Complexity of prime-dimensional sequences over a finite field

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Abstract

V.I. Arnold has recently defined the complexity of a sequence of \( n \) zeros and ones with the help of the operator of finite differences. In this paper we describe the results obtained for almost most complicated sequences of elements of a finite field, whose dimension \( n \) is a prime number. We prove that with \( n \to \infty \) this property is inherent in almost all sequences, while the values of multiplicative functions possess this property with any \( n \) different from the characteristic of the field. We also describe the prime values of the parameter \( n \) which make the logarithmic function almost most complicated. All these sequences reveal a stronger complexity; its algebraic sense is quite clear.

1. Main results. In [1–3], V.I. Arnold considers the following dynamic system generated by the finite differentiation operator. Let \( x \) be a closed sequence of \( n \) elements from a finite field \( \mathbb{F}_q \) (its \( n \)th element is followed by the first one). Let \( M \) be the collection of all such sequences (\( \#M = q^n \)). Let \( \Delta : M \to M \) denote the transition from \( x \) to the sequence of differences of neighbor elements of \( x \):

\[
x' = \Delta x \iff x'_i = x_{i+1} - x_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n, \quad (x_{n+1} \equiv x_1).
\]

The dynamic system \( \Delta \) is defined by an oriented graph, whose vertices are labeled by \( x, x \in M \). Each vertex \( x \) has a unique outgoing edge (leading to \( \Delta x \)). The attractors of the dynamic system \( \Delta \) are finite cycles. Each point of the attractor is accessible through a tree of the same form (see [1]). V.I. Arnold has studied the graphs of the dynamic system \( \Delta \) for \( q = 2 \) and \( q = 3 \). Note that the calculations based on the algorithm described in [8] (see also [5]) enable us to obtain these graphs for all values of \( n \leq 300 \) and \( n \leq 150 \), respectively (see [7], cf. with [6]).

The regular sequences (for example, \((1, \ldots, 1)\) or \((1, 0, \ldots, 1, 0)\)) quickly tend to the trivial attractor, while nonregular ones converge rather slowly to a long cycle. For this reason V.I. Arnold has defined the complexity of a sequence of the length \( n \) in terms of the dynamic system \( \Delta \). The main results of this paper are obtained for prime values of \( n \). For the mentioned values we prove more accurate statements of V.I. Arnold hypotheses on concrete representatives of almost most complicated sequences, as well as the hypotheses on the number of such sequences in the entire set \( M \). In [2] V.I. Arnold sets up a hypothesis that a random sequence is, as a rule, complicated; its accurate statement and certain related results are adduced in [5].

1.1. Let us now give several more strict definitions. We understand differential operators as arbitrary linear operators \( D \) representable in the form \( \sum_{i=1}^{m} d_i \Delta^i \), \( d_i \in \mathbb{F}_q \). V.I. Arnold defined the components of the initial vector \( x \) with the help of various functions \( f \): \( x_i = f(i) \). A function \( f \) is called almost most complicated, if \( x \) belongs to the attraction domain of a certain cycle of the maximal period (for a given map \( D \)), and the preperiod of the sequence \( x, Dx, D^2x, \ldots \) differs from the maximal one no more than by the unity. With \( D = \Delta \) any almost most complicated function \( f \) is said to be \( \Delta_1 \)-complicated.

One can weaken the property of the \( \Delta_1 \)-complexity, neglecting the preperiod of the sequence \( x, \Delta x, \Delta^2 x, \ldots \). A function \( f \) such that the corresponding attractor represents a cycle with the maximal period is called \( \Delta_2 \)-complicated. Let \( p \) be the characteristic of the field \( \mathbb{F}_q \). According to the results obtained in [1] (see also [5]), if \( p \) is an aliquant of \( n \), then the notions of \( \Delta_1 \) and \( \Delta_2 \)-complexity are equivalent.

V.I. Arnold has given an example of a complicated function for \( q = 2, n < 13 \). He has set up a hypothesis that in the case, when \( n + 1 \) is a certain prime number \( r \), the following algebraic logarithmic function:

\[
f(i) = \begin{cases} 
0, & \text{if } i \text{ is a quadratic residue modulo } r, \\
1, & \text{if } i \text{ is a quadratic nonresidue modulo } r
\end{cases}
\]  

(1)
is \( \Delta_1 \)-complicated. Unfortunately, certain values of \( n \) make this hypothesis false (see [3]). The hypothesis on the \( \Delta_2 \)-complexity of this function (which is true for all \( n < 600 \)) is still unproved. One can easily verify that with \( r \) in the form \( 4k + 3 \) this hypothesis is equivalent to the initial one.

