

An Algebraic Geometric Approach
to
Multidimensional Symbolic Dynamics

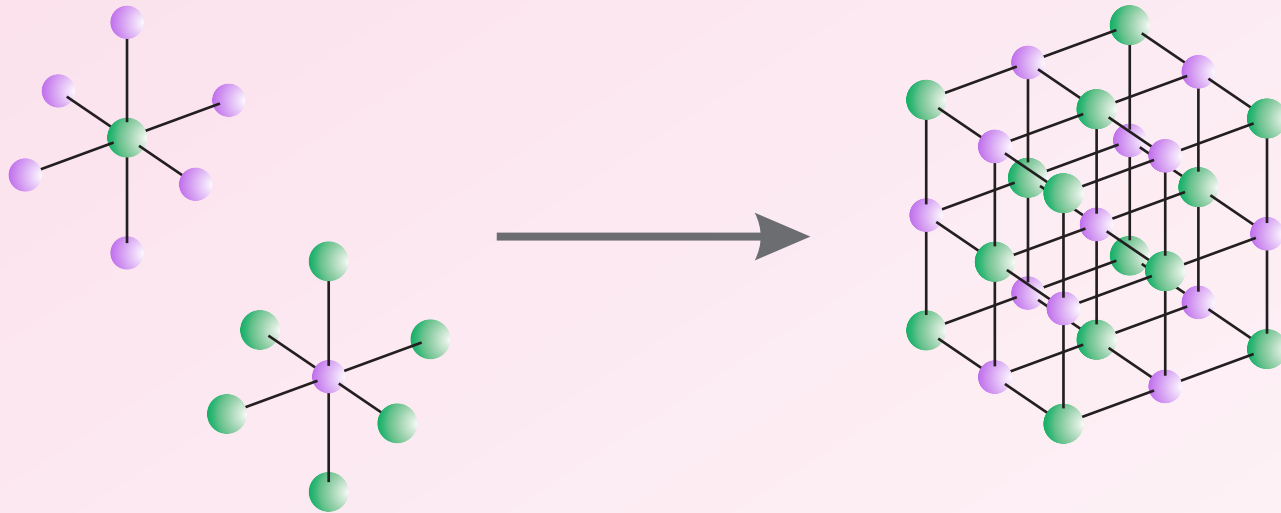
Jarkko Kari and Michal Szabados

Department of Mathematics and Statistics

University of Turku, Finland

We study how **local constraints** enforce **global regularities**

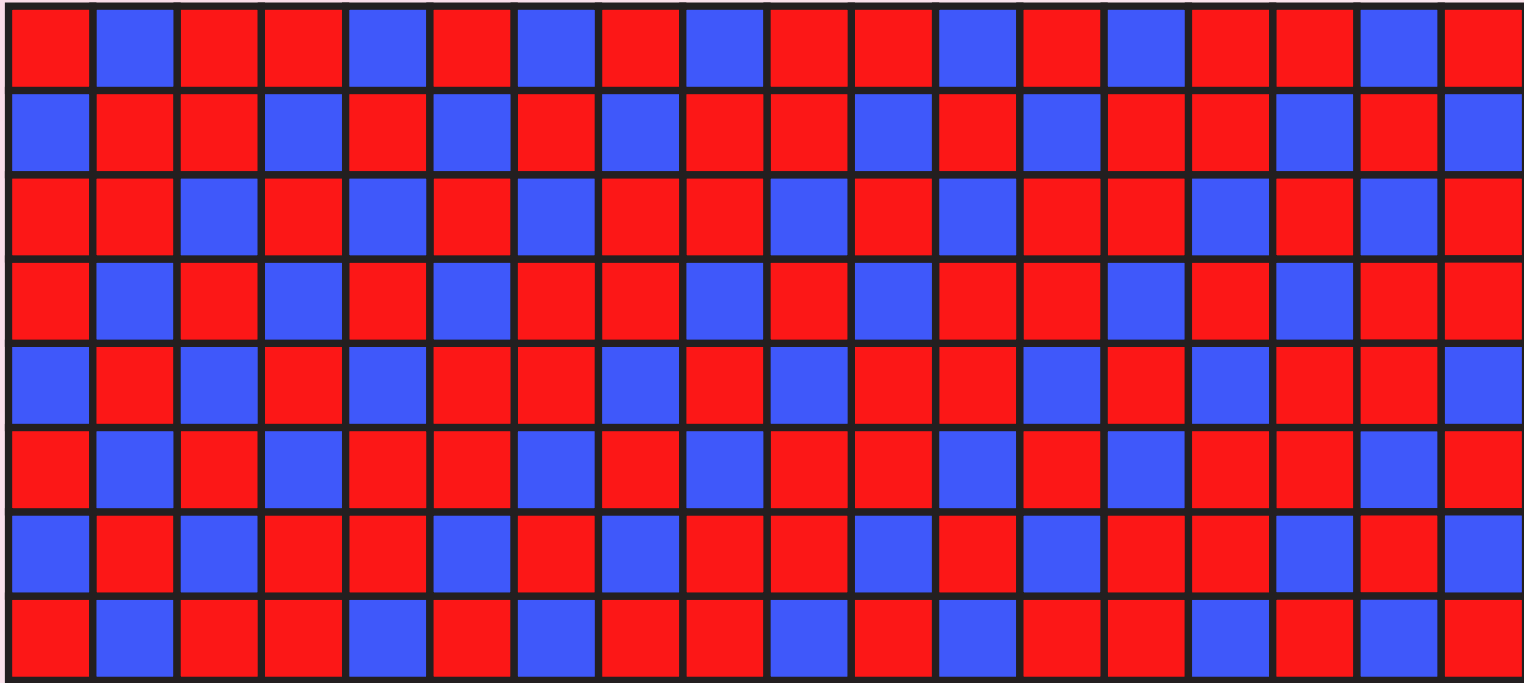
This is a common phenomenon in sciences. For example, formation of crystals:



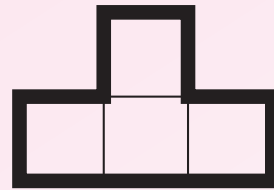
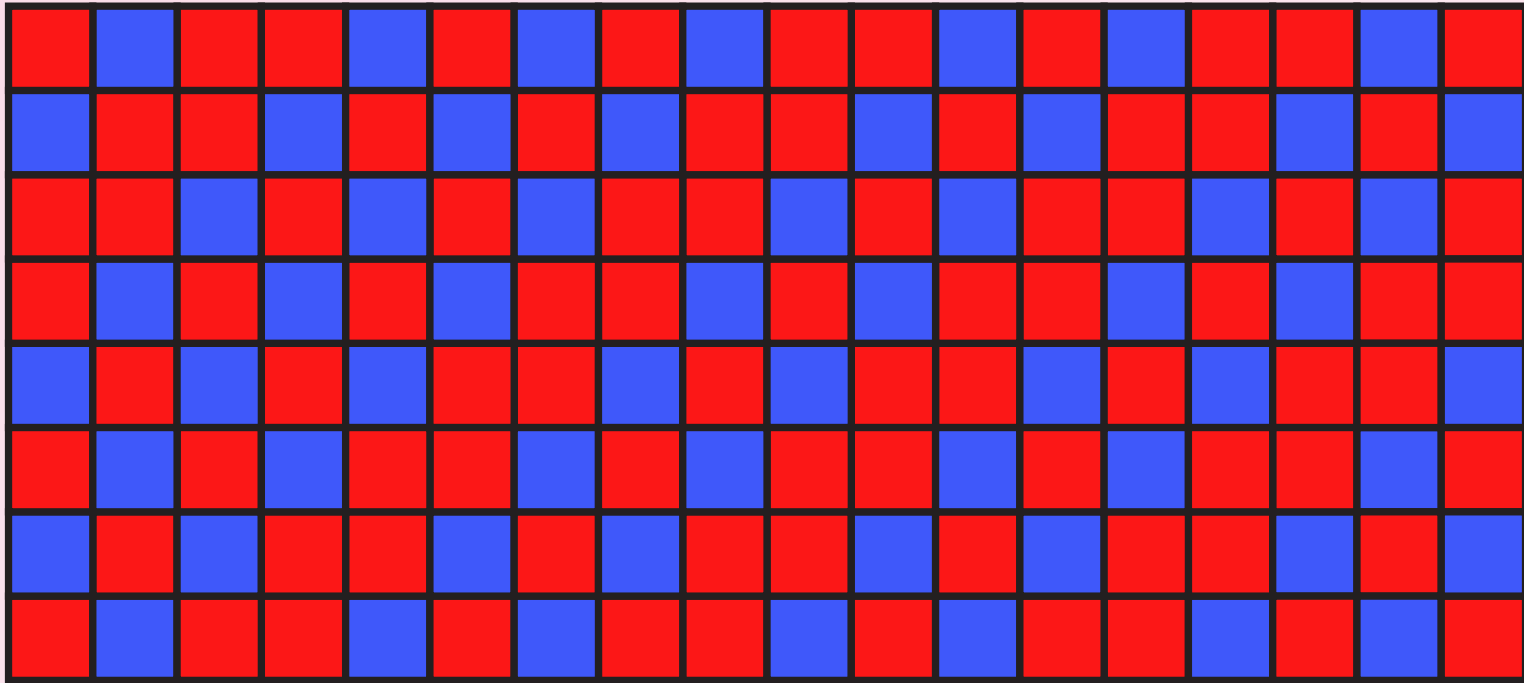
Atoms attach to each other in a limited number of ways
 \implies periodic arrangement of the atoms

Our goal is to understand **fundamental underlying principles** that connect local rules to the global regularities observed in the structures.

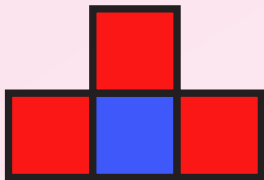
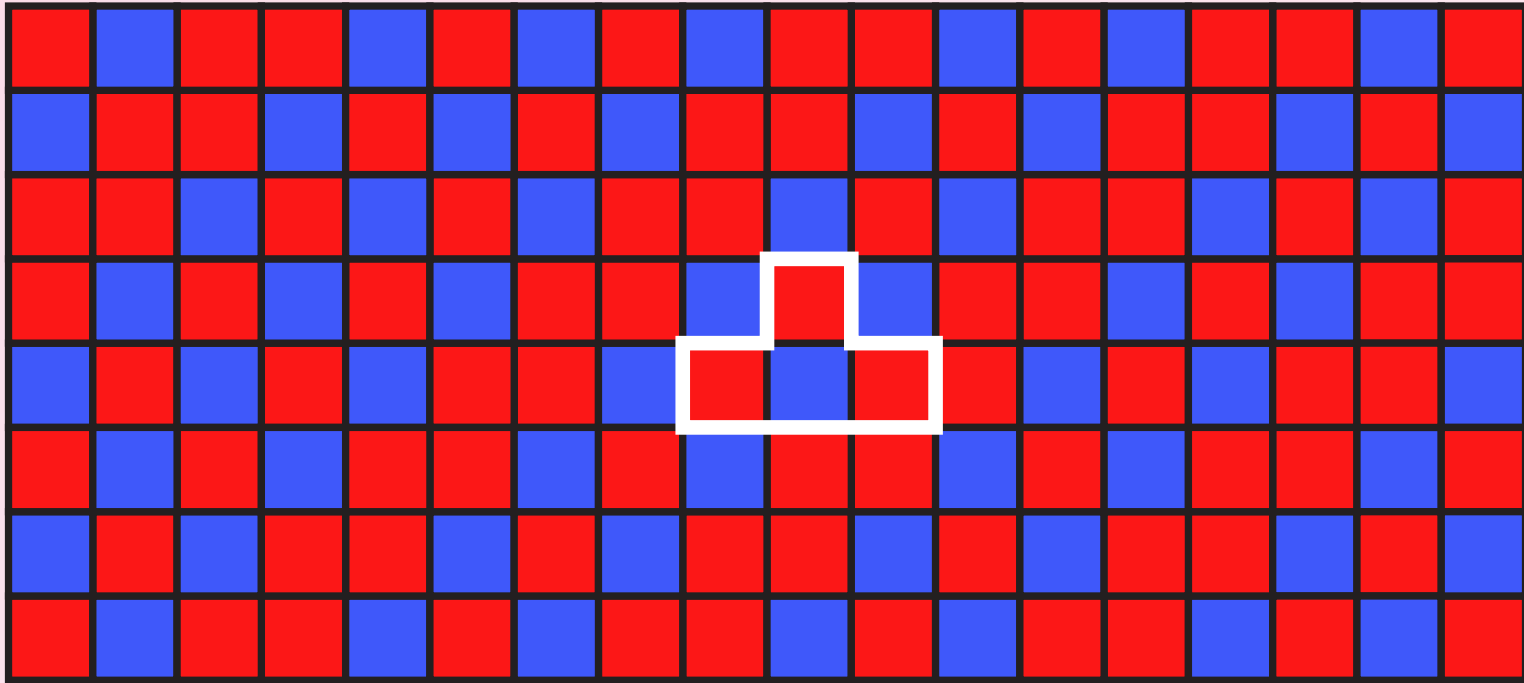
Our setup: multidimensional symbolic dynamics (=tilings)



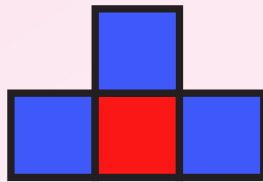
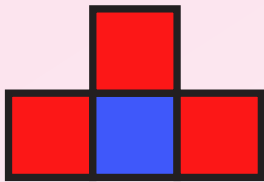
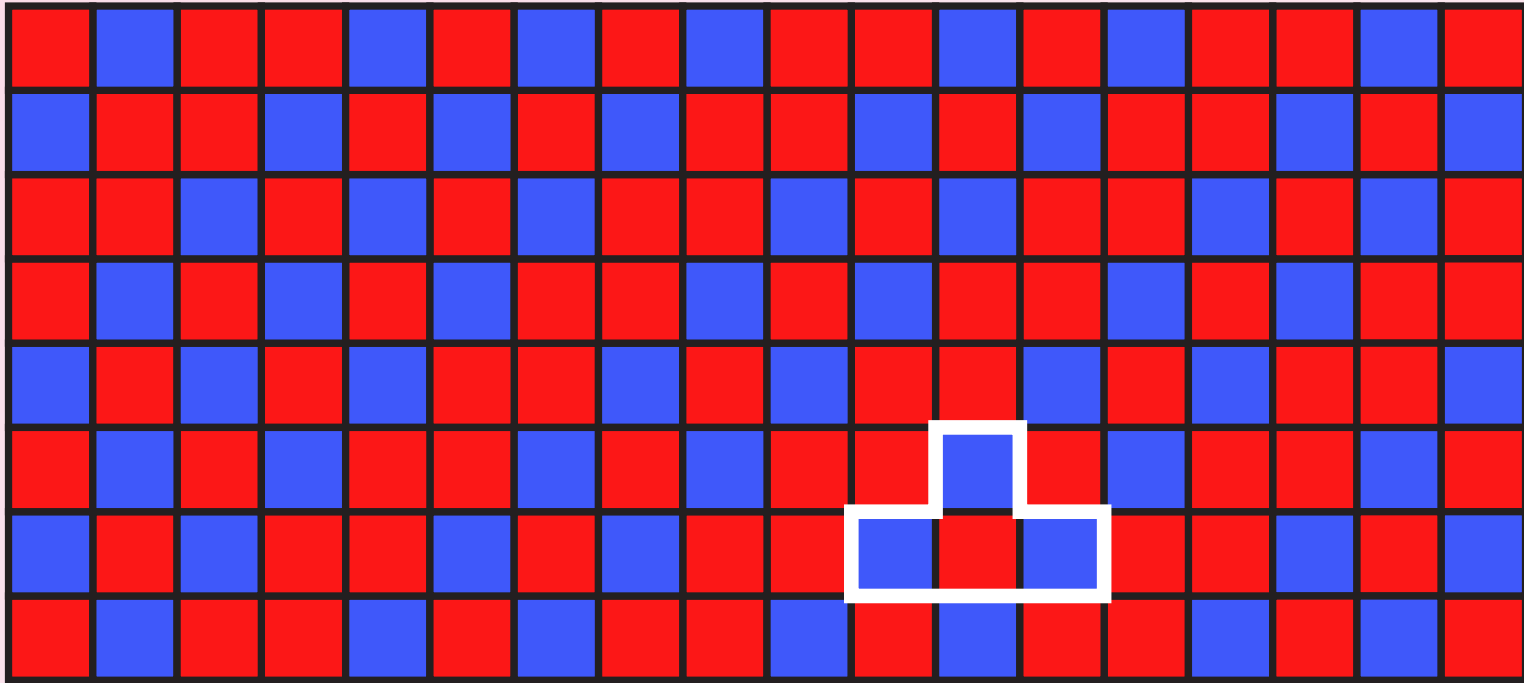
Configurations are infinite d -dimensional grids of symbols.



