# A non-ergodic probabilistic cellular automaton with a unique invariant measure <br> Philippe Chassaing, Jean Mairesse 

## To cite this version:

Philippe Chassaing, Jean Mairesse. A non-ergodic probabilistic cellular automaton with a unique invariant measure. Stochastic Processes and their Applications, 2011. hal-00512864v2

## HAL Id: hal-00512864 <br> https://hal.science/hal-00512864v2

Submitted on 11 Oct 2010 (v2), last revised 8 Jul 2011 (v3)

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire HAL, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

# A NON-ERGODIC PROBABILISTIC CELLULAR AUTOMATON WITH A UNIQUE INVARIANT MEASURE 

PHILIPPE CHASSAING AND JEAN MAIRESSE


#### Abstract

We exhibit a Probabilistic Cellular Automaton (PCA) on $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ with a neighborhood of size 2 which is non-ergodic although it has a unique invariant measure. This answers by the negative an old open question on whether uniqueness of the invariant measure implies ergodicity for a PCA.


## 1. Introduction

Consider a random process on $\Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}^{d}}$, where $\Sigma$ is a finite set, with local interactions and a translation invariant dynamic. There are two natural instanciations, one with asynchronous updates of the sites of $\mathbb{Z}^{d}$, and one with synchronous updates. In the first case, the model is a continuous time Markov process, known as a (finite range) Interacting Particle System (IPS). In the second case, the model is a discrete time Markov chain known as a Probabilistic Cellular Automaton (PCA).

The relevance of IPS in statistical mechanics, as well as in many other contexts, is well established. Let us mention a couple of motivations for studying PCA. First, the investigation of fault-tolerant computational models was the motivation for the Russian school [13, 5]. Second, PCA appear in combinatorial problems related to the enumeration of directed animals [7]. Third, in the context of the classification of (deterministic) cellular automata (Wolfram's program), robustness to random errors can be used as a discriminating criterion 4].

For IPS and PCA, the first question is to study the equilibrium behavior. An equilibrium is characterized by an invariant measure, that is a probability measure on the state space which is left invariant by the dynamic. An invariant measure $\mu$ is attractive if, for any initial condition, the state of the system converges (weakly) to $\mu$ as time goes on.

By a compactness argument, there always exists at least one invariant measure. Therefore, there are, a priori, three possible situations:
(1) several invariant measures;
(2) a unique invariant measure which is not attractive;
(3) a unique invariant measure which is attractive.

In the last case, which corresponds to the nicest possible situation, the model is said to be ergodic. Roughly, an ergodic system completely forgets about its initial condition, while a non-ergodic one remembers something forever.

[^0]A classical foundational question is whether the intermediate case exists. In other words, does uniqueness of the invariant measure imply convergence to it? For monotone systems, the intermediate case does not exist. But in general, the question is open.

For IPS, this question is Open Problem 4 in Chapter 1 of the classical textbook by Liggett [8]. In [10], Mountford proves that the intermediate case does not exist for 1dimensional IPS (that is $d=1$ ). Quoting [10], "it seems more than plausible that the conclusion (...) is true in higher dimensions". However, the question remains unsettled. For PCA, the same question is Unsolved problem 3.4.3 in Toom [11, or Unsolved problem 5.7 in Toom 12 .

In the present paper, we answer the question for PCA by exhibiting a 1-dimensional model $F_{A}$ corresponding to the intermediate case (Theorem 3.1). There is a unique invariant measure of the form $\left(\mu_{0}+\mu_{1}\right) / 2$ and $\mu_{0} F_{A}=\mu_{1}, \mu_{1} F_{A}=\mu_{0}$. Starting from an initial measure $\mu_{0}$, the probability measure of the state of the system is $\mu_{0}$ at even times and $\mu_{1}$ at odd times. Therefore there is no convergence.

Observe that the situations for IPS and PCA are different: in 1-d, the intermediate case exists for PCA, and not for IPS. This is consistent with the situation for Markov processes on a finite state space: in discrete time, periodic phenomena may occur which result in the existence of the intermediate case; in continuous time, the intermediate case does not exist.

To prove the result, we introduce two auxiliary PCA. The first one, model $B$, corresponds to independently moving particles annihilating when they meet $(p+p \rightarrow \varnothing)$. The second one, model $C$, corresponds to independently moving particles merging when they meet $(p+p \rightarrow p)$. We show that the ergodicity of $C$ implies the ergodicity of $B$ which implies in turn that we are in situation (2) for model $A$. But it is simple to prove that model $C$ is ergodic, the unique invariant measure being the Dirac measure on the "all empty" configuration. It completes the proof. We also compute exactly the evolution of the one-dimensional marginals for model $C$ (Theorem 5.2) and models $A$ and $B$ (Prop. 6.1) starting from a "full" configuration. In particular, it proves that the speed of convergence to the invariant measure is of order $1 / \sqrt{n}$ for the three models.

Continuous-time versions of models $B$ and $C$ have been studied in the IPS literature under the names of annihilating random walks and coalescing random walks, respectively, see [1, 3, 6]. The PCA and IPS versions of $B$ and $C$ share the same features: ergodicity with the invariant measure being the "all empty" Dirac measure; similar and subexponential speed of convergence. In the IPS setting, the asymptotic speed of convergence was given by Bramson \& Griffeath [3] for model $C$, and by Arratia [1] for model $B$. Also, the coupling between the models $B$ and $C$, that we use in Section 6, already appears in Griffeath [6, Ch. 3, Sec. 5] and in Arratia [1] in the continuous-time setting. The novelty is that we get exact computations for the PCA models, as opposed to asymptotic results for the IPS ones. At last, let us mention that IPS versions of models $B$ and $C$ on a finite set of sites have also been studied, see for instance [2] for $B$, 9] for $C$, and the references therein.

