Unraveling simplicity in elementary cellular automata

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Abstract

We show that a large number of elementary cellular automata are computationally simple. This work is the first systematic classification of elementary cellular automata based on a formal notion of computational complexity. Thanks to the generality of communication complexity, the perspectives of our method include its application to other natural systems such as neural networks and gene regulatory networks.

Keywords: Elementary cellular automata, Communication complexity, Intrinsic universality

1. Introduction

Many computational processes can be seen as a sequence of information exchanges between parts of the space. Moreover, a large number of natural systems, either physical or biological, bear close similarity to algorithmic processes, in the sense that they are dynamical processes, in which local information exchanges play an important role, as noticed for instance by Maxwell [16], or more recently by biologists working with DNA, or by quantum information theorists [1]. In this work, we present a method to analyze this kind of systems, and apply it systematically to a popular class of cellular automata, showing that most of them are computationally simple. Our main tool to complete this task is called communication complexity, a computational model introduced by Yao [25] to prove lower bounds in VLSI design (see [15] for a full introduction).

Cellular automata are a model of computation primarily consisting of simple local interactions. This kind of dynamics is ubiquitous in many physical or biological processes; developing powerful tools to analyze these objects therefore seems an important step in the study of these systems. Originally introduced by von Neumann [23] to study self-reproduction of computationally meaningful “organisms”, cellular automata have given rise to a rich theory: in particular, their computational capabilities have been extensively studied [14, 11, 8, 8]. The idea of universality \textit{modulo rescaling}, also called \textit{intrinsic universality}, has

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also originated in this model [20, 22, 2, 8], before inspiring research in other fields, most notably in tile self-assembly [21, 7, 6, 5], where it helped understand long-standing open problems of that domain [17]. This notion of simulation is stronger than Turing universality, and allows reasonings on geometric or topological properties, that are most of the time preserved by this operation. However, it is not too strong to be meaningful: indeed, intrinsically universal cellular automata have been known for some time [20]. The simplest examples of cellular automata, the one-dimensional ones with two states and two neighbors, are called elementary. Since the simulation works of Wolfram [24], they have received a lot of attention, culminating in a result by Cook showing that one of these rules (called “rule 110”), is capable of arbitrary Turing computation [4]. His construction was later improved by Neary and Woods [19]. However, being able to program a system, i.e. to use it to perform nontrivial algorithmic operations, does not mean that we understand its computational capabilities. On the contrary, complexity lower bounds require such an understanding: for example, showing that a class of logic circuits is not able to compute some function requires a full understanding of its capabilities, to make sure that no “hidden trick” allows it to compute that function. The idea of analyzing the communication patterns in cellular automata was first used by Dürr, Theyssier and Rapaport [9], and then applied to a particular cellular automaton, rule 218 [10]. More recently, a connection to intrinsic universality was made in [3]. In the present paper, we bring this method to a new level, by systematically studying all elementary cellular automata, proving formally, for most of them, that their dynamics are simple, in the sense that it does not “embed” arbitrarily complex dynamics. More precisely, the main result of our paper is:

**Theorem 1.1.** 55 of the 88 non-isomorphic elementary cellular automata are not intrinsically universal.

### 2. Definition and preliminaries

Let \( Q \) be a finite set called the set of states. A **cellular automaton** is a map of \( Q^{Z} \) to itself, defined by a local rule \( f : Q^{2r+1} \rightarrow Q \) for some integer \( r \). The cellular automaton defined by a local rule \( f \) is the map \( F \) such that for all \( x \in Q^{Z}, i \in Z \), \((F(x))_i = f(x_{i-r}, x_{i-r+1}, \ldots, x_{i+r})\). An important particular case of cellular automata is the **shift operator** \( \sigma \), which is the map defined for all \( x \in Q^{Z} \) by \((\sigma(x))_i = x_{i+1}\) for all \( i \in Z \). Remark for example that any cellular automaton commutes with \( \sigma \) (and this is indeed a part of an alternative definition, see [12]). The elements of \( Q^{Z} \) are usually called **configurations**, and positions inside configurations are called **cells**. Cellular automata are defined on finite configurations by extension of this definition: the image by \( F \) of a finite configuration \( x \) of size \( n \), is the finite configuration \( y \) of size \( n - 2r \), obtained by applying the local rule of \( F \) at all positions of \( x \) where it is defined. We now define a **bulking** operation to compare different cellular automata: for all integer \( m > 0 \), let \( b_m \) be the map of \( Q^{Z} \rightarrow (Q^{Z})^m \) defined for all \( x \in Q^{Z} \) and all position \( i \in Z \) by \((b_m(x))_i = (x_{mi}, x_{mi+1}, \ldots, x_{mi+m-1})\). For all cellular automata \( F \),
all integers $t$ and $z$, the rescaling of $F$, with parameters $m$, $t$ and $z$, is defined by:

