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Pierre Guillon, Emmanuel Jeandel

To cite this version:

Pierre Guillon, Emmanuel Jeandel. Infinite Communication Complexity. 2014. hal-01108690

HAL Id: hal-01108690 <https://inria.hal.science/hal-01108690v1>

Preprint submitted on 23 Jan 2015

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Infinite Communication Complexity

Pierre Guillon I2M, UMR 7373 - Campus de Luminy Avenue de Luminy - Case 907 13288 MARSEILLE Cedex 9, FRANCE pierre.guillon@univ-amu.fr

Emmanuel Jeandel LORIA, UMR 7503 - Campus Scientifique, BP 239 54 506 VANDOEUVRE-LES-NANCY, FRANCE ` emmanuel.jeandel@loria.fr

January 23, 2015

Abstract

Suppose that Alice and Bob are given each an infinite string, and they want to decide whether their two strings are in a given relation. How much communication do they need? How can communication be even defined and measured for infinite strings? In this article, we propose a formalism for a notion of infinite communication complexity, prove that it satisfies some natural properties and coincides, for relevant applications, with the classical notion of amortized communication complexity. Moreover, an application is given for tackling some conjecture about tilings and multidimensional sofic shifts.

Keywords: Symbolic Dynamics, Communication Complexity, Tilings.

1 Introduction

In this article, we are interested in introducing a generalization of Communication Complexity [15, 8] to infinite inputs. The motivation comes from the theory of tilings and regular languages of infinite pictures, specifically to express that two neighbour cells can exchange only a finite information.

In this setting, Alice and Bob have a binfinite word x and y . We think of this input as an infinite array of cells, each containing a symbol, the cell x_i having a channel of communication with the cell y_i . We are looking at decentralized protocols, that is each decision must be made locally. These precautions are mandatory to avoid unrealistic protocols. As an example, a protocol that sends 2 bits in each channel can be simulated by a protocol that sends only one bit in each channel: instead of sending, in each channel i , two bits u_i and v_i , just send the bit u_i in channel 2i and the bit v_i in channel $2i+1$. Our definition will implicitely forbid such a protocol, and provide a meaningful definition of ICC. This situation is similar to what happens for an other model of communication complexity with infinite inputs called algebraic communication complexity [1,

2, 3], where coding two real numbers into a single real number should also be forbidden.

We will focus in this article only on nondeterministic communication complexity. It is the most natural from the point of view of applications, and is also the easiest to define. We postpone definitions of deterministic (and probabilistic) communication complexity to further articles.

Once the definition is given, we will see that many propositions from finite communication complexity can be translated, with different proofs, to the infinite setting. We will prove in particular that this new notion of complexity coincides for relations with what is known as amortized complexity [5]. Amortized complexity asks for the best protocol to decide whether n pairs (x_i, y_i) belong to some relation R , for large n , while infinite complexity asks for the best protocol when the number of pairs is infinite. It is natural that these quantities should be equal.

While the definition is interesting in its own right, the main motivation comes from the theory of tilings, where the concept is quite natural when dealing with regular languages of infinite pictures. In the last section we will see how this new tool gives us new insights into this theory.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Communication Complexity

We introduce here the formalism of (nondeterministic) Communication Complexity, with a few innocuous adjustments that will make the transition to infinite communication complexity easier. The first chapters of [8] are recommended readings.

Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$ be a binary relation (in communication complexity, we usually think of S as a boolean function). Alice is given $x \in X$ and Bob is given $y \in Y$ and they want to know whether $(x, y) \in S$. The communication complexity of S is the number of bits that Alice and Bob need to exchange to decide whether $(x, y) \in S$.

In nondeterministic communication complexity, Alice and Bob are allowed nondeterministic choices, and must succeed only if $(x, y) \in S$. As in the definition of NP, an alternative definition can be given in terms of proofs: Alice and Bob are both given nondeterministically a "proof" z that $(x, y) \in S$ and each of them uses z to verify that indeed $(x, y) \in S$. This is defined formally as follows:

Definition 2.1. A nondeterministic protocol for a relation $S \subseteq X \times Y$ is a tuple (Z, S_X, S_Y) where $S_X \subseteq X \times Z$, $S_Y \subseteq Y \times Z$ and

$$
(x, y) \in S \iff \exists z \in Z, (x, z) \in S_X, (y, z) \in S_Y.
$$

The size of the protocol is $log |Z|$. The nondeterministic communication complexity of S, denoted $\mathcal{N}(S)$ is the minimal size of a protocol for S.

We now give a few examples that will be useful later on.

• Let $X = Y = \{0,1\}^n$ and $EQ = \{(x,y)|x=y\}$. Then $\mathcal{N}(EQ) = O(n)$. Intuitively, Alice sends all of her bits to Bob. (Formally, take $Z = \{0, 1\}^n$ and $S_X = S_Y = EQ$). It can be proven that this bound is tight: $\mathcal{N}(EQ) =$ n .