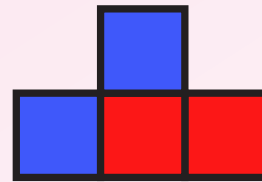
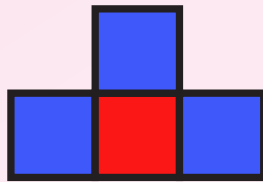
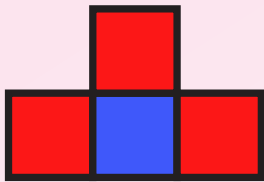
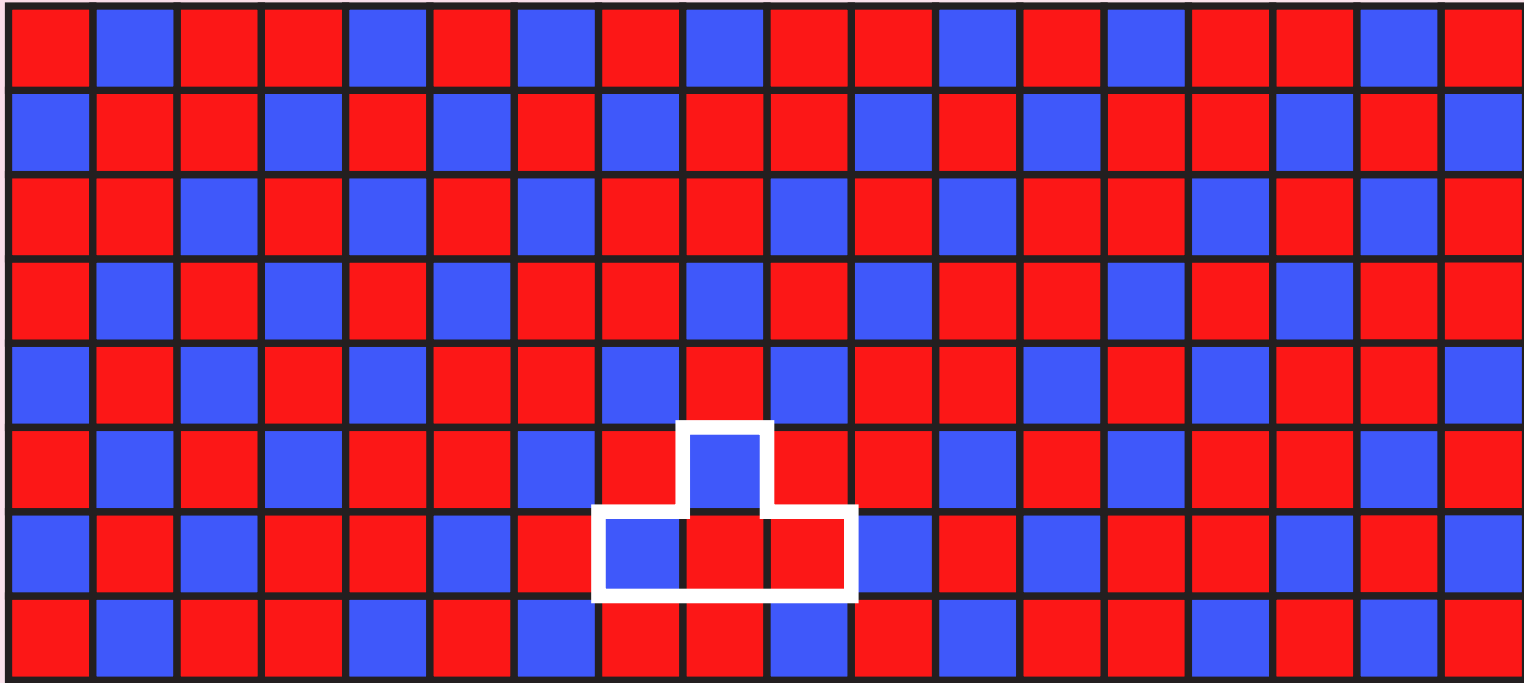
For a fixed finite shape D , we observe the D -patterns in the configuration.



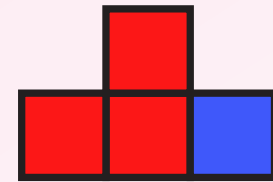
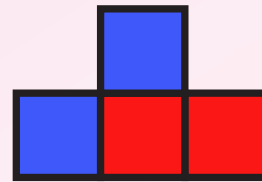
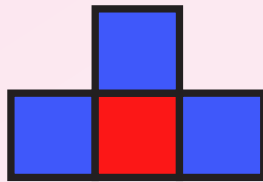
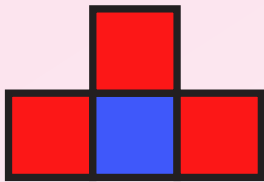
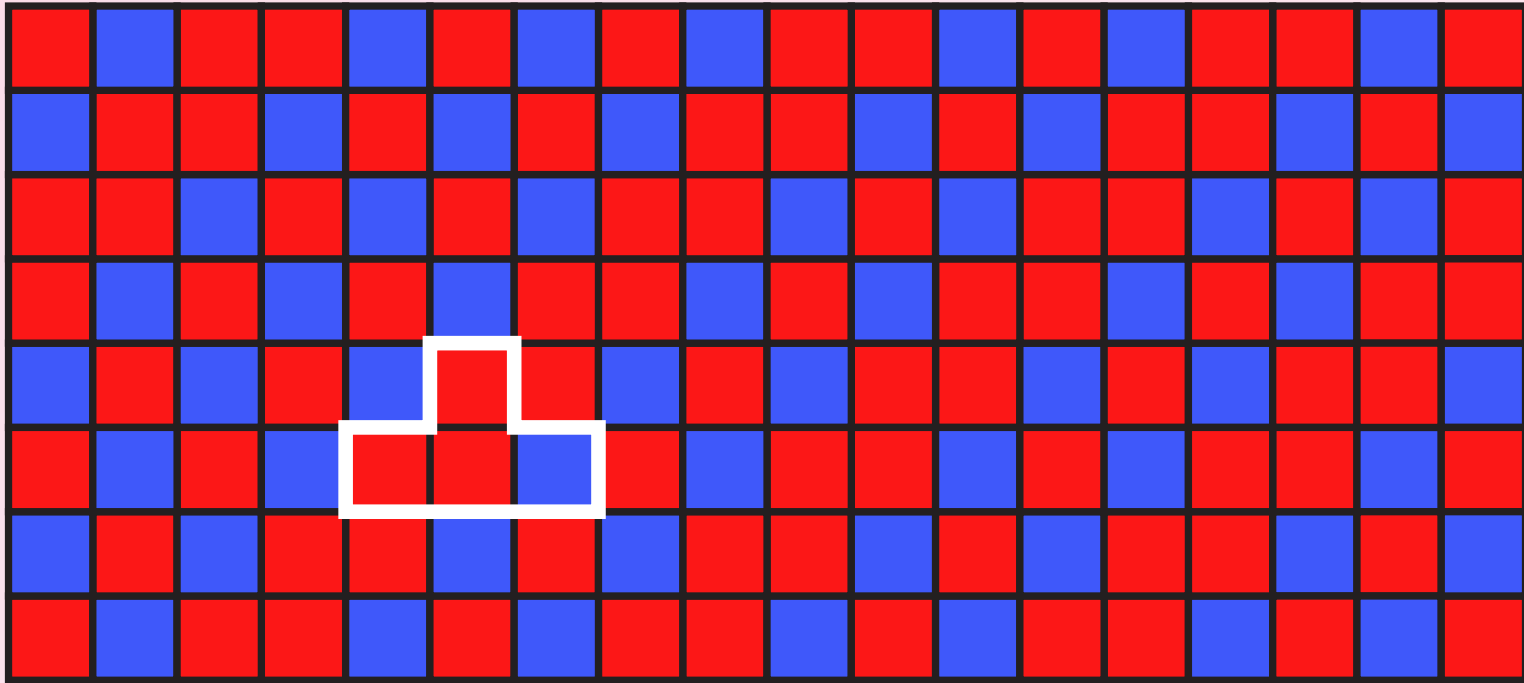
For a fixed finite shape D , we observe the **D -patterns** in the configuration.



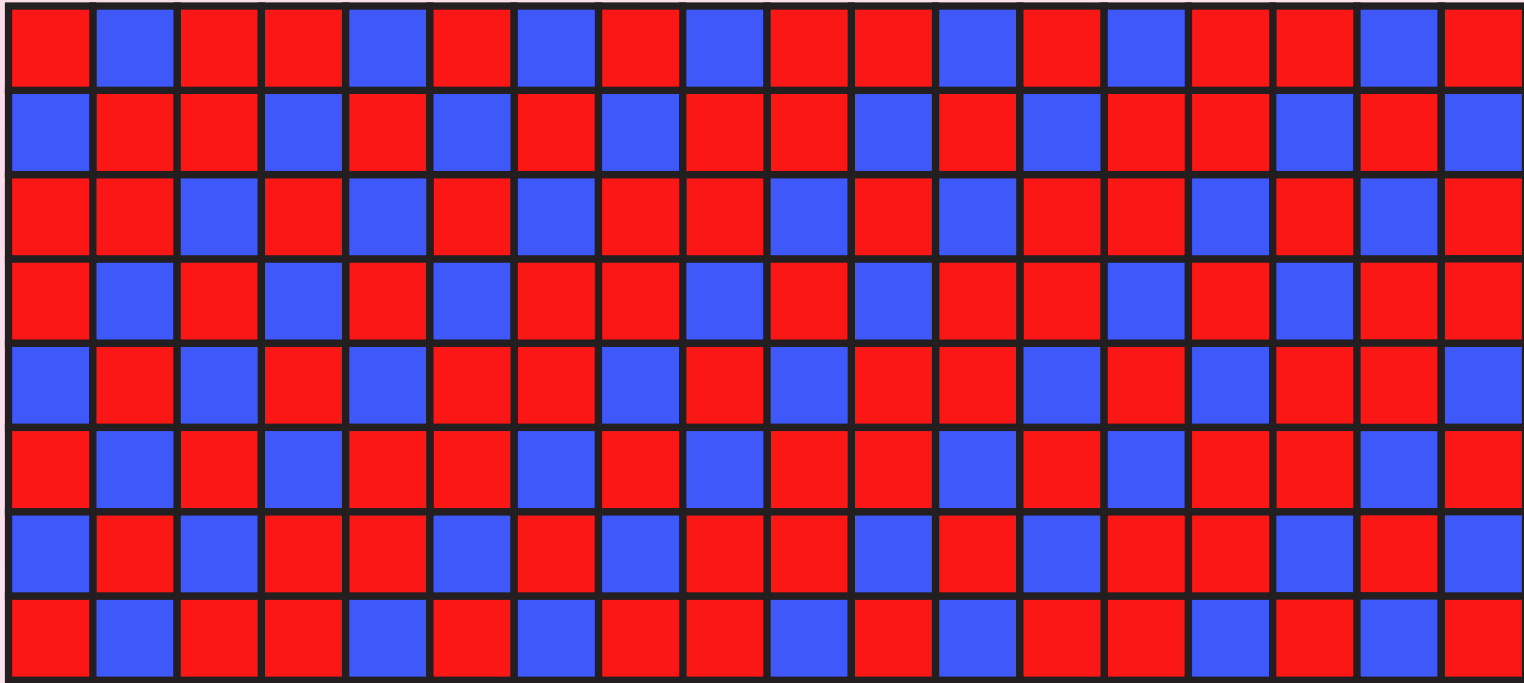
For a fixed finite shape D , we observe the **D -patterns** in the configuration.



For a fixed finite shape D , we observe the **D -patterns** in the configuration.

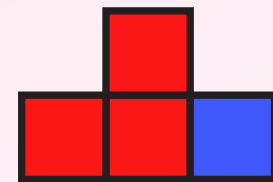
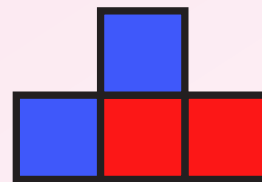
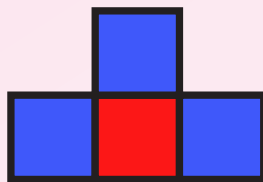
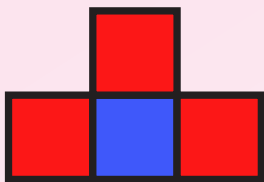
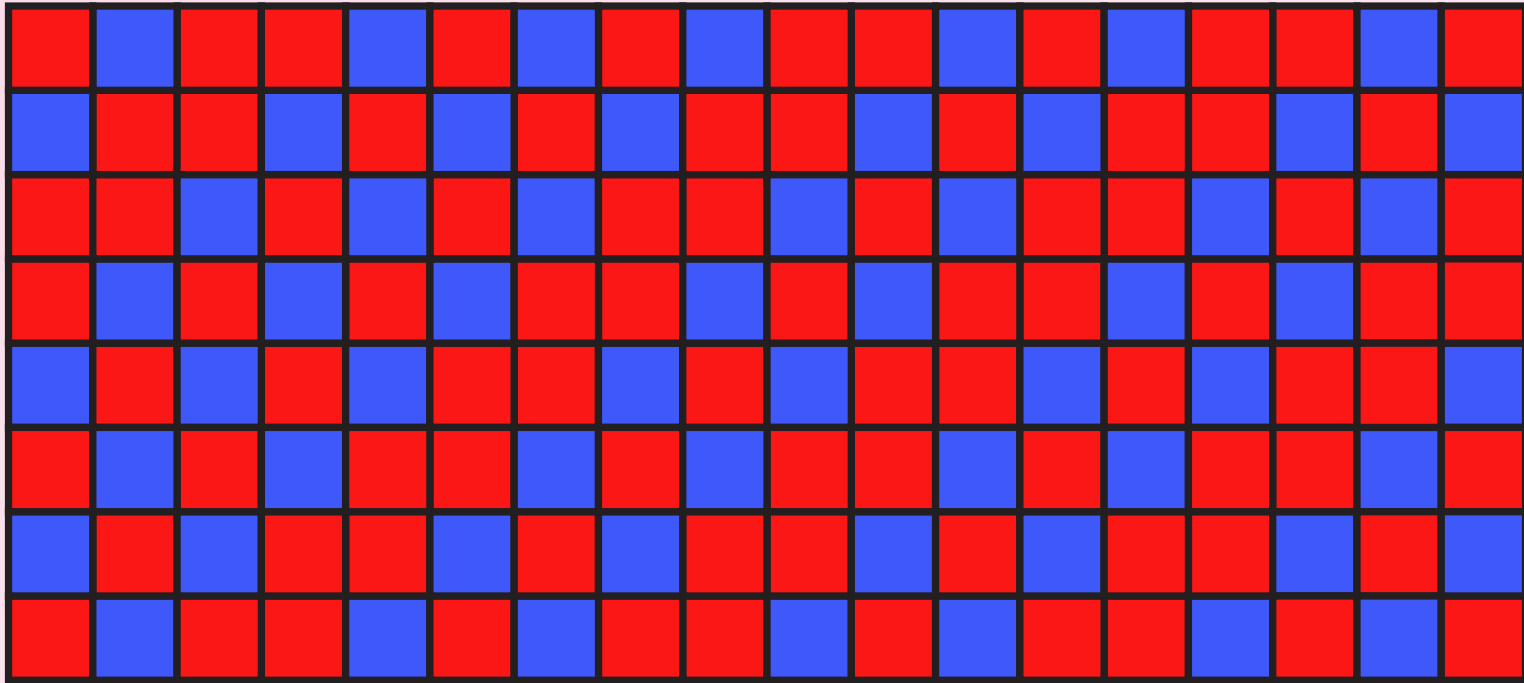


For a fixed finite shape D , we observe the ***D-patterns*** in the configuration.



