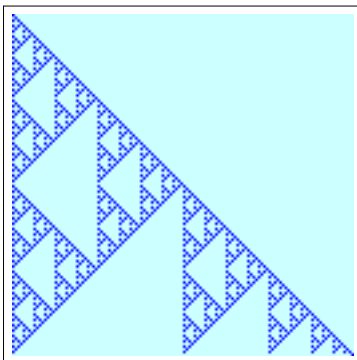
Define the **binary Fibonacci polynomials** over $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_0(x) &= 0 \\ \pi_1(x) &= 1 \\ \pi_n(x) &= x \cdot \pi_{n-1}(x) + \pi_{n-2}(x) \end{aligned}$$

For example, $\pi_{51}(x)$ has the form

$$x^{50} + x^{48} + x^{44} + x^{42} + x^{40} + x^{34} + x^{32} + x^{12} + x^{10} + x^8 + x^2 + 1$$

Coefficients of Fibonacci Polynomials



Expanding Patterns

Given row $Z \in \mathbf{2}^m$ define

$$X = (\pi_1(\sigma_m)(Z), \pi_2(\sigma_m)(Z), \dots, \pi_n(\sigma_m)(Z)),$$

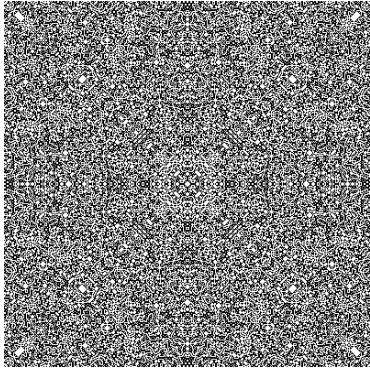
Then X is in the kernel of $\sigma_{n,m}$ iff

$$\pi_{n+1}(\sigma_m)(Z) = \mathbf{0}$$

It follows that the corank of $\sigma_{n,m}$ is at most $\min(n, m)$.

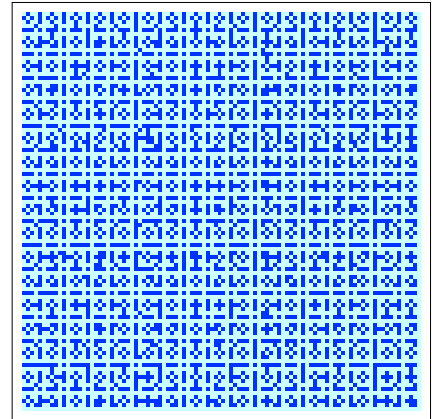
We can now compute kernel patterns and coranks relatively easily.

400 by 400

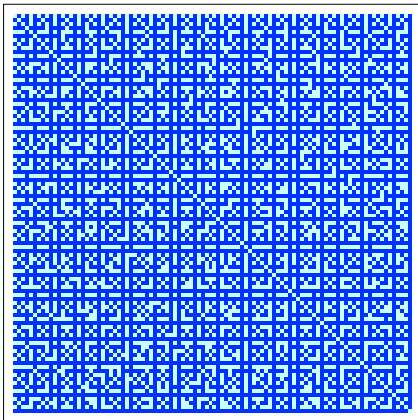


A kernel pattern for σ on the 400×400 grid.

Reversibility for σ



Reversibility for σ^-



σ^- : Integer Division

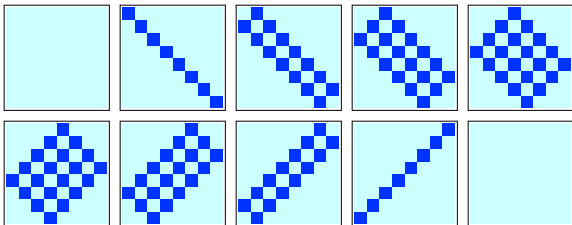
The last picture should look eminently familiar: it's the GCD modulo 2.