$$F^{(m,t,z)} = b_m \circ \sigma^z \circ F^t \circ b_m^{-1}$$

Moreover, for two cellular automata $F$ (with states $Q_F$) and $G$ (with states $Q_G$), we say that $G$ is a subautomaton of $F$ if there is an injection $\phi : Q_G \to Q_F$ such that $F \circ \phi = \phi \circ G$. Intuitively, this means that $G$ has the same behavior as $F$, but only a subset of the states of $F$. We say that $F$ simulates $G$ if $G$ is a subautomaton of some rescaling of $F$. An intrinsically universal cellular automaton is one that simulates any other cellular automaton. Elementary cellular automata are those cellular automata with two states $\{0, 1\}$ and two neighbors. A classical way to enumerate them, first used by Wolfram [24], is to use the binary words from the image of their local rule, which is the integer $\sum_{0 \leq i \leq 7} 2^i f(i)$. Now, let $X$, $Y$ and $Z$ be three finite sets, and $f$ be any function from $X \times Y$ into $Z$. The communication complexity of $f$ is the minimum, over all $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, of the number of bits that need to be communicated by two players, Alice and Bob, in order to compute $f(x, y)$, when Alice knows only $x$, and Bob knows only $y$. Formally, a communication protocol is a binary tree, where the internal nodes are labeled either by a function of $X \to \{l, r\}$, or by a function of $Y \to \{l, r\}$, and the leaves are labeled by a value $z \in Z$. A protocol $P$ computes a function $f : X \times Y \to Z$ if for all input $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, the leaf reached by the following procedure is labeled $f(x, y)$:

- Start with the current node being the root
- If the current node $n$ is an internal node, labeled by a function $v : X \to \{l, r\}$, update the current node to become the right child of $n$ if $v(x) = r$, and its left child else.
- If it is an internal node labeled by a function $v : Y \to \{l, r\}$, update the current node to become the right child of $n$ if $v(y) = r$, and its left child else.
- If it is a leaf, stop.

The deterministic communication complexity $D(f)$ of $f$ is then defined as the depth of the least deep tree that computes $f$. By extension, for a function $f : X^n \to Z$, for some integer $n$, the deterministic communication complexity of $f$ is the maximal deterministic communication complexity, over all cuts of the input: $D(f) = \max_{0 \leq i < n} f_i$, where for all $i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$, $f_i$ is the function of $X^i \times X^{n-i} \to Z$ defined by $f_i(x, y) = f(xy)$.

3. Explanation of the method

Our method is based on theorems relating communication complexity of deciding questions on the dynamics of cellular automata, to intrinsic universality [3]. We will not state the proof of these theorems: intuitively, they are based on the fact that communication complexity is preserved by rescaling and the
subautomaton relation, in the sense that if \( F \) simulates \( G \), any protocol solving a problem on \( F \) can be used to solve the same problem on \( G \).

**Theorem 3.1.** Let \( F \) be an intrinsically universal cellular automaton. Then \( D ( \text{Pred}_{F,n} ) \in \Omega(n) \), where for all integer \( n \), \( \text{Pred}_{F,n} \) is the function of \( Q_F^{2n+1} \to Q_F \) defined for all \( x \in Q^{\{-n,-n+1,...,n\}} \) by \( \text{Pred}_{F,n} = (F^n(x))_0 \).

The \( \text{Pred} \) problem is probably the most natural question on cellular automata: intuitively, it asks to predicting the evolution of the central cell of a configuration over time. A similar problem is the following \( \text{SInv} \) problem, asking whether finite changes in an infinite configuration remain for arbitrarily long:

**Theorem 3.2.** Let \( F \) be a cellular automaton. For all \( u \in Q_F^* \), let \( p_u \in Q^Z \) be the infinite word defined for all \( i \in \mathbb{Z} \) by \( (p_u)_i = u_i \mod |u| \), and for all finite words \( x \in Q_F^* \), let \( p_u[x] \) be the infinite word equal to \( x \) on \( \{0,1,\ldots,|x|-1\} \), and to \( p_u \) everywhere else. Then, let \( \text{SInv}_{F,u} \) be the problem of deciding, on input \( x \), whether there is an integer \( w \) such that for all \( t \), the differences of \( F^t(p_u) \) and \( F^t(p_u[x]) \) are all within a part of width \( w \) of the configuration. If \( F \) is intrinsically universal, then there is a word \( u \in Q_F^* \), such that \( D(\text{SInv}_{F,u}) \in \Omega(n) \).