## 2. Probabilistic Cellular Automaton

Let $\Sigma$ be a finite set. Denote by $\mathcal{M}(\Sigma)$ the set of probability measures on $\Sigma$. Let us equip $X=\Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$ with the product topology. Denote by $\mathcal{M}(X)$ the set of probability measures on $X$ for the Borelian $\sigma$-algebra. Weak convergence of $\left(\mu_{n}\right)_{n}$ to $\mu$ is denoted by $\mu_{n} \xrightarrow{w} \mu$. Let $K$ be a finite subset of $\mathbb{Z}$ and consider $x \in \Sigma^{K}$. The cylinder defined by $x$ is the set

$$
* x *=\left\{u \in \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}, \forall k \in K, u_{k}=x_{k}\right\}
$$

Given $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $V=\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}$, we use the notation $k+V$ for $\left(k+v_{1}, \ldots, k+\right.$ $\left.v_{n}\right)$, and the notation $V(K)$ for $\{i \mid \exists k \in K, \exists v \in V, i=k+v\}$.

Let us introduce probabilistic cellular automata, restricting ourselves to 1-dimensional models.

Definition 2.1. The alphabet is a finite set $\Sigma$; the set of sites is $\mathbb{Z}$. The set of configurations is $X=\Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$. Given $V \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}$, a transition function of neighborhood $V$ is a function $f: \Sigma^{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(\Sigma)$. The probabilistic cellular automaton (PCA) F of transition function $f$ is the application $\mathcal{M}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(X), \mu \mapsto \mu F$ defined on cylinders by: $\forall K$, $\forall y \in \Sigma^{K}$,

$$
\mu F(* y *)=\sum_{x \in \Sigma^{V(K)}} \mu(* x *) \prod_{k \in K} f\left(\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in k+V}\right)\left(y_{k}\right)
$$

Let us look at how $F$ acts on a Dirac measure $\delta_{x}$. The value of all the sites are updated. The value $x_{k}$ of the $k$-th site is changed into the letter $a \in \Sigma$ with probability $f\left(\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in k+V}\right)(a)$, independently of the evolution of the other sites.

By specializing Definition 2.1, we recover two famous models:

- Assume that $V=\{0\}$, then all the sites behave independently. The restriction of the PCA to one site is a Markov chain evolving on $\Sigma$. Conversely, any Markov chain on a finite state space $E$ can be realized as (a restriction of) a PCA on the alphabet $E$ with neighborhood $V=\{0\}$.
- Assume that the transition function $f$ is such that: $\forall u \in \Sigma^{V}, f(u)$ is a Dirac probability measure. Then we may view $f$ as a function $\Sigma^{V} \rightarrow \Sigma$. We obtain a (deterministic) cellular automaton.
A PCA $F$ may be viewed as a Markov chain on the state space $\Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$. Thus we borrow the classical terminology of Markov chains.

Definition 2.2. An invariant (probability) measure of $F$ is a probability measure $\mu \in$ $\mathcal{M}(X)$ such that $\mu F=\mu$. The PCA $F$ is ergodic if it has a unique invariant measure which is attractive, i.e. if
(i) $[\exists!\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X), \mu F=\mu]$,
(ii) $\left[\forall \nu \in \mathcal{M}(X), \nu F^{n} \xrightarrow{w} \mu\right]$.

Consider for a moment a Markov chain on a finite state space with transition matrix $P$. Let $\mathcal{G}(P)$ be the graph of the matrix $P$. Classically, we have
(i) $\Longleftrightarrow \mathcal{G}(P)$ has a unique terminal component
$(\mathrm{i})+(\mathrm{ii}) \Longleftrightarrow \mathcal{G}(P)$ has a unique terminal component which is aperiodic.

In particular, uniqueness of the invariant measure does not imply ergodicity. The simplest example of a non-ergodic Markov chain with a unique invariant measure is the following: the state space is $X=\{0,1\}$ and the transition matrix is

$$
P=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1  \tag{3}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The unique invariant measure is $\mu=\left(\delta_{0}+\delta_{1}\right) / 2$ and for $\nu=\delta_{0}$, we do not have $\nu P^{n} \xrightarrow{w} \mu$.

For PCA, it was an open question to know if (i) implies (ii) in (1). The purpose of the present paper is to settle the question by proposing a non-ergodic PCA with a unique invariant measure.

To get a hint of the difficulty, consider for instance a PCA $F$ with neighborhood $V=\{0\}$. Recall that each site behaves independently and as a finite Markov chain $P$. As recalled in (2), $P$ may satisfy either $[\neg(i)],[(i), \neg(i i)]$, or $[(i),(i i)]$. We show in Table 1 how this gets reflected on the PCA $F$.

| Markov chain $P$ | PCA $F$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\neg(i)$ | $\neg(i)$ |
| $(i), \neg(i i)$ | $\neg(i)$ |
| $(i),(i i)$ | $(i),(i i)$ |

Table 1. Finite Markov chain versus "neighborhood 0 PCA".

Let us justify the Table. If $\mu$ is an invariant measure of $P$, then the product measure $\mu^{\otimes \mathbb{Z}}$ is an invariant measure of $F$. Therefore, if $P$ has several invariant measures, the same holds for $F$. Assume now that $P$ is ergodic with unique invariant measure $\mu$. One proves easily that $\mu^{\otimes \mathbb{Z}}$ is attractive, so $F$ is ergodic. Let us concentrate now on the intermediate case for $P$. If $P$ satisfies $[(i), \neg(i i)]$ then $\mathcal{G}(P)$ has a unique terminal component which is periodic, say of period 2 . Let $\left(\mu_{0}+\mu_{1}\right) / 2$ be the unique invariant measure of $P$. Then $F$ has an infinite number of invariant measures. Indeed, consider any $\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \in\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, and let $\left(v_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ be defined by $v_{i}=1-u_{i}$ for all $i$. Then the probability measure $\left(\otimes_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \mu_{u_{i}}+\otimes_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \mu_{v_{i}}\right) / 2$ is clearly an invariant measure of $F$.

