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- If $N = (\vec{n}_1, \dots, \vec{n}_m)$ is the neighborhood of G , the right-hand-side becomes

$$\hat{\mu}(G(c_1)) - \hat{\mu}(G(c_2)) = \sum_{\vec{n} \in A} \mu(G(c_1)(\vec{n})) - \sum_{\vec{n} \in A} \mu(G(c_2)(\vec{n}))$$

where

$$A = \{-\vec{n}_i \mid i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$$

is the set of all cells that have $\vec{0}$ as a neighbor.

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- Let

$$B = N(A) = \{\vec{n}_j - \vec{n}_i \mid i, j = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$$

be the set of cells whose state influences a cell in A . If $c'|_B = c|_B$ then

$$\sum_{\vec{n} \in A} \mu(G(c')(\vec{n})) = \sum_{\vec{n} \in A} \mu(G(c)(\vec{n})).$$

So the right-hand-side of $(\#)$ only depends on the B -patterns of c_1 and c_2 .

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- Because $\vec{0} \in B$ also the left-hand-side of $(\#)$ only depends on the B -patterns of c_1 and c_2 .
- Thus it is enough to check $(\#)$ for all B -patterns that only differ at cell $\vec{0}$: for all $p_1, p_2 \in S^B$ such that $p_1(\vec{n}) \neq p_2(\vec{n}) \iff \vec{n} = \vec{0}$

$$\mu(p_1(\vec{0})) - \mu(p_2(\vec{0})) = \sum_{\vec{n} \in A} \mu(G^{(B \rightarrow A)}(p_1)(\vec{n})) - \sum_{\vec{n} \in A} \mu(G^{(B \rightarrow A)}(p_2)(\vec{n})).$$

Conclusion: Quantity μ is conserved by G if and only if

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holds for all patterns $p_1, p_2 \in S^B$ that differ only in cell $\vec{0}$.

There are only **finitely many equations** to check! These can be checked effectively, implying an **algorithm** to check if a given quantity μ is conserved by a given CA G .

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Another equation $\mu(q) = 0$ may be included for quiescent q , but this is not necessary since $\mu(q) = 0$ only scales the quantity by an additive constant.

We assumed that G has a quiescent state q . If the CA has no quiescent state q we may pick an arbitrary ground state q and consider q -finite configurations. The considerations work unaltered, but we have to add the equation

$$\mu(q) = \mu(f(q, q, \dots, q))$$

stating that the quantity is conserved on the q -uniform ground configuration.

A more careful analysis to reduce the number of equations.

Consider the 1D case. The quiescent configuration can be transformed into any finite configuration by swapping states of cells one-by-one in the left-to-right order. So it is sufficient that

$$\hat{\mu}(c_1) - \hat{\mu}(c_2) = \hat{\mu}(G(c_1)) - \hat{\mu}(G(c_2)) \quad (*)$$

holds for c_1 and c_2 that satisfy

- $c_1(n) = c_2(n)$ for all $n < 0$.
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Example. Let us find all conserved μ of the traffic CA (=elementary CA 226).
The local rule replaces pattern 01 by pattern 10:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 000 \mapsto 0 & 001 \mapsto 1 & 010 \mapsto 0 & 011 \mapsto 0 \\ 100 \mapsto 0 & 101 \mapsto 1 & 110 \mapsto 1 & 111 \mapsto 1 \end{array}$$

Example. Let us find all conserved μ of the 1D CA with the radius- $\frac{1}{2}$ neighborhood $N = (0, 1)$, the state set is $S = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and the local rule

$$f(a, b) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } a = 2, \\ 0, & \text{if } a \neq 2 \text{ and } a + b \text{ is even, and} \\ 1, & \text{if } a \neq 2 \text{ and } a + b \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Remark: For any fixed CA, the additive quantities that it conserves form a **linear space**, when sum and scalar product are defined in the natural way (=point wise):

$$\begin{aligned}(\mu + \mu')(a) &= \mu(a) + \mu'(a) && \text{for all } \mu, \mu' \in \mathbb{R}^S \text{ and } a \in S, \\(r\mu)(a) &= r\mu(a) && \text{for all } \mu \in \mathbb{R}^S, r \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } a \in S.\end{aligned}$$

Namely, if G conserves μ and μ' then for any q -finite configuration c holds

$$(\mu + \mu')(c) = \mu(c) + \mu'(c) = \mu(G(c)) + \mu'(G(c)) = (\mu + \mu')(G(c))$$

so also $\mu + \mu'$ is conserved. And for every $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and c

$$(r\mu)(c) = r\mu(c) = r(\mu(G(c))) = (r\mu)(G(c)),$$

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so also $r\mu$ is conserved.

