Knots as processes: knot theory embeds in the π-calculus

L.G. Meredith[1] and David F. Snyder[2]

[1] Biosimilarity
505 N72nd St, Seattle, WA 98103, USA,
`lgreg.meredith@gmail.com`
[2] Department of Mathematics
Texas State University–San Marcos
601 University Drive
San Marcos, TX 78666
`dsnyder@txstate.edu`

Abstract. We exhibit an encoding of knots into processes in the π-calculus such that knots are ambient isotopic if and only their encodings are weakly bisimilar.

1   Introduction

Recent research in concurrency theory has led to the consideration of geometric interpretations of concurrent computation such as Goubault's investigations of higher-order automata [6, 7] and Herlihy's application of homology theory [8]. The authors, exploiting a duality hidden within that framework, have switched the roles of the domains and the tool of investigation, returning to a more traditional mathematical activity of finding invariant features of spatial entities. More specifically, in this paper we use the π-calculus to construct an isotopy invariant of knots, giving a method to directly describe any given knot K as a process $[\![K]\!]_\pi$ within the π-calculus. The encoding description is dependent upon the knot presentation. Nonetheless the encoding has a nice property:

Theorem 1 (Main Theorem) *Two knots, K_0 and K_1 are ambient isotopic, written here $K_0 \sim K_1$, iff their encodings as processes are weakly bisimilar, i.e.*

$$K_0 \sim K_1 \iff [\![K_0]\!]_\pi \simeq [\![K_1]\!]_\pi$$

While this makes clear that the encoding is a strong invariant of knots up to ambient isotopy, we see a broader motivation for investigating knots from this perspective. Bisimulation has proven to be a powerful and flexible proof principle, adaptable to a wide range of situations and admitting a few significant, potent equivalence ("up-to") techniques [20, 21]. Thus, we seek to apply to topological inquiries what we have learned from the past several decades of investigation

into notions of the equivalence of computational behavior. The dual notion, laid bare here in its simplest-to-grasp context, may bear fruit in the study of the equivalence of spaces which have simplicial models.

In section 2 we give a brief review of the polyadic π-calculus, immediately following that with a review of the primary results from knot theory needed to state and prove our main theorem. Next, we introduce the intuitions behind the encoding, sketching the general shape and walking through the procedure in the case of the trefoil. We follow this with a section on the details of the encoding. This puts us in a position to state and prove the main theorem in section 6. In the penultimate section we discussion some of the results following from this method of encoding, illustrating a way to interpret knot composition as parallel composition and a way to interpret the Kauffman bracket (and hence a number of other knot invariants) in this setting. In the final section we state some conclusions and foreshadow some directions for future research.

2   The π-calculus in a nutshell

While the rapidly expanding literature on mobile process calculi is both wide and deep, unfortunately it does not as of yet offer a gentle introduction for the investigator who is not already steeped in the mathematical culture of programming language semantics. Due to space constraints we cannot rectify the situation here. We will, however attempt to provide guiding intuition where possible.

2.1   Note for mathematicians

What follows is to aid mathematicians in reading the next two sections. Since Milner's seminal paper *Functions as processes* [15] [1], process calculi are typically presented in a manner mimicking the presentation of an algebra via operators, generators and relations. The grammar generating the set of processes may be seen as a generalization of generators and the structural equivalence may be seen as the relations over the freely generated set, using the allowable operation(s). [2]

In this sense, the process calculi fit loosely into the standard zoo of algebraic structures, resembling vector spaces in the sense that they are built out of two kinds of fundamental building blocks – i.e. vector spaces are built out of scalars and vectors (and the operations amongst these) while process calculi are built out of names and processes. What principally distinguishes these calculi from classical algebraic structures is the introduction of a relation (in addition to equivalence) called *reduction* that is neither *a priori* reflexive or symmetric, representing the evolution or dynamics of a process. Thus these structures have an explicit representation of computation, unlike structures such as vector spaces where dynamics are typically described as functionals.

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[1] which title inspires this paper's.

[2] This view is somewhat non-standard from the process calculi literature where structural equivalence is really a stepping stone and the equational theories considered are built to coincide with bisimulation.

It is noteworthy that several other 'computational calculi' also admit similar algebraic presentations. The family of lambda calculi provide a canonical example, presenting: term grammar as generalized generators; alpha-equivalence as relations; and beta-reduction as the explicit account of dynamics. We submit that, by utilizing bisimulation techniques, some of these computational calculi may generally constitute an interesting mine for topological invariants. This paper provides evidence as to this last statement.

2.2 π-calculus

As mentioned above, the grammar generating the set of processes may be seen as a kind of generalized set of generators in a presentation of an algebra via generators and relations.

- summation $\qquad N ::= \Sigma_{i \in I} x_i . A_i$
- agent $\qquad A ::= F \mid C \mid (\nu\, \boldsymbol{x}) A$
- abstraction $\qquad F ::= (\boldsymbol{x}) P \mid (\nu\, \boldsymbol{x}) F$
- concretion $\qquad C ::= [\boldsymbol{x}] P \mid (\nu\, \boldsymbol{x}) C$
- process $\qquad P, Q ::= N \mid P|Q \mid X\langle \boldsymbol{y} \rangle \mid (\text{rec } X(\boldsymbol{x}).P)\langle \boldsymbol{y} \rangle \mid (\nu\, \boldsymbol{x}) P$

WHAT IS REC?

Note, we identify summation over an empty index set with the null process, 0, and prefixing with a summation over a singleton index set. We adopt vector notation, $\boldsymbol{x}$, for finite sequences of names, $x_0, ..., x_{n-1}$, and define the *arity* of sequences, $|x_0, ..., x_{n-1}| = n$, extending it in a natural way to abstractions and concretions, e.g. $|(\boldsymbol{x})P| = |\boldsymbol{x}|$.

