

Zeno Squeezing of Cellular Automata

Martin Schaller* and Karl Svozil†

February 26, 2013

Abstract

We have recently introduced the two new computing models of self-similar cellular automata and self-similar Petri nets. Self-similar automata result from a progressive, infinite tessellation of space and time. Self-similar Petri nets consist of a potentially infinite sequence of coupled transitions with ever increasing firing rates. Both models are capable of hypercomputations and can, for instance, “solve” the halting problem for Turing machines. We survey the main definitions and propositions and add new results regarding the indeterminism of self-similar cellular automata.

1 Introduction

Self-similar cellular automata are closely related to cellular automata, a class of dynamical systems characterized by discreteness in space, time, state values, determinism, and local interaction (see e.g., [Gut91]). A cellular automaton is an infinite lattice of finite automata, each linked with its neighboring automata, whose underlying space-time structure results from a uniform tessellation of space and time. In contrast, the underlying space-time structure of a self-similar automaton is based on a progressive tessellation of space and time, the very same tessellation that Zeno considered in his paradox of the runner that cannot reach the end of a racecourse (see e.g., [Sal01]). Whereas all cells in a one-dimensional cellular automaton are updated synchronously, a cell in a self-similar cellular automaton is updated twice as often as its left neighbor. On the one hand, this modification results in completely new capabilities; for instance, there exist self-similar cellular automata that are capable of hypercomputing. On the other hand, new paradoxes arise; for instance, the evolution of a self-similar cellular automaton that involves an infinite number of steps might lead to indeterminism.

The carry-over of the self-similar cellular automaton model to the theory of Petri nets (see, e.g., [Mur89]) yields self-similar Petri nets. They are equivalent

*Algorithmics, Parkring 10, 1010 Vienna, Austria. EMail: martin.schaller@acm.org

†Institut für Theoretische Physik, University of Technology Vienna, Wiedner Hauptstraße 8-10/136, A-1040 Vienna, Austria. EMail: svozil@tuwien.ac.at

to self-similar cellular automata for a finite number of calculation steps, but differ in the infinite case. Self-similar Petri nets avoid the indeterminism of self-similar cellular automata by halting in the infinite case.

There are several aspects that make both self-similar cellular automata as well as self-similar Petri nets interesting. Both are extending Zeno's original paradox, leading to a new class of supertasks (see e.g., [EN96]).

Another notable aspect is the hypercomputing capabilities of both models, both of them are capable of working as right-accelerated Turing machines [SS09], which is a subclass of accelerated Turing machines (see e.g., [Ord06]). Both computing models result from a composition of very basic building blocks — either finite automata or Petri net transitions — and thus demonstrate that it is at least conceptually possible to build hypercomputers based on those simple building blocks.

Since the two models differ in the infinite limit, the parallelism of both models brings a new twist to Zeno's paradox, raising new questions about causality and the ontological structure of space and time.

The physical plausibility of accelerated Turing machines, supertasks, and Zeno-like processes, is discussed elsewhere (see, e.g., [Svo98]). Originally conceived as a means to demonstrate self-reproduction capabilities in a universal computing environment by von Neumann [vN66], the idea of perceiving the physical universe as cellular automaton goes back to Zuse [Zus67] and was developed further by other researchers [Fre90, TM90, Wol02]. Cellular automata based on other tessellations than the uniform grid were studied in [MM99]. Hypercomputing is a fast growing field (see, e.g., [Ord06]), despite criticism related to the methodology and the classification of what should be considered a valid computing process [Dav04, Dav06, Pot06].

In particular, Newtonian mechanics facilitates the construction of hypercomputers. Davies [Dav01] describes in some detail how to build an accelerated Turing machine within a Newtonian universe. For other approaches within Newtonian mechanics, see [BT06, Svo07].

As already mentioned, both self-similar cellular automata as well as self-similar Petri nets have been introduced in [SS09]. We survey the main definitions and results and add some further properties of self-similar cellular automata.

The article is organized as follows. Section 2 defines self-similar cellular automata and presents the basic properties. Section 3 is devoted to the construction of a hypercomputer based on self-similar cellular automata. Self-similar Petri nets are presented in section 4. This model features a step-to-step equivalence to self-similar cellular automata for finite computations, but halts in the infinite case. The final section contains some concluding remarks and gives some directions for future research.

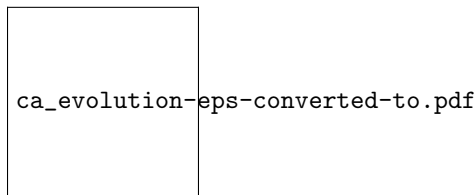


Figure 1: Evolution of a cellular automaton.

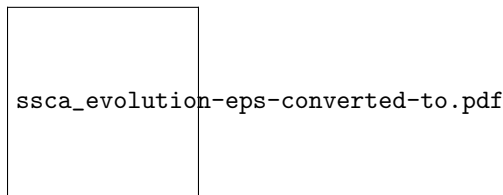


Figure 2: Evolution of a self-similar cellular automaton.