A quantity to measure local complexity: the **pattern complexity**

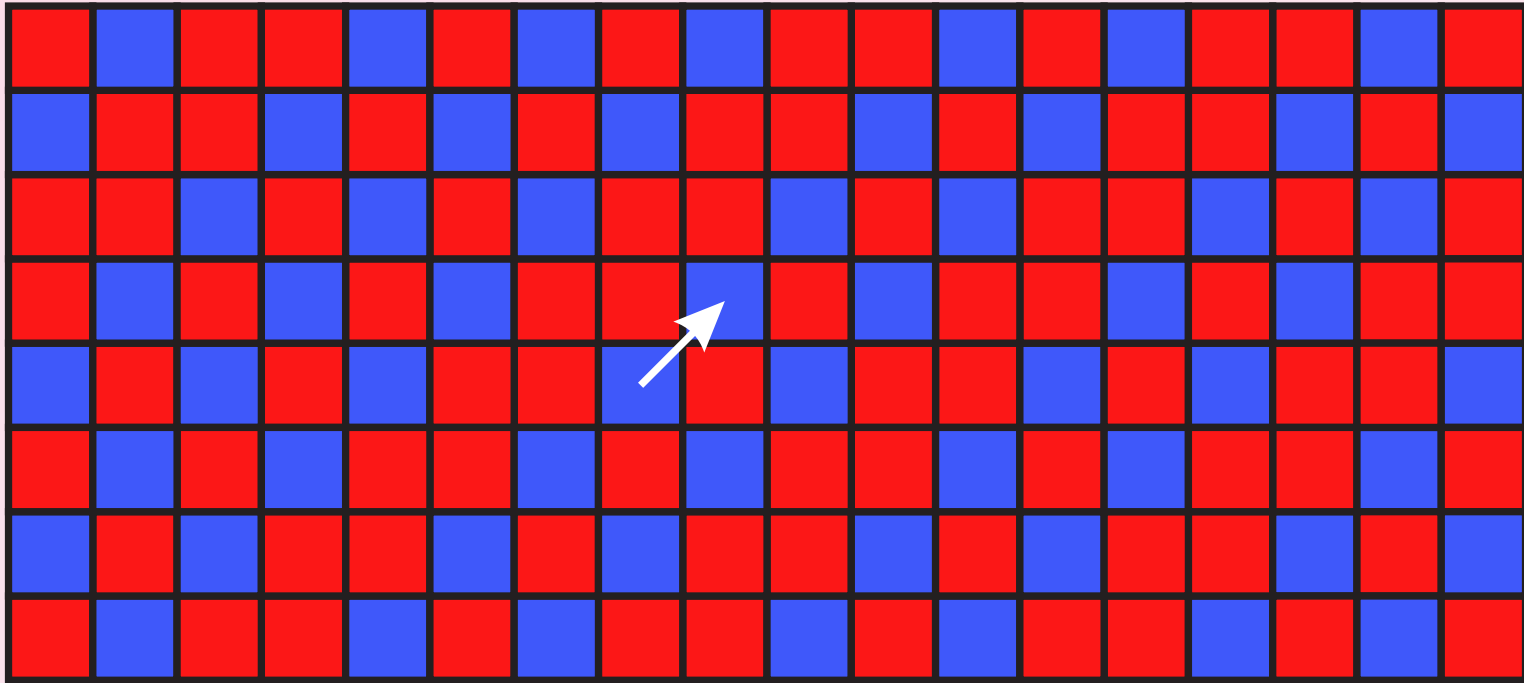
$$P(c, D) = \# \text{ of } D\text{-patterns in } c.$$



If this quantity is small, for some D , global regularities ensue.

The relevant **low complexity threshold**:

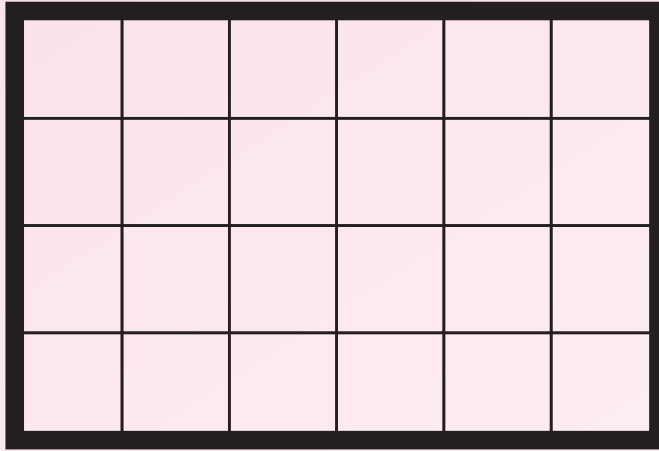
$$P(c, D) \leq |D|$$



Global regularity of interest is periodicity: Configuration is **periodic** if it is invariant under a non-zero translation.

Open problem 1: Nivat's conjecture

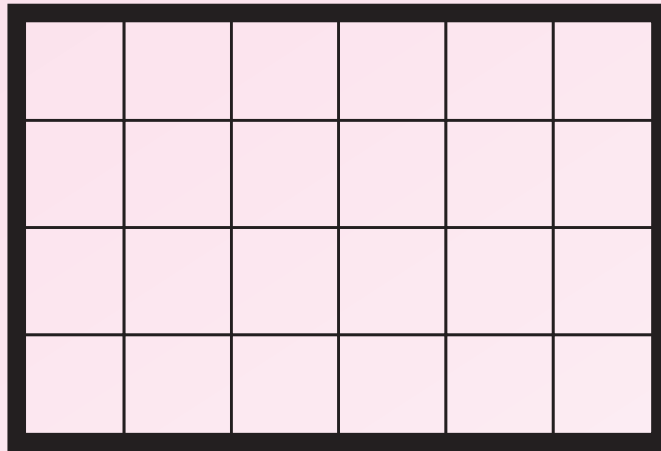
Consider $d = 2$ and rectangular D .



Conjecture (Nivat 1997) If $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ for some rectangle D then c is periodic.

Open problem 1: Nivat's conjecture

Consider $d = 2$ and rectangular D .



Conjecture (Nivat 1997) If $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ for some rectangle D then c is periodic.

This would extend the one-dimensional case $d = 1$:

Morse-Hedlund theorem: Let $c \in A^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If c has at most n distinct subwords of length n then c is periodic.

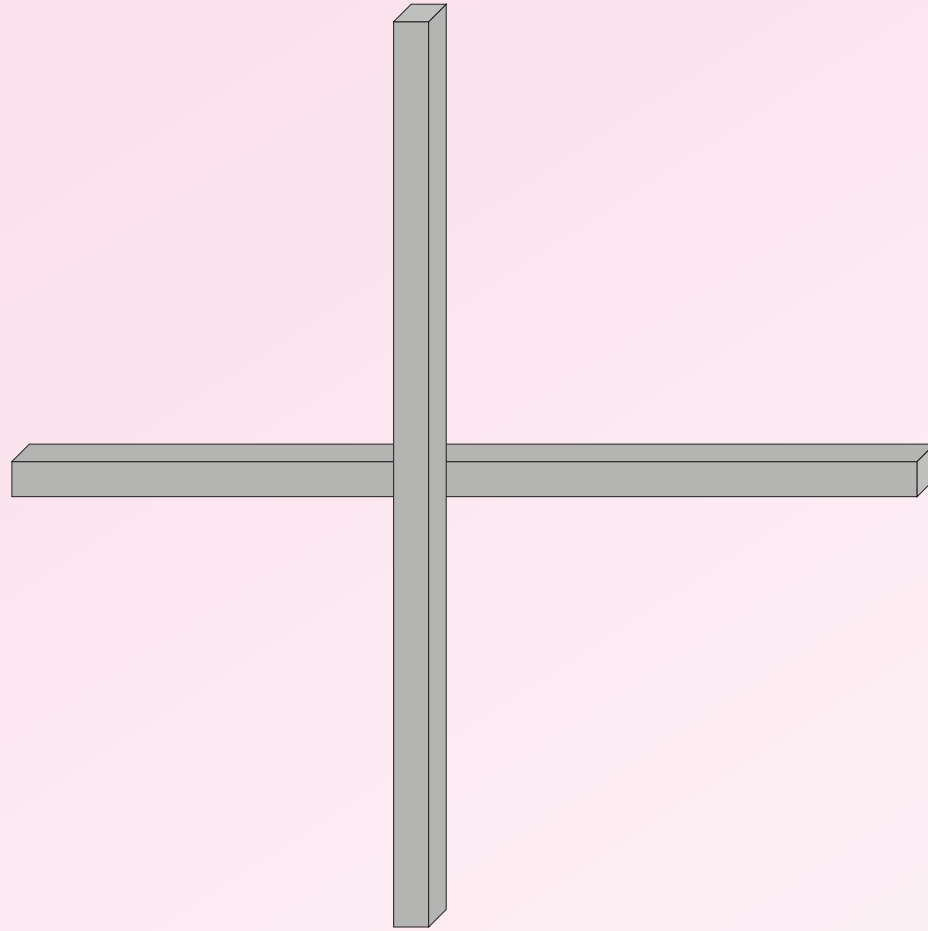
Best known bound in 2D:

Theorem (Cyr, Kra): If $P(c, D) \leq \frac{1}{2}|D|$ for some rectangle D then c is periodic.

Case of narrow rectangles:

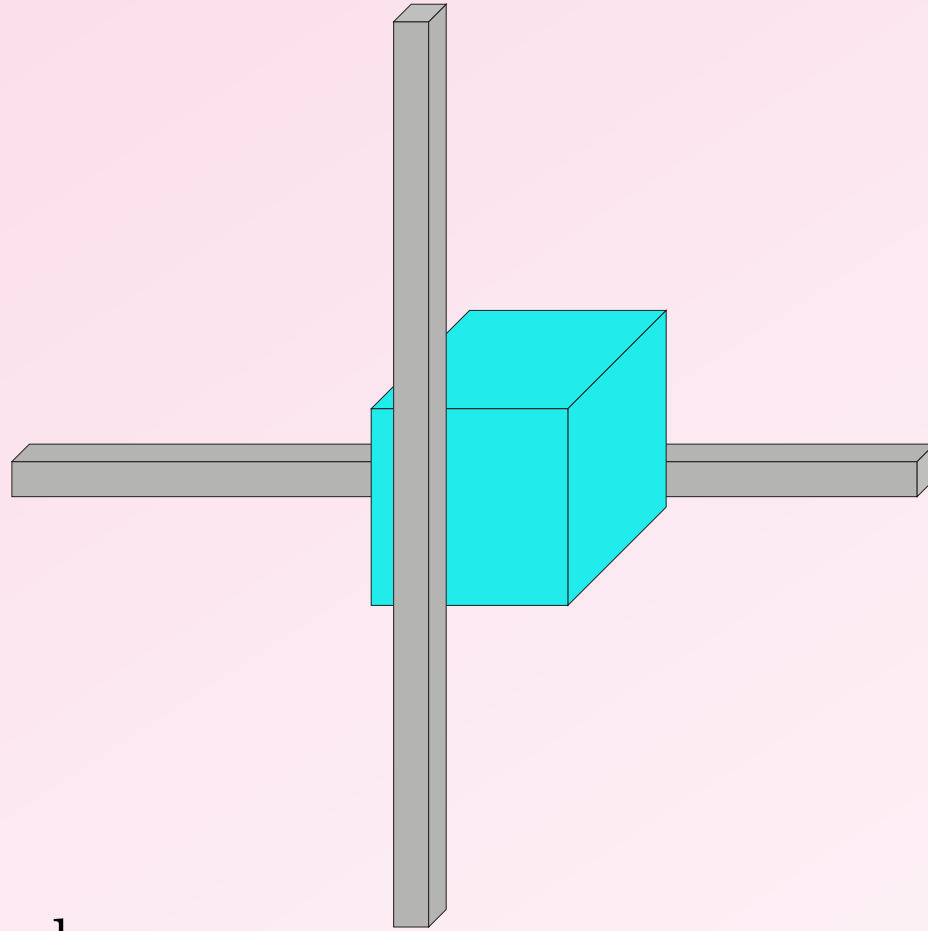
Theorem (Cyr, Kra): If D is a rectangle of height at most 3 and $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ then c is periodic.

In 3D and higher dimensional cases the conjecture is false



Non-periodic c

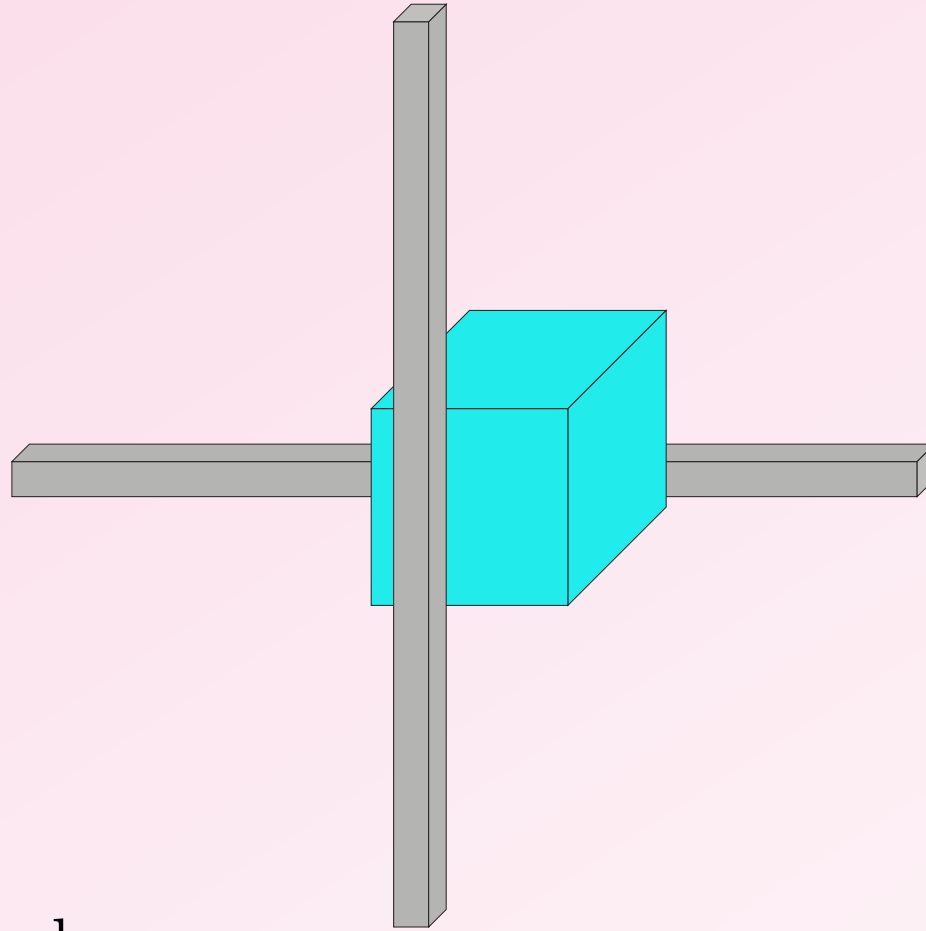
In 3D and higher dimensional cases the conjecture is false



