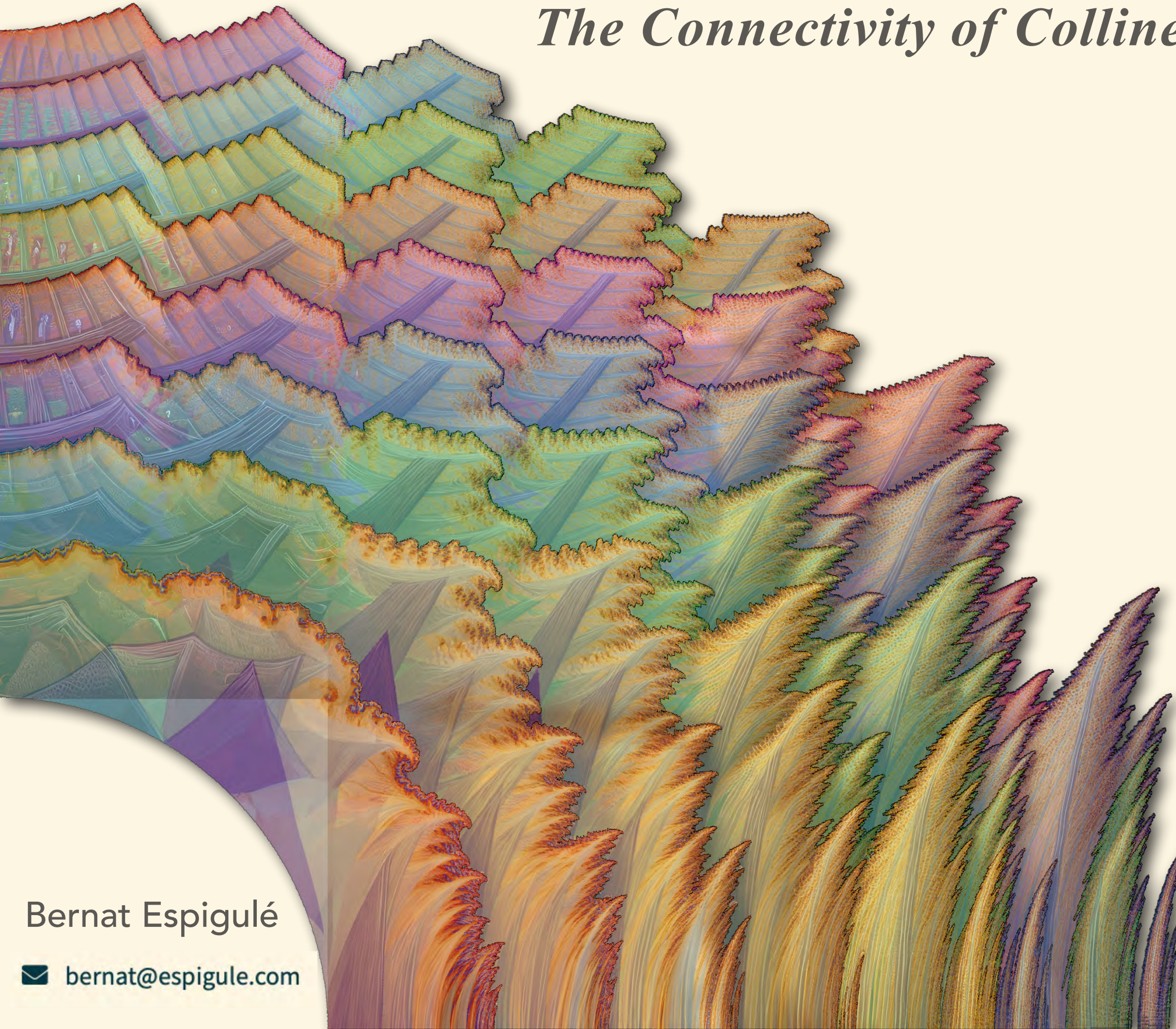


Beyond Roots of Integer Polynomials: The Connectivity of Collinear Fractals



Joint work with my
PhD supervisors,
Joan Saldaña, and
David Juher


Universitat de Girona

IFUdG 2022–2024  **Santander**

Low dimensional dynamical
systems: topology, geometry,
combinatorics and bifurcations

PID2023-146424NB-I00

Bernat Espigulé

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One of the charms of mathematics is that simple rules can generate complex and fascinating patterns, which raise questions whose answers require profound thought.

SHORT STORIES



The Beauty of Roots

John C. Baez, J. Daniel Christensen,
and Sam Derbyshire



Figure 1. Roots of all polynomials of degree 23 whose coefficients are ± 1 . The brightness shows the number of roots per pixel.

One of the charms of mathematics is that simple rules can generate complex and fascinating patterns, which raise

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questions whose answers require profound thought. For example, if we plot the roots of all polynomials of degree 23 whose coefficients are all 1 or -1 , we get an astounding picture, shown in Figure 1.

More generally, define a **Littlewood polynomial** to be a polynomial $p(z) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i z^i$ with each coefficient a_i equal to 1 or -1 . Let X_n be the set of complex numbers that are roots of some Littlewood polynomial with n nonzero terms (and thus degree $n-1$). The 4-fold symmetry of Figure 1 comes from the fact that if $z \in X_n$ so are $-z$ and $\bar{z}$. The set X_n is also invariant under the map $z \mapsto 1/z$, since if z is the root of some Littlewood polynomial then $1/z$ is a root of the polynomial with coefficients listed in the reverse order.

It turns out to be easier to study the set

$$X = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} X_n = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z \text{ is the root of some Littlewood polynomial}\}.$$

If n divides m then $X_n \subseteq X_m$, so X_n for a highly divisible number n can serve as an approximation to X , and this is why we drew X_{24} .

Some general properties of X are understood. It is easy to show that X is contained in the annulus $1/2 < |z| < 2$. On the other hand, Thierry Bousch showed [2] that the closure of X contains the annulus $2^{-1/4} \leq |z| \leq 2^{1/4}$. This means that the holes near roots of unity visible in the sets X_n must eventually fill in as we take the union over all

Short Stories

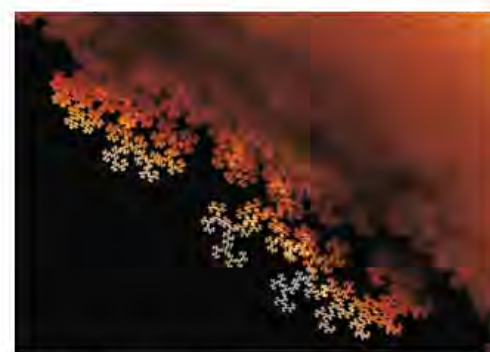


Figure 2. The region of X_{24} near the point $z = \frac{1}{2}e^{i/8}$.

n . More surprisingly, Bousch showed in 1993 that the closure $\bar{X}$ is connected and locally path-connected [3]. It is worth comparing the work of Odlyzko and Poonen [7], who previously showed similar result for roots of polynomials whose coefficients are all 0 or 1.

The big challenge is to understand the diverse, complicated and beautiful patterns that appear in different regions of the set X . There are websites that let you explore and zoom into this set online [4, 5, 8]. Different regions raise different questions.

For example, what is creating the fractal patterns in Figure 2 and elsewhere? An anonymous contributor suggested a fascinating line of attack which was further developed by Greg Egan [5]. Define two functions from the complex plane to itself, depending on a complex parameter q :

$$f_{+q}(z) = 1 + qz, \quad f_{-q}(z) = 1 - qz.$$

When $|q| < 1$ these are both contraction mappings, so by a theorem of Hutchinson [6] there is a unique nonempty compact set $D_q \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ with

$$D_q = f_{+q}(D_q) \cup f_{-q}(D_q).$$

We call this set a **dragon**, or the **q -dragon** to be specific. And it seems that for $|q| < 1$, the portion of the set X in a small neighborhood of the point q tends to look like a rotated version of D_q .

Figure 3 shows some examples. To precisely describe what is going on, much less prove it, would take real work. We invite the reader to try. A heuristic explanation is known, which can serve as a starting point [1, 5]. Bousch [3] has also proved this related result:

Theorem. For $q \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|q| < 1$, we have $q \in \bar{X}$ if and only if $0 \in D_q$. When this holds, the set D_q is connected.

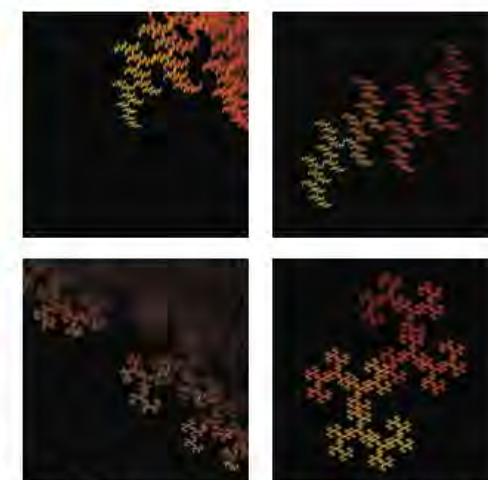


Figure 3. Top: the set X near $q = 0.594 + 0.254i$ at left, and the set D_q at right. Bottom: the set X near $q = 0.375453 + 0.544825i$ at left, and the set D_q at right.

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Perron number distribution



60



18

A *Perron number* is a real algebraic integer λ that is larger than the absolute value of any of its Galois conjugates. The Perron-Frobenius theorem says that any non-negative integer matrix M such that some power of M is strictly positive has a unique positive eigenvector whose eigenvalue is a Perron number. Doug Lind proved the converse: given a Perron number λ , there exists such a matrix, perhaps in dimension much higher than the degree of λ . Perron numbers come up frequently in many places, especially in dynamical systems.

My question:

What is the limiting distribution of Galois conjugates of Perron numbers λ in some bounded interval, as the degree goes to infinity?

share cite improve this question

edited Jan 11 '11 at 4:04

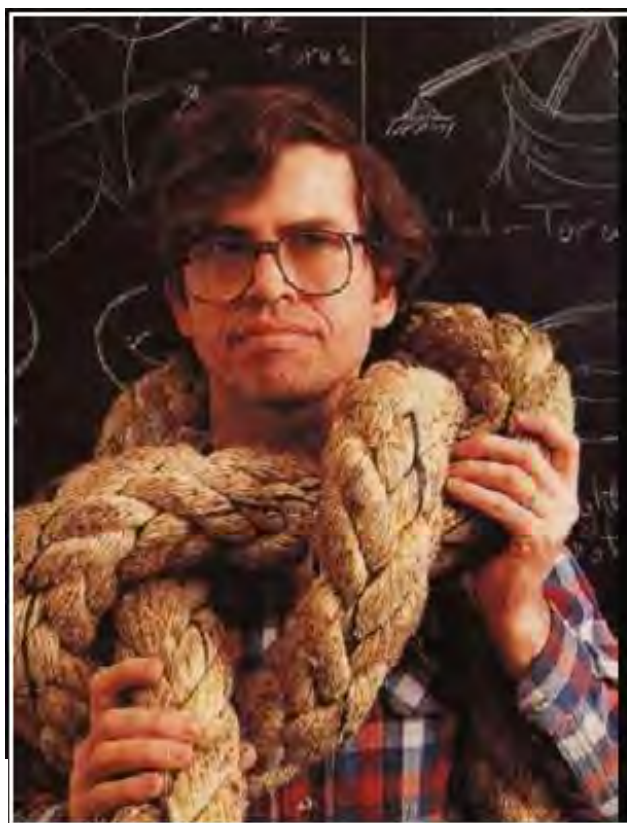
asked Jan 11 '11 at 3:50



Bill Thurston

21.4k • 11 • 82 • 113

- 2 Should be related to the distribution at math.ucr.edu/home/baez/roots ; there are references at that link, I think. – Qiaochu Yuan Jan 11 '11 at 4:20
- 2 @Qiaochu Yuan: Thanks for bringing it up. I actually intended to check out and point to those references, until my question got too long. I was trying to take a slice of things in a way that eliminates the fractal distribution of roots of polynomials with bounded coefficients. My motivation for this question originated in trying understand topological entropy for postcritically finite iterated polynomials, where a Mandelbrot-like distribution comes up that is very related to those exhibited by Baez (and others). – Bill Thurston Jan 11 '11 at 4:41