2 Self-Similar Cellular Automata

2.1 Basic Definitions

The underlying structure of a cellular automaton results from a uniform tessellation of space and time. Fig. 1 depicts the evolution of a cellular automaton. In contrast, self-similar automata result from a progressive tessellation of space and time. A self-similar cellular automaton operates as a cellular automaton on a one-dimensional lattice containing an infinite number of cells. Moreover, the cell size and the time between two updates of the same cell vary depending on the position of the cell in the lattice. Cell j has size $1/2^j$ and the time between two updates is proportional to the cell size.

One natural way to embed the lattice into \mathbb{R} is the mapping $j \mapsto 2 - 1/2^{j-1}$ that gives the start point of cell j . Then, the whole lattice maps to $(-\infty, 2)$, whereby cell 0 occupies the unit interval $[0, 1)$.

Fig. 2 depicts the evolution of a self-similar cellular automaton in contradiction to Fig. 1. Informally speaking, a self-similar cellular automaton features scale-invariance and self-similarity rather than homogeneity in space and time.

In what follows, we present the formal definition and the description of the update rule.

Definition 1. A self-similar cellular automaton is a tuple $A = (S, f_c, f_d)$, where S is a finite set of states, and f_c and f_d together represent the local rule, both functions from S^3 to S .

Each cell is in a state of the state set S . The state of cell j is updated at times $k/2^j$, where k is an integer. The cell assumes its new state at time $k/2^j$

and stays in this state until $(k+1)/2^j$, where the next state change occurs. The cycle times of a cell are the time intervals from one state transition to the next one, thus, for cell j these are the half-open intervals $[k/2^j, (k+1)/2^j)$. This time scheduling implies that the left neighbor cell $j-1$ cycles half as fast, and the right neighbor cell $j+1$ cycles twice as fast as the cell j . At any given time, the configuration of the automaton is a mapping $c : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow S$ that specifies the state of all cells. We denote the state of cell j at time t by $c_j(t)$ and the configuration at t by $c(t)$.

The state of a cell j depends on the last state of the cell itself, and the last states of its left and right neighbor cell. For notational convenience, we introduce time operators that express the temporal dependencies of a cell. To this end, we make use of interval arithmetic. For a scalar $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and a (half-open) interval $[x, y) \subset \mathbb{R}$ set: $\lambda + [x, y) = [\lambda + x, \lambda + y)$ and $\lambda[x, y) = [\lambda x, \lambda y)$. We denote the unit interval $[0, 1)$ by $\mathbb{1}$.

If $T = (k+1)/2^j$ specifies a cycle of cell j , $T_{\swarrow} = (\lfloor \frac{k-1}{2} \rfloor + 1)/2^{j-1}$ denotes the last cycle of cell c_{j-1} , $T_{\downarrow} = (k-1+1)/2^j$ the last cycle of cell c_j , and $T_{\searrow} = (2k-1+1)/2^{j+1}$ the last cycle of cell c_{j+1} , respectively, that started before $k/2^j$. The operator \downarrow is a bijection of the set $\{(k+1)/2^j | k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, and we denote by \uparrow its inverse.

The transition of cell j occurs every second time at the times $2k/2^j = k/2^{j-1}$ synchronously with its left neighbor transition. A transition of this kind is called *coupled*, otherwise it is called *decoupled*. The predicate *coupled* $((k+1)/2^j)$ is true if and only if the transition of the j -th cell at time $k/2^j$ is coupled, thus, if and only if k is even. Cells that have a state resulting from a coupled transition are filled gray in Fig. 2, the cells that have a state resulting from a decoupled transition are filled white.

The self-similar cellular automaton evolves according to the following update rule. If $T = (k+1)/2^j$ is a cycle of cell j , the state c_j in this interval, formally described by the state function $c_j(T)$, is given by

$$c_j(T) = \begin{cases} f_c(c_{j-1}(T_{\swarrow}), c_j(T_{\downarrow}), c_{j+1}(T_{\searrow})) & \text{if } \textit{coupled}(T); \\ f_d(c_{j-1}(T_{\swarrow}), c_j(T_{\downarrow}), c_{j+1}(T_{\searrow})) & \text{if } \neg \textit{coupled}(T). \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

For any time point t and any integer j there exists a unique interval $T = (k+1)/2^j$ such that $t \in T$. This allows us to set $c_j(t) = c_j(T)$.

We remark that only one local rule function is necessary instead of two rule functions f_c and f_d , if an additional flag is added to each state that is toggled for each transition. For the applications considered later on, the update rule given above is more compact and concise.