4. Simple cellular automata

**Proposition 1.** Rules 15, 51, 60, 90, 105, 108, 128, 136, 150, 160, 170 and 204 are linear, and thus have a protocol for \( \text{Pred} \) in \( O(1) \) (by a theorem of [3]).

**Proposition 2.** Rule 76 has a protocol in \( O(1) \) for \( \text{Pred} \).

*Proof.* On all configurations after one step, rule 76 behaves like rule 204, because the only difference is on 111, which has no antecedent. Therefore, Alice and Bob need to communicate one bit to compute the first step, and then follow the protocol for rule 204. \( \square \)

**Proposition 3.** Rules 0, 1, 2, 4, 8, 10, 12, 19, 24, 34, 36, 38, 42, 46, 72, 76, 108, 127, 138, 200 have a constant number of dependencies, and thus have a protocol in \( O(1) \) for \( \text{Pred} \).

*Proof.* We treat these cases independently. An argument that we will frequently use, is that computing the configuration after one step requires at most \( 2r \) bits of communication: Alice and Bob communicate their \( r \) bits around the separation between their respective inputs to each other, and then compute one step of the local rule separately on their inputs, concatenated with the received bits.

- Rule 0 is nilpotent.
- Any configuration of the form 0001^n000 is stable under \( F_1^T \), and neither 1001 nor 101 have antecedents by \( F_1 \), thus \( F_1^T \) at most depends on the seven center cells.
• In rule 2, after one step, there can never be two 1s separated by less than two 0s. And, on these configurations, rule 2 is a shift.

• In rule 4, after one step, the 1s are all separated by at least one 0, and on these configurations, the rule is the identity.

• Rule 8 is nilpotent.

• Rule 10 is a left shift on all the configurations with no three consecutive 1s. Fortunately, these configurations never appear after one step.

• For rule 12, the only configurations after one step have only isolated 1s, on which this rule is the identity.

• In rule 19, after two steps, there are no isolated 0s or 1s, and on these configurations, $F_{19}^2$ is the identity.

• The only difference between rule 24 and the symmetric of rule 2 is on transition 011, which has no antecedent. The same protocol (reverting the roles of Alice and Bob) can be used, after simulating one step of the rule.

• Rule 34 is a left shift on the configurations with no block of two consecutive 0s, and these blocks do not have antecedents.

• For rule 36, we find out by exhaustive search that the only stable pattern of length five is 00100. All other patterns of length five become 0 after two steps.

• For rule 38, another exhaustive search shows that after one step, $F_{38}^2$ is equal to the double shift $\sigma^2$.

• For rule 42, after one step, there are no three consecutive 1s in the configuration, and the rule is a left shift on these configurations.

• Rule 46 is a left shift except on 010, which has no antecedent, and 111, whose antecedents have 010s. Therefore, after two steps, this rule is actually a left shift.

• In rule 72, for any $a$ and $b$, $F_{72}(a0110b) = 0110$. But 111 does not have antecedents by $F_{72}$, and neither does 010 by $F_{72}^2$. Therefore, this rule is the identity after two steps.

• In rule 76, any block of three cells except 111 is stable. Therefore, this block disappears after one step, and the rule becomes the identity.

• An exhaustive search on all the blocks of length 7 of rule 108 show that $F_{108}^2$ is the identity on $F_{108}^2(\{0,1\}^7)$.

• Rule 127 is nilpotent: all cells become 1 after one step.
• Rule 138 is a left shift, except on 101, which has no antecedent and thus disappears after one iteration.

• In rule 200, any 0 is stable (for any \(a\) and \(b\), \(F_2(a0b) = 0\)), and so are the blocks of at least two 1s. Moreover, isolated 1s do not have antecedents. Therefore, the rule depends only on the three central cells.

Proposition 4. Rule 5 has a protocol for SINV in \(O(1)\) bits.