Further, we define *pseudo-application* of an abstraction to a concretion via

$$(\boldsymbol{y})P \circ (\nu\boldsymbol{v})[\boldsymbol{z}]Q \triangleq (\nu\boldsymbol{v})(P\{\boldsymbol{z}/\boldsymbol{y}\}|Q) \tag{1}$$

provided that $\boldsymbol{y} \cap \boldsymbol{v} = \emptyset$ and $|\boldsymbol{y}| = |\boldsymbol{z}|$.
We also adopt the following standard abbreviations.

$$x?(\boldsymbol{y}).P \triangleq x.(\boldsymbol{y})P \tag{2}$$
$$x!(\boldsymbol{y}).P \triangleq x.[\boldsymbol{y}]P \tag{3}$$

We also define:

$$X(\boldsymbol{y}) := P \triangleq (\boldsymbol{y})(\text{rec } X(\boldsymbol{x}).P)\langle \boldsymbol{y} \rangle \tag{4}$$

2.3 Structural congruence

In keeping with the generalized generators and relations view espoused in 2.1, the structural congruence can be seen as the set of relations over the 'free' algebra generated by the grammar above.

Definition 1. *The* structural congruence, $\equiv$, *between processes is the least congruence closed with respect to alpha-renaming, satisfying the abelian monoid laws (associativity, commutativity and* 0 *as identity) for parallel composition as well as summation, and the following axioms:*

1. *the scope laws:*

$$(\nu\ x)0 \equiv 0,$$
$$(\nu\ x)(\nu\ x)P \equiv (\nu\ x)P,$$
$$(\nu\ x)(\nu\ y)P \equiv (\nu\ y)(\nu\ x)P,$$
$$P|(\nu\ x)Q \equiv (\nu\ x)(P|Q),\ \textit{if } x \notin \mathcal{FN}(P)$$

2. *the recursion law:*

$$(\textit{rec } X(\boldsymbol{x}).P)\langle\boldsymbol{y}\rangle \equiv P\{\boldsymbol{y}/\boldsymbol{x}\}\{(\textit{rec } X(\boldsymbol{x}).P)/X\}$$

Note that the third scoping law inspires the shorthand $(\nu\ xy) \triangleq (\nu\ x)(\nu\ y)$.

2.4 Operational semantics

Finally, we introduce of the computational dynamics through the reduction relation $\rightarrow$.

$$\frac{|F| = |C|}{x.F \mid x.C \rightarrow F \circ C} \tag{Comm}$$

In addition, we have the following context rules:

$$\frac{P \rightarrow P'}{P|Q \rightarrow P'|Q} \tag{Par}$$

$$\frac{P \rightarrow P'}{(\nu\ x)\,P \rightarrow (\nu\ x)\,P'} \tag{New}$$

$$\frac{P \equiv P' \qquad P' \rightarrow Q' \qquad Q' \equiv Q}{P \rightarrow Q} \tag{Equiv}$$

We write $\Rightarrow$ for $\rightarrow^*$.

2.5 Bisimulation

The computational dynamics gives rise to another kind of equivalence, the equivalence of computational behavior. As previously mentioned this is typically captured via some form of bisimulation. The notion we use in this paper is weak barbed bisimulation [16].

Definition 2. *An agent, B, occurs* unguarded *in A if it has an occurence in A not guarded by a prefix x. A process P is observable at x, written here $P \downarrow x$, if some agent x.A occurs unguarded in P. We write $P \Downarrow x$ if there is Q such that $P \Rightarrow Q$ and $Q \downarrow x$.*

Definition 3. *A* barbed bisimulation *is a symmetric binary relation $\mathcal{S}$ between agents such that $P \mathcal{S} Q$ implies:*

1. *If $P \rightarrow P'$ then $Q \Rightarrow Q'$ and $P' \mathcal{S} Q'$.*
2. *If $P \downarrow x$, then $Q \Downarrow x$.*

P is barbed bisimilar to Q, written $P \simeq Q$, if $P \mathcal{S} Q$ for some barbed bisimulation $\mathcal{S}$.

One of the principal advantages of this framework is the co-algebraic proof method for establishing bisimilarity between two processes: exhibit a bisimulation [21].

2.6 Linking abstractions and other process constructions

In the sequel we will find it useful to adapt some of Milner's additional process constructions, such as the one for linking abstractions. Given abstractions $F = (\boldsymbol{x})P$, and $G = (\boldsymbol{y})Q$ with $|F|, |G| \geq j$ we may compose them, gluing channels $x_{|F|-j+1}, ..., x_{|F|-1}$ to channels $y_0, ..., y_{i'+j}$ by

$$F \#_j G$$
$$\triangleq$$
$$(z_0, ..., z_{|F|+|G|-(j+1)})(F\langle z_0, ..., z_{|F|-1}\rangle | G\langle z_{|F|-j+1}, ..., z_{|F|+|G|-(j+1)}\rangle) \quad (5)$$

We may omit the subscript, $_j$, when it is clear from context. Note that the operation is associative, allowing us to write $F\#G\#H$ unambiguously.

Additionally, for an abstraction of the form, $F = (\boldsymbol{z})\Pi_{i=0}^{k} P_i\langle z_{f(i,0)}, ..., z_{f(i,n_i)}\rangle$ with f and indexing function into the formals, $\boldsymbol{z}$, of the abstraction, we write

$$F - P_j \triangleq (\boldsymbol{v})\Pi_{i=0}^{j-1} P_i\langle v_{f(i,0)}, ..., v_{f(i,n_i)}\rangle | (\boldsymbol{v})\Pi_{i=j+1}^{k} P_i\langle v_{f(i,0)}, ..., v_{f(i,n_i)}\rangle \quad (6)$$

to denote the deletion of the process P_j from the parallel composition. Thus, we have

$$F \equiv (F - P_j)\#P_j \quad (7)$$

3 Knots and their representations

In this section, we review a bit of knot theory and establish some connections useful for proving our lemmas and theorems. By a *knot*, we mean an embedding (either smooth or piecewise linear), up to isotopy equivalence, of the unit circle into three-dimensional Euclidean space. Whether two given knots are of the same isotopy class or not, and how this can be detected, is the primary interest in knot theory. Different ways of representing knots suggest different ways of approaching the fundamental question.

