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ALGEBRAIC APPROACH TO DYNAMICS OF MULTIVALUED NETWORKS

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Using semi-tensor product of matrices, a matrix expression for multivalued logic is proposed, where a logical variable is expressed as a vector, and a logical function is expressed as a multilinear mapping. Under this framework, the dynamics of a multivalued logical network is converted into a standard discrete-time linear system. Analyzing the network transition matrix, easily computable formulas are obtained to show (a) the number of equilibriums; (b) the numbers of cycles of different lengths; (c) transient period, the minimum time for all points to enter the set of attractors, respectively. A method to reconstruct the logical network from its network transition matrix is also presented. This approach can also be used to convert the dynamics of a multivalued control network into a discrete-time bilinear system. Then, the structure and the controllability of multivalued logical control networks are revealed.

Keywords: Logical network; semi-tensor product; attractor; transient period; controllability.

1. Introduction

When the genetic circuits are described as Boolean networks, the gene state is quantized to only two levels: True and False. This approach was first proposed by [Kauffman, 1969] and then studied by many authors, e.g. [Huang & Ingber, 2000; Huang, 2002; Ideker *et al.*, 2001].

A Boolean network is a set of nodes A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n , which interact with each other in a synchronous manner [Farrow *et al.*, 2004]. At each given time $t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, a node can take only one of two different values: 1 or 0. In a Boolean network with *n* nodes, since there are only finite possible states, starting from any initial state, the Boolean network will evolve into either a fixed point or a cycle. Both fixed points and cycles are called attractors. The attractors of a Boolean

network have two different interpretations [Zhang et al., 2007]: one is that the attractors should correspond to cell types [Kauffman, 1995] and the other is that they should correspond to cell states of growth, differentiation and apoptosis [Huang, 1999]. The attractors form the limit sets of a Boolean network. So it is important to find the attractors in the system. The problem of finding attractors is widely studied, for instance, [Cheng, 2009; Farrow et al., 2004; Heidel et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2007].

A Boolean network is commonly described by a directed graph, called the network graph. The graph consists of a set of nodes, denoted by $\mathcal{N} =$ $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, which represents *n* nodes, and the set of edges, denoted by $E \subset \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{N}$. If $(i, j) \in E$, there is a directed edge from node *i* to node *j*, which

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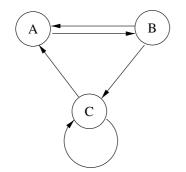


Fig. 1. Boolean network with three nodes.

means node j is affected by node i directly. The network graph shows only incidence relation. In fact, it is equivalent to incidence matrix [Robert, 1986]. To describe the dynamics of a network, we need a logical dynamic equation. We give a simple example to illustrate these concepts.

Example 1.1. Consider a Boolean network, depicted in Fig. 1. It consists of three nodes A, B, C.

Its dynamics is described by a set of discretetime logical dynamic equations, for instance, as

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = B(t) \land C(t) \\
B(t+1) = \neg A(t) \\
C(t+1) = B(t) \lor C(t).
\end{cases}$$
(1)

From (1), it is easy to calculate that its statetransition diagram is depicted in Fig. 2.

From Fig. 2, one sees that the cycle $(0\ 1\ 1) \rightarrow (1\ 1\ 1) \rightarrow (1\ 0\ 1) \rightarrow (0\ 0\ 1) \rightarrow (0\ 1\ 1)$ is the only attractor.

The aforementioned Boolean network is a deterministic model. Random Boolean network means there are several models and the real dynamics takes one of them as the active model at a time with certain probability. We refer to [Aldana *et al.*, 2003; Shmulevich *et al.*, 2002a, 2002b] for detailed description.