Proof. For any value of \(a\) and \(b\), \(F_5(a01b) = 010\), and for any \(a, b, c, d\), \(F_5^2(ab000cd) \in \{000, 010\}\). Therefore, for the configuration to be invaded, \(u\) should neither contain more than three consecutive 0s, nor less than two consecutive 1s. However, this is not possible after one iteration of the rule since \(F_5(11011) = 000\), and \(F_5(110011) = 0000\).

Proposition 5. Rule 7 has a protocol for SINV in \(O(1)\) bits.

Proof. First notice that for any values of \(w, x, y\) and \(z\), \(F_7(w11xyz) = 11\). Since \(F_7(0000) = 11\) and \(F_7(0001) = 11\), a periodic word \(u\) that would be invaded should have neither blocks of three or more 0s, nor blocks of two or more 1s. But since \(F_7(0010) = 11\), this leaves only one possibility: the word \(p\) must be 01. Thus, any perturbation of size \(n\) stays at most \(n\) bits wide, and no invasion can ever occur.

Proposition 6. Rule 13 and 29 have a protocol for SINV in \(O(1)\) bits.

Proof. Let us remark that for any values of \(a\) and \(b\), \(F(a01b) = 01\), for both rules. Thus, if the input is different from the periodic background, it can only be invaded if the background is equal to \(p_1\). But then the last cell that is different from the background in the input is a 0, and this forms a wall. Thus, no invasion can occur.

Proposition 7. Rule 28 has a protocol for SINV in \(O(1)\) bits.

Proof. First remark that since for any values of \(a\) and \(b\), \(F_2(a01b) = 01\). Hence, any periodic background that can be invaded must be uniform (i.e. have only 0s or only 1s). But then the left of the configuration is necessarily invaded, and the first 01 or 10 creates a wall.

Proposition 8. Rule 78 has a protocol for SINV in \(O(1)\) bits.

Proof. The configurations with no two consecutive 0s, and with no three consecutive 1s, are stable under this rule. Moreover, 1111 has no antecedent under rule 78, and for all \(a\) and \(n \geq 2\), \(F_78(a10^n1) = 10^{n-1}1\). Moreover, in a configuration not containing two consecutive 0s, blocks of exactly three 1s disappear in one step: indeed, \(F(01110) = 101\). Therefore, if initially, the largest block of 0s is of length \(n\), the configuration becomes stable after at most \(n + 2\) steps (one step to eliminate 1111, \(n\) steps for the largest block of 0, and then one step
to eliminate 111). Finally, the only pattern that can be invaded is $p_0$, and the presence of a 1 in the configuration is sufficient for it to be invaded, and this can be decided with $O(1)$ bits of communication.

**Proposition 9.** Rule 140 has a protocol for $S_{\text{Inv}}$ in $O(1)$ bits.

**Proof.** For any values of $a$ and $b$, $F_{140}(a0b) = 0$. Therefore, the only pattern that can be invaded contains only 1s, and it is invaded as soon as the input contains a 0, because $F_{140}(110) = 0$, and $F_{140}(011) = 0$.

**Proposition 10.** Rule 172 has a protocol for $S_{\text{Inv}}$ in $O(1)$ bits.

**Proof.** For all $a$ and $b$, $F_{178}(a00b) = 00$. Therefore, if the background contains two consecutive 0s, it cannot be invaded. Else, remark that for all $a$, $b$ and $c$, $F_{178}(abc00) = d00$ for some $d$. Therefore, the first 00 block in the input invades the whole configuration. If there is no such block, rule 178 behaves like a left shift after one step: indeed, the only pattern where it is not a left shift is 010 and patterns containing 00, but 010 has no antecedents. Therefore, in this case, the configuration is not invaded.

**Proposition 11.** Rule 32 has a protocol for $S_{\text{Inv}}$ in $O(1)$ bits.

**Proof.** If $p_u$ is different from $p_{01}$, then $F_{32}$ becomes uniformly 0 after $|u|$ steps. Else, if the background pattern is $p_{01}$, and $p_u[x] \neq p_u$, then the configuration is invaded with 0s.

**Proposition 12.** Rule 156 has a protocol for $S_{\text{Inv}}$ in $O(1)$.

**Proof.** First notice that if the period $u$ is not uniformly 0 or uniformly 1, then there are walls 01 around the input $x$, and then $x$ does not invade $p_u$. Else, if $u$ is uniform, then $p_u$ is invaded, either to the left if $u = 1$, or to the right if $u = 0$: indeed, the first 0 (respectively the last 1) of the input forms a wall, and propagates to the left (respectively to the right).