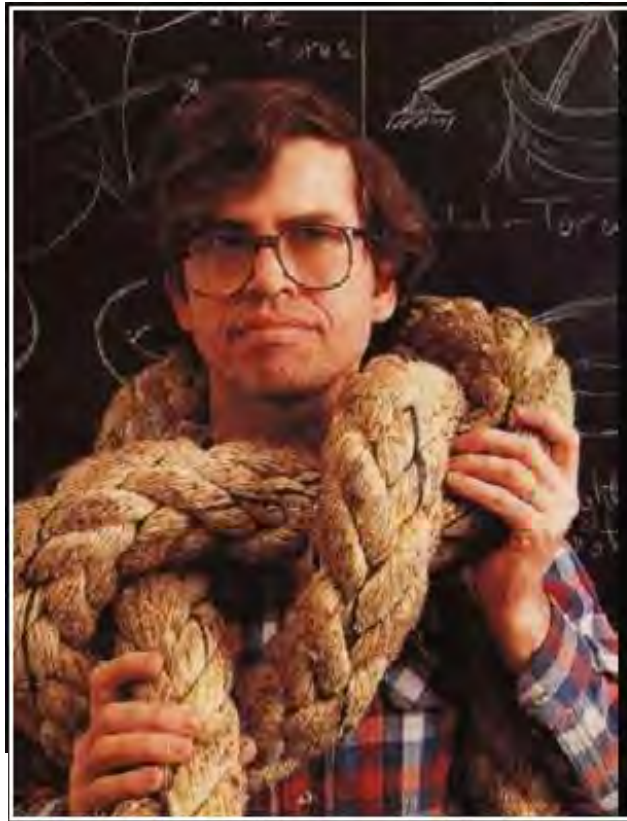


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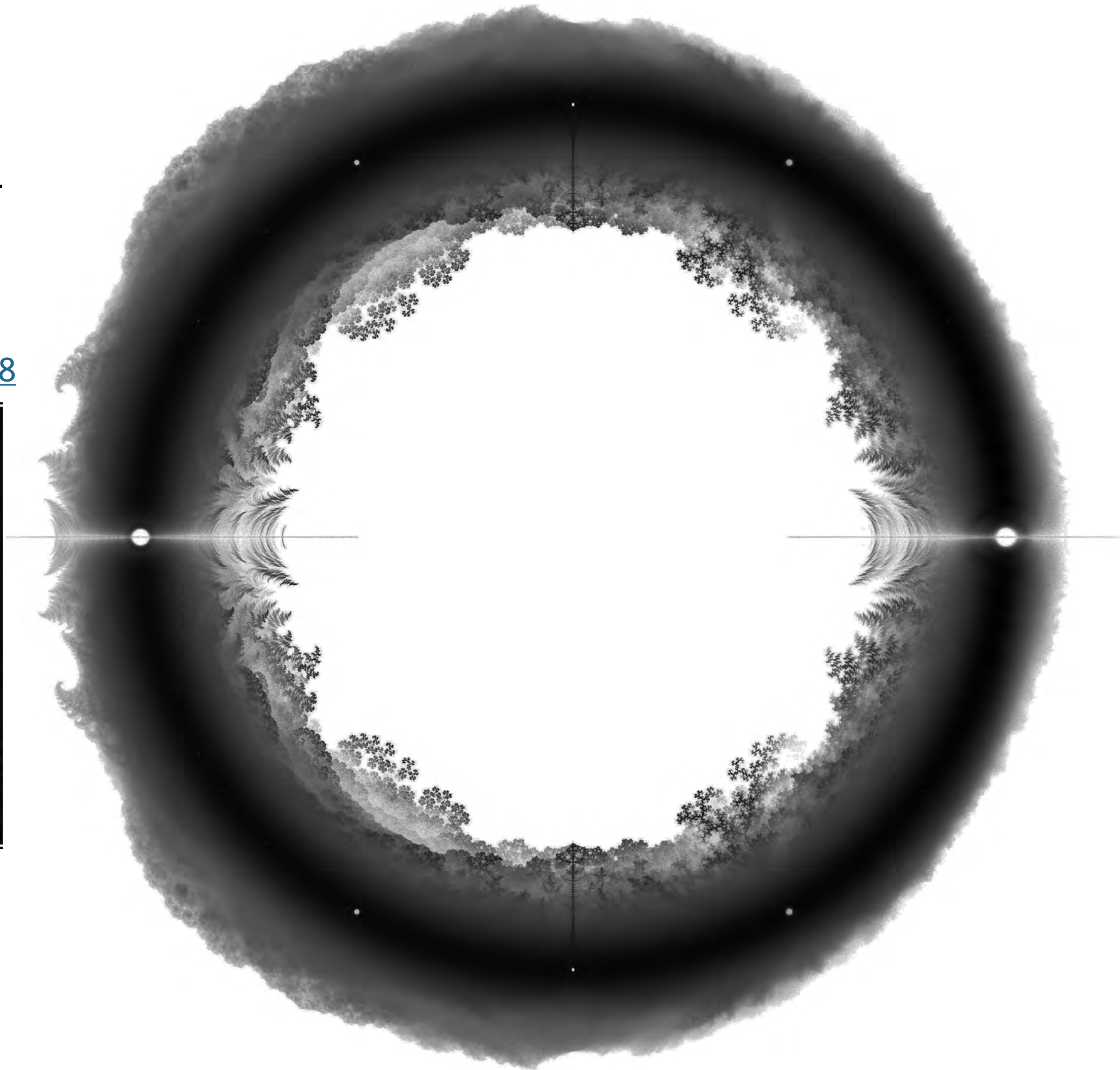
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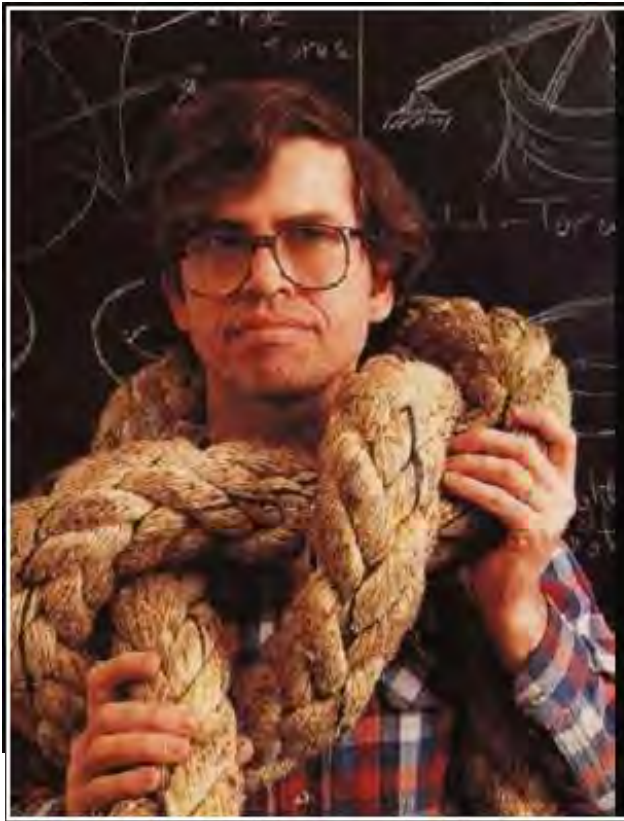
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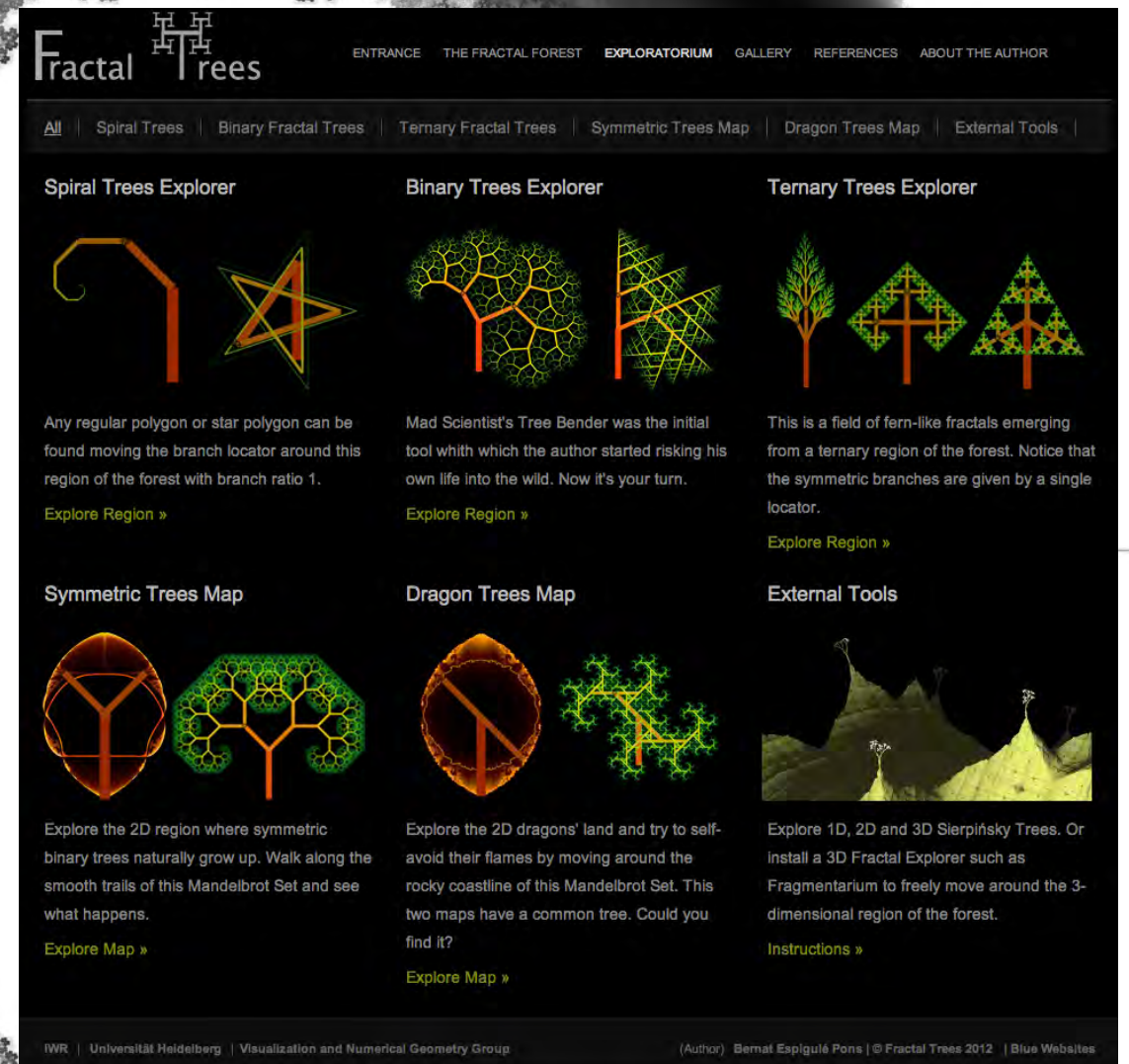
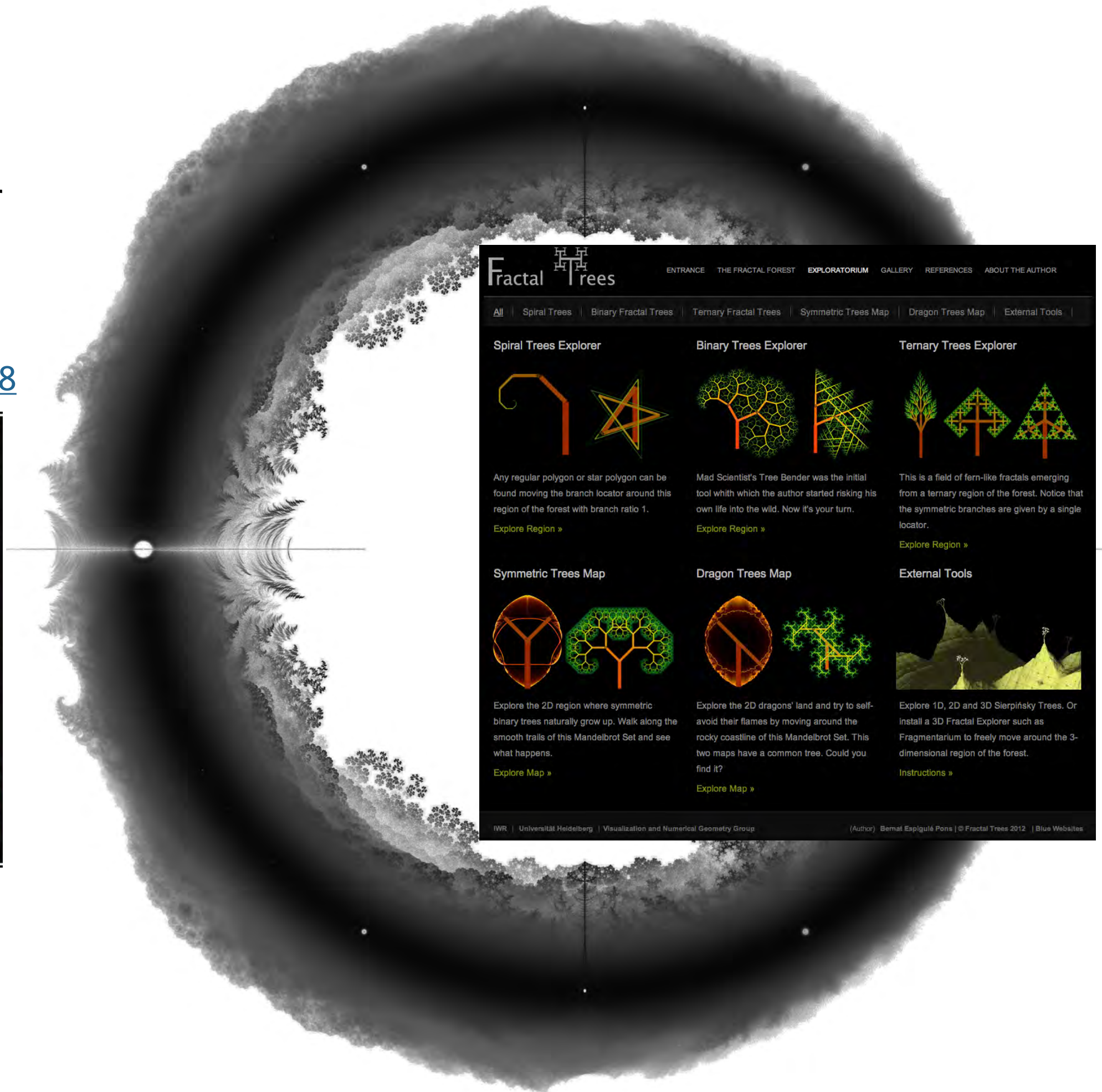
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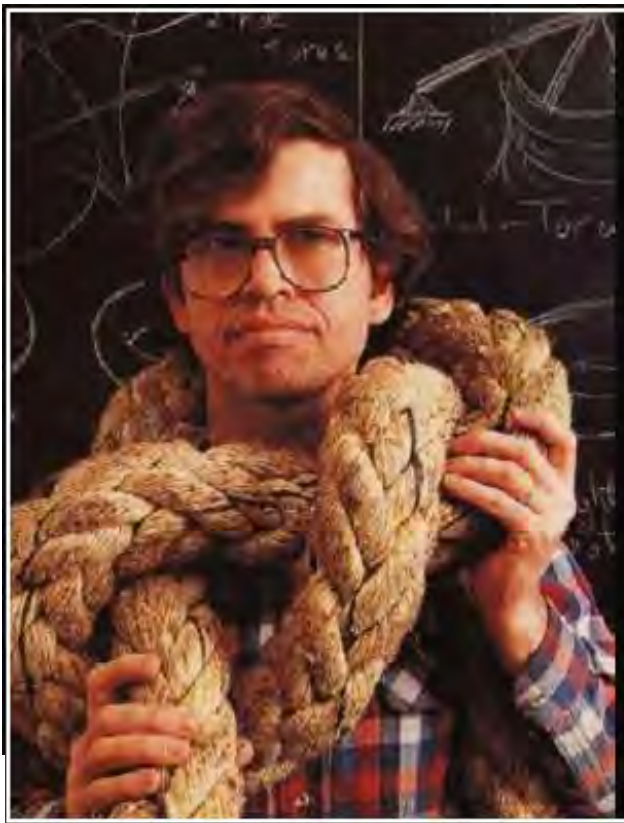
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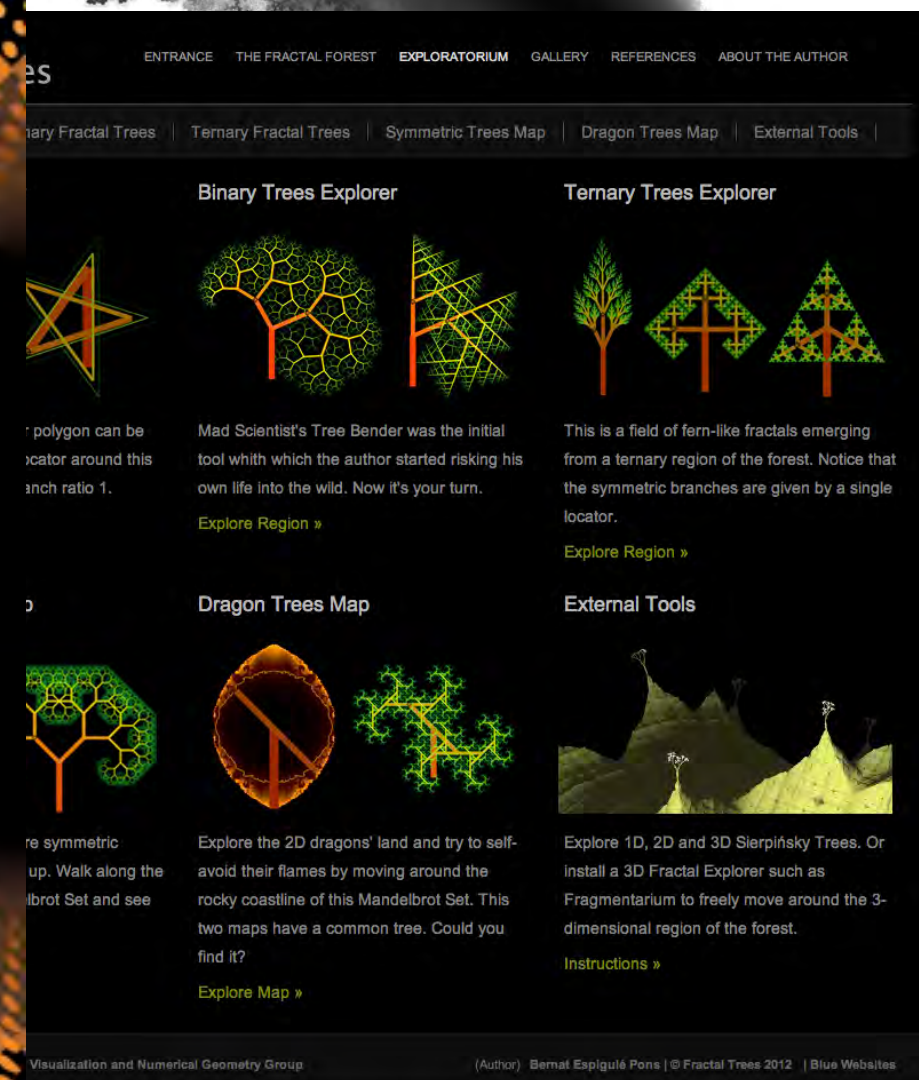
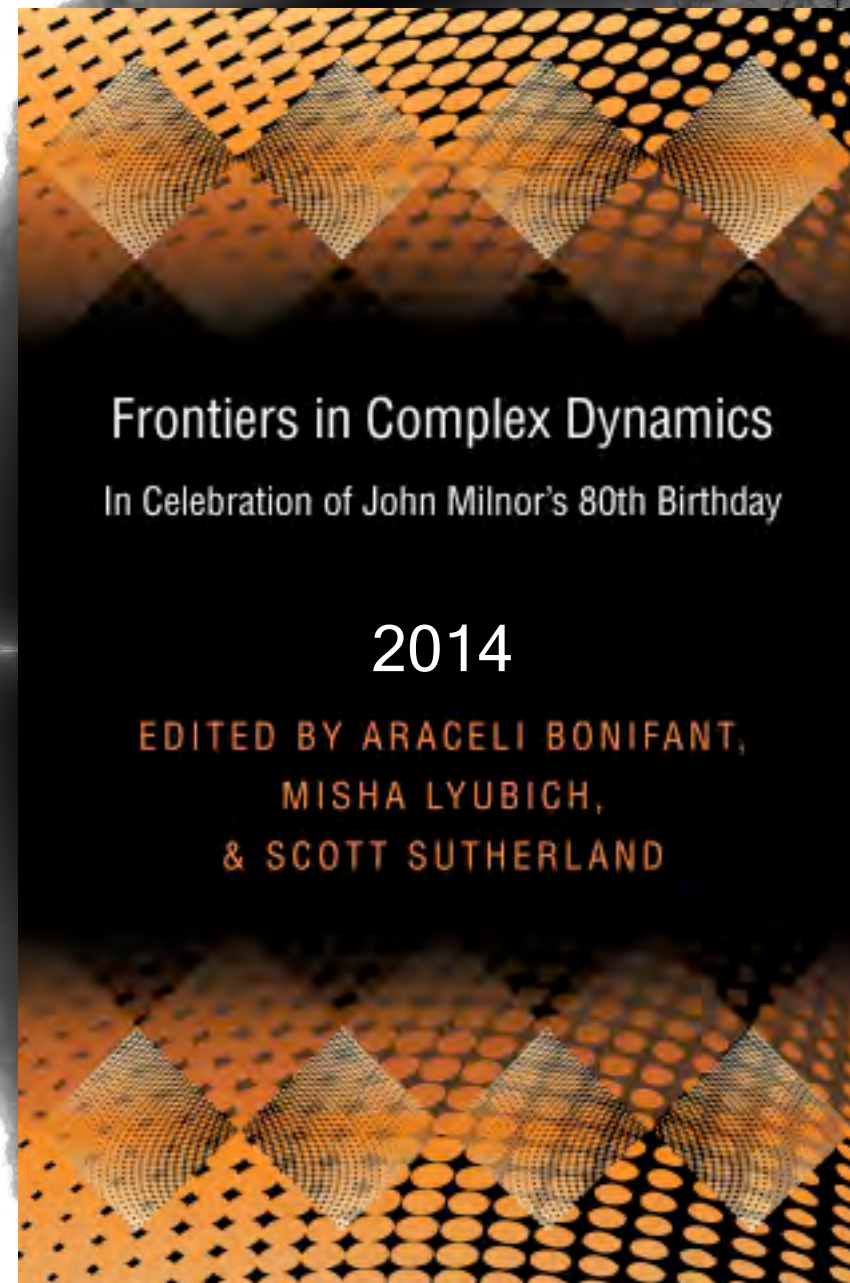
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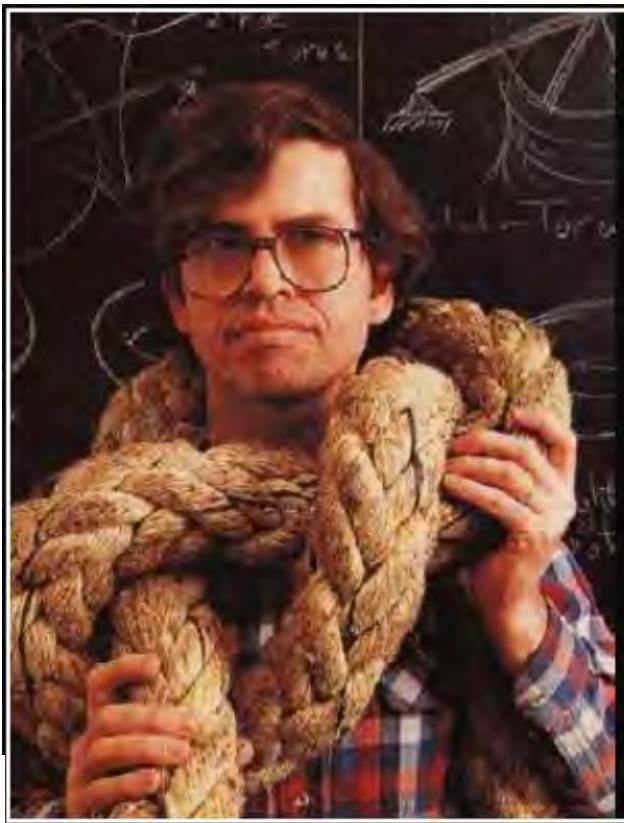
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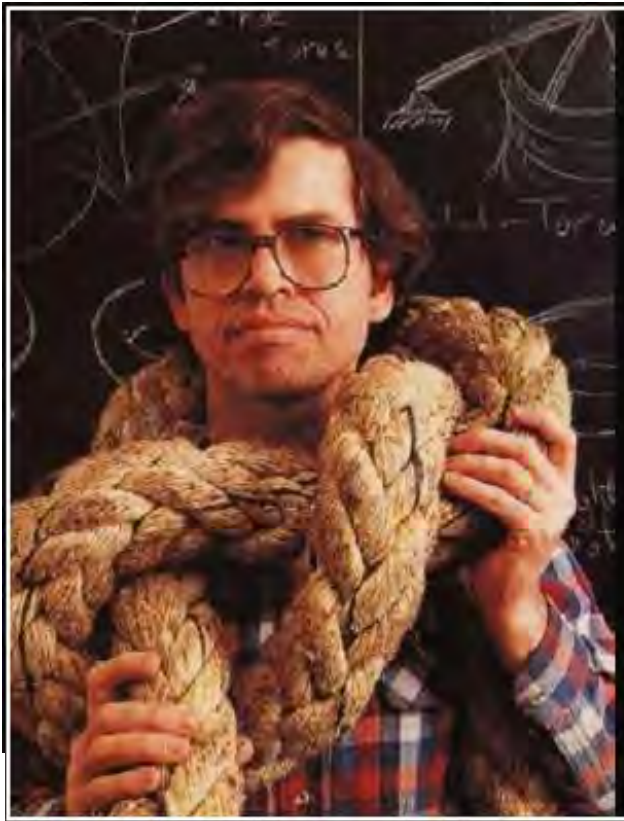
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Bill Thurston
(1946 - 2012)

Holomorphic Dynamics Group, Barcelona



(Left to right: Antonio Garijo, Núria Fagella, Dan P., Anna M. Benini, Jordi Canela, Xavier Jarque, Bernat Espigulé and Robert Florido). Course 2017-18

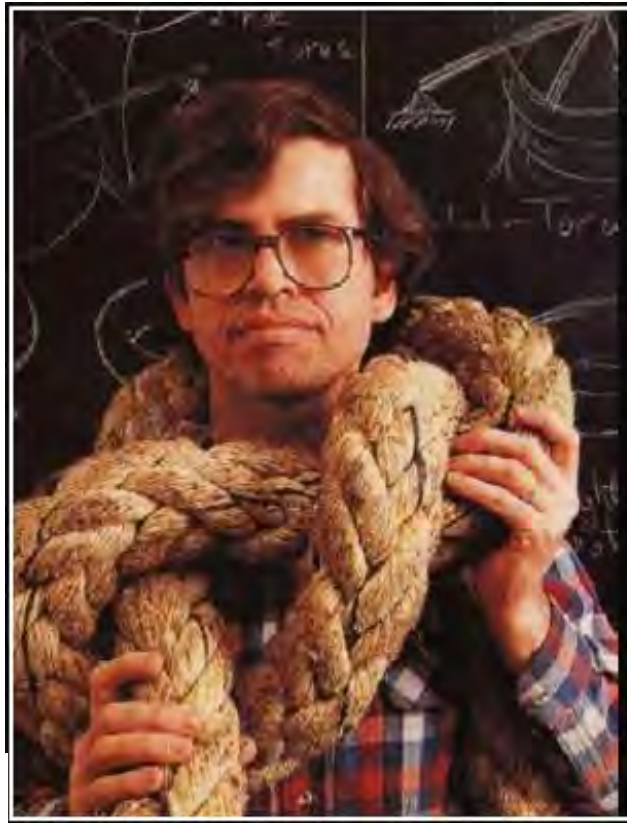
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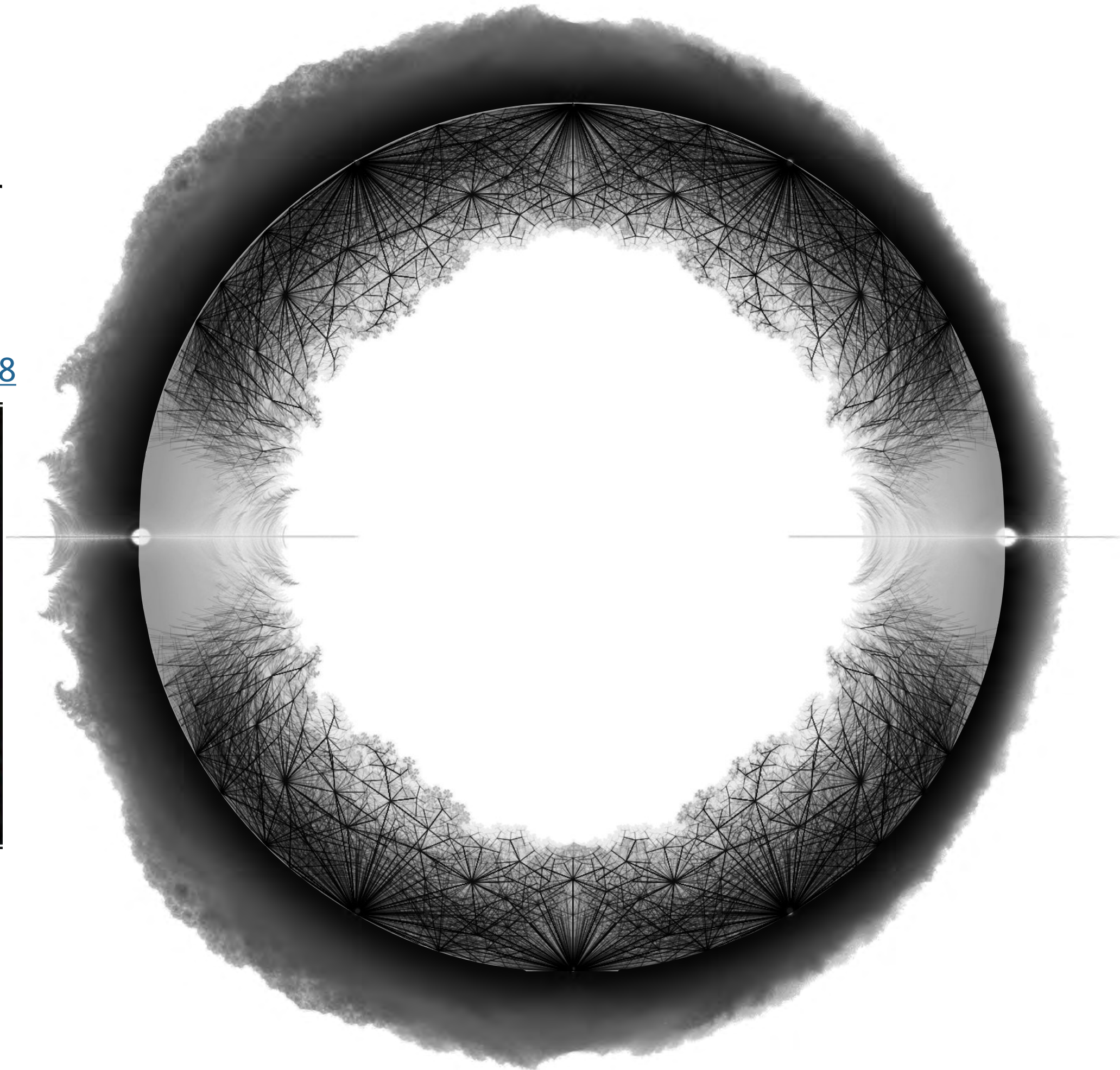
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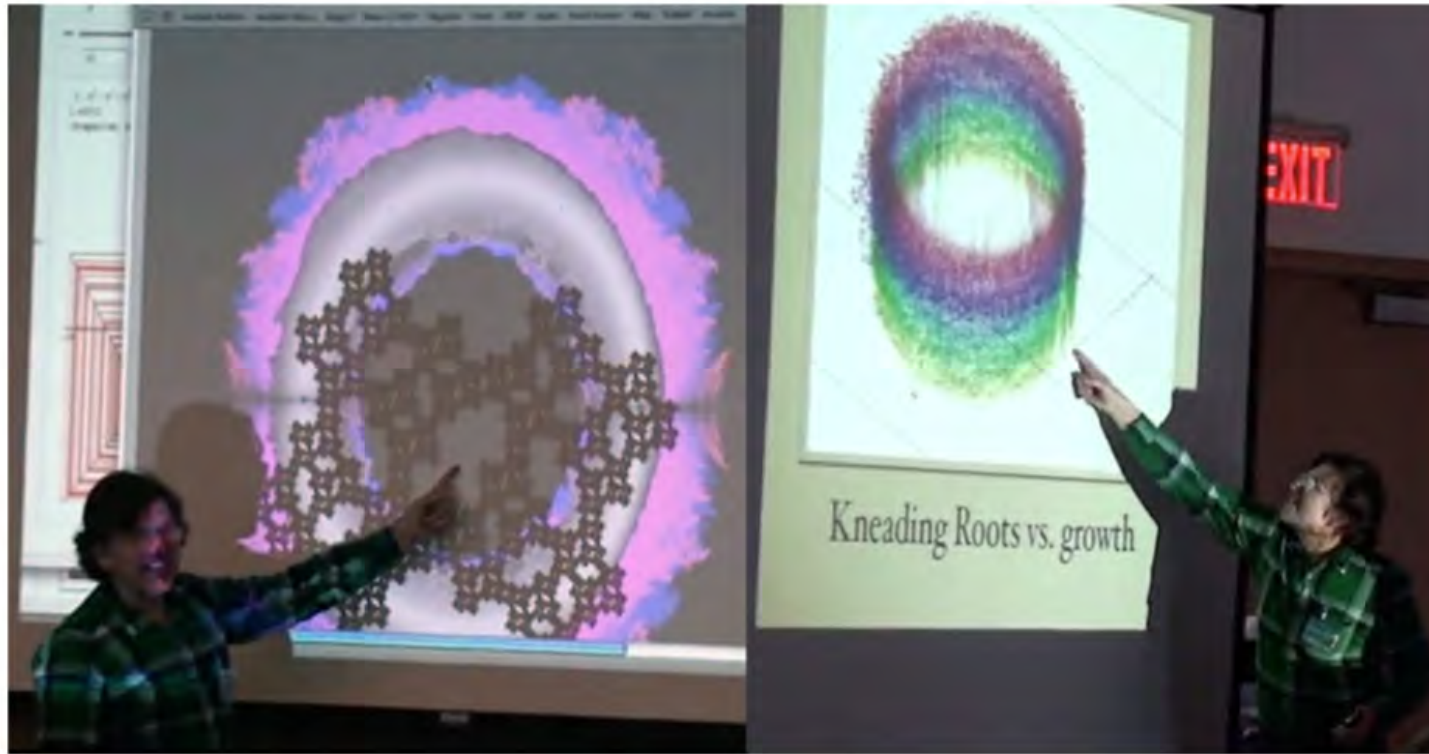
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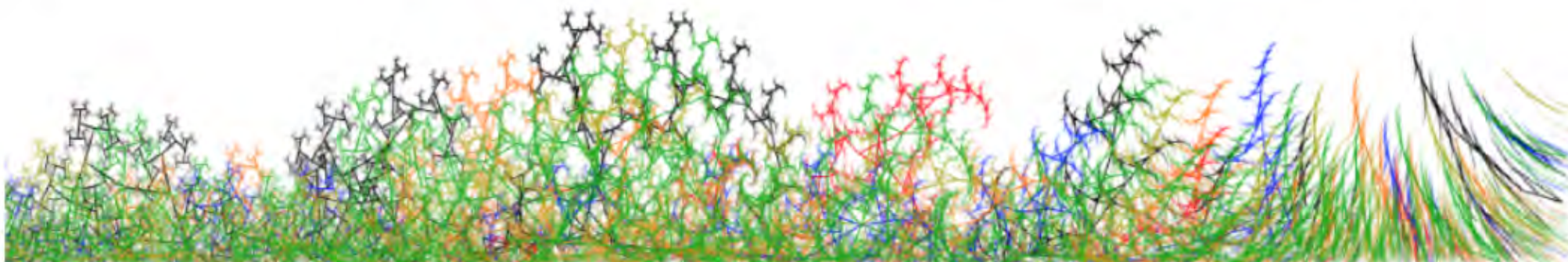
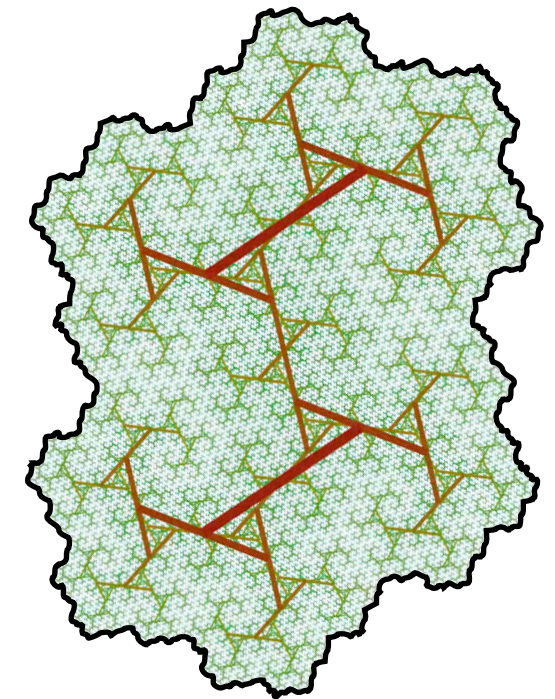
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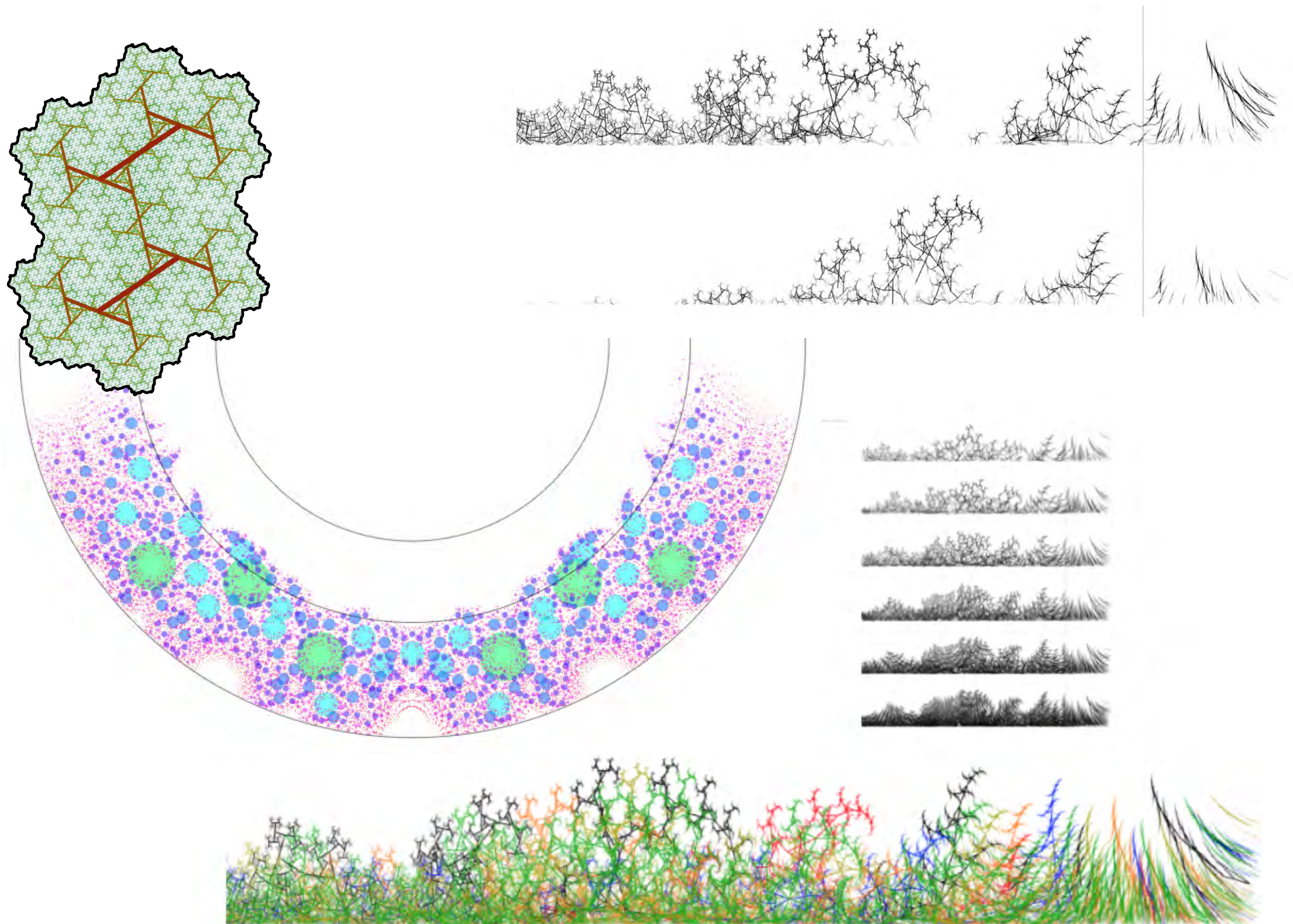