A little check shows that the corank of σ^- on $P_{n,m}$ is

$$\text{gcd}(n + 1, m + 1) - 1.$$

Computationally this is an ideal answer: all we need is integer division, can be handled in time polynomial in $\log n + \log m$.

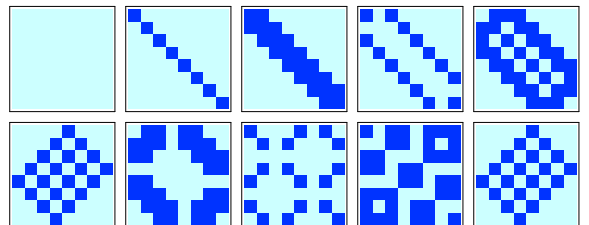
σ^- is easy ...



The canonical matrix representations of $\pi_i(\sigma_8^-)$, $0 \leq i < 10$.

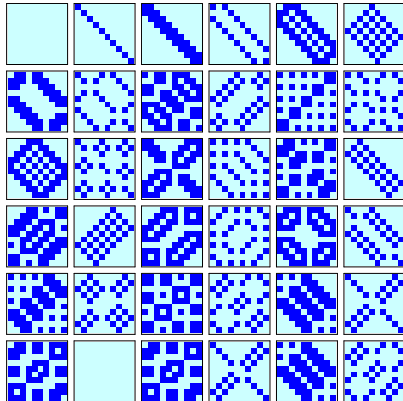
So how much more difficult can $\sigma = \sigma^- + I$ be?

σ not so much



The same picture for σ_8 , apparently much more complicated.

$m = 10$



σ : Polynomial Division

Theorem (2000)

The dimension of the kernel of σ on $P_{n,m}$ is

$$\deg \gcd(\pi_{n+1}(x), \pi_{m+1}(x+1)).$$

Note the involution $x \mapsto x+1$ in the second term.

Algorithmically, time is now polynomial in n , not $\log n$.

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Easy Divisibility Properties

Proposition

$$\pi_p = \pi_{q+1}\pi_{p-q} + \pi_q\pi_{p-q-1} \quad \text{where } p \geq q + 1$$

$$\gcd(\pi_n, \pi_m) = \pi_{\gcd(n,m)}$$

$$\pi_{2^k n} = x^{2^k - 1} \pi_n^{2^k}$$

$$\pi_{2n+1} = \pi_{n+1}^2 + \pi_n^2$$

$$\pi_{2^k - 1} \pi_{2^k + 1} = (x^{2^k - 1} + 1)^2$$

The Chebyshev Angle

We can also think of these polynomials as the binary version of Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind:

$$\pi_n(x) = U_{n-1}(x/2) \pmod 2$$

Slightly useful since we can lift results about Chebyshev polynomials. For example,

$$\pi_n(x) = \frac{\alpha^n + \beta^n}{\alpha + \beta}$$

where α and β are roots of the characteristic polynomial $t^2 + xt + 1$ (in the algebraic closure of the rational function field).

Factorization

Theorem (2000)

Let $n = 2^k \cdot m$, m odd. Then

$$\pi_n(x) = x^{2^k - 1} \prod_{d|m} \rho_d^{2^k}(x) = x^{2^k - 1} \prod_{d|m} \rho_d(x^{2^k})$$

Here the **critical factors** $\rho_d(x)$ are products of irreducibles.

In particular for odd n we have

$$\pi_n(x) = \prod_{d|n} \rho_d(x)$$

Rank of Apparition

Given a sequence (a_n) the rank of apparition of m to be the least n such that

$$m \text{ divides } a_n$$

if it exists. The rank of apparition is particularly important for m prime.

In our case, we are interested in the least n such that some irreducible $\tau \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ divides π_n .

Dates back at least to work by M. Ward and L. K. Durst; the generalized Lucas-Lehmer test is closely connected to divisibility questions about Lucas sequences.