3.1 A short history of knot diagrams

Here we give a brief outline of those parts of the history of knot theory that are particularly relevant to this paper. It's fair to say that there are two intertwining branches in the history of knot enumeration: a geometric-combinatoric branch inspired by the work of Kirkman; and a branch inspired by Gauss' approach via codes [cite Gauss 1883] and Tait's combinatorics. The former branch contains the work of Conway and Caudron, and, more recently, Rankin et al. The latter branch contains the of Dowker-Thistlethwaite. Knot projections, a la Listing [citation], are basic to both branches.

3.2 Gauss, Listing, and knot projections

Listing [citation] had the first publication containing a mathematical approach to knot theory, extending some previous work in notes by Gauss. Listing was the first to consider the minimal crossing number of a knot and clarified the idea of a knot projection. Gauss had devised a way to read a code from a knot's projection.

A mathematical knot is a simple closed curve (for us, piecewise linear) embedded in 3-dimensional Euclidean space (in particular, there are no loose ends). If place a light at some point in space away from the knot and on the other side of the knot place a plane (so that the light source is not in the plane), then there is a shadow cast by the knot upon the plane. We will call this shadow a knot projection. If in addition we adjust the position of the light source and plane so as to achieve general position, there will be at most two points on the knot projecting to the same point on the shadow. We shall call such a knot projection a *regular knot projection*. Since we will be dealing only with regular knot projections, we drop the adjective "regular" at this point. Given a double-point in the plane, of the two points on the knot projecting to it the furthest away will be called the *overcrossing* and the other point the *undercrossing*. It is traditional when portraying a knot shadow to elide at each double point a portion of the shadow corresponding to a small arc of the knot containing the undercrossing, creating the illusion of undercrossing.

One modern version of Gauss' code is to initially label each crossing in a knot projection of n crossings with the natural numbers 1 through n (Gauss originally used alphabetical characters). Then one begins circulating at the crossing

labeled 1. As one progresses around the knot projection, write the number of each crossing as it is encountered if crossing over or write the negative number of the crossing if encountered when crossing under. This leads to an integer sequence of length $2n$, the Gauss code. In general, and of significance to us, is that one cannot in general reconstruct an equivalent knot projection from the resulting code. However, there is a minor revision of the code that corrects this by choosing the sign at the second encounter of a crossing based on its handedness.

3.3   Kirkman, Tait, and Little

Lord Kelvin's ill-fated theory of atoms based vortices gave rise to some interest in knots. Kirkman enumerated polyhedral diagrams of a certain type [10], which Tait used to give his table of alternating knots of at most 10 crossings (there was one error caught before publication, by collating his results with Little's) [23]. Little [11] [12], [13] tabulated nonalternating knots up to 10 crossings and alternating knots of 10 and 11 crossings. Conway [4], using his superior notation, later found that Little's tables contained one duplication and 11 omissions.

Tait explains his original approach:

> I was led to the consideration of the form of knots by Sir W. Thomson's Theory of Vortex Atoms, and consequently the point of view which, at least at first, I adopted was that of classifying knots by the number of their crossings; or, what comes to the same thing, *the investigation of the essentially different modes of joining points in a plane, so as to form single closed plane curves with a give number of double points.* [23]

The italics are as in the original. In Kirkman, we find the importance of *tesserace*. In any event, in these works the importance of the knot shadow as a 4-valent graph is recognized and exploited as a computational device.

In addition, Tait noticed (and named) flype equivalence of knots.

3.4   Reidemeister

K. Reidemeister found three simple, invertible operations that could be applied to a knot via its shadow that would, first, not change the ambient isotopy type of the knot and, second, were sufficient in the sense that given two ambiently isotopic knots a finite sequence of these operations would realize an ambient isotopy between them.

3.5   Conway

J. Conway [4] in a seminal paper introduced his knot notation (which we'll refer to as *knotation*) and the tangle calculus, providing a reinvigoration of the field of knot enumeration. In particular, Conway was able to do in a single afternoon (by hand!) what took Little over 6 years, an enumeration of 54 knots in [13]. Conway shows that any knot diagram can be obtained by substituting algebraic

tangles into (vertices of) "basic polyhedra" and establishes his knotation. He then develops a set of rewrite rules based upon some happy facts regarding tangles:

- there is a bijective correspondence between rational tangles and continued fractions, revealing some easy equivalences for rational tangles, including a type of "concealed" flyping;
- Tait flyping equivalence is absorbed by the knotation;
- and signs can be "garbage collected" at the end of the knotation string.

Moreover Conway describes three ways to profitably rewrite the the entire knot diagram (as opposed to its constituent tangles), though these each occur within a restricted context. The first is modeled on the third Reidemeister move and reduces the number of vertices in the basic polyhedron. The second, applicable to only actually increases the number of vertices by two, though continued fractions may apply to reduce it by 2 again. The third move, when applicable, applies

Conway's tabulations depended upon the finding of certain "basic polyhedra," 4-valent graphs upon which tangle surgery is conducted. In a way, we can view this as a discovery of (speaking roughly) "basis for a vector space of knot polyhedra," and from this a gain in efficiency of representation based in the work of Kirkman and Tait.

Conway's approach was generalized by Caudron [3]. And Bangert [1] developed a matrix notation based on a "universal polygon" type that is based upon the Conway method.