• Let $X = Y = \{0,1\}^n$ and $NEQ = \{(x,y)|x \neq y\}$. Then we have $\mathcal{N}(NEQ) = O(\log n)$. Intuitively, Alice chooses i and sends both i and x_i to Bob, who verifies that $y_i \neq x_i$. This takes $\log n+1$ bits. (Formally, take $Z = [1, n] \times \{0, 1\}, S_X = \{(x, (i, a)) | x_i = a\}$ and $S_Y = \{(y, (i, a)) | y_i \neq a\}$. It can be proven that this bound is almost tight: $\mathcal{N}(NEQ) \ge \log n$.

2.2 Symbolic Dynamics

We will now generalize this definition to take into account infinite inputs, that is inputs in $A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ for some finite set A. Choosing biinfinite words rather than infinite words is of no consequence but simplifies the exposition.

The idea is that Alice and Bob both have an infinite word as input, which can be thought of as an infinite collection of cells. There is a channel of communication between the cell i of Alice and the cell i of Bob, and Alice and Bob should use these channels to communicate.

Now we have to be careful with the exact definition of a protocol. Consider the case of the problem EQ where $X = Y = A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ for some finite alphabet A. The "optimal" protocol for EQ should be for Alice something like sending x_i through the i -th channel i , and for Bob to compare the output of its i -th channel with y_i . This would use $\log |A|$ bits per channel.

However, other protocols are possible: $A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is in bijection with $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ so another protocol would be for Alice to transform its word $x \in A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ into a word $f(x) \in \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, sending $f(x)_i$ through the *i*-th channel, then for Bob to apply f^{-1} on the whole word it receives through all channels, then compare the output with ψ . This would use only 1 bit per channel.

This protocol is of course not what a good protocol should be and it will forbidden by the definitions. We will ask for all cells of Alice to act in the exact same way, and for the communication on a given cell to depend only on finitely many cells of the input.

The best way to formalize all this convincingly is with the vocabulary and the formalism of *symbolic dynamics*. Indeed, the first property corresponds to an invariance by translation, and the second property to a continuity argument, both being central in the study of symbolic dynamics. We refer the reader to [9] for a good introduction to this domain.

Using the definitions below, we will be able to answer the three following questions:

- What relations S should be considered ?
- What should be Z, S_X, S_Y ? (What is a protocol ?)
- How do you measure the size of a infinite set ? (What is the complexity ?)

The basic infinite sets we will be considering are called subshifts. Formally speaking, a subshift is a topologically closed subset which is invariant by the shift map σ , defined by $\sigma(x)_i = x_{i+1}$ for $x \in A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. This encompasses both desired properties: Every cell behaves the same (shift-invariance), and operations depend on finitely many cells (continuity, here in the form of closedness/compactness). We will use here the following, equivalent, definition: A set $S \subset A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is a subshift (or simply shift) if there exists a set of words F over

A so that S is exactly the set of infinite words that do not contain any pattern in $\mathcal F$ as a factor.

For example, the set of biinfinite words over $A = \{a, b\}$ that contains at most one symbol b is a subshift, corresponding to $\mathcal{F} = \{ba^n b, n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$

Intuitively, Alice can semi-decide if an biinfinite word w is in a subshift S : on each cell i , the same program is executed that reads continuously the letters around i, and fails if it sees a forbidden pattern. If there is one, some cell will fail at some time t and every cell will fail at some time.

This might seem to be too powerful (Alice doesn't even need to be computable in this definition). There are various classes of subshifts that might be expressed in terms of restriction of Alice's power. We will see the class of sofic shifts later on, but we will focus here on *shifts of finite type*. A subshift S is of finite type if it can be given by a finite set $\mathcal F$ of words of some size n. This corresponds to the case where in each cell i the same program is run for a given time t (reading the content of cell i and adjacents cells) and then the word is accepted if none of the programs has failed by time t.

With this formalism, we can now describe what a relation and a protocol are. It remains to define how to measure the size of the sets. The good notion for this is entropy [9]. Informally, a subshift S has entropy log c if it has $\Omega(c^n)$ differents factors of length n .

Formally, if we denote by c_n the number of different words of size n of S, then the entropy $H(S)$ can be defined by:

$$
H(S) = \lim_{n} \frac{\log c_n}{n} .
$$

As an exemple $\{0, 1, 2 \ldots c\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ has entropy log c. The entropy is a good notion of complexity, as is made clear by the following remarks. First, if $S \subseteq S'$ then $H(S) \leq H(S')$. Second, if S maps onto S', then $H(S) \geq H(S')$. More precisely:

Definition 2.2. A block code f is a continuous, shift-commuting map $f : S \rightarrow$ S'. For such a map, $H(f(S)) \leq H(S)$. If f is one-to-one, then $H(f(S)) =$ $H(S)$.