Rank of Apparition for Fibonacci Polynomials

Proposition

Every irreducible polynomial divides some π_n .

So the rank of apparition is always defined. Indeed the critical factors have the form

$$\rho_d = \prod (\tau^2 \mid \tau \text{ irreducible, rap}(\tau) = d)$$

So we need to understand ranks of apparition.

Pinning down RAP

Theorem (2000)

Let $\tau \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ be an irreducible polynomial of degree d .

Then τ 's rank of apparition k divides $2^d \pm 1$.

In fact, the rap divides $2^d - 1$ if, and only if, the linear term in τ vanishes. In either case, d is the suborder of 2 in the multiplicative group \mathbb{Z}_k^* .

Here are the frequencies of raps of all 99 irreducibles of degree 10.

rap	count	±
25	1	+
41	2	+
93	3	-
205	8	+
341	15	-
1023	30	-
1025	40	+

Application: Total Irreversibility

The corank of σ on $P_{n,m}$ is at most $\min(n, m)$. Call the automaton **totally irreversible** if it attains this bound.

Theorem (P. Sarkar 1996)

$n = 4$ is the only totally irreversible square.

The proof is quite hard.

Application: Reversibility Test

Theorem (2000)

For any fixed $m \geq 1$ there are positive integers t_1, \dots, t_r such that rule σ on $P_{n,m}$ is reversible if, and only if, none of the t_i divides $n + 1$.

The test can be handled in time polynomial in $\log n$, but computation of the t_i appears to require

- the factorization of $\pi_{m+1}(x)$,
- computation of the rank of apparition of the corresponding irreducible factors.

The Source of All Evil

... is the involution $x \mapsto x + 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_n(x) &= \dots \tau(x) \dots \\ \pi_n(x + 1) &= \dots \tau(x + 1) \dots \end{aligned}$$

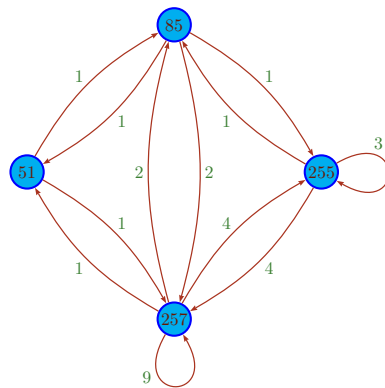
Clearly $\tau(x + 1)$ is again irreducible and has the same degree as $\tau(x)$.

But what is the rank of apparition of $\tau(x + 1)$?

τ	τ^+	rap	irreducible polynomial	τ	τ^+	rap	irreducible polynomial
1	17	257	$1 + x + x^3 + x^4 + x^8$	16	7	257	$1 + x + x^3 + x^7 + x^8$
2	12	51	$1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^8$	17	1	51	$1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^7 + x^8$
3	15	257	$1 + x + x^3 + x^5 + x^8$	18	19	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^7 + x^8$
4	29	255	$1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^5 + x^8$	19	18	257	$1 + x + x^5 + x^7 + x^8$
5	13	255	$1 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^8$	20	21	85	$1 + x^3 + x^5 + x^7 + x^8$
6	10	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^8$	21	20	255	$1 + x^4 + x^5 + x^7 + x^8$
7	16	255	$1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 + x^8$	22	22	255	$1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^7 + x^8$
8	23	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^6 + x^8$	23	8	257	$1 + x + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$
9	9	257	$1 + x + x^5 + x^6 + x^8$	24	14	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$
10	6	255	$1 + x^2 + x^5 + x^6 + x^8$	25	30	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^4 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$
11	28	255	$1 + x^3 + x^5 + x^6 + x^8$	26	27	85	$1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$
12	2	85	$1 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^8$	27	26	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$
13	5	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^8$	28	11	257	$1 + x + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$
14	24	257	$1 + x + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^8$	29	4	85	$1 + x^2 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$
15	3	257	$1 + x + x^2 + x^7 + x^8$	30	25	255	$1 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8$