3.6   Dowker and Thistlethwaite

In the early 1980's, C. Dowker and M. Thistlethwaite [5] introduced an improved enumeration scheme based on coding of a knot projection by a finite integer sequence. This code is obviously similar in some ways to Gauss' code but took Tait's coding [23] and made it more computer-friendly and efficient. Not every possible such integer sequence specifies a not diagram, so Dowker and Thistlethwaite spend some time on determining which of their codes are realizable as knots. The detection and verification of duplicates is described elsewhere. It is possible to convert between the Dowker-Thistlethwaite (DT) code and the Gauss code (hence they carry the same information), though the DT code is more amenable to computation and for proof construction. In particular, we can get the following theorem (see [22], pp. 102-105):

Theorem 1. *A valid DT code of a prime knot specifies a unique prime knot.*

3.7   Calvo's algorithm

J.A. Calvo [2] devised an inductive procedure which allows one to sidestep the expensive step of checking validity of Dowker-Thistlethwaite codes. The trade-off is that there is considerable redundancy in the tables produced. But then

Calvo also determines the general flype structure of reduced prime alternating diagrams, and thus reduces the complexity of redundancy checking. This appears to be a recognition on the part of Calvo that one of the powers of the Conway notation was its easy incorporation of flype equivalence. The key fact to improve efficiency of Calvo's algorithm is that for a nonsplit, prime, alternating link L a graph can be constructed using flype minimal diagrams of L as vertices and connecting two vertices if they are related by a minimal flype (a flype that cannot be composed of two smaller flypes), and this graph is always an ϕ-dimensional torus lattice, where ϕ is the number of flype cycles in the link.

We refer the reader to Hoste's excellent review of classification and enumeration of knots and links [9] for a more detailed summary of Calvo's article.

3.8 Rankin, Flint and Schermann's algorithm

Rankin, Flint and Schermann [18] [19] refined Calvo's algorithm to reduce redundancy even farther. A very careful analysis of flype structure is given and then a rather sophisticated data structure is built up (group code, master code, and finally a master array). Two knot diagrams are flype equivalent if and only if they have the same master array. Again, the Hoste article [9] serves as a good guide to the original articles.

4 Reidemeister moves

There are several ways to represent a knot. The most common way of representing a knot is through a carefully chosen orthogonal projection of the knot onto a plane, where any crossing point in the resulting diagram (the knot projection) corresponds to at most two points of the knot [14]. Such a diagram is clearly not unique, as it depends on the plane projected upon. Reidemeister had the insight that isotopies of maps can be decomposed into a sequence of successive isotopies which, when projected, result in simple moves being performed upon a small region of the knot diagram. In particular, any knot projection of a knot can be obtained from any other knot projection of the same knot *via* a finite sequence of Reidemeister moves.

There are three basic Reidemeister moves that may be performed upon a knot projection, which we denote by $\Omega_1, \Omega_2, \Omega_3$. These are illustrated in the Fig. 1. Note that each move has an inverse move to "undo" it, and there is a mirror-image of each move.

Reidemeister established that two knot presentations are ambient isotopic if and only if there is a sequence of Reidemeister moves transforming one presentation to the other ([17]). This allows us to establish the following useful little lemma.

We first establish a lemma to our purposes, that shows we can clean up our knot diagram in a particularly suitable way.

Given a knot K and a diagram $D(K)$ of K, we call the application of a Reidemeister move ρ a *neatening* move if the resulting diagram $D'(K)$ has a
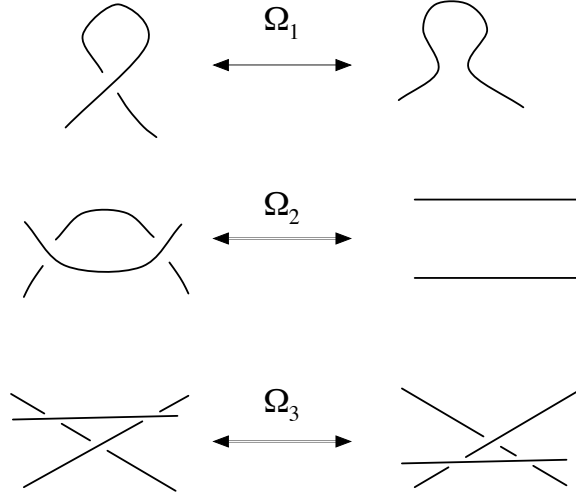
Fig. 1. The three Reidemeister moves

crossing number less than or equal to the crossing number of K i.e. any neatening move of the type Ω_1 or Ω_2 can occur in only one direction. Let $\hat{\rho} = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_n$ be a sequence of successive Reidemeister moves on the diagram $D(K)$ (with $n = 0$ being the identity move). We call $\hat{\rho}$ a *neatening isotopy* if either $n = 0$ or each ρ_i is a neatening move. If, in addition, at least one of the ρ_i is a move of type Ω_1 or Ω_2, we call $\hat{\rho}$ a *cleaning isotopy* of $D(K)$. If ρ_n is move of type Ω_1 or Ω_2, we call $\hat{\rho}$ a *concise* cleaning isotopy of $D(K)$

For a given diagram $D(K)$, the collection of all its neatening isotopies can be given a partial ordering: given neatening isotopies $\hat{\rho} = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_n$ and $\hat{\sigma} = \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_m$, we put $\hat{\rho} \leq \hat{\sigma}$ when $n \leq m$ and $\rho_i = \sigma_i$ for all $i \leq n$. This partial order restricts to the the subcollection of concise cleaning isotopies.

Lemma 1. *For any knot K and knot diagram $D(K)$, we may reduce $D(K)$ via a neatening isotopy to a diagram $D'(K)$ having the property that no neatening isotopy of $D'(K)$ is a cleaning isotopy of $D'(K)$.*

Proof. If the collection of cleaning isotopies of $D(K)$ is an empty one, then $D(K)$ is the desired diagram. So assume there is at least one cleaning isotopy of $D(K)$.

