

Information Integration in Elementary Cellular Automata

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Abstract

We study the emergence of information integration in cellular automata (CA) with respect to states in the long run. Information integration is in this case quantified by applying the information-theoretic measure known as total correlation to the long-run distribution of CA states. Total correlation is the amount by which the total uncertainty associated with cell states surpasses the uncertainty of the CA state taken as a whole. It is an emergent property, in the sense that it can only be ascribed to how the cells interact with one another, and has been linked to the rise of consciousness in the brain. We investigate total correlation in the evolution of elementary CA for all update rules that are unique with respect to negation or reflection. For each rule we consider the usual, deterministic CA behavior, assuming that the initial state is chosen uniformly at random, and also the probabilistic variant in which every cell, at all time steps and independently of all others, disobeys the rule's prescription with a fixed probability. We have found rules that generate as much total correlation as possible, or nearly so, particularly in Wolfram classes 2 and 3. We conjecture that some of these rules can be used as CA models of information integration.

Keywords: Elementary cellular automata, Probabilistic cellular automata, Information integration, Entropy, Information gain, Total correlation, Consciousness models.

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1 Introduction

Given a dynamical system comprising interacting components whose behavior may lead to uncertain outcomes, a useful tool to quantify such uncertainty is the well-known information-theoretic notion of entropy. Entropy measures can be applied to the system in question both at the level of its individual components and globally, that is, at the level of the system's global (rather than local) states. Both approaches rely on probability distributions that are interrelated, as computing the system's global entropy relies on a joint distribution whose marginals are precisely the distributions to be used to compute the component-wise entropies. Informally, we say that information is being integrated by such a system when the sum of all the local entropies surpasses the global entropy. Because equality between the two quantities can only occur when all components are independent of one another, such excess entropy implies that the system as a whole is capable of generating more information than all the individual components put together.

The emergence of such information surplus cannot be linked directly to the operation of any one of the system's components, but resides, much less concretely, in the manner of their interaction. Owing to peculiar characteristics such as this, information integration has found its way into the select group of explanatory theories for phenomena such as consciousness. In fact, one of the leading candidates to explain the rise of consciousness out of the functioning of the brain is the integrated-information theory [1], based precisely on the generation of excess information such as we have described. This theory is currently favored by leading neuroscientists [10], in a clear indication that its allure far outweighs its many theoretical and computational difficulties [12].

Here we study the integration of information in cellular automata (CA) both of the standard, deterministic variety and of the probabilistic one. In either case we target the generation of information by the CA in the long run, understood as information regarding the long-run state of the CA. We assume that the initial CA state is chosen uniformly at random, which immediately endows the CA's long-run evolution with some degree of uncertainty even in the deterministic case. Moreover, our probabilistic CA are characterized by a single parameter that gives, at all time steps and for each cell independently of the others, the probability with which the update rule in use is to be disobeyed. Probabilistic CA are relatively commonplace in CA studies (e.g., to model spin lattices in statistical physics [6, 2, 8, 7, 11]), and in this regard, we note that our model is the same we used previously in an immunity-related study [4]. It is similar to other probabilistic-CA models in the literature (cf. [14] and references therein), but notwithstanding this our emphasis on long-run state probabilities rather than on spatiotemporal patterns sets apart the specific use of make of it.

Given a CA update rule, our investigation starts with computing the long-run probability that the CA is found at each possible state. This can be a simple task in the deterministic case or for a very small number of cells in the probabilistic case, but can also be painstakingly time-consuming for probabilistic CA only slightly larger than ten cells. Once the desired probabilities are known, we

compute the information-theoretic measure known as total correlation, which is defined precisely as the entropy difference alluded to above and therefore tackles the issue of information integration directly. We focus our study on elementary CA. Although these are the simplest CA imaginable, already for them we find rules that promote significant levels of information integration. This, we believe, bears further witness to the remarkable capability these simple models can have to capture the essentials of so many relevant, complex phenomena.

The following is how we proceed. First we present our CA, with particular emphasis on how to compute their long-run state probabilities, in Section 2. Then, in Section 3, we present all the necessary information-theoretic notions, including those of entropy, information gain, and total correlation. Some of the computational difficulties associated with calculating long-run state probabilities for the probabilistic CA are discussed briefly in Section 4, after which we present our results in Section 5. Discussion follows in Section 6, then conclusion in Section 7. We note, before proceeding, that all the theory given in Sections 2 and 3, though presented for binary CA, can be extended to non-binary CA in a straightforward manner. We refrain from the more general presentation for the sake of notational simplicity only.

2 Model

We consider binary CA, that is, CA in which each cell's state is either 0 or 1. If each cell has δ neighbors, then a cell's state at the next instant of discrete time is a function of its own current state and of the states of its δ neighbors. This function is the CA update rule, which in general can be thought of as one of the $2^{2^{\delta+1}}$ possible tables having $2^{\delta+1}$ entries, each entry indexed by $\delta + 1$ bits.

A binary CA such as this has 2^n possible states, where n is the number of cells, each state corresponding to a member of the set $\{0, 1\}^n$. Starting at some initial state $i_0 \in \{0, 1\}^n$, at all times thereafter the states of all cells evolve in lockstep based on the same update rule. What ensues is a deterministic evolution of the CA state inside the set $\{0, 1\}^n$, which by finiteness must eventually become periodic. This implies that, given the update rule, the state set $\{0, 1\}^n$ can be partitioned into attractor basins, i.e., subsets of states to which the evolution of the CA is perpetually confined.

For a fixed update rule and a given value of n , we let \mathcal{B} denote the corresponding set of attractor basins that partitions $\{0, 1\}^n$. For each $B \in \mathcal{B}$, we let $A_B \subseteq B$ be the attractor itself, that is, the set of periodic states lying at the core of B .

Our study in this paper is based on the probability σ_i that, having started at some state chosen uniformly at random, the CA is found in state i in the long run, that is, as time grows without bounds. Clearly, given the deterministic evolution scenario outlined thus far this probability depends on state i being in attractor A_B for some $B \in \mathcal{B}$. That is, we have

$$\sigma_i = \begin{cases} \sigma_B/|A_B|, & \text{if } i \in A_B \text{ for some } B \in \mathcal{B}; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where σ_B is the size of basin B relative to the entire set $\{0,1\}^n$, i.e., $\sigma_B = |B|/2^n$.

In order to see that Equation (1) does indeed hold, it suffices that we write σ_i as the total probability

$$\sigma_i = \sum_{i_0 \in \{0,1\}^n} \sigma_{i|i_0} \Pr(i_0), \quad (2)$$

where $\sigma_{i|i_0}$ is the conditional probability that the CA is found at state i in the long run, given that its initial state was i_0 , and $\Pr(i_0)$ is the probability that it did start at i_0 . We then simply recognize that

$$\sigma_{i|i_0} = \begin{cases} 1/|A_B|, & \text{if } i \in A_B \text{ for } B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } i_0 \in B; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

and that $\Pr(i_0) = 1/2^n$.

