

Strong affine representations of the polycyclic monoids

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CSA2016
Lisbon, 24 June 2016

Representations of polycyclic monoids

Definition (Nivat and Perrot, 1970)

The **polycyclic monoid** \mathcal{P}_n is the monoid with zero defined by the presentation

$$\mathcal{P}_n = \langle a_1, \dots, a_n, a_1^{-1}, \dots, a_n^{-1} \mid a_i^{-1}a_i = 1 \text{ and } a_i^{-1}a_j = 0 \text{ for all } i \neq j \rangle.$$

A **representation** of \mathcal{P}_n is a homomorphism to a symmetric inverse monoid $I(X)$ (the monoid of partial bijections on some set X):

$$\varphi: \mathcal{P}_n \rightarrow I(X).$$

It suffices to know the images of the generators: let $f_i = \varphi(a_i)$.

The defining relations of \mathcal{P}_n mean that each f_i is a bijection of the form $f_i: X \rightarrow X_i \subseteq X$, and the images X_i are pairwise disjoint.

If $X = X_1 \cup \dots \cup X_n$, then φ is called a **strong representation**.

Representations of Cuntz algebras

Definition (Cuntz, 1977)

The **Cuntz algebra** \mathcal{O}_n is the C^* -algebra generated by n pairwise orthogonal isometries on a Hilbert space:

$$\mathcal{O}_n = C^*(S_1, \dots, S_n), \text{ where } S_i \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}), S_i^* S_i = I \text{ and } S_1 S_1^* + \dots + S_n S_n^* = I.$$

Definition (Bratteli and Jorgensen, 1999)

Permutative representations of \mathcal{O}_n : each S_i permutes the elements of an orthonormal basis $\{e_k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

$$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\} \forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \exists \ell \in \mathbb{Z} : S_i e_k = e_\ell.$$

The index ℓ depends on i and k : let $\ell = f_i(e_k)$. The definition of \mathcal{O}_n implies that

- ▶ each $f_i : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is an injective function,
- ▶ the sets $f_i(\mathbb{Z})$ are pairwise disjoint, and
- ▶ $f_1(\mathbb{Z}) \cup \dots \cup f_n(\mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}$.

Branching function systems

Definition (Bratteli and Jorgensen, 1999)

A **branching function system** is a tuple $(X; f_1, \dots, f_n)$, where

- ▶ X is an infinite set,
- ▶ each $f_i: X \rightarrow X$ is an injective function,
- ▶ the sets $X_i := f_i(X)$ are pairwise disjoint, and
- ▶ $X = X_1 \cup \dots \cup X_n$.

Let us draw an arrow of color i from a to b if $f_i(a) = b$. This way we obtain an edge-colored graph with vertex set X such that

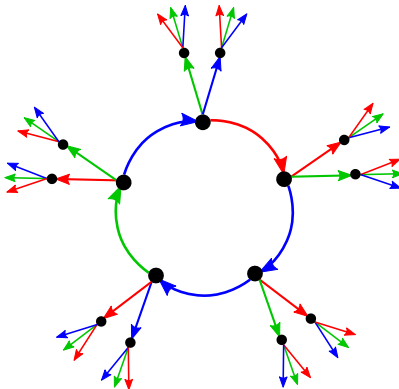
- ▶ each vertex has exactly one incoming edge, and
- ▶ each vertex has exactly n outgoing edges, one of each of the n colors.

Fact (Lawson, 2009)

If a connected component contains a cycle, then the structure of this component is determined by the order of colors appearing along this cycle.

Branching function systems

A connected component can be described by a word over the set of colors. If two words are cyclic shifts of each other, then they determine the same graph; it is customary to choose the lexicographically smallest one (**Lyndon word**).



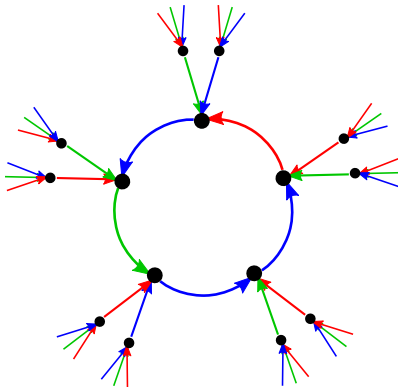
$rbbgb \sim bbgbr \sim bgbrb \sim gbrbb \sim brbbg$

Reverse all the arrows

Reversing the arrows, we get the graph of the transformation $R := f_1^{-1} \cup \dots \cup f_n^{-1}$:

$$R: X \rightarrow X, \quad R(x) = f_i^{-1}(x) \text{ if } x \in X_i.$$

The vertices on the cycles are the periodic points of the dynamical system $(X; R)$.



