# Chapitre 5 : Les automates cellulaires (AC) / Cellular Automata (CA)

B. Chopard et M. Droz : Cellular Automata Modeling of Physical Systems, Cambridge University Press, 1998.

http://cui.unige.ch/~chopard/CA/Animations/img-root.html

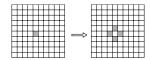
# 5.1 Définition et concepts de bases

#### What is a Cellular Automata?

- Mathematical abstraction of the real world, modeling framework
- Fictitious Universe in which everything is discrete
- But, it is also a mathematical object, new paradigm for computation
- Elucidate some links between complex systems, universal computations, algorithmic complexity, intractability.

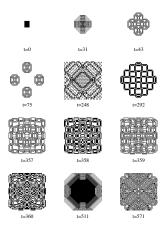
## Example : the Parity Rule

- Square lattice (chessboard)
- ▶ Possible states  $s_{ij} = 0, 1$
- ▶ Rule : each cell sums up the states of its 4 neighbors (north, east, south and west).
- ▶ If the sum is even, the new state is  $s_{ij} = 0$ ; otherwise  $s_{ij} = 1$



Generate "complex" patterns out of a simple initial condition.

# Pattern generated by the Parity Rule

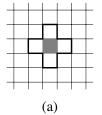


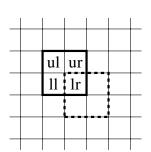
## CA Definition

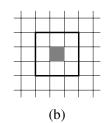
- ▶ Discrete space *A* : regular lattice of cells/sites in *d* dimensions.
- Discrete time
- Possible states for the cells: discrete set S
- Local, homogeneous **evolution rule**  $\Phi$  (defined for a neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}$ ).
- Synchronous (parallel) updating of the cells
- ▶ Tuple :  $\langle A, S, \mathcal{N}, \Phi \rangle$

# Neighborhood

- von Newmann
- Moore
- Margolus
- **...**







## Boundary conditions

The inital condition is also to be specified

adiabatic

reflection

## Generalization

- Stochastic CA
- Asynchronous update : loss of parallelism, but avoid oscillations
- Non-uniform CA

## Stochastic CA

We apply different rules with given probabilities. For instance

$$s_i(t+1) = \left\{egin{array}{ll} \Phi_1(s_{i-1}(t),s_i(t),s_{i+1}(t)) & ext{with probability } p \ \Phi_2(s_{i-1}(t),s_i(t),s_{i+1}(t)) & ext{with probability } 1-p \end{array}
ight.$$

This could be reformulated as a standard CA as

$$s_i(t+1) = \begin{cases} \Phi_1(s_{i-1}(t), s_i(t), s_{i+1}(t)) & \text{if } b_i(t) = 1 \\ \Phi_2(s_{i-1}(t), s_i(t), s_{i+1}(t)) & \text{if } b_i(t) = 0 \end{cases}$$
  
 $b_i(t+1) = \Phi_3(b_{i-1}(t), b_i(t), b_{i+1}(t))$ 

where  $\Phi_3$  is a CA rules that produces **random bits** (see examples below)

## Asynchronous CA

The update of the cells are not done all at the same time as done in the norlal case (parallel or synchronous updating)
Sequential updating:

$$s_1(t+1) = \Phi(s_n(t), s_1(t), s_2(t))$$
  
 $s_2(t+1) = \Phi(s_1(t+1), s_2(t), s_3(t))$   
 $s_3(t+1) = \dots$ 

A random sequential updating is desirable, though.

A random sequential updating can be reformulated as a standard CA

$$egin{array}{lll} s_i(t+1) &=& \left\{ egin{array}{lll} \Phi(s_{i-1}(t),s_i(t),s_{i+1}(t)) & ext{if } b_i(t)=1 \ & s_i(t) & ext{if } b_i(t)=0 \end{array} 
ight. \ b_i(t+1) &=& \left\{ egin{array}{lll} 1 & ext{with probability } p \ 0 & ext{with probability } 1-p \end{array} 
ight. \end{array}$$

#### non-uniform CA

The rule is not unique for all cells. For instance, some cells are updated with rule  $\Phi_1$ , others with rule  $\Phi_2$ .

$$s_i(t+1) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \Phi_1(s_{i-1}(t), s_i(t), s_{i+1}(t)) & ext{if } i \in A \ \Phi_2(s_{i-1}(t), s_i(t), s_{i+1}(t)) & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

can be expressed as a standard CA as

$$s_i(t+1) = b_i(t)\Phi_1 + (1-b_i(t))\Phi_2$$
  
 $b_i(t+1) = b_i(t)$ 

And  $b_i(t=0)$  are such that  $b_i(0)=1$  if  $i\in A$  and  $b_i(0)=0$  otherwise.