Non-periodic c

D is $n \times n \times n$ cube

In 3D and higher dimensional cases the conjecture is false

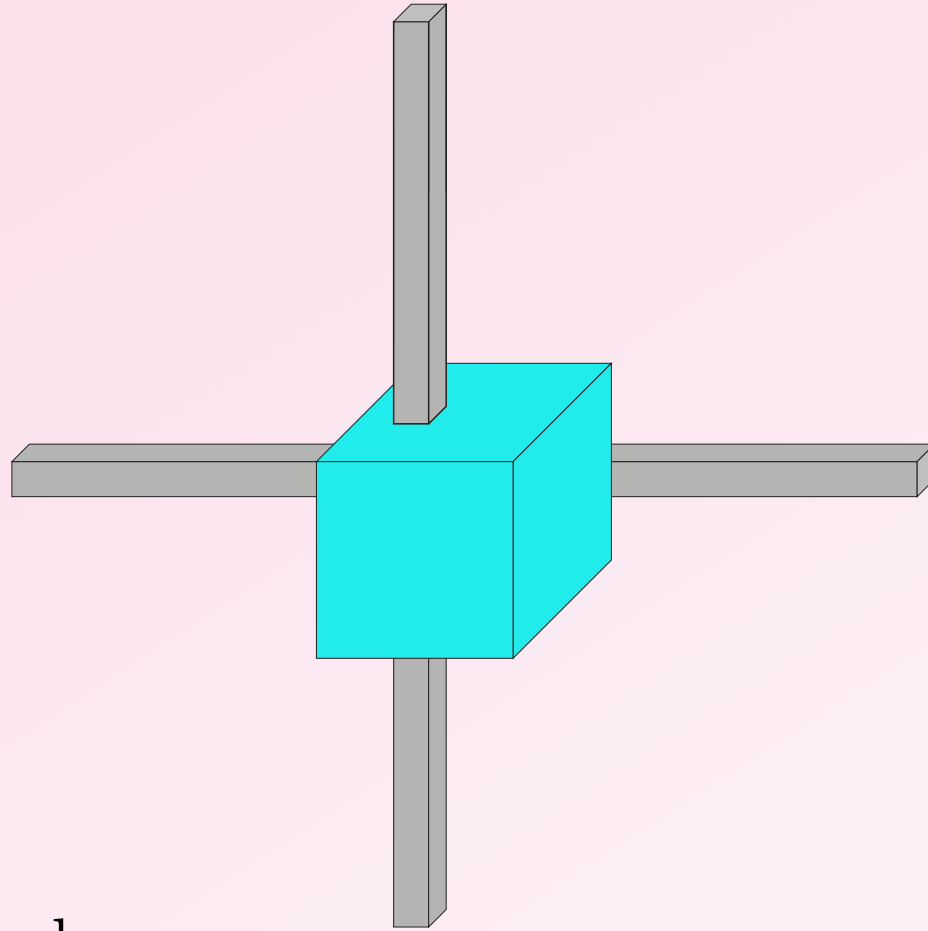


Non-periodic c

D is $n \times n \times n$ cube

$$P(c, D) = 1 + \dots$$

In 3D and higher dimensional cases the conjecture is false

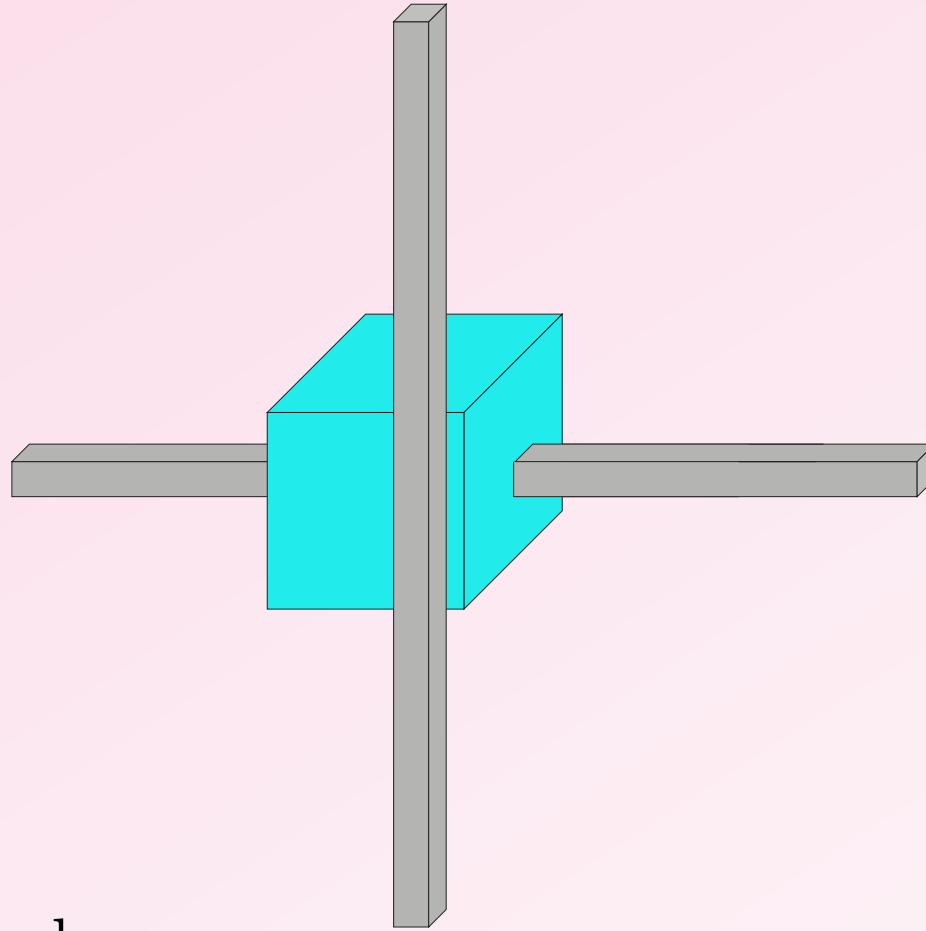


Non-periodic c

D is $n \times n \times n$ cube

$$P(c, D) = 1 + n^2 + \dots$$

In 3D and higher dimensional cases the conjecture is false

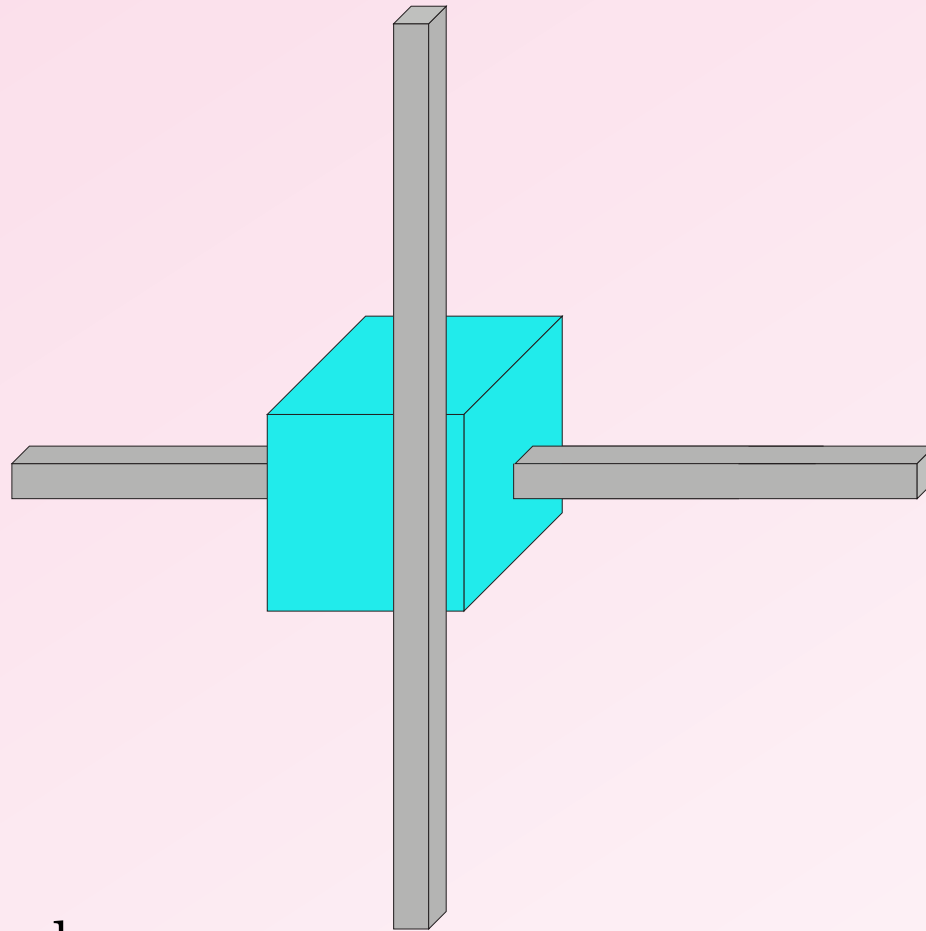


Non-periodic c

D is $n \times n \times n$ cube

$$P(c, D) = 1 + n^2 + n^2$$

In 3D and higher dimensional cases the conjecture is false



Non-periodic c

D is $n \times n \times n$ cube

$$P(c, D) = 1 + n^2 + n^2 < n^3 = |D| \text{ for large } n.$$

We can prove an asymptotic version in 2D:

Theorem (Kari, Szabados): If $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ for infinitely many different size rectangles D then c is periodic.

We can prove an asymptotic version in 2D:

Theorem (Kari, Szabados): If $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ for infinitely many different size rectangles D then c is periodic.

Or stated as **contrapositive:** If c is not periodic then $P(c, D) > |D|$ for all sufficiently large rectangles D .

Open problem 2: Periodic tiling problem

Let $T \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$ be finite, and call it a **tile**. A **tiling** is any $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$ such that

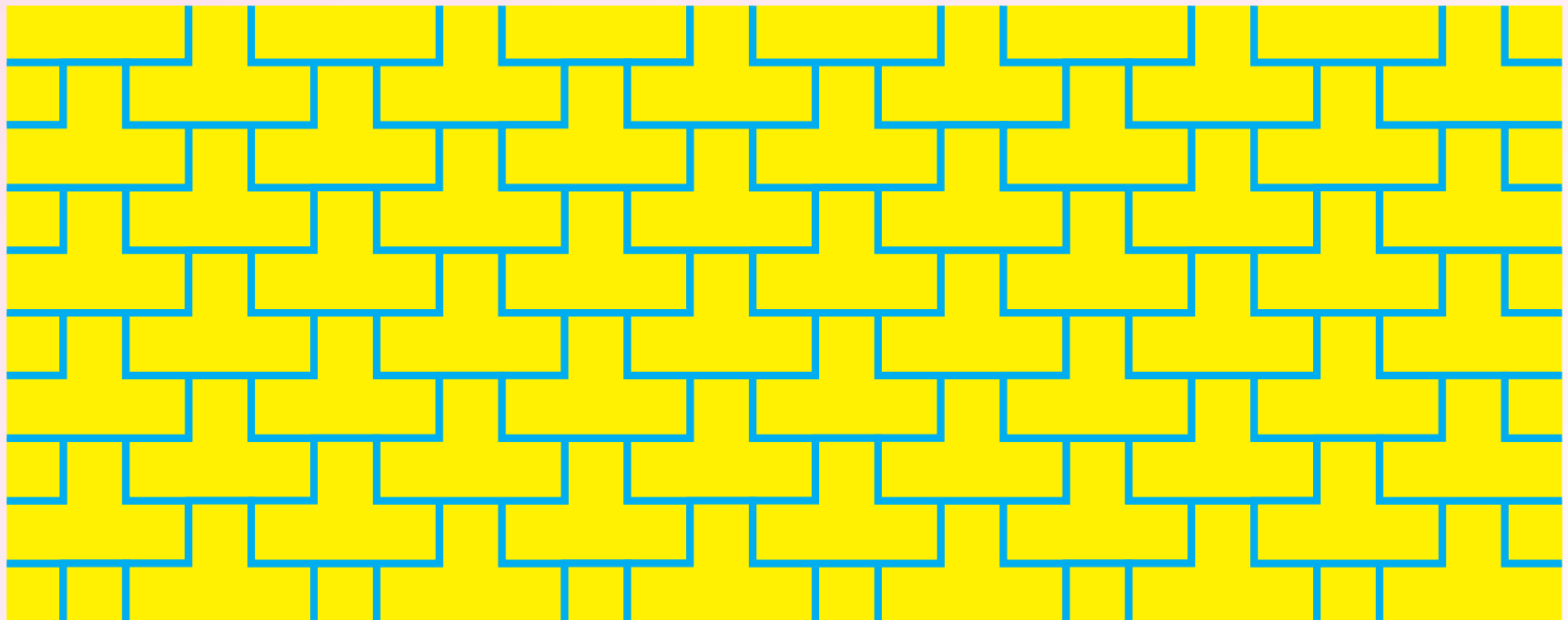
$$C \oplus T = \mathbb{Z}^d.$$

Open problem 2: Periodic tiling problem

Let $T \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$ be finite, and call it a **tile**. A **tiling** is any $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$ such that

$$C \oplus T = \mathbb{Z}^d.$$

Graphical interpretation: C gives the positions where copies of T are placed to cover \mathbb{Z}^d without gaps or overlaps.

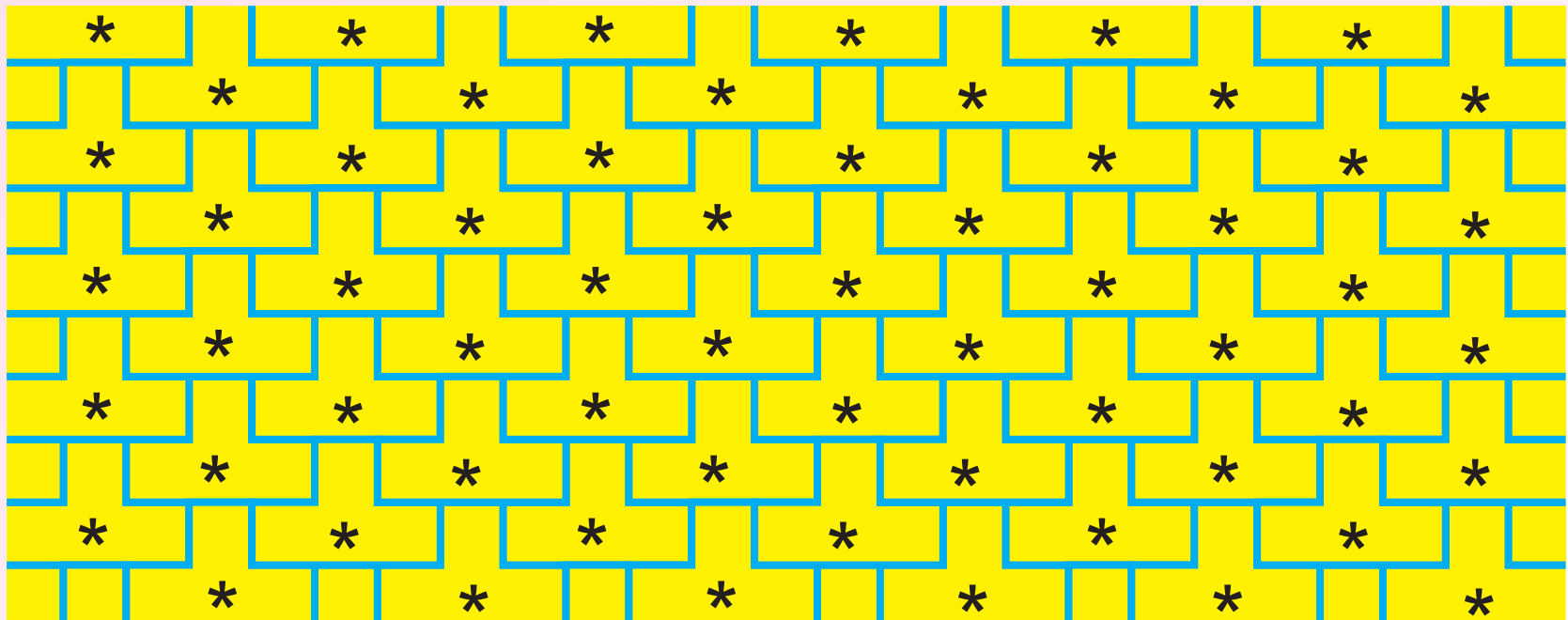


Open problem 2: Periodic tiling problem

Let $T \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$ be finite, and call it a **tile**. A **tiling** is any $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^d$ such that

$$C \oplus T = \mathbb{Z}^d.$$

Graphical interpretation: C gives the positions where copies of T are placed to cover \mathbb{Z}^d without gaps or overlaps.