In this standard, deterministic scenario, whatever uncertainty there is regarding the long-run state of the CA is a consequence of the method to determine the initial state i_0 (uniformly at random). In the second scenario that we explore, we replace this source of uncertainty by adding randomness to the CA dynamics itself. We do this by letting each cell, independently of all others and at every time step, behave differently than the update rule in use mandates with a given probability. We describe the resulting probabilistic CA next.

Let x denote a cell's next state and let $b \in \{0, 1\}$ be the update rule's current prescription for the value of x . Given a probability parameter p , what we do is to let

$$x := \begin{cases} 1 - b, & \text{with probability } p; \\ b, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Clearly, the deterministic scenario is recovered by letting $p = 0$. For $p > 0$, what is now happening in CA-wide terms is that any CA state can be reached from any other in a single step, regardless of being members of the same basin or, if they are members of the same basin, of how they are positioned inside it with respect to each other. In particular, a basin's attractor is no longer inescapable.

If k_i denotes the deterministic successor of state i in the CA dynamics, then the one-step transition probability from state i to state j , call it $p_{i,j}$, is given by

$$p_{i,j} = p^{D_{j,k_i}} (1-p)^{n-D_{j,k_i}}, \quad (5)$$

where D_{j,k_i} is the Hamming distance between states j and k_i , that is, the number of cells at which they differ. What this expression is saying is that, in order for j to be obtained from i in a single time step, it is necessary and sufficient that both all cells at which j and k_i differ disobey the update rule (independently of one another, each with probability p) and none of the others do (independently of one another, each with probability $1-p$). We can rewrite $p_{i,j}$ as

$$p_{i,j} = (1-p)^n \left(\frac{1-p}{p} \right)^{-D_{j,k_i}}, \quad (6)$$

which for $0 < p < 0.5$ emphasizes its exponential decay with D_{j,k_i} and highlights the fact that the one-step transition from i to k_i , the same that takes place in the deterministic case, is still the most probable one, being in fact exponentially more likely than any other. The probability of this transition is obtained by letting $j = k_i$, whence $D_{j,k_i} = 0$ and $p_{i,k_i} = (1 - p)^n$.

In the probabilistic case, we denote by π_i the probability that, having started at some state chosen uniformly at random, the CA is found in state i in the long run. As before, we can express π_i as the total probability

$$\pi_i = \sum_{i_0 \in \{0,1\}^n} \pi_{i|i_0} \Pr(i_0), \quad (7)$$

where $\pi_{i|i_0}$ is the long-run conditional probability that the CA is found at state i , given that it started at state i_0 . However, it can be easily argued that, provided $p > 0$, the CA's long-run behavior is independent of i_0 , so $\pi_{i|i_0} = \pi_i$ and Equation (7) turns out to be no more than a tautology ($\pi_i = \pi_i$).

In fact, for $p > 0$ the CA dynamics gives rise to a discrete-time Markov chain of transition-probability matrix $P = [p_{i,j}]$. This can be easily verified by simply checking that, in P , all the elements in any row add up to 1 (i.e., P is stochastic):

$$\sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^n} p_{i,j} = \sum_{d=0}^n \binom{n}{d} p^d (1-p)^{n-d} = 1. \quad (8)$$

Because $p_{i,j} > 0$ regardless of i or j , this chain is ergodic and, moreover, the stationary probability that it entails for state i is precisely π_i , no matter what the initial state may have been. Our long-run probabilities can then be found by solving the system $\pi = \pi P$, where $\pi = [\pi_i]$ is a row vector.

We finalize the section with the introduction of marginal versions of probabilities σ_i and π_i . They are marginal in the sense of relating to one cell exclusively (as opposed to σ_i or π_i , which relate to all cells concomitantly). For $c = 1, 2, \dots, n$, we denote by $\sigma_{c,b}$ the long-run probability that, in the deterministic case, the state of cell c is $b \in \{0, 1\}$. Clearly,

$$\sigma_{c,b} = \sum_{i \in S_{c,b}} \sigma_i = \sum_{B \in \mathcal{B}} \frac{\sigma_B |S_{c,b} \cap A_B|}{|A_B|}, \quad (9)$$

where $S_{c,b} \subset \{0, 1\}^n$ is the set of all CA states in which cell c has state b . Likewise, the corresponding probability in the probabilistic case is denoted by $\pi_{c,b}$ and given by

$$\pi_{c,b} = \sum_{i \in S_{c,b}} \pi_i. \quad (10)$$

3 Information integration

In both the deterministic and the probabilistic scenarios discussed in Section 2, uncertainty regarding the long-run state of the CA has a role to play. In the

deterministic scenario, this uncertainty owes to the fact that the initial CA state i_0 may be any state. In the probabilistic scenario, by contrast, it stems from the nondeterministic mechanics that now underlies the CA's workings. Moreover, because of the system's underlying Markovian nature, in this scenario fixing i_0 has no effect on long-run uncertainty, which depends exclusively on the probability parameter p , if nonzero.

In this section we discuss the information-theoretic tools that will be needed to characterize such uncertainty, its relation to how much uncertainty there can be at most, and also its role in highlighting how independent the various cells are of one another given an update rule and the value of n . We discuss these tools in terms of generic CA-state probabilities ρ_i (which stand for either σ_i or π_i , as the case may be) or likewise generic cell-state probabilities $\rho_{c,b}$ (placeholders for either $\sigma_{c,b}$ or $\pi_{c,b}$).

Our main tool is the well-known Shannon entropy, which measures the uncertainty of a set of random variables, given a joint probability distribution of their values. The random variables of interest to us, call them X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , are those describing the various cells' states. The corresponding joint distribution is any set of probabilities over the set $\{0, 1\}^n$, provided they add up to 1. Denoting this joint entropy by H , we have

$$H = - \sum_{i \in \{0,1\}^n} \Pr(\text{CA state is } i) \log_2 \Pr(\text{CA state is } i), \quad (11)$$

where the logarithm to the base 2 is meant to let H be expressed in information-theoretic bits.

The value of H is maximized by the distribution that expresses the greatest possible uncertainty, that is, the distribution for which $\Pr(\text{CA state is } i) = 1/2^n$ for every CA state i . The resulting maximum value of H is therefore n , which works as the absolute upper bound against which we compare long-run uncertainties in both the deterministic and probabilistic cases. The resulting difference, which we refer to as information gain, is here denoted by G^p and given by

$$G^p = n - H^p, \quad (12)$$

where H^p results from Equation (11) by substituting ρ_i for $\Pr(\text{CA state is } i)$:

$$H^p = - \sum_{i \in \{0,1\}^n} \rho_i \log_2 \rho_i. \quad (13)$$

A marginal version of the entropy H can be defined for each cell c to quantify the uncertainty associated with its state. This new entropy is denoted by H_c and given by

$$H_c = - \sum_{b \in \{0,1\}} \Pr(\text{state of cell } c \text{ is } b) \log_2 \Pr(\text{state of cell } c \text{ is } b). \quad (14)$$