2.2 Indeterminism

The evolution of a self-similar cellular automaton might become indeterministic. In what follows we present an example. Consider the self-similar cellular automaton $A = (\{0, 1\}, f_c, f_d)$, where f_c and f_d represent the left shift: $f_c(?, ?, 0) = f_d(?, ?, 0) = 0$ and $f_c(?, ?, 1) = f_d(?, ?, 1) = 1$, where the question

mark denotes an arbitrary state. Suppose A starts at time 0, and consider the state of cell 0 at time 1. $c_0(1)$ depends on the state $c_1(1/2)$, which itself depends on $c_2(1/4)$, and so on, leading to an infinite regress. Both possibilities $c_0(1) = c_1(1/2) = c_2(1/4) = \dots = 0$ and $c_0(1) = c_1(1/2) = c_2(1/4) = \dots = 1$ are consistent with the local rule and any initial configuration $c(0)$, proving that the evolution of A is indeterministic and independent of its initial configuration.

Classifying the evolution as indeterministic raises subtle questions that relate to Thomson's lamp paradox [Tho54]. We take the point of view that each cell is at any time in a given state of the state set, even if the initial configuration and the update rule do not uniquely determine the state.

That the evolution is not necessarily always indeterministic can be seen by the following simple example. Assume that the state set S contains a state q satisfying $f_c(?, q, ?) = f_d(?, q, ?) = q$. If cell j is in state q , it will for all times stay in this state. Furthermore, the state of any cell to the left of cell j is deterministic, since the causal chain arising in calculating the state of any of these cells stops at cell j and no infinite regress can occur. For a more subtle example see subsection 2.4.

The following lemma reveals limitations of any deterministic evolution.

Lemma 1. *The state $c_i(t_2)$ of a cell i of a self-similar cellular automata at time t_2 that was started at $t_1 < t_2$ with configuration $c(t_1)$ is deterministic if and only if there exists an index j such that $c_i(t_2)$ depends only on states $c_l(t_1)$ with $l < j$.*

Proof. We choose $t_1 = 0$, $t_2 = k$, where k is a positive integer, and investigate whether the state of cell 0 in the time interval $T = [k, k+1)$ is uniquely determined by the deterministic states at time 0, that is the configuration $c(0)$. The general case follows the same proof pattern. We express a cycle of cell i at time interval T as pair (i, T) . The set of all possible cycles starting not earlier than time 0 is then the set $C = \{(i, k+1)/2^i | i, k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } k \geq 0\}$.

We define a relation $<$ on C by setting $(i_1, T_1) < (i_2, T_2)$ if and only if $i_1 = i_2 - 1$ and $T_1 = T_2 \swarrow$, or $i_1 = i_2$ and $T_1 = T_2 \downarrow$, or $i_1 = i_2 + 1$ and $T_1 = T_2 \searrow$. We denote the transitive closure of $<$ by $<^*$. This relation expresses the possible causal relationship between two transitions.

The set $P = \{(i, T') \in C | (i, T') <^* (0, T)\}$, the “past light cone” of $(0, T)$, contains $(0, T)$ as well as all cycles that might have an effect on the state of cell 0 in time interval T . We form increasing subsets of P by setting $P_j = \{(i, T') \in P | i < j\}$ for $j \geq 0$.

We call a function $s : P_j \rightarrow S$ a realization of P_j if s is consistent with the update rule of the self-similar cellular automaton and s matches the initial configuration at time 0.

If we find a P_j such that all realizations of it lead to the same state of cell 0 at time interval T , we know that the state is deterministic and depends only on cells of the initial configuration with index less than j . Otherwise, if there is no such P_j , there are always two realizations s_1 and s_2 that lead to different states and which can be extended arbitrarily to the right, resulting in two different

evolutions of the self-similar cellular automata and to two different states of cell 0 at time interval T . \square

For the sake of illustration of the implications of this lemma, consider the following example. Let C be the set of configurations, either of the form $\dots 00100\dots$, in which exactly one 1 with a positive index appears, or the configuration 0^∞ consisting solely of 0's. Assume that a self-similar automaton is started at time 0 with a configuration c in C . Choose a time $t > 0$ and let q be the state of cell 0 at time t . Applying the lemma, we see that there exists no local rule such that q is either 1 if and only if c is of the form $\dots 00100\dots$, or 0 if and only if $c = 0^\infty$. If q is deterministic there is an index j such that q depends only on states of cells at time 0 with index less than j . This implies that the configurations 0^∞ and $\dots 00100\dots$, where the index of 1 is greater than j , lead to the same state q .

2.3 Self-similar Cellular Automata with Quiescent State

The indeterminism of self-similar cellular automata can be restricted by considering the following subclass which adds a quiescent state to the original concept and allows for grids that contain only a finite number of cells.

Definition 2. A self-similar cellular automaton with quiescent state is a tuple $A = (S, f_c, f_d, q)$, where S , f_c , and f_d are defined as in Def. 1, and q in S is a distinguished state, the quiescent state, satisfying $f_c(q, q, q) = f_d(q, q, q) = q$.

If the automaton has a quiescent state, we allow for finite or half-infinite lattices that start with cell 0. The update rule of the automaton is adapted to cope with cells that have no left or right neighbor. Furthermore we allow the lattice to grow to the right. If either the left or right neighbor is missing, the state of the missing neighbor is assumed to be the quiescent state. In case of a finite lattice, consisting of $n + 1$ cells $0, 1, \dots, n$, we allow the lattice to grow, if the state of the n -th cell differs from the quiescent state. If cell n at time $k/2^n$ changes to a state, different from the quiescent state, a new cell $n + 1$ is added to the lattice. This new cell $n + 1$ is initialised with the quiescent state and attached to cell n . The first update of this new cell occurs at time $(2k + 1)/2^{n+1}$.