## 3. Statement of the main result

3.1. Model $A$. Consider the PCA $F_{A}$ on the alphabet $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$, with neighborhood $V=\{-1,0\}$, and transition function $a$ defined by:

$$
a(00)(1)=1 / 2, \quad a(01)(1)=0, \quad a(10)(1)=1, \quad a(11)(1)=1 / 2 .
$$

A realization of the Markov chain is obtained as follows. Consider the function

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{A}: \quad\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \times \mathcal{U}^{\mathbb{Z}} & \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}  \tag{4}\\
\left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} & \mapsto\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}
\end{align*}
$$



Figure 1. The transition function of the PCA $F_{A}$.
with $\mathcal{U}=\{\uparrow, \rightarrow\}$, and

$$
\tilde{x}_{i}= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } x_{i-1} x_{i}=01 \text { or }\left(x_{i-1} x_{i}, u_{i}\right) \in\{(00, \rightarrow),(11, \uparrow)\} \\ 1 & \text { if } x_{i-1} x_{i}=10 \text { or }\left(x_{i-1} x_{i}, u_{i}\right) \in\{(00, \uparrow),(11, \rightarrow)\} .\end{cases}
$$

Let $U=\left(U_{i, j}\right)_{(i, j) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}}$ be a doubly-indexed sequence of i.i.d. r.v.'s with common law

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(U_{i, j}=\uparrow\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(U_{i, j}=\rightarrow\right)=1 / 2,
$$

called the update process. Set $U_{n}=\left(U_{i, n}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$. Given a $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$-valued r.v. $X_{0}=\left(X_{i, 0}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$, such that $U \perp X_{0}$, define the sequence of $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$-valued r.v.'s $\left(X_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{n+1}=\mathcal{A}\left(X_{n}, U_{n}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\left(X_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a realization of model $A$. The process $U$ is used to randomly update the value of a site, when needed, with $\rightarrow$ being interpreted as "keep" and $\uparrow$ as "switch", and $X_{i, n}$ is the state of site $i$ at time $n$, so that $X_{n}=\left(X_{i, n}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ denotes the state of the system at time $n$.
3.2. Invariant measure. Let $x=(01)^{\mathbb{Z}}$ be the configuration defined by: $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $x_{2 n}=0, x_{2 n+1}=1$. The configuration $(10)^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is defined similarly.
Theorem 3.1. The PCA $F_{A}$ has a unique invariant measure which is $\mu=\left(\delta_{(01)^{z}}+\right.$ $\left.\delta_{\left.(10)^{\mathrm{z}}\right)}\right) / 2$. The PCA is non-ergodic.

On configurations without 00 and 11, the PCA acts as the translation shift. Therefore $\mu=\left(\delta_{(01)^{Z}}+\delta_{\left.(10)^{Z}\right)} / 2\right.$ is an invariant measure. Assume that it is the unique one. Then the non-ergodicity is straightforward, the situation being the same as for (3): consider $\nu=\delta_{(01)^{z}}$, then $\nu F_{A}^{n}=\delta_{(01)^{z}}$ if $n$ is even, and $\nu F_{A}^{n}=\delta_{(10)^{z}}$ if $n$ is odd.

The purpose of Sections 4 and 5 is to prove Theorem 3.1.

## 4. Two auxiliary models

We now define two new PCA, that we call respectively model $B$ and model $C$. For both models, the alphabet is $\Sigma=\{0, \bullet\}$ and the set of sites is $\mathbb{Z}$. Given a configuration $u \in\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, the following interpretation holds: if $u_{i}=0$, the site $i$ is "empty"; if $u_{i}=\bullet$, the site $i$ contains a "particle". At a given time step, a particle decides (independently of the others and independently of the past) to remain at its site with probability $1 / 2$, or to jump to the site on the right with probability $1 / 2$. In model $B$, if two particles collide, then they annihilate. In model $C$, if two particles collide, they are merged into one particle. Let us define the models more formally.
4.1. Model $B$. It is the Markov chain on $\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ defined as follows. Consider the function

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathcal{B}: \quad\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \times \mathcal{U}^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}  \tag{6}\\
&\left(y_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \mapsto\left(\tilde{y}_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}
\end{align*}
$$

with $\mathcal{U}=\{\uparrow, \rightarrow\}$, and

$$
\tilde{y}_{i}= \begin{cases}\bullet & \text { if }\left(y_{i-1} y_{i}, u_{i-1} u_{i}\right) \in\{(\bullet \circ, \rightarrow \mathcal{U}),(\bullet \bullet, \mathcal{U} \uparrow),(\bullet \bullet, \uparrow \uparrow),(\bullet \bullet, \rightarrow \rightarrow)\} \\ \circ & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Let $U$ be an update process, defined as in Section 3.1. Given a $\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$-valued r.v. $Y_{0}$, such that $U \perp Y_{0}$, define the sequence of $\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$-valued r.v.'s $\left(Y_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{n+1}=\mathcal{B}\left(Y_{n}, U_{n}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\left(Y_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a realization of model $B$.


Figure 2. The transition function of model $B$.