In fact our equations to find conserved μ are linear, so we effectively made a **system of linear equations** whose solutions are exactly the conserved quantities of G .

Cellular automata dynamical systems

We endow the configuration space $S^{\mathbb{Z}^d}$ with a **metric** under which CA functions G are continuous.

Define the distance of configurations $c \neq e$ as

$$d(c, e) = 2^{-\min\{\|\vec{x}\| \mid c(\vec{x}) \neq e(\vec{x})\}}$$

where we use the notation

$$\|(x_1, \dots, x_d)\| = \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_d|\}.$$

(And for $c = e$ the distance $d(c, e) = 0$.)

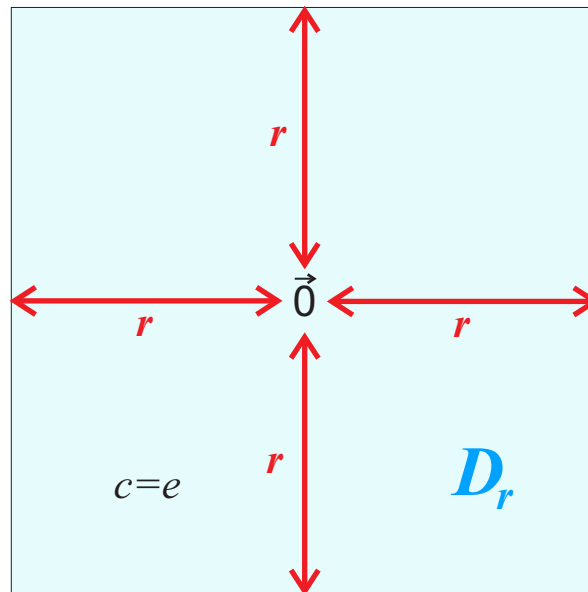
$$d(c, e) = 2^{-\min\{\|\vec{x}\| \mid c(\vec{x}) \neq e(\vec{x})\}}$$

So

$$d(c, e) < 2^{-r} \iff c|_{D_r} = e|_{D_r}$$

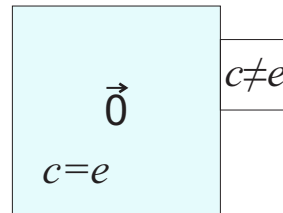
where

$$D_r = \{\vec{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^d \mid \|\vec{x}\| \leq r\}.$$



$$d(c, e) = 2^{-\min \{\|\vec{x}\| \mid c(\vec{x}) \neq e(\vec{x})\}}$$

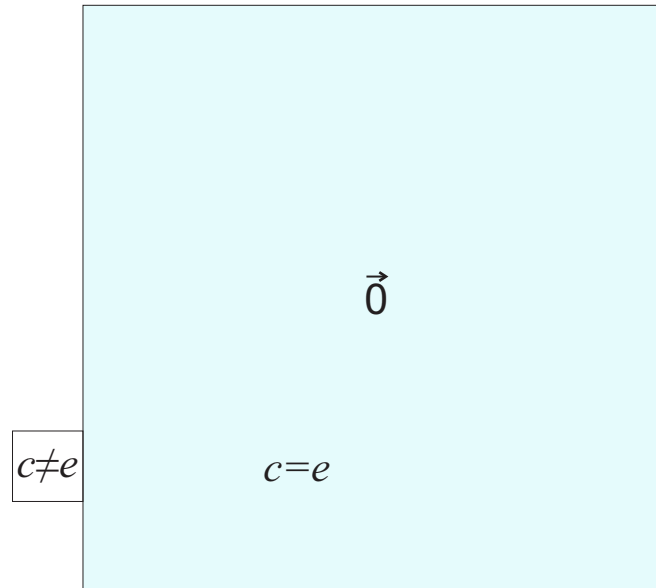
Two configurations c and e are close (i.e., $d(c, e)$ is small) if c and e agree on a large region around the origin.