For some complex physical and biological phenomena, we give some abstractions and

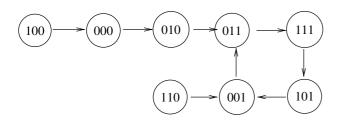


Fig. 2. State-transition diagram.

idealizations in modeling. [Harvey & Bossomaier, 1997] mentioned that "... In fitting such complex systems into a framework such as RBNs, simplifications and abstractions must be made; two of these are the Boolean idealization and the synchrony idealization". [Huberman & Glace, 1993] pointed out that synchronous updating and asynchronous updating can lead to different conclusions in the simulation of Prisoner's Dilemma interactions. The result leads to a debate on whether the synchronous updating was reasonable for the RBNs model to study gene regulatory network [May et al., 1995]. Gershenson studied the properties of asynchronous random Boolean networks in Gershenson, 2002, 2003, 2004]. It was pointed by [Gershenson, 2004] that synchronous RBNs are justifiable theoretical models of biological networks.

This paper focuses on deterministic logic dynamics. For the Boolean idealization, it is obvious that the binary approach is an approximation. Even if two-valued status is precisely correct, since the heredity is group-wise, a group of genes bounded by chromosome may also be considered as a multivalue logical variable. Multivalued networks also appear in some other complex systems, for instance in chemical reactions [Adamatzky, 2003], cognitive sciences [Volker & Conrad, 1998], etc. When the gene state is not limited to true and false, such as the inference of one gene to the other one is not strong, we should modify the model. It was pointed by [Kitano, 2001] that binary values may lose the precision.

In [Martin et al., 1984], a class of cellular automata (CA) which have additivity are studied by using algebraic technique. The global properties of CA are determined by a fixed polynomial. All the results give by [Martin et al., 1984] can be used for p-valued CAs, where p is a prime integer. But when p is a composite number or the CA is nonadditive, the algebraic technique given in [Martin et al., 1984] seems not suitable. It was pointed by [Martin et al., 1984]: "... the possibility of universal computation with sufficiently complex non-additive cellar automata demonstrates that a complete analysis of these systems is fundamental impossible". In this paper, we give a new way to study k-valued networks, and k can be any positive integer. The method given in this paper may be used not only to deal with the above *impossible* problem (while the system has limited size), but also deal with the more general multivalued cellular automata, multivalued

network. In the following sections, the dynamics of k-valued networks are discussed.

First, we give a rigorous definition.

Definition 1.2

(1) A k-valued logical variable A takes a value from D_k , which is

$$D_k = \left\{1, \frac{k-2}{k-1}, \dots, \frac{1}{k-1}, 0\right\}.$$
 (2)

(2) A k-valued network, G(V, F, k), is defined by a set of nodes $V = \{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n\}$, and a list of logical functions $F = \{f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_n\}$, which provide a rule for each node to take values from D_k at each time $t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$

For the *i*th node $A_i(t) \in D_k$, i = 1, 2, ..., n, its value at t + 1 is determined by the *k*-valued logical function f_i , called the network dynamics. The dynamics of the *k*-valued network can be described as

$$\begin{cases}
A_1(t+1) = f_1(A_1(t), A_2(t), \dots, A_n(t)) \\
A_2(t+1) = f_2(A_1(t), A_2(t), \dots, A_n(t)) \\
\vdots \\
A_n(t+1) = f_n(A_1(t), A_2(t), \dots, A_n(t)),
\end{cases} (3)$$

where f_i , i = 1, 2, ..., n are *n*-ary *k*-valued logical functions.

One of the main tools we used is semitensor product, which is a generalization of conventional matrix product [Cheng & Qi, 2007]. For the sake of completeness, we will review it briefly in Sec. 2. When k = 2, the network becomes a Boolean network. Using semi-tensor product and the matrix expression of logic, the topological structure, including the fixed points, cycles and transient period, has been revealed by providing easily computable formulas for corresponding issues. This approach can also be used to the synthesis of Boolean control networks. Some related topics such as controllability and observability, etc. are also studied. We refer to [Cheng, 2009; Cheng & Qi, 2009a, 2009b] for details.