## Implementation of the evolution rule

#### Lookup table

## On-the-fly calculation

$$s_{ij}(t+1) = s_{i-1,j}(t) + s_{i+1,j}(t) + s_{i,j-1}(t) + s_{i,j+1}(t) \mod 2$$

0000	0
0001	1
0010	1
0011	0
0100	1
0101	0
0110	0
0111	1
1000	1
1001	0
1010	0
1011	1
1100	0
1101	1
1110	1
1111	0

# Number of possible rules

There is a finite number of "possible universes:"

- ▶ Let m be the number of states per cell and k the number of neighbors.
- There are  $m^k$  configurations of the neighborhood (16 in the previous paage)
- ► For each of them, there are *m* possible values for the rule (2 in the previous example).
- ▶ Therefore there are  $m^{m^k}$  possible rules

#### Historical notes

- Origin of the CA's (1940s): John von Neumann and S. Ulam
- Design a better computer with self-repair and self-correction mechanisms
- Simpler problem : find the logical mechanisms for self-reproduction :
- ▶ Before the discovery of DNA : find an algorithmic way (transcription and translation)
- Formalization in a fully discrete world
- Automaton with 29 states, arrangement of thousands of cells which can self-reproduce
- Universal computer

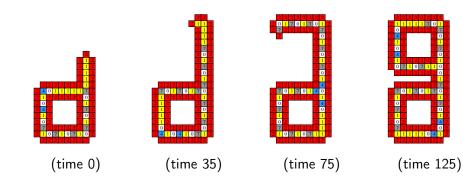
# Langton's CA

Christopher G. Langton, Physica 10D (1984) 135-144

- Simplified version (8 states).
- Not a universal computer
- Structures with their own fabrication recipe
- Using a reading and transformation mechanism

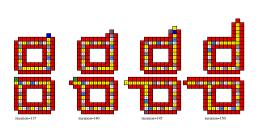
Demo: C++/Langton/langton 300 300 800 801

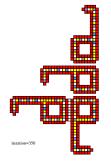
# Langton's CA: basic cell replication



Animation step by step Lookup table

# Langton's Automaton : spatial and temporal evolution





iteration 600



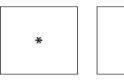
# Langton's CA: some conclusions

- Not a biological model, but an algorithmic abstraction
- Reproduction can be seen from a mechanistic point of view (Energy and matter are needed)
- No need of a hierarchical structure in which the more compicated builds the less complicated
- Evolving Hardware.

## 5.2 CA as a mathematical abstraction of reality

- Several levels of reality : macroscopic, mesoscopic and microscopic.
- ► The macroscopic behavior depends very little on the details of the microscopic interactions.
- Only "symmetries" or conservation laws survive. The challenge is to find them.
- Invent a fictitious world, with its own microscopy, and particularly easy to simulate on a (parallel) computer, with the desired macroscopic behavior.
- ► Simple, flexible, intuitive, efficient

# A Caricature of reality

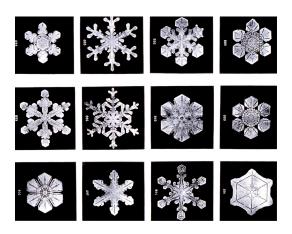






What is this?

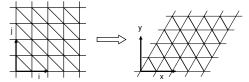
# The real thing



Wilson Bentley, From Annual Summary of the "Monthly Weather Review", 1902.

## Snowflakes model

- Very rich reality, many different shapes
- Complicated true microscopic description
- Yet a simple growth mechanism can capture some essential features
- A vapor molecule solidifies (→ice) if one and only one already solidified molecule is in its vicinity
- Growth is constrained by 60° angles



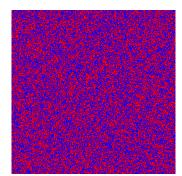
## 5.3 Examples of CA rules

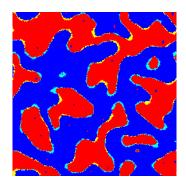
Cooperation models: annealing rule

- Growth model in physics : droplet, interface, etc
- Biased majority rule : (almost copy what the neighbors do)

#### Rule:

 $sum_{ij}(t)$  0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  $s_{ii}(t+1)$  0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1





## Cells differentiation in drosophila

In the embryo all the cells are identical. Then during evolution they differentiate

- ▶ slightly less than 25% become neural cells (neuroblasts)
- ▶ the rest becomes body cells (epidermioblasts).