$d(c, e)$ large if c and e differ close to $\vec{0}$.

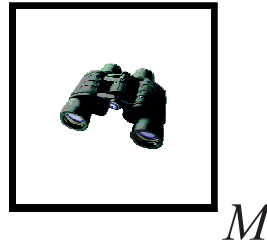
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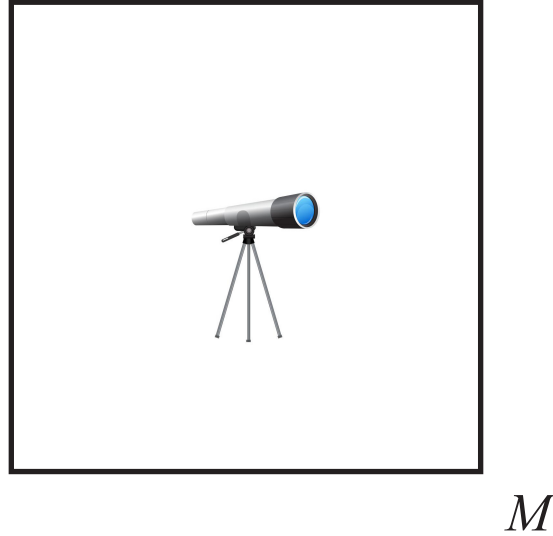


$d(c, e)$ small if c and e agree in a large region around $\vec{0}$.

Finite set $M \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$ is an observation window that corresponds to a "measuring device". Two configurations c and e seem identical through the measuring device if $e|_M = c|_M$.



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Larger window M means better accuracy of observation.

Recall the definition of a metric space: (X, d) is a metric space if $X \neq \emptyset$ is a set and

$$d : X \times X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is a distance function that satisfies the following three conditions:

- (i) $d(x, y) > 0$ for $x \neq y$, and $d(x, y) = 0$ for $x = y$,
- (ii) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$,
- (iii) $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$.

Many essential properties of the space can be proved using the axioms (i)–(iii) only.

- (i) $d(x, y) > 0$ for $x \neq y$, and $d(x, y) = 0$ for $x = y$,
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- (iii) $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$.

Lemma. The configuration space $X = S^{\mathbb{Z}^d}$ with the distance function

$$d(c, e) = 2^{-\min \{\|\vec{x}\| \mid c(\vec{x}) \neq e(\vec{x})\}}$$

is a metric space.

In fact: The space is an **ultrametric** as it satisfies the strong triangle inequality

$$(iii') \quad d(x, y) \leq \max\{d(x, z), d(z, y)\}.$$

Proof.

Let (X, d) be a metric space.

For every $\varepsilon > 0$ and $x \in X$ we denote

$$B_\varepsilon(x) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < \varepsilon\}$$

and call $B_\varepsilon(x)$ the (open) **ε -ball** with center x .

A set $U \subseteq X$ is **open** if

$$\forall x \in U, \exists \varepsilon > 0 : B_\varepsilon(x) \subseteq U.$$

A set is **closed** if its complement is open

A set is **clopen** if it is both open and closed.

$$U \text{ is open} \iff \forall x \in U, \exists \varepsilon > 0 : B_\varepsilon(x) \subseteq U.$$

Proposition. Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then

- (i) \emptyset and X are open,
- (ii) arbitrary unions of open sets are open, and
- (iii) intersections of finitely many open sets are open.

Proof.

Corollary. A set is open if and only if it is a union of open balls.

Proof.

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- (ii) arbitrary unions of open sets are open, and
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Many properties of metric spaces can be proved using properties (i), (ii) and (iii) only.

Further abstraction: A pair (X, \mathcal{T}) where X is a set and \mathcal{T} is a family of subsets of X is a **topological space**, family \mathcal{T} is called a **topology** on X , and sets in \mathcal{T} are called **open** if axioms (i), (ii) and (iii) are satisfied.

Thus the family of open sets of a metric space (X, d) forms a topology on X . It is called a **metric topology**. There are also topologies that are not metrizable, i.e., not defined by any metric.

Consistently with metric spaces we define:

A set is **closed** if its complement is open

A set is **clopen** if it is both open and closed.

By de Morgan's laws closed sets behave dually to open sets:

Proposition. Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space.