Bill Thurston presenting M , M_0 , and the Thurston Set, Jackfest 2011

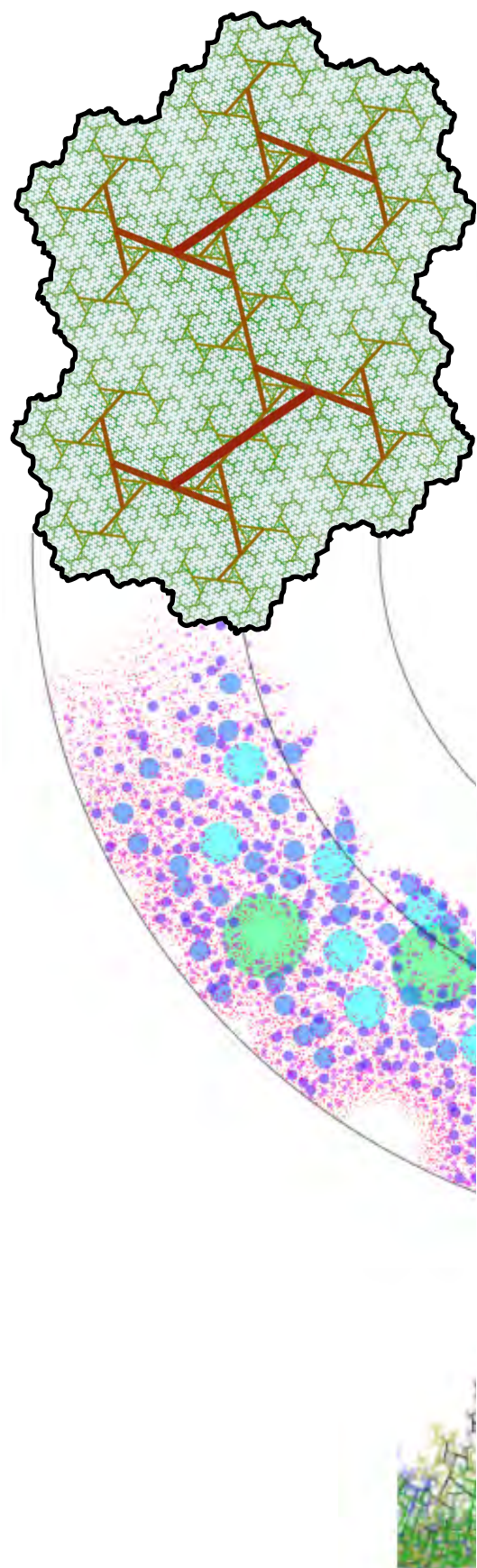
[Structure of Entropy: The hidden dimensions](#)



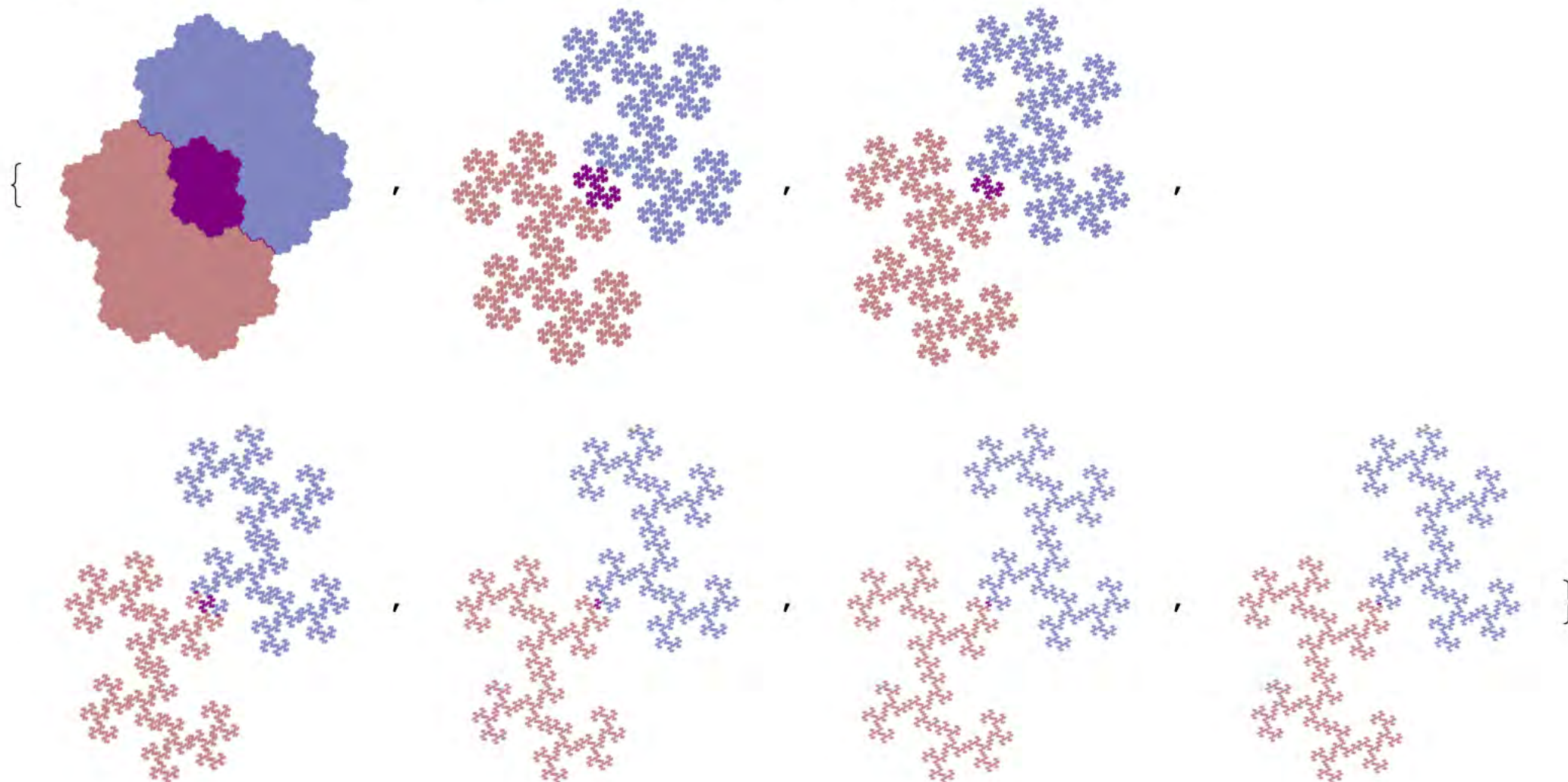
Internal structure of M illustrated by complex trees' piece-to-piece connectivity roots. 2018

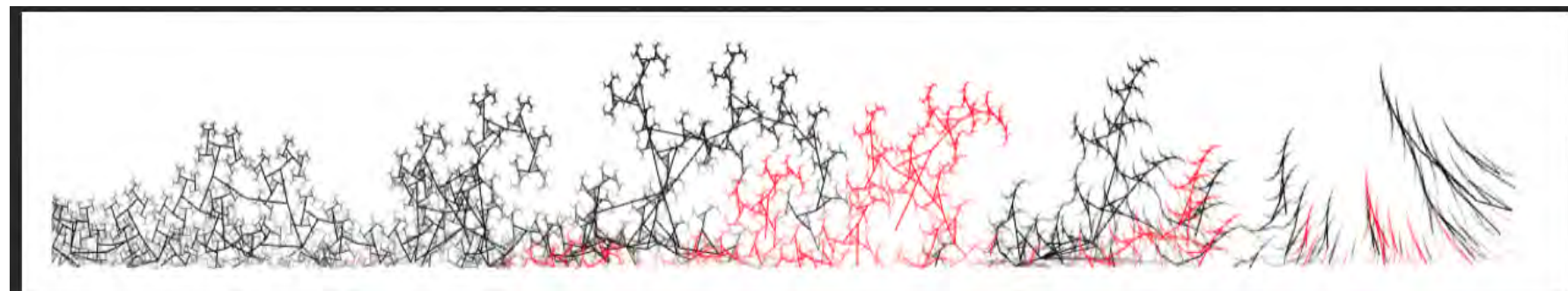
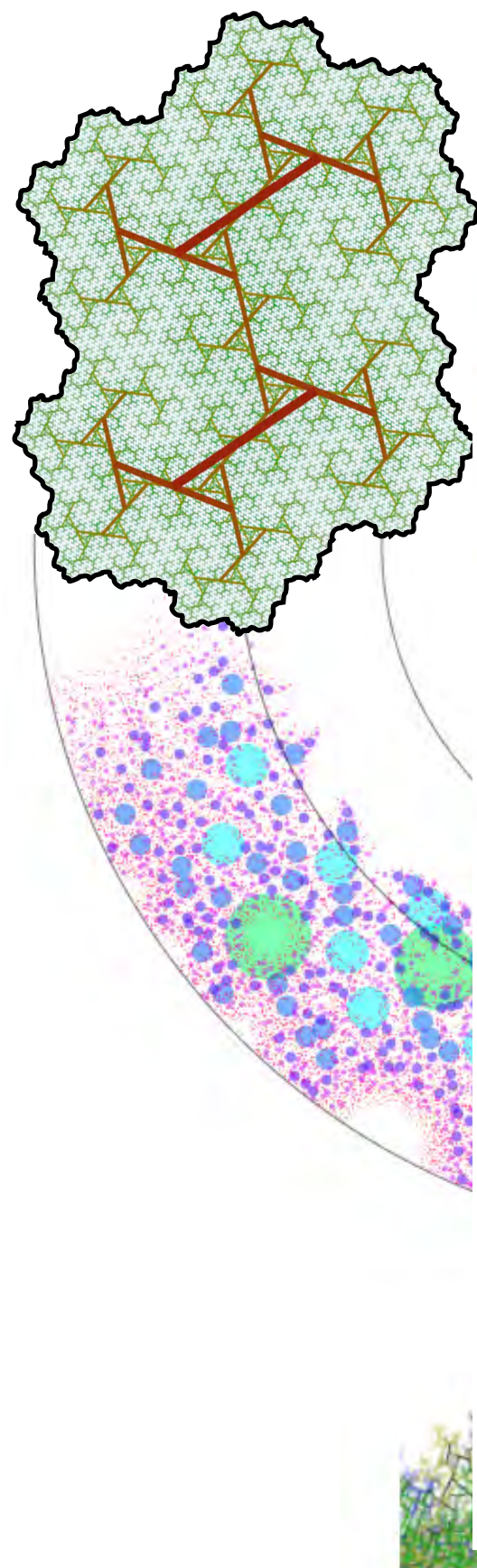


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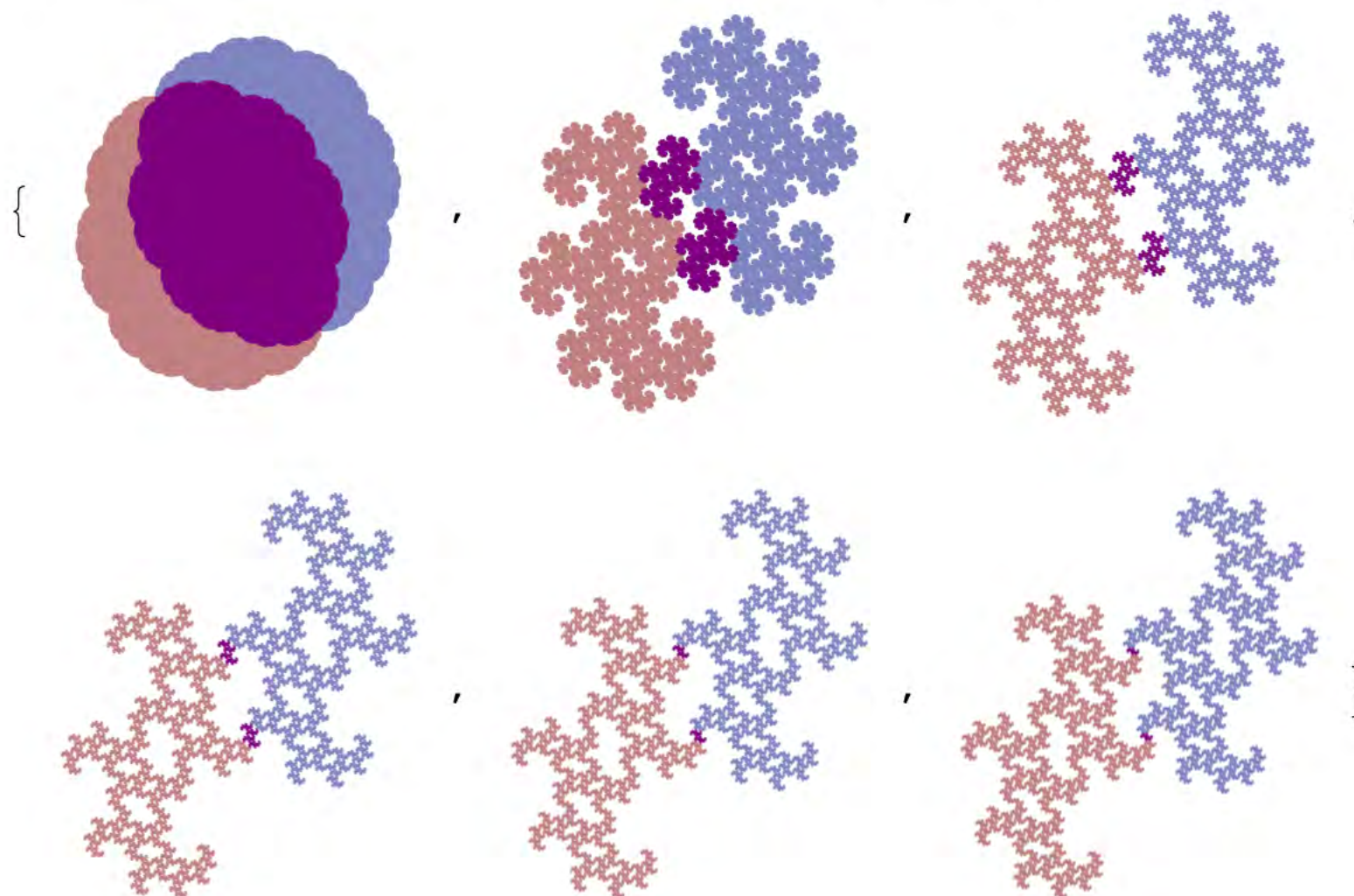


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{aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 &, 3] // N, 500],
aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 + #14 &, 4] // N, 500],
aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 + #14 + #15 &, 5] // N, 500],
aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 + #14 + #15 - #16 &, 6] // N, 500],
aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 + #14 + #15 - #16 - #17 &, 7] // N, 500],
aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 + #14 + #15 - #16 - #17 - #18 &, 8] // N, 500],
aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 + #14 + #15 - #16 - #17 - #18 - #19 &, 9] // N, 500]}
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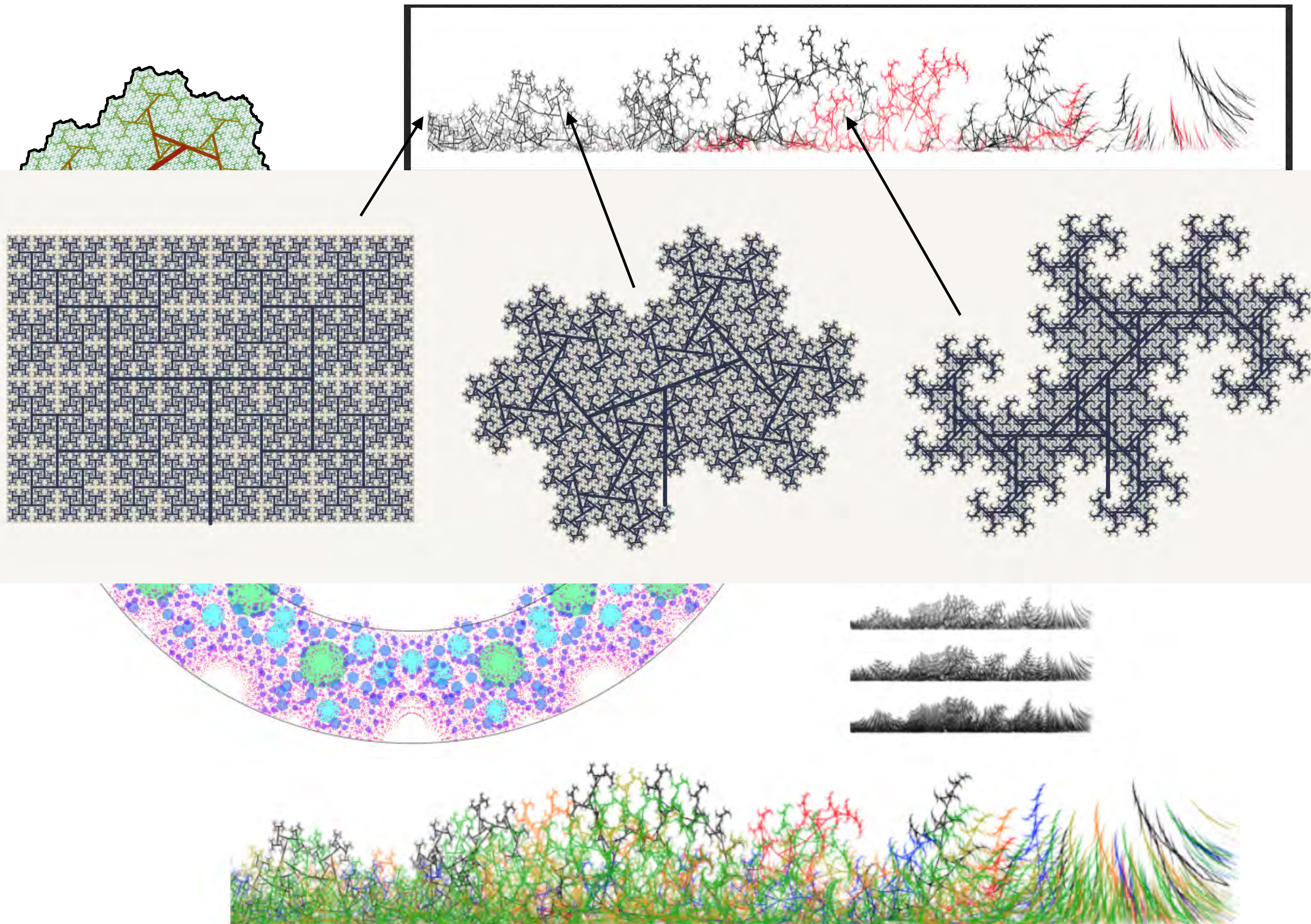




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{aF[Root[1 - #1 + #12 + #13 &, 3] // N, 500],
{aF[Root[1 - #1 + #13 &, 3] // N, 500],
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aF[Root[1 - #1 + #13 + #14 + #15 &, 5] // N, 500],
aF[Root[1 - #1 + #13 + #14 + #15 + #16 &, 6] // N, 500],
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```