A self-cellular automaton with quiescent state is deterministic if the lattice contains only a finite number of cells.

2.4 Block Transformations

If the state set becomes larger, the specification of the values for the local rules f_c and f_d for all possible arguments is rather lengthy. Some self-similar cellular automata allow an alternative specification. A coupled transition of two neighbor cells can perform a simultaneous state change of the two cells. If the state changes of these two neighbor cells are independent of their other neighbors, we can specify the state changes as a transformation of one state pair into another. Let z_1, z_2, z'_1, z'_2 be elements in S . We call a mapping of the

form $z_1 z_2 \mapsto z'_1 z'_2$ a block transformation. The block transformation $z_1 z_2 \mapsto z'_1 z'_2$ defines a function mapping of the form $f_c(x, z_1, z_2) = f_d(x, z_1, z_2) = z'_1$ and $f_c(z_1, z_2, y) = z'_2$ for all x, y in S . Furthermore, we will also allow block transformations that might be ambiguous for certain configurations. Consider the block transformations $z_1 z_2 \mapsto z'_1 z'_2$ and $z_2 z_3 \mapsto z''_2 z'_3$ that might lead to an ambiguity for a configuration that contains $z_1 z_2 z_3$. Instead of resolving these ambiguities in a formal way, we will restrict our attention to configurations that are unambiguous.

Consider the self-similar cellular automaton $A = (S, f_c, f_d)$, where S is the set $(\{0, 1\} \times \{<, >\}) \cup \{\square\}$. If $q \in \{0, 1\}$, we write $q_<$ for $(q, <)$, and $q_>$ for $(q, >)$, respectively. We specify f_c and f_d by the following block transformations

$$0_>\square \mapsto 0_<\square, 1_>\square \mapsto 1_<\square, \square 0_< \mapsto \square 0_>, \square 1_< \mapsto \square 1_>; \quad (2)$$

$$0_>0_< \mapsto 0_<0_>, 1_>0_< \mapsto 0_<1_>, 0_>1_< \mapsto 1_<0_>, \text{ and } 1_>1_< \mapsto 1_<1_>; \quad (3)$$

together with the convention, that a cell remains in its previous state, if no block transformation is applicable. Let A be started with a configuration of the form $\dots \square \square q_1_> q_2_< q_3_> q_4_< \dots q_{n-1}_> q_n_< \square \square \dots$, where all q_i are in $\{0, 1\}$. It is easy to see that the evolution of A is deterministic and that A runs the one-dimensional billiard ball model of Margolus [Mar84]. Furthermore, the construction shows that a self-similar cellular automaton can simulate any 3-site one-dimensional cellular automaton.

3 Construction of a Hypercomputer

3.1 Specification

In what follows we will construct a hypercomputer based on a self-similar cellular automaton. This hypercomputer simulates a Turing machine and is capable of performing infinitely many steps of the Turing machine in finite time. We assume the following Turing machine model as described in [HU79].

Formally, a *Turing machine* is a tuple $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, B, F)$, where Q is the finite set of states, Γ is the finite set of tape symbols, $\Sigma \subset \Gamma$ is the set of input symbols, $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state, $B \in \Gamma \setminus \Sigma$ is the blank, and $F \subset Q$ is the set of final states. The next move function or transition function δ is a mapping from $Q \times \Gamma$ to $Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$, which may be undefined for some arguments.

The Turing machine M works on a tape divided into cells that has a leftmost cell but is infinite to the right. Let $\delta(q, a) = (p, b, D)$. One step (or move) of M in state q and the head of M positioned over input symbol a consists of the following actions: scanning input symbol a , replacing symbol a by b , entering state p and moving the head one cell either to the left ($D = L$) or to the right ($D = R$). In the beginning, M starts in state q_0 with a tape that is initialized with an input word $w \in \Sigma^*$, starting at the leftmost cell, all other cells blank, and the head of M positioned over the leftmost cell.

Given an arbitrary Turing machine M we construct a self-similar cellular automaton with quiescent state $A_M = (Z, f_c, f_d, \square)$ that simulates M . The

state set Z of A_M is given by

$$Z = \Gamma \cup (\Gamma \times \{\rightarrow\}) \cup (Q \times \Gamma) \cup (Q \times \Gamma \times \{\rightarrow\}) \cup \{\square, \blacktriangleleft, \triangleleft, \overrightarrow{\triangleleft}, \triangleright, \triangleright_B, \triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}\}.$$