Remarks. In the above presentation, model $B$ is a Markov chain with synchronous updates and local interactions, but not stricto sensu a PCA. Indeed, if $Y_{0}$ is deterministic, then the r.v.'s $Y_{i, 1}$ and $Y_{i+1,1}$ are not independent, since they are updated using the non-disjoint r.v.'s $\left\{U_{i-1,0}, U_{i, 0}\right\}$ and $\left\{U_{i, 0}, U_{i+1,0}\right\}$. However, it is possible to give a PCA presentation of model $B$ on a larger alphabet. Define the sequence of $(\{\circ, \bullet\} \times \mathcal{U})^{\mathbb{Z}}$-valued r.v's $\left(\tilde{Y}_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ by $\tilde{Y}_{n}=\left(Y_{n}, U_{n}\right)$. We have:

$$
\left(\widetilde{Y}_{n+1}\right)_{i}=\left(\mathcal{B}\left(\tilde{Y}_{n}\right)_{i}, U_{i, n+1}\right)
$$

Thus $\left(\widetilde{Y}_{n}\right)_{n}$ is a realization of a PCA on the alphabet $\{\circ, \bullet\} \times \mathcal{U}$, with neighborhood $V=\{-1,0\}$. The same remark holds for model $C$ below.

The continuous time version of model $B$, with exponential holding times, is called an annihilating random walk (cf. [6, Ch. 3, Sec. 5]).


Step n


Figure 3. The transition function of model $C$.
4.2. Model $C$. It is the Markov chain on $\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ defined as follows. Consider the function

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{C}: \quad\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \times \mathcal{U}^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \\
&\left(z_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \mapsto\left(\tilde{z}_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}},
\end{aligned}
$$

with

$$
\tilde{z}_{i}= \begin{cases}\bullet & \text { if }\left(z_{i-1} z_{i}, u_{i-1} u_{i}\right) \in\{(\bullet \bullet, \rightarrow \mathcal{U}),(\bullet \bullet, \mathcal{U} \uparrow),(\bullet \bullet, \uparrow \uparrow),(\bullet \bullet, \rightarrow \mathcal{U})\} \\ \circ & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}
$$

Let $U$ be an update process. Given a $\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$-valued r.v. $Z_{0}$, such that $U \perp Z_{0}$, define the sequence of $\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$-valued r.v's $\left(Z_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as follows:

$$
Z_{n+1}=\mathcal{C}\left(Z_{n}, U_{n}\right)
$$

Then $\left(Z_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a realization of model $C$.
Again, the continuous time version of model $C$, with exponential holding times, is called a coalescing random walk (cf. [6, Ch. 2, Sec. 9]).
4.3. Links between models $A, B$, and $C$. One-step transition of the model $B$, resp. $C$, defines the mapping

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{B}: \mathcal{M}\left(\{0, \bullet \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right) & \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}\left(\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right) \\
\mu & \longmapsto \mu F_{B},
\end{aligned}
$$

respectively,

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{C}: \mathcal{M}\left(\{0, \bullet \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right) & \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}\left(\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right) \\
\mu & \longmapsto \mu F_{C} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi: & \{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \longrightarrow\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \\
& \left(x_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \longmapsto\left(y_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}},
\end{aligned}
$$

with

$$
y_{i}= \begin{cases}\bullet & \text { if } x_{i} x_{i+1} \in\{00,11\} \\ \circ & \text { if } x_{i} x_{i+1} \in\{01,10\}\end{cases}
$$

By extension, define $\varphi: \mathcal{M}\left(\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}\left(\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right)$.
Lemma 4.1. The diagram below is commutative:


If $\left(X_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a realization of the Markov chain $A$, then $\left(\varphi\left(X_{n}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a realization of the Markov chain B.

Proof. Recall that $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ are defined in (4) and (6) respectively. We are going to prove that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi \circ \mathcal{A}=\mathcal{B} \circ(\varphi, \mathrm{Id}) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The statement of the lemma follows. Set

$$
\left(x_{i}\right)_{i},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i} \stackrel{\mathcal{A}}{\longmapsto}\left(\tilde{x}_{i}\right)_{i} \stackrel{\varphi}{\longmapsto}\left(\tilde{y}_{i}\right)_{i}, \quad\left(x_{i}\right)_{i},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i} \stackrel{\varphi, \mathrm{Id}}{\longmapsto}\left(y_{i}\right)_{i},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i} \stackrel{\mathcal{B}}{\longmapsto}\left(\hat{y}_{i}\right)_{i} .
$$

To obtain (8), it is enough to check that $\tilde{y}_{0}=\hat{y}_{0}$. This is done by systematic inspection in the table below. Each one of the 16 boxes mimicks the commutative diagram: in the first line, from left to right, $\left(x_{-2}, x_{-1}, x_{0}\right),\left(u_{-1}, u_{0}\right)$, and $\left(\tilde{x}_{-1}, \tilde{x}_{0}\right)$; in the second line, from left to right, $\left(y_{-1}, y_{0}\right),\left(u_{-1}, u_{0}\right)$, and $\tilde{y}_{0}=\hat{y}_{0}$.

If the process $X$ is defined by (5), relation (8) entails that the process $Y$, defined by $Y_{n}=\varphi\left(X_{n}\right)$, satisfies relation (7).

Lemma 4.2. Model $B$ is dominated by model $C$ : for $x, u \in\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \times \mathcal{U}^{\mathbb{Z}}$,

$$
\mathcal{B}(x, u) \leq \mathcal{C}(x, u)
$$

where $\leq$ is the coordinate-wise product ordering on $\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, with $\circ \leq \bullet$.
Proof. This can be checked directly on the definitions of $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{C}$. Intuitively, particles are merged in model $C$, and annihilate in model $B$.