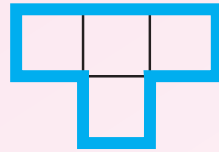


	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*

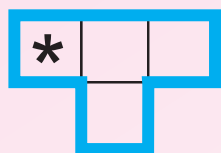
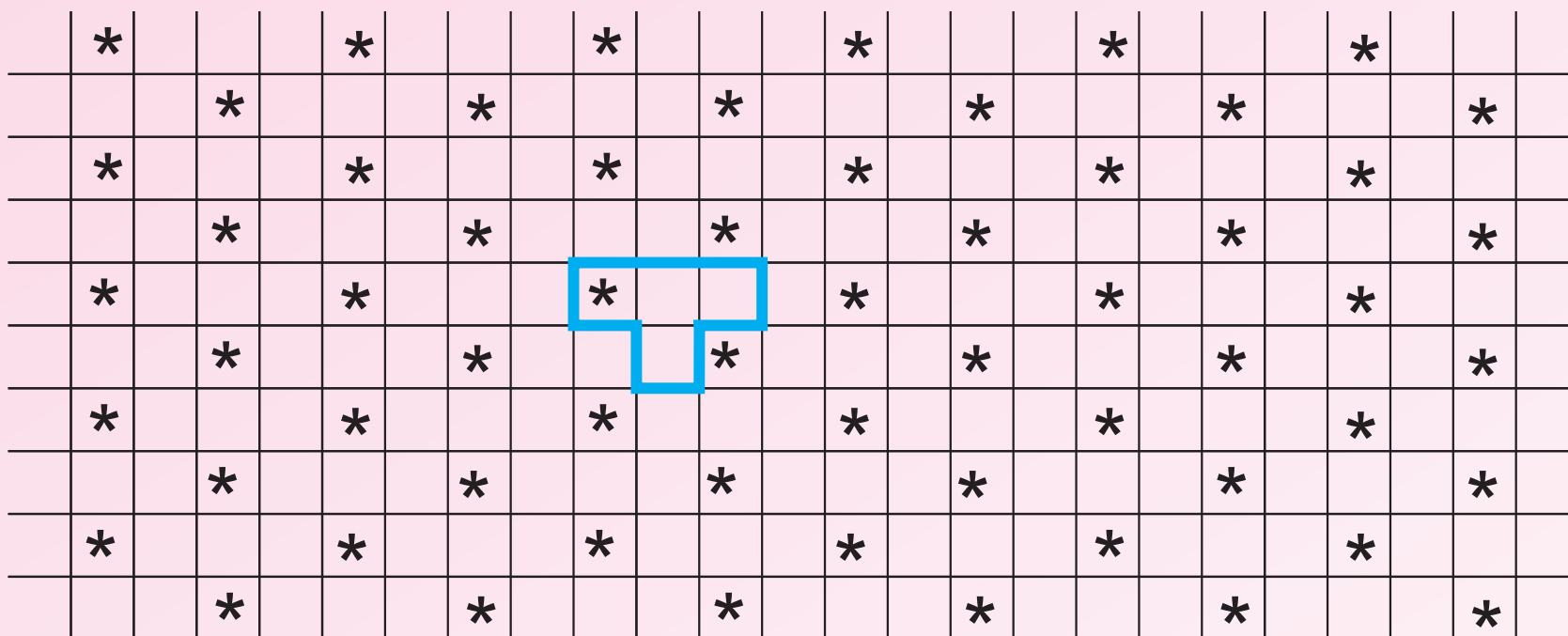
Interpret C as the binary configuration c with

$$c(i) = * \iff i \in C.$$

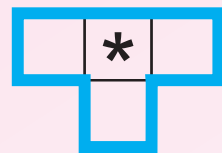
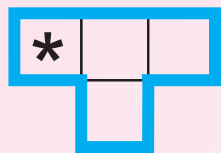
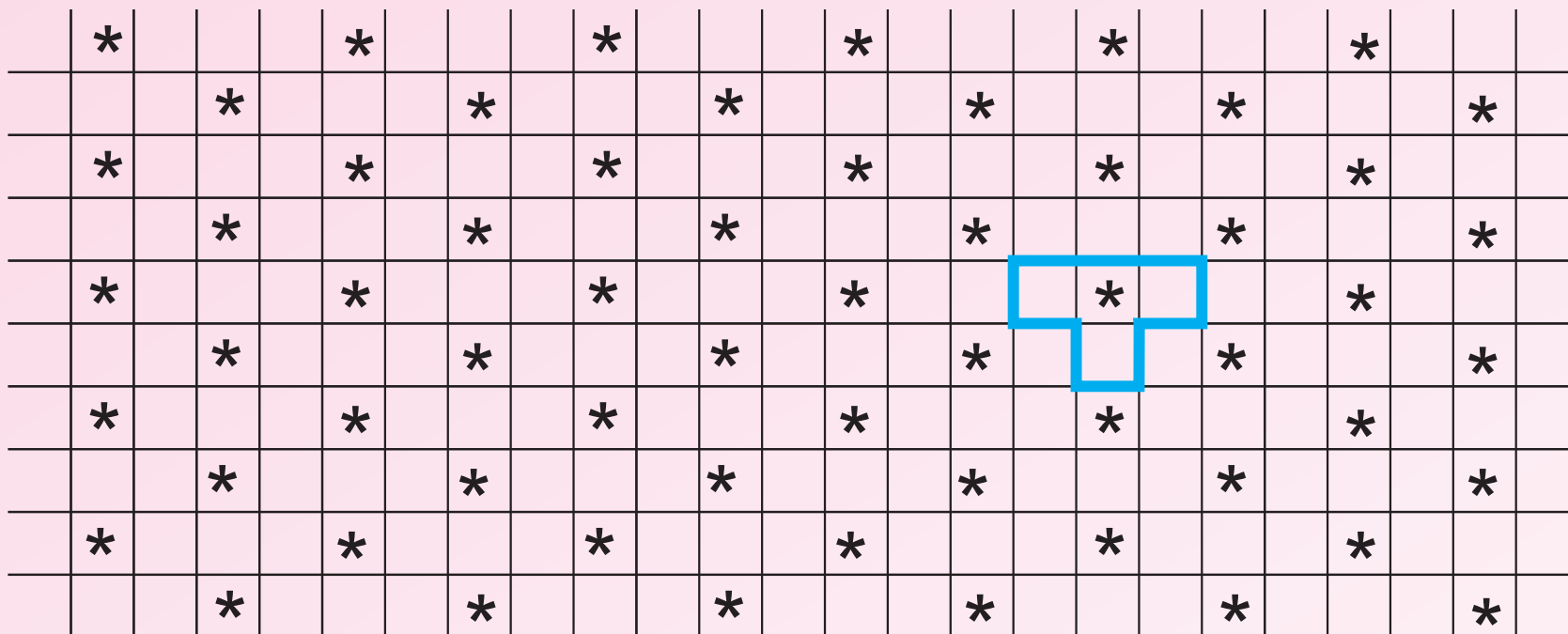
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*



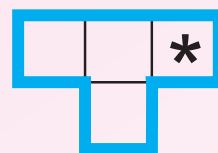
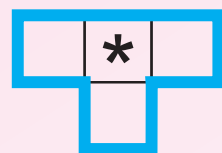
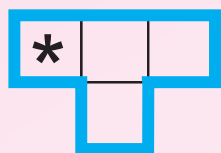
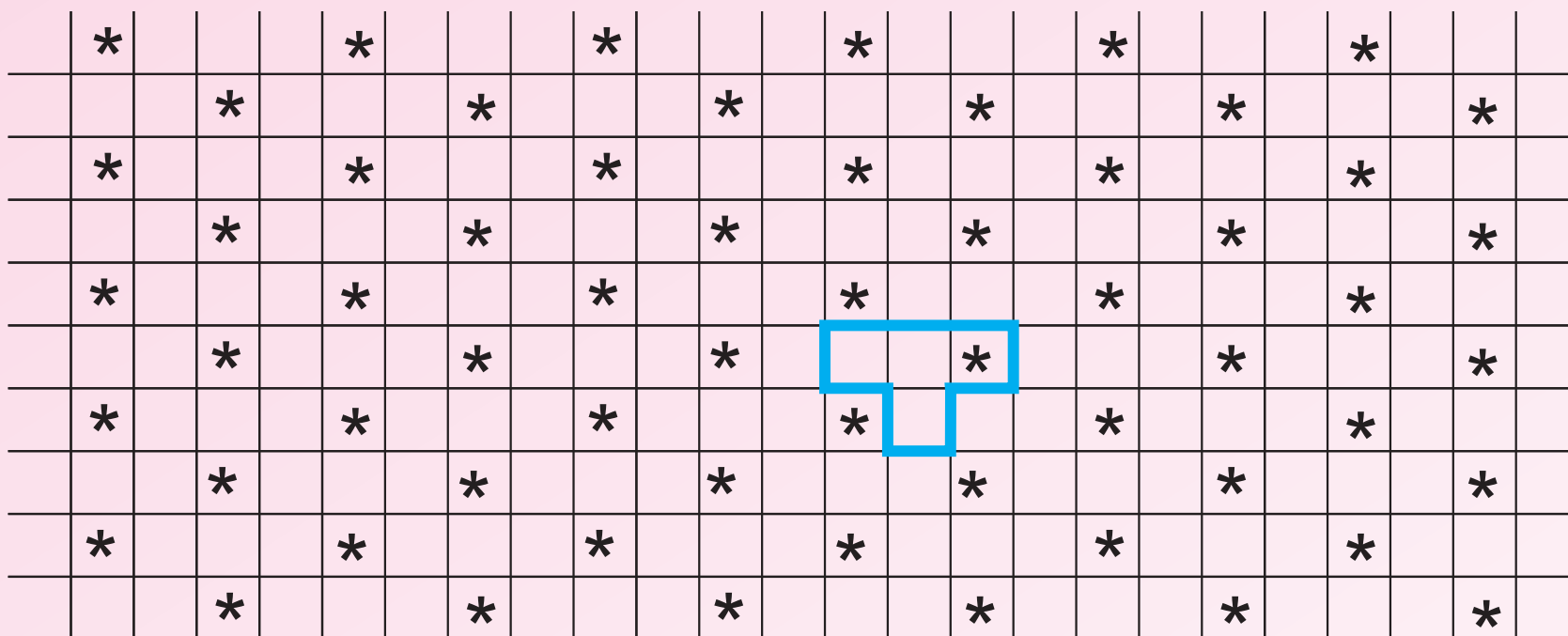
$(-T)$ -patterns of c contain exactly one symbol $*$.



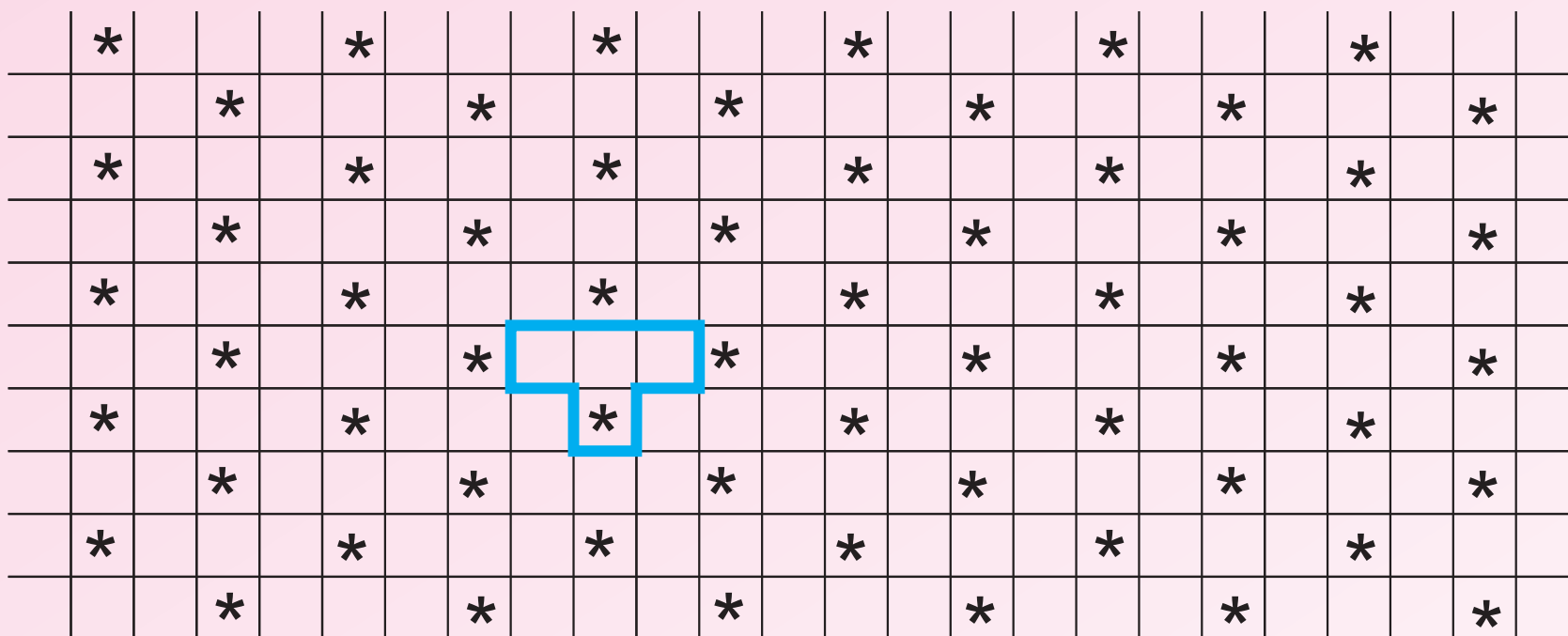
$(-T)$ -patterns of c contain exactly one symbol $*$.



$(-T)$ -patterns of c contain exactly one symbol $*$.



$(-T)$ -patterns of c contain exactly one symbol $*$.



$(-T)$ -patterns of c contain exactly one symbol $*$.

	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*



$(-T)$ -patterns of c contain exactly one symbol $*$.

$$P(c, -T) = |-T|$$

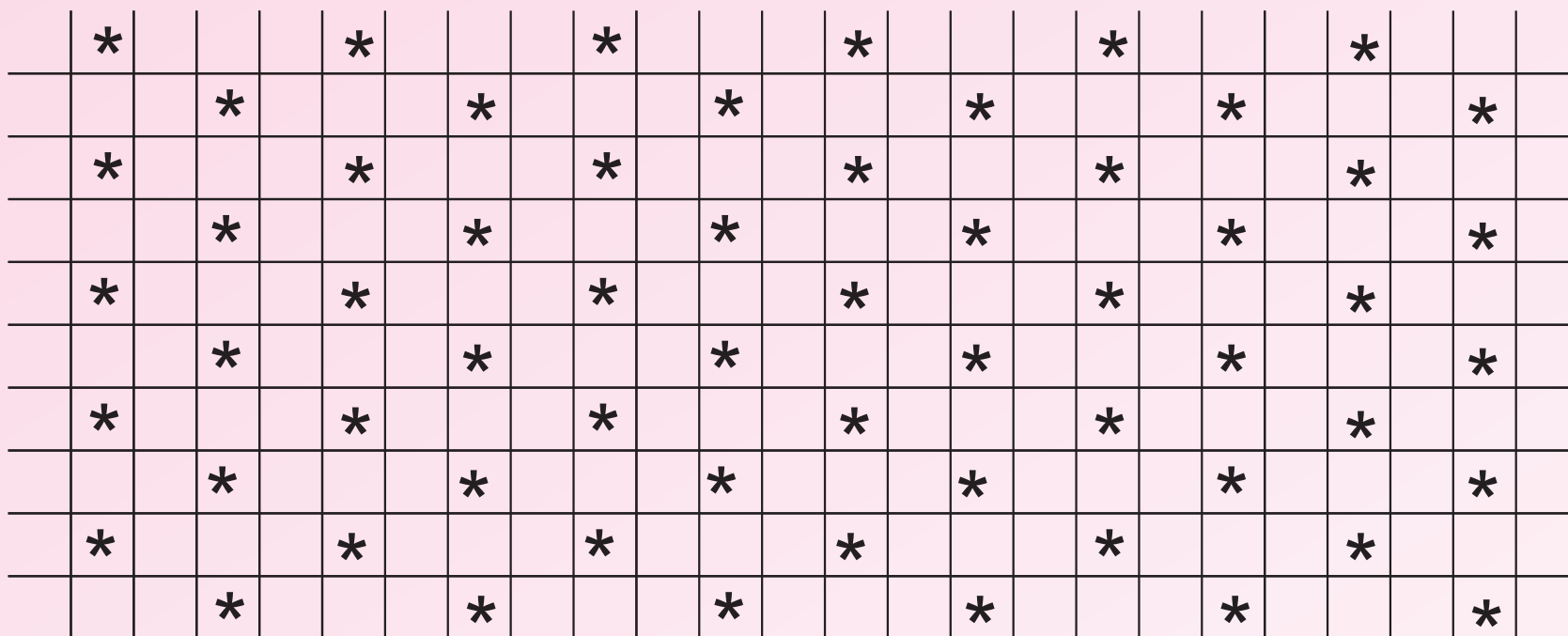
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*
	*			*			*			*			*			*		
			*			*			*			*			*			*



$(-T)$ -patterns of c contain exactly one symbol $*$.

$$P(c, -T) = |-T|$$

(Also $P(c, T) = |T|$ as any tiling for T is also a tiling for $-T$.)