We write \overrightarrow{a} for an element (a, \rightarrow) in $\Gamma \times \{\rightarrow\}$, $\langle q, a \rangle$ for an element (q, a) in $Q \times \Gamma$, and $\overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle}$ for an element (q, a, \rightarrow) in $Q \times \Gamma \times \{\rightarrow\}$. To simulate M on input $w = a_1 \dots a_n$ in Σ^* , $n > 1$, A_M is initialized with the sequence $\overrightarrow{\langle q_0, a_1 \rangle a_2 a_3 \dots a_n} \triangleright$ starting at cell 0. If $w = a_1$, A_M is initialized with the sequence $\overrightarrow{\langle q_0, a_1 \rangle} B \triangleright$, and if $w = \epsilon$, the empty word, A_M is initialized with the sequence $\overrightarrow{\langle q_0, B \rangle} B \triangleright$. We denote the initial configuration by $c(w)$. The computation is started at time 0, i.e., the first state change of cell k occurs at time $1/2^k$.

We specify the local rule, represented by f_c and f_a , by the following block transformations, together with the convention that a cell state remains unchanged, if no block transformation is applicable.

1. *Pulse moves to the right.* Set

$$\overrightarrow{\triangleleft} \langle q, a \rangle \mapsto \triangleleft \overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle}; \quad (4)$$

$$\overrightarrow{a} b \mapsto a \overrightarrow{b}; \quad (5)$$

$$\overrightarrow{\triangleleft} a \mapsto \triangleleft \overrightarrow{a}. \quad (6)$$

If $\delta(q, a) = (p, c, R)$ set

$$\overrightarrow{b} \langle q, a \rangle \mapsto b \overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle}; \quad (7)$$

$$\overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle} b \mapsto c \overrightarrow{\langle p, b \rangle}; \quad (8)$$

$$\overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle} \triangleright \mapsto \langle q, a \rangle \triangleright_B. \quad (9)$$

If $\delta(q, a) = (p, c, L)$ set

$$\overrightarrow{b} \langle q, a \rangle \mapsto \langle p, b \rangle \overrightarrow{c}; \quad (10)$$

$$\overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle} b \mapsto \langle q, a \rangle \overrightarrow{b}; \quad (11)$$

$$\overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle} \triangleright \mapsto \langle q, a \rangle \triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}. \quad (12)$$

Set

$$\overrightarrow{a} \triangleright \mapsto a \triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}; \quad (13)$$

$$\triangleright_B \square \mapsto B \triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}; \quad (14)$$

$$\triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft} \square \mapsto \blacktriangleleft \triangleright. \quad (15)$$

2. *Pulse moves to the left.* Set

$$a \blacktriangleleft \mapsto \blacktriangleleft a; \quad (16)$$

$$\langle q, a \rangle \blacktriangleleft \mapsto \blacktriangleleft \langle q, a \rangle; \quad (17)$$

$$\triangleleft \blacktriangleleft \mapsto \square \overrightarrow{\triangleleft}. \quad (18)$$

State	Symbol				
	0	1	X	Y	B
q_0	(q_1, X, R)	—	—	(q_3, Y, R)	—
q_1	$(q_1, 0, R)$	(q_2, Y, L)	—	(q_1, Y, R)	—
q_2	$(q_2, 0, L)$	—	(q_0, X, R)	(q_2, Y, L)	—
q_3	—	—	—	(q_3, Y, R)	(q_4, B, R)
q_4	—	—	—	—	—

Figure 3: The function δ .

The states $\langle q, a \rangle$ and $\overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle}$ act as the head of the Turing machine. To accelerate the calculation we have to shift the whole tape content of the Turing machine to the right, to the faster cycling cells, thereby avoiding that the content is spread, i.e., that right tape states move faster than left tape states.

This can be achieved by synchronizing all state transitions by a pulse ($\overrightarrow{\triangleright}, \overrightarrow{a}, \overrightarrow{\langle q, a \rangle}, \triangleright_B, \triangleright_\blacktriangleleft$, or \blacktriangleleft) that zigzags between the two delimiters \blacktriangleleft and \triangleright . Additionally, new blanks are inserted to the left of the right delimiter whenever the simulated head of the Turing machine hits the right delimiter and attempts to move to the right.

3.2 Example

We illustrate the working of A_M by a simple example [SS09]. Let L be the formal language consisting of strings with n 0's, followed by n 1's: $L = \{0^n 1^n | n \geq 1\}$. A Turing machine that accepts this language is given by $M = (\{q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 1, X, Y, B\}, \delta, q_0, B, \{q_4\})$ [HU79] with the transition function depicted in Fig. 3. Note that L is a context-free language, but M will serve for demonstration purposes. The computation of M on input 01 is given below:

$$q_0 0 1 \vdash X q_1 1 \vdash q_2 X Y \vdash X q_0 Y \vdash X Y q_3 \vdash X Y B q_4.$$

Fig. 4 depicts the computation of A_M on the Turing machine input 01, showing only the configurations where a state change occurred. The first column of the table specifies the time in binary base. A_M performs 4 complete pulse zigzags and enters a final configuration in the fifth one after the Turing machine simulation has reached the final state q_4 .