Lemma 4.3. The following implications hold:
[ $C$ is ergodic with invariant measure $\delta_{\circ} \mathbb{Z}$ ]
$\Longrightarrow\left[B\right.$ is ergodic with invariant measure $\left.\delta_{\mathrm{o} \mathbb{Z}}\right]$
$\Longleftrightarrow\left[A\right.$ is non-ergodic with invariant measure $\left.\left(\delta_{(01)^{\mathbb{Z}}}+\delta_{(10)^{\mathbb{Z}}}\right) / 2\right]$.
Proof. This is a direct consequence of Lemmas 4.1 and 4.2.
Therefore, in order to prove Theorem 3.1, it is sufficient to prove that model $C$ is ergodic with invariant measure $\delta_{\mathrm{o}} \mathbb{Z}$. This is the purpose of next section.

| 111 or 000 | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | 11 or 00 | 101 or 010 | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | 10 or 01 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\bullet \bullet$ | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | $\bullet$ | $\circ \circ$ | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | $\circ$ |
| 111 or 000 | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | 10 or 01 | 101 or 010 | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | 10 or 01 |
| $\bullet \bullet$ | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | $\circ$ | $\circ \circ$ | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | $\circ$ |
| 111 or 000 | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | 01 or 10 | 101 or 010 | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | 10 or 01 |
| $\bullet \bullet$ | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | $\circ$ | $\circ \circ$ | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | $\circ$ |
| 111 or 000 | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | 00 or 11 | 101 or 010 | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | 10 or 01 |
| $\bullet \bullet$ | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | $\bullet$ | $\circ$ | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | $\circ$ |
| 110 or 001 | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | 11 or 00 | 100 or 011 | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | 10 or 01 |
| $\bullet \circ$ | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | $\bullet$ | $\circ \bullet$ | $\rightarrow \rightarrow$ | $\circ$ |
| 110 or 001 | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | 11 or 00 | 100 or 011 | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | 11 or 00 |
| $\bullet \circ$ | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | $\bullet$ | $\circ \bullet$ | $\rightarrow \uparrow$ | $\bullet$ |
| 110 or 001 | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | 01 or 10 | 100 or 011 | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | 10 or 01 |
| $\bullet \circ$ | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | $\circ$ | $\circ \bullet$ | $\uparrow \rightarrow$ | $\circ$ |
| 110 or 001 | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | 01 or 10 | 100 or 011 | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | 11 or 00 |
| $\bullet \circ$ | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | $\circ$ | $\circ \bullet$ | $\uparrow \uparrow$ | $\bullet$ |

Table 2. The 32 possible cases.

## 5. Model $C$ is ergodic

Lemma 5.1. Model $C$ is monotone, that is: for $z \in\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}, \tilde{z} \in\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}, u \in \mathcal{U}^{\mathbb{Z}}$,

$$
z \leq \tilde{z} \quad \Longrightarrow \mathcal{C}(z, u) \leq \mathcal{C}(\tilde{z}, u)
$$

where $\leq$ is the coordinate-wise product ordering.
Proof. It can be checked directly on the definition of $\mathcal{C}$.
With this monotonicity, to get the ergodicity, it is enough to prove that $\delta_{0} z F_{C}^{n} \rightarrow \delta_{0} z$. Indeed, consider two realizations of model $C$, one, say $Z=\left(Z_{n}\right)_{n}$, that starts with all sites occupied, the other, say $\tilde{Z}=\left(\tilde{Z}_{n}\right)_{n}$, that starts with an arbitrary initial condition, their evolution using the same update process $U$. According to Lemma 5.1, at any time $n \in \mathbb{N}, \tilde{Z}_{n} \leq Z_{n}$.

From now on, we focus on the process $Z$. Recall that for each $n, Z_{n}=\left(Z_{k, n}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is the state of the system at time $n$. The process $Z_{n}$ is stationary, i.e. invariant by translation, since $Z_{0}, U$, and $\mathcal{C}$ are invariant too. Define

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{n}=\mathbb{P}\left(Z_{k, n}=\bullet\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(Z_{0, n}=\bullet\right) . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is the density of particles at time $n$. The density $d_{n}$ can also be viewed as an evaluation of the distance between $Z_{n}$ and $\delta_{\mathrm{o} z}$. Indeed, for any finite subset $E$ of $\mathbb{Z}$, consider the Hamming distance on $\{0, \bullet\}^{E}$, and denote by $\mathcal{W}_{H}$ the corresponding Wasserstein distance on $\mathcal{M}\left(\{\circ, \bullet\}^{E}\right)$. Setting $Z_{E, n}=\left(Z_{k, n}\right)_{k \in E}$, we have: $\mathcal{W}_{H}\left(Z_{E, n}, \delta_{\circ E}\right)=|E| d_{n}$.

Theorem 5.2. Let $T$ be the time that a simple symmetric random walk on $\mathbb{Z}$ needs to reach 2, starting from 0. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
d_{n} & =\mathbb{P}(T>2 n)  \tag{10}\\
& =4^{-n}\binom{2 n+1}{n} . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

In particular, $d_{n} \sim 2 / \sqrt{\pi n}$, hence converges to 0 as $n$ grows.
In continuous time, when the particles perform a simple symmetric random walk, Bramson \& Griffeath [3] obtain the same asymptotic behavior for $d_{n}$, up to a scaling factor, as expected.
Corollary 5.3. Model $C$ is ergodic with unique invariant measure $\delta_{\circ} \mathbb{Z}$.
Proof. We first prove (11), assuming (10). Let $S=\left(S_{k}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a realization of the simple symmetric random walk on $\mathbb{Z}$, starting from 0 . Define $M_{k}=\max \left\{S_{i}, 0 \leq i \leq k\right\}$, the maximum of the random walk at time $k$. Recall that $T=\inf \left\{i \geq 0 \mid S_{i}=2\right\}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}(T>2 n) & =\mathbb{P}\left(M_{2 n} \leq 1\right)=1-\mathbb{P}\left(M_{2 n} \geq 2\right) \\
& =1-\sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{P}\left(M_{2 n} \geq 2, S_{2 n}=\ell\right) \\
& =1-\mathbb{P}\left(S_{2 n} \geq 2\right)-\sum_{\ell \leq 1} \mathbb{P}\left(M_{2 n} \geq 2, \quad S_{2 n}=\ell\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