The value of H_c is maximized when $\Pr(\text{state of cell } c \text{ is } b) = 0.5$ regardless of b , which leads to a maximum value of 1. As in the case of H , this is the absolute

upper bound against which we compare the long-run uncertainty associated with the state of cell c . The resulting information gain, which we denote by G_c^ρ , is given by

$$G_c^\rho = 1 - H_c^\rho, \quad (15)$$

where H_c^ρ is obtained from Equation (14) by replacing $\Pr(\text{state of cell } c \text{ is } b)$ by $\rho_{c,b}$:

$$H_c^\rho = - \sum_{b \in \{0,1\}} \rho_{c,b} \log_2 \rho_{c,b}. \quad (16)$$

If the random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are all independent of one another given the ρ_i 's, i.e., if $\rho_i = \prod_{c=1}^n \rho_{c,b_c}$ for all $i \in \{0,1\}^n$, where b_c is the state of cell c in CA state i , then it follows from the expressions for H^ρ and H_c^ρ that $\sum_{c=1}^n H_c^\rho = H^\rho$. Only for independent random variables does this happen. In all other cases we have $\sum_{c=1}^n H_c^\rho > H^\rho$, where the two sides differ by what is known as the total correlation among the n variables [16]. We denote total correlation by C^ρ , which is then given by

$$C^\rho = \sum_{c=1}^n H_c^\rho - H^\rho. \quad (17)$$

(For $n = 2$, total correlation is also known as the mutual information between the two variables [9].)

An interesting interpretation of total correlation comes from rewriting Equation (17) in terms of the information gains G^ρ (for the entire CA) and G_c^ρ (for cell c). By Equations (12) and (15), we have $C^\rho = G^\rho - \sum_{c=1}^n G_c^\rho$, whence

$$G^\rho = \sum_{c=1}^n G_c^\rho + C^\rho. \quad (18)$$

That is, total correlation is the amount of information gain that the CA's evolution in time produces in excess of the total information gain that is already produced at the level of the cells. We refer to the fraction of information gain that corresponds to total correlation as a total-correlation ratio, denoted by r^ρ :

$$r^\rho = \frac{C^\rho}{G^\rho}. \quad (19)$$

In our analyses, G^ρ and r^ρ are used as the premier indicators of information integration.

4 Computational issues

For each update rule of interest, and for fixed values of n and p , computing G^σ , r^σ , G^π , and r^π requires that the long-run probabilities σ_i and π_i be found for every CA state i . There are two computational challenges related to obtaining these probabilities. The first one affects both the deterministic case (to which

the σ_i 's refer) and the probabilistic case (to which the π_i 's refer), and has to do with mapping out all 2^n CA states onto the basin-of-attraction field. This can be challenging because, depending on the value of n , substantial amounts of main storage may be needed.

The second, and more serious, computational challenge has to do with the time required to find the π_i 's. As we discussed in Section 2, this amounts to solving the system $\pi = \pi P$, subject to the constraints that $\pi_i > 0$ for all $i \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and $\sum_{i \in \{0, 1\}^n} \pi_i = 1$. Since P is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix of strictly positive elements and possessing no known symmetries or some other type of structure that might simplify calculations, solving this system tends to be quite burdensome even for modest values of n . We have used state-of-the-art solution techniques through the solver that is freely available as part of the Tangram-II modeling tool [5], but even so only for $n < 13$ has the solution of the system proven feasible. Based on preliminary experiments with $n = 13$, we estimate that solving a single instance of the system in this case would require about two months on an Intel Xeon E5-1650 running at 3.2GHz with enough main storage to preclude the need for any accesses to secondary storage.

5 Results

We give results for the so-called elementary CA, that is, one-dimensional CA with neighborhood size $\delta = 2$, and adopt periodic boundaries in all cases (i.e., the first and last cells in all CA are neighbors of each other). Elementary CA admit 256 distinct update rules and here we use the standard Wolfram numbering system [17] in referring to them.

Of these 256 rules, only 88 are unique in the sense of how the resulting basins are structured. Given any one of these 88 rules, say R , any other rule R' satisfying the property we give next can be identified amid the remaining 168 rules. The property in question is that a mapping g between CA states exists such that R leads from CA state i to its deterministic successor k_i if and only if R' leads from $g(i)$ to $g(k_i)$. The two mappings that we use are negation [adding a cell's state in i to its state in $g(i)$ yields 1] and reflection [the state of cell c in i is the same as the state of cell $n - c + 1$ in $g(i)$]. Our 88 unique rules are such that no two of them are equivalent to each other by negation or reflection. This criterion alone leads to several satisfying sets of 88 rules. Our choice has been to follow Wuensche and Lesser [20], who in their atlas group all rules into equivalence classes of at most 4 rules or into larger clusters of at most 8 rules as equivalence classes of pairwise complementary rules are joined. We select for inclusion in the group of 88 the least-number rule of each larger cluster, along with its complement if not already in the first rule's equivalence class.

The identical structuring of basins for two rules that are equivalent by negation or reflection provides sufficient justification for eliminating one of them when handling the deterministic case of Section 2. In the probabilistic case, eliminating one of the two rules from consideration on the basis of the equivalence of results requires, in addition, that the transition probabilities $p_{i,j}$ and

$p_{g(i),g(j)}$ be the same for any two CA states i and j . To see that this does indeed hold, notice that it follows directly from Equation (5), since $D_{j,k_i} = D_{g(j),g(k_i)}$ when g stands for negation or reflection.

Another curious property stemming from the definition of $p_{i,j}$ in Equation (5) is the following. Recall that two rules are complementary to each other when, given the same input, one of them outputs bit b if and only if the other outputs $1 - b$. So, for example, if letting $p = 0$ in the probabilistic case reproduces the deterministic behavior of the underlying update rule, say R , then letting $p = 1$ for the same underlying rule R also induces deterministic behavior, but of the rule R' that is complementary to R . Something similar occurs when $p > 0$. Given any CA state i and the underlying rule R that determines i 's deterministic successor, k_i , the probability that i is followed by j when R is disobeyed at each cell independently with probability p is the $p_{i,j}$ of Equation (5). Should we use R' instead and let it be disobeyed at each cell independently with probability $1 - p$, the transition probability from i to j would be $(1 - p)^{D_{j,k'_i}} p^{n - D_{j,k'_i}}$, where k'_i is the deterministic successor of CA state i under R' . But it so happens that $D_{j,k_i} + D_{j,k'_i} = n$, so this probability can be rewritten as $(1 - p)^{n - D_{j,k_i}} p^{D_{j,k_i}}$, which is none other than the very same $p_{i,j}$ with which the transition from i to j occurs given R and p . This means that it makes no sense to seek results for both $p < 0.5$ and $p > 0.5$. After all, working with $p > 0.5$ for some rule R in the group of 88 is the same as doing it with probability $1 - p < 0.5$ for the rule R' that is complementary to R . Rule R' , in turn, either is one of the 88 itself (and is then already covered) or is not (in which case it is equivalent to some rule in the group of 88 and, again, is already covered). We then use $p < 0.5$ exclusively.

