Brun expansions, substitutions and discrete geometry

V. Berthé and T. Fernique

LIRMM, Univ. Montpellier 2, CNRS 161 rue Ada 34392 Montpellier - France, {berthe,fernique}@lirmm.fr

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Abstract. The aim of this lecture is to present a strategy for the problem of discrete plane recognition based on multidimensional continued fractions and S-adic systems. The problem of the discrete plane recognition consists in deciding whether a given set of points with integer coordinates can be described as a plane discretization. The role played respectively by words, substitutions, and classical continued fractions will be played here respectively by stepped surfaces [1], generalized substitutions [2, 4], and Brun's algorithm. We thus give a geometric interpretation of Brun's continued fraction algorithm in terms of the so-called generalized substitutions introduced by Arnoux and Ito.

1 Plane recognition

The discrete plane recognition problem can be stated as follows: given a set of points in \mathbb{Z}^d , does there exist a (standard) arithmetic discrete plane that contains them?

Let us first recall the definition of a standard arithmetic discrete plane, according to [7]. Let (e_1, \ldots, e_d) stand for the canonical basis of \mathbb{R}^d . For any $x \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ and $i \in \{1, \ldots, d\}$, we denote by (x, i^*) the following translate of a face of the unit hypercube:

$$(oldsymbol{x},i^*) = \{oldsymbol{e}_i + \sum_{j
eq i} \lambda_j oldsymbol{e}_j \mid 0 \le \lambda_j \le 1\}.$$

Then, for any non-negative non-zero vector $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d_+ \setminus \{0\}$ and $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$, we define

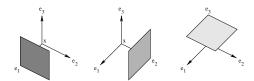


Fig. 1. The faces $(x, 1^*)$, $(x, 2^*)$ and $(x, 3^*)$ (from left to right), in the d = 3 case.

the following set of faces:

$$\mathcal{P}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha},\rho} = \{ (\boldsymbol{x}, i^*) \mid 0 \le \langle \boldsymbol{x} | \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rangle - \rho < \langle \boldsymbol{e}_i | \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rangle \},$$

where $\langle .|. \rangle$ stands for the canonical inner product. One checks that $x \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ is a vertex of $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha,\rho}$ (that is, x belongs to a face of $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha,\rho}$) if and only if it satisfies:

$$0 \le \langle \boldsymbol{x} | \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rangle - \rho < \sum_{i=1}^{d} \langle \boldsymbol{e}_i | \boldsymbol{\alpha} \rangle,$$

i.e., the set of vertices of $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha,\rho}$ is a so-called *standard arithmetic discrete hyper*plane.

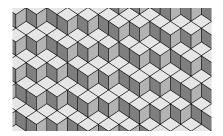


Fig. 2. A piece of a standard arithmetic discrete plane.

There exist various strategies in discrete geometry for the recognition of arithmetic discrete planes, such as described for instance in the survey [3]. The aim of this lecture is to present a strategy based on multidimensional continued fractions and S-adic systems, inspired by the one-dimensional Sturmian case. We will see that the role played respectively by words, substitutions, and classical continued fractions will be played here by stepped surfaces [1], generalized substitutions [2, 4], and Brun's algorithm.

2 Discrete lines and Sturmian words

A standard arithmetic discrete line is made of horizontal and vertical steps. One can code such a standard line by using the *Freeman code* over the two-letter alphabet $\{0,1\}$ as follows: one codes horizontal steps by a 0, and vertical ones by a 1. One thus gets a Stumian word $(u_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\in\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$.

A natural algorithm for the recognition of finite factors of Sturmian words can be obtained by desubstituting according to the two substitutions

$$\sigma_0(0) = 0$$
, $\sigma_0(1) = 10$, $\sigma_1(0) = 01$, $\sigma_1(1) = 1$,

and to the choice of the isolated letter. For more details, see, e.g., [8, 9]. Such a desubstitution/recoding process can be translated in terms of continued fraction algorithm and Ostrowski numeration.

3 Generalized substitutions

We now introduce similar objects in the higher-dimensional case.

The free group over $\{1,\ldots,d\}$ is denoted by F_d . A morphism of F_d is thus a map $\sigma: F_d \to F_d$ such that, for any u, v in F, $\sigma(uv) = \sigma(u)\sigma(v)$.

A morphism is said to be non-negative if it maps each letter of $\{1,\ldots,d\}$ to a word over $\{1,\ldots,d\}$, and it is said to be non-erasing if it does not map any letter to the empty word. Positive non-erasing morphisms are usually called substitutions. The incidence matrix M_{σ} of a morphism σ of F_d is the $d\times d$ matrix whose entry at i-th row and j-th column is the number of occurrences of the letter i in $\sigma(j)$. A morphism is said to be unimodular if its incidence matrix belongs to the linear group $GL(d,\mathbb{Z})$, that is, has determinant ± 1 . According to the formalism developed in [2,4], it is possible to associate with any unimodular morphism of the free group σ a so-called generalized substitution acting on unions of faces as follows:

$$E_1^*(\sigma)(\boldsymbol{x},i^*) = \sum_{j|\sigma(j)=pis} (M_{\sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{f}(p)),j^*) - \sum_{j|\sigma(j)=pi^{-1}s} (M_{\sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{f}(p)+\boldsymbol{e}_i),j^*).$$

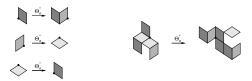


Fig. 3. Generalized substitution associated with a morphism (acting on the faces $(\mathbf{0}, i^*)$)

It is well-known that the image of a discrete plane under the action of $E_1(\sigma)^*$, when σ is a substitution, is again a discrete plane plane according to [2, 5].