According to the reflection principle, $\mathbb{P}\left(M_{2 n} \geq 2, S_{2 n}=\ell\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(S_{2 n}=4-\ell\right)$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{P}(T>2 n) & =1-\mathbb{P}\left(S_{2 n} \geq 2\right)-\mathbb{P}\left(S_{2 n} \geq 3\right) \\
& =1-\mathbb{P}\left(S_{2 n} \leq-2\right)-\mathbb{P}\left(S_{2 n} \geq 3\right) \\
& =\mathbb{P}\left(S_{2 n} \in\{0,2\}\right) \\
& =4^{-n}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}+\binom{2 n}{n+1}\right)=4^{-n}\binom{2 n+1}{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using Stirling's formula, we get

$$
4^{-n}\binom{2 n+1}{n} \sim \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi n}}
$$

Now let us prove (10). Recall that $Z=\left(Z_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a realization of model $C$ with $Z_{0}=\bullet^{\mathbb{Z}}$. One can extend the definition of $Z$ via coupling from the past. Consider the i.i.d. r.v.'s $\left(U_{k, n}\right)_{(k, n) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}}$ with $\mathbb{P}\left(U_{i, j}=\uparrow\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(U_{i, j}=\rightarrow\right)=1 / 2$. For each $s \in \mathbb{Z}$, define $Z^{(s)}=\left(Z_{n}^{(s)}\right)_{n \geq s}$ by

$$
Z_{s}^{(s)}=\bullet^{\mathbb{Z}}, \quad \forall n \geq s, Z_{n+1}^{(s)}=\mathcal{C}\left(Z_{n}^{(s)},\left(U_{k, n}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}\right)
$$

The starting time of $Z^{(s)}$ is $s$, but, besides that, the dynamic is the same as that of process $Z$. Observe that $Z^{(0)}=Z$. More generally, $Z^{(s)}$ has the same distribution as $Z$. Thus, we have

$$
d_{n}=\mathbb{P}\left(Z_{0,0}^{(-n)}=\bullet\right)
$$


a.


c.

d.

Figure 4. a. The updating $\left(U_{k, n}\right)_{(k, n) \in \llbracket-9,0 \rrbracket \times \llbracket-6,0 \rrbracket}$. $Z^{(-3)}$ during the span $\llbracket-3,0 \rrbracket$. c. The process $Z^{(-5)}$ during the $\llbracket-5,0 \rrbracket$. d. The merging of particles.

In Figure 4, we have represented space-time diagrams for the model. The point of coordinate ( $k, n$ ) corresponds to site $k$ at step $n$. We have also represented the updating variables with the following convention: at the point $(k, n)$, there is an arrow pointing north if $U_{k, n}=\uparrow$ and an arrow pointing north-east if $U_{k, n}=\rightarrow$. This allows to visualize the evolution of particles in the processes $Z^{(s)}$. In Figures 4 b and 4 c , the processes $Z^{(-3)}$ and $Z^{(-5)}$ are represented; the grey nodes are the ones whose color depend on updating variables outside of the represented window. In Figure 4d, the particles painted in orange (gray) are those that merged into the particle present at time 0 and site 0 .

Let $I_{n}, n \geq 0$, be the set of indices of particles present at time $-n$ in $Z^{(-n)}$ that merge into particle 0 at time 0 . Either $I_{n}=\llbracket a_{n}, b_{n} \rrbracket, a_{n} \leq b_{n}$, in which case $Z_{0,0}^{(-n)}=\bullet$, or $I_{n}=\varnothing$, in which case $Z_{0,0}^{(-n)}=0$. We focus on $\left|I_{n}\right|$. For instance, in Figure 4 d, we have $\left(\left|I_{n}\right|\right)_{n \in \llbracket 0,6]}=(1,2,1,2,3,4,3)$. Observe that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{n}=\mathbb{P}\left(Z_{0,0}^{(-n)}=\bullet\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(\left|I_{n}\right| \geq 1\right) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have $a_{0}=b_{0}=0$, and $\left|I_{0}\right|=1$. We check the following:

- Assume that $a_{n}<b_{n}$. Then,

$$
a_{n+1}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
a_{n}-1 & \text { if } U_{a_{n}-1,-n-1}=\rightarrow \\
a_{n} & \text { if } U_{a_{n}-1,-n-1}=\uparrow
\end{array}, \quad b_{n+1}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
b_{n}-1 & \text { if } U_{b_{n},-n-1}=\rightarrow \\
b_{n} & \text { if } U_{b_{n},-n-1}=\uparrow
\end{array} .\right.\right.
$$

Thus, $\left|I_{n+1}\right|-\left|I_{n}\right| \in\{0, \pm 1\}$, and the conditional law of $\left|I_{n+1}\right|-\left|I_{n}\right|$ is $\nu$.

- Assume that $a_{n}=b_{n}$. Then

$$
I_{n+1}= \begin{cases}\varnothing & \text { if }\left(U_{a_{n}-1,-n-1}, U_{a_{n},-n-1}\right)=(\uparrow, \rightarrow) \\ \llbracket a_{n}-1, a_{n}-1 \rrbracket & \text { if }\left(U_{a_{n}-1,-n-1}, U_{a_{n},-n-1}\right)=(\rightarrow, \rightarrow) \\ \llbracket a_{n}-1, a_{n} \rrbracket & \text { if }\left(U_{a_{n}-1,-n-1}, U_{a_{n},-n-1}\right)=(\rightarrow, \uparrow) \\ \llbracket a_{n}, a_{n} \rrbracket & \text { if }\left(U_{a_{n}-1,-n-1}, U_{a_{n},-n-1}\right)=(\uparrow, \uparrow) .\end{cases}
$$

For instance, the third case appears between lines -3 and -2 in Figure 4. d. Here again, the conditional distribution of $\left|I_{n+1}\right|-\left|I_{n}\right|$ is $\nu$.