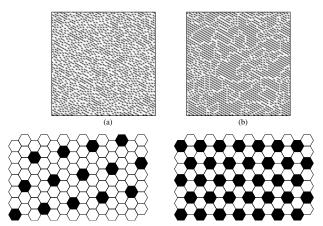
#### Biological mechanisms:

- ▶ Cells produce a substance S (protein) which leads to differentiation when a threshold  $S_0$  is reached.
- ▶ Neighboring cells inhibit the local *S* production.

# CA model for a competition/inhibition process

- ► Hexagonal lattice
- ► The values of S can be 0 (inhibited) or 1 (active) in each lattice cell.
- ▶ A S = 0 cell will grow (i.e. turn to S = 1) with probability  $p_{grow}$  provided that all its neighbors are 0. Otherwise, it stays inhibited.
- A cell in state S=1 will decay (i.e. turn to S=0) with probability  $p_{anihil}$  if it is surrounded by at least one active cell. If the active cell is isolated (all the neighbors are in state 0) it remains in state 1.

## Differentiation: results



The two limit solutions with density 1/3 and 1/7, respectively.

- ► CA produces situations with about 23% of active cells, for almost any value of p<sub>anihil</sub> and p<sub>growth</sub>.
- Model robust to the lack of details, but need for hexagonal cells

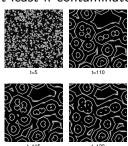


# Excitable Media, contagion models

- ➤ 3 states : (1) normal (resting), (2) excited (contagious), (3) refractory (immuned)
  - 1. excited  $\rightarrow$  refractory
  - 2. refractory $\rightarrow$  normal
  - 3. normal  $\rightarrow$  excited, if there exists excited neighbors (otherwise, normal  $\rightarrow$  normal).

# Greenberg-Hastings Model

- ►  $s \in \{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\}$
- ▶ normal : s = 0; excited s = 1, 2, ..., n/2; the remaining states are refractory
- contamination if at least k contaminated neighbors.



# Belousov-Zhabotinski (tube worm)

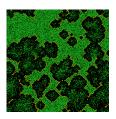
The state of each site is either 0 or 1; a local timer with values 0, 1, 2 or 3 controls the 0 period.



- (i) where the timer is zero, the state is excited;
- (ii) the timer is reset to 3 for the excited sites which have two, or more than four, excited sites in their Moore neighborhood.
- (iii) the timer is decreased by 1 unless it is 0;

## Forest fire

- a burning tree becomes an empty site;
- (2) a green tree becomes a burning tree if at least one of its nearest neighbors is burning;
- (3) at an empty site, a tree grows with probability *p*;
- (4) A tree without a burning nearest neighbor becomes a burning tree during one time step with probability f (lightning).



#### Other rules:

#### Random

$$C(t+1) = [S(t) \text{ and } E(t)] \text{ xor } W(t) \text{ xor } N(t) \text{ xor } C(t)$$

#### time-tunnel

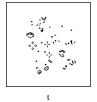
$$\mathsf{Sum}(t) = S(t) + E(t) + W(t) + N(t) + C(t)$$
 $C(t+1) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} C(t-1) & \mathsf{if Sum}(t) \in \{0,5\} \ 1 - C(t-1) & \mathsf{if Sum}(t) \in \{1,2,3,4\} \end{array} 
ight.$ 

http://cui.unige.ch/~chopard/CA/Animations/img-root.html

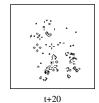
## 5.4 Complex systems

#### Rule of the Game of Life:

- Square lattice, 8 neighbors
- (0/1)
- ▶ Birth if exactly 3 living neighbors
- ► Cells are dead or alive ► Death if less than 2 or more than 3 neighbors

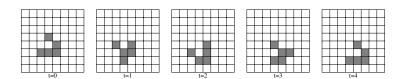






# Complex Behavior in the game of life

Collective behaviors develop (beyond the local rule) "Gliders" (organized structures of cell) can emerge and can move collectively.