We say that S factors onto S' (and that S' is a factor of S) if there is an onto block code $f : S \to S'$ (also called a factor map) If f is also one-to-one, f is called a conjugacy, and we say that S and S' are conjugated.

In particular, if S' is a factor of S then $H(S') \leq H(S)$. If S' is conjugated to S then $H(S') = H(S)$.

These few properties mean that reasoning on the size of finite sets may be translated easily into statements on entropy of shifts. A notable difference is that $H(S) < H(S')$ does not imply that there is a one-to-one map from S to S' , or an onto map from S' to S .

2.3 Definition

We are now ready to define nondeterministic communication complexity:

Definition 2.3. A nondeterministic protocol for a subshift $S \subseteq X \times Y$ is a tuple (Z, S_X, S_Y) where $S_X \subseteq X \times Z$, $S_Y \subseteq Y \times Z$ are subshifts and for all $(x, y) \in X \times Y$,

$$
(x, y) \in S \iff \exists z \in Z, (x, z) \in S_X, (y, z) \in S_Y.
$$

The size of the protocol is $H(Z)$. The nondeterministic communication complexity of S, denoted $\mathcal{N}(S)$ is the infimum of the size of a protocol for S.

As explained above, the definition mirrors the one in the finite case, replacing "finite set" by "subshift" and "size" by "entropy".

We will see in the next section that this is the good definition to adopt, as natural and obvious statements will indeed be true.

In the remaining of the paper, we will assume that if $S \subseteq X \times Y$ is a subshift for which we want to compute the communication complexity, then $X = \{x | \exists y \in Y, (x, y) \in S\}$ (that is the map $S \to X$ is onto), and similarly for Y . This is an innocuous hypothesis but necessary for theorems below not to fail for stupid reasons. Many statements also assume implicitely that S is nonempty.

With these hypotheses, a protocol (Z, S_X, S_Y) entails a few maps. Denote by L the set of triples (x, y, z) such that z is a protocol for (x, y) , that is (z, x, y) satisfies simultaneously $z \in Z$, $(x, z) \in S_X$, $(y, z) \in S_Y$.

Many properties below may be deduced from the following diagram:

By definition of a protocol, $\Pi_{X\times Y}$ is always onto, and we may suppose without loss of generality that the three other maps involved in this diagram are also onto (hence factor maps). This diagram may be completed by maps from/to S_X and S_Y but they will not be needed explicitely in the following sections.

3 Properties

In this section, we will give a few properties of the infinite communication complexity.

First a few obvious properties:

Proposition 3.1. Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$.

- $\mathcal{N}(S) \geq 0$ (unless S is empty):
- $\mathcal{N}(S) \leq \min(H(X), H(Y));$
- If X' and Y' are subshifts, then $\mathcal{N}(S \cap (X' \times Y')) \leq \mathcal{N}(S)$.
- *Proof.* Let Z be a protocol for S. If Z is empty (and then $H(Z) = -\infty$), S will be empty. Otherwise, Z is nonempty and then $H(Z) \geq 0$. Therefore $\mathcal{N}(S) \geq 0.$
	- $\mathcal{N}(S) \leq H(X)$ is clear: Take the protocol where Alice sends her input to Bob. Formally take $Z = X$, $S_X = \{(x, x) | x \in X\}$ and $S_Y = S$.

• For the last item, it is clear from the definition that a protocol for S may be transformed into a protocol for $S \cap (X' \times Y')$ by changing only S_X and S_Y .

The first obvious example requires no communication:

Proposition 3.2. (If X and Y are nonempty.) $\mathcal{N}(X \times Y) = 0$.

Proof. Alice sends something to Bob, independently of her input. Formally, take Z consisting only of the periodic point $\dots 000 \dots (Z$ is of entropy 0), $S_X = X \times Z$ and $S_Y = Y \times Z$. This proves $\mathcal{N}(X \times Y) \leq 0$. Entropy is negative only when Z is empty, hence $\mathcal{N}(S) \geq 0$.

The first interesting example is equality: Give Alice and Bob each a word x and y, and decide if $x = y$.

Definition 3.3. If T is a subshift, then $EQ_T = \{(t, t)|t \in T\}$.

Proposition 3.4. $\mathcal{N}(EQ_T) = H(EQ_T) = H(T)$.

Proof. $\mathcal{N}(EQ_T) \leq H(T)$ is clear: Just take the protocol where Alice sends its input to Bob.

Conversely, let (Z, S_X, S_Y) be a protocol for EQ_T . It is clear that in Diagram 1, the map Π_Z should be one-to-one: A word z cannot be a protocol for two different pairs (x, x) and (y, y) as this would imply $(x, y) \in EQ_T$. As Π_Z is one-to-one, this implies $H(Z) = H(L) \geq EQ_T$. \Box

We will now give three other proofs of the previous proposition, introducing other methods to give lower bounds for Communication Complexity.

