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Basic Research in Computer Science

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Peter Bro Miltersen

BRICS Report Series

ISSN 0909-0878

RS-99-3

February 1999

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BRICS, Department of Computer Science  
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# Two notes on the computational complexity of one-dimensional sandpiles

Peter Bro Miltersen\*

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## Abstract

We prove that the one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem is in  $\mathbf{AC}^1$ . The previously best known upper bound on the  $\mathbf{AC}^i$ -scale was  $\mathbf{AC}^2$ . We also prove that it is not in  $\mathbf{AC}^{1-\epsilon}$  for any constant  $\epsilon > 0$ .

## 1 Introduction

In a recent paper, Moore and Nilsson [3] considered the following *one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem*, which can be described as follows (the description of Moore and Nilsson is slightly different but can be easily seen to be equivalent to the following). A one-dimensional sandpile is a map  $h : \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ . The value  $h(i)$  is interpreted as the height of a pile of sand at position  $i$ . A pile of height 2 or more is *unstable*, and may *topple*, distributing sand evenly to the two neighboring positions. Formally, if map  $h'$  satisfies that for some  $i$ ,  $h'(i) = h(i) - 2$ ,  $h'(i-1) = h(i-1) + 1$ ,  $h'(i+1) = h(i+1) + 1$ , and  $h'(x) = h(x)$  for all  $x \notin \{i-1, i, i+1\}$ , we'll say that  $h'$  is a possible successor to  $h$ , or  $h \rightarrow h'$ . If there is no possible successor to  $h$ , we'll say that  $h$  is *stable*. If  $h$  is zero outside some interval  $I$ , say,  $I = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , it can be shown that there is a unique stable  $g$ , so that

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\*BRICS, Basic Research in Computer Science, Centre of the Danish National Research Foundation, Department of Computer Science, University of Aarhus, Denmark. Email: bromille@brics.dk.

$h \rightarrow^* g$ . We will denote this unique  $g$  by  $h^*$ . The one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem is the following: Given  $h : \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$ , find  $h^*$ .

A similar definition can be made for the  $d$ -dimensional sandpile problem for any  $d \geq 1$ , but in this paper, we concentrate on the one-dimensional case.

The sandpile model is popular in the theory of complex dynamical systems. A general program by Moore and others seek to capture and measure the informal notion of the “complexity” of such a system by the *computational* complexity of the problem of predicting the behavior of the system. Following this program, Moore and Nilsson showed that the  $d$ -dimensional sandpile prediction problem is in  $\mathbf{P}$  for all  $d$ , that it is  $\mathbf{P}$ -complete for  $d \geq 3$  and that the 1-dimensional problem is in  $\mathbf{AC}^1[\mathbf{NL}] \subseteq \mathbf{AC}^2 \subseteq \mathbf{NC}^3$ . They also present an efficient sequential algorithm for the 1-dimensional problem with a time bound of  $O(n \log n)$ .

The purpose of this note is to present two pieces of information about the complexity of the one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem.

First we show the following improvement of the parallel upper bound of Moore and Nilsson: *The one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem is in  $\mathbf{AC}^1 \subseteq \mathbf{NC}^2$* . Conceptually, the algorithm is simpler than the parallel algorithm of Moore and Nilsson. It is based on refining their *sequential* algorithm slightly, and then noticing that the refined algorithm can be carried out by a deterministic logspace Turing machine with access to an auxiliary pushdown store. It is known that the class of languages so computed is  $\mathbf{LOGDCFL}$  [5], the class of languages logspace reducible to a deterministic context-free language, and as  $\mathbf{LOGDCFL} \subseteq \mathbf{AC}^1$  [4], the result follows.