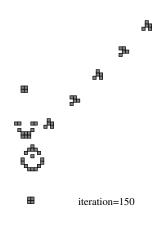
# Complex Behavior in the game of life

## A glider gun



- ► A *glider gun* is a structure that keeps creating gliders
- There are more complex structures with more complex behavior: a zoology of organisms.
- The game of life is a *Universal* computer

Animation step by step



## Universal computer

Being a universal computer, the game of life can be used to program any calculable function. There are many examples on Internet, including the calculation of prime numbers. The following link gives another example:

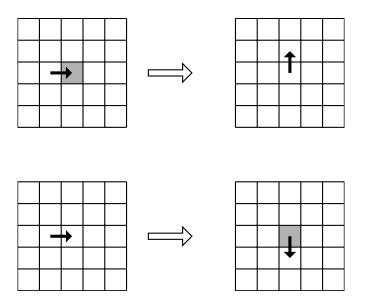
The following link gives another example:

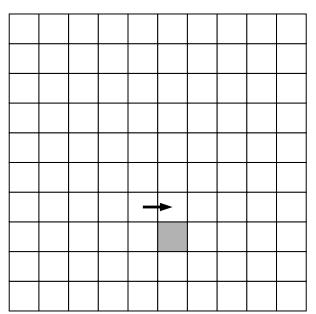
#### A clock made out of the game of life rules

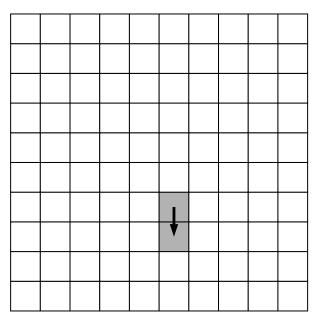
https://codegolf.stackexchange.com/questions/88783/build-a-digital-clock-in-conways-game-of-life

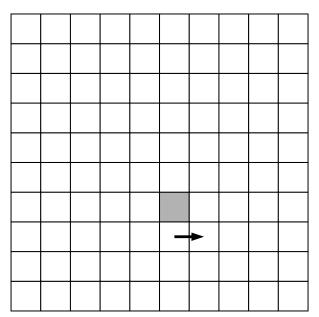
# La fourmi de Langton

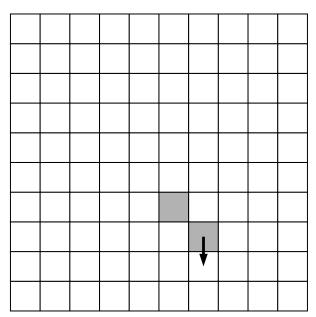
C'est un animal hypothétique qui se déplace sur un réseau en 2D, en fonction de règles simples, qui dépendent de la «couleur» des cases sur laquelle elle se trouve.

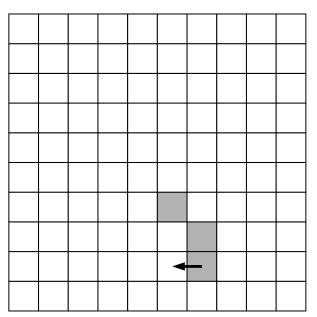


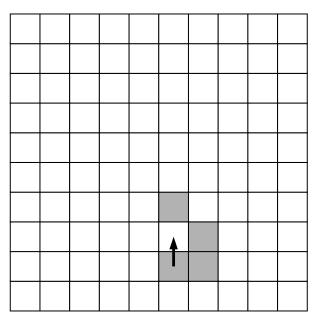


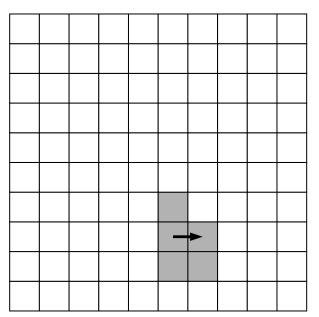


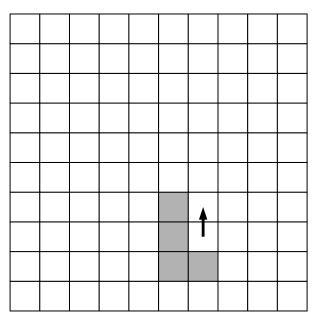


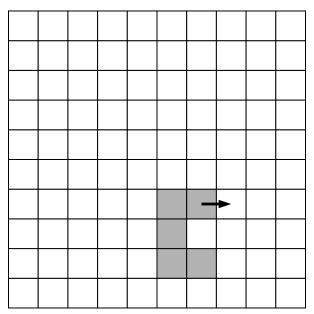












#### Où va la fourmi, finalement?

Animation C++/Ant-Langton ./ant 100 100 11600



# Où va la fourmi, finalement?



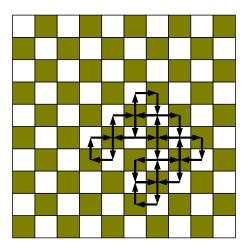






#### La fourmi s'échappe toujours à l'infini



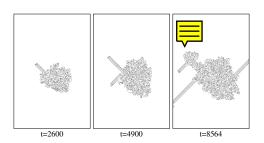


Quelque soit la distribution des cases blanches et grises.