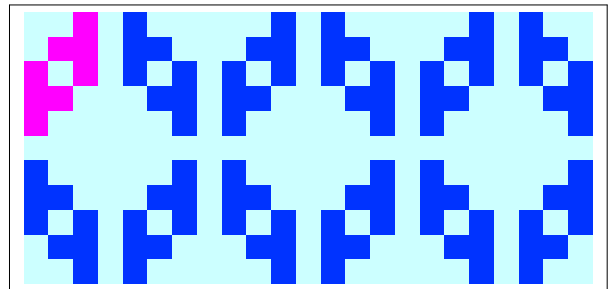
Ranks of apparition for all 30 irreducibles of degree 8. τ^+ is the image of τ under the involution $x \mapsto x + 1$.

Involution Diagram



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Kernel Geometry



From 5×3 to 11×23 .

A Multiplicative Sequence

Consider only irreversible squares:

$$\text{Irr} = \{ n \mid \gcd(\pi_n(x), \pi_n(x+1)) \neq 1 \}$$

The first few terms of Irr are

5, 6, 10, 12, 15, 17, 18, 20, 24, 25, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 40, 42, 45, 48, 50, 51, 54, 55, 60, 62, 63, 65, 66, 68, 70, 72, 75, 78, 80, 84, 85, 90, 93, 95, 96, 99, 100, ...

By kernel geometry, the sequence is multiplicatively closed.

Generators

So the question arises: what are the generators of Irr?

5, 6, 17, 31, 33, 63, 127, 129, 171, 257, 511, 683, 2047, 2731, 2979, 3277, ...

A Innocent Knuth Question:
Is Irr finitely generated?

No

Theorem (2006)

The sequence Irr is not finitely generated.

Sketch of proof:

$n \in \text{Irr}$ iff for some irreducible τ_1, τ_2 factors of π_n : $\tau_1(x) = \tau_2(x+1)$.

Focus on $\tau(x) = \tau(x+1)$: translation invariant irreducible polynomial (TIP).

So we only need to find lots of TIPs.

TIPs

We need to be able to construct TIPs at will. Sledgehammer approach: Let

$$\hat{f}(x) = f(x(x+1))$$

Clearly invariant under the involution.

Lemma

Let f be irreducible of degree d .

Then either \hat{f} is TIP or $\hat{f}(x) = f_1(x)f_2(x)$ where the f_i 's are TIP.

Moreover, \hat{f} is TIP iff $[x^{d-1}]\hat{f} = 1$.

Counting Irreducibles

Building on work by Niederreiter one can count irreducible polynomials of degree k with fixed coefficients c_1 and c_{k-1} .

The short answer: they exist.

Since you asked ...

The Long Answer

Let $\omega_{1/2} = (-1 \pm i\sqrt{7})/2$ be the two complex roots of $x^2 - x + 2 = 0$.

Lemma

Let $k \geq 4$ and write $k = k_0 k_1$ where k_0 is a power of 2 and k_1 is odd.

$$N_k^{ab} = \frac{1}{4k} \sum_{d|k} \mu(k_1/d) \left(2^{k_0 d} + (-1)^{a+b} (1 - \omega_1^{n_0 d} - \omega_2^{n_0 d}) - [a = b = 0, k_1 = 1] 4 \cdot 2^{n_0/2d} \right)$$

Infinitely Many Generators

Suppose there are finitely many generators d_1, \dots, d_s for Irr .

For any odd prime p there is a TIP f_p of degree $2p$ whose rank of apparition r divides $2^{2p} - 1$.

Hence $r \in \text{Irr}$ and we must have $d_i | r$.