Proposition 1 ([2,5]). Let σ be a unimodular substitution. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d_+$ be a nonzero vector. The generalized substitution Θ^*_{σ} maps without overlaps the discrete plane $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha,\rho}$ onto $\mathcal{P}_{{}^tM_{\sigma}\alpha,\rho}$.

We now extend the domain of definition of generalized substitutions to more general geometric objects.

A stepped surface (also called functional discrete surface) is defined as a union of pointed faces such that the orthogonal projection π onto the antidiagonal plane $(e_1 + \ldots + e_d)^{\perp}$ induces an homeomorphism from the stepped surface onto the antidiagonal plane.

One interest of this notion relies in the fact it is possible to recognize whether a set of points in \mathbb{Z}^d is contained in a stepped surface by considering only a finite neighbour of each point [6]. Furthermore, generalized substitutions act not only on stepped planes but also on stepped surfaces according to [1].

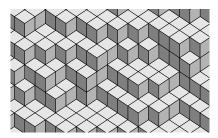


Fig. 4. A piece of a stepped surface

4 Desubstitution

The point now is to try to desubstitute according to generalized substitutions. We will use the following key property

$$E_1^*(\sigma \circ \mu) = E_1^*(\mu) \circ E_1^*(\sigma),$$

that holds for any two morphisms of the free group σ , μ , applied to an invertible substitution σ and to its inverse σ^{-1} . Consequently, desubstitution according to $E_1^*(\sigma)$ consists in the action of $E_1^*(\sigma^{-1})$.

Let σ be a unimodular substitution. A stepped surface is said to be σ -tilable if it is a union of translates of $E_1(\sigma)^*(\mathbf{0}, i^*)$, for $1 \le i \le d$. The following question is thus natural: can we desubstitute a σ -tilable stepped surface?

Theorem 1. Let σ be an invertible substitution. Let $\mathcal S$ be a σ -tilable stepped surface. We assume that there exists a non-zero vector α with non-negative entries such that $M_{\sigma}^{-1}(\alpha)$ has non-negative entries. Then, $E_1^*(\sigma^{-1})(\mathcal S)$ is a stepped surface.

Our proof is based on a geometrical approach, using the generation of functional stepped surfaces by flips. A flip is a classical notion in the study of dimer tilings and lozenge tilings associated with the triangular lattice. It consists in a local reorganization of tiles that transforms a tiling into another one. Such a reorganization can also be seen in the 3-dimensional space on the functional stepped surface itself. Suppose indeed that a functional stepped surface contains

3 faces that form the lower faces of a unit cube with integer vertices. By replacing these three faces by the upper faces of this cube, one obtains another functional stepped surface. According to [1], any functional stepped surface can be obtained from an arithmetic discrete plane by a sequence of flips, possibly infinite but locally finite, in the sense that, for any bounded neighborhood of the origin in the antidiagonal plane, there is only a finite number of flips whose domain has a projection which intersects this neighborhood.

We thus can come back via the notion of flips to the case of discrete planes. We then use the following:

Proposition 2. Let σ be a unimodular morphism of the free group. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d_+$ be a nonzero vector such that

$${}^tM_{\sigma}\alpha \geq 0.$$

Then, $E_1^*(\sigma)$ maps without overlaps the discrete plane $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha,\rho}$ onto $\mathcal{P}_{M_{\sigma}\alpha,\rho}$, that is, the stepped plane $\mathcal{P}_{\alpha,\rho}$ is σ -tilable, if and only if

$${}^tM_{\sigma^{-1}}\boldsymbol{\alpha} \geq 0.$$

5 Brun's algorithm

We will see that Proposition 2 can be reformulated in arithmetic terms, when applied to particular substitutions associated with Brun's multidimensional continued fraction algorithm.

Definition 1. The d-dimensional Brun map T is defined over $[0,1]^d \setminus \{0\}$ by:

$$T(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d) = \left(\frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_i}, \dots, \frac{\alpha_{i-1}}{\alpha_i}, \frac{1}{\alpha_i} - \left\lfloor \frac{1}{\alpha_i} \right\rfloor, \frac{\alpha_{i+1}}{\alpha_i}, \dots, \frac{\alpha_d}{\alpha_i} \right),\,$$

where i is equal to the smallest index i' such that $\alpha_{i'} = \max_i \alpha_i$.