#### What about many ants?

- Adapt the "change of color" rule
- Cooperative and destructive effects

- The trajectory can be bounded or not
- Past/futur symmetry explains periodic motion



On connait parfaitement la loi fondamentale du système

- On connait parfaitement la loi fondamentale du système
- ...car on l'a construit nous même!

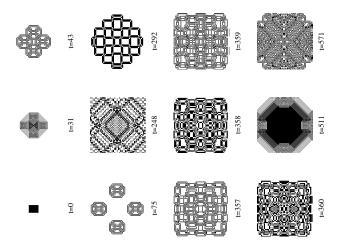
- On connait parfaitement la loi fondamentale du système
- ...car on l'a construit nous même!
- Mais on ne sait pas pour autant prédire les détails du mouvement (p. ex. à quel moment une autoroute apparaît)

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- Le microscopic n'est pas toujours capable de prédire le macroscopique.

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- Mais on ne sait pas pour autant prédire les détails du mouvement (p. ex. à quel moment une autoroute apparaît)
- ► Le microscopic n'est pas toujours capable de prédire le macroscopique.
- ► Seule solution : **observer** le système.

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- Le microscopic n'est pas toujours capable de prédire le macroscopique.
- Seule solution : observer le système.
- Les seules informations sur la trajectoire globale sont le reflet des symétries de la règle

## Parfois on peut être plus efficace que simplement observer



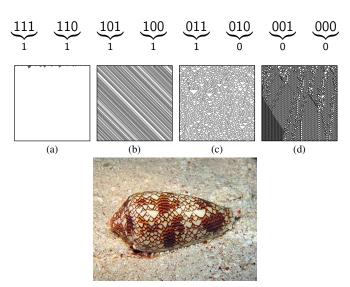
#### Parfois on peut être plus efficace que simplement observer



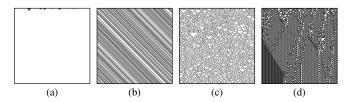
After  $2^k$  iterations, the pattern is the superposition of the initial pattern shifted by k cells in each of the four directions. Therefore one can compute the pattern at iteration t in  $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \log t)$  operations instead of  $\mathcal{O}(n^2 t)$  for the simulation.

#### Wolfram's rules

256 one-dimensional, 3 neighbors Cellular Automata :



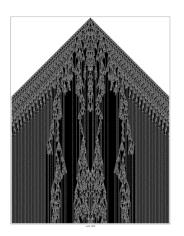
#### Wolfram's rules : complexity classes



- Class I Reaches a fixed point
- Class II Reaches a limit cycle
- ► Class III self-similar, chaotic attractor
- Class IV unpredicable persistent structures, irreducible, universal computer

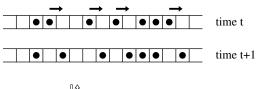
Note: it is **undecidable** whether a rule belongs or not to a given class.

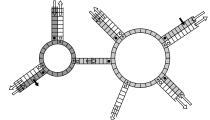
## Wolfram's rules: 1D, 5 neighbors



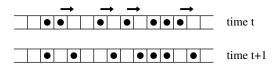
#### 5.5 Traffic Models

A vehicle can move only when the downstream cell is free.





#### Evolution rule (rule 184)



$$\underbrace{111}_{1} \quad \underbrace{110}_{0} \quad \underbrace{101}_{1} \quad \underbrace{100}_{1} \quad \underbrace{011}_{1} \quad \underbrace{010}_{0} \quad \underbrace{001}_{0} \quad \underbrace{000}_{0}$$

$$n_i(t+1) = n_i(t) \times n_{i+1} + (1 - n_i(t)) \times n_{i-1}(t)$$

There are also multi-speed models.

#### Physical quantities: car density

The car density at time t on a road segment of length L is defined as

$$\rho(t) = \frac{N(t)}{L}$$

where N is the no of cars along L

#### Physical quantities: velocity and flow

The average velocity  $\langle v \rangle$  at time t on this segment is defined as

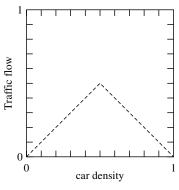
$$< v > = \frac{M(t)}{N(t)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i$$

where M(t) is the number of car moving at time t

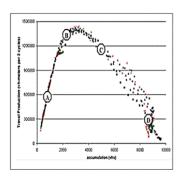
The traffic flow j is defined as

$$j = \rho < v >$$

#### Fundamental Flow diagram



rule 184



# Macroscopic Fundamental Diagram for San-Francisco

N. Geroliminis, and C. Daganzo, "Existence of urban - scale macroscopic fundamental diagrams: Some experimental findings," Transportation Research Part B42, issue 9, (2008). pp 759 - 770.