If X is the **set of all tilings** by T then

$$P(X, T) = |T|$$

where $P(X, T)$ is the number of T -patterns in $c \in X$.

Set X is a low complexity **subshift of finite type (SFT)**.

Periodic tiling problem (Lagarias and Wang 1996): If T admits a tiling C , does it necessarily admit a periodic tiling ?

Periodic tiling problem (Lagarias and Wang 1996): If T admits a tiling C , does it necessarily admit a periodic tiling ?

Known results:

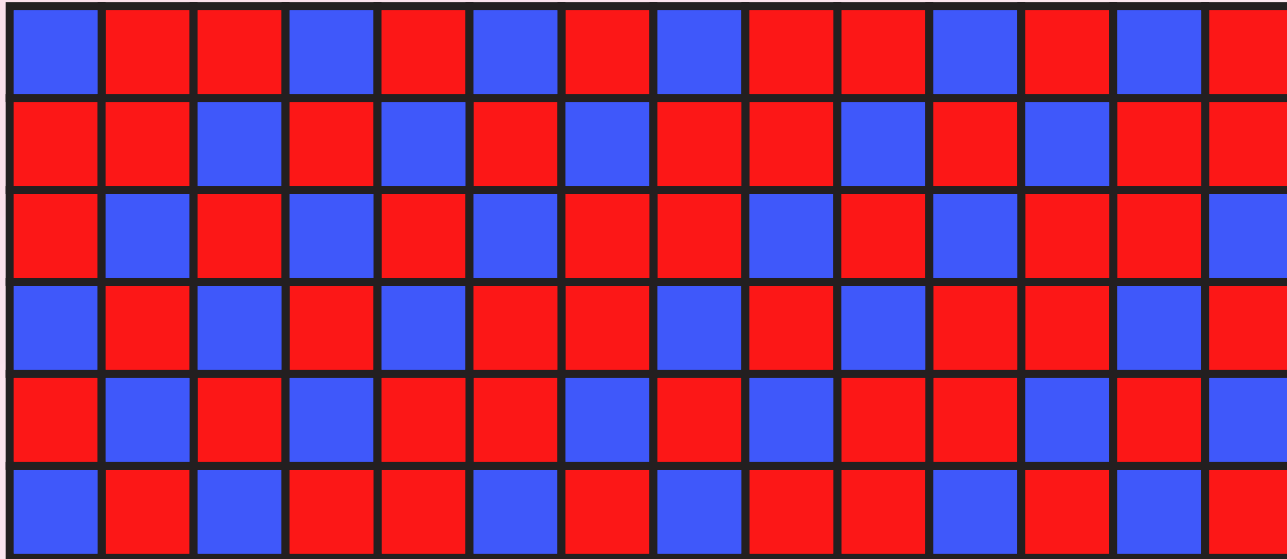
- Yes if $|T|$ is a prime number (Szegedy 1998).
- Yes in 2D
 - if T is 4-connected (Beauquier and Nivat 1991),
 - in general (Bhattacharya 2016).

Both the **Nivat's conjecture** and the **Periodic tiling problem** concern periodicity under complexity constraint $P(c, D) \leq |D|$.

We are interested in analogous questions generally.

- **Algorithmic question:** given at most $|D|$ patterns of shape D , does there exist a configuration with only these given D -patterns ? (=emptiness problem of a given low complexity subshift of finite type)
- **Periodicity:** If there exists a configuration whose D -patterns are among the given $\leq |D|$ ones, does there necessarily exist such a configuration that is periodic ?

We study configurations using algebra, so we first replace symbols by integers:



We study configurations using algebra, so we first replace symbols by integers:

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

We study configurations using algebra, so we first replace symbols by integers:

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

D -patterns are viewed as $|D|$ -dimensional numerical vectors.

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

D -patterns are viewed as $|D|$ -dimensional numerical vectors.

$(1, 1, 1, 2)$

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

D -patterns are viewed as $|D|$ -dimensional numerical vectors.

$(1, 1, 1, 2)$

$(1, 1, 2, 1)$

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

D -patterns are viewed as $|D|$ -dimensional numerical vectors.

(1, 1, 1, 2)

(1, 1, 2, 1)

(2, 2, 1, 2)

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

D -patterns are viewed as $|D|$ -dimensional numerical vectors.

(1, 1, 1, 2)

(1, 1, 2, 1)

(2, 2, 1, 2)

(2, 2, 1, 1)

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

- If $P(c, D) < |D|$ then there is an (integer) vector orthogonal to all D -patterns of c .

Indeed: the number $P(c, D)$ of distinct vectors is less than the dimension $|D|$ of the linear space.

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

- If $P(c, D) < |D|$ then there is an (integer) vector orthogonal to all D -patterns of c .
- Even if $P(c, D) = |D|$ we can add a suitable rational constant to c to make the vectors linearly dependent. Also then an orthogonal vector exists.

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

- If $P(c, D) < |D|$ then there is an (integer) vector orthogonal to all D -patterns of c .
- Even if $P(c, D) = |D|$ we can add a suitable rational constant to c to make the vectors linearly dependent. Also then an orthogonal vector exists.

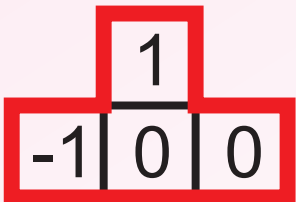
This is OK: we are free to choose the numerical encoding.

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1, 1, 1, 2) \\ (1, 1, 2, 1) \\ (2, 2, 1, 2) \\ (2, 2, 1, 1) \end{array} \right\} \perp (1, -1, 0, 0)$$

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1, 1, 1, 2) \\ (1, 1, 2, 1) \\ (2, 2, 1, 2) \\ (2, 2, 1, 1) \end{array} \right\} \perp (1, -1, 0, 0)$$



The orthogonal vector is a **filter** whose convolution with c is the zero configuration. We say it **annihilates** configuration c .

2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2
2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1
1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2
2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1

Conclusion: If $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ then symbols can be represented as integers in such a way that some non-trivial integer filter annihilates c .

To use algebraic geometry, we next represent c as a **power series** (negative exponents included).

2	1	2	1	1
1	2	1	1	2
2	1	1	2	1
1	1	2	1	2
1	2	1	2	1

$$c \longleftrightarrow \sum_{(i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(i_1, \dots, i_d) x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}$$

To use algebraic geometry, we next represent c as a **power series** (negative exponents included).

$2\bar{x}^3y^2$	\bar{x}^3y^2	$2x^0y^2$	x^1y^2	x^2y^2
\bar{x}^2y^1	$2\bar{x}^1y^1$	x^0y^1	x^1y^1	$2x^2y^1$
$2\bar{x}^2y^0$	\bar{x}^1y^0	x^0y^0	$2x^1y^0$	x^2y^0
\bar{x}^2y^{-1}	\bar{x}^1y^{-1}	$2x^0y^{-1}$	x^1y^{-1}	$2x^2y^{-1}$
\bar{x}^2y^{-2}	$2\bar{x}^1y^{-2}$	x^0y^{-2}	$2x^1y^{-2}$	x^2y^{-2}

$$c \longleftrightarrow \sum_{(i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(i_1, \dots, i_d) x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}$$

To use algebraic geometry, we next represent c as a **power series** (negative exponents included).

$$\dots + 2\bar{x}^3y^2 + \bar{x}^3y^2 + 2x^0y^2 + x^1y^2 + x^2y^2 + \dots$$

$$\dots + \bar{x}^2y^1 + 2\bar{x}^1y^1 + x^0y^1 + x^1y^1 + 2x^2y^1 + \dots$$

$$\dots + 2\bar{x}^2y^0 + \bar{x}^1y^0 + x^0y^0 + 2x^1y^0 + x^2y^0 + \dots$$

$$\dots + \bar{x}^2\bar{y}^1 + \bar{x}^1\bar{y}^1 + 2x^0\bar{y}^1 + x^1\bar{y}^1 + 2x^2\bar{y}^1 + \dots$$

$$\dots + \bar{x}^2\bar{y}^2 + 2\bar{x}^1\bar{y}^2 + x^0\bar{y}^2 + 2x^1\bar{y}^2 + x^2\bar{y}^2 + \dots$$

$$c \longleftrightarrow \sum_{(i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(i_1, \dots, i_d) x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}$$

$$c \longleftrightarrow \sum_{(i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(i_1, \dots, i_d) x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}$$

Notations:

- $X = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$
- For $I = (i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ we denote by

$$X^I = x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}$$

the monomial that represents cell I .

$$c \longleftrightarrow \sum_{(i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(i_1, \dots, i_d) x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d} = \underbrace{\sum_{I \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(I) X^I}_{c(X)}$$

Notations:

- $X = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$
- For $I = (i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ we denote by

$$X^I = x_1^{i_1} \dots x_d^{i_d}$$

the monomial that represents cell I .

$$c(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(I) X^I$$

The configuration is now a power series $c(X)$ that is

- **integral** (=all coefficients are integers), and
- **finitary** (=finite number of distinct coefficients)

$$c(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(I) X^I$$

Multiplying $c(X)$ by monomial X^J gives **translation** by $J \in \mathbb{Z}^d$:

$$X^J \cdot c(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(I) X^{I+J}$$

So $c(X)$ is **J -periodic** if and only if $X^J \cdot c(X) = c(X)$, i.e.,

$$(X^J - 1)c(X) = 0$$

$$c(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(I) X^I$$

Multiplying $c(X)$ by a (Laurent) polynomial $f(X)$ is a convolution, corresponding to **filtering** operation.

We say that $f(X)$ **annihilates** $c(X)$ if $f(X)c(X) = 0$.

$$c(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c(I) X^I$$

- Zero polynomial $f(X) = 0$ annihilates every configuration – it is the **trivial annihilator**.
- Binomial $X^I - 1$ annihilates $c(X)$ if and only if $c(X)$ is I -periodic.
- Annihilators of $c(X)$ form an **ideal**:
 - if $f(X)$ and $g(X)$ annihilate $c(X)$, also $f(X) + g(X)$ annihilates it,
 - if $f(X)$ annihilates $c(X)$ then also $g(X)f(X)$ annihilates it, for all $g(X)$.

Define

$$\text{Ann}(c) = \{f(X) \in \mathbb{C}[X] \mid f(X)c(X) = 0\}.$$

This is the polynomial ideal that contains all annihilators of c .

Define

$$\text{Ann}(c) = \{f(X) \in \mathbb{C}[X] \mid f(X)c(X) = 0\}.$$

This is the polynomial ideal that contains all annihilators of c .

Remarks:

- We consider polynomials (not Laurent polynomials!) so that we can directly rely on polynomial algebra. **No problem:** any Laurent polynomial annihilator can be made into a proper polynomial annihilator by multiplying it with suitable monomial X^I .
- We allow complex coefficients because we need algebraically closed field to apply Hilbert's Nullstellensatz.
- $\text{Ann}(c)$ is indeed an ideal of the polynomial ring $\mathbb{C}[X]$.

$$\text{Ann}(c) = \{f(X) \in \mathbb{C}[X] \mid f(X)c(X) = 0\}$$

Our setup (=low complexity configuration) is an integral, finitary $c(X)$ that has some non-trivial **integral annihilator**

$$f(X) \in \text{Ann}(c) \cap \mathbb{Z}[X]$$

$$\text{Ann}(c) = \{f(X) \in \mathbb{C}[X] \mid f(X)c(X) = 0\}$$

To prove that $\text{Ann}(c)$ contains “simple” polynomials we use

Nullstellensatz (Hilbert): Let $g(X)$ be a polynomial. Suppose that $g(Z) = 0$ for all Z in the **variety**

$$\{Z \in \mathbb{C}^d \mid f(Z) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in \text{Ann}(c)\}.$$

Then $g^k \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Lemma: $f(X^n) \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ whose prime factors are sufficiently large.

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Lemma: $f(X^n) \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ whose prime factors are sufficiently large.

$$f(X) \begin{array}{|c|} \hline a \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline b & c & d \\ \hline \end{array}$$

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Lemma: $f(X^n) \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ whose prime factors are sufficiently large.

$$f(X^2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & \boxed{a} & \\ \boxed{b} & \boxed{c} & \boxed{d} \end{array}$$

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Lemma: $f(X^n) \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ whose prime factors are sufficiently large.

$f(X^3)$

a

b

c

d

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Lemma: $f(X^n) \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ whose prime factors are sufficiently large.

$f(X^4)$

a

b

c

d

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Lemma: $f(X^n) \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ whose prime factors are sufficiently large.

Proof: a direct application of

$$f(X)^p \equiv f(X^p) \pmod{p\mathbb{Z}[X]}$$

for prime factors p of n .

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Lemma: $f(X^n) \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ whose prime factors are sufficiently large.

In particular, $f(X^{1+iM})$ are in $\text{Ann}(c)$ for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, where M is the product of all small primes.

In the following:

$c(X)$ a finitary, integral power series

$f(X) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}} a_I X^I$ its non-trivial integral annihilator polynomial
(\mathcal{I} is the support: $a_I \neq 0$ for all $I \in \mathcal{I}$)

Let $Z \in \mathbb{C}^d$ be a common zero of $\text{Ann}(c)$, so

$$f(Z^{1+iM}) = 0 \text{ for all } i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then (proof omitted) $g(Z) = 0$ for

$$g(X) = X^1 \prod_{\substack{I, J \in \mathcal{I} \\ I \neq J}} (X^{MI} - X^{MJ}).$$

So all common zeros of $\text{Ann}(c)$ are zeros of the polynomial

$$g(X) = X^1 \prod_{\substack{I, J \in \mathcal{I} \\ I \neq J}} (X^{MI} - X^{MJ}).$$

So all common zeros of $\text{Ann}(c)$ are zeros of the polynomial

$$g(X) = X^1 \prod_{\substack{I, J \in \mathcal{I} \\ I \neq J}} (X^{MI} - X^{MJ}).$$

Nullstellensatz $\implies g(X)^n \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

So all common zeros of $\text{Ann}(c)$ are zeros of the polynomial

$$g(X) = X^1 \prod_{\substack{I, J \in \mathcal{I} \\ I \neq J}} (X^{MI} - X^{MJ}).$$

Nullstellensatz $\implies g(X)^n \in \text{Ann}(c)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Dividing $g(X)^n$ by a suitable monomial gives:

Theorem. Finitary, integral $c(X)$ that has a non-trivial annihilator is annihilated by a Laurent polynomial of the form

$$(1 - X^{I_1})(1 - X^{I_2}) \dots (1 - X^{I_k}).$$

$$\text{Annihilator: } (1 - X^{I_1})(1 - X^{I_2}) \dots (1 - X^{I_k})$$

Binomials $(1 - X^I)$ correspond to **difference operators** that subtract from a configuration its own I -translation.

The theorem states that configuration $c(X)$ can be annihilated by a sequence of difference operations.

Annihilator: $(1 - X^{I_1})(1 - X^{I_2}) \dots (1 - X^{I_k})$

If $k = 1$ then $c(X)$ is periodic.

More generally, $c(X)$ is a sum of k (possibly non-finitary) integral configurations that are periodic:

Corollary $c(X) = c_1(X) + \dots + c_k(X)$ where $c_i(X)$ is I_i -periodic and **integral** (but not necessarily finitary).

$$\text{Annihilator: } (1 - X^{I_1})(1 - X^{I_2}) \dots (1 - X^{I_k})$$

If $k = 1$ then $c(X)$ is periodic.