Second, we prove that *one-dimensional sandpile prediction is hard for  $\mathbf{TC}^0$  by  $\mathbf{AC}^0$ -reductions*. That the one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem is hard for  $\mathbf{TC}^0$  means that the one-dimensional sandpile is sufficiently complex to carry out at least some slightly non-rudimentary computation, such as computing the parity or majority of  $n$  bits. This provides a (weak) formal justification for the statement of Moore and Nilsson that the dynamics of the one-dimensional sandpile problem is “non-trivial”. It also implies the following lower bound: *The one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem is not in  $\mathbf{AC}^{1-\epsilon}$  for any constant  $\epsilon > 0$* . As  $\mathbf{AC}^i$  is the class of problems solvable by CRCW PRAMs with polynomially many processors in time  $O((\log n)^i)$ , we thus have fairly tight upper and lower bounds for solving the one-dimensional sandpile problem in this model of computation.

## 2 The upper bound

In their paper, Moore and Nilsson show that the one-dimensional sandpile problem can be solved by the following sequential algorithm. Given an input sandpile  $h : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$ , extend it to  $\mathbf{Z}$  by making zero the values of  $h$  outside the interval from 1 to  $n$ . We maintain two subsets  $T$  and  $N$  of the integers. Initially  $T$  is the set  $\{i \in \mathbf{Z} | h(i) = 2\}$  and  $N$  is the set  $\{i \in \mathbf{Z} | h(i) = 0\}$ . Note that while  $N$  is an infinite set, it has an obvious finite representation. Now, while  $T$  is not empty repeat the following two steps, a *round*:

1. Pick an  $t \in T$ . Find  $z_1, z_2 \in N$  so that  $z_1 \leq t < z_2$ .
2. Let  $N = (N - \{z_1, z_2\}) \cup \{z_1 + z_2 - t\}$ . Let  $T = T - \{t\}$ .

When  $T$  is empty,  $h'$  defined to be 0 on  $N$  and 1 on  $\mathbf{Z} - N$  is the unique stable successor of  $h$ . We refer the reader to the argument for this in Moore and Nilsson.

Moore and Nilsson suggest implementing the above algorithm directly by maintaining the “finite part” of the set  $N$  in sorted order, and, for each  $t \in T$ , do a binary search in  $N$  to find  $z_1$  and  $z_2$ . Our first observation is that this binary search can be eliminated when going through the list  $T$  in increasing order. Indeed, we can maintain the following *invariant*. Between rounds, if  $T = \{t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_m\}$ , we can maintain a partition of  $N$  into  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  in such a way that the following properties are true:

1. All elements in  $N_1$  are smaller than each element in  $N_2$ .
2. The elements  $z_1, z_2$  so that  $z_1 \leq t_1 < z_2$  are either
  - (a) The largest element of  $N_1$  and the smallest element of  $N_2$  or
  - (b) Both in  $N_2$ .

First note that we can easily establish the invariant at the beginning of the computation. Now given the invariant, we want to perform one round of the algorithm of Moore and Nilsson. We should find an appropriate  $z_1, z_2$  so that  $z_1 \leq t_1 < z_2$ . If case (a) applies, we remove  $t_1$  from  $T$  (so  $t_2$  will be the “new”  $t_1$  in the next round),  $z_1$  from  $N_1$  and  $z_2$  from  $N_2$ . Note that  $z_1 < z_1 + z_2 - t_1 \leq z_2$  and also note the  $t_2$  is greater than the new largest

element of  $N_1$  (since  $t_1$  was). Thus, if we insert  $z_1 + z_2 - t_1$  as the new largest element of  $N_1$  if  $z_1 + z_2 - t_1 \leq t_2$  and we insert  $z_1 + z_2 - t_1$  as the new smallest element of  $N_2$  if  $t_2 < z_1 + z_2 - t_1$ , we have maintained the invariant. If case (b) applies, we move elements from  $N_2$  to  $N_1$  until case (a) applies, reducing it to this case. This completes the description of the algorithm.

Because of case (b), the reader may conclude that we have replaced binary search with linear search which does not sound like such a grand idea, but note that the size of  $N_2$  is never increased during a round. Thus, the total cost of moving elements from  $N_2$  during the entire execution of the algorithm is linear.