3.3 Results

As one can see in Fig. 4, a “zigzag” pulse that goes from a configuration containing state $\overrightarrow{\triangleright}$ to the next one that contains the same state takes three cycles of the cell where the pulse has started. Afterwards, the whole tape content is shifted one cell to the right. Thus, the whole simulation takes no longer than $3 + 3/2 + 3/4 + \dots = 6$ time units. Furthermore, each pulse zigzag performs at

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.00000000 ₂	$\overrightarrow{\triangleleft}$	$\langle q_0, 0 \rangle$	1	\triangleright						
1.00000000 ₂	\triangleleft	$\overrightarrow{\langle q_0, 0 \rangle}$	1	\triangleright						
1.10000000 ₂	\triangleleft	X	$\overrightarrow{\langle q_1, 1 \rangle}$	\triangleright						
1.11000000 ₂	\triangleleft	X	$\langle q_1, 1 \rangle$	$\triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}$						
1.11100000 ₂	\triangleleft	X	$\langle q_1, 1 \rangle$	\blacktriangleleft	\triangleright					
10.00000000 ₂	\triangleleft	X	\blacktriangleleft	$\langle q_1, 1 \rangle$	\triangleright					
10.10000000 ₂	\triangleleft	\blacktriangleleft	X	$\langle q_1, 1 \rangle$	\triangleright					
11.00000000 ₂	\square	$\overrightarrow{\triangleleft}$	X	$\langle q_1, 1 \rangle$	\triangleright					
11.10000000 ₂	\square	\triangleleft	\overrightarrow{X}	$\langle q_1, 1 \rangle$	\triangleright					
11.11000000 ₂	\square	\triangleleft	$\langle q_2, X \rangle$	\overrightarrow{Y}	\triangleright					
11.11100000 ₂	\square	\triangleleft	$\langle q_2, X \rangle$	Y	$\triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}$					
11.11110000 ₂	\square	\triangleleft	$\langle q_2, X \rangle$	Y	\blacktriangleleft	\triangleright				
100.00000000 ₂	\square	\triangleleft	$\langle q_2, X \rangle$	\blacktriangleleft	Y	\triangleright				
100.01000000 ₂	\square	\triangleleft	\blacktriangleleft	$\langle q_2, X \rangle$	Y	\triangleright				
100.10000000 ₂	\square	\square	$\overrightarrow{\triangleleft}$	$\langle q_2, X \rangle$	Y	\triangleright				
100.11000000 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	$\overrightarrow{\langle q_2, X \rangle}$	Y	\triangleright				
100.11100000 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	$\overrightarrow{\langle q_0, Y \rangle}$	\triangleright				
100.11110000 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	\triangleright_B				
100.11111000 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	B	$\triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}$			
100.11111100 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	B	\blacktriangleleft	\triangleright		
101.00000000 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	\blacktriangleleft	B	\triangleright		
101.00010000 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	\blacktriangleleft	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	B	\triangleright		
101.00100000 ₂	\square	\square	\triangleleft	\blacktriangleleft	X	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	B	\triangleright		
101.01000000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	$\overrightarrow{\triangleleft}$	X	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	B	\triangleright		
101.01100000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	\overrightarrow{X}	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	B	\triangleright		
101.01110000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	$\langle q_0, Y \rangle$	B	\triangleright		
101.01111000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	$\overrightarrow{\langle q_3, B \rangle}$	\triangleright		
101.01111100 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	\triangleright_B		
101.01111110 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	$\triangleright_{\blacktriangleleft}$	
101.01111111 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	\blacktriangleleft	\triangleright
101.10000000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	\blacktriangleleft	B	\triangleright
101.10000100 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	\blacktriangleleft	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	\triangleright
101.10001000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	\blacktriangleleft	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	\triangleright
101.10010000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	\blacktriangleleft	X	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	\triangleright
101.10100000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\square	$\overrightarrow{\triangleleft}$	X	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	\triangleright
101.10110000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	\overrightarrow{X}	Y	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	\triangleright
101.10111000 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	\overrightarrow{Y}	$\langle q_3, B \rangle$	B	\triangleright
101.10111100 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	$\overrightarrow{\langle q_3, B \rangle}$	B	\triangleright
101.10111110 ₂	\square	\square	\square	\square	\triangleleft	X	Y	B	$\overrightarrow{\langle q_4, B \rangle}$	\triangleright

Figure 4: A computation of A_M on input 01 [SS09].

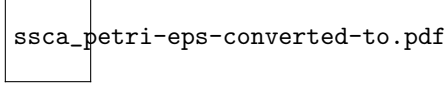


Figure 5: Underlying graph of a self-similar Petri net [SS09].

least one step of the simulated Turing machine. Taking these facts together, the following theorem is motivated that was proved in [SS09].

Theorem 1. *Let M be a Turing machine, w an input word of M , and A_M the self-similar automaton given above that simulates M , initialised with $c(w)$. If M halts on w , then A_M enters a final configuration in a time less than 6 cycles of cell 0. If M does not halt, A_M enters after 6 cycles of cell 0 the quiescent configuration \square^∞ .*

If we choose for M a universal Turing machine, we obtain the following result, which proves that A_M is a hypercomputer for certain Turing machines M .