- If $I_{n}=\varnothing$, then $I_{n+1}=\varnothing$.

Consequently $\left(\left|I_{n}\right|\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a random walk with step $\nu$, starting from 1 , and killed when it reaches 0 . Using (12), we obtain (10).

## 6. Speed of convergence for models $A$ and $B$

Let $\left(A_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a realization of model $A$, with $A_{0} \sim \mu, \mu \in \mathcal{M}\left(\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right)$. The subsequences $\left(A_{2 n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\left(A_{2 n+1}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converge respectively to the limits $p \delta_{(01)^{\mathbb{Z}}}+(1-p) \delta_{(10)^{\mathbb{Z}}}$ and $(1-p) \delta_{(01)^{\mathbb{Z}}}+p \delta_{(10)^{\mathbb{Z}}}$ for some $p \in[0,1]$. In general, we have $p \neq 1 / 2$ and the two limits are different. An evaluation of the distance to the limits is given by

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(A_{0, n} A_{1, n} \in\{00,11\}\right)
$$

Since model $A$ is not monotone, we do not know for which initial measure $\mu$ this distance will be maximized. Hence we evaluate the speed of convergence for model $A$ by the quantity:

$$
d_{n}^{A}=\max _{\mu \in \mathcal{M}\left(\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right)} \mathbb{P}\left(A_{0, n} A_{1, n} \in\{00,11\}\right) .
$$

The quantity $d_{n}^{A}$ is also the speed of convergence to $\delta_{\mathrm{o} z}$ for model $B$. Indeed we have $\mathbb{P}\left(A_{0, n} A_{1, n} \in\{00,11\}\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(\varphi\left(A_{n}\right)_{0}=\bullet\right)$, which implies that

$$
d_{n}^{A}=\max _{\nu \in \mathcal{M}\left(\{0, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}}\right)} \mathbb{P}\left(B_{0, n}=\bullet\right)
$$

where $\left(B_{n}\right)_{n}$ is a realization of model $B$ with $B_{0} \sim \nu$.
Recall that $d_{n}=4^{-n}\binom{2 n+1}{n}$ is the speed of convergence for model $C$, see (9) and Theorem 5.2.

Proposition 6.1. Let $\left(A_{n}\right)_{n}$ be a realization of model $A$, with $A_{0} \sim \mu$. If $\mu$ is the uniform distribution on $\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, i.e. the r.v.'s $A_{i, 0}$ are i.i.d. with $\mathbb{P}\left(A_{0,0}=0\right)=$ $\mathbb{P}\left(A_{0,0}=1\right)=1 / 2$, then we have $\mathbb{P}\left(A_{0, n} A_{1, n} \in\{00,11\}\right)=d_{n} / 2$. If $\mu=\delta_{1 \mathbb{Z}}$, then we have $\mathbb{P}\left(A_{0, n} A_{1, n} \in\{00,11\}\right)=d_{n-1} / 2$. In particular, we have

$$
\frac{1}{2} d_{n-1} \leq d_{n}^{A} \leq d_{n}
$$

The results can be translated to model $B$ : the density of particles at step $n$ is $d_{n} / 2$ if the initial distribution is uniform, and it is $d_{n-1} / 2$ if the initial distribution is $\delta_{\bullet} \mathbb{z}$.

The end of the section is devoted to the proof of Prop. 6.1,
We define a new PCA, called model $D$, which is a coupling of models $B$ and $C$. The alphabet is $\{o, b, g\}$ and the set of sites is $\mathbb{Z}$. Given a configuration $u \in\{o, b, g\}^{\mathbb{Z}}$, the interpretation is as follows: if $u_{i}=0$ then site $i$ is empty; if $u_{i}=b$ then site $i$ contains a blue particle; if $u_{i}=g$ then site $i$ contains a green particle. Particles move as in models $B$ and $C$. When two particles collide, they get merged into one particle as in model $C$. In absence of collision, particles keep their color. In case of a collision, the merged particle is colored according to the rules:

$$
\begin{equation*}
b+b \rightarrow g, \quad g+g \rightarrow g, \quad b+g \rightarrow b, \quad g+b \rightarrow b \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 5. A realization of process $D$ (gray for $\mathrm{g}($ reen ), black for $\mathrm{b}($ lue $)$ ).

We have represented a realization of model $D$ on Figure 5. The "question mark" nodes are the ones whose color depend on updating variables outside of the represented window. Define

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\pi_{B}:\{0, b, g\} \longrightarrow\{0, \bullet\}, & \pi_{B}(\circ)=0, \pi_{B}(b)=\bullet, \pi_{B}(g)=0, \\
\pi_{C}:\{0, b, g\} \longrightarrow\{0, \bullet\}, & \pi_{C}(\circ)=0, \pi_{C}(b)=\bullet, \pi_{C}(g)=\bullet .
\end{array}
$$

We keep the same notations for the product applications: $\pi_{B}:\{\circ, b, g\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i} \mapsto$ $\left(\pi_{B}\left(u_{i}\right)\right)_{i}$, and $\pi_{C}:\{\circ, b, g\}^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow\{\circ, \bullet\}^{\mathbb{Z}},\left(u_{i}\right)_{i} \mapsto\left(\pi_{C}\left(u_{i}\right)\right)_{i}$.