Our results are summarized in Tables 1 and 2, respectively for $n = 11$ and $n = 12$ cells. Each table contains information gains and total-correlation ratios for all 88 rules, each rule identified as noted above alongside its Wolfram class (1 through 4) [18]. All data are given for the deterministic case (identified as the $p = 0$ case) and two probabilistic cases, viz. with probabilities $p = 0.001$ and $p = 0.01$. In either table, G^σ and G^π are obtained by substituting distribution σ or π , respectively, for the ρ on which information gain is defined [cf., e.g., Equation (18)]. The same holds for r^σ and r^π with respect to the total-correlation ratio given in Equation (19).

Except for rule and Wolfram-class identifications, all numbers in Tables 1 and 2 originate from results that were output by our programs with six decimal places. Owing to space considerations, in the tables they are given with four decimal places only. This has caused no rounding problems in the vast majority of cases, but those cases in which problems did arise are in the tables highlighted by underlining the corresponding numbers. There is one occurrence in Table 1 (class-3 rule 30, for which the table says $r^\pi = 1.0000$ for both values of p , but these are rounded up from $r^\pi = 0.999988$ and $r^\pi = 0.999985$, respectively for $p = 0.001$ and $p = 0.01$) and there are two occurrences in Table 2 (class-2 rules 23 and 57, for which the table says $r^\sigma = 1.0000$, but this is rounded up from $r^\sigma = 0.999997$ and $r^\sigma = 0.999999$, respectively).

Table 1: Information gains and total-correlation ratios for $n = 11$.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.0000</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.8745</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.1113</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>248</i>	<i>1</i>	9.8149	0.0972	<i>10.8743</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.0962</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>249</i>	<i>1</i>	10.8664	0.0439	<i>10.8743</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.0964</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>250</i>	<i>1</i>	10.9939	0.0055	<i>10.8744</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.1039</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>251</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.0000</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.8744</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.1040</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>252</i>	<i>1</i>	10.9939	0.0055	<i>10.8744</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.1039</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>253</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.0000</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.8744</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.1041</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>254</i>	<i>1</i>	10.9939	0.0055	<i>10.8745</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>10.1112</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
1	2	5.4737	0.9662	3.9532	0.9269	3.5371	0.9132
2	2	6.9611	0.0888	5.0112	0.2350	4.6206	0.2016
3	2	3.1524	0.9650	2.5157	0.9455	2.2041	0.9344
4	2	5.4158	0.1435	4.2273	0.1342	3.9721	0.1121
5	2	2.8336	0.9258	2.5157	0.9455	2.2041	0.9344
6	2	6.6380	0.1423	4.2454	0.4671	3.5261	0.4197
7	2	5.5036	0.9945	9.7352	1.0000	8.0350	0.9998
9	2	9.2894	0.9998	5.4167	0.9504	3.7860	0.9174
10	2	3.9120	0.2753	3.3973	0.3915	3.1046	0.3591
11	2	4.4633	1.0000	4.3969	0.9978	3.4942	0.9964
12	2	3.5437	0.3919	3.3973	0.3915	3.1046	0.3591
13	2	6.7514	0.9684	7.3462	0.9910	6.2310	0.9890
14	2	6.4286	0.4749	5.5259	0.9930	4.3577	0.9873
15	2	0.0338	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000

¹Wolfram class.

Table 1: Continued.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
19	2	4.0612	1.0000	9.3448	1.0000	6.4186	0.9999
23	2	4.4155	1.0000	9.6667	1.0000	7.7807	1.0000
24	2	5.9045	0.1561	5.0244	0.2166	4.4889	0.1796
25	2	8.7170	0.9998	5.1766	0.9869	3.2991	0.9732
26	2	3.2929	0.5160	1.8577	0.7354	1.4591	0.6972
27	2	2.5655	0.9892	2.0429	0.9860	1.6168	0.9835
28	2	5.5200	0.9661	6.2799	1.0000	4.8558	0.9998
29	2	1.5038	0.9926	1.5355	1.0000	1.3491	1.0000
33	2	3.9746	0.8913	3.6030	0.8923	3.0633	0.8663
35	2	3.5095	0.9706	2.8857	0.8440	2.3023	0.8222
36	2	7.4540	0.0688	6.0282	0.0638	5.5462	0.0456
37	2	4.9850	0.9517	4.1290	0.9427	2.6269	0.9331
38	2	3.6690	0.3740	2.8163	0.4666	2.4383	0.4259
41	2	4.4215	0.9244	3.3402	0.8589	2.1464	0.7690
43	2	3.9427	0.9999	5.0562	1.0000	4.0296	1.0000
46	2	5.9045	0.6557	4.9939	0.9625	4.2328	0.9580
50	2	4.4377	0.9948	6.3393	1.0000	5.1962	0.9999
51	2	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
57	2	7.5139	0.9977	6.2250	1.0000	4.6150	1.0000
58	2	8.1430	0.6769	7.1978	0.9193	5.4153	0.9156
62	2	3.8652	0.9960	3.0641	0.8693	1.9817	0.8497
77	2	4.3581	0.9814	6.4074	1.0000	5.6031	1.0000

¹Wolfram class.

Table 1: Continued.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
94	2	4.2574	0.9567	4.5916	0.9291	3.5605	0.9225
178	2	4.4372	0.9949	6.4074	1.0000	5.6031	1.0000
197	2	6.8246	0.9860	7.3036	0.9909	5.9481	0.9880
198	2	5.5163	0.9215	6.3246	1.0000	5.0879	1.0000
201	2	2.4247	0.5599	2.4971	0.4695	2.0955	0.4368
204	2	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
205	2	1.6579	0.5761	1.6152	0.6299	1.4590	0.6054
210	2	0.2646	0.9252	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
212	2	5.6692	0.5589	5.0562	1.0000	4.0296	1.0000
214	2	8.1190	0.7069	4.3917	0.5350	3.4123	0.4811
217	2	5.2172	0.2670	4.9732	0.2331	4.3655	0.1972
218	2	6.7121	0.9262	5.5600	0.1032	5.0568	0.0752
220	2	3.5427	0.4380	3.3903	0.3906	3.0595	0.3541
222	2	4.3997	0.6183	4.0985	0.1503	3.8358	0.1271
226	2	4.3731	0.3908	3.5097	1.0000	2.9098	1.0000
227	2	4.8292	0.3590	3.8792	0.8679	3.2172	0.8445
228	2	5.3784	0.2321	4.9405	0.2298	4.1640	0.1823
229	2	5.2951	0.2537	3.7003	0.5585	2.9112	0.5054
230	2	6.5927	0.9993	5.0247	0.2164	4.4858	0.1779
232	2	4.4155	0.7805	9.6667	1.0000	7.7807	1.0000
233	2	8.7447	0.2280	10.8486	0.0009	9.8961	0.0048
236	2	3.3083	0.4426	10.7658	0.0082	9.3477	0.0448

¹Wolfram class.