First is the well-known method of fooling sets.

Definition 3.5. Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$ be a subshift.

A fooling set is a subshift $F \subseteq S$ such that: For each $(x, y) \in F$, there exist at most countably many pairs $(x', y') \in F$ so that $(x, y') \in S$ and $(x', y) \in S$.

The usual definition in the finite case replaces "at most countably many pairs" by "no other pair". In the infinite case, we can obtain a stronger statement.

Theorem 1. Let F be a fooling set for S. Then $\mathcal{N}(S) \geq H(F)$.

As EQ_T is a fooling set for EQ_T , this gives a proof of the previous proposition.

Proof. Let (Z, S_X, S_Y) be a protocol for S. Let L_F be the restriction of L to tuples (z, x, y) where $(x, y) \in F$. We now look at the diagram:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\n & \Pi_{X\times Y} & & \Pi_Z \\
F & \leftarrow & L_F & \rightarrow & Z \\
(x, y) & \leftarrow & (z, x, y) & \mapsto & z\n\end{array}
$$

We suppose wlog that the map Π_Z in the preceding diagram is onto (replace Z by $f(Z)$). Now the hypothesis implies that each $z \in Z$ has only countably many preimages. This means that the map Π_Z is a countable-to-one factor map, which implies that $H(L) = H(Z)$ [10]. As Π_Z is onto, we have $H(Z) \geq H(F)$. The result follows. \Box

 \Box

 \Box

We now relate the communication complexity with the largest set that can be extracted simultaneously from X and Y .

A common factor of X and Y is a factor F from X and Y, by maps ϕ and ψ such that the following diagram commutes:

Theorem 2. Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$. If F is a common factor of X and Y, then $\mathcal{N}(S) \geq H(F)$.

More precisely, if Z is a protocol for S , then Z factors onto F .

As T is a common factor of EQ_T , this gives again a new proof of the proposition.

Proof. Let $\theta = \phi \Pi_X = \psi \Pi_Y : S \to F$ denote the common map and (Z, S_X, S_Y) be a protocol for S.

Recall the following diagram, where we assume wlog that Π_Z is onto.

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\n & \Pi_{X\times Y} & & \Pi_Z \\
S & \leftarrow & L & \rightarrow & Z \\
(x,y) & \leftarrow & (z,x,y) & \mapsto & z\n\end{array}
$$

θ can be lifted to a map $\tilde{\theta}$ from L to F by $\tilde{\theta} = \theta \Pi_{X \times Y}$. Now it is easy to see that $\tilde{\theta}$ depends only on z. Indeed, suppose that $(x, y, z) \in L$ and $(x', y', z) \in$ L. By definition of a protocol, we also have $(x, y', z) \in L$. Now $\tilde{\theta}(x, y, z) =$ $\phi(x) = \psi(y), \, \tilde{\theta}(x, y', z) = \phi(x) = \psi(y'), \text{ and } \tilde{\theta}(x', y', z) = \phi(x') = \psi(y') \text{ from }$ which it follows $\tilde{\theta}(x, y, z) = \tilde{\theta}(x', y', z)$. This means that $h = \tilde{\theta} \Pi_Z^{-1}$ is actually a function, which is obviously shift-invariant, onto, and standard topological arguments show it is continuous. Hence we have a factor map from Z to W , and $H(Z) \geq H(W)$. \Box

An additional lower bound can be made easily, using the notion of conditional entropy. We adapt slightly the definitions from [4] to make them work better in our context.

Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$ be a subshift. For $x \in X$, let $S^{-1}(x)$ be the set of words y such that $(x, y) \in S$ and $c_n(x)$ be the number of different words of size n that can appear in position $[0, n-1]$ in a word in $S^{-1}(x)$.

Then we can define:

$$
H_S(Y|x) = \limsup_{n} \frac{\log c_n(x)}{n} ;
$$

$$
H_S(Y|X) = \sup_{x \in X} H_S(Y|x) .
$$

Hence $H_S(Y|X)$ measures somehow how many different words y may correspond to a given word $x \in X$. Let us give an example. Let $LEQ = \{(x, y) \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \times \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{Z}} | \forall i, x_i \leq y_i\}.$ Then $H_{LEQ}(Y|x) = \log 2$ if $x = \cdots 000 \cdots$, $H_{LEQ}(Y|x) = 0$ if $x = \cdots 111 \cdots$, and $H_{LEQ}(Y|x) = \log 2/2$ if $\forall i, x_i = i \mod 2$. It is easy to see that $H_{LEQ}(Y|X) =$ log 2.

Theorem 3. Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$. Then $\mathcal{N}(S) \geq H(Y) - H_S(Y|X)$.