Internal structure of M illustrated by complex trees' piece-to-piece connectivity roots. 2018



Internal structure of M illustrated by complex trees' piece-to-piece connectivity roots. 2018

$$p(x) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^m \pm x^k = 1 \pm x \pm x^2 \pm \dots \pm x^m$$

$$1 + x$$

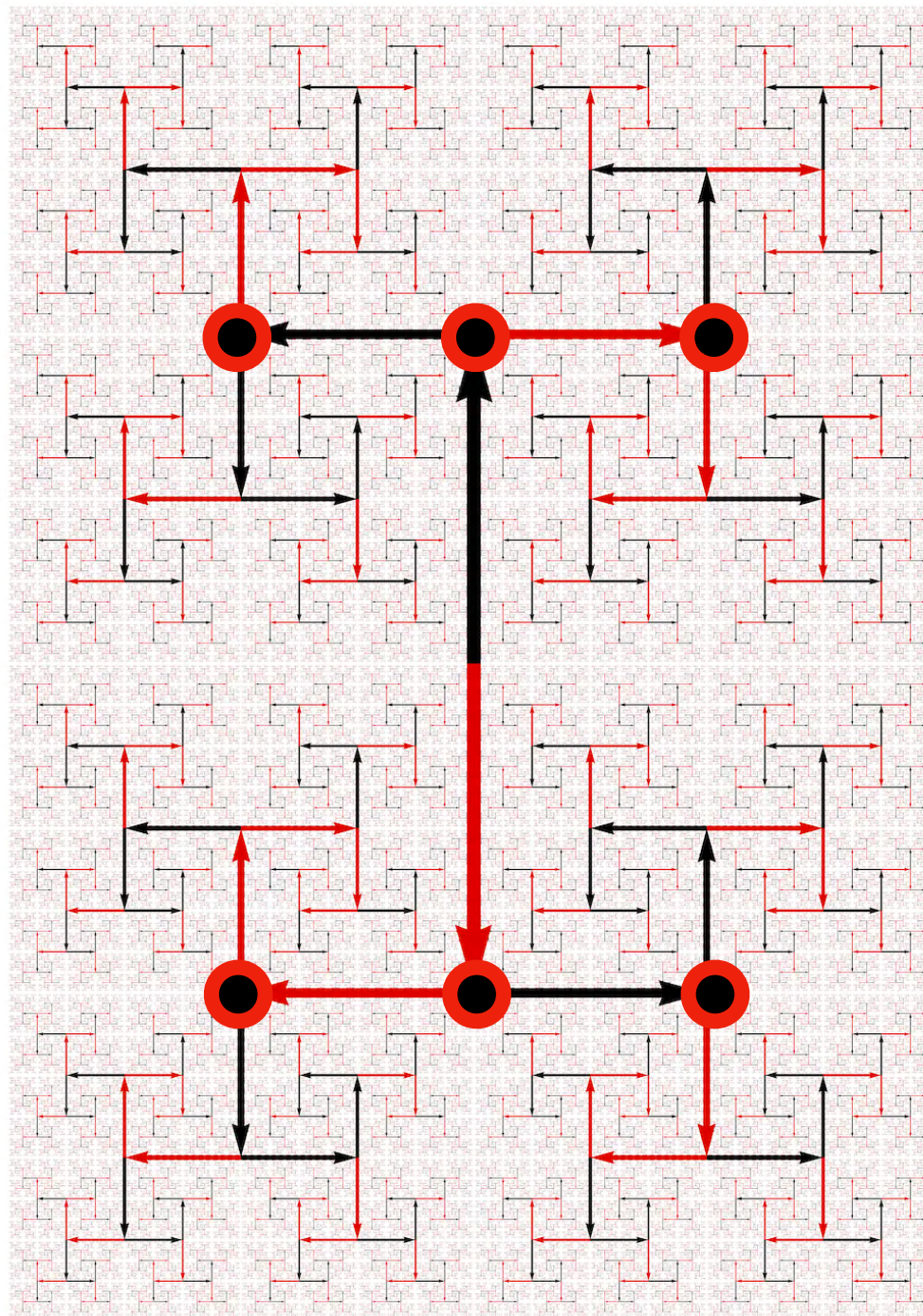
$$1 - x$$

$$1 + x + x^2$$

$$1 + x - x^2$$

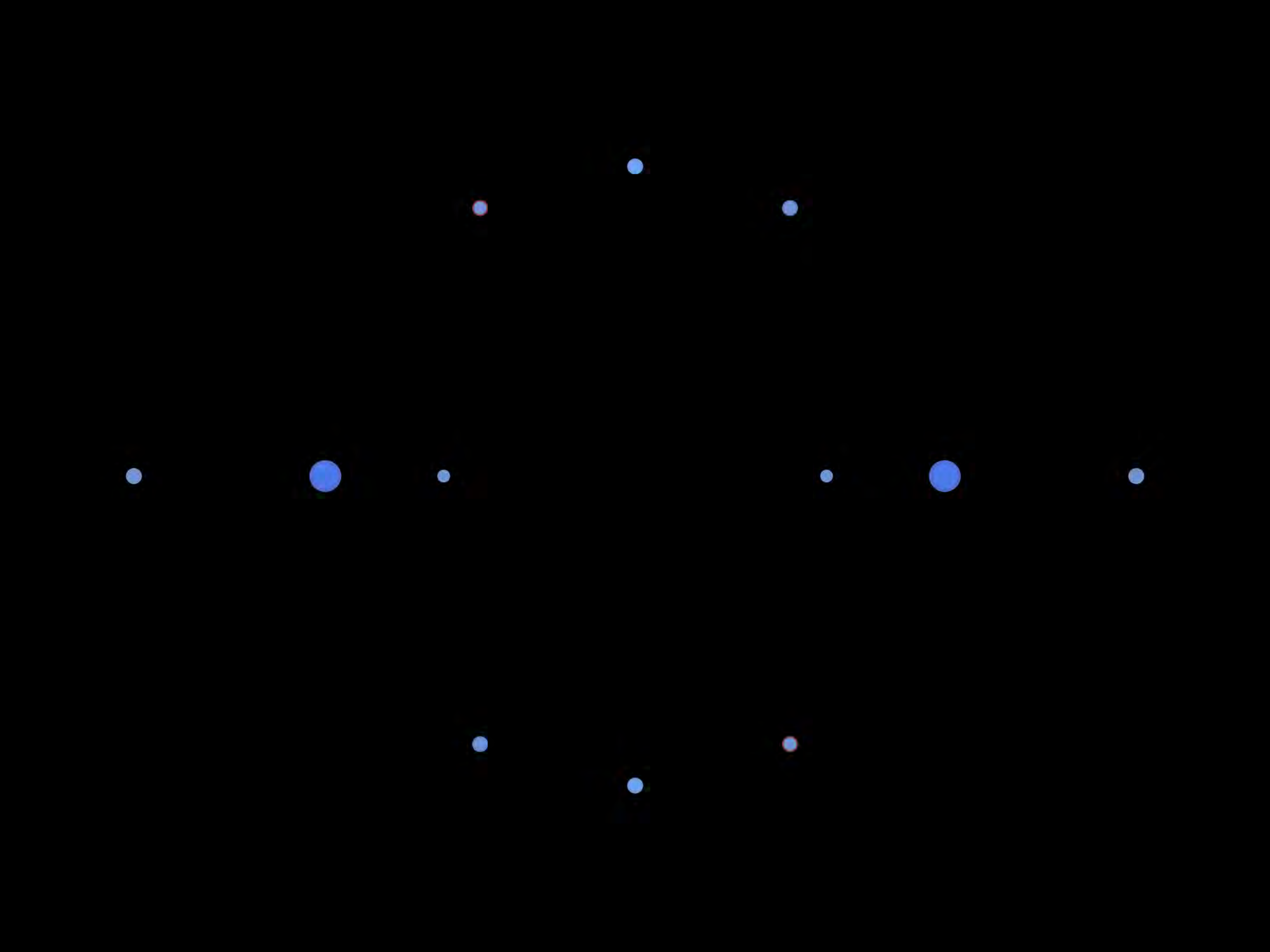
$$1 - x + x^2$$

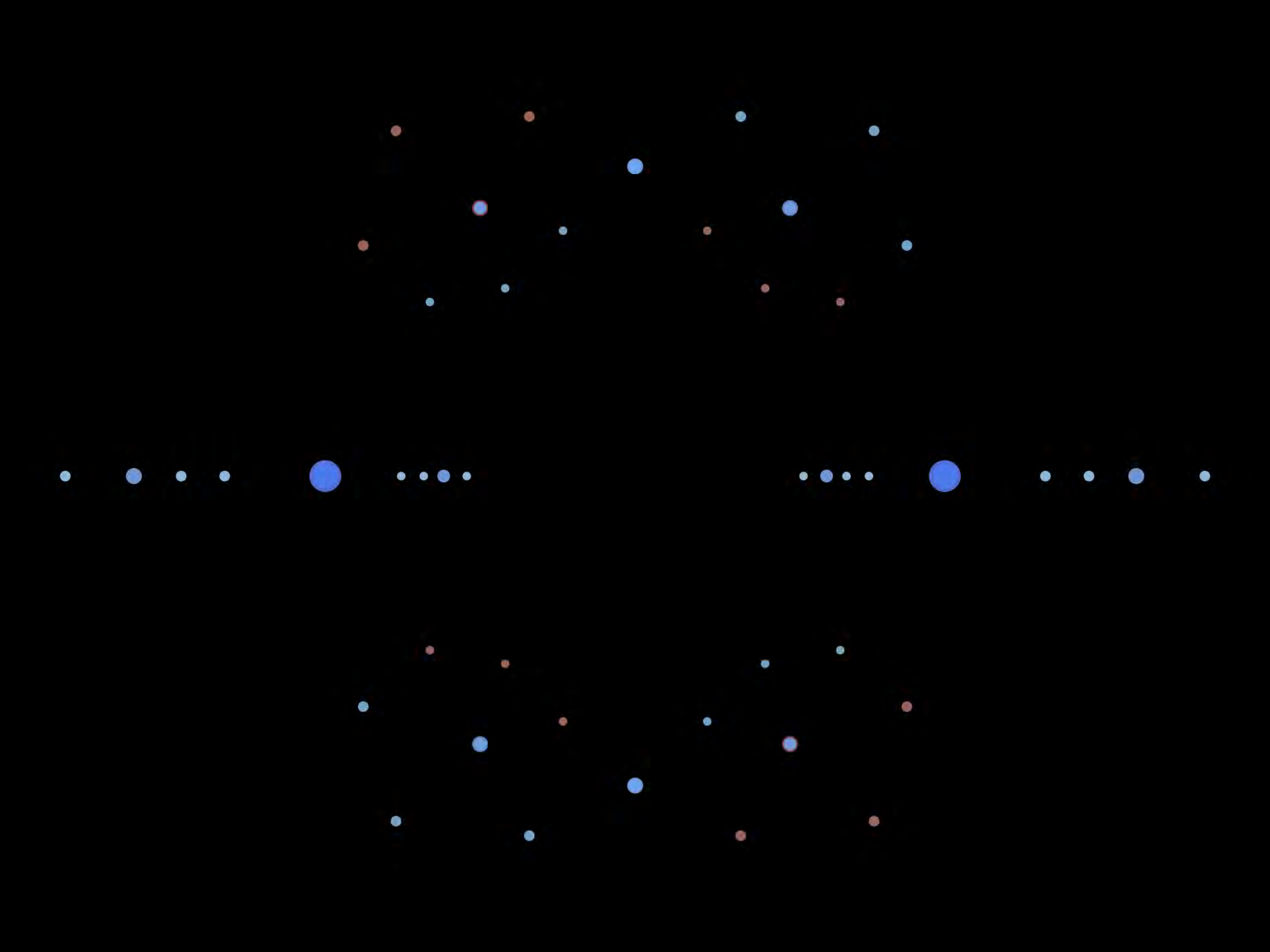
$$1 - x - x^2$$

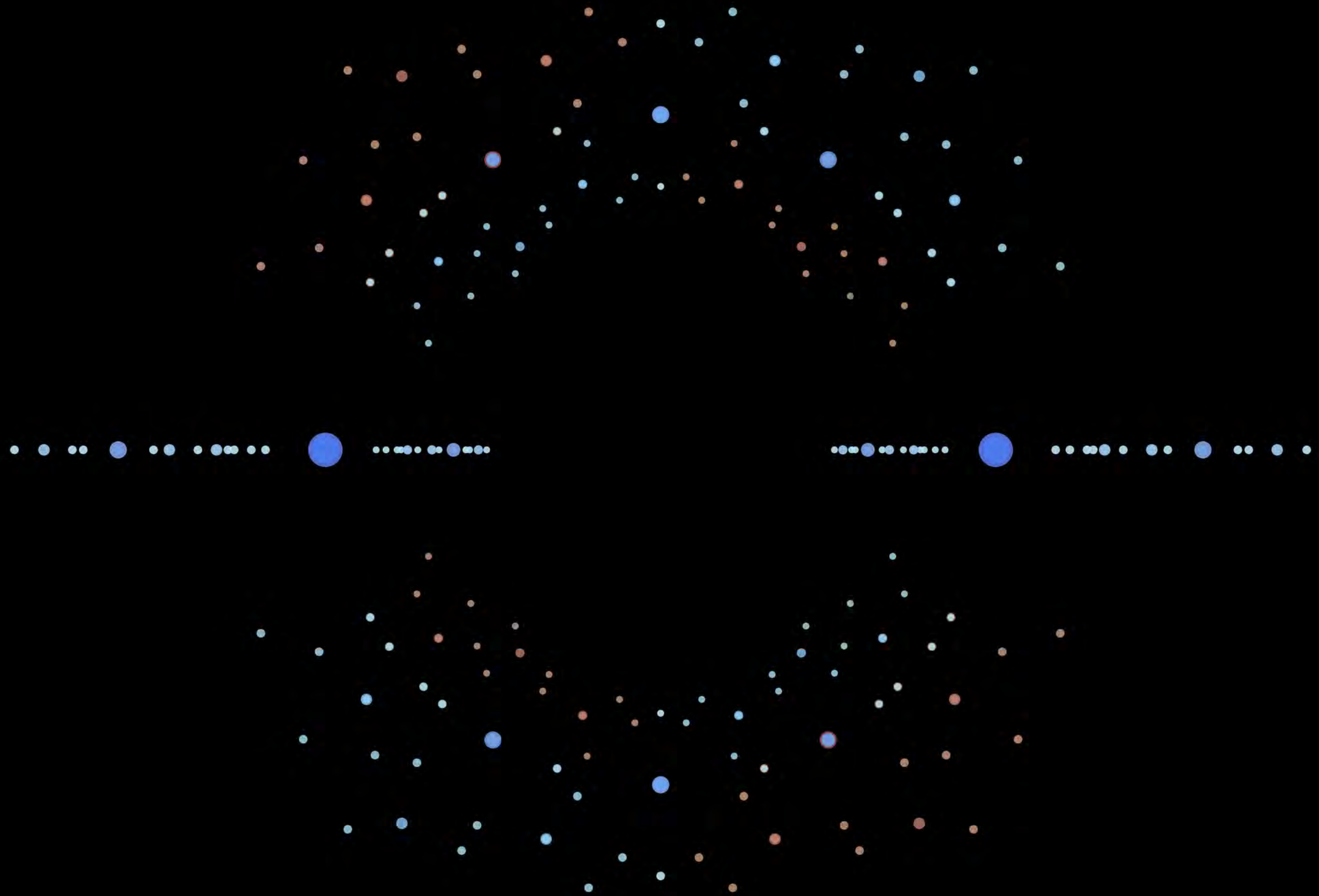


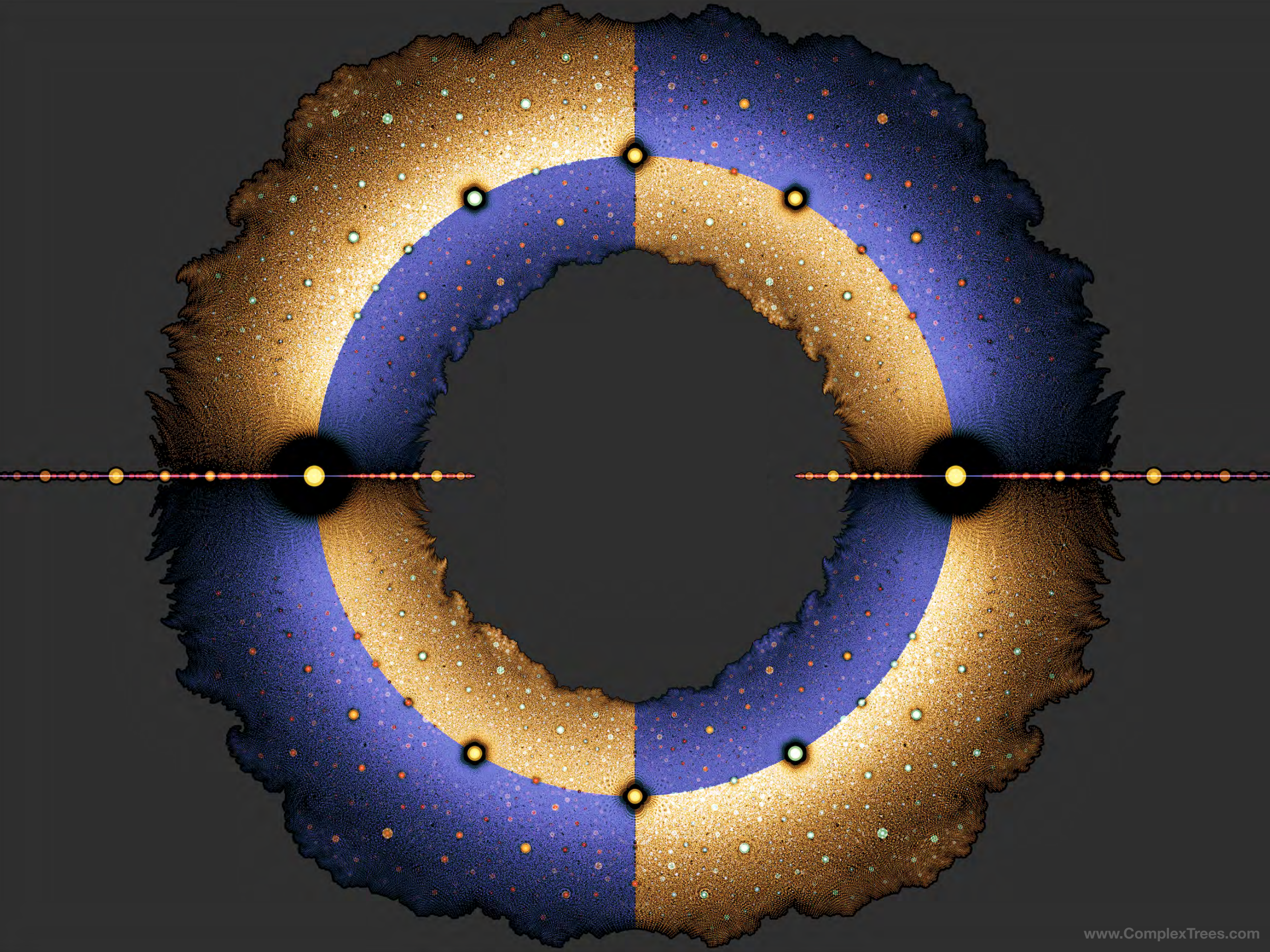
$$x = i/\sqrt{2}$$

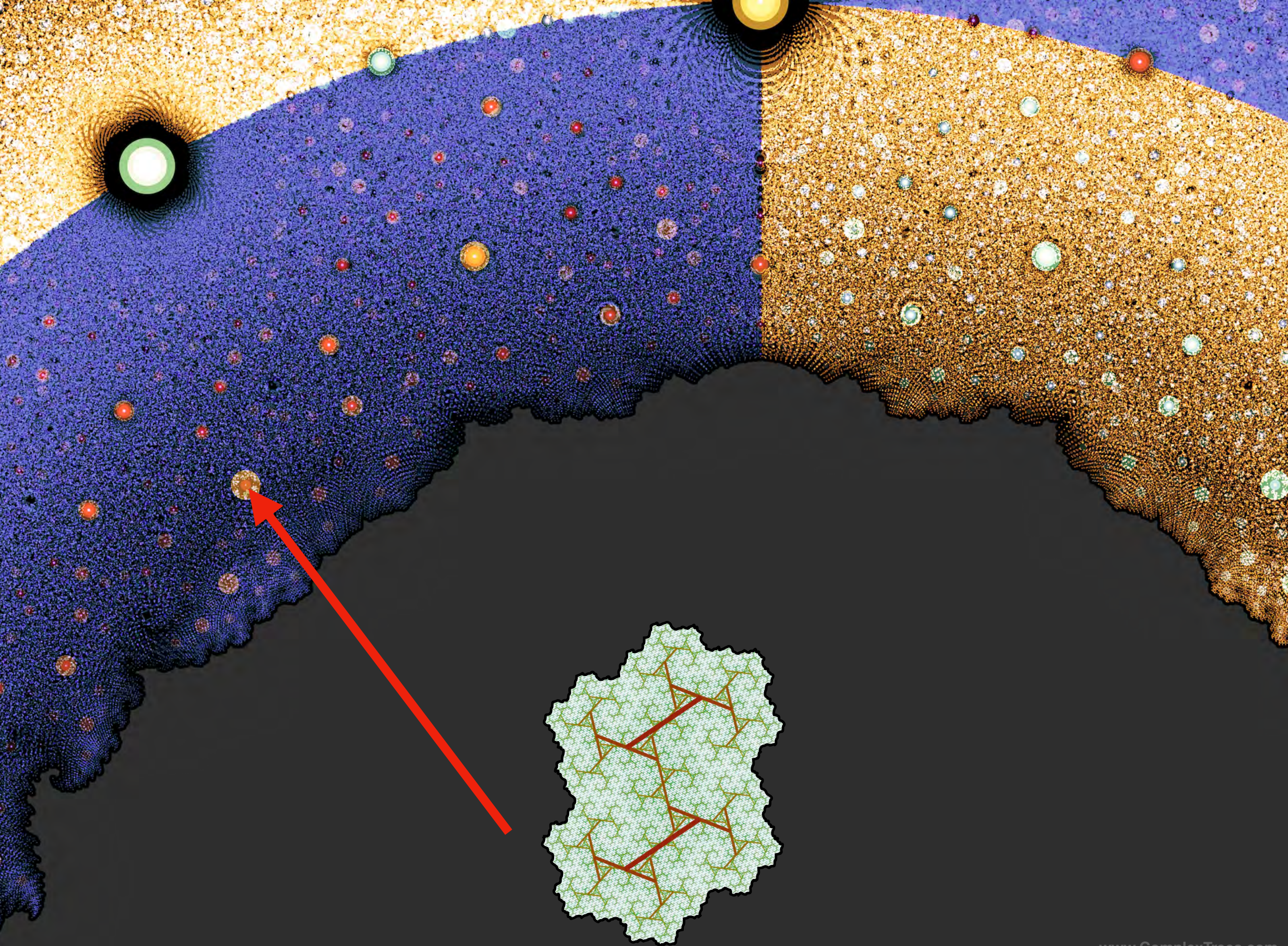


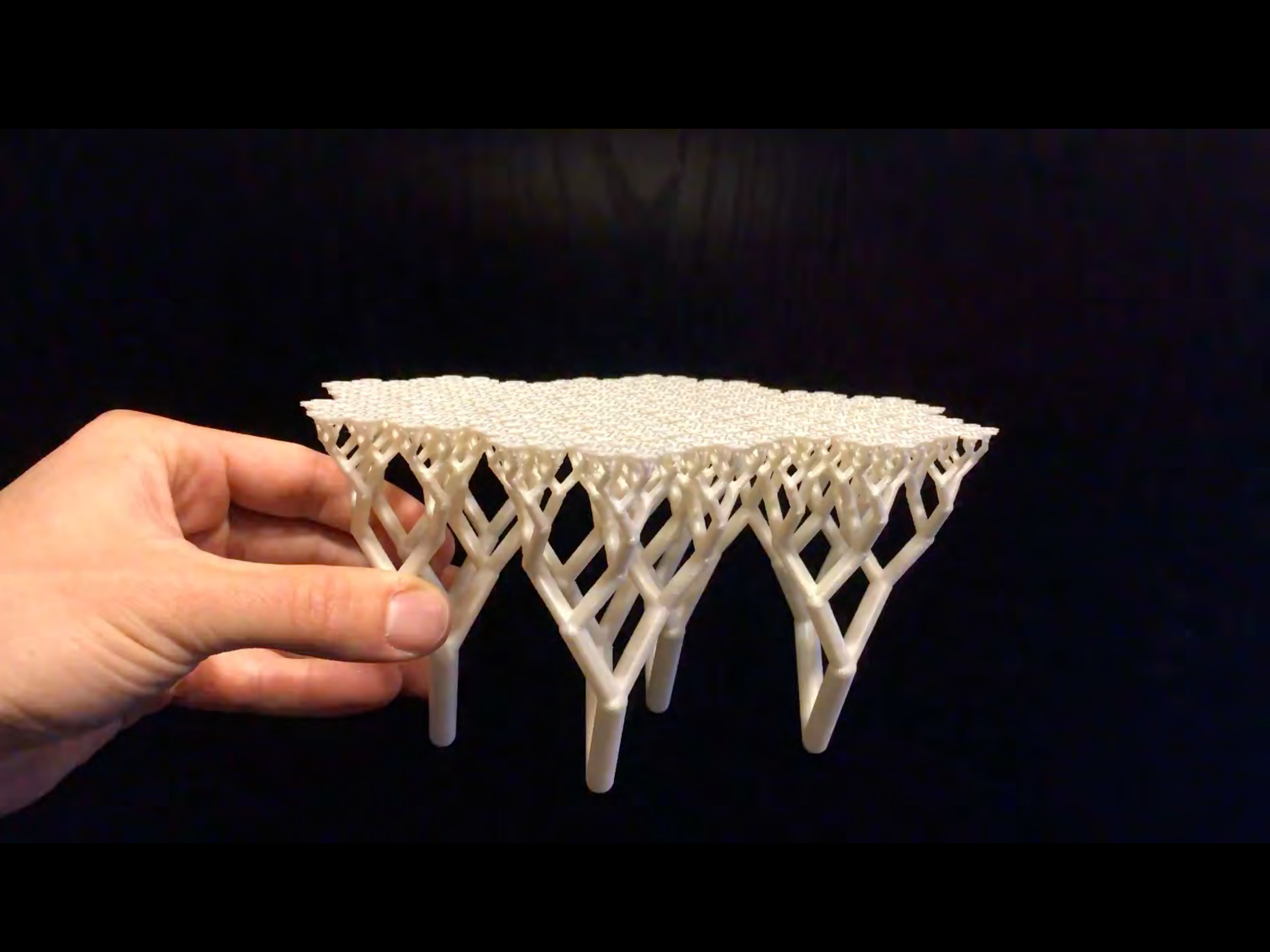












Definition (collinear digit set)