Table 1: Continued.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
237	2	7.4470	0.4177	10.8377	0.0015	9.8405	0.0077
240	2	0.0169	0.9630	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
241	2	1.9915	0.6295	1.4947	0.5414	1.3441	0.5100
242	2	4.2560	0.9690	3.3110	0.5057	3.0030	0.4793
243	2	3.9120	0.2647	3.3973	0.3915	3.1046	0.3591
244	2	2.5174	0.9963	2.5485	0.4707	2.2923	0.4393
246	2	6.1468	0.9712	5.0110	0.2351	4.6170	0.2018
18	3	5.1029	0.6673	4.5431	0.6601	3.4291	0.5699
22	3	4.7351	0.8053	4.0192	0.8740	2.6205	0.8076
30	3	8.2934	0.3914	1.8822	<u>1.0000</u>	0.4181	<u>1.0000</u>
45	3	4.1107	0.9999	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
60	3	3.7936	0.7492	0.9134	1.0000	0.5322	1.0000
73	3	2.5267	0.9600	2.4561	0.9970	1.8017	0.9894
90	3	1.1451	0.9937	0.9134	1.0000	0.5322	1.0000
105	3	0.1451	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
126	3	5.2229	0.9925	4.4457	0.9797	3.3005	0.9715
150	3	0.0726	0.9715	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
161	3	5.0171	0.9921	4.3989	0.9726	2.9997	0.9516
182	3	5.0748	0.8158	4.6099	0.6379	3.4097	0.5480
225	3	9.7681	0.0904	1.7866	0.9771	0.3309	0.9938
54	4	4.7445	0.9380	3.5125	0.9772	2.1520	0.9548
193	4	8.4343	0.4560	3.0861	0.9236	1.5514	0.9270

¹Wolfram class.

Table 2: Information gains and total-correlation ratios for $n = 12$.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>12.0000</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.8631</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0305</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>248</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>10.9633</i>	<i>0.0772</i>	<i>11.8629</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0140</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>249</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.9093</i>	<i>0.0329</i>	<i>11.8629</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0142</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>250</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.7678</i>	<i>0.0987</i>	<i>11.8630</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0225</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>251</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.9934</i>	<i>0.0027</i>	<i>11.8630</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0225</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>252</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.9967</i>	<i>0.0030</i>	<i>11.8630</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0225</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>253</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>12.0000</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.8630</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0226</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
<i>254</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>11.9967</i>	<i>0.0030</i>	<i>11.8631</i>	<i>0.0000</i>	<i>11.0304</i>	<i>0.0000</i>
1	2	6.0118	0.9647	4.3124	0.9269	3.8585	0.9132
2	2	7.3975	0.0940	5.4670	0.2351	5.0408	0.2017
3	2	3.4231	0.9635	2.7444	0.9455	2.4045	0.9344
4	2	5.9082	0.1469	4.6116	0.1342	4.3332	0.1121
5	2	3.1116	0.9285	2.7524	0.9459	2.4113	0.9348
6	2	5.1189	0.3888	4.5158	0.5773	3.7770	0.5120
7	2	5.9856	0.9944	10.6969	1.0000	8.7545	0.9997
9	2	6.2106	0.9567	5.2452	0.9353	3.7604	0.9000
10	2	4.1649	0.2864	3.7057	0.3914	3.3865	0.3590
11	2	5.4050	0.9999	9.1705	1.0000	5.6743	0.9993
12	2	3.8657	0.3916	3.7061	0.3915	3.3868	0.3591
13	2	7.3354	0.9649	10.6700	1.0000	8.7279	0.9993
14	2	6.9360	0.5401	9.3649	1.0000	6.4017	0.9973
15	2	0.0284	0.9992	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000

¹Wolfram class.

Table 2: Continued.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
19	2	4.4312	1.0000	10.2245	1.0000	6.9111	0.9999
23	2	4.8031	<u>1.0000</u>	10.6072	1.0000	8.4314	1.0000
24	2	6.1840	0.1898	5.4814	0.2167	4.8971	0.1797
25	2	5.2543	0.9866	4.6353	0.9800	2.9800	0.9617
26	2	3.2749	0.6617	2.3692	0.8083	1.7615	0.7537
27	2	2.5162	0.9884	2.2044	0.9847	1.7538	0.9824
28	2	6.0127	0.9416	10.1677	1.0000	6.5555	0.9998
29	2	1.6331	0.9930	1.6753	1.0000	1.4720	1.0000
33	2	4.3519	0.8883	3.9283	0.8923	3.3398	0.8662
35	2	3.9843	0.9724	3.9851	0.8650	2.9320	0.8386
36	2	8.1266	0.0737	6.5768	0.0638	6.0508	0.0455
37	2	5.6552	0.9587	4.5088	0.9431	3.0788	0.9306
38	2	3.4141	0.4347	3.0763	0.4666	2.6628	0.4259
41	2	5.9904	0.9579	4.9622	0.9321	2.7975	0.8301
43	2	5.7458	0.9999	9.4076	1.0000	6.4673	1.0000
46	2	6.1879	0.7170	5.4573	0.9625	4.6255	0.9581
50	2	4.9581	0.9572	10.3458	1.0000	7.2818	0.9999
51	2	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
57	2	8.8859	<u>1.0000</u>	9.8724	1.0000	5.7901	1.0000
58	2	8.8538	0.8375	9.1855	0.9046	5.7138	0.9108
62	2	5.0852	0.9783	4.4037	0.9323	2.3477	0.8830
77	2	4.7242	0.9682	10.6072	1.0000	8.4314	1.0000

¹Wolfram class.

Table 2: Continued.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
94	2	4.8790	0.9885	8.9317	0.9058	4.7377	0.9148
178	2	4.9578	0.9573	10.6072	1.0000	8.4314	1.0000
197	2	7.4741	0.9821	10.4449	1.0000	7.6695	0.9978
198	2	6.0131	0.9324	10.3312	1.0000	7.1215	1.0000
201	2	2.6352	0.5459	2.7661	0.4743	2.3094	0.4402
204	2	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
205	2	1.8069	0.5713	1.7622	0.6299	1.5918	0.6054
210	2	0.2001	0.9861	0.0620	0.9996	0.0363	0.9996
212	2	6.1928	0.5834	9.4076	1.0000	6.4673	1.0000
214	2	5.1102	0.9655	4.6487	0.6824	3.6478	0.6075
217	2	5.6595	0.2863	5.4256	0.2331	4.7625	0.1972
218	2	6.7277	0.9966	6.0657	0.1033	5.5166	0.0752
220	2	3.8652	0.4233	3.6985	0.3906	3.3377	0.3541
222	2	4.7980	0.5614	4.4711	0.1503	4.1845	0.1271
226	2	4.8855	0.3928	4.8729	1.0000	3.9663	1.0000
227	2	4.8331	0.3698	4.7018	0.8802	3.7120	0.8524
228	2	5.8775	0.2538	5.3899	0.2298	4.5433	0.1823
229	2	5.0590	0.3979	3.9467	0.6617	3.1185	0.5957
230	2	7.0931	0.9899	5.4817	0.2165	4.8938	0.1780
232	2	4.8016	0.7413	10.6072	1.0000	8.4314	1.0000
233	2	9.4717	0.2346	11.8348	0.0009	10.7957	0.0048
236	2	3.6091	0.4395	11.7444	0.0082	10.1974	0.0448

¹Wolfram class.

