

# **A second look at binary digits**

**Christiaan van de Woestijne**

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**Lehrstuhl für Mathematik und Statistik**

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## Binary digits

Everybody knows that  $(10)_2 = 2$  and  $(11011)_2 = 27$ .

Also,  $-27 = (-11011)_2$ . Or is it?

Some computers know that  $-27 = (1111111111100101)$  (signed word), and that  $32767 + 1 = -32768$ .

Some people know that  $-1 = (11111\dots)_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_2$  (start with LSD here), and

$$-27 = (101001111\dots)_2.$$

Can we do better?

# The expansion algorithm

Define the **dynamic mapping**  $T : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : a \mapsto \begin{cases} \frac{a}{2} & \text{if } a \text{ even;} \\ \frac{a-1}{2} & \text{if } a \text{ odd.} \end{cases}$

Now to expand  $a$ , write 0 if  $a$  even and 1 otherwise, and continue with  $T(a)$ . Done when  $T^n(a) = 0$ .

Example:  $27 \xrightarrow{1} 13 \xrightarrow{1} 6 \xrightarrow{0} 3 \xrightarrow{1} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0$ .

However,  $-1 \xrightarrow{1} -1 \dots$

Try **other digits**:  $\mathcal{D} = \{d_0, d_1\}$ , with  $d_i \equiv i \pmod{2}$ .

Criterion for the existence of a 1-cycle:  $\frac{a-d}{2} = a \Leftrightarrow a = -d$ .  
So this is hopeless!

# Negabinary expansions

Try other basis  $-2$ , with digits  $\{0, 1\}$ :

$$-27 \xrightarrow{1} 14 \xrightarrow{0} -7 \xrightarrow{1} 4 \xrightarrow{0} -2 \xrightarrow{0} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0, \text{ so } -27 = (100101)_{-2}.$$

**Theorem** (Grünwald 1885) All integers have a finite expansion on the integer basis  $b \leq -2$  and digits  $\{0, 1, \dots, |b| - 1\}$ .

Proof: there are no cycles except  $0 \xrightarrow{0} 0$  !

Excursion: the **balanced ternary expansion** uses basis  $+3$  and digits  $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ , and expands all integers finitely. If only computers had three-way switches!

**Theorem** Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_3$ . Then  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  if and only if its balanced ternary expansion is finite.

## A curious question

**Definition** A digit set  $\mathcal{D}$  is **valid** for basis  $\pm 2$  if all integers have a finite representation

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\ell} d_i (\pm 2)^i \quad (d_i \in \mathcal{D}).$$

We know that **no digit sets are valid** for basis  $+2$ ; for basis  $-2$ , we know the valid digit set  $\{0, 1\}$ , and thus also  $\{0, -1\}$  by an automorphism of the additive group.

**Question** Are there any others?

**Answer** Yes, infinitely many!

# Expansions of zero

Is it possible to have a digit set **without zero**? Yes!

The definition of the mapping  $T$  and of the stopping criterion is the same (if you formulate it like I do!).