Lemma 6.2. If $\left(D_{n}\right)_{n}$ is a realization of model $D$, then $\left(\pi_{B}\left(D_{n}\right)\right)_{n}$ is a realization of model $B$, and $\left(\pi_{C}\left(D_{n}\right)\right)_{n}$ is a realization of model $C$. In particular, model $D$ is ergodic with unique invariant measure $\delta_{0} z$.

Let $\left(D_{n}\right)_{n}$ be a realization of model $D$ with $D_{0}$ being defined as follows: the r.v.'s $D_{i, 0}$ are i.i.d. with $\mathbb{P}\left(D_{0,0}=b\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(D_{0,0}=g\right)=1 / 2$.

Consider two particles whose colors are independent and uniform (blue with probability $1 / 2$, green with probability $1 / 2$ ). If they merge, according to (13), the resulting color will still be uniformly distributed. Next property follows from this observation. At step $n$, conditionally on the position of the particles, their colors are i.i.d. and uniform. Therefore we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{P}\left(\pi_{B}\left(D_{0, n}\right)=\bullet\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(D_{0, n}=b\right)=\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{P}\left(D_{0, n} \in\{b, g\}\right)=\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{P}\left(\pi_{C}\left(D_{0, n}\right)=\bullet\right)=\frac{1}{2} d_{n}, \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the last equality follows from Theorem 5.2.

Now let $\left(\widetilde{D}_{n}\right)_{n}$ be a realization of model $D$ with $\widetilde{D}_{0}=b^{\mathbb{Z}}$. Define $E=\left(E_{i}\right)_{i}$ by

$$
E_{i}= \begin{cases}b & \text { if } \widetilde{D}_{i, 1}=b \\ g & \text { if } \widetilde{D}_{i, 1}=\circ \text { or } g\end{cases}
$$

The r.v.'s $\left(E_{i}\right)_{i}$ are i.i.d. with $\mathbb{P}\left(E_{0}=b\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(E_{0}=g\right)=1 / 2$. Let us justify this point. The state at time 1 of a realization of model $A$ that starts from $0^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is uniformly distributed by definition. Hence, the state at time 1 of a realization of model $B$ that starts from $\bullet^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is uniformly distributed. And $E$ has the same law as the latter up to the transformation $b \leftrightarrow \bullet, g \leftrightarrow \circ$.

So we have $E \sim D_{0}$. Observe also that $\pi_{B}\left(\widetilde{D}_{1}\right)=\pi_{B}(E)$. We deduce that, for all $n \geq 1$, we have $\pi_{B}\left(\widetilde{D}_{n}\right) \sim \pi_{B}\left(D_{n-1}\right)$. In particular, using (14),

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\pi_{B}\left(\widetilde{D}_{0, n}\right)=\bullet\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(\widetilde{D}_{0, n}=b\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(D_{0, n-1}=b\right)=d_{n-1} / 2
$$

This completes the proof of Prop. 6.1.

## References

[1] R. Arratia. Limiting point processes for rescalings of coalescing and annihilating random walks on $\mathbf{Z}^{d}$. Ann. Probab., 9(6):909-936, 1981.
[2] A. Ayyer and K. Mallick. Exact results for an asymmetric annihilation process with open boundaries. J. Phys. A: Math. Theor., 43 045003, doi: 10.1088/1751-8113/43/4/045003, 2010.
[3] M. Bramson and D. Griffeath. Clustering and dispersion rates for some interacting particle systems on Z. Ann. Probab., 8(2), 1980.
[4] N. Fatès, E. Thierry, M. Morvan, and N. Schabanel. Fully asynchronous behavior of double-quiescent elementary cellular automata. Theoret. Comput. Sci., 362(1-3):1-16, 2006.
[5] P. Gács. Reliable cellular automata with self-organization. J. Statist. Phys., 103(1-2):45-267, 2001.
[6] D. Griffeath. Additive and cancellative interacting particle systems, volume 724 of Lecture Notes in Mathematics. Springer, Berlin, 1979.
[7] Y. Le Borgne and J.-F. Marckert. Directed animals and gas models revisited. Electron. J. Combin., 14(1):\#R71, 2007.
[8] T. Liggett. Interacting Particle Systems. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1985.
[9] P. Momčilović and M. Squillante. On throughput in stochastic linear loss networks. SIGMETRICS Perform. Eval. Rev., 36(2):125-127, 2008.
[10] T. Mountford. A coupling of infinite particle systems. J. Math. Kyoto Univ., 35(1):43-52, 1995.
[11] A. Toom. Cellular automata with errors: problems for students of probability. In Topics in contemporary probability and its applications, Probab. Stochastics Ser., pages 117-157. CRC, Boca Raton, FL, 1995.
[12] A. Toom. Contours, convex sets, and cellular automata. IMPA Mathematical Publications. IMPA, Rio de Janeiro, 2001. Available in english on the web page: http://www.de.ufpe.br/~toom/articles/engmat/index.htm.
[13] A. Toom, N. Vasilyev, O. Stavskaya, L. Mityushin, G. Kurdyumov, and S. Pirogov. Discrete local Markov systems. In R. Dobrushin, V. Kryukov, and A. Toom, editors, Stochastic cellular systems: ergodicity, memory, morphogenesis. Manchester University Press, 1990.

Institut Élie Cartan, Univ. Henri Poincaré, BP 239, 54506 Vandoeuvre-les-Nancy Cedex, France

E-mail address: chassain@iecn.u-nancy.fr
LIAFA, CNRS Et Univ. Paris 7, case 7014, 75205 Paris Cedex 13, France
E-mail address: mairesse@liafa.jussieu.fr.


[^0]:    Date: October 11, 2010.
    2000 Mathematics Subject Classification. Primary: 60K35, 60J05; Secondary: 37B15, 68Q80.
    Key words and phrases. Probabilistic cellular automaton; interacting particle system; ergodicity.