**Proposition 13.** There is a protocol in $O(1)$ for $S_{\text{Inv}}$ for rule 27.

**Proof.** First notice that for all $a$, $b$ and $c$, $F^2(a111bcd) = 111$, and $F(a000b) = 111$. Thus, if the orbit of $p_u$ contains a block of three 1s or three 0s, then no invasion can occur. Else, an exhaustive exploration of all configurations of size 6 shows that the only possible configurations that do not generate 111 or 000 are of the form \{011,001\}\{011,001\} (let $A$ be the set of configurations generated by infinite repetitions of these words). Moreover, it is easy to notice that this set of configurations is stable under $F$, and that for any word $w$ of length 5 of that form, $F^2(w_1w_2w_3w_4w_5) = w_5$. Thus, if $p_u[x]$ is still in $A$, then no invasion can occur, since $F^2$ is a left shift.

**Proposition 14.** Rule 44 has a protocol for $S_{\text{Inv}}$ in $O(1)$ bits.
Proof. First remark that for all values of $a$ and $b$, $F_{44}(a00b) = 00$. Moreover, $F_{44}(111a) = 00$ and $F_{44}(010ab) = 111$. Therefore, the only blocks of three letters that do not form walls are $W = \{011, 101, 110\}$. Therefore, the only background pattern that does not form “walls” (and thus, that can be invaded) is an infinite repetitions of 011. Then, can simply remark that for any change in this pattern introduces a block of two 0s. Moreover, for $w \in \{011, 101, 110\}$, $F^2_{44}(w00) = 00$. Since 00 is a wall, this means that any $x$ such that $p_u(x) \neq p_u$ will invade the configuration. This condition can be checked with only $O(1)$ bits of communication.

**Proposition 15.** Rules 23, 50, 77, 178 and 232 have a protocol for Pred in $O(\log n)$ bits.

Proof. All these rules create walls on configurations containing either 00 or 11, or 01 or 10. More precisely, for all values of $a$ and $b$:

- $F_{23}(a00b) = 11$ and $F_{23}(a11b) = 00$.
- $F_{50}(a01b) = 10$ and $F_{50}(a10b) = 01$.
- $F_{77}(a01b) = 01$ and $F_{77}(a10b) = 10$.
- $F_{178}(a01b) = 10$ and $F_{178}(a10b) = 01$.
- $F_{232}(a00b) = 00$ and $F_{232}(a11b) = 11$.

The proof is the same for all the cases; we do it for rule 23: Alice can send the position of her first 00 or 11, and one bit indicating whether it is a 00 or a 11. Bob then knows the only relevant part of her configuration (an alternation of 0s and 1s), and can compute the result. This protocol requires $O(\log n)$ bits of communication.

**Proposition 16.** Rules 40, 130, 162 and 168 have a protocol for Pred in $O(1)$ bits.

Proof. First notice that in all four rules, for all $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$, $f(ab0) = 0$. Therefore, if Bob has one 0, he can predict the result alone. Else, only one bit is needed to inform Alice that he has only 1s.

**Proposition 17.** There is a protocol in $O(1)$ for SInv for rule 104.

Proof. Let us first notice that rule 104 is symmetric, and that for all $a$ and $b$, $F_{104}(a00b) = 00$. Moreover, $F_{104}(1111) = 00$. Therefore, any configuration without walls only contains blocks of one or three 1s, or 0s alone. Now, $F_{104}(010111) = 0110$, and $F_{104}(0111010) = 10110$. Both configurations contain 0110. However, if 0110 appears, it is necessarily surrounded by 1s, and $F^2_{104}(101101) = 00$. Therefore, the only $p_u$ without walls are $p_{01}$ and $p_{0111}$. Therefore, any change in the configuration creates a wall, after which Alice or Bob can decide whether their part of the configuration is invaded, and communicate this information using $O(1)$ bits.
Proposition 18. There is a protocol in $O(\log n)$ for Pred of rule 132.

Proof. For any $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$, $F_{132}(a0b) = 0$. Thus, Alice only needs to send the length of the longest string of 1s she has from the center, and Bob can compute the relevant bits of the configuration. \hfill \square

Proposition 19. There is a protocol in $O(1)$ for SInv for rule 152.