A very special case

One-dimensional affine representations: $(\mathbb{Z}; f_1, \dots, f_n)$, where

- ▶ $D = \{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$ is a complete system of residues modulo n , and
- ▶ $f_i: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow n\mathbb{Z} + d_i, x \mapsto nx + d_i$.
- ▶ The edges of the graph are colored/labeled by d_1, \dots, d_n .

As before, let $R = f_1^{-1} \cup \dots \cup f_n^{-1}$:

$$R: X \rightarrow X, \quad R(x) = \frac{x - d_j}{n},$$

where d_j is the unique element of the set D such that $x \equiv d_j \pmod{n}$.

Example

Let $n = 3$ and $D = \{0, 1, 2\}$. The **orbit** of 23 looks like this:



This orbit provides the ternary representation $23 = \overline{\dots 000212}_3$.

Strange number systems

Let us write down the labels of the arrows along the orbit of a fixed integer $x \in \mathbb{Z}$:

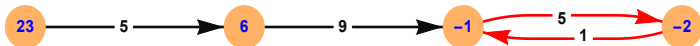
$$x \xrightarrow{a_0} R(x) \xrightarrow{a_1} R(R(x)) \xrightarrow{a_2} R(R(R(x))) \xrightarrow{a_3} \dots \quad (a_i \in D).$$

The sequence $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$ can be interpreted as the “digits” of an n -ary representation of x :

$$x \stackrel{?!}{=} a_0 + a_1 \cdot n + a_2 \cdot n^2 + a_3 \cdot n^3 + \dots$$

Example

Let $n = 3$ and $D = \{1, 5, 9\}$. The orbit of 23 looks like this:



$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\dots 15151595}_3 &= 5 + 9 \cdot 3 + 5 \cdot 3^2 + 1 \cdot 3^3 + 5 \cdot 3^4 + 1 \cdot 3^5 + 5 \cdot 3^6 + 1 \cdot 3^7 + \dots \\ &= 32 + 72 \cdot (1 + 3^2 + 3^4 + 3^6 + \dots) = 32 + 72 \cdot \frac{1}{1-9} = 23 \end{aligned}$$

This always works, if the sequence of digits is periodic!

All orbits are periodic

Let $B_\infty(D)$ denote the set of **periodic points** of the dynamical system $(\mathbb{Z}; R)$:

$$B_\infty(D) := \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : R^\ell(x) = x \text{ for some } \ell \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

Problem

What is the size of B_∞ ?

Let $\mathcal{I}(D)$ denote the closed interval

$$\left[-\frac{\max D}{n-1}, -\frac{\min D}{n-1} \right].$$

Fact

- ▶ $x < \min \mathcal{I} \implies x < R(x) < \max \mathcal{I}$
- ▶ $\min \mathcal{I} \leq x \leq \max \mathcal{I} \implies \min \mathcal{I} \leq R(x) \leq \max \mathcal{I}$
- ▶ $\max \mathcal{I} < x \implies \min \mathcal{I} < R(x) < x$

Corollary

Every orbit is eventually periodic, and $B_\infty(D) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(D) \cap \mathbb{Z}$.

Some motivating results

Fact

The representations corresponding to D and $D + n - 1$ are equivalent. Therefore, we can always assume that $0 \leq \min D < n - 1$.

Theorem (Bratteli and Jorgensen, 1999; Jones and Lawson, 2012)

Let p be an odd natural number and $D = \{0, p\}$. Then we have

- ▶ $B_\infty(D) = \{-p, \dots, -1, 0\} = \mathcal{I}(D) \cap \mathbb{Z}$;
- ▶ *the period of $x \in B_\infty(D)$ equals the order of 2 modulo $\frac{p}{\gcd(x, p)}$;*
- ▶ *the Lyndon word describing the cycle containing $x \in B_\infty(D)$ is closely related to the digits in the binary expansion of $\frac{x}{p}$.*

Theorem (Bratteli and Jorgensen, 1999)

- ▶ $B_\infty(0, 1, \dots, n-1) = \{-1, 0\} = \mathcal{I}(0, 1, \dots, n-1) \cap \mathbb{Z}$.
- ▶ $B_\infty(1, 3, 5) = \{-2, -1\} = \mathcal{I}(1, 3, 5) \cap \mathbb{Z}$.