Set of $n \geq 2$ integers evenly spaced from $-n + 1$ to $n - 1$,

$$\mathcal{A}_n := \{-n + 1, -n + 3, \dots, n - 3, n - 1\}.$$

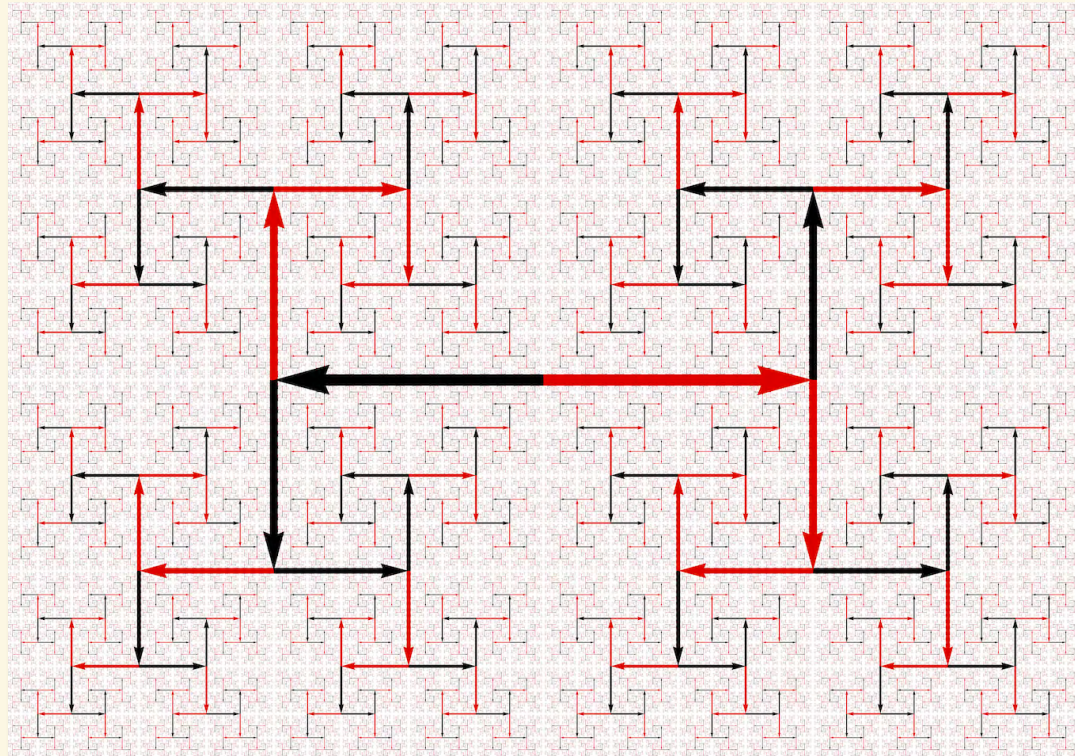
Definition (collinear fractal)

Self-similar set parameterized by $c^{-1} \in \mathbb{D}^*$,

$$\mathbf{E}(c, n) := \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k c^{-k} : a_k \in \mathcal{A}_n \right\}.$$

$$p^+(c) = +1 \pm c^{-1} \pm c^{-2} \pm \dots \pm c^{-m}$$

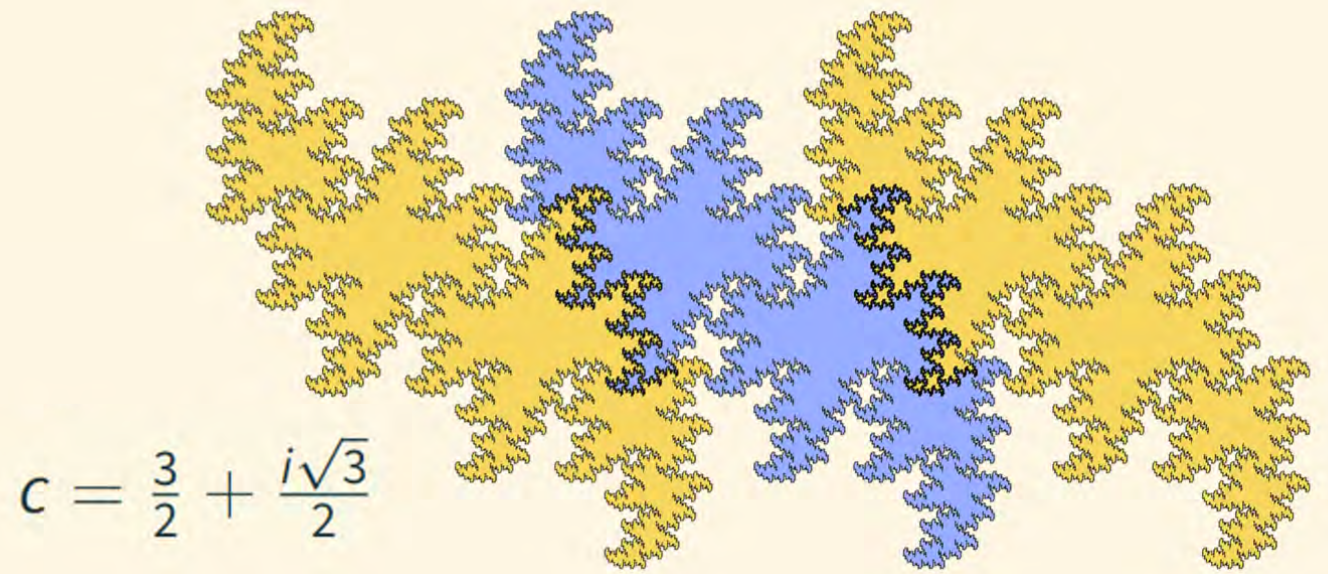
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$$c = \frac{3}{2} + \frac{i\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

Example ($n = 3$)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}(c, 3) &:= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k c^{-k} : a_k \in \{-2, 0, 2\} \right\} \\ &= \left(\frac{\mathbf{E}(c, 3)}{c} - 2 \right) \cup \left(\frac{\mathbf{E}(c, 3)}{c} \right) \cup \left(\frac{\mathbf{E}(c, 3)}{c} + 2 \right). \end{aligned}$$

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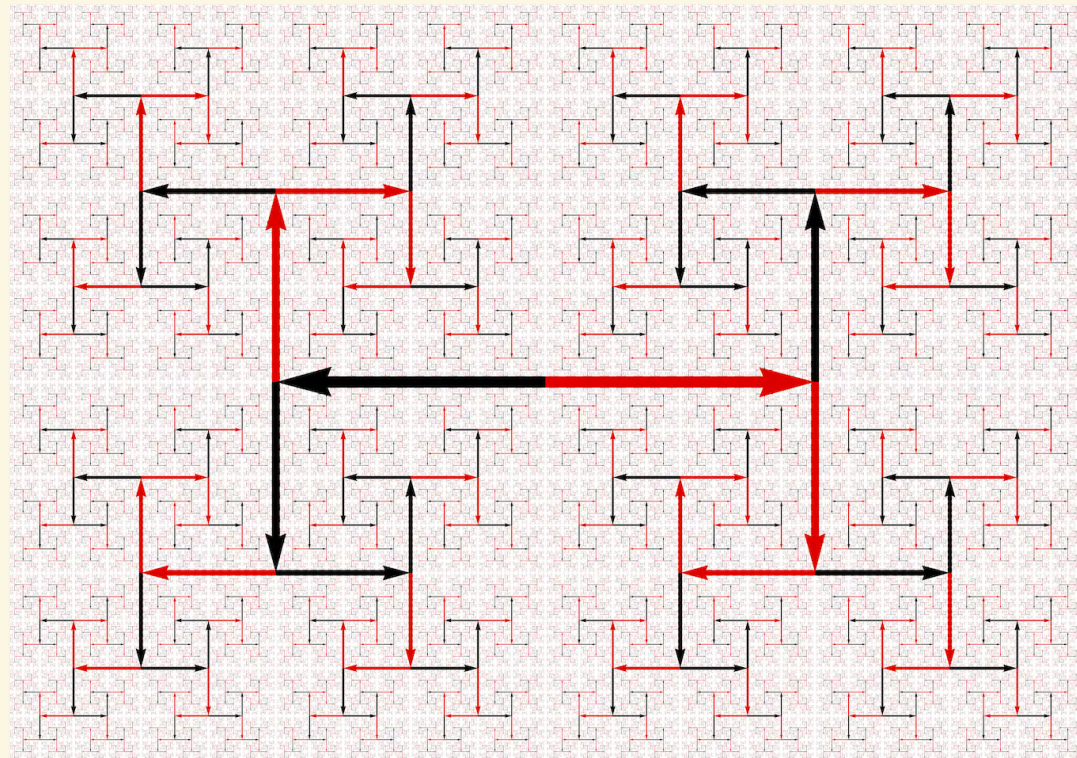
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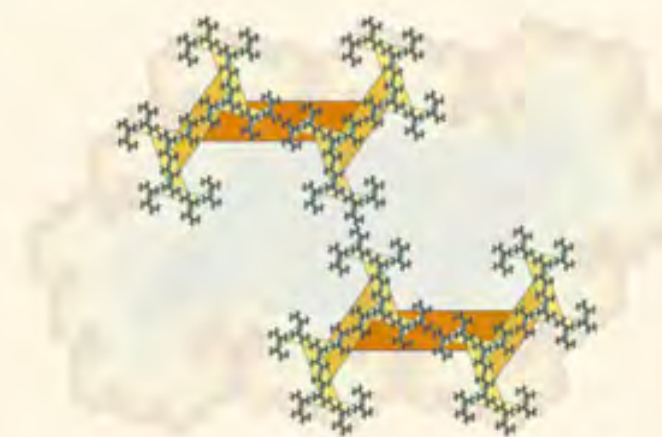
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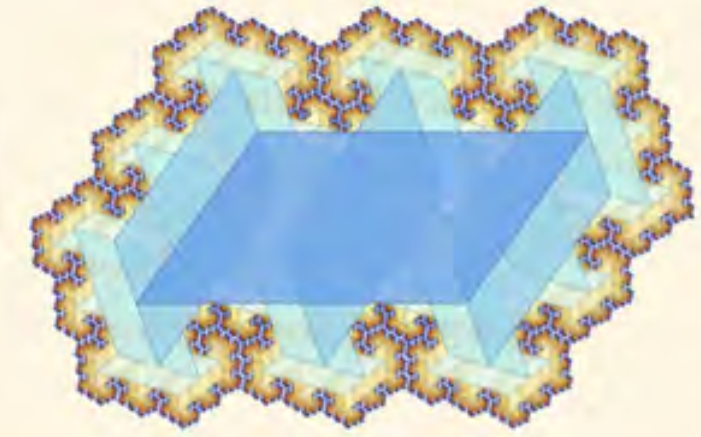
The Minkowski sum and geometric difference

$$\mathbf{E}(c, 2n - 1) = \mathbf{E}(c, n) \oplus \mathbf{E}(c, n)$$

$$= \mathbf{E}(c, n) \ominus \mathbf{E}(c, n)$$



$$\mathbf{E}(c, n) \oplus \mathbf{E}(c, n)$$



$$\mathbf{E}(c, 2n - 1)$$

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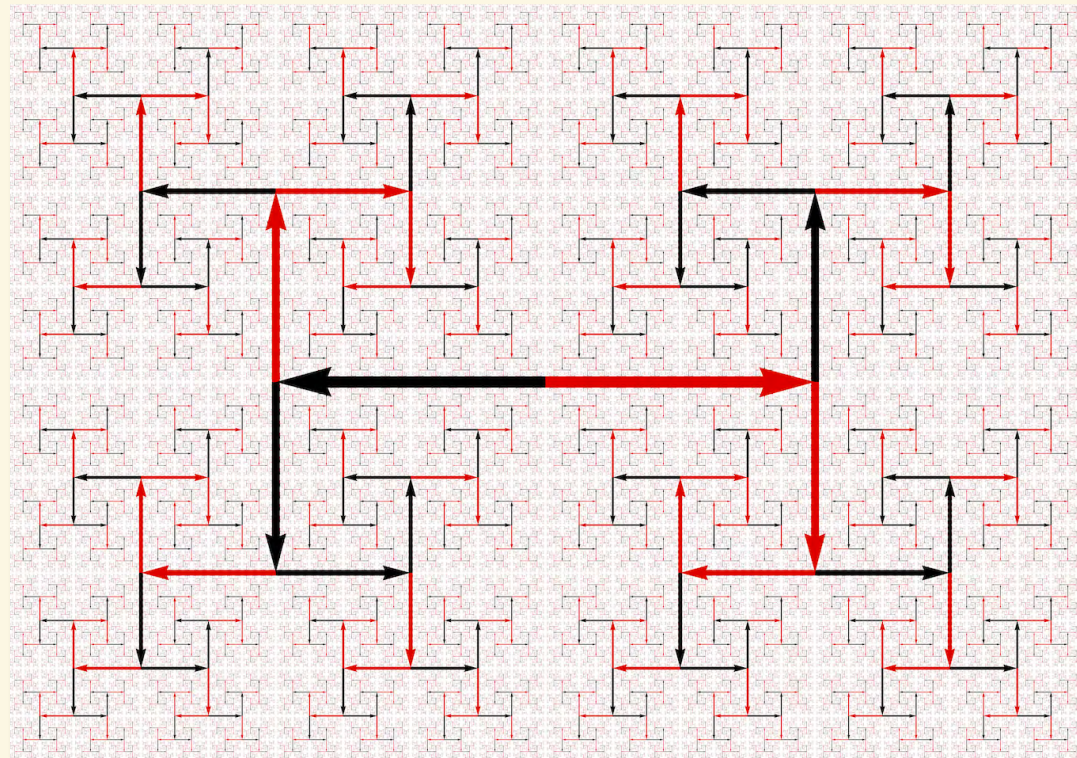
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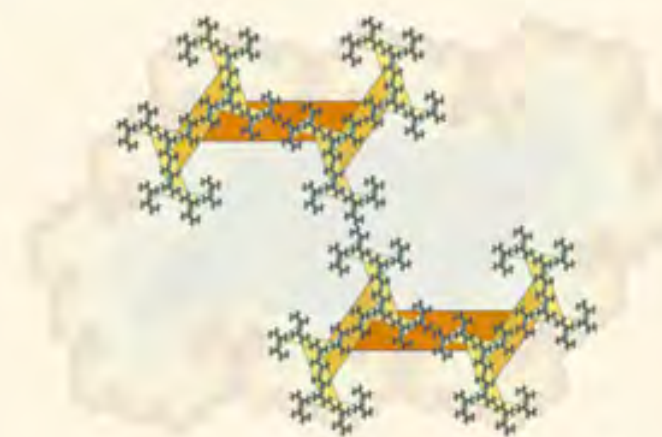
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$$\mathcal{M}_n = \left\{ c^{-1} \in \mathbb{D}^* : 2c \in \mathbf{E}(c, 2n - 1) \right\}$$

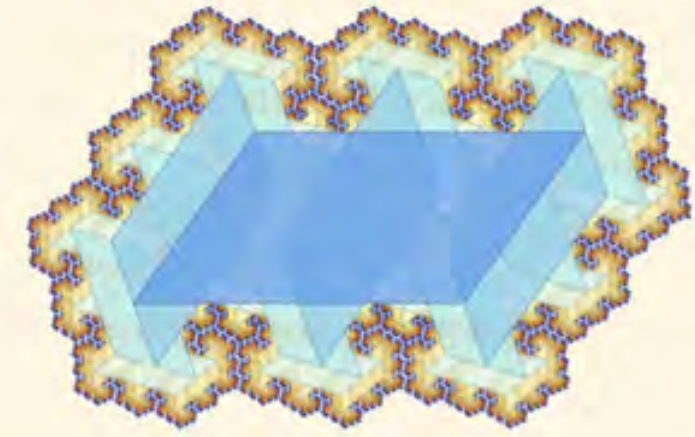
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$$\mathbf{E}(c, n) \oplus \mathbf{E}(c, n)$$