Corollary 1. *Let M_U be a universal Turing machine. Then A_{M_U} solves the halting problem for Turing machines.*

We imagine that an operator initialises the first cells of the self-similar automaton with the input of the calculation. Ideally, in case that the simulated Turing machine has halted, the self-similar automaton should propagate this fact back to the left cells. But by lemma 1 we know that there is no deterministic way to do this. Therefore the operator would have to scan a possible infinite numbers of cells to decide whether the Turing machine has halted or not.

4 Self-similar Petri Nets

Self-similar Petri nets result from carrying over the self-similar cellular automaton model to the theory of Petri nets. We refer to [Mur89] for a concise introduction to Petri net theory, here we give only a very short summary to settle the terminology.

The underlying graph of a Petri net is a directed, weighted, bipartite graph consisting of two kind of nodes, called transitions and places. Fig. 5 depicts the underlying graph of a self-similar Petri net, drawing transitions as boxes and places as circles. A place that has an arc to a transition is an input place of this transition, if the arc is from the transition to the place, the place is an output place. Arcs are labeled with their weights.

Places hold so-called tokens. A marking assigns to each place a number, the number of tokens in this place. The marking in a Petri net is changed according to the following transition (firing) rule:

1. A transition t is enabled if each input place p of t is marked with at least $w(p, t)$ tokens, where $w(p, t)$ is the weight of the arc from p to t .

2. An enabled transition t may fire. A firing removes $w(p, t)$ tokens from each input place p , and adds $w(t, p)$ tokens to each output place p of t , where $w(t, p)$ is the weight of the arc from t to p .

Self-similar Petri nets are both colored Petri nets and marked graphs. The first says that the tokens of the Petri net carry values and that the firing rule is adapted such that the value of an output token is determined by the values of the input tokens. The latter says that each place is the input place and the output place of at most one transition, which makes the Petri net deterministic.

We will informally describe how the concepts of self-similar cellular automata are mapped to self-similar Petri nets, for a formal treatment we refer to [SS09]. The states of a self-similar cellular automaton are mapped to the values of the tokens. The transition of the self-similar Petri net uses the values of the input tokens to calculate the value of the output tokens according to the local rules f_c and f_d that are carried over from self-similar cellular automata.

A firing of cell n consumes two tokens of cell $n + 1$ and puts two new tokens in the input place of cell $n + 1$. Since cell $n + 1$ consumes per firing only one token from cell n , and puts only one token in the input place of cell n , cell $n + 1$ must fire twice before cell n can fire again. As we can see, the doubling of cycles from one cell to its right neighbor works now by a synchronisation mechanism without reference to an external clock.

In analogy to self-similar cellular automata with quiescent state, a self-similar Petri net is started with a finite number of cells and is allowed to grow to the right, whenever the rightmost cell calculates a token value different from the quiescent state.

To ensure the liveness of the self-similar Petri net the left- and rightmost cells obey the the following boundary conditions. Each firing of the leftmost cell puts one token in its left input place, each firing of the rightmost cell puts two tokens in its right input place.

If the self-similar Petri net is started with a certain marking and proper token values it can be shown that self-similar Petri nets and self-similar cellular automata feature a step-by-step equivalence for calculations that involve only a finite number of steps.

Self-similar Petri nets work without any reference to an external clock, but it is possible to impose a time scheduling leading to timed self-similar Petri nets. If we require that transition n always fires when it is enabled and that the firing process, which includes the consumption and production of tokens, takes no longer than $1/2^n$ time units, we obtain the same time model as for self-similar cellular automata.

The construction of subsection 3.1 can also be applied to timed self-similar Petri nets, leading to one that simulates a given Turing machine with a given input.

In contrast to self-similar cellular automata, the evolution of a Petri net can stop. This happens when no transition is enabled. The main result concerning timed self-similar Petri nets is expressed by the following theorem.

Theorem 2. *Let M be a Turing machine, w an input word of M , and N_M a*

timed self-similar Petri net that simulates M , initialised with $c(w)$. If M halts on w , then N_M enters a final configuration in a time less than 6 cycles of cell 0. If M does not halt, N_M halts after 6 cycles of cell 0.

Again, we refer the reader for details and the proof to [SS09].

5 Summary

We have reviewed two recently introduced computing models, both based on an infinite, progressive tessellation of space and time, thereby proving a proposition about the indeterminism of self-similar cellular automata. Space and time tessellations are the same as imagined in Zeno's paradox of the runner that cannot reach the end of a racecourse more than 2500 years ago.

Both computing models are capable of hypercomputing, even if they differ in the limit of non-halting Turing machine simulations. If properly programmed, self-similar cellular automata enter a final quiescent configuration and loop forever there; if not, they end up in indeterminism.