Concerning the complexity of the refined algorithm, viewed as a sequential algorithm we have to be somewhat careful about the exact model of computation. On a log cost RAM, the unrefined algorithm of Moore and Nilsson has complexity  $O(n \log n)$  because of

1. The binary searches which cost  $O(\log n)$  time each.
2. Adding and subtracting  $O(\log n)$ -bit integers, each operation costing  $O(\log n)$  time.

The refined algorithm also has complexity  $O(n \log n)$  in the log-cost model. However, it is common practice to *only* use the log-cost time measure when integers of bit length much bigger than the log of the input are involved (e.g., as in case of the problem of multiplying two  $n$ -bit integers). When only  $O(\log n)$ -bit length integers are involved, the *unit cost* RAM model is much more commonly used. In the unit cost RAM model, the refined algorithm has complexity  $O(n)$  while the Moore-Nilsson version keeps having complexity  $O(n \log n)$  because of the binary searches.

More important than its sequential complexity in various RAM models is the consequences of the refined algorithm for the parallel complexity of the sandpile prediction problem. Indeed, we next note that the refined algorithm can be implemented by a polynomial time, logspace Turing machine with access to an auxiliary pushdown store (i.e., an extra “free” tape, where a tape cell is erased when the head moves from the cell to its left neighbor). Because of the robustness of logarithmic space, we just have to argue that the algorithm can be implemented by a while-program using  $O(1)$  variables, each holding an integer of  $O(\log n)$  bits and an auxiliary object STACK where

such  $O(\log n)$  bit integers can be pushed and popped. We show how each variables in the refined algorithms can be represented using such objects.

$N_1$  will be represented by the STACK object and a single integer variable  $v$ . The invariant of the representation is the following:  $N_1$  is exactly  $\{\dots, -v - 2, -v - 1, -v\} \cup \{\text{the elements in STACK}\}$  furthermore, the elements of STACK are sorted, with the largest at the top. With this representation, we can remove the largest element from  $N_1$ , and add an element to  $N_1$  larger than the largest one. These are the only operations we need to perform on  $N_1$  when running the refined algorithm. We can also easily initialize the representation to the correct content in the beginning of the refined algorithm.

$N_2$  will be represented by three integer variables  $l, i$  and  $w$ . The invariant of the representation is that  $N_2 = \{l\} \cup \{j \geq i \mid H[i] = 0\} \cup \{j \in \mathbf{Z} \mid j \geq w\}$ . Here  $H[1..n]$  is the structure holding in the input, representing the map  $h : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$ . With this representation, we can replace the smallest element of  $N_2$  by another element and remove the smallest element from  $N_2$ . These are the only two operations the refined algorithm uses.

$T$  is represented in a way similar to  $N_2$ .

We have now shown that the refined algorithm for one-dimensional sandpile prediction can be implemented by a deterministic, polynomial time, logspace Turing machine with access to an auxiliary pushdown store. At the end of the algorithm, the output is contained in the representation of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ . If we are interested in the  $i$ 'th bit of the output for some  $i$ , we can find it by either inspecting the structure for  $N_2$  or the structure for  $N_1$ , in the last case popping a sufficient number of elements from the stack. Thus the language  $1\text{SANDPILE} = \{\langle h, i \rangle \mid \text{the } i\text{'th bit in } h^* \text{ is } 1\}$  can be decided by a deterministic logspace Turing machine with an auxiliary pushdown store. By a result of Sudborough [5], this means that the language is in **LOGDCFL** which, by a result of Ruzzo [4] is a subset of **AC**<sup>1</sup>. The functional version of the problem, i.e. the map  $h \rightarrow h^*$  itself is therefore computable in the same class.

### 3 The lower bound

Moore and Nilsson showed **P**-completeness of higher-dimensional versions of the sandpile prediction problem; here we show hardness for much lower

complexity classes of the one-dimensional problem. When considering **P**-completeness, logspace reductions are most often used. However, these are not meaningful for classes below **L**, as those classes are not closed under logspace reductions. Here, we use a weaker notion of reductions, *DLOGTIME-uniform constant depth reductions* [1]. All classes considered here are closed under those reductions. A language  $\pi_1$  reduces to an language  $\pi_2$  by such reductions if we can build DLOGTIME-uniform, constant depth, polynomial size circuit for  $\pi_1$ , using unbounded fan-in AND-gates, unbounded fan-in OR-gates, NEGATION-gates, and *oracle*-gates computing  $\pi_2$ .