**Example:** basis  $-2$ , digits  $\{1, 4\}$ . Expand  $-27$ :

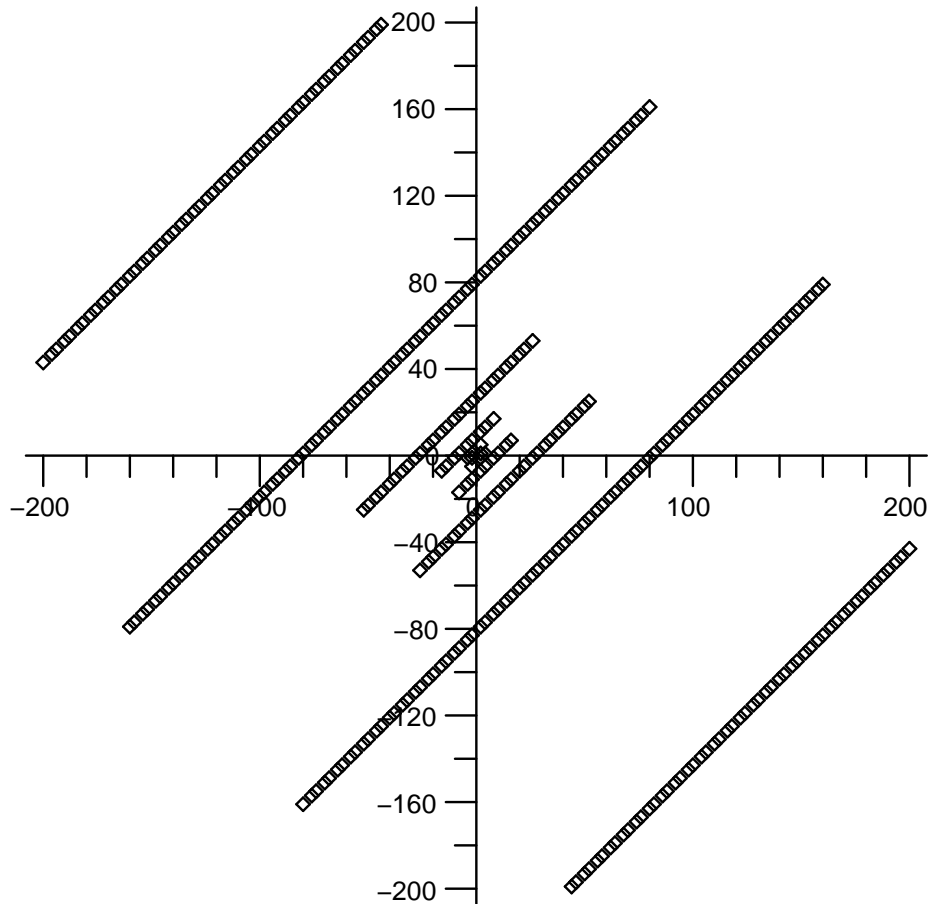
$$-27 \xrightarrow{1} 14 \xrightarrow{4} -5 \xrightarrow{1} 3 \xrightarrow{1} -1 \xrightarrow{1} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0, \text{ so } -27 = (111141)_{-2}.$$

Interesting:  $0 \xrightarrow{4} 2 \xrightarrow{4} 1 \xrightarrow{1} 0$ , a 3-cycle!

$$\text{So, } 0 = ()_{-2} = (144)_{-2} = (144144)_{-2} = \dots$$

**Theorem** Any valid digit set gives rise to a nontrivial expansion of zero.

# Experiments



The figure plots all pairs of integers  $(x, y)$ , with  $|x|, |y| \leq 200$ , that are valid digit sets for basis  $-2$ .

# Results

**Theorem** (CvdW 2008) The digit set  $\{d, D\}$  with  $d < D$  is valid for basis  $-2$  if and only if

- (i) one of  $d, D$  is even and one is odd (trivial)
- (ii) if  $3 \mid dD$ , then one of  $d, D$  is 0 and 3 does not divide the other (avoid 1-cycles except 0)
- (iii) we have  $2d \leq D$  and  $2D \geq d$  (0 is expansible)
- (iv)  $D - d = 3^i$  for some  $i \geq 0$  (the real stuff!)

For example, the only valid digit sets with 0 are  $\{0, \pm 1\}$ . On the other hand, the sets  $\{1, 3^i + 1\}$  are valid for all  $i \geq 0$ .



# Higher-dimensional analogues

There is no reason to limit the theory of number systems to  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Consider this setup:

- $V$  is an abelian group.
- $\phi : V \rightarrow V$  is an endomorphism of  $V$ , with  $[V : \phi(V)] < \infty$ .
- $\mathcal{D}$  represents  $V$  modulo  $\phi(V)$ .

Then we can define  $T : V \rightarrow V : a \mapsto \phi^{-1}(a - d_a)$ , where  $d_a \in \mathcal{D}$  has  $a \equiv d_a \pmod{\phi(V)}$ . We call  $(V, \phi, \mathcal{D})$  a **pre-number system**, and additionally a **number system** when all elements of  $V$  are finitely expandible.

**Theorem** (Okazaki-CvdW) If  $(V, \phi, \mathcal{D})$  is a number system, then  $V^{\text{tor}}$  is a direct summand of  $V$  and is bounded, and  $V/V^{\text{tor}}$  has finite rank.

# Generalised binary systems

Here, we will consider **generalised binary pre-number systems**:

- $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer of norm  $\pm 2$ .
- $V$  is a fractional ideal of  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ .

If  $V_2 = \beta V_1$  for some  $\beta \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ , then  $(V_1, \alpha, \mathcal{D})$  and  $(V_2, \alpha, \beta \mathcal{D})$  are isomorphic as pre-number systems.

Easy necessary conditions to have finite expansibility of all  $a \in V$ :

- $\alpha$  and  $\alpha - 1$  must be non-units of  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ .
- $\alpha$  must be **expanding**: for all  $\sigma : \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  we have  $|\sigma(\alpha)| > 1$ .

Note that any monic and expanding  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  with  $|f(0)|$  prime is automatically irreducible.