Arithmetic sequences

Theorem

Let D be an arithmetic sequence $d_1, d_1 + h, d_1 + 2h, \dots, d_1 + (n - 1)h$, where h is a natural number relatively prime to n . Then we have

- ▶ $B_\infty(D) = \mathcal{I}(D) \cap \mathbb{Z}$;
- ▶ the Lyndon word describing the cycle containing $x \in B_\infty(D)$ is closely related to the digits in the n -nary expansion of $\frac{x}{h} + \frac{d_1}{h(n-1)}$;
- ▶ the period of $x \in B_\infty(D)$ equals the order of n modulo $\frac{h(n-1)}{\gcd(x(n-1) + d_1, h(n-1))}$.

Theorem

For an arbitrary complete system of residues D modulo n , the following two conditions are equivalent:

- (i) $B_\infty(D) = \mathcal{I}(D) \cap \mathbb{Z}$;
- (ii) $\left\lfloor \frac{d_1}{n(n-1)} + \frac{d_{i+1}}{n} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{d_n}{n(n-1)} + \frac{d_i}{n} \right\rfloor$ for $i = 1, \dots, n-1$.

A single periodic point

We start with the simplest arithmetic sequence: $B_\infty(1, \dots, n) = \{-1\}$.
Now let us modify this by adding n^k to one of the elements.

Theorem

If $D = \{1, 2, \dots, r + n^k, \dots, n\}$, then the number of periodic points is

$$|B_\infty(D)| = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } r \notin \{n-2, n-1\}; \\ 2^k, & \text{if } r \in \{n-2, n-1\}. \end{cases}$$

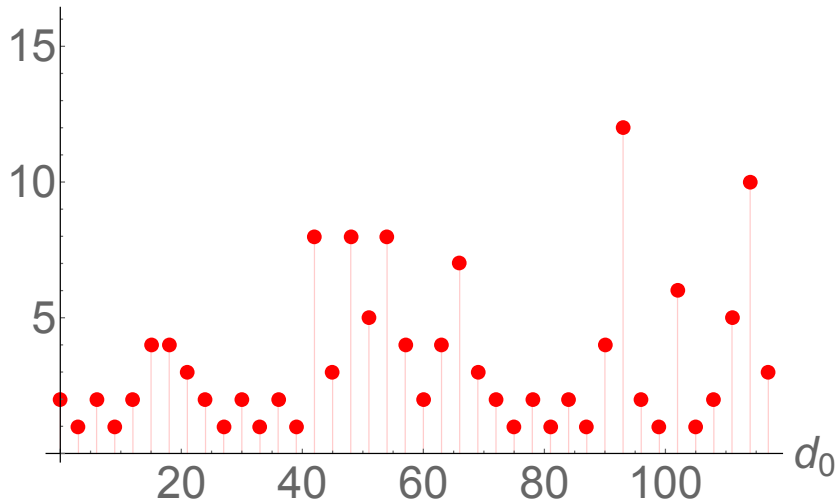
Theorem

If $D = \{0, \dots, n-2, n^k-1\}$, then

$$|B_\infty(D)| = 2^k \quad \text{and} \quad |B_\infty(D+1)| = 1.$$

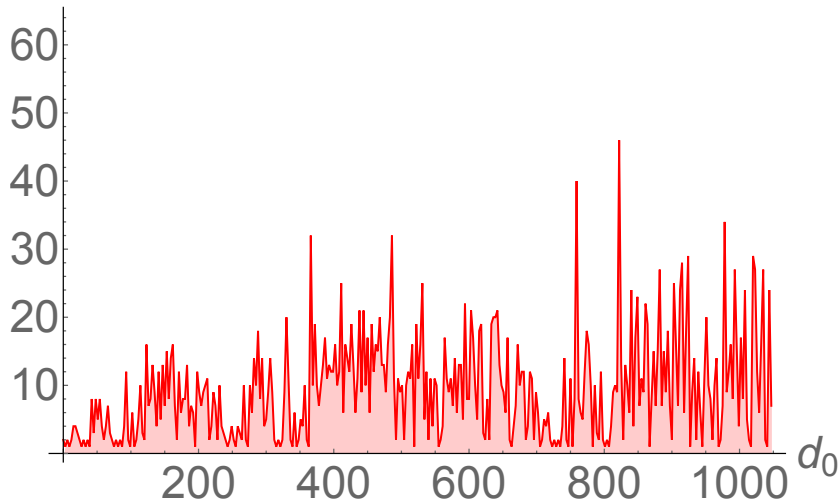
Experimental results

The number of periodic points for $n = 3$, $D = \{d_0, 1, 2\}$:



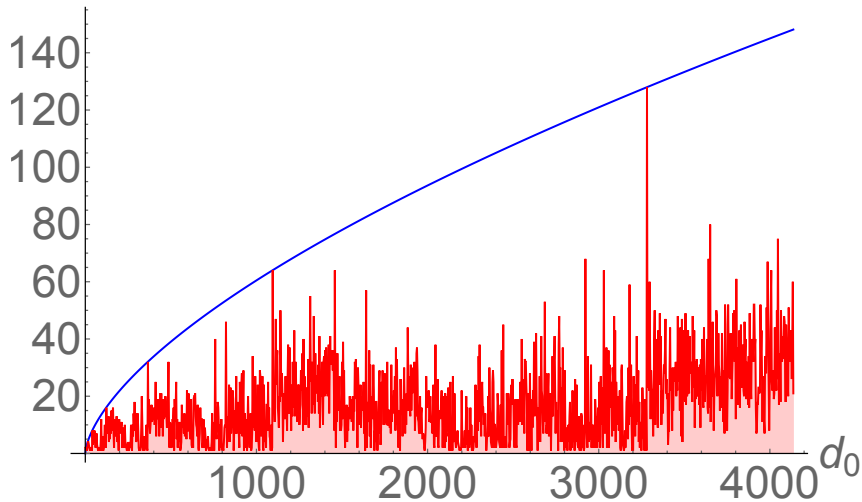
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Asymptotics

Problem

What is the asymptotic behaviour of $|B_\infty(d_1, \dots, d_n)|$ when one/some/all of the digits d_i go to infinity?

Theorem

If d_1, \dots, d_{n-1} are fixed and $d_n \rightarrow \infty$ (in such a way that d_1, \dots, d_n is a complete system of residues modulo n), then

$$|B_\infty(d_1, \dots, d_n)| = O\left(d_n^{\log_n 2}\right).$$

Theorem

Let d_1, \dots, d_n be an arbitrary complete system of residues modulo n , and let $s \rightarrow \infty$ through integers relatively prime to n . Then $|B_\infty(s \cdot D)|$ grows linearly with s :

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|B_\infty(s \cdot d_1, \dots, s \cdot d_n)|}{s} = \gcd\{d_i - d_j : 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}.$$

The self-similar tile associated with D

Theorem (Bratteli and Jorgensen, 1999)

If $D = \{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$ is an arbitrary complete system of residues modulo n , then $B_\infty(D) = -\mathbb{T}(D) \cap \mathbb{Z}$, where

$$\mathbb{T}(D) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_i}{n^i} : a_i \in D \right\}.$$

Note that $\mathbb{T}(D)$ is a **self-similar** set (a union of smaller copies of itself):

$$\mathbb{T}(D) = \frac{d_1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \cdot \mathbb{T}(D) \cup \dots \cup \frac{d_n}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \cdot \mathbb{T}(D).$$

Theorem (Bandt, 1991; Gröchenig and Haas, 1994; Keesling, 1999)

If $D = \{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$ is an arbitrary complete system of residues modulo n , then

- ▶ $\mathbb{T}(D)$ is a compact set with nonempty interior;
- ▶ $\mu(\mathbb{T}(D)) = \gcd\{d_i - d_j : 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$;
- ▶ the boundary of $\mathbb{T}(D)$ has Lebesgue measure zero.

Asymptotics

Theorem

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|B_\infty(s \cdot D)|}{s} = \mu(\mathbb{T}(D)) = \gcd\{d_i - d_j : 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}.$$

Proof.

Recall that $B_\infty(s \cdot D) = -\mathbb{T}(s \cdot D) \cap \mathbb{Z}$, hence

$$|B_\infty(s \cdot D)| = |\mathbb{T}(s \cdot D) \cap \mathbb{Z}| = |s \cdot \mathbb{T}(D) \cap \mathbb{Z}| = \left| \mathbb{T}(D) \cap \frac{1}{s} \cdot \mathbb{Z} \right|,$$

which is just the number of rationals of the form $\frac{k}{s}$ ($k \in \mathbb{Z}$) in the set $\mathbb{T}(D)$.

Since this set is Jordan measurable, we have

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{s} \cdot \left| \mathbb{T}(D) \cap \frac{1}{s} \cdot \mathbb{Z} \right| = \mu(\mathbb{T}(D)).$$