For $S = EQ_T$, $H_S(Y|X) = 0$, which gives again a new proof of the proposition.

Proof. First let us detail the proof in the finite case. In this case $s(Y|X)$ denotes the maximum number of different y that can be associated to a given x .

Let (Z, S_X, S_Y) be a protocol. Now we can enumerate Y like this: first choose some z arbitrarily. For this z, choose a unique x so that $(x, z) \in S_X$. Then enumerate all words y such that $(x, y) \in S$. Now the number of y that are enumerated for a given z is less than $s(Y|X)$, hence $|Y| \leq |Z||s(Y|X)|$

Now, for the infinite case. Let (Z, S_X, S_Y) be a protocol. By properties of the conditional entropy [4], $H(S_Y) \leq H_{S_Y}(Y|Z) + H(Z)$. Recall that $H_{S_Y}(Y|Z) =$ $\sup_{z\in Z} H_{S_Y}(Y|z)$ and let $z\in Z$. There exists x such that $(x, z) \in S_X$. Now if y is such that $(y, z) \in S_Y$ then $(x, y) \in S$. This implies that $H_{S_Y}(Y|z) \leq H_S(Y|x)$. Hence $H_{S_Y}(Y|z) \leq H_S(Y|X)$, and finally $H_{S_Y}(Y|Z) \leq H_S(Y|X)$.

We obtain $H(S_Y) \leq H_S(Y|X) + H(Z)$, hence $H(Z) \geq H(S_Y) - H_S(Y|X) \geq Y) - H_S(Y|X)$ $H(Y) - H_S(Y|X).$

We now go back again specifically to the equality example. If we look at the propositions above, we can conclude that if (Z, S_X, S_Y) is a protocol for EQ_T , then there exist $Z' \subseteq Z$ and a factor map from Z' to T.

We look now at $T = \{3, 4\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \cup \{5, 6\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. T is of entropy log 2. However, there is no factor from $Z = \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ to T. That is, there are no protocols (Z, S_X, S_Y) for EQ_T where $Z = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. This means that having a protocol with $H(Z) = \log 2$ is not the same as having a protocol with $Z = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. This is however an artifact of protocols of exact communication complexity and this does not happen otherwise, as illustrated as follows.

We now introduce a class of shifts, parametrized by β , called the β -shifts [11, 13], which have the following properties: The β -shift has entropy log β , and for $\beta \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0,1\}$, the β -shift coincides with the full shift $\{0,1...\beta\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$. The exact definition is not important, but let just note that the β -shift corresponds somehow to numeration in the (possibly nonintegral) base β .

Then we can prove

Theorem 4. Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$ be a subshift. For any $\beta > \mathcal{N}(S)$, there is a protocol (Z, S_X, S_Y) where Z is the β -shift.

The preceding discussion shows that the result is not true for $\beta = \mathcal{N}(S)$.

Proof. The idea is to use Krieger's embedding theorem [9], which states that any subshift S can be embedded into a subshift T provided that T has bigger entropy, has more periodic points, and satisfies a technical condition (be a mixing SFT). The set of β for which this technical condition is true is dense in [1, +∞[[11].

Let $\beta > \mathcal{N}(S)$. By definition of $\mathcal{N}(S)$, there exists a protocol (Z, S_X, S_Y) for S where $H(Z) < \beta$.

By changing Z to a product of Z and a Thue-Morse shift, we may assume wlog that Z has no periodic point.

Now we can find $H(Z) < \beta' < \beta$ so that the β' -shift is a (mixing) SFT. As Z has no periodic points, we can use Krieger's embedding theorem to embed Z into the β' -shift, hence into the β -shift.

Now we have obtained a protocol (Z, S_X, S_Y) where Z is included in the β-shift. Replacing S_X by $S_X \cap (A \times Z)$, and similarly for S_Y , we may replace Z by the whole β -shift and then obtain the theorem. \Box

4 Amortized Communication Complexity

In this section, we give a link between infinite communication complexity and asymptotic communication complexity. Let $R \subseteq X \times Y$ be a relation. We denote by $R^n \subseteq X^n \times Y^n$ the relation $(x, y) \in R^n \iff \forall i \leq n, (x_i, y_i) \in R$.

Definition 4.1 ([5]). The asymptotic (amortized) communication complexity of R is

$$
\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R) = \lim_{n} \frac{\mathcal{N}(R^n)}{n} .
$$

With the same notation we denote by $R^{\mathbb{Z}} \subseteq X^{\mathbb{Z}} \times Y^{\mathbb{Z}}$ the relation $(x, y) \in$ $R^{\mathbb{Z}} \iff \forall i \in \mathbb{Z}, (x_i, y_i) \in R.$

Theorem 5. $\mathcal{N}(R^{\mathbb{Z}}) = \mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R)$.