The collection of concise cleaning isotopies of $D(K)$ forms a partially ordered set. Since each concise cleaning isotopy reduces the number of crossings in the diagram by at least 1, each chain in the partially order set has length bounded by the number of crossings in $D(K)$. Select any maximal element $\hat{\rho}$ of the partially ordered set. Let $D'(K)$ be the diagram derived from $D(K)$ by applying $\hat{\rho}$.

The lemma allows us to assume without loss of generality that we are working with minimal crossing diagrams.

4.1 The Gaussian code

4.2 The Dowker-Thistlethwaite code

The Dowker-Thistlethwaite code ("DT") of a knot K is obtained as follows:

Choose a point on K and begin traversing K, counting each crossing you pass through. If K has n crossings, then (since every crossing is visited twice) the count ends at $2n$. Label each crossing with the value of the counter when it is visited (each crossing is labeled twice). Finally, when labeling a crossing with an even number, prepend with the label with a minus sign if traversing "under" the crossing. All crossings end up being labeled by a pair of integers whose absolute values run, *in toto*, from 1 to $2n$. It is easy to see that each crossing is labeled with one odd integer and one even integer. For each odd integer j between 1 and $2n - 1$ inclusive, let pairedWith(j) be the even integer with which it is paired. The DT code is the sequence $1, \text{pairedWith}(1), 3, \text{pairedWith}(3), \ldots, 2n-1, \text{pairedWith}(2n - 1)$.

5 The encoding

The guiding intuition at work in the encoding is to think of a knot diagram as representing the schematic of a signal flow. The crossings represent gates or circuits. The arcs between the crossings represent wires between the circuits. Thus, the whole encoding is really a problem in how to represent this signal flow as a process.

This problem then decomposes into representing the crossing circuits and wiring the circuits appropriately. As we will see in the sequel, the crossing circuit of the i-th crossing of a knot, K, is a process, $[\![C(i)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, u)$, parameterized in $4 + 1$ ports corresponding to the in-coming and out-going arcs between each crossing together with an additional port representing the synchronizer for letting signals 'cross over' in the gates. From this perspective, the encoding is shaped as follows.

$$[\![K]\!]_\pi = (v_0...v_{2n-1})\Pi_{i=0}^{n-1}(\nu\ u)[\![C(i)]\!]_\pi(v_{\omega(i,0)}, ..., v_{\omega(i,3)}, u) \qquad (8)$$

where n is the crossing number of K and the function $\omega : \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_{2n}$ gives the index into the list of ports, $v_0...v_{2n-1}$ used to wire the crossing circuits together in a manner consistent with the chosen knot diagram of K. In particular, $\omega(i,j)$ gives the index of the v_k to which the jth port of the ith crossing is identified. We now give an example to clarify the discussion.

5.1 Example: encoding the trefoil as a process

Before giving a formal account of the general encoding we illustrate the principle ideas by encoding the trefoil knot as a process.

The natural starting point is the process encoding of a crossing circuit. To arrive at this construction we begin by observing that a wire, $W(x_0, x_1)$, between two end-points, x_0 and x_1, is coded as the process
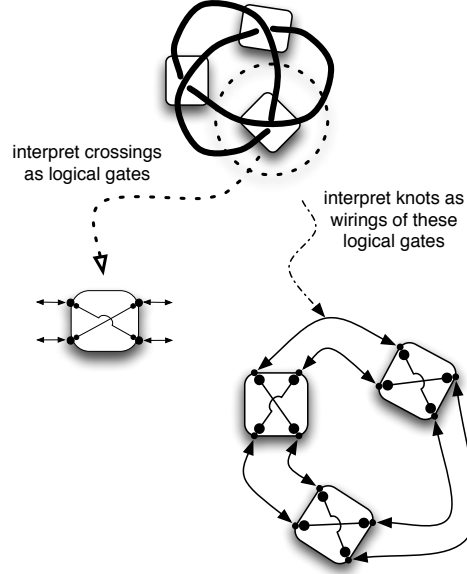
Fig. 2. The figure illustrates encoding the trefoil as a process

$$W(x_0, x_1) := x_0?(s).x_1!(s).W(x_0, x_1) + x_1?(s).x_0!(s).W(x_0, x_1) \qquad (9)$$

that receives a signal at either one of its end-points and sends it out the other and then resumes being a wire.

Next, we note that a crossing circuit will have somewhat more structure than a pair of wires between x_0 and y_1 and x_1 and y_0. In particular, it must somehow capture what it means for a wire to cross over or under. We interpret this as a synchronization. The wire crossing over is allowed to transmit the signal without waiting while the under-crossing wire must wait for an additional input on a synchronization channel. To alert the under-crossing wire that it is free to proceed, the over-crossing wire must fire off an output. Thus, a crossing circuit is coded as the following process, where x_1 and y_0 are the ports of the over-crossing wire and x_0, y_1 are the ports for the under-crossing wire (see Fig. 2).

$$\begin{aligned}
C(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, u) := {} & x_1?(s).y_0!(s).(C(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, u)|u!) \\
& + y_0?(s).x_1!(s).(C(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, u)|u!) \\
& + x_0?(s).u?.y_1!(s).(C(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, u)) \\
& + y_1?(s).u?.x_0!(s).(C(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, u)) \qquad (10)
\end{aligned}$$

Then the process encoding of the trefoil knot is essentially a parallel composition of three crossing circuits. The main property we must ensure is that the

crossing circuits are connected to each other in a way that respects the knot diagram. Additionally, we make each synchronization channel local to each crossing via a restriction on that channel.

$$\llbracket K_3 \rrbracket_\pi = (v_0...v_5)(\nu\ u_0)C(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, u_0)$$
$$|(\nu\ u_1)C(v_2, v_3, v_2, v_4, u_5)$$
$$|(\nu\ u_2)C(v_4, v_5, v_0, v_1, u_1) \tag{11}$$

The function $\omega : \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_6$ maps each port at a given crossing to one of $v_0, \ldots, v_5$. In Fig. 2 we've labeled the bottom-most crossing as crossing number $i = 0$ and counted counterclockwise from there. So for example $\omega(2,0) = v_6$, since the port into the third under-crossing (from a counterclockwise perspective at least) is fed by wire v_6.