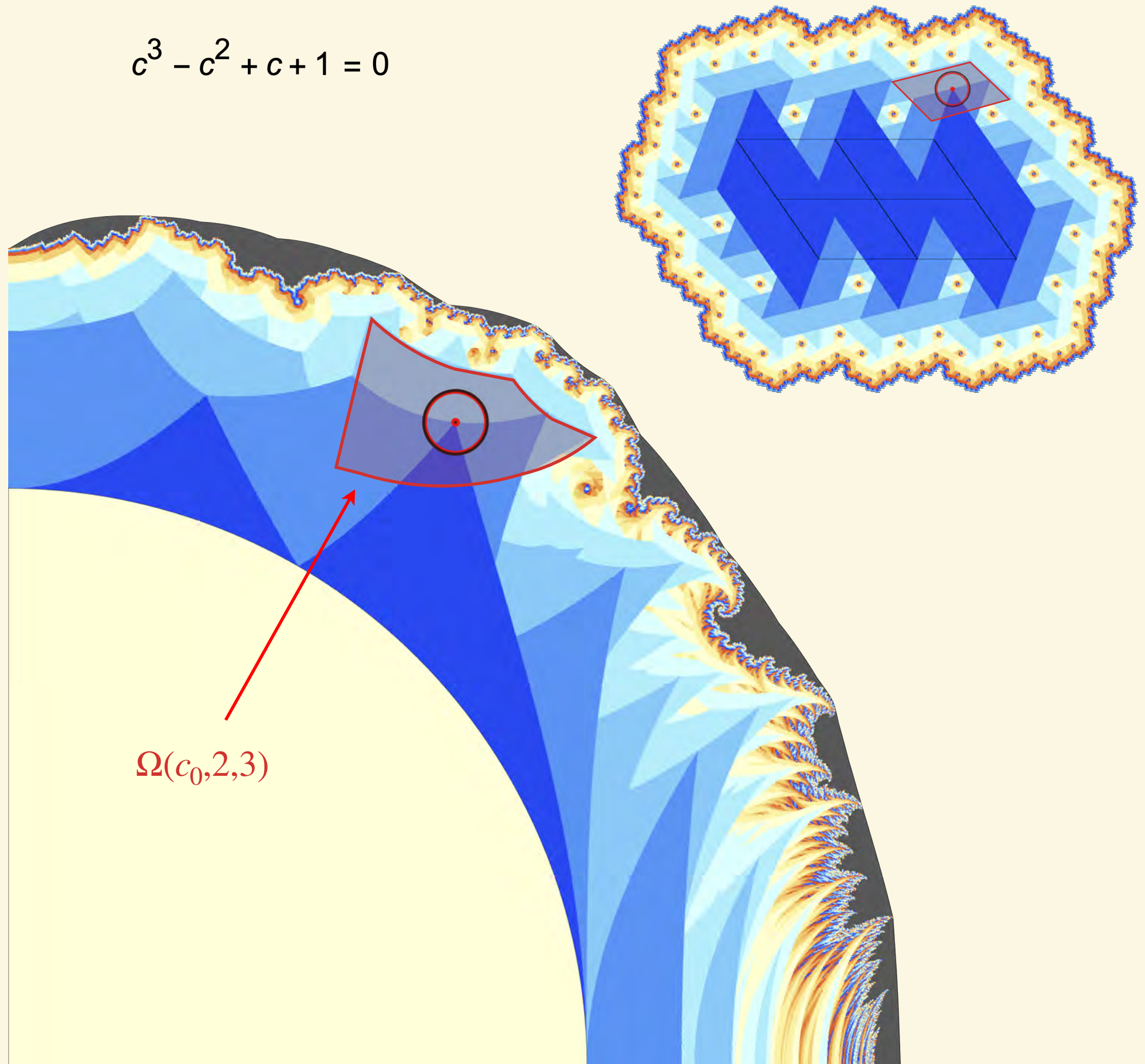


$$\mathbf{E}(c, 2n - 1)$$

$$c_0 = 0.7718 + i 1.1151$$

$$2c_0 \in E(c, 2n - 1)$$

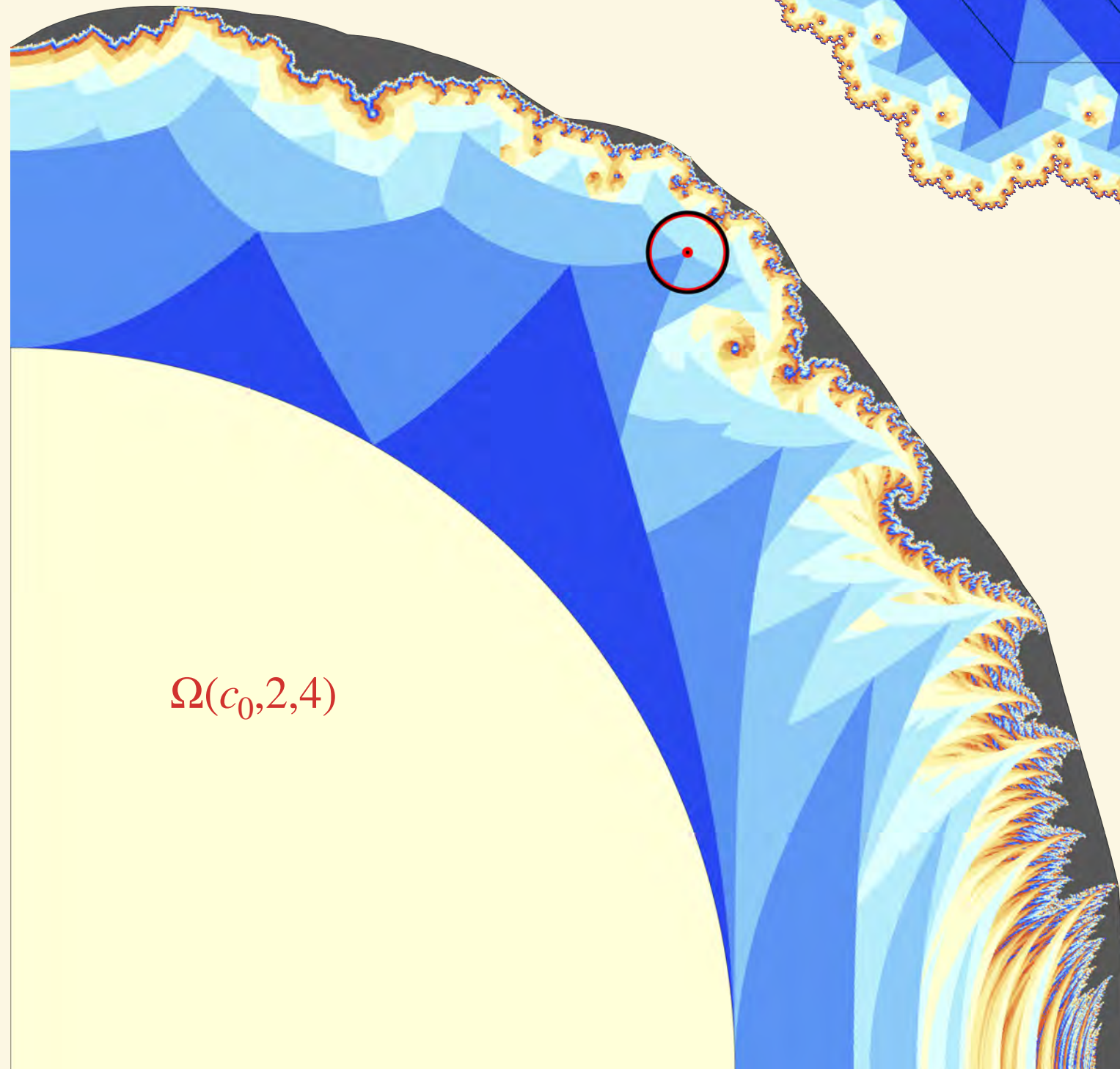
$$c^3 - c^2 + c + 1 = 0$$



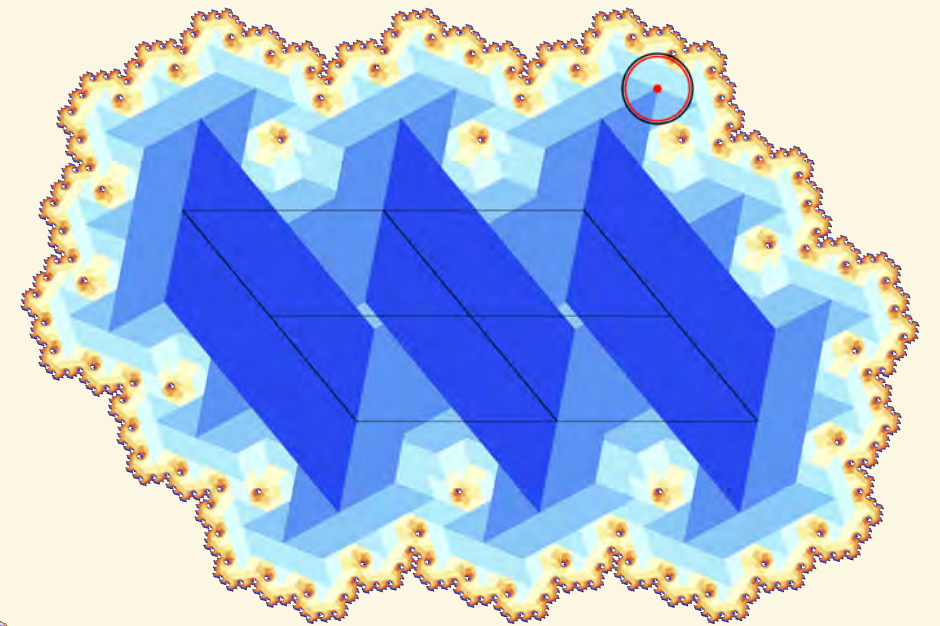
$$c_0 = 0.9334 + i 1.1325$$

$$2c_0 \in E(c, 2n - 1)$$

$$c^4 - c^3 + c^2 + c + 1 = 0$$



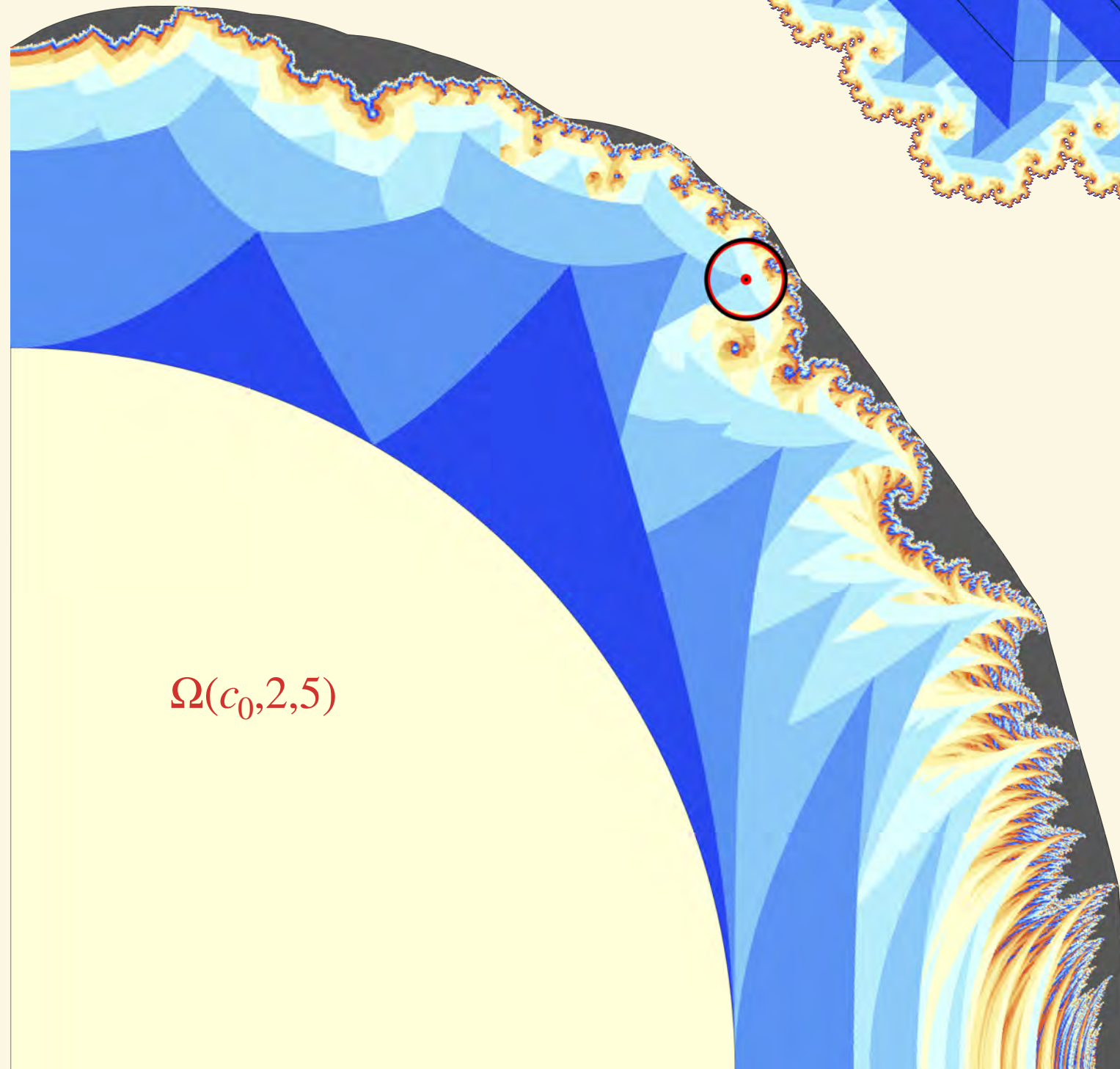
$$\Omega(c_0, 2, 4)$$



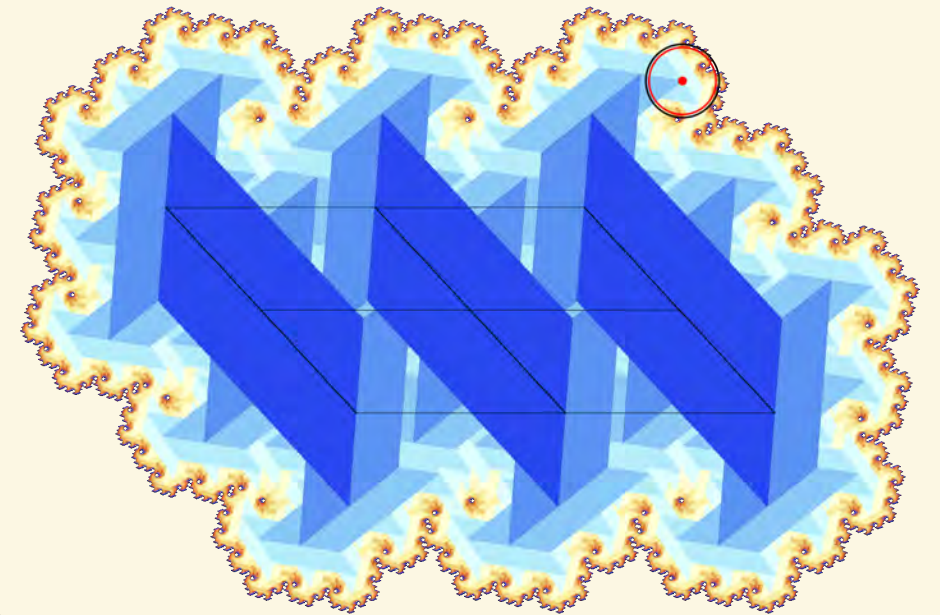
$$c_0 = 1.0141 + i 1.0951$$

$$2c_0 \in E(c, 2n - 1)$$

$$c^5 - c^4 + c^3 + c^2 + c + 1 = 0$$



$$\Omega(c_0, 2, 5)$$

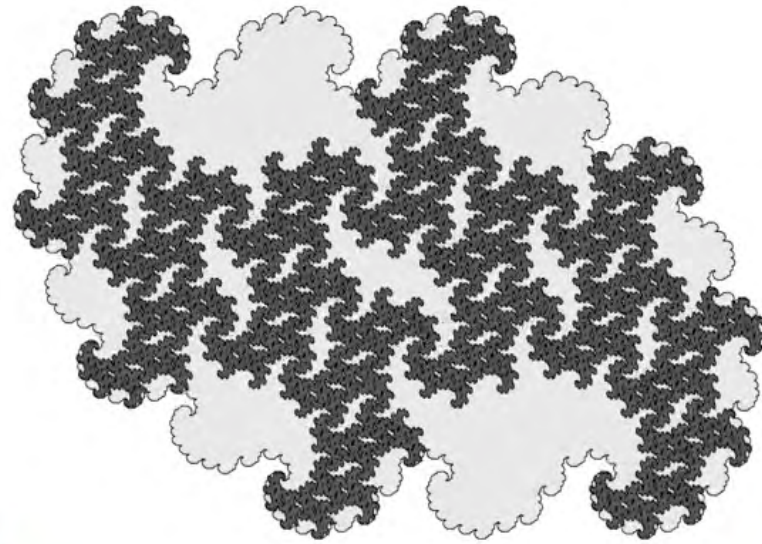


Animation: youtu.be/11NZDHNahJs

$$c = 1.2345 + i 0.7935$$

$$\text{Arg}(c) = 0.5713 = 32.73^\circ$$

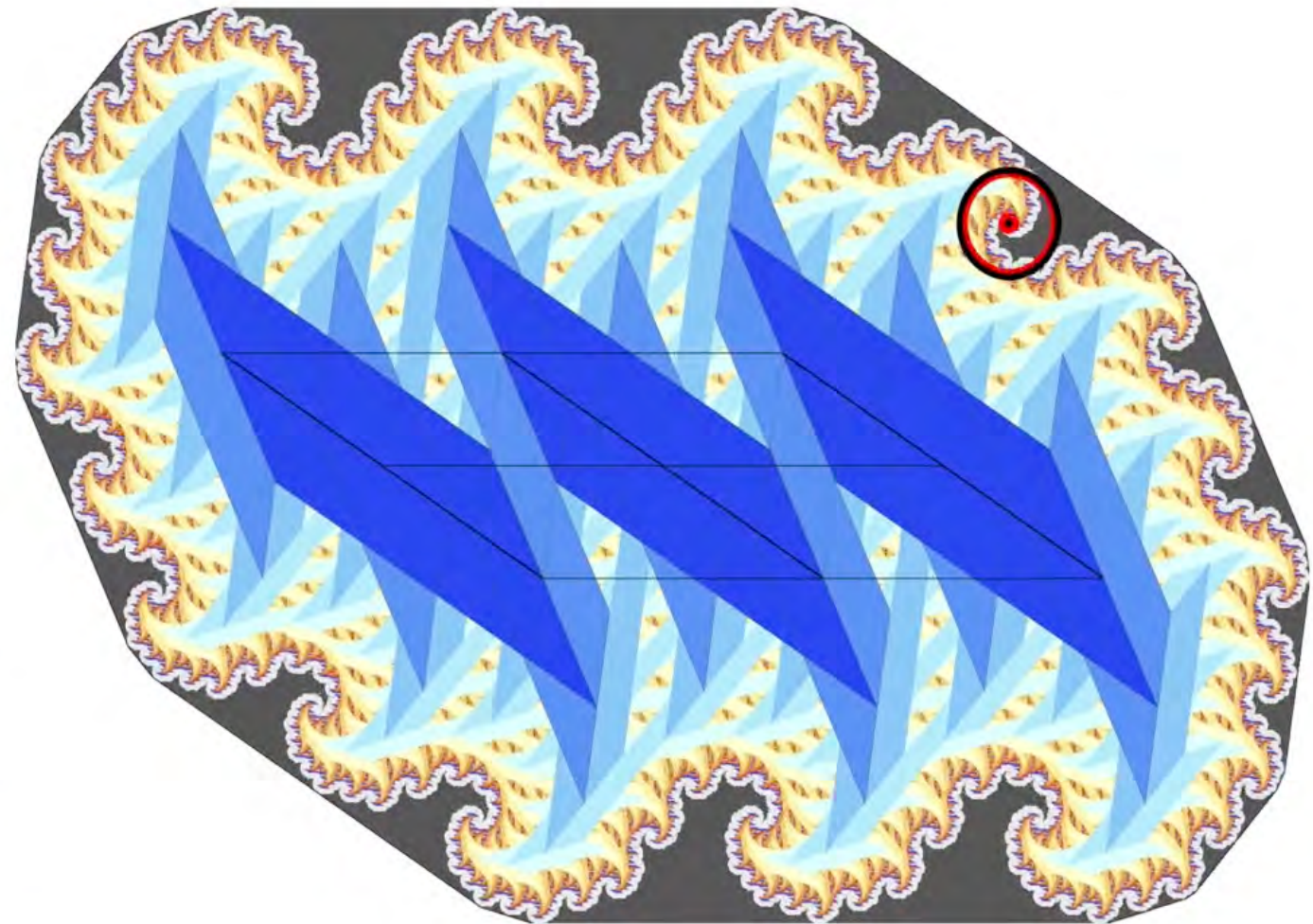
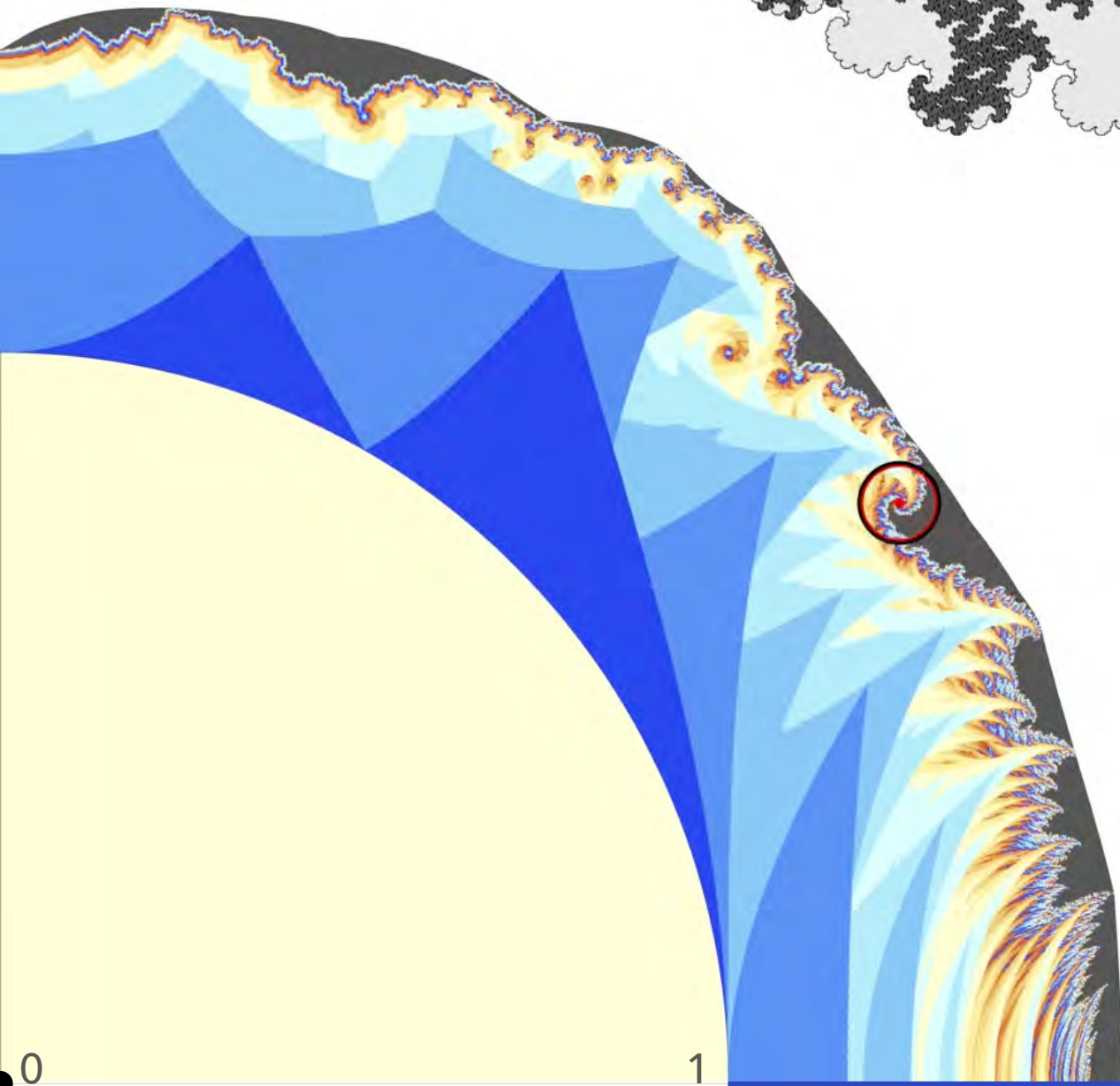
$$r = |c^{-1}| = 0.6814$$



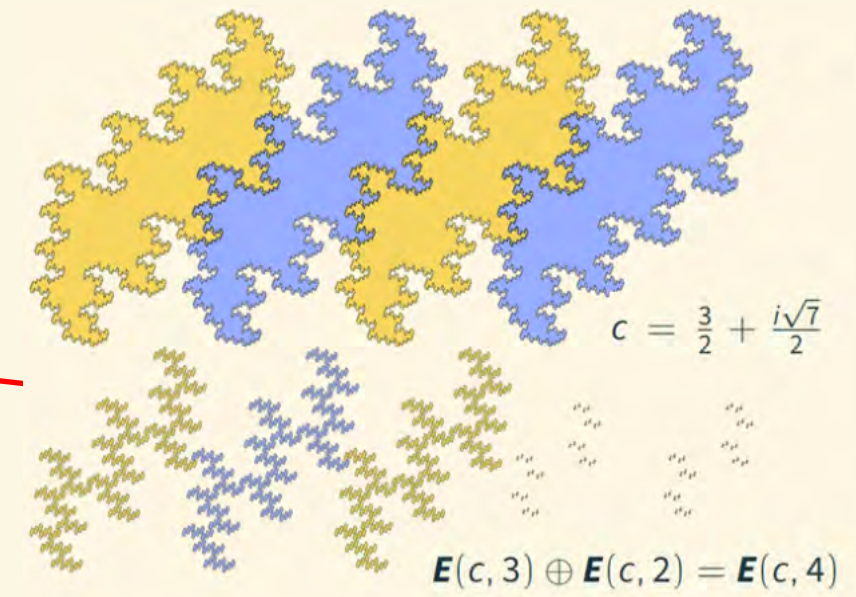
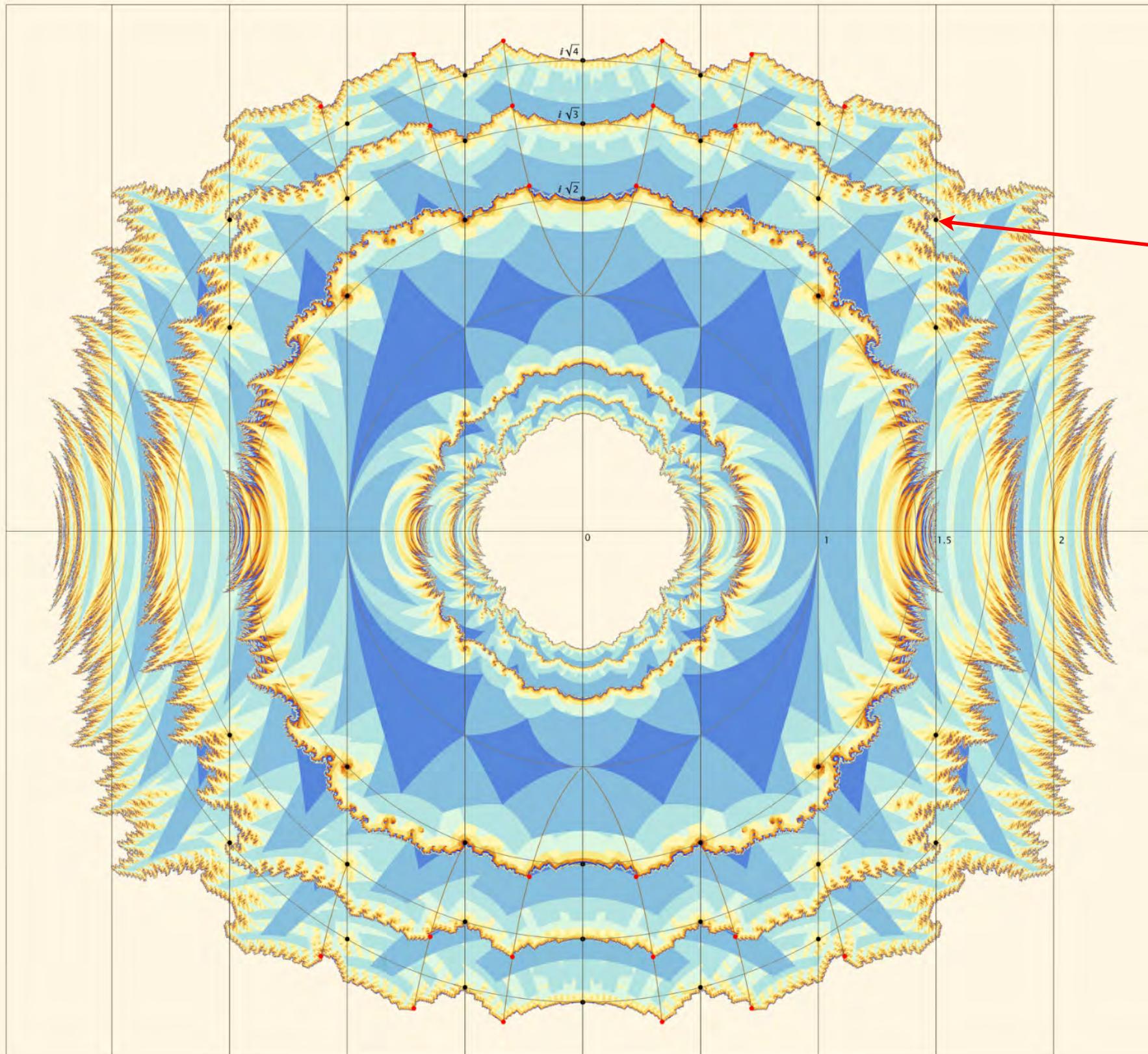
$$\dim_H E(c, 2) = \frac{\log 2}{\log |c|} \approx 1.8071$$