A. Garber has considered the quota of \( \Delta_2 \)-complicated functions among all possible ones. According to the hypothesis, this quota tends to one as \( n \to \infty \). A. Garber studied \( p \)-ary sequences, i.e., such that \( p = q \). In [5] he proved that if \( n \) has the form \( r^k \), where \( r \) is a fixed prime number, then the quota of complicated functions tends to one as \( k \to \infty \).

**Definition 1.** A function \( f \) is called \( D \)-complicated, if it is almost most complicated for \textbf{any} differential operator.

The algebraic sense of this definition is quite clear (see Lemma 1 and Remark 1). Evidently, this property is more strong than the \( \Delta \)-complexity.

**Theorem 1.** Assume that the dimension \( n \) takes on only prime values. Then the quota of \( D \)-complicated functions tends to one as \( n \to \infty \).

We prove this theorem constructively, obtaining an explicit formula for the quota of \( D \)-complicated functions.

**Theorem 2.** Let \( n = r \) be an odd prime number different from \( p \). Then the function \( f \), which is defined by formula (4) with \( 1 \leq i \leq n - 1 \) and redefined as \( f(n) = 0 \), is \( D \)-complicated, if \( p \) is an aliquant of the integer value closest to \( n/4 \).

In particular, with \( q = 2 \) the function described in Theorem 2 is \( D \)-complicated with \( n = 8k + 3 \) or \( n = 8k + 5 \).

Let \( n \) be a prime number. We call a function \( f \), mapping \( \{1, \ldots, n-1\} \), into \( \mathbb{F}_q \), multiplicative, if \( f(i \mod n) = f(i)f(j) \) for any \( i, j \) from the definition domain, and \( f \) is not the identical zero. Set \( f(n) = 0 \). The Legendre symbol \( \left( \frac{1}{n} \right) \) represents an example of such a function.

**Theorem 3.** With \( n \neq p \) any multiplicative function is \( D \)-complicated.

This theorem was first proved in [8]; the proof was elementary but rather intricate. Later, in the journal “Functional Analysis and Its Applications” the reviewer of this paper has proposed a very short proof based on more advanced algebraic means, what I sincerely appreciate. This proof has excited the research described in this paper.

2. An algebra of \( D \)-complexity. Let \( x \) be a generatrix of a cyclic group \( A \) of the order \( n: x^n = e \), where \( e \) is the unit element of the group. One can identify an arbitrary sequence \( f(i), i = 1, \ldots, n \), with an element of the group algebra \( A = \mathbb{F}_q C: f = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(i)x^i = f(0) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(i)x^i, f(0) \equiv f(n) \). It is convenient to calculate a product in \( A \), treating \( x \) as a polynomial of the variable \( x \). Then one can calculate the product by the usual multiplication rules for two polynomials and then reduce the result modulo \( x^n - 1 \). This simple scheme explicitly defines the isomorphism between \( A \) and \( \mathbb{F}_q[t]/(t^n - 1) \). The precise representation of \( A \) is also defined by cyclic matrices with \( f(0) \) at the main diagonal, with \( f(1) \) at the above diagonal, etc.

One can easily see that in terms of the algebra \( A \) a cyclic shift is the multiplication by \( x \); the action of the operator \( \Delta \) is reduced to the multiplication by \( x - e \); the action of an arbitrary differential operator is reduced to the multiplication by a fixed element of this algebra which is divisible by \( x - e \).

**Lemma 1.** Assume that \( n \) is an arbitrary natural number, \( p \) is an aliquant of \( n \). A function \( f \) is \( D \)-complicated, if the corresponding element of the algebra \( A \) is invertible on the subspace \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a(i) = 0 \) of the vector space \( A = (a(1), \ldots, a(n)) \).

**Proof of Lemma 1.** According to the Chinese remainder theorem, the algebra of polynomials \( \mathbb{F}_q[t]/(t^n - 1) \) is representable as the direct product of algebras \( \mathbb{F}_q[t]/(t - 1) \) and \( \mathbb{F}_q[t]/(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} t^i, \text{i.e., the latter is not divisible by } t - 1 \).) Let \( D(t) \) be an arbitrary polynomial divisible by \( (t - 1); \)

\[ \text{In [3] the corresponding group algebra is denoted by } \mathbb{F}_q[C], \text{ here } \mathbb{F}_q[t] \text{ stands for a ring of polynomials.} \]
\[ \tilde{f}(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(i)t^i. \]

In terms of the introduced algebras one can define the complexity of the function \( f \) with the help of the values \( N \) and \( M \), satisfying the equalities

\[
 \begin{align*}
 D^N(t)\tilde{f}(t) \mod \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} t^i &= D^M(t)\tilde{f}(t) \mod \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} t^i, \\
 D^N(t)\tilde{f}(t) \mod (t-1) &= D^M(t)\tilde{f}(t) \mod (t-1). 
\end{align*}
\] (2)

If \( F \) is an invertible element of the algebra \( F_\mathbb{Q}[t]/\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} t^i \), then the first equality remains true with the same values of \( N \) and \( M \) for any function \( f \). This means that both the period and the preperiod of the sequence \( D^N(t)\tilde{f}(t) \mod \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} t^i \) are maximum possible. Since the last equality in system (2) is true with all \( N, M \geq 1 \), the function \( f \) in this case is \( D \)-complicated, which was to be proved.