- (i) \emptyset and X are closed,
- (ii) arbitrary intersections of closed sets are closed, and
- (iii) unions of finitely many closed sets are closed.

A quick note on balls in metric spaces

- **An open ball**

$$B_\varepsilon(x) = \{y \mid d(x, y) < \varepsilon\}$$

is open in the topology.

- **A closed ball**

$$\overline{B}_\varepsilon(x) = \{y \mid d(x, y) \leq \varepsilon\}$$

is closed in the topology.

Further terminology: Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a top. space.

• $x \in X$ is **isolated** if $\{x\}$ is open. A space is **perfect** if it has no isolated points.

• Let $A \subseteq X$. The **closure** of A is

$$\bar{A} = \bigcap_{\substack{F \text{ closed} \\ A \subseteq F}} F.$$

It is the smallest closed set that contains A :

$$F \text{ closed, } A \subseteq F \implies \bar{A} \subseteq F.$$

• Set $A \subseteq X$ is **dense** if $\bar{A} = X$.

• Dual to closure: The **interior** of A is

$$A^\circ = \bigcup_{\substack{V \text{ open} \\ V \subseteq A}} V.$$

It is the largest open subset of A :

$$V \text{ open, } V \subseteq A \implies V \subseteq A^\circ.$$

Convergence of sequences

A sequence x_1, x_2, \dots **converges** to x if for every open neighborhood U of x there is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_i \in U$ for all $i \geq n$.

In the metric setting: For every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d(x_i, x) < \varepsilon$ for all $i \geq n$.

Proposition. In a metric space every converging sequence converges to a unique point.

Proof.

We denote the unique limit by $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i$.

Base of a topology

A family $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ is a **base** of topology \mathcal{T} iff every open set is a union of some members of \mathcal{B} .

Example. In a metric space (X, d) open sets are precisely unions of open balls. Thus the family

$$\{B_\varepsilon(x) \mid x \in X, \varepsilon > 0\}$$

of all open balls is a base.

Proposition. A family $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ is a base of topology \mathcal{T} if and only if

$$\forall U \in \mathcal{T}, \forall x \in U, \exists B \in \mathcal{B} : x \in B \subseteq U.$$

Proof.

Compactness

Let \mathcal{T} be a topology on X , and let $A \subseteq X$.

A family $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ is called an **open cover** of A if

$$A \subseteq \bigcup_{V \in \mathcal{U}} V.$$

A subfamily $\mathcal{U}' \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ of \mathcal{U} is called a **subcover** if it is also a cover of A .

Set $A \subseteq X$ is called **compact** if every open cover of A has a finite subcover of A . The topology is called compact if the whole space X is compact.

In other words: a topology is compact iff every family of open sets whose union is X has a finite subfamily whose union is X .

Compactness of X could as well be defined using a dual concept:

Proposition. Topology of X is compact if and only if every family of closed sets whose intersection is empty has a finite subfamily whose intersection is empty.

Corollary. Let

$$F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq F_3 \supseteq \dots$$

be an infinite chain of closed sets in a compact space X . If $F_i \neq \emptyset$ for all i then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} F_i \neq \emptyset.$$

Compactness in metric spaces is equivalent to **sequential compactness**:

Proposition. Let (X, d) be a metric space. Set $A \subseteq X$ is compact if and only if every sequence of elements of A has a subsequence that converges to an element of A

(A **subsequence** of a sequence x_1, x_2, \dots is a sequence x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots for some $i_1 < i_2 < \dots$)

Proof

In compact metric spaces compact sets are exactly the closed sets:

Proposition. Let X be a **compact** metric space. For $A \subseteq X$
 A closed $\iff A$ compact.

Proof.

Baire property

Set $A \subseteq X$ is **residual** if it is the intersection of countably many dense open sets. A topological space X is a **Baire space** if every residual set is dense.

That is: in a Baire space, if U_1, U_2, \dots are open sets such that $\overline{U_i} = X$ for all i then also $\overline{A} = X$ where

$$A = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} U_i.$$

Example. Set \mathbb{Q} with the usual metric $d(x, y) = |x - y|$ is **not** a Baire space:

For every $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ the set $\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{q\}$ is open and dense, but the (countable) intersection

$$\bigcap_{q \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{q\}$$

is empty.

Baire property

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Proposition. Every compact metric space is a Baire space.

Proof.