“Asymptotic self-similarity”

$$2c \in E(c, 3)$$



$$E(c, n+1) = E(c, n) \oplus E(c, 2)$$

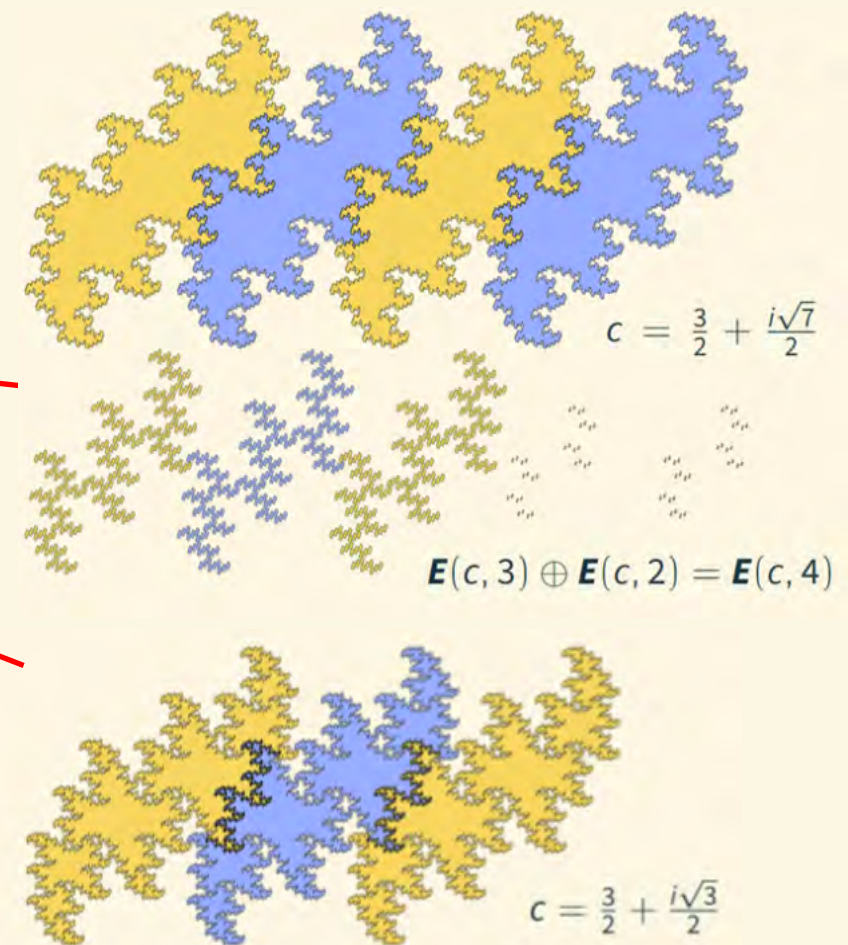
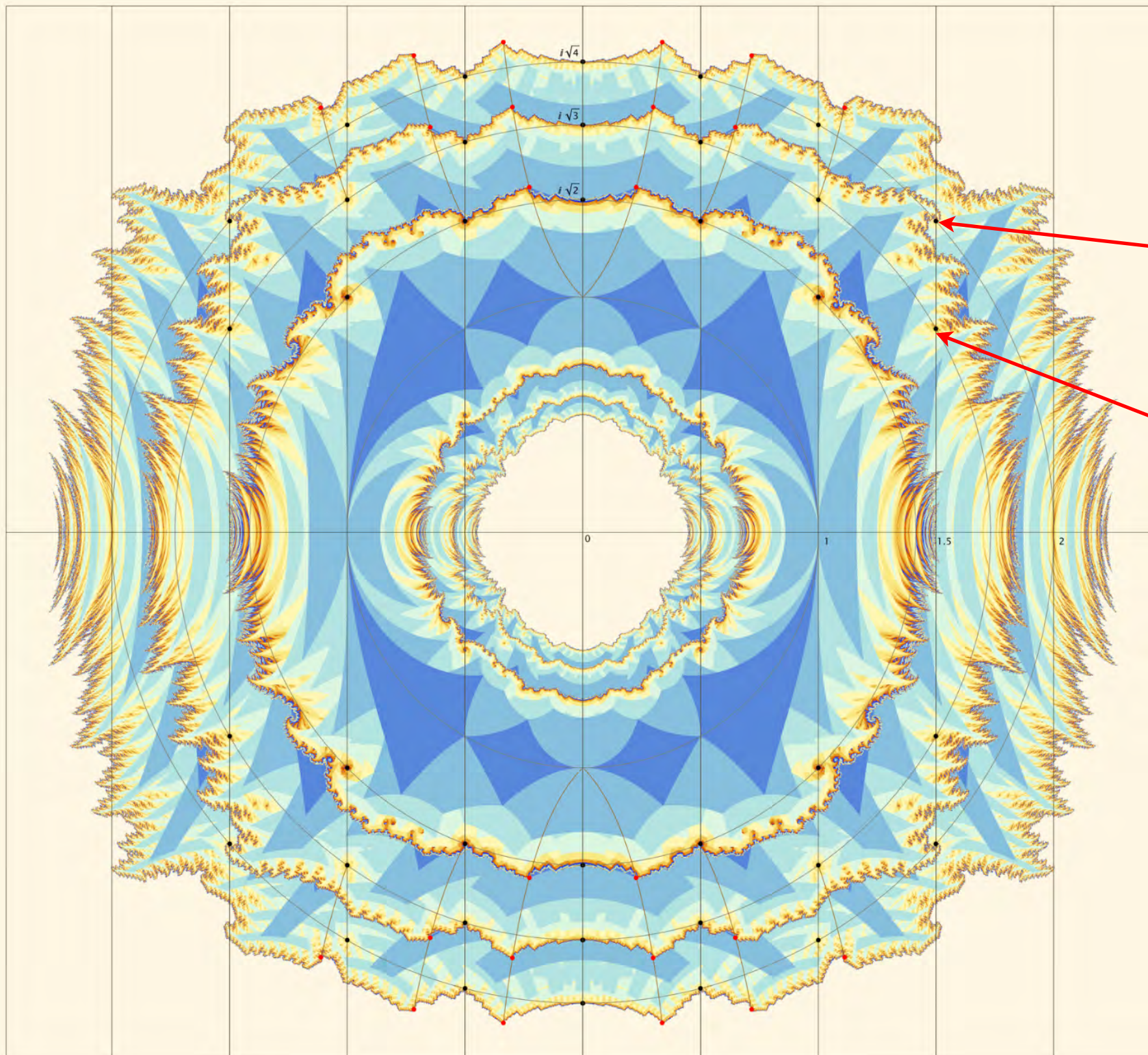


$$\mathcal{M}_n \subset \mathcal{M}_{n+1}$$

Proposition (nested components)

$$\Omega(c_0, n, m) \subset \Omega(c_0, n+1, m)$$

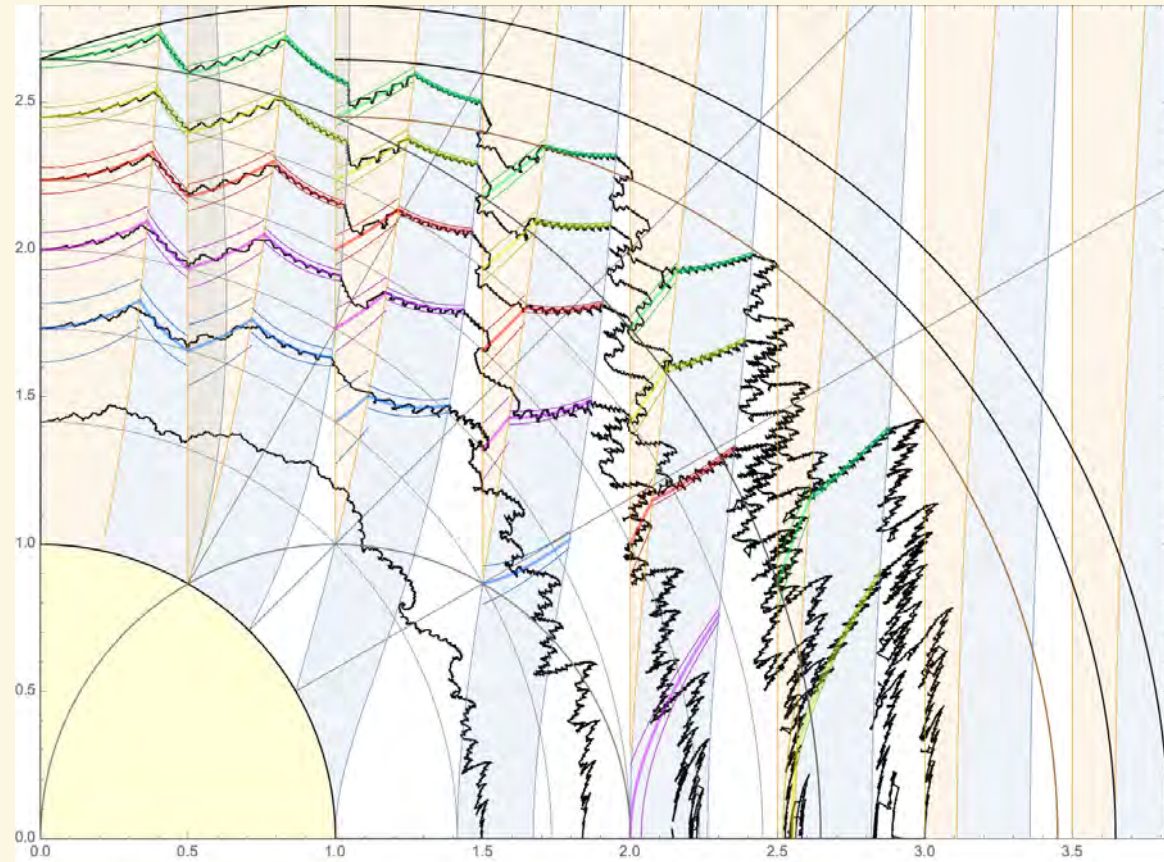
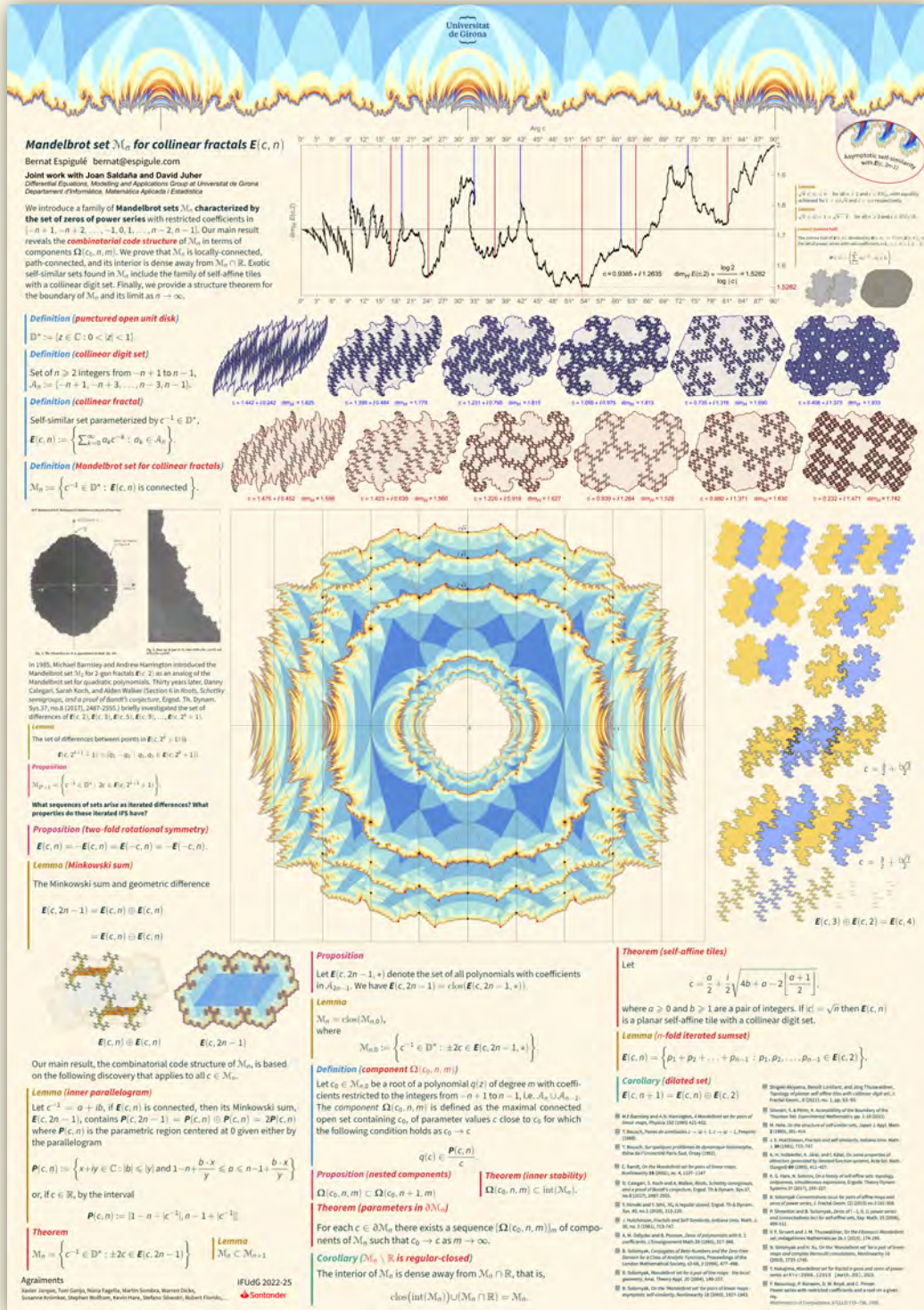
$a=3$



Let

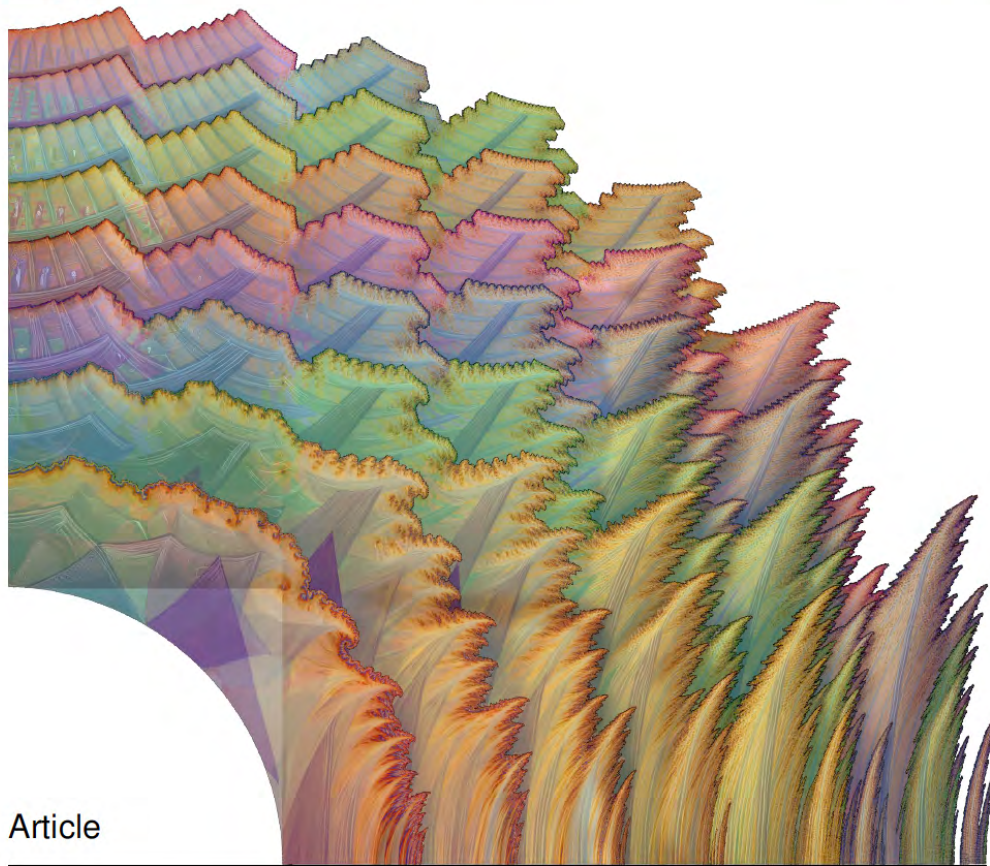
$$c = \frac{a}{2} + \frac{i}{2} \sqrt{4b + a - 2 \left\lfloor \frac{a+1}{2} \right\rfloor},$$

where $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 1$ are a pair of integers. If $|c| = \sqrt{n}$ then $E(c, n)$ is a planar self-affine tile with a collinear digit set.



Our main contributions: combinatorial code structure, inner stability, components for any $n > 1$, collinear tiles, structure theorem for the boundary of $\mathcal{M}_n$

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Article

Collinear Fractals and Bandt's Conjecture

Bernat Espigule, David Juher and Joan Saldaña



<https://doi.org/10.3390/fractalfract8120725>

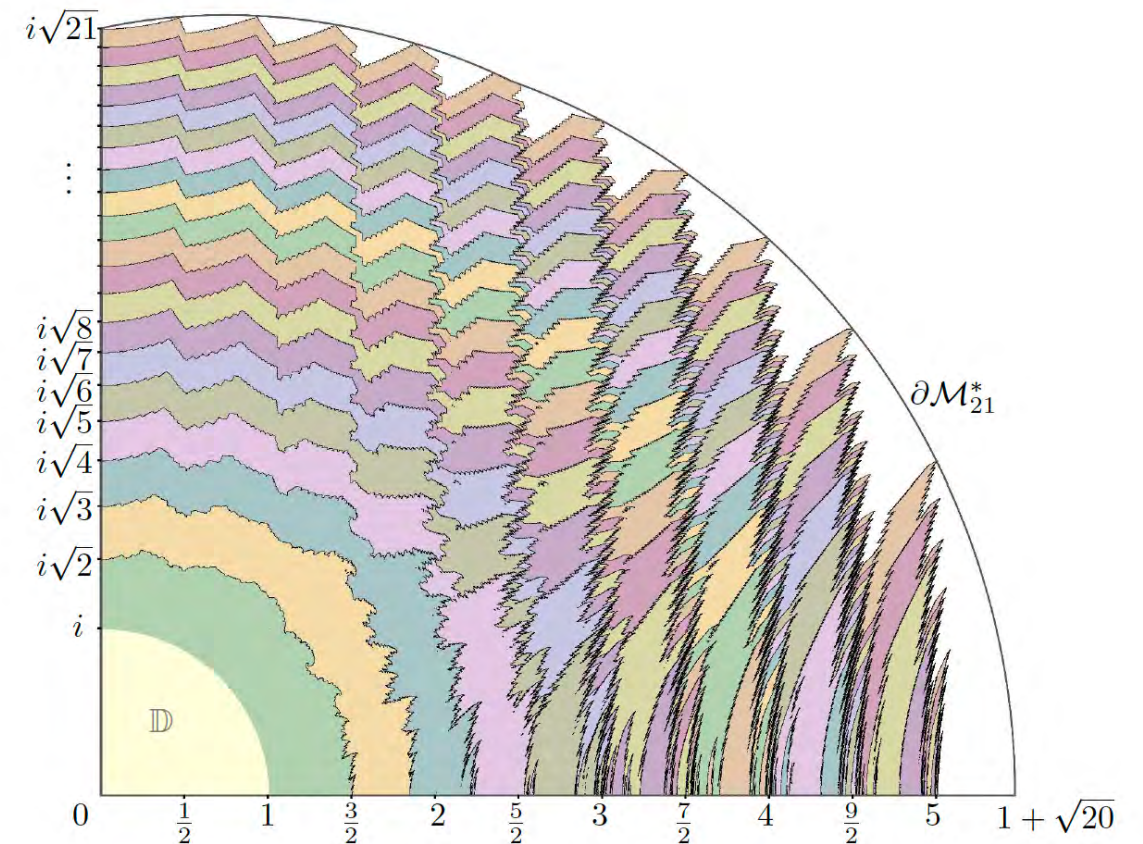


Figure 3. Superimposed arrangement of $\mathcal{M}_2, \mathcal{M}_3, \dots, \mathcal{M}_{21}$ constrained within the upper-right section of the complex plane. From Proposition 3, we know that the connectedness loci are nested. The illustration suggests the existence of infinitely many holes, and that for $n \geq 4$, the intersection $\partial\mathcal{M}_n \cap \partial\mathcal{M}_{n+1} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ is nonempty.