#### Fundamental Flow diagram: another case

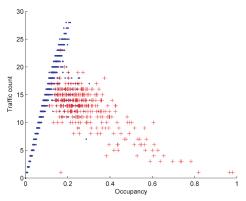


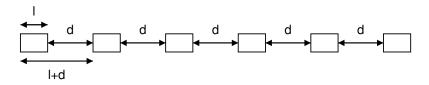
FIGURE 5 Split of observations. Dots indicate free flow; plus signs indicate congested flow.

J. Li, 1001 Ghausi Hall, and H. M. Zhang (2001). Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board, No. 2260, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies,

DOI: 10.3141/2260-0

#### A more general numerical model

Let us assume cars of lenght  $\ell$ , each separated by a distance d (head-tail distance).



The density  $\rho$  is defined as the number of cars per meter occupied on the road, namely

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\ell + d} \quad \left[\frac{1}{m}\right]$$

The maximum density is  $\rho_{max}=1/\ell$ , when d=0.

#### Car speed depends of d

Let is further assume that the car velocity is proportional to d

$$v = \gamma d$$

( $\gamma = 0.5$  to have 2 seconds between cars, with v and d expressed in m/s and m, respectively).

We assume that there is a maximum velocity  $v_{max}$  (speed limit for instance) and that cars try to drive as fast as possible, only limited by  $v_{max}$  and d.

At speed  $v_{max}$  the distance d should be larger than  $d_{max}$  defined as

$$d_{max} = rac{v_{max}}{\gamma}$$

## Free flow : $\rho \le \rho_c$

If d is large,  $d \geq d_{max} = v_{max}/\gamma$ , cars will drive at maximum speed. This corresponds to a car density

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\ell + \textit{d}} \leq \rho_{\textit{c}} \equiv \frac{1}{\ell + \textit{d}_{\textit{max}}} = \frac{1}{\ell + \frac{\textit{v}_{\textit{max}}}{\gamma}}$$

where  $\rho_c$  is the critical density

Thus, for  $\rho \leq \rho_c$  cars can drive at speed  $v_{max}$ , and the flow j is

$$j = \rho v = \rho v_{max}$$

and

$$j_{max} = 
ho_{c} v_{max} = rac{v_{max}}{\ell + rac{v_{max}}{\gamma}} \quad 
ightarrow \quad \gamma$$



## Congested regime : $\rho \ge \rho_c$

For car densities  $\rho \geq \rho_c$  the velocity v is limited by the distance d which is obtained from

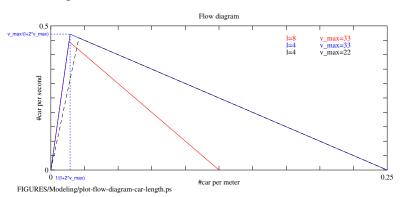
$$\rho = \frac{1}{\ell + d} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad d = \frac{1 - \ell \rho}{\rho}$$

Then the flow is

$$j = 
ho extbf{v} = 
ho \gamma extbf{d} = 
ho \gamma rac{1 - \ell 
ho}{
ho} = \gamma (1 - \ell 
ho)$$

#### Fundamental flow diagram

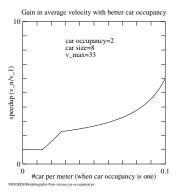
Let us now take  $v_{max}=33m/s=120km/h$ ,  $\gamma=0.5$  and consider cars of lenght  $\ell=8m$  and  $\ell=4m$ .



### Increase the number of passengers per car

Instead of 1 passenger per car, let us consider the case of car pooling. With n passengers per car, one reduces  $\rho$  by a factor n. The velocity for single occupation is

$$v_1(
ho) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} v_{max} & ext{if } 
ho \leq 
ho_c = rac{1}{\ell + v_{max}/\gamma} \ \gamma rac{1 - \ell 
ho}{
ho} & ext{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

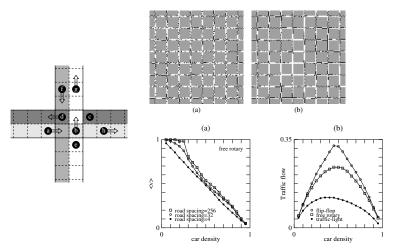


With

$$v_n(\rho) = v_1(\rho/n)$$

the speedup is defined as  $v_n(\rho)/v_1(\rho)$  and it indicates the reduction of the travel time.