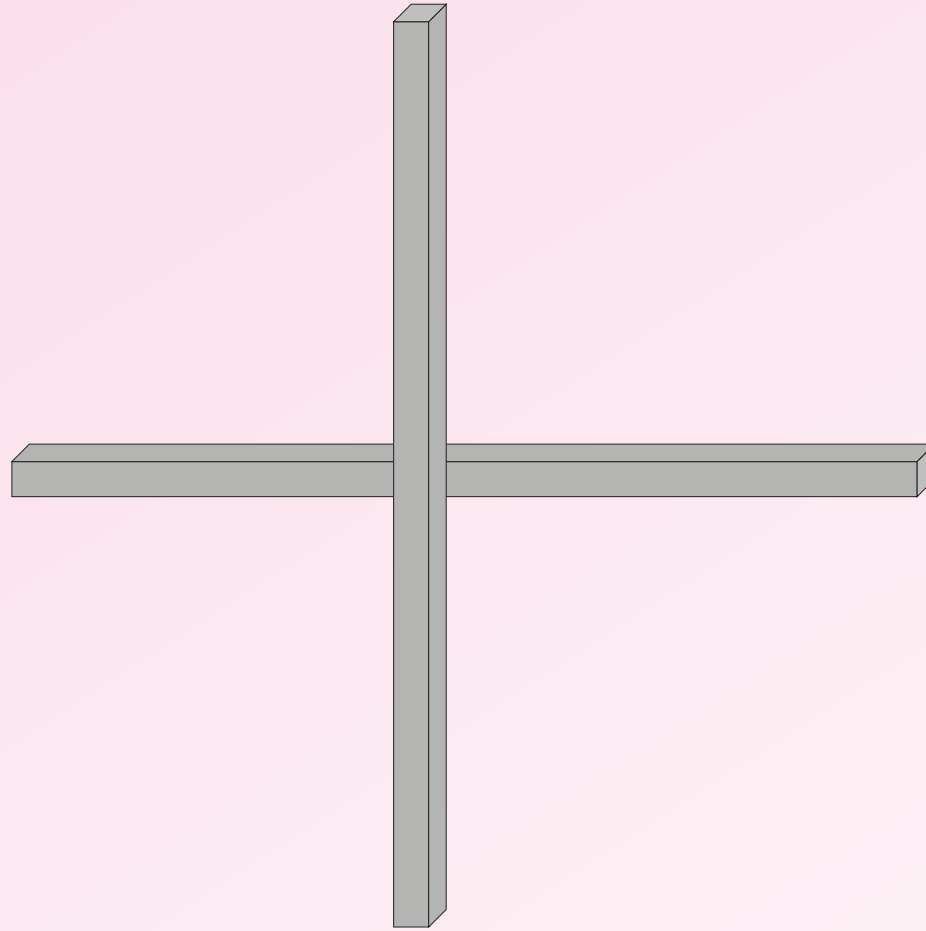
More generally, $c(X)$ is a sum of k (possibly non-finitary) integral configurations that are periodic:

Corollary $c(X) = c_1(X) + \dots + c_k(X)$ where $c_i(X)$ is I_i -periodic and **integral** (but not necessarily finitary).

We can trade integrality for boundedness:

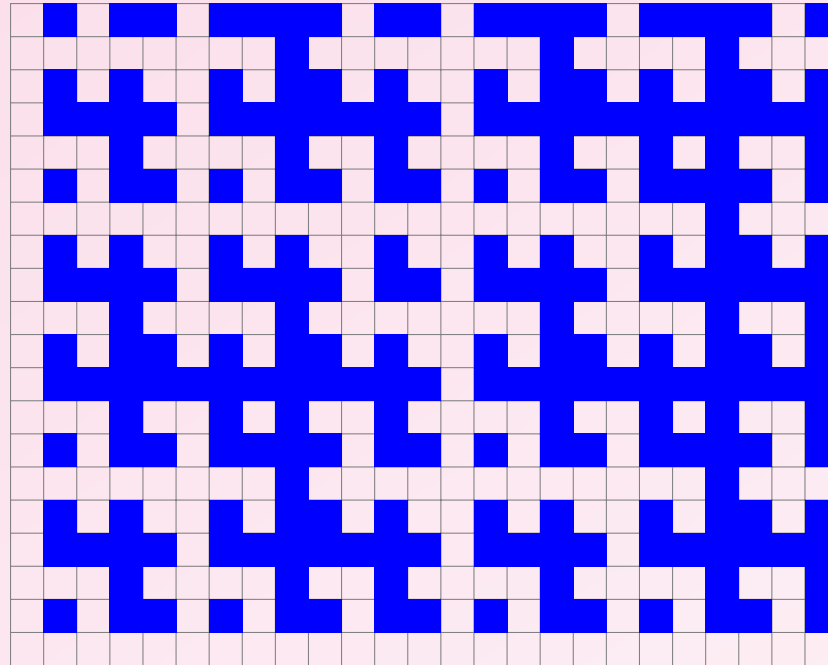
Corollary' $c(X) = c_1(X) + \dots + c_k(X)$ where $c_i(X)$ is I_i -periodic with **bounded** coefficients (but not necessarily finitary).

Example. The 3D counter example



to Nivat's conjecture is a sum of two periodic configurations. It is annihilated by polynomial $(1 - y)(1 - x)$.

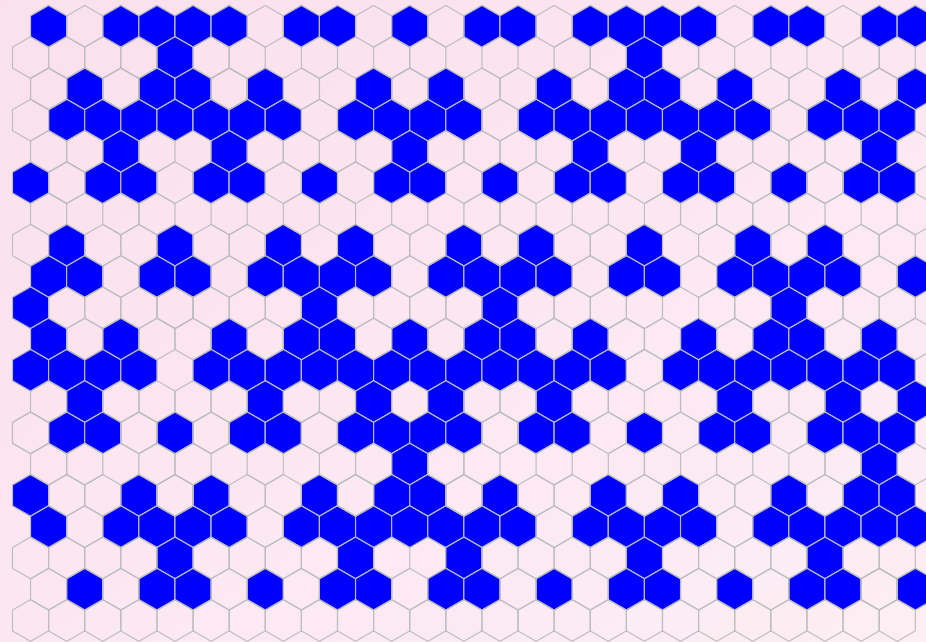
Another example. Sum of three non-finitary integral periodic configurations:



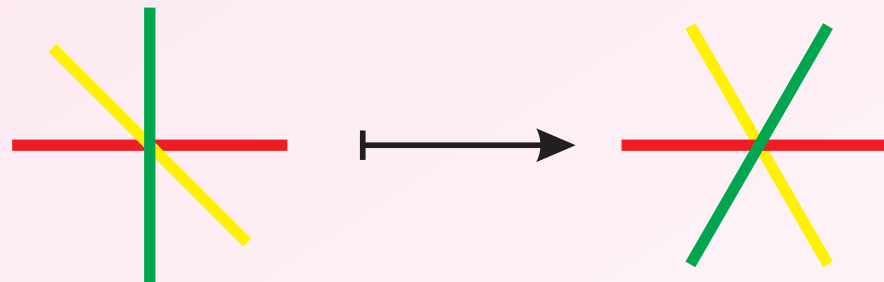
$$c(i, j) = \lfloor (i + j)\varphi \rfloor - \lfloor i\varphi \rfloor - \lfloor j\varphi \rfloor$$

Annihilated by $(x - 1)(y - 1)(xy^{-1} - 1)$.

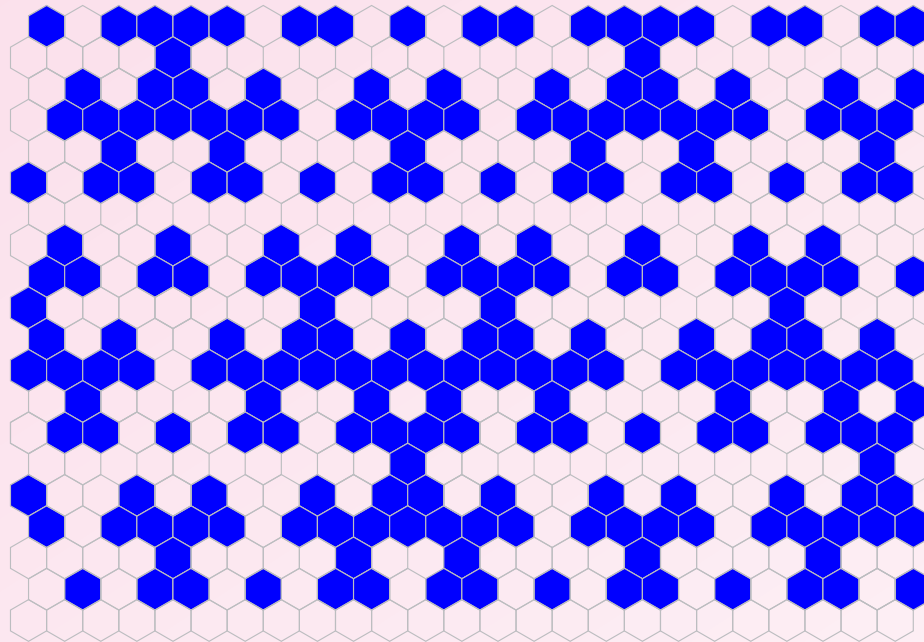
Another example. Sum of three non-finitary integral periodic configurations:



Nicer picture in skewed coordinates



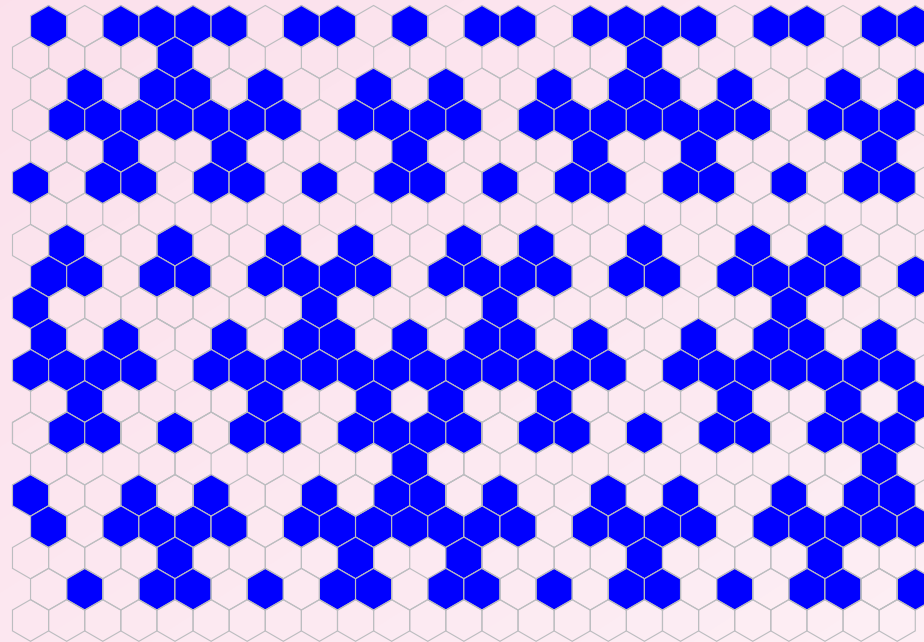
Another example. Sum of three non-finitary integral periodic configurations:



The configuration is also a sum of three periodic configurations with bounded (but non-integral) coefficients

$$\begin{aligned}
 c(i, j) &= (\lfloor (i + j)\varphi \rfloor - (i + j)\varphi) - (\lfloor i\varphi \rfloor - i\varphi) - (\lfloor j\varphi \rfloor - j\varphi) \\
 &= -\{(i + j)\varphi\} + \{i\varphi\} + \{j\varphi\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Another example. Sum of three non-finitary integral periodic configurations:



Moreover: The configuration is not a sum of any number of periodic configurations that are finitary.

Our approach to Nivat's conjecture (simplified view)

Suppose $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ for some rectangle D .

Then c is annihilated by some

$$(1 - X^{I_1}) \dots (1 - X^{I_k}).$$

Take the one with smallest k so directions I_i are pairwise different.

If $k = 1$ then c is periodic and we are done.

Our approach to Nivat's conjecture (simplified view)

Suppose $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ for some rectangle D .

Then c is annihilated by some

$$(1 - X^{I_1}) \dots (1 - X^{I_k}).$$

Take the one with smallest k so directions I_i are pairwise different.

Assume then $k \geq 2$. We want to prove that $P(c, X \times Y) > XY$ for all large rectangles $X \times Y$.

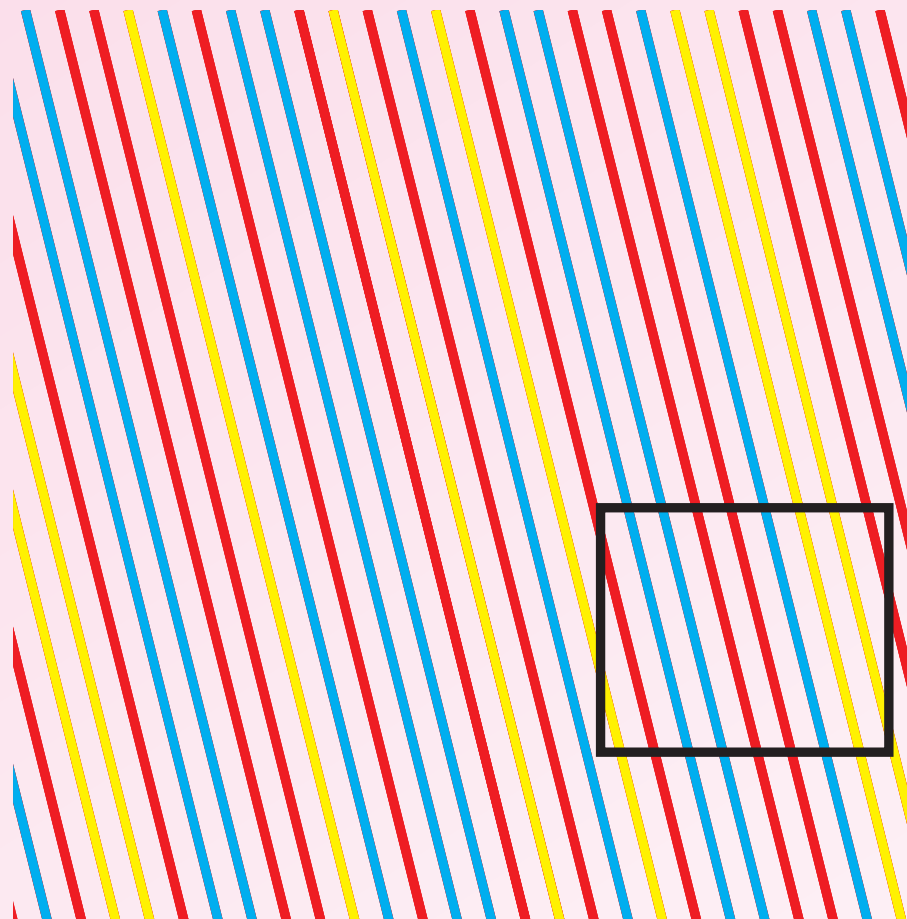
Filtering c with all but one of the k difference operators $1 - X^{I_i}$ provides us with c_1, \dots, c_k that are periodic only in directions I_1, \dots, I_k , respectively.

First c_1 :



Non-periodic sequence of stripes.