But then there cannot be finitely many generators: for some $d = d_i$ we would have

$$d \mid \gcd(\text{rap}_{f_p}, \text{rap}_{f_{p'}}) \mid \gcd(2^{2p} - 1, 2^{2p'} - 1) = 3.$$

Contradiction. \square

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Analyzing Forward Orbits

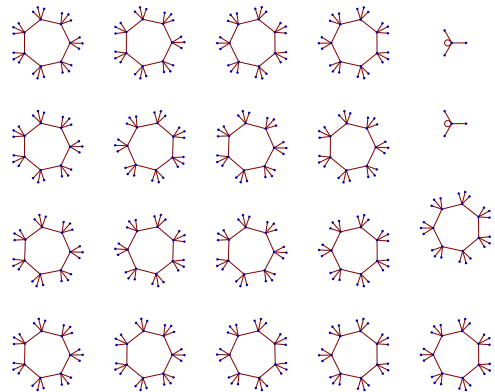
To analyze forward orbits a convenient tool is the **Fitting-decomposition** of pattern space (\mathcal{C}, σ) :

$$\mathcal{C} = K \oplus E$$

where K is the nilpotent part and E the regular part (with respect to linear operator σ).

- K corresponds to the transient part,
- E corresponds to the limit cycles.

Phase Space



Trees and Cycles

The trees grafted on the limit cycles are isomorphic copies of K , the branching factor is $\text{cork}(\sigma)$, their height is the nilpotency index:

$$\min(k \mid \text{cork}(\sigma^k) = \text{cork}(\sigma^{k+1}))$$

The limit cycles themselves correspond to the regular part: σ restricted to E is an automorphism.

We need to analyze E more closely to determine the structure of phasespace: elementary divisor decomposition.

The Key Ingredient

We need the minimal polynomial: the least degree polynomial $\mu \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ that annihilates σ :

$$\mu(\sigma) = 0$$

Given a factorization $\mu = \tau_1 \tau_2 \dots \tau_k$ we have a natural decomposition (elementary divisor decomposition)

$$\mathcal{C} = V_{\tau_1} \oplus V_{\tau_2} \oplus \dots \oplus V_{\tau_k}$$

into σ -invariant subspaces.

Minimal Polynomials

Theorem (2000)

The minimal polynomial of σ^- on a path of length n is $\pi_{n+1}(x)$.

The minimal polynomials for σ are then

$$\pi_{n+1}^+(x) = \pi_{n+1}(x+1)$$

and so forth.

Example: σ^- on P_{50}

$$\pi_{51}(x) = (x+1)^2 (x^4+x+1)^2 (x^4+x^3+x^2+x+1)^2 (x^8+x^4+x^3+x^2+1)^2 (x^8+x^7+x^3+x^2+1)^2$$

5 elementary divisor subspaces E_1, \dots, E_5 , lengths and counts of pure cycles:

E_1	E_2	E_3	E_4, E_5
1 1	1 1	1 1	1 1
1 1	15 1	5 3	255 1
2 1	30 8	10 24	510 128

A little post-processing produces a count for all cycles.

length	count
1	2
2	1
5	6
10	99
15	32
30	8688
255	131584
510	2207646809856

Since the automaton is reversible this describes the whole phasespace.

Computational Walls

Theorem (1989)

Existence of a predecessor of bounded cardinality over \mathbb{F}_2 is \mathbb{NP} -complete.

Let $M = \langle a \mid a^2 = a^3 \rangle$ (three element Abelian monoid $\{0, 1, a\}$).

Theorem (1989)

Existence of a predecessor over M is \mathbb{NP} -complete.

Open Problems

- What exactly are the generators of Irr ?
- Can reversibility of σ on an n by m grid be determined in time polynomial in $\log n$?
- How hard is it to compute the rank of apparition of $\tau(x+1)$?
- Apply Fitting decomposition techniques to higher dimensional grids.
- Pin down the complexity of analyzing reversibility for algebraic dynamical systems.
- Pin down the complexity of analyzing the transition diagram for algebraic dynamical systems.