Table 2: Continued.

Rule	W. cl. ¹	$p = 0$		$p = 0.001$		$p = 0.01$	
		G^σ	r^σ	G^π	r^π	G^π	r^π
237	2	8.1243	0.4170	11.8230	0.0015	10.7351	0.0077
240	2	0.0387	0.9186	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000
241	2	2.1014	0.6609	1.6306	0.5414	1.4663	0.5100
242	2	4.5260	0.9234	3.6120	0.5058	3.2760	0.4794
243	2	4.1114	0.2931	3.7061	0.3915	3.3868	0.3591
244	2	2.6381	0.9994	2.7798	0.4707	2.5005	0.4393
246	2	6.5741	0.9102	5.4668	0.2351	5.0369	0.2019
18	3	5.4850	0.5728	4.9312	0.6297	3.7099	0.5390
22	3	8.8848	0.3983	6.6699	0.6261	3.5737	0.6611
30	3	4.6560	0.8994	1.7843	0.9831	0.3332	0.9958
45	3	7.6936	0.9999	1.6755	1.0000	0.0998	0.9999
60	3	4.1853	0.9940	3.5731	1.0000	1.7232	1.0000
73	3	4.3257	0.9635	4.1166	0.9965	2.5287	0.9893
90	3	4.0586	0.9980	3.7778	1.0000	2.6528	1.0000
105	3	8.1250	0.9875	7.4925	1.0000	4.7941	1.0000
126	3	5.3877	0.9935	4.5984	0.9971	3.3678	0.9891
150	3	8.1250	0.9895	7.4925	1.0000	4.7941	1.0000
161	3	5.3009	0.9956	4.5606	0.9977	2.9457	0.9836
182	3	5.3737	0.7992	5.0251	0.6066	3.6983	0.5182
225	3	9.6682	0.2317	4.4156	0.1840	0.5267	0.9178
54	4	6.5286	0.8871	6.6093	0.9993	2.8375	0.9788
193	4	6.7149	0.9740	4.5883	0.9826	1.7759	0.9589

¹Wolfram class.

6 Discussion

Tables 1 and 2 contain several entries with extremal values of the quantities they represent, at least as far as can be gleaned from the six decimal places we printed out. Such extremal values refer in some cases to situations in which information gain is equal to either 0 or n , as well as situations in which the total-correlation ratios are equal to 0, and in most cases to situations in which the total-correlation ratios are equal to 1. All these entries are highlighted in the tables through the use of special typefaces. Since it turns out that all extremes can be covered by focusing on minimum (0) or maximum (1) ratio values, we italicize all gain-ratio pairs for which the ratio is minimum and use boldface for gain-ratio pairs for which the ratio is maximum (provided, in the probabilistic case, that the maximum is observed for both $p = 0.001$ and $p = 0.01$). The corresponding rule numbers and class identifications are also modified in this way.

In what follows, we occasionally refer to specific features of a rule's basin-of-attraction field for a given value of n . We do this whenever the features in question help understand particular values of information gain or total-correlation ratio. We refer the reader to one of the available atlases [20, 19] for a lookup of such features.

6.1 Maximum information gain (and minimum total correlation) in the deterministic case

By Equation (12), we have $G^\sigma = n$ if and only if $H^\sigma = 0$. Achieving $H^\sigma = 0$, in turn, is tantamount to the long-run situation in which $\sigma_i = 1$ for some CA state i , or equivalently to either $\sigma_{c,0} = 1$ or $\sigma_{c,1} = 1$ for each cell c . The latter happens if and only if $H_c^\sigma = 0$ for every cell c , which by Equation (17) implies $C^\sigma = 0$ and, of course, $r^\sigma = 0$ as well.

By Equation (1), the condition that $\sigma_i = 1$ for some CA state i holds if and only if the CA being considered entails one single basin of attraction, encompassing all 2^n states, and moreover this basin's attractor is a fixed point (one single state to which the CA dynamics recurs perpetually once it is reached). In fact, this is what we see in Table 1 (for class-1 rules 0, 251, and 253) and in Table 2 (for rules 0 and 253 only, as for $n = 12$ rule 251 leads to the appearance of a further basin).

It is curious to note that, for deterministic scenarios in which such single-basin, single-state-attractor condition holds, the resulting $H_c^\sigma = 0$ for every cell c implies $H^\sigma = 0$ as well, since as noted in Section 3, we always have $\sum_{c=1}^n H_c^\sigma \geq H^\sigma$. So, when $r^\sigma = 0$ (or, equivalently, $C^\sigma = 0$ with $G^\sigma > 0$), and thus $\sum_{c=1}^n H_c^\sigma = H^\sigma$, any of these deterministic scenarios implies, through $H^\sigma = 0$, that $G^\sigma = n$. In summary, not only do the rules singled out above imply $r^\sigma = 0$, they are the only ones to do so for the two values of n being discussed.

6.2 Minimum information gain in the deterministic case

Resorting once again to Equation (12), we see that having $G^\sigma = 0$ is equivalent to having $H^\sigma = n$, that is, a long-run scenario of maximum possible uncertainty. Naturally, $H^\sigma = n$ happens if and only if $\sigma_i = 1/2^n$ for every CA state i , which by Equation (1) is equivalent to all CA states being periodic. This is the case precisely for class-2 rules 51 and 204 (which, not coincidentally, are complementary to each other), as seen in both Table 1 and Table 2.

It also follows easily from Equation (18) that $G^\sigma = 0$ implies $C^\sigma = 0$, whence $r^\sigma = 1$ (by convention, since total correlation is in this case 100% of all the information gain), which is reflected in the two tables as well. As we note below, however, depending on the rule under consideration and on the value of n , it is entirely possible to have $r^\sigma = 1$ also for $G^\sigma > 0$.

6.3 Minimum information gain in the probabilistic case

We observed no occurrence of $G^\pi = n$, which as far as we can tell suggests that, once probabilistic deviations from the deterministic CA recipe are allowed, the CA dynamics works to prevent the uncertainty regarding the long-run CA state from being too low. Contrasting with this, the opposite extreme of $G^\pi = 0$ does occur sometimes, which by now we easily associate with $H^\pi = n$ and a uniform distribution π (i.e., $\pi_i = 1/2^n$ for every CA state i). As is well known, this happens if and only if the transition-probability matrix P is doubly stochastic: not only do its rows add up to 1 [cf. Equation (8)], but so do its columns.

Because the elements of P , the $p_{i,j}$'s, are given as in Equation (5), one simple shortcut toward double stochasticity is to let $p = 0.5$, yielding $p_{i,j} = 1/2^n$ for all i, j . Another, unrelated way is to let $p_{i,j} = 1/\binom{n}{\tau}$ if $D_{i,j} = \tau$ (if not, then $p_{i,j} = 0$), where $\tau \leq n$ is any number of cells [15]. These two examples lead to a symmetric P , i.e., to $p_{i,j} = p_{j,i}$ for all i, j . Clearly, whenever this happens, P is seen to be doubly stochastic simply by virtue of being stochastic in the first place. We note, however, that it is possible for a stochastic matrix to be doubly stochastic without being symmetric.