# Expanding polynomials of given norm

On my website

`www.opt.math.tugraz.at/ cvdwoest/maths/expanding`

I collected some software and tables about enumeration of expanding and Pisot polynomials. Using a MAGMA implementation of ideas due to Schur, Dufresnoy-Pisot, Chamfy, and Kovács-Burcsi, I computed all monic expanding polynomials with integer coefficients and constant term  $\pm 2$  up to degree 20, as well as several cases with higher norm.

The computation for (e.g.) degree 13 and norm 2 takes less than 13 seconds on an Athlon.

# The periodic set

Because  $\alpha$  is expanding, the mapping  $T$  is almost a contraction on  $V$ , and the unique finite subset  $\mathcal{P} \subset V$  that is invariant under  $T$  is called the **periodic set** of the pre-number system.

**Lemma** The periodic set of  $(\mathbb{Z}, -2, \{d, D\})$  is the arithmetic progression  $\left\{ \left\lceil \frac{2d-D}{3} \right\rceil, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{2D-d}{3} \right\rfloor \right\}$ .

In higher dimensions, the periodic set is usually quite irregular. Work of the Austro-Hungarian school has led to several (exponential) **algorithms** to compute the periodic set for any pre-number system.

**Theorem**  $(V, \alpha, \mathcal{D})$  is a number system if and only if the action of  $T$  on  $\mathcal{P}$  has exactly one cycle, which passes through 0.

# The tile

There is a continuous variant of the (discrete) periodic set, called the **tile** of the pre-number system, because it usually tiles  $V \otimes \mathbb{R}$ .

For  $(\mathbb{Z}, -2, \{d, D\})$ , it is the interval  $\left[\frac{2d-D}{3}, \frac{2D-d}{3}\right]$ .

These tiles have the following properties:

- they are compact and the closure of their interior.
- they have **fractal boundary**.
- they may have infinitely many connected components, but they are **connected when  $|\mathcal{D}| = 2$** .

To prove a higher-dimensional analogue of the main Theorem, we must **characterise the lattice points** in the tile, and **describe the action** of  $T$  on them.

## Work in progress

**More-or-less-theorem** Let  $\alpha$  be an expanding algebraic integer of norm  $\pm 2$ . Then up to finitely many exceptions, a digit set  $\mathcal{D} = \{d_0, d_0 + \delta\}$  makes  $(\mathbb{Z}[\alpha], \alpha, \mathcal{D})$  into a number system if and only if:

- (i)  $(d_0, \alpha - 1) = (d_1, \alpha - 1) = (1)$
- (ii) there is a nontrivial zero expansion
- (iii)  $\delta$  is a product of prime divisors of  $\alpha - 1$  that are unramified, totally split and lie over different primes of  $\mathbb{Z}$

Note that for a given degree  $d$ , there are only finitely many expanding  $\alpha$  of degree  $d$  and norm  $\pm 2$ . The smallest nonmaximal order among them is generated by  $x^4 + x^2 + 4$  (Potiopa 1997). The smallest example with a nontrivial ideal class group is  $x^8 - x^6 - x^2 + 2$  (CvdW 2009).

# Technical assumptions

I need the following:

- (i)  $\alpha - 1$  is expanding;
- (ii) the Hausdorff dimension of the tile is less than  $\dim_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ ;
- (iii)  $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$  is a maximal order;
- (iv)  $(\mathbb{Z}[\alpha], \alpha, \{0, 1\})$  is a number system.

The last assumption says that the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  is a CNS polynomial.

I hope to remove all of these assumptions.

## Example

A famous example is  $\tau = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-7}}{2}$  satisfying  $x^2 + x + 2$ . This basis has **cryptographic significance** because it can be used to speed up operations on Koblitz elliptic curves.

$x^2 + x + 2$  is a CNS polynomial, so (iv) is satisfied.

$\mathbb{Z}[\tau]$  is maximal, and  $\tau - 1 = (\tau + 1)^2$ , where  $(\tau + 1)$  is an unramified prime of norm 2, and hence split.

All conjugates of  $\tau$  have the same modulus, so the assumption on the Hausdorff dimension of the boundary follows from a theorem of Veerman.

So the Theorem holds for basis  $\tau$ .



# Experimental verification

This was verified experimentally for all pairs  $\{a + b\tau, c + 1 + d\tau\}$  with  $a, b, c, d \in \{-4, \dots, 4\}$ ,  $a$  and  $c$  even. In all valid pairs, the difference is  $\pm(\tau + 1)^e$ , with  $0 \leq e \leq 7$ .

The attractors have the “right” number of elements, except (e.g.) for  $\{\tau, \tau + 1\}$ , where it has 3.