5.2 The general encoding

As we have already seen in the example how to encode a crossing circuit, the only thing that remains is to show how to wire the crossing circuits together in a manner consistent with a knot diagram. To do this we make use of the DT code. We recognize that the (lexicographically least) DT code is only unique for prime knots. This is not really a limitation of our approach as we will demonstrate in a subsequent section.

From a DT code, $DT(K)$, of a knot K we recover a parity reversing involution $p : 2n \to 2n$, where n is the crossing number of K, as well as an ordering on the crossings.

Observe that the process encoding of the knot will consume exactly $2n$ ports for wiring up the $x0, ..., y1$ positions of the crossing circuits.

Let $C(i)$ denote the i-th crossing of K in the ordering implied by the DT code, $DT(K)$. The constraints in Fig. 3 uniquely determine a wiring of the crossing circuits, expressed in the map $\omega : n \times 4 \to 2n$, that respects the connections of the crossings. where we use $s_i(C(i))$ to denote the port used in the s_i position

$$y0(C(i)) = x0(C(i-1)) \tag{12}$$
$$y1(C(i)) = x1(C(p(i)-1)) \tag{13}$$
$$x0(C(i)) = y0(C(i+1)) \tag{14}$$
$$x1(C(i)) = y1(C(p(i)+1)) \tag{15}$$

Fig. 3. DT-constraints

of the encoding of the ith crossing and all arithmetic is mod $2n$.

This result may be derived from a small tweak to Scharein's derivation of the graph sometimes called the knot shadow from a DT code.

Remark 1. We observe that it is possible to compress considerably the expression of these constraints. Let s range over $\{x, y\}$, and define the involution $(\hat{-})$: $\{x, y\} \rightarrow \{x, y\}$ by $\hat{x} = y$, $\hat{y} = x$, and let $\chi : \{x, y\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be defined by $\chi(x) = 1$, $\chi(y) = 0$. Our constraints may be expressed by the single equation

$$s_i(C(i)) = \hat{s}_i(C(p^i(i) + (-1)^{\chi(s)+1})) \tag{16}$$

The advantage of expressing the constraints in this more compressed way is that the two 'switching conditions' are more prominently evident. Firstly, x positions are always wired to y positions. Secondly, left-hand-side ports are always wired to predecessor (respectively sucessor) crossings using the index, while right-hand-side ports are always wired to predecessor (respectively successor) crossings using p of the index.

More generally, the encoding respects the discipline that both inter- and intra-crossing wires are always x to y while inter-crossing wires take $_{-i}$ positions to $_{-i}$ positions and intra-crossing wires take $_{-i}$ positions to $_{-i+1}$ positions. In some very real sense, this discipline is the essence of what it means to cross.

6 Ambient isotopy as weak bisimilarity

Theorem 2 (main). *Two knots, K_0 and K_1 are ambient isotopic, written here $K_0 \sim K_1$, iff their encodings as processes are weakly bisimilar, i.e.*

$$K_0 \sim K_1 \iff [\![K_0]\!]_\pi \simeq [\![K_1]\!]_\pi \tag{17}$$

6.1 One direction

In this section we show that if two knots are ambient isotopic then their encodings as processes are bisimilar. Since two knot(presentation)s are ambient isotopic if and only if there is a sequence of Reidemeister moves transforming one presentation to the other ([17]), it suffices to show that the encodings of the Reidemeister moves as operations on processes preserve bisimilarity.

Lemma 2 (Reidemeister preserves bisimilarity). *For each Reidemeister move, Ω_i if $K \xrightarrow{\Omega_i} K'$ then $[\![K]\!]_\pi \simeq [\![K']\!]_\pi$.*

Encoding the Reidemeister moves We need to add a few additional processes to our toolbelt. The next one is a short-circuit. Its primary difference in behavior from a wire is that it is also willing to offer a communication on the synchronizer channel associated with a crossing circuit. As we will see this behavior is useful for composing with a crossing circuit to turn it into a wire.

$$S(x_0, x_1, u) := x_0?(s).x_1!(s).S(x_0, x_1, u) + x_1?(s).x_0!(s).S(x_0, x_1, u)$$
$$+ u!.S(x_0, x_1, u) \tag{18}$$

Ω_1 We give $[\![L(\Omega_1)]\!]_\pi$ (resp. $[\![R(\Omega_1)]\!]_\pi$), the process encodings of the left (resp. right) hand side of the Reidemeister move, Ω_1.

$$[\![L(\Omega_1)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1) := (\nu\ z_0 z_1 u_0)(S(z_0, z_1, u_0)|C(z_0, z_1, x_0, x_1, u_0)) \quad (19)$$
$$[\![R(\Omega_1)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1) := W(x_0, x_1) \quad (20)$$

It is straightforward to calculate the bisimulation that verifies

$$[\![L(\Omega_1)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1) \simeq [\![R(\Omega_1)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1) \quad (21)$$

Ω_2

$$[\![L(\Omega_2)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1) := (\nu\ z_0 z_1 u_0)(C(x_0, x_1, z_0, z_1, u_0)$$
$$|C(z_0, z_1, y_0, y_1, u_0)) \quad (22)$$
$$[\![R(\Omega_2)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1) := W(x_0, y_0)|W(x_1, y_1) \quad (23)$$

Likewise that

$$[\![L(\Omega_2)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1) \simeq [\![R(\Omega_2)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1) \quad (24)$$

is a straightforward calculation.