Proof. There are two cases:

- Either $p_u = p_1$, in which case it is invaded to the left, since the rightmost 0 of $x$ creates a vertical wall (because $F_{152}(a011) = 01$, and $F_{152}(111) = 1$), and its leftmost 0 propagates to the left.

- Else, let $n$ be the size of the largest block of 1s in $p_u[x]$. For all $a$, $F_{152}(a011) = 01$, and $F_{152}(110) = 0$. Therefore, $F^n_{152}(p_u[x])$ does not contain the pattern 11. Thus, a simple observation of the rule shows that on these configurations, it is a shift to the right, and therefore the configuration cannot be invaded.

Detecting the case takes $O(1)$ bits of communication. \hfill \square

Proposition 20. Rule 156 has a protocol in $O(1)$ for SInv.

Proof. First notice that 01 is a wall in rule 156: for all $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$, $F_{156}(a01b) = 01$. Thus, the only case where invasion could occur is when the background pattern has only 0s or only 1s (else, a wall appears on both sides). If there are only 0s, the first 1 creates a wall, and since $f_{156}(100) = 1$, the right of the configuration get invaded by the last 1. Since $f(110) = 0$, the same happens when the background pattern has only 1s. \hfill \square

Proposition 21. Rule 184 has a protocol in $O(\log n)$ for Pred, and this protocol is optimal.

Proof. Consider the blocks of two cells in rule 184. Let $A = 00$, $B = 01$, $C = 10$ and $D = 11$. Then, for all $n \geq 0$:

\[
F^n_{184}(A\{B, C\}^n) = A \\
F^n_{184}(\{B, C\}^nD) = D \\
F^n_{184}(AD) = B \\
F^n_{184}(DA) = B
\]

Intuitively, this means that the dynamics of this rule has two particles, one moving towards the right, the other towards the left, and any collision destroys them. Thus, let $|A_{Alice}|$ be the number of $A$ Alice has, $|D_{Alice}|$ her number of $D$s, $|A_{Bob}|$ the number of $A$ Bob has, and $|D_{Bob}|$ his number of $D$s. Moreover, we say that position $i$ is free if:

$$|D(w_0 \ldots w_i)| \geq |A(w_0 \ldots w_i)|$$
\[ |D(w_{i+1} \ldots w_n)| \geq |A(w_{i+1} \ldots w_n)| \]

Then, the following protocol solves Pred for rule 184:

- Alice sends \( N_A = \max(0, |A_{Alice}| - |D_{Alice}|) \) to Bob.
- If \( N_B > N_A \), then Bob knows the answer (if he has a \( C \) particle in a free zone, the result is \( C \), else it is \( B \)).
- Else, if \( N_B < N_A \), then Alice knows the answer: if she has a \( C \) particle in a free zone, then the result is \( C \), else it is \( B \).

The following fooling set shows that this protocol is optimal:

\[
S = \{A^iB^{n-i}, B^{n-i}D^i | i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \}
\]

With a slight modification, the protocol we had for rule 184 can also predict rule 56:

**Proposition 22.** There is a protocol in \( O(1) \) for \( \text{Pred}_{F_{56}} \).

**Proof.** Using the same rescaling, there are only two differences:

\[ F(DD) = A \text{ and } F(BD) = C \]

But none of these two "problems" have any antecedent, thus they disappear after one step. Only \( O(1) \) bits of communication are needed to simulate this step.

### 4.1. The last candidates to universality

In the last section, we have shown simple protocols for a large number of elementary cellular automata, and essentially problems \( \text{Pred} \) and \( \text{SInv} \). The proof for rule 94 is more complex, and appears in [3]. The status of the following 33 cellular automata remains open: 3, 6, 9, 11, 14, 18, 22, 25, 26, 30, 33, 35, 37, 41, 43, 45, 54, 57, 58, 62, 73, 74, 106, 110, 122, 126, 134, 142, 146, 152, 154, 164, 204.

### 5. Perspectives

This work opens new perspectives on the analysis of natural systems: indeed, this is the first systematic proof that a large class of cellular automata, not chosen on purpose, is simple. Open questions include the proof of lower bounds on the remaining systems: is there a simple method to prove them? an algorithmic one? Moreover, it might become possible at some point to apply this method to other theoretical, abstract systems. However, a real challenge opened by our results is the applicability of these techniques to real-world data, in particular from biological systems, for instance neurons or the evolution.
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