In Table 1, for $n = 11$, we find $G^\pi = 0$ for class-2 rules 15, 51, 204, 210, and 240, and for class-3 rules 45, 105, and 150, all of which can be grouped into complementary pairs: 15 with 240, 51 with 204, 45 with 210, 105 with 150. All corresponding matrices are indeed doubly stochastic, and in particular those of rules 51 and 204 are symmetric. As for $n = 12$, four of these same rules are also those for which $G^\pi = 0$ in Table 2, namely rules 15, 51, 204, and 240. All four result in doubly-stochastic matrices, and again the matrices for rules 51 and 204 are symmetric.

As in the case of $G^\sigma = 0$ above, we recognize that $G^\pi = 0$ implies $C^\pi = 0$, and therefore $r^\pi = 1$ (once again by convention, and once again we note that $r^\pi = 1$ also happens in situations of $G^\pi > 0$, as we discuss below).

6.4 Maximum total correlation in the deterministic case

We get $r^\sigma = 1$ in Equation (19) if and only if, by Equation (18), $\sum_{c=1}^n G_c^\sigma = 0$. This, in turn, is by Equation (15) equivalent to having $H_c^\sigma = 1$ for every cell c , or to having cell-state probabilities $\sigma_{c,0} = \sigma_{c,1} = 0.5$ regardless of c . By Equation (9), this happens if in every basin the attractor has an even number of CA states along which every cell has state 0 as often as it has state 1, but conceivably this may not be necessary (i.e., depending on the rule and on the value of n , other basin and attractor arrangements may exist that lead to the desired probabilities).

If we ignore the already noted rules 51 and 204 (which lead to $r^\sigma = 1$ only degenerately, by virtue of doing so for $G^\sigma = 0$), Tables 1 and 2 provide us with further rules, as follows. For $n = 11$, class-2 rules 11, 15, 19, and 23, as well as class-3 rule 105. For $n = 12$, rule 19 only. Of these, only rule 11 does not conform to the simple sufficient condition we outlined, so either a subtler arrangement is at play or we really have $r^\sigma < 1$ but missed this fact because of insufficient precision in the numbers that were output. In this case we favor the latter hypothesis, since for $n = 11$ this rule's basin-of-attraction field has only one basin (out of 11) for which the number of periodic states is odd, which may for example disrupt the sufficient condition enough to prevent r^σ from being exactly 1.

6.5 Maximum total correlation in the probabilistic case

Similarly to the deterministic case discussed above, the necessary and sufficient condition for obtaining $r^\pi = 1$ is that $\sigma_{c,0} = \sigma_{c,1} = 0.5$ for every cell c . That is, in the long run every cell is as likely to be found in state 0 as it is to be found in state 1.

Tables 1 and 2 reveal several rules for which $r^\pi = 1$, even if we ignore all those that, as noted earlier, have $r^\pi = 1$ only as a consequence of $G^\pi = 0$. For $n = 11$, the further rules are class-2 rules 23, 29, 43, 57, 77, 178, 198, 212, 226, and 232, and also the class-3 rules 45, 60, and 90 (the XOR rule). These are also the further rules for $n = 12$, but now joined by class-3 rules 105 and 150. These rules' basin-of-attraction fields are richly assorted and no pattern seems to emerge that might help explain why they promote maximum total correlation for the values of n and p in use.

6.6 Minimum total correlation in the probabilistic case

Unlike the case of minimum total correlation in deterministic scenarios discussed above, in which $r^\sigma = 0$ implies $G^\sigma = n$, here there is no reason to expect that $r^\pi = 0$ (or, equivalently, $C^\pi = 0$ with $G^\pi > 0$) should imply $G^\pi = n$. In fact, in Tables 1 and 2 we see that $G^\pi < n$ for all rules displaying $r^\pi = 0$. Interestingly, all (and only) class-1 rules are such that $r^\pi = 0$ in the tables.

The basin-of-attraction fields of all class-1 rules are characterized by the concentration of nearly all CA states in a single basin (all of them, in the cases

noted earlier), this one basin having a single-state attractor at its core. As we solve for the various π_i 's with $p \ll 0.5$, this attractor state gets most of the probability mass while that of the others is very small. As a result, in the long run the CA is found in the situation of having a relatively small entropy H^π , and marginal entropies H_c^π whose sum over all cells is above H^π by only a negligible margin. Thus, a value for C^π is obtained that is indistinguishable from 0 (at least within the precision we adopted). Naturally, the small value of H^π is precisely the amount by which G^π falls short of equaling n .

6.7 Total correlation tends to be unexpectedly high

Tables 1 and 2 do not contain explicit values of total correlation, but these can be easily estimated by resorting to the simple relation given by Equation (19), $C^\rho = r^\rho G^\rho$. If we ignore those (arguably degenerate) cases of zero gain (and thus zero total correlation), a fairly simple inspection reveals that only for a few rules do we have $C^\sigma < 0.6$ or $C^\pi < 0.6$ (for either value of p) for both $n = 11$ and $n = 12$. These are class-2 rules 4, 36, 218, 222, 233, 236, and 237, along with class-3 rules 30 and 225.

The choice of the 0.6 threshold, though somewhat arbitrary as will become clear shortly, ultimately has to do with how much uncertainty would be expected, in the long run, if every possible probability distribution over the 2^n CA states were taken into account. In other words, the question is, what is the expected value of H^ρ over all possible probability distributions ρ ? The answer to this question depends on what weight each of these infinitely many probability distributions is to have when computing the desired expected value. If we assume that all weights are to be the same (that is, the probability density to be used over all distributions is uniform), then it is a known fact that the expected value of H^ρ can be well approximated by $n - (1 - \gamma)/\ln 2$ [3], where $\gamma \approx 0.57722$ is the well-known Euler constant, even for values of n as modest as the ones we have been using. By Equation (12), the expected value of the information gain G^ρ can itself be approximated by $(1 - \gamma)/\ln 2 \approx 0.6$, which by Equation (18) can be taken as an upper bound on the expected value of total correlation C^ρ .

So, by pinpointing those rules for which C^ρ falls below this upper bound of about 0.6 for at least one of the ρ 's of interest (σ or one of the π 's), we are singling out rules for which C^ρ may lie above the actual expected value just as it may lie below it. Even so, the resulting number of rules is surprisingly low (only nine all told). Taking this together with the nondegenerate cases of $r^\pi = 1$ discussed above, elementary CA seem to perform remarkably well in generating information gain beyond that which is generated individually by the cells.

In this respect, we find it instructive to single-out class-2 rule 7, for which total correlation is highest in either table, specifically $C^\pi = 9.7352$ for $n = 11$ and $C^\pi = 10.6969$ for $n = 12$, with $p = 0.001$ in both cases. These two figures match the entirety of the corresponding information gains as far as we can tell from the available decimal places, so $r^\pi = 1$, though rule 7 is not highlighted in either table because our highlighting criterion requires maximum ratios for

the two values of p . A similar case is that of class-2 rule 13 for $n = 12$ and $p = 0.001$. This rule has $C^\pi = 10.67$ and ranks second in Table 2 for total correlation, also with $r^\pi = 1$.