In other words, the asymptotic complexity is the same as the infinite complexity.

Before proving the result, we need a related proposition, that states that subshifts with simple description admit protocol with simple descriptions:

Proposition 4.2. Let $S \subseteq X \times Y$ be a subshift of finite type. If (Z, S_X, S_Y) is a protocol for S, then for any ϵ , there exists a protocol (Z', S'_X, S'_Y) for S where Z', S'_X and S'_Y are also subshifts of finite type.

Proof. Let (Z, S_X, S_Y) be a protocol for S.

 Z, S_X and S_Y are defined by families of forbidden patterns, denoted by Z^n , S_X^n and S_Y^n , the subshifts forbidding only the first n patterns. Hence S_X = $\bigcap_{n} S_X^n$, and similarly for Z, S_Y .

If we do the same protocol with S_X^n instead of S_X , we will recognize a superset of S that we call S^n . Let us prove $S = \cap_n S^n$, one inclusion being obvious. If $(x, y) \in \bigcap_n S^n$, then there exists $z_n \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ such that $(x, z_n) \in S_X^n$ and $(y, z_n) \in S_Y^n$. By compactness, the sequence (z_n) admits a limit point $z \in Z$, that satisfies $(x, z) \in S_X$ and $(y, z) \in S_Y$, hence $(x, y) \in S$.

But S is supposed to be of finite type, so defined by finitely many patterns. At some point n_0 all these patterns will be forbidden, that is $S = \bigcap_{n \le n_0} S^n$.

But this means that for all $n \geq n_0$, (Z^n, S_X^n, S_Y^n) is a protocol for S, for which all subshifts involved are of finite type.

Now, as entropy is upper-semicontinuous for shift spaces, $H(Z) = \lim_{n} H(Z_n)$, hence for $n \geq n_0$ big enough, we will have $H(Z_n) < H(Z) + \epsilon$ which proves the proposition. \Box

Proof of Theorem 5. • First, let us prove $\mathcal{N}(R^{\mathbb{Z}}) \leq \mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R)$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and let (Z, S_{X^n}, S_{Y^n}) be a (finite!) protocol for R^n of complexity at most $n\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R)+n\epsilon$, that is $\log|Z| \leq n\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R)+n\epsilon$. We build a protocol for $R^{\mathbb{Z}}$ as follows.

Let Z' be the subshift over the language $Z \cup \{\perp\}$ defined as follows: a word w is in Z' if and only if every factor of w of length n contains exactly one letter in Z . In other words, a word in Z' contains a letter in Z , then $n-1$ symbols \perp , then a letter in Z, ad libitum. It is clear that Z' is of entropy $\frac{\log |Z|}{n} \leq \mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R) + \epsilon.$

We now define $S_{X^{\mathbb{Z}}}$ as follows: $(x, z) \in S_{X^{\mathbb{Z}}}$ if and only if $z \in Z'$ and, if we denote by $I = i + n\mathbb{Z}$ the positions in z where the letter is not \bot , then for all j, $(x_{i+jn}x_{i+1+jn} \ldots x_{i+n-1+jn}, z_{i+jn}) \in S_{X^n}$. We define $S_{Y^{\mathbb{Z}}}$ in the same way.

It is clear from the definition that we obtain this way a protocol for $R^\mathbb{Z}$ of size at most $\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R) + \epsilon$, which gives the result.

• $\mathcal{N}(R^{\mathbb{Z}}) \leq \mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R)$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and let $(Z, S_{X^{\mathbb{Z}}}, S_{Y^{\mathbb{Z}}})$ be a (infinite) protocol for $R^{\mathbb{Z}}$. As $R^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is of finite type (it is defined by forbidden patterns of size 1), we may suppose by the previous proposition that the protocol is of finite type.

Let L as above be the set of tuples (z, x, y) such that $z \in Z$, $(x, z) \in S_{X^{\mathbb{Z}}}$, $(y, z) \in S_{Y^{\mathbb{Z}}}$. L is a subshift of finite type (it is the intersection of three subshifts of finite type), hence can be defined by a finite set of forbidden words, say of size r.

Let $n \geq r$. We now describe a protocol for R^n . On input (x, y) , we send to Alice and Bob a word z of size n that is valid for Z , and Alice (resp. Bob) sends to Bob (resp. Alice) its first and last r letters. Now Alice looks whether the pattern (x, z) appears in some valid word of $S_{X^{\mathbb{Z}}}$, and whether the two patterns of length r that Bob sent to her appears in some valid word of L. In this case, Alice accepts. Bob does the same.

Now, if $(x, y) \in Rⁿ$, it is clear that the above protocol works: just complete (x, y) to obtain an infinite word (x^{∞}, y^{∞}) with (x, y) in its center in $R^{\mathbb{Z}}$, take z^{∞} to be the word that proves that (x^{∞}, y^{∞}) is indeed valid, and take for z the central n letters of z^{∞} .