Let MAJORITY be the problem of deciding whether a string of  $n$  input bits ( $n$  odd) have more 1's than zeros. We shall show that MAJORITY reduces to 1SANDPILE. Since MAJORITY is complete for  $\mathbf{TC}^0$  by constant depth reductions (indeed, the *definition* of  $\mathbf{TC}^0$  is that it is the closure of MAJORITY under constant depth reductions), it follows that 1SANDPILE is hard for  $\mathbf{TC}^0$  under constant depth reductions.

Let PARITY be the problem of deciding whether a string of  $n$  input bits have an odd number of ones. As PARITY is in  $\mathbf{TC}^0$ , PARITY is not in  $\mathbf{AC}^{1-\epsilon}$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$  [2], and  $\mathbf{AC}^{1-\epsilon}$  is closed under constant depth reductions, we get the corollary that 1SANDPILE is not in  $\mathbf{AC}^{1-\epsilon}$  for any constant  $\epsilon > 0$ .

It remains to show that MAJORITY constant depth reduces to 1SANDPILE. We have to construct a uniform circuit for MAJORITY using unbounded fan-in AND gates, unbounded fan-in OR gates and 1SANDPILE oracle-gates.

Given an input  $x_1x_2\dots x_n$  of the MAJORITY problem, we can assume that  $n$  is odd. Our circuit first constructs an instance  $1y_{11}y_{12}y_{13}y_{21}y_{22}y_{23}\dots y_{n1}y_{n2}y_{n3}$  of the sandpile problem where  $y_{i1} = x_i$ ,  $y_{i2} = 1 - x_i$  and  $y_{i3} = 2$ , except for  $y_{n3} = 1$ . For example, we reduce 0101011 to 1 012 102 012 102 012 101. Applying the Moore-Nilsson algorithm, we see that this instance reduces to a stable value with exactly one zero with an index between 1 and  $3n$ , this index being  $n + 1 + \#\text{ones in } x_1x_2\dots x_n$ . Thus, to find the majority of  $x_1x_2\dots x_n$ , we just need to check if the index of the unique one in the reduced pile is bigger than  $3n/2 + 1$ . This is easily checked with a uniform constant depth circuit.



## 4 Discussion and open problems

In general, to carry out the program of making formal the informal notion of the “complexity” of a complex dynamical system by identifying “complexity” with the computational complexity of the prediction problem, it seems appropriate to use the finest scale available in the theory of computational complexity.

We have shown a  $\mathbf{TC}^0$  lower bound and a  $\mathbf{LOGDCFL}$  upper bound for the one-dimensional sandpile prediction problem. Obviously, getting tighter bounds would be desirable. In particular, is the one-dimensional problem hard for  $\mathbf{NC}^1$ ? Is it in  $\mathbf{L}$  or  $\mathbf{NL}$ ?

Moore and Nilsson classified the  $d$ -dimensional sandpile prediction problem as  $\mathbf{P}$ -complete for  $d \geq 3$  and left open whether the 2-dimensional sandpile prediction problem is also hard for  $\mathbf{P}$ . We may note that the reduction used by Moore and Nilsson to show that the 3-dimensional problem is hard for  $\mathbf{P}$  also establishes that the 2-dimensional problem is hard for  $\mathbf{NC}^1$ : Their reduction is a reduction from the monotone circuit value problem and the third dimension is only used when implementing crossovers of wires. Thus, the monotone *planar* circuit value problem reduces to 2-dimensional sandpile prediction, and this problem is hard for  $\mathbf{NC}^1$ . Getting a better lower bound than  $\mathbf{NC}^1$  or a better upper bound than  $\mathbf{P}$  for the 2-dimensional sandpile prediction problem would be most interesting.

## 5 Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Chris Moore for helpful discussions.

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