Remark 1. Both the subspace \( S \): \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a(i) = 0 \) and the one-dimensional subspace \( I \), which is orthogonal to it, are ideals in \( A \). In more developed algebraic settings, the invertibility of \( f \) on \( S \) means that the projection of \( f \) onto any simple ideal different from \( I \) is not zero. In terms of the algebra of polynomials, this condition is equivalent to the following one: the corresponding polynomial is not divisible by any irreducible polynomial, representing a factor of \( \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} t^i \).

Proof of Theorem 1. If \( n \) is a prime number, then in accordance with theorem 2.47 in [10] the cyclic polynomial \( \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} t^i \) is representable as a product of \((n-1)/d\) different irreducible polynomials of the same degree \( d \), where \( d \) is the order of the number \( q \) in the multiplicative group \( F^n_\mathbb{Q}^* \). Consequently, the quota of polynomials mentioned at the end of Remark 1 in the total amount of all polynomials equals \((1-q^{-d})(n-1)/d \). Since, evidently, \( q^d \geq n+1 \), with \( n \to \infty \) we obtain the assertion of the theorem.

Remark 2. Thus, the quota of cyclic matrices which are invertible on the subspace \( S \) tends to the unit, when \( n \) tends to infinity (taking on only prime values). It is interesting that the quota of various matrices invertible on this subspace tends to a certain value from \((0,1)\) (see, for example, [12]).

Proof of Theorem 2. Let \( \zeta \) be a primitive \( n \)th root of the unit in the corresponding algebraic extension of the field \( F_\mathbb{Q} \) (see [9, Chap. 8, § 3]). One can easily verify (see [10]) that eigenvalues of a cyclic matrix with the first row \((f(0), \ldots, f(n-1))\), are

\[ \lambda_m = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(i)\zeta^{im}, \quad m = 1, \ldots, n, \]

and the corresponding eigenvectors take the form

\[ (1, \zeta^m, \ldots, \zeta^{m(n-1)}), \quad m = 1, \ldots, n. \]

The first \( n-1 \) eigenvectors generate the space \( S \). In accordance with Lemma 1 the function \( f \) is \( D \)-complicated, if the product of the corresponding eigenvalues differs from zero.

Let \( g_m = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( \frac{j}{n} \right) \zeta^{jm} \) be the Gauss sums. Due to the multiplicative property of the Legendre symbol we have \( g_m = \left( \frac{m}{n} \right) g_1 \). It is well known that (see [9, Chap. 8, § 3]) \( g_1^2 = \left( \frac{-1}{n} \right) n \), and, evidently, \( \sum_{j=1}^{n} \zeta^{jm} = -1 \) with \( m = 1, \ldots, n-1 \). Using these equalities, we obtain that the function \( f \) mentioned in the assumption of the theorem satisfies the relation

\[ \prod_{m=1}^{n-1} \lambda_m = \begin{cases} k(n-1)/2, & \text{if } n = 4k+1, \\ (k+1)(n-1)/2, & \text{if } n = 4k+3. \end{cases} \]

The theorem is proved.

Proof of Theorem 3. Without loss of generality, we assume that the function \( f \) differs from the \( \delta \)-function \((1,0,\ldots,0)\), and, consequently, \( n > 2 \). An arbitrary nontrivial automorphism of a cyclic group defined by the formula \( x \to x^k, \) \( k \mod n \neq 0,1 \), transitively represents all elements of this group different from \( e \), as well as all simple ideals of the algebra \( A \) which differ from \( I \). This transform maps the element \( f = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(i)x^i \) which corresponds to the multiplicative function into \( \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(tk)x^i = f(k)f \). Therefore, if \( f(k) \neq 0 \) for certain \( k > 1 \), then either the projections of \( f \) onto all simple ideals different from \( I \) are not zeros, or the projection of \( f \) on \( S \) equals zero. The latter means that \( f = c\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x^i \), what contradicts the conditions \( f(0) = 0, f \neq 0 \). The theorem is proved.
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