Conversely, suppose that (x, y) is accepted by the protocol. We now look at the word (x, y, z) of size n we obtain. By construction, this word does not contain any forbidden word of L . Furthermore, its first and last r letters appear in some (possibly different) infinite words of L ; this means that we can complete it into an infinite word in L . This proves that there exists an infinite word $(x^{\infty}, y^{\infty}, z^{\infty})$ in L with (x, y, z) at its center, hence that $(x^{\infty}, y^{\infty}) \in R^{\mathbb{Z}}$, which implies that $(x, y) \in R^n$.

If we denote by c_n the number of words of Z of size n, then this protocol uses $\log c_n + 4 \log r$ bits, that is $\mathcal{N}(R^n) \leq \log c_n + 4 \log r$, therefore

$$
\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R) = \lim_{n} \frac{\mathcal{N}(R^n)}{n} \le \lim_{n} \frac{\log c_n}{n} = H(Z) \le \mathcal{N}(R^{\mathbb{Z}}) + \epsilon.
$$

5 Application to 2D languages

As hinted above, the main motivation comes from the theory of 2D languages and in particular the definition of regular languages of infinite pictures, which are called sofic in this context.

The best way to define sofic (2D-)shifts uses the well-known concept of Wang tiles from tiling theory, as introduced by Hao Wang [14]. In our context, a Wang tile is a unit square with colored edges and some symbol $x \in \Sigma$ at its center. A tiling by a finite set τ of Wang tiles associates to each point of the discrete plane \mathbb{Z}^2 a Wang tile so that contiguous edges have the same color. By looking at the symbol at the center of each tile, a tiling by τ gives rises to an infinite picture $w \in \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}^2}$. The sofic shift defined by τ is then the set of infinite pictures we obtain this way.

A first example is presented in Figure 1. This set of Wang tiles produces a lot of different tilings but only two different pictures (up to translation): one with the symbol 0 everywhere, and the other one with only one occurrence of the symbol 1. Hence the set of pictures over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$ containing at most one occurrence of the symbol 1 is a sofic shift.

The main question we want to tackle is a way to decide whether a given set of infinite pictures is indeed a sofic (2D-)shift. For one-dimensional shifts, where sofic shifts can be defined in a similar way, a shift S is sofic if and only if the set of finite words it contains is regular.

Proposition 5.1. Let S be a two-dimensional shift over an alphabet A .

For n an integer, denote by $L_n(S)$ the set of infinite words over A^n that may appear as n consecutives rows in some element of S. Let

 $R_{n,m}(S) = \{(x, y) \in L_n(S) \times L_m(S) | xy \in L_{n+m}(S) \}.$

If S is sofic, then $\mathcal{N}(R_{n,m}(S) = O(1))$ (independently of n and m).

Proof. Let τ be the set of Wang tiles that defines S. The protocol is obvious. Alice, on input x , chooses a way to tile its part of the space (that may be extended into a tiling of an entire half-plane), and sends to Bob what are the colors in their common border. Then Bob accepts iff he can tile its part of the space (and the rest of the plane) respecting this border condition. 匸

The proposition is not a characterisation. It turns out however that it becomes a characterisation for one-dimensional languages.

Theorem 6. Let S be a one-dimensional shift. Let $L_n(S)$ be the set of words of size n of S and

$$
R_{n,m}(S) = \{(x, y) \in L_n(S) \times L_m(S) | xy \in L_{n+m}(S) \} .
$$

Then S is sofic iff $\mathcal{N}(R_{n,m}(S)) = O(1)$.

Figure 1: A set of Wang tiles and the tilings we obtain. There are countably many tilings but only 5 of them up to translation. All tilings except $C_{i,j}$ correspond to an infinite picture with the symbol 0 everywhere, while the tiling $C_{i,j}$ corresponds to an infinite picture with the symbol 0 everywhere except on position (i, j) , which contains the symbol 1.

Proof. One direction is clear. Suppose that S is not sofic. To simplify the exposition, we assume that S is over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$. Let $L(S)$ be the set of finite words that might appear in S. If S is not sofic, then $L(S)$ is not regular; This implies that there exists a sequence of words $(u_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ in the language of S such that all residual sets

$$
u_i^{-1}S = \{x \in \{0,1\}^\star | u_i x \in L(S) \}
$$

are distinct. Whog we may suppose that words in the sequence (u_i) are of increasing size, and that u_i is of size at least *i*.

Let n be an integer, and denote by k the size of u_n . We will prove that there exists m so that $\mathcal{N}(R_{k,m}) \ge \log \log \log n$, hence $\mathcal{N}(R, \cdot)$ is not bounded.