The underlying graph of a self-similar Petri net grows to infinity, if the simulated Turing machine does not halt. Since there is no longer a rightmost cell that obeys the boundary condition that guaranteed the liveness of the system for the finite case, the self-similar Petri net stops. Thus, self-similar Petri nets halt if and only if the simulated Turing machine does not halt.

Both models suffer from what we call the response problem. We imagine an operator that initialises the very first cells of either of the two machines with the input of the calculation and then starts the machine. Ideally, after some finite amount of time the operator would obtain an answer that is again written to the first cells of the machine. Thus, the response problem is the problem of propagating the final status of the simulated Turing machine, which is either "halt" or "non-halt," back to the cells with lower index, say cell 0.

Both models fail to solve the response problem; yet due to different reasons. If we extend the rules of the self-similar cellular automaton to propagate a response back to the left cells, the automaton becomes indeterministic. In contrast, self-similar Petri nets freeze if they run into infinity, thereby eliminating any possibility to propagate information backward. The possibility of the (non)existence of other elementary computational models whose Zeno squeezed versions on the one hand are capable of hypercomputing, yet on the other hand do not suffer from the response problem, remains an open question.

References

- [Ada02] Andrew Adamatzky. *Collision-based computing*. Springer, London, 2002.
- [BT06] Edwin J. Beggs and J. V. Tucker. Embedding infinitely parallel computation in Newtonian kinematics. *Applied Mathematics and Computation*, 178(1):25–43, 2006.

- [Dav01] E. Brian Davies. Building infinite machines. *The British Journal for the Philosophy of Science*, 52(4):671–682, 2001.
- [Dav04] Martin Davis. The myth of hypercomputation. In Christof Teuscher, editor, *Alan Turing: Life and Legacy of a Great Thinker*, pages 195–212. Springer, Berlin, 2004.
- [Dav06] Martin Davis. Why there is no such discipline as hypercomputation. *Applied Mathematics and Computation*, 178:4–7, 2006.
- [EN96] J. Earman and J.D. Norton. Infinite Pains: The Trouble with Super-tasks. In A. Morton and S.P. Stich, editors, *Benacerraf and his Critics*, pages 231–261. Blackwell, Cambridge, MA, 1996.
- [Fre90] Edward Fredkin. An informational process based on reversible universal cellular automata. *Physica D*, 45:254–270, 1990.
- [Gut91] Howard Gutowitz. *Cellular Automata: Theory and Experiment*. MIT Press/Bradford Books, Cambridge Mass., 1991. ISBN 0-262-57086-6.
- [HU79] J. E. Hopcroft and J. D. Ullman. *Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, and Computation*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, 1979.
- [Mar84] Norman Margolus. Physics-like model of computation. *Physica D*, 10:81–95, 1984. reprinted in [Ada02, Part I, Chapter 4].
- [MM99] M. Margenstern and K. Morita. A polynomial solution for 3-sat in the space of cellular automata in the hyperbolic plane. *Journal of Universal Computer Science*, 5(9):563–573, 1999.
- [Mur89] T. Murata. Petri nets: Properties, analysis and applications. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 77(4):541–580, 1989.
- [Ord06] Toby Ord. The many forms of hypercomputation. *Applied Mathematics and Computation*, 178:143–153, 2006.
- [Pot06] Petrus H. Potgieter. Zeno machines and hypercomputation. *Theoretical Computer Science*, 358(1):23–33, 2006.
- [Sal01] Wesley C. Salmon. *Zeno’s Paradoxes*. Hackett Publishing Company, 1970, 2001.
- [SS09] Martin Schaller and Karl Svozil. Scale-invariant cellular automata and self-similar petri nets. *The European Physical Journal B*, 69:297–311, 2009.
- [Svo98] Karl Svozil. The Church-Turing thesis as a guiding principle for physics. In Cristian S. Calude, John Casti, and Michael J. Dinneen, editors, *Unconventional Models of Computation*, pages 371–385, Singapore, 1998. Springer.

- [Svo07] Karl Svozil. Omega and the time evolution of the n-body problem. In Cristian S. Calude, editor, *Randomness and Complexity, from Leibniz to Chaitin*, pages 231–236, Singapore, 2007. World Scientific. eprint arXiv:physics/0703031.
- [Tho54] James F. Thomson. Tasks and supertasks. *Analysis*, 15:1–13, October 1954. reprinted in Ref. [Sal01, pp. 89-102].
- [TM90] Tommaso Toffoli and Norman Margolus. Invertible cellular automata: A review. *Physica D*, 45:229–253, 1990.
- [vN66] John von Neumann. *Theory of Self-Reproducing Automata*. University of Illinois Press, Urbana, 1966. A. W. Burks, editor.
- [Wol02] Stephen Wolfram. *A New Kind of Science*. Wolfram Media, Inc., Champaign, IL, 2002.
- [Zus67] Konrad Zuse. Rechnender Raum. *Elektronische Datenverarbeitung*, 8:336–344, 1967. English translation [Zus70].
- [Zus70] Konrad Zuse. *Calculating Space. MIT Technical Translation AZT-70-164-GEMIT*. MIT (Proj. MAC), Cambridge, MA, 1970.