6.8 Deterministic versus probabilistic scenarios

The scenario we have been calling deterministic is the traditional CA scenario in which CA state i is followed by CA state k_i at the next time step with probability 1. Despite its denomination, the deterministic scenario is subject to uncertainty (quantified, e.g., through the information gain G^σ) regarding the long-run state in which the CA is to be found, since the initial CA state is chosen randomly.

As we noted in Section 2, the deterministic scenario can be thought of as the special case of the probabilistic scenario that sets p to 0, as by Equation (5) in this case we get $p_{i,j} = 1$ if $j = k_i$. We also noted, earlier in Section 6, that setting p to 0.5 is the same as obtaining the minimum possible gain in the probabilistic scenario (i.e., $G^\pi = 0$). We might then be led to believe that, regarding the evolution of information gain as p is varied, changing p through an increasing sequence from $p = 0$ toward $p = 0.5$ would reveal a succession of ever-decreasing gain values: first G^σ (for $p = 0$); then a succession of G^π values (for strictly positive values of p), each one surpassing neither its predecessor nor G^σ .

This is indeed what we often find as we scan the rows of Tables 1 and 2 from left to right, but not always. The exceptions are not too numerous, but one of them is particularly striking because $G^\pi/G^\sigma \approx 3.254$ for $p = 0.001$, meaning that for this rule and the two values of n under consideration, information gain more than triples as we move from the deterministic case to the probabilistic one with $p = 0.001$. The rule in question, in either table, is class-2 rule 236. It is reassuring, however, that nowhere do we find an increase in G^π as p is increased, because this we can expect in a principled manner: increasing p lets the CA dynamics deviate from the traditional one ever more and thus produces more long-run uncertainty (less gain).

Expecting $G^\sigma > G^\pi$ to always hold is unreasonable, though, because the deterministic scenario is a special case of the probabilistic one only insofar as the transition probabilities $p_{i,j}$ are concerned. For $p > 0$, every CA state is reachable from every other (and from itself) in one step during the CA dynamics, albeit in most cases with low probability. For $p = 0$, on the other hand, only k_i can be reached from CA state i in one time step. As we noted in Section 2, this affects the method used to find σ or π profoundly [simply applying Equation (1), in the former case, and finding a Markov chain's stationary probabilities, in the latter]. More tellingly, it abruptly affects the structural possibilities for the long-run mix-up of CA states at the boundary between $p = 0$ and $p > 0$. As a consequence, comparing G^σ and G^π seems insufficiently principled in general.

6.9 Class-4 rules and total correlation

With the exception of class-1 rules, which hardly display any total correlation for the various reasons we have noted, all highlights in Tables 1 and 2 refer to the achievement of maximum total correlation, that is, total correlation that accounts for all the information gain. The rules in question are all class-2 or class-3 rules, which characteristically behave in such a way as to produce spatiotemporal patterns often referred to as “dull” and “chaotic,” respectively. But what of the two class-4 rules, namely rule 54 and rule 193 (this one equivalent by both negation and reflection to the famous rule 110, provably capable of universal computation)? Can they not generate substantial total correlation as well?

The answer is that they can, but without coming near some of the top-ranking rules we have encountered. Although their total-correlation ratios are above 0.9 almost always (the exceptions being r^σ for rule 193 with $n = 11$ and much less severely for rule 54 with $n = 12$), the information gains are less than impressive and thus so are the total correlations themselves. So, at least in the case of rule 193 and perhaps not surprisingly, it appears that being able to perform universal computation is much more than the ability to integrate information, perhaps even more stringently than total correlation is much more than the total information gain the cells are capable of generating locally.

A useful, somewhat quantitative insight into the issue of relatively modest information gains can be had through one of the chiefest characteristics normally attributed to class-4 rules, namely that their basin-of-attraction fields are dominated by long transients leading to not too short, or long, attractors. In the deterministic case this suggests that the distribution σ is probably neither too concentrated on very few states nor spread out to the point of resembling the uniform distribution. Such a σ , as we know, leads to mid-valued H^σ and G^σ . In the probabilistic case, too, such a purportedly typical layout of a class-4 field can be influential. By Equation (6), and so long as $p < 0.5$, CA state i is always far more likely to be succeeded by state k_i than by any other. This suggests, for distribution π , properties similar to those of σ , with similar effects on H^π and thence on G^π .

7 Conclusion

We have studied information integration in elementary CA, using the notion of total correlation and its relation to information gain as guiding principles. These entities are mathematical functions of a system’s random elements, which in the case of CA requires that they be extended by some sort of nondeterminism. We have done this in two different ways, one in which a CA’s basic determinism is preserved but its initial state is chosen uniformly at random, another in which every cell is prone to disobeying the deterministic rule that governs its behavior probabilistically and independently of all others. Both sources of nondeterminism

ism lead to long-run probability distributions on the CA states and those can be used to compute total correlation.

What is tantalizing about total correlation is that it hints at the existence of ways to reduce uncertainty that emerge out of the interaction of the underlying system's components. That is, even though such components can create information through their evolution in time, often there is additional information that is created by how the components interact with one another. In the case of elementary CA we have identified rules in Wolfram classes 2 and 3 that excel at creating such additional information. For these rules, most (if not all) of the information that is created is of the total-correlation type, turning the rules themselves into possible models of information integration.

Our results are preliminary in several regards, particularly in regard to the fact that they refer to the simplest possible CA and in regard to the fact that, by virtue of the exponential growths that typically characterize CA studies, only for small systems have we been able to obtain numerical results. Especially useful headways can be expected from provably correct approximations to the Markov-chain solution methods if some simplifying structure in the transition matrix comes to be identified, and also from making theoretical progress toward understanding how total correlation behaves for certain classes of CA rules. To the best of our knowledge, however, such goals are still elusive at this time.

We close by commenting on a very apt note, by J. Rothstein in 1952, regarding the notion of organization [13]. In this note, what the author calls an "alternative" can be identified with a random variable (a cell's state in our case). A "selection" is a value assignment to this random variable, and likewise a "complexion" is a joint value assignment to all variables (a "set of selections"). The heart of the note, as we see it, is the author's observation that, in the general case, the "entropy of the set of complexions is ... less than the sum of the entropies of the sets of alternatives." This, in our view, came as close to foreshadowing the concept of total correlation as can be imagined. Of course, in the meantime since then it took the development of information theory and of computing technology for some of the concept's potential to be realized and some of its consequences to be understood. Sometime in the future, likewise, the purported link between total correlation and elusive entities like consciousness may come to be clarified. We believe the present work can contribute to such developments by having demonstrated, though to a limited extent, that CA can be used as simple computational models of how information can be efficiently integrated.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge partial support from CNPq, CAPES, a FAPERJ BBP grant, and the joint PRONEX initiative of CNPq and FAPERJ under contract E-26/110.550/2010.

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