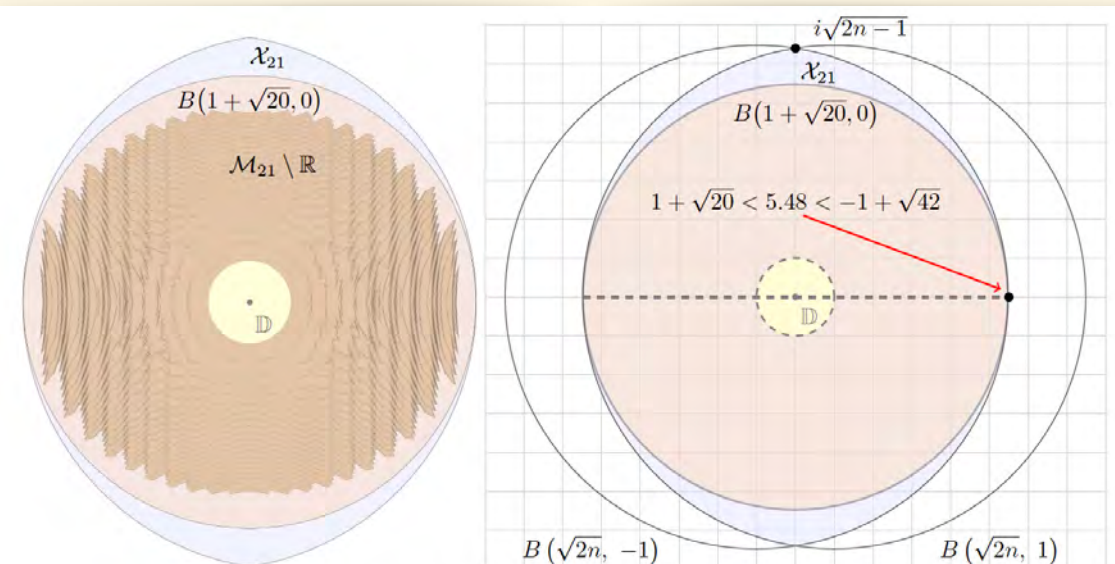
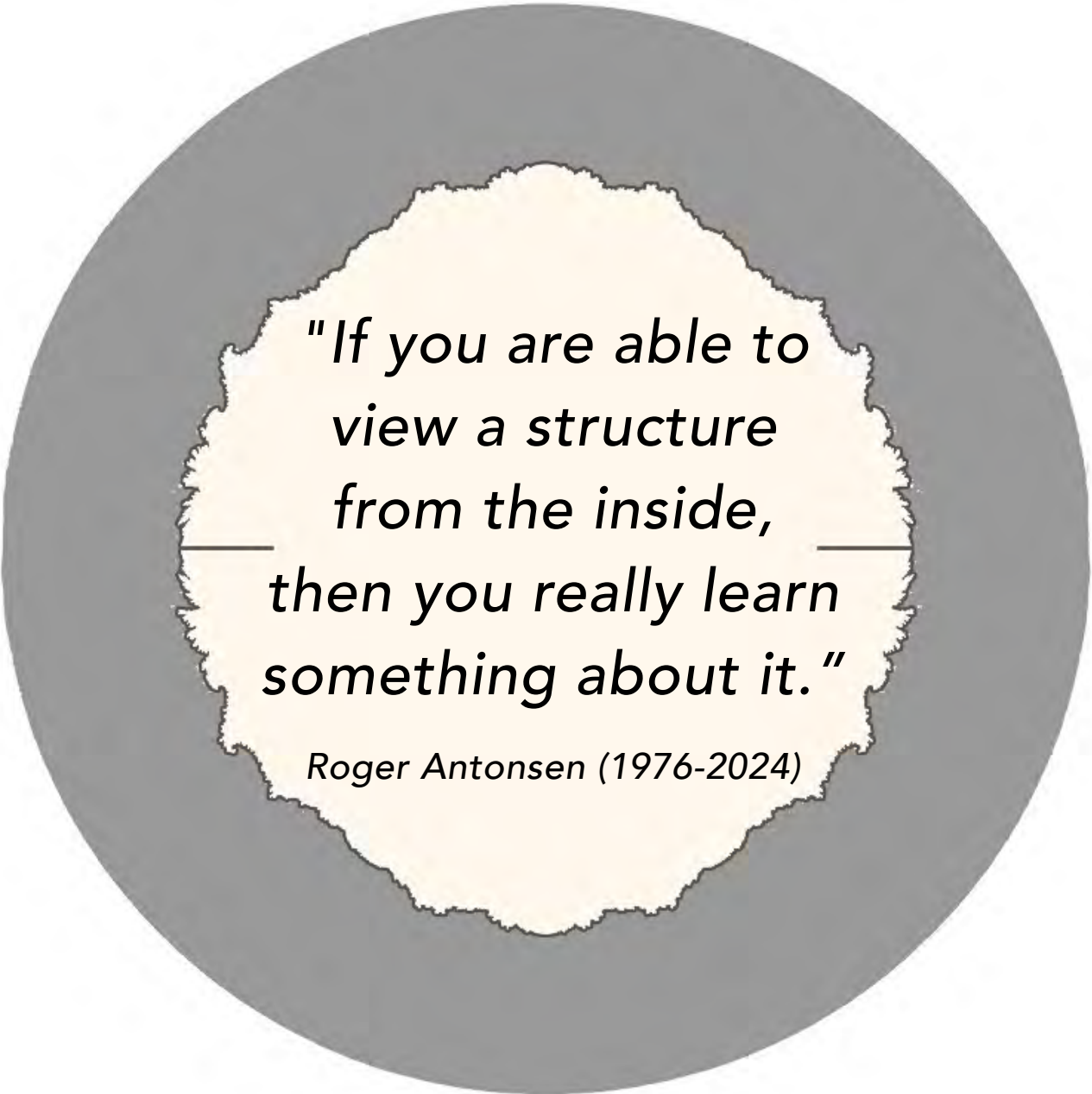
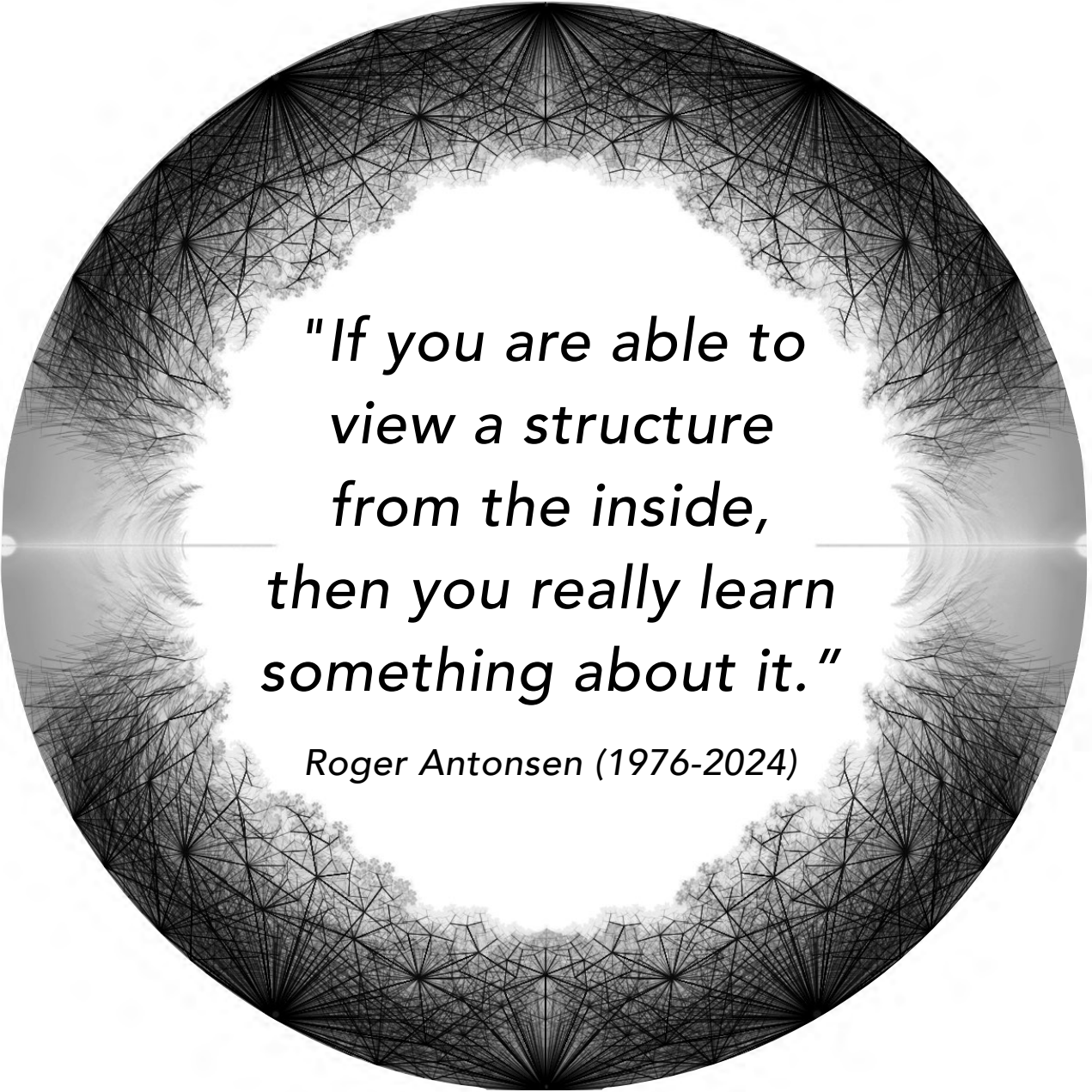


Figure 10. The set $\mathcal{M}_{21} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ contained in $\mathcal{X}_{21}$. Since $1 + \sqrt{20} < -1 + \sqrt{42}$, the region $\mathcal{X}_{21}$ contains $B(1 + \sqrt{20}, 0) \setminus (\mathbb{R} \cup \mathbb{D})$ which in turn contains $\mathcal{M}_{21} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ by Proposition 4.



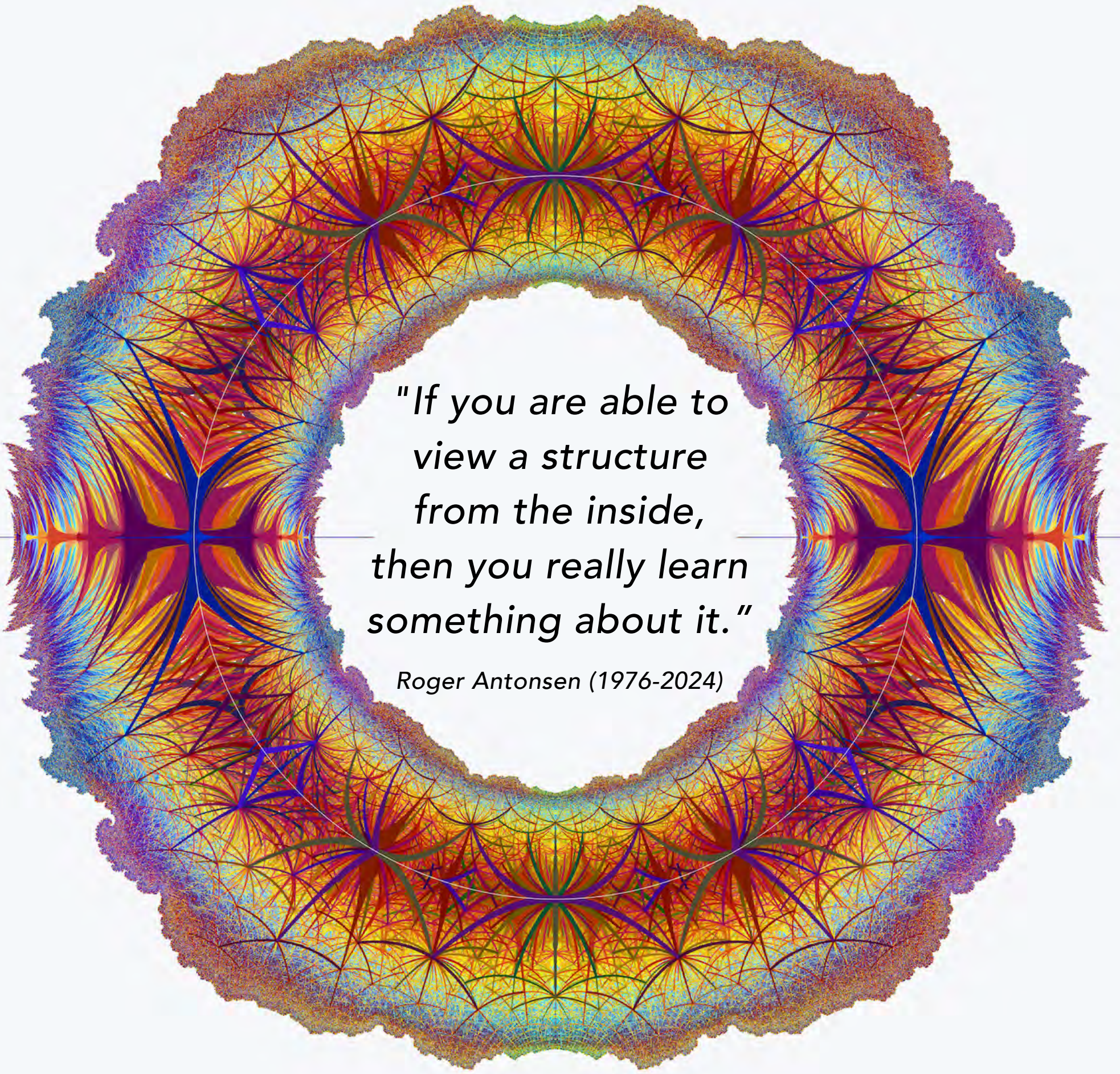
*"If you are able to
view a structure
from the inside,
then you really learn
something about it."*

Roger Antonsen (1976-2024)



*"If you are able to
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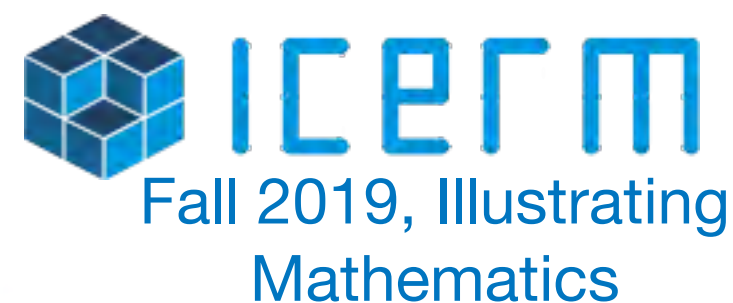
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Joint work with my PhD supervisors, Joan Saldaña, and David Juher



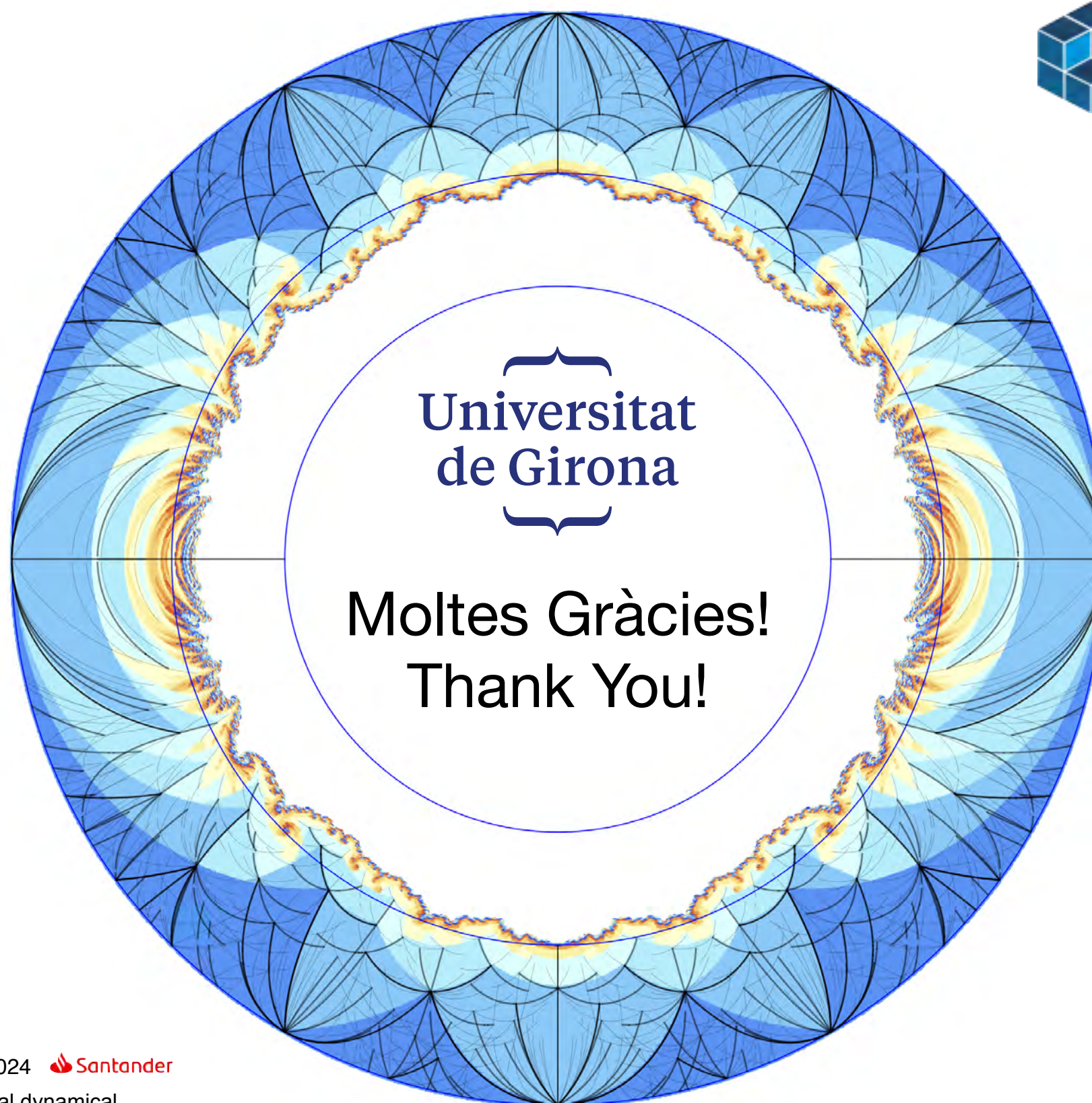
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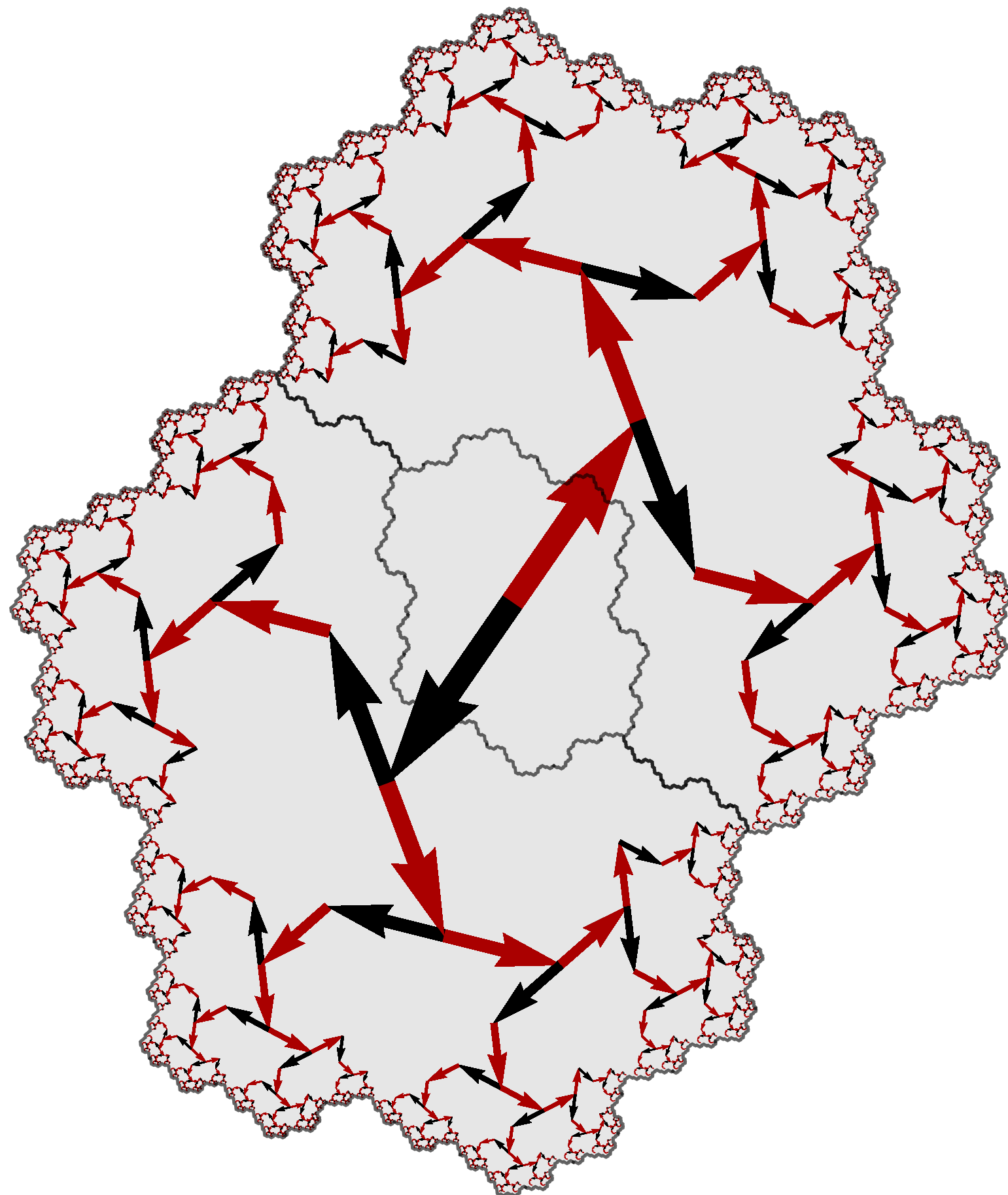
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Low dimensional dynamical
systems: topology, geometry,
combinatorics and bifurcations

PID2023-146424NB-I00

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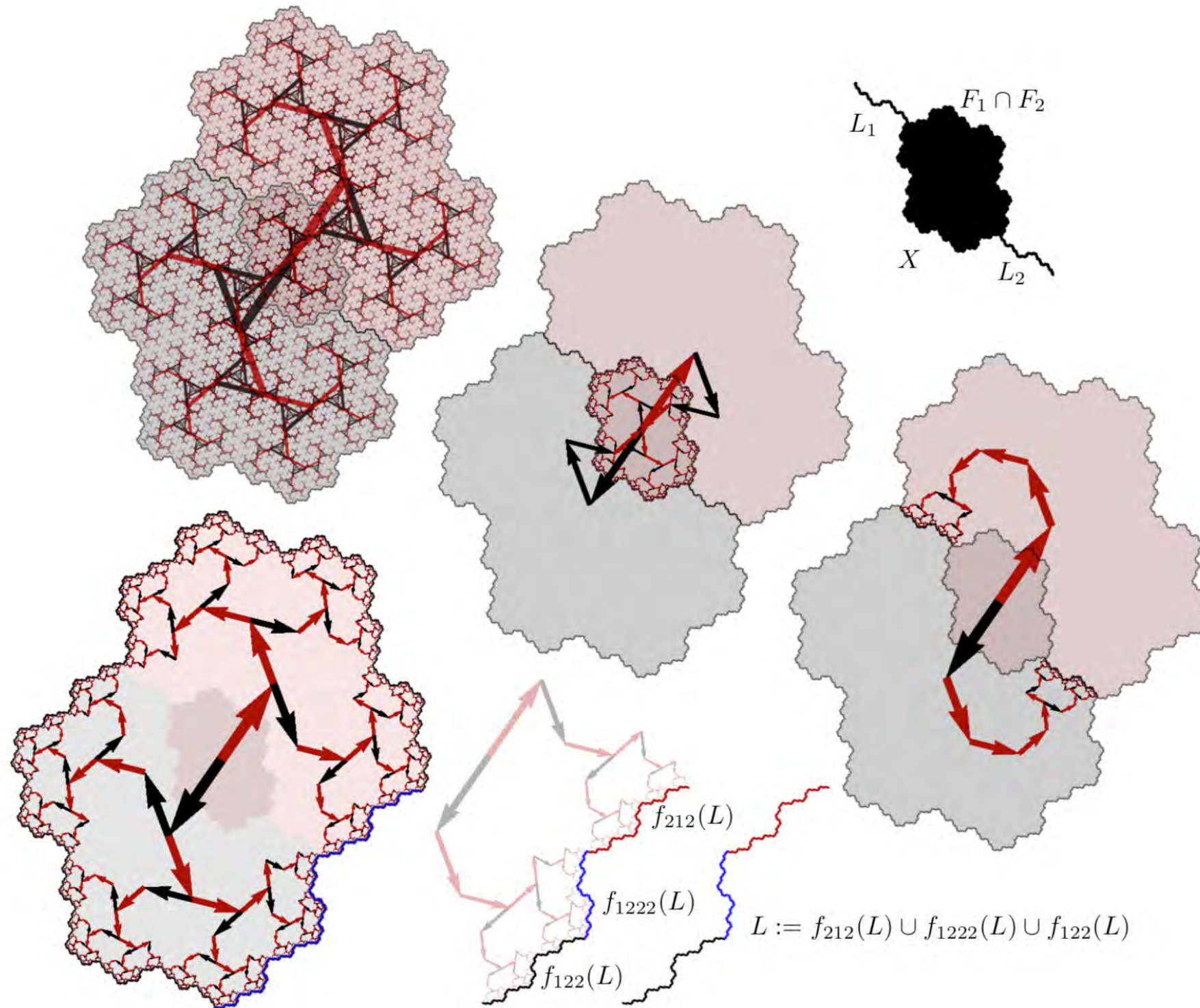


Figure 16: Binary complex tree $T\{c, -c\}$ where $c \approx 0.737e^{-2.176i}$ is a root of $1 + x + x^2 - x^3$. Since we have the following node-to-node intersections $\phi(11122) = \phi(21121)$, $\phi(11121) = \phi(21122)$, and $\phi(1112) = \phi(2112)$ theorem 6 tells us that the following piece-to-piece exact overlaps take place $F_{11122} = F_{21121}$, $F_{11121} = F_{21122}$. Moreover $F_{1112} = F_{11121} \cup F_{11122} = F_{21121} \cup F_{21122} = F_{2112}$, i.e. $F_{1112} = F_{2112}$. For this particular example the tipset $F\{c, -c\}$ is the classical Rauzy fractal shown in figure 20 with the particularity of having the first-level pieces F_1 and F_2 intersecting in a non-empty set $F_1 \cap F_2 = L_1 \cup X \cup L_2$ where $X = F_{1112} = F_{2112}$ and L_1 and L_2 are given in terms of the fractal curve $L := f_{212}(L) \cup f_{1222}(L) \cup f_{122}(L)$ as $L_1 = f_{22222}(L)$, $L_2 = f_{12222}(L)$.