Ω_3

$$[\![L(\Omega_3)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, w_0, z_0) := (\nu\ u_0 v_0 w_1 z_1)(C(x_0, x_1, v_0, z_1, u_0)$$
$$|C(w_0, v_0, z_0, w_1, u_0)$$
$$|C(w_1, z_1, y_0, y_1, u_0)) \quad (25)$$
$$[\![R(\Omega_3)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, w_0, z_0) := (\nu\ u_0 v_0 w_1 z_1)(C(x_0, x_1, v_0, z_1, u_0)$$
$$|C(v_0, w_1, y_0, y_1, u_0)$$
$$|C(z_1, w_0, w_1, z_0, u_0)) \quad (26)$$
$$(27)$$

Again, straightforward, if tedious calculation will show that

$$[\![L(\Omega_2)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, w_0, z_0) \simeq [\![R(\Omega_2)]\!]_\pi(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, w_0, z_0) \quad (28)$$

Remark 2. Up to this point, when referring to the encoding of a knot as a process, we have been ignoring the fact that a given knot may have many diagrams. Because the Reidemeister moves (as operations on processes) preserve bisimilarity this ignorance can remain a blissful state.

6.2 The other direction

The intuitive argument runs as follows. Suppose K_0, K_1 such that $[\![K_0]\!]_\pi \sim [\![K_1]\!]_\pi$. For any crossing $C_i(x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1, u)$ of $[\![K_{i \bmod 2}]\!]_\pi$ there are exactly four transitions possible. W.l.o.g. we may consider only two of them: one for the over-crossing and one for the under-crossing. Of the two, only one of them (the over-crossing transition) immediately enables a transition in another crossing. Because of the DT-constraints we know that only one such crossing is so enabled, and only one of its transition is enabled. We think of this as the 'successor' crossing of the current one. Note that the DT-constraints do not determine whether the over- or under-crossing is enabled, but *eventually* (i.e. in the presence of at least two signals or pulses to the knot-process) the successor crossing enables its successor. The DT-constraints ensure that we may continue in this way visiting every crossing exactly twice.

Because $[\![K_i]\!]_\pi \sim [\![K_{i+1 \bmod 2}]\!]_\pi$, $[\![K_{i+1 \bmod 2}]\!]_\pi$ must mimick the path we have traced. Further, bisimulation is symmetric and so our argument may be run from $[\![K_{i+1 \bmod 2}]\!]_\pi$ to $[\![K_i]\!]_\pi$. Thus, the bisimulation establishes a bijection between the crossings of K_0 and K_1 that preserves the polarity (i.e. over/under relationships) and the connections between the crossings. Thus, K_0 is in the same ambient isotopy class as K_1.

7 Discussion

7.1 From prime knots to composites via parallel composition

We can compose knots in the process representation by rewiring crossings in a manner that respects the DT-constraints.

Thus if we have

$$[\![K_0]\!]_\pi = (v_0...v_{2n_0-1})\Pi_{i=0}^{n_0-1}(\nu\ u)[\![C_0(i)]\!]_\pi(v_{\omega(i,0)}, ..., v_{\omega(i,3)}, u) \qquad (29)$$

$$[\![K_1]\!]_\pi = (x_0...x_{2n_1-1})\Pi_{i=0}^{n_1-1}(\nu\ u)[\![C_1(i)]\!]_\pi(x_{\omega(i,0)}, ..., x_{\omega(i,3)}, u) \qquad (30)$$

and we want to wire $[\![C_0(k)]\!]_\pi(v_{\omega(k,0)}, v_{\omega(k,1)}, v_{\omega(k,2)}, v_{\omega(k,3)}, u_i)$ to $[\![C_1(k')]\!]_\pi(x_{\omega(k',0)}, x_{\omega(k',1)}, x_{\omega(k',2)}, x_{\omega(k',3)}, u_j)$ we can construct a new knot

$$
\begin{aligned}
[\![K_0 + K_1]\!]_\pi = &(w_0 w_1)(v_0...\widehat{v_{\omega(i,2)}}...\widehat{v_{\omega(i,3)}}..., v_{2n_0-1})(x_0...\widehat{x_{\omega(i,0)}}...\widehat{x_{\omega(i,1)}}...x_{2n_1-1}) \\
&\Pi_{i=0}^{k-1}(\nu\ u)[\![C_0(i)]\!]_\pi(v_{\omega(i,0)}, ..., v_{\omega(i,3)}, u) \\
&|\Pi_{i=k+1}^{n_0-1}(\nu\ u)[\![C_0(i)]\!]_\pi(v_{\omega(i,0)}, ..., v_{\omega(i,3)}, u) \\
&|[\![C_0(k)]\!]_\pi(v_{\omega(k,0)}, v_{\omega(k,1)}, w_0, w_1, u_i)|[\![C_1(k')]\!]_\pi(w_0, w_1, x_{\omega(k',2)}, x_{\omega(k',3)}, u_j) \\
&|\Pi_{i=0}^{k'-1}(\nu\ u)[\![C_1(i)]\!]_\pi(x_{\omega(i,0)}, ..., x_{\omega(i,3)}, u) \\
&|\Pi_{i=k'+1}^{n_1-1}(\nu\ u)[\![C_1(i)]\!]_\pi(x_{\omega(i,0)}, ..., x_{\omega(i,3)}, u) \qquad (31)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\widehat{\alpha_{\omega(a,b)}}$ denotes the deletion of that name from the sequence.

Taking advantage of the compositional nature of the encoding, and recalling equation 7 in 2.6 we see that

$$[\![K]\!]_\pi \equiv ([\![K]\!]_\pi - [\![C(j)]\!]_\pi)\#[\![C(j)]\!]_\pi \tag{32}$$

(eliding the restriction scope on $[\![C(j)]\!]_\pi$ and its arguments).