First c_1 :



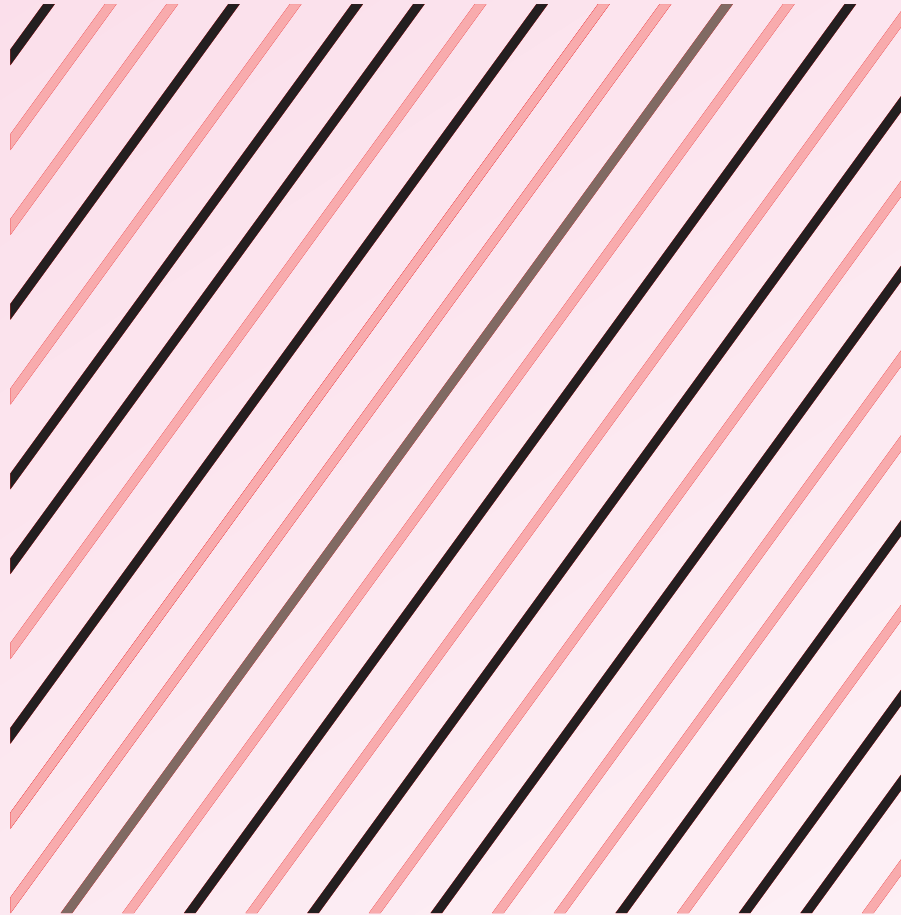
W.l.g. the stripes are not horizontal

\implies at least X stripes are visible in every $X \times Y$ rectangle

\implies more than X different $X \times Y$ blocks in c_1

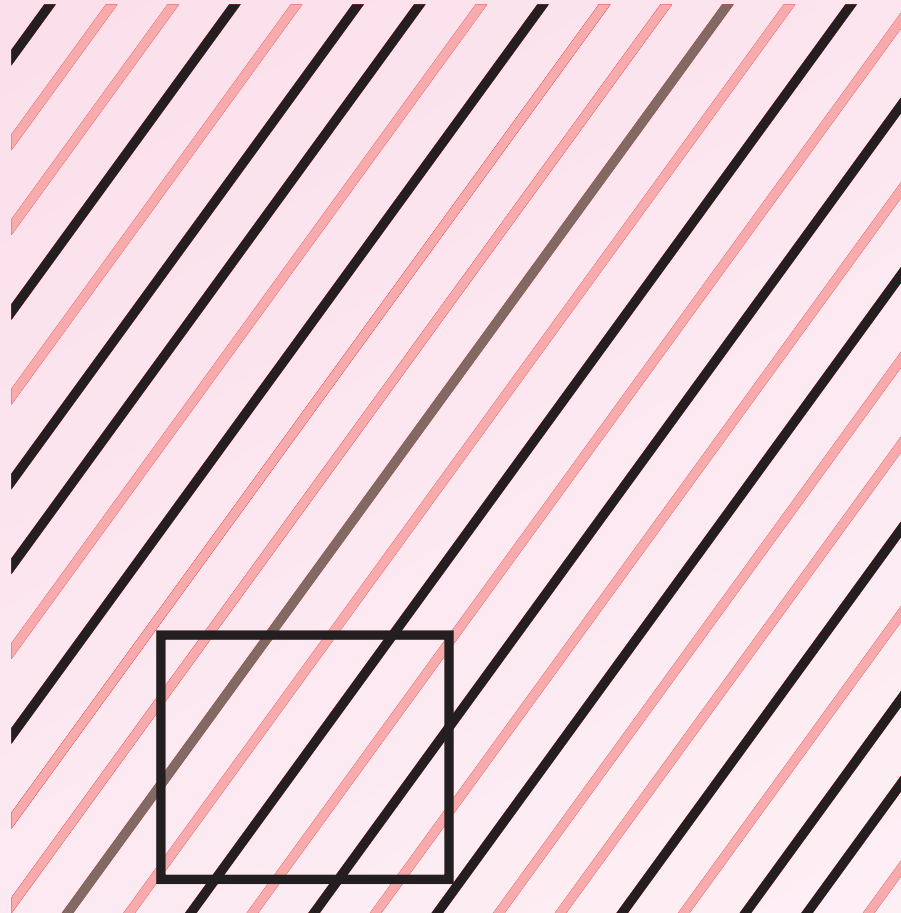
(due to the one-dimensional Morse-Hedlund theorem)

Second c_2 :



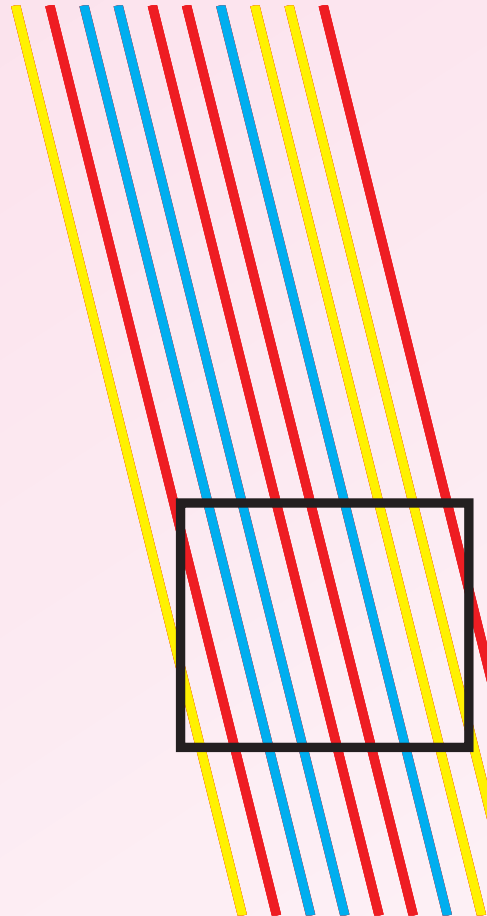
Non-periodic sequence of stripes in a different direction.

Second c_2 :

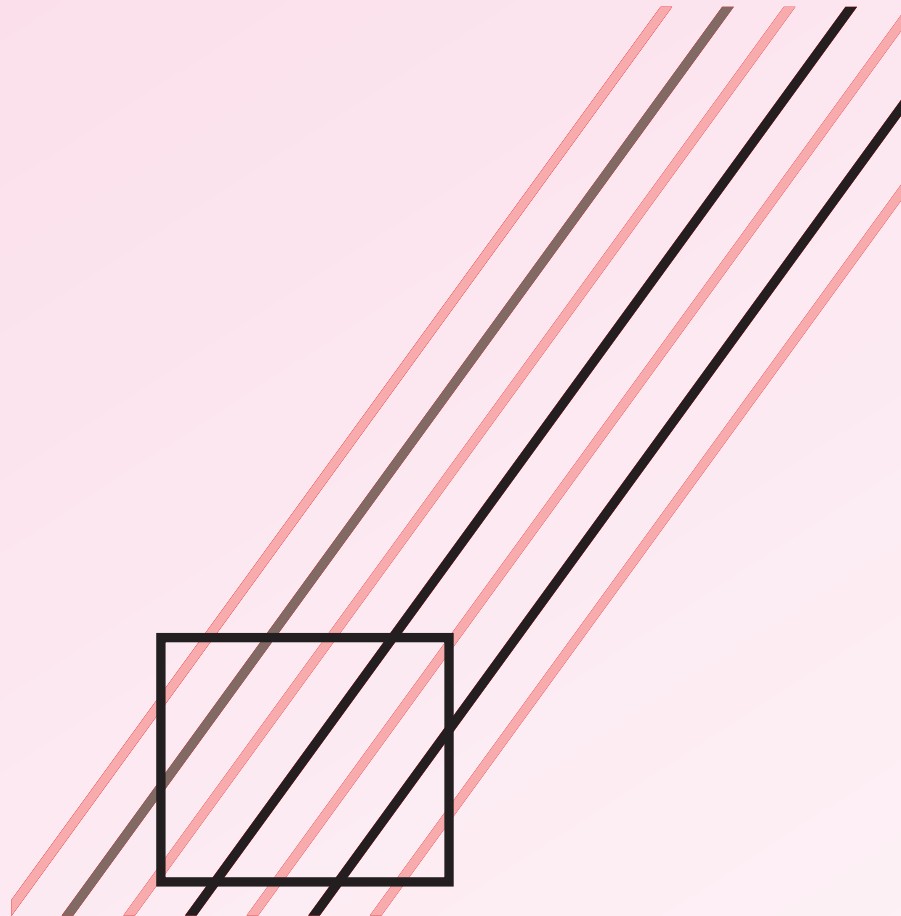


Analogously: stripes not vertical \implies more than Y different $X \times Y$ blocks in c_2).

Pick any $X \times Y$ pattern from $c_1 \dots$



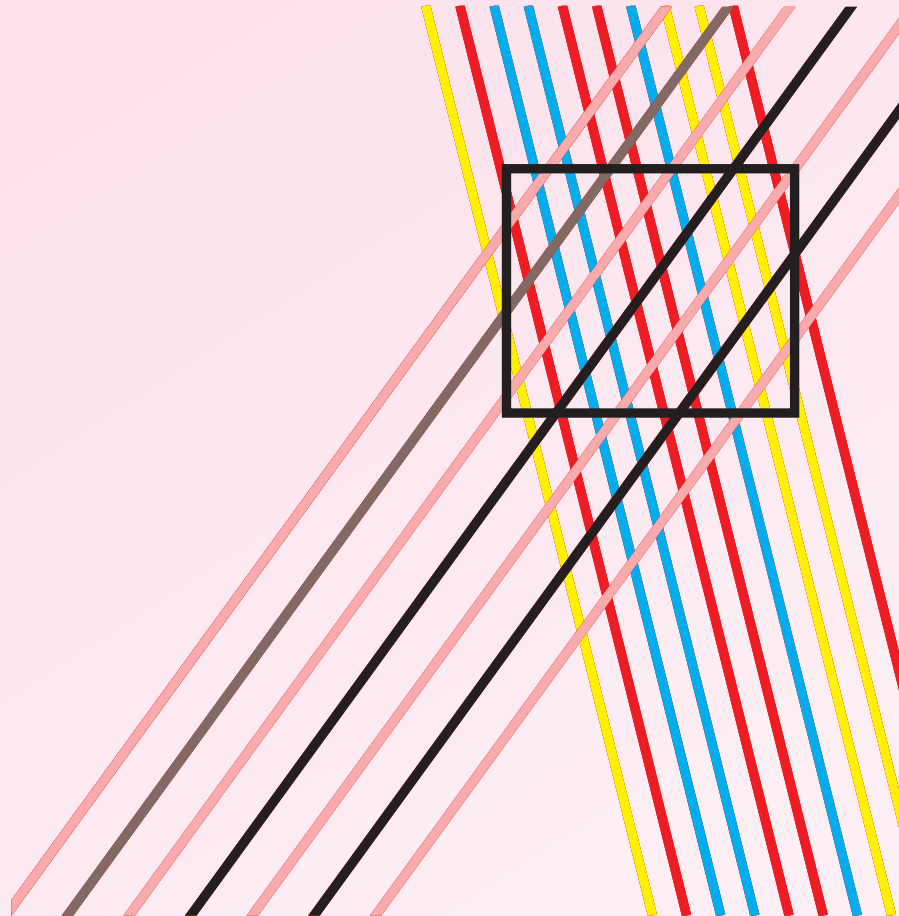
...and any $X \times Y$ pattern from c_2 .



Directions of periodicity are different

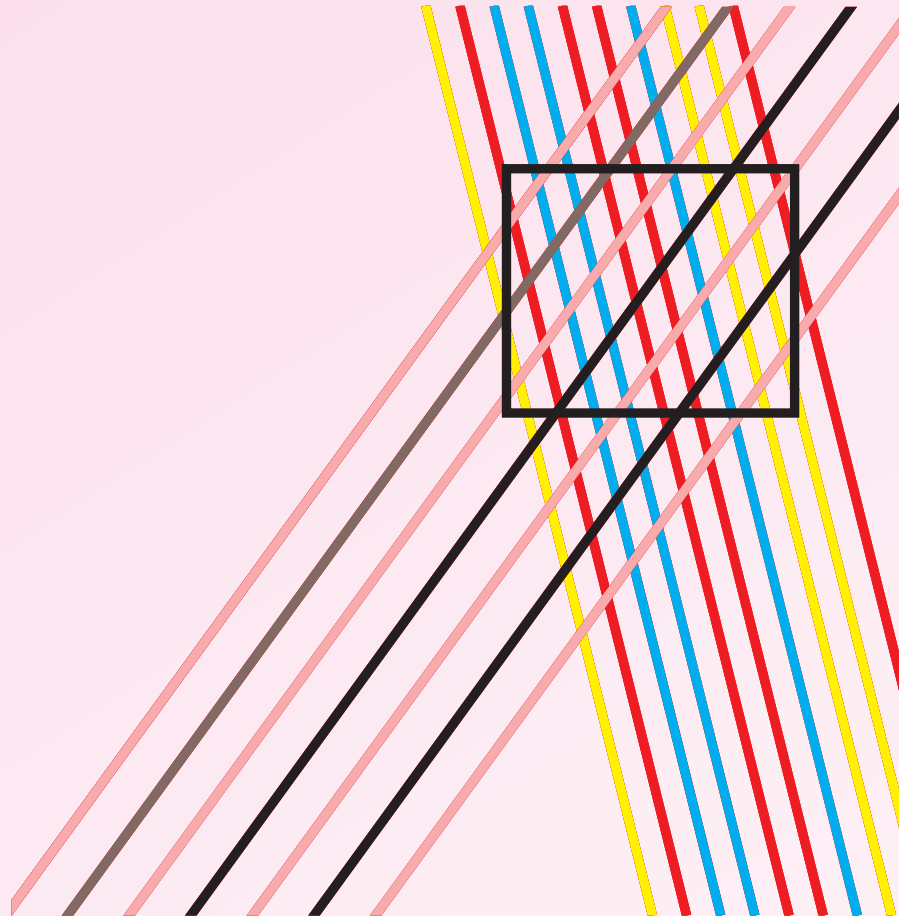


Directions of periodicity are different



so both patterns can be seen (more or less) in the same position.

Directions of periodicity are different



so both patterns can be seen (more or less) in the same position.

\Rightarrow more than XY distinct pairs of patterns in same positions

It follows (very roughly, skipping hugely many details)

Theorem. If c is a non-periodic 2D configuration then $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ can hold only for finitely many rectangles D .

It follows (very roughly, skipping hugely many details)

Theorem. If c is a non-periodic 2D configuration then $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ can hold only for finitely many rectangles D .

Questions:

- What can one say for other shapes than rectangles ?
Perhaps an analogous result for convex shapes ?
- Can one use the periodic decomposition to address the periodic tiling problem ? What about other low complexity subshifts of finite type ?
- The original Nivat's problem is still open...

It follows (very roughly, skipping hugely many details)

Theorem. If c is a non-periodic 2D configuration then $P(c, D) \leq |D|$ can hold only for finitely many rectangles D .

Questions:

- What can one say for other shapes than rectangles ?
Perhaps an analogous result for convex shapes ?
- Can one use the periodic decomposition to address the periodic tiling problem ? What about other low complexity subshifts of finite type ?
- The original Nivat's problem is still open...

Thank You