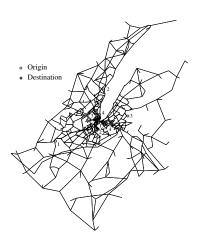
## Traffic in a Manhattan-like city



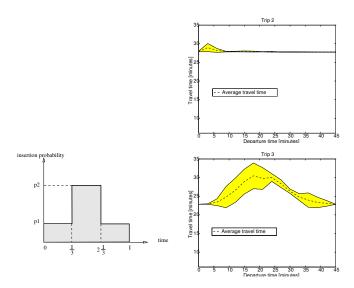
http://cui.unige.ch/~chopard/CA/Animations/img-root.html

# Case of the city of Geneva

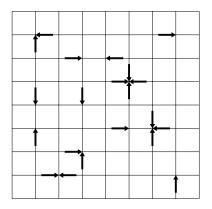
- ▶ 1066 junctions
- ➤ 3145 road segments
- ▶ 560886 road cells
- ▶ 85055 cars



# Travel time during the rush hour

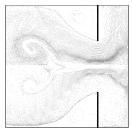


# 5.6 Lattice gases – Gaz sur Réseau



#### Gaz sur réseau

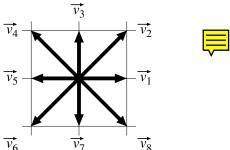
- C'est un AC qui modélise un fluide (ou un gaz) par la dynamique de particules discretes se déplaçant sur un réseaux
- ► LGA : Lattice Gas automata
- Dynamique moléculaire entièrement discrètes
- Particules idéalisée, à une échelle mésoscopique : les détails microscopiques sont simplifiés, mais effet collectif d'un fluide



#### Gaz sur réseau

- ➤ On peut montrer rigoureusement l'équivalence de ce type de modèle avec le comportement d'un vrai fluide.
- ► On parle de CA-fluid ou LGA-fluid
- On peut aussi représenter des processus de diffusion, réaction chimique, advection, etc.
- Les modèles de Boltzmann sur réseau vont généraliser cette méthode

### Description

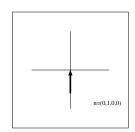




- les particules ont un nombre fini de vitesses possibles, v<sub>i</sub>
- $\triangleright$  Elle sont telles qu'en un pas de temps  $\Delta t$  de l'AC, elles sautent sur un autre site du réseau, parcourant typiquement une distance  $\Delta x$ .
- le choix des v; est fortement lié au choix du réseau sous-jacent puisque  $r + \Delta t v_i$  doit être un site du réseau

## Description





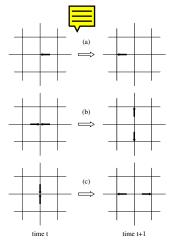
- L'état de chaque site (cellule) r est décrit par des «nombres d'occupation»  $n_i(r, t)$
- $n_i(r, t) = 1$  signifie qu'une particule *entre* dans le site r au temps t avec vitesse  $v_i$ .
- $ightharpoonup n_i = 0$  signifie l'absence d'une particule entrante par ce canal
- $ightharpoonup n = (n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4)$

## Principe d'exclusion

- ▶  $n_i \in \{0,1\}$  est un booléen : au max 1 particule par site et par direction.
- Un nombre fini de bit est donc suffisant pour décrire l'état du système

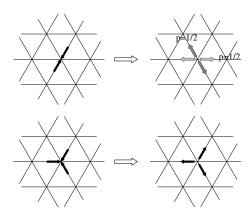
## Example: HPP model collision rules

- ► HPP : Hardy, Pomeau, de Pazzis, 1971 : kinetic theory of point particles on the D2Q4 lattice
- ► FHP: Frisch, Hasslacher and Pomeau, 1986: first LGA reproducing a (almost) correct hydrodynamic behavior (Navier-Stokes eq.)



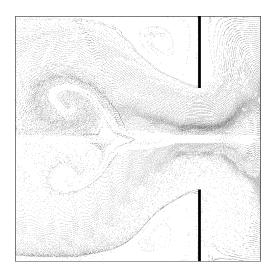
Exact mass and momentum conservation : that is what really matters for a fluid!!!

### FHP model



Stochastic rule with Conservation of mass and momentum.

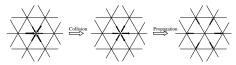
# Flow past an obstacle (FHP)



# Microdynamics of LGA

It consists of two steps. We define  $n_i^{in}=n_i$  and  $n_i^{out}$  to better specify them

- ► Collision step: The quantities  $n_i^{in}$  "collide" locally. Particles are deviated and new values  $n_i^{out}$  are computed at each lattice site, according to a pre-defined collision operator  $\Omega_i(n)$
- **Propagation step**: The quantitiy  $n_i^{out}(r)$  is sent to the neighboring site along lattice direction  $v_i$ .