Similarly, we can provide a more compact notation for wiring two crossing circuits together.

$$[\![C_0(k)]\!]_\pi \smile [\![C_1(k')]\!]_\pi$$
$$\triangleq$$
$$(w_0 w_1)[\![C_0(k)]\!]_\pi(v_{\omega(k,0)}, v_{\omega(k,1)}, w_0, w_1, u_i)$$
$$|[\![C_1(k')]\!]_\pi(w_0, w_1, x_{\omega(k',2)}, x_{\omega(k',3)}, u_j) \tag{33}$$

allowing us to write 31 as

$$[\![K_0 + K_1]\!]_\pi$$
$$=$$
$$([\![K_0]\!]_\pi - [\![C_0(k)]\!]_\pi)\#([\![C_0(k)]\!]_\pi \smile [\![C_1(k')]\!]_\pi)\#([\![K_1]\!]_\pi - [\![C_1(k')]\!]_\pi) \tag{34}$$

This construction not only illustrates, as previously promised, that the method of encoding is not restricted to prime knots, but that there is a good conceptual fit between the domain and the representation: the notion of composition of knots lines up with a compositor, namely parallel composition, of processes. It should be mentioned in this connection that there is nothing in the proof of the main theorem that in any way depends on primality of the knots being compared.

7.2 Old invariants from new: the Kauffman bracket

We also observe that the representation is particularly natural for working with skein relations as in the Kauffman bracket. In particular, we may recursively define a function, $\langle\!\langle - \rangle\!\rangle$, taking a process, P in the image of our encoding of knots to a Laurent polynomial (the Kauffman bracket of the knot P encodes).

To make the encoding more intuitive and well-aligned with the standard definition it will be useful to add a few more items to our toolbox. First, we have the following operators on crossing circuits

$$C^{\asymp}(j) \triangleq W(v_{\omega(j,0)}, v_{\omega(j,1)})|W(v_{\omega(j,2)}, v_{\omega(j,3)})$$
$$C^{)(}(j) \triangleq W(v_{\omega(j,0)}, v_{\omega(j,2)})|W(v_{\omega(j,1)}, v_{\omega(j,3)}) \tag{35}$$

representing the two ways to wire the ports of the crossing circuit to avoid the crossing.

Next, we characterize a *cycle*, which will represent for us the class of processes corresponding to the unknot, as any process R, structurally equivalent to a process of the form $\Pi_{i=0}^{k-1} W(v_i, v_{i+1 \bmod k})$, for some k.

Then our function, $\langle\!\langle - \rangle\!\rangle$, is determined by the constraints

1.

$$\langle\!\langle (K-j) \# C(j) \rangle\!\rangle = a \langle\!\langle (K-j) \# C^{\asymp}(j) \rangle\!\rangle + a^{-1} \langle\!\langle (K-j) \# C^{)(}(j) \rangle\!\rangle \quad (36)$$

2. for any cycle, R, that
$$\langle\!\langle (v_0 ... v_{2n-1}) R \rangle\!\rangle = 1 \quad (37)$$

3.

$$\langle\!\langle (v_0 ... v_{2n-1})(P|R) \rangle\!\rangle = (-a^2 - a^{-2}) \langle\!\langle (v_0 ... v_{2n-1}) P \rangle\!\rangle \quad (38)$$

corresponding to the usual equations defining the Kauffman bracket:

1. $\langle \bowtie \rangle = a \langle \,\rangle\,\langle \,\rangle + a^{-1} \langle \asymp \rangle$

2. $\langle \bigcirc \rangle = 1$

3. $\langle L \bigsqcup \bigcirc \rangle = (-a^2 - a^{-2}) \langle L \rangle$

8 Conclusions and future work

8.1 Generalizing crossings and virtual knots

Kauffman posits an intriguing new member to the knot family by virtualizing the crossings in a knot diagram. We note that while we arrived at this encoding before becoming aware of Kauffman's work, this line of investigation is very much in line with the intuitions guiding the encoding presented here. Specifically, we see no reason why the crossing circuit cannot be any π-calculus process that respects the interface of crossing circuit presented here.

8.2 Braids and tangles

As may be seen from the encoding of the Reidemeister moves, nothing in this approach restricts it to knots. In particular, the same techniques may be lifted to braids and tangles.

8.3 Knot invariants as program invariants

To what class of programs do knots belong? Can various knot invariants be usefully employed as quick calculations of program equivalence for that class of programs?

8.4 Other calculi, other bisimulations and geometry as behavior

Of course, the astute reader may have noticed that the encoding described here is not much more than a linear notation for a minimal graph-based representation of a knot diagram. In this sense, there is nothing particularly remarkable about the representation. Though expressed in a seemingly idiosyncratic way, it's more or less the same information that any freely downloadable program for calculating knot polynomials uses routinely. What is remarkable about this representational framework is that it enjoys an *independent* interpretation as the description of the behavior of concurrently executing processes. Moreover, the notion of the equivalence of the behavior of two processes (in the image of the encoding) coincides exactly with the notion of ambient isotopy. It is the precise alignment of independently discovered notions that often indicates a phenomena worth investigating.

This line of thought seems particularly strengthened when we recall, as we did in the introduction, the π-calculus is just one of many 'computational calculi' that may be thought of as an *algebra+computational dynamics* and that virtually every such calculus is susceptible to a wide range of bisimulation and bisimulation up-to techniques. As such, we see the invariant discussed here as one of many potential such invariants drawn from these relatively new algebraic structures. It is in this sense that we see it as a new kind of invariant and is the inspiration for the other half of the title of this paper.

Finally, if the reader will permit a brief moment of philosophical reflection, we will conclude by observing that such a connection fits into a wider historical context. There is a long-standing enquiry and debate into the nature of physical space. Using the now familiar signposts, Newton's physics – which sees space as an absolute framework – and Einstein's – which sees it as arising from and shaping interaction – we see this connection as fitting squarely within the Einsteinian weltenschauung. On the other hand, we cannot help but notice that unlike the particular mathematical framework in which Einstein worked out his programme – a framework that required continuity – behavior and the implied notions of space and time are entirely discrete in this setting, built out of names and acts of communication. In this light we look forward to revisiting the now well-established connection between the various knot invariants such as the Jones polynomial and quantum groups.

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