It is convenient to provide a matrix viewpoint on Brun expansions. For $a \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i \in \{1, ..., d\}$, let us define the following $(d+1) \times (d+1)$ matrix:

$$B_{a,i} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1 \\ I_{i-1} \\ 1 & 0 \\ I_{d-i} \end{pmatrix},$$

where I_p stands for the $p \times p$ identity matrix and all the unspecified coefficients are equal to zero. Note that $B_{a,i}$ has integer entries and determinant -1, and thus belongs to the linear group $GL(d+1,\mathbb{Z})$. Consider now $\boldsymbol{\alpha}=(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_d)\in [0,1]^d\setminus\{\mathbf{0}\}$. For $i=\min\{j\mid \alpha_j=||\boldsymbol{\alpha}||_{\infty}\}$ and $a=\lfloor\alpha_i^{-1}\rfloor$, an easy computation shows that

$$(1, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = ||\boldsymbol{\alpha}||_{\infty} B_{a,i}(1, T(\boldsymbol{\alpha})),$$

where $(1, \mathbf{u}) = (1, u_1, \dots, u_n)$ for $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$. In particular, if α has Brun expansion $(a_n, i_n)_n$, this yields, for every suitable n:

$$(1, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \mu_n M_n(1, T^{n+1}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})),$$

where
$$\mu_n = ||T^0(\alpha)||_{\infty} \times \ldots \times ||T^n(\alpha)||_{\infty}$$
 and $M_n = B_{a_0,i_0} \ldots B_{a_n,i_n}$.

With each step of the algorithm, we can associate an invertible substitution $\beta_{a,i}$.

Definition 2 (Brun morphism). Let $\beta_{a,i}$ be the morphism of free group over $\{1,\ldots,d+1\}$ defined, for $a \in \mathbb{N}$ and $i \in \{1,\ldots,d\}$, by:

$$\beta_{a,i} : \begin{cases} 1 & \mapsto & 1^a(i+1) \\ (i+1) & \mapsto & 1 \\ j & \mapsto j \text{ for } j \neq 1, i+1. \end{cases}$$

It is easily checked that $\beta_{a,i}$ has incidence matrix $B_{a,i}$. In particular, $\beta_{a,i}$ is unimodular since $B_{a,i} \in GL(d+1,\mathbb{Z})$. Note that $\beta_{a,i}$ is a substitution, that is, a positive and non-erasing morphism. Let us note furthermoe that the $B_{a,i}$'s are symmetric matrices. The substitution $\beta_{a,i}$ is moreover an automorphism:

$$\beta_{a,i}^{-1} \ : \ \begin{cases} 1 & \mapsto (i+1) \\ (i+1) & \mapsto (i+1)^{-a}1 \\ j & \mapsto j \end{cases} \quad \text{ and } \quad M_{\beta_{a,i}^{-1}} = B_{a,i}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ I_{i-1} \\ 1 & -a \\ I_{d-i} \end{pmatrix}.$$

One gets

Proposition 3. For any $\alpha \in [0,1]^d \setminus \{0\}$ and $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathcal{P}_{(1,\boldsymbol{\alpha}),\rho} = E_1^*(\beta_{a,i})(\mathcal{P}_{||\boldsymbol{\alpha}||_{\infty}(1,T(\boldsymbol{\alpha})),\rho}),$$

or, equivalently:

$$E_1^*(\beta_{a,i}^{-1})(\mathcal{P}_{(1,\boldsymbol{\alpha}),\rho}) = \mathcal{P}_{||\boldsymbol{\alpha}||_{\infty}(1,T(\boldsymbol{\alpha})),\rho},$$

where
$$i = \min\{j \mid \alpha_j = ||\alpha||_{\infty}\}$$
 and $a = \lfloor \alpha_i^{-1} \rfloor$.

Thus, we can relate the action of the Brun map T on a vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ to the action of a dual map $E_1^*(\beta_{a,i}^{-1})$ on the stepped plane $\mathcal{P}_{(1,\boldsymbol{\alpha}),\rho}$. Hence, by identifying the vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ with the hyperplane with normal vector $(1,\boldsymbol{\alpha})$, it is possible to define the Brun's expansion of a discrete plane, and even of a stepped surface.

We will use here the unimodularity and the weak convergence of Brun's algorithm. The main result of our lecture is the following:

Theorem 2. If a stepped surface S has the same Brun expansion as a totally irrational vector $\alpha \in [0,1]^d \setminus \{0\}$, then it is a stepped plane of normal vector α .

We conclude this lecture by discussing the application of this theorem to the recognition problem for discrete planes.

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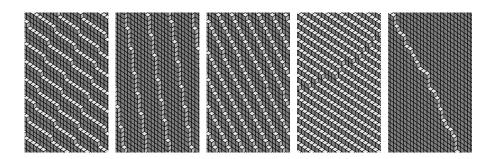


Fig. 5. An examples of Brun's expansion for a nonplane stepped surface

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