# Microdynamics of LGA

#### In formula, we get

- collision :  $n_i^{out}(\mathbf{r}, t) = n_i^{in}(\mathbf{r}, t) + \Omega_i(n^{in}(\mathbf{r}, t))$
- ▶ propagation :  $n_i^{in}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{v}_i \Delta t, t + \Delta t) = n_i^{out}(\mathbf{r}, t)$

where  $\Delta t$  carries the time units and  $v_i$  has the unit of a velocity.

Particles traveling in direction  $v_i$  will reach lattice site  $r + v_i$ , still with the same velocity  $v_i$ .

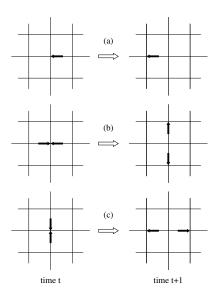
## Microdynamics of LGA

The above formula reflects how the LGA microdynamics is implemented in a computer. But mathematically, one can combine the collision and propagation steps into :

$$n_i({f r}+{f v}_i\Delta t,t+\Delta t)=n_i({f r},t)+\Omega_i(n({f r},t)$$
 where  $n_i\equiv n_i^{in}$ 

Note : if  $\Omega_i = 0$ , we obtain a free particle motion

# HPP model



#### Admitted velocities

$$\label{eq:v1} \begin{array}{ccc} v_1 = (1,0), & v_2 = (0,1), & v_3 = (-1,0) & v_4 = (0,-1) \\ \\ & \text{Microdynamics}: \end{array}$$

$$n_i^{out} = n_i$$

#### Admitted velocities

$$\label{eq:v1} \begin{array}{ccc} v_1 = (1,0), & v_2 = (0,1), & v_3 = (-1,0) & v_4 = (0,-1) \\ \\ & \text{Microdynamics}: \end{array}$$

$$n_i^{out} = n_i - n_i n_{i+2} (1 - n_{i+1}) (1 - n_{i+3})$$

#### Admitted velocities

$$\label{eq:v1} \begin{array}{ccc} v_1 = (1,0), & v_2 = (0,1), & v_3 = (-1,0) & v_4 = (0,-1) \\ \\ & \text{Microdynamics}: \end{array}$$

$$n_i^{out} = n_i$$

$$-n_i n_{i+2} (1 - n_{i+1}) (1 - n_{i+3})$$

$$+n_{i+1} n_{i+3} (1 - n_i) (1 - n_{i+2})$$

#### Admitted velocities

$$\label{eq:v1} \begin{array}{ccc} v_1 = (1,0), & v_2 = (0,1), & v_3 = (-1,0) & v_4 = (0,-1) \\ \\ & \text{Microdynamics}: \end{array}$$

$$n_i^{out} = n_i$$

$$-n_i n_{i+2} (1 - n_{i+1}) (1 - n_{i+3})$$

$$+n_{i+1} n_{i+3} (1 - n_i) (1 - n_{i+2})$$

and

$$n_i(\mathbf{r}) = n_i^{out}(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{v}_i)$$

### Mass and momentum conservation

The incoming mass is

$$\rho^{in}(\mathbf{r},t) = \sum_{i} n_{i}^{in}(\mathbf{r},t)$$

the outgoing mass is

$$ho^{out}(\mathbf{r},t) = \sum_i n_i^{out}(\mathbf{r},t)$$

It is easy to check that the HPP collision rule is such that

$$\rho^{in}(\mathbf{r},t) = \rho^{out}(\mathbf{r},t)$$

Similarly, momentum is the defined as

$$j(\mathbf{r},t) \equiv \rho(\mathbf{r},t)\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{r},t) = \sum_{i} v_{i}n_{i}(\mathbf{r},t)$$

and it is easy to show that HPP conserves it during collision

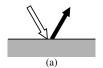
#### **Demos**

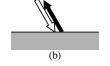
- Pressure/density wave : aniotropy
- Reversibility
- Spurious invariants : momentum along each line and column, checkerboard invariant
- ▶ Diffusion, DLA, reaction-diffusion models

### Some demos

- ► Sound wave propagation for FHP
- ► Snow transport by wind

## Boundary conditions







(a) Specular reflection, (b) bounce back condition and (c) trapping wall condition

The **Bounce Back rule** implements a no-slip condition. It is the most common choice :

$$n_i^{out} = n_{-i}^{in}$$