By definition, for any word $u, u^{-1}S = (0u)^{-1}S \cup (1u)^{-1}S$. Hence all residual sets for words of size less than k can be expressed in terms of residual sets for words of size $k \geq n$. As $u_1 \ldots u_n$ (of size less than or equal to k) give n different residual sets, this implies in particular that there should be at least $log n$ different residual sets for words of size k.

As there are finitely many residual sets for words of size k , there exists a constant m such that if $u^{-1}S \neq v^{-1}S$, for u, v of size k, then there exists w of size at most m so that $uw \in S \iff vw \notin S$. As any word in S of size less than m can be prolonged into a word of S of size m , we may suppose that w is of size exactly m.

We therefore have obtained the following: We have a family $v_1 \dots v_{\log n}$ in $L_k(S)$ for which if $i \neq j$, there exists $w \in L_m(S)$ so that $v_iw \in S \iff v_jw \notin S$.

This implies in particular that in a protocol (Z, S_A, S_B) for $R_{k,m}$, each v_i must issue a different set of responses $z \in Z$, which implies that $2^{|Z|} \ge \log n$. This implies that $\log |Z| \geq \log \log \log n$. This is true for any protocol, hence $\mathcal{N}(R_{k,m}) \geq \log \log \log n$. \Box

Proposition 5.1 gives some insight into the extension conjecture.

Definition 5.2. If S is a set of infinite words, let $S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ denote the set of infinite pictures, where each row is an element of S , different rows possibly corresponding to different elements of S.

Conjecture 1 (Extension conjecture). $S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is sofic only if S is sofic.

This conjecture was proven in some particular cases [12, 7] that may be seen as instances of a general communication complexity argument that we formulate now.

Indeed, suppose that $S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is sofic. Then by the previous proposition, $\mathcal{N}(R_{n,n}(S^{\mathbb{Z}}))$ = $O(1)$. But $R_{n,n}(S^{\mathbb{Z}}) = R_{n,n}(S)^{\mathbb{Z}}$ which means that results from the previous section can be applied: $\mathcal{N}(R_{n,n}(S\mathbb{Z})) = \mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R_{n,n}(S)).$

Now, well-known results from Communication Complexity about direct sums permit to estimate $\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R)$ from $\mathcal{N}(R)$:

Theorem 7 ([6], [8, Corollary 4.9]). For any relation $R \subseteq \{0,1\}^m \times \{0,1\}^m$, we have $\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R) \geq \mathcal{N}(R) - \log m + O(1)$.

Corollary 5.3. If $S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is sofic, then $\mathcal{N}(R_{n,n}(S)) \leq \log |\Sigma| \log n + O(1)$.

We may replace in the theorem the right-hand term by $log |L_n(S)| + O(1)$. (Alice and Bob may reject inputs (x, y) that are not in $L_n(S) \times L_n(S)$ as they cannot correspond to a valid word $xy \in L_{2n}(S)$. This corollary may be seen as a reformulation of [12, Proposition 4.3] in a different vocabulary which makes the theorem more natural.

Note also that if S is sofic then $\mathcal{N}(R_{n,n}) = O(1)$, which means that possible counterexamples to the conjecture entail sets S for which the communication complexity is low but nonconstant.

A specific potential counterexample is mentioned in [12]. Let S be the subshift whose set of forbidden patterns is $\mathcal{F} = \{ca^k db^k c\}$. That is, every time the pattern $ca^n b^m c$ appears in some word of S, we must have $n \neq m$.

For this particular example, we have $\mathcal{N}(R_{n,n}(S)) = \log |L_n(S)| + O(1)$. To simplify the exposition, suppose that Alice's word (of size n) ends with wca^kd , Bob's word begins with b^mc and they want to know whether $k \neq m$. We will give a (well-known) protocol of complexity $1 + \log \log n \simeq \log |L_n(S)|$. The following nondeterministic protocol can be used: Alice chooses nondeterministically an integer i between 1 and $\log n$ and sends i and the *i*-th bit of k to Bob. Then Bob tests whether the i -th bit of m is different from what Alice sent.

Theorem 7 gives only a lower bound and does not preclude that $\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R_{n,n}(S)) \neq O(1)$. However it is well-known in this case FracCov that we have $\mathcal{N}^{asymp}(R_{n,n}(S)) = O(1)$, so that Proposition 5.1 is not sufficient to treat this particular counterexample.

6 Open Problems

The main open question is related to the definition of Communication Complexity as an infimum. We do not know whether a protocol of optimal communication complexity $(\mathcal{N}(S))$ is always possible.

Section 4 suggests a link between the infinite communication complexity of a subshift S and the asymptotic limit of communication complexity of the analog problem for finite words. We have specific counterexamples showing the two quantities are not always equal, but we conjecture that the finite version is an upper bound for the infinite version.

In terms of tilings, proving the extension conjecture, in particular using infinite communication complexity, remains open.

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