This paper considers the logical network, whose nodes can take more than two values. The paper extends the results obtained in [Cheng, 2009; Cheng & Qi, 2009a, 2009b] to multivalued networks. Using matrix approach, the topological structure of k-valued networks is revealed by providing precise formulas. Then some characteristics of the networks are discussed. Finally, the k-valued control networks are investigated and necessary and sufficient conditions for controllability are presented.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives a brief review on the semi-tensor product and the algebraic expression of logical operator. In Sec. 3, the dynamics of a k-valued network is converted into a standard discrete-time linear system. In Sec. 4 formulas are obtained to calculate (a) the number of equilibriums; (b) the numbers of cycles of different lengths; (c) transient time. The formulas for constructing them are also presented. In Sec. 5, it is proved that the k-valued network can be reconstructed from its network transition matrix L, and an algorithm is presented. In Sec. 6, the controllability of k-valued control networks is investigated. Section 7 is a brief conclusion.

2. Preliminaries

2.1. Semi-tensor product

This section is a brief review on semi-tensor product (STP) of matrices. STP was first introduced by [Cheng & Qi, 2007], and it plays a fundamental role in the following discussion. We restrict this review to the concepts and some basic properties, which are useful in the sequel. In addition, only left semi-tensor product for multiple-dimension case is considered in the paper. We refer to [Cheng, 2007; Cheng & Qi, 2007] for right semi-tensor product, general dimension case and more details. Throughout this paper "semi-tensor product" means the left semi-tensor product.

Definition 2.1

Let X be a row vector of dimension np, and Y be a column vector with dimension p. Then we split X into p equal-size blocks as X¹,..., X^p, which are 1 × n rows. Define the STP, denoted by κ, as

$$\begin{cases} X \ltimes Y = \sum_{i=1}^{p} X^{i} y_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \\ Y^{T} \ltimes X^{T} = \sum_{i=1}^{p} y_{i} (X^{i})^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}. \end{cases}$$
(4)

(2) Let $A \in M_{m \times n}$ and $B \in M_{p \times q}$. If either *n* is a factor of *p*, say nt = p and denote it as $A \prec_t B$, or *p* is a factor of *n*, say n = pt and denote it as $A \succ_t B$, then we define the STP of *A* and *B*, denoted by $C = A \ltimes B$, as the following: *C*

consists of $m \times q$ blocks as $C = (C^{ij})$ and each block is

$$C^{ij} = A^i \ltimes B_j, \quad i = 1, \dots, m, \quad j = 1, \dots, q,$$

where A^i is *i*th row of A and B_j is the *j*th column of B.

We use some simple numerical examples to describe it.

Example 2.2

(1) Let
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $Y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Then
 $X \ltimes Y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot 1 + \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot 2 = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

(2) Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then

$$A \ltimes B = \begin{bmatrix} (1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} & (1 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ (2 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} & (2 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2) \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ (3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} & (2 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2) \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ (3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} & (3 \ 2 \ 1 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 3 \ 4 \ -3 \ -5 \\ 4 \ 7 \ -5 \ -8 \\ 5 \ 2 \ -7 \ -4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Remark 2.3. Note that when n = p the STP coincides with the conventional matrix product. Therefore, the STP is only a generalization of traditional matrix product.

Some fundamental properties of the STP are collected in the following, which coincide with that of conventional matrix product.

Proposition 2.4. The STP satisfies (as long as the related products are well defined)

(1) (Distributive rule)

$$A \ltimes (\alpha B + \beta C) = \alpha A \ltimes B + \beta A \ltimes C,$$

$$(\alpha B + \beta C) \ltimes A = \alpha B \ltimes A + \beta C \ltimes A,$$

$$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}.$$
 (5)

(2) (Associative rule)

$$A \ltimes (B \ltimes C) = (A \ltimes B) \ltimes C. \tag{6}$$

Proposition 2.5. Let $A \in M_{p \times q}$ and $B \in M_{m \times n}$. If q = km, then

$$A \ltimes B = A(B \otimes I_k),\tag{7}$$

If kq = m, then

$$A \ltimes B = (A \otimes I_k)B. \tag{8}$$

Proposition 2.6

 Assume A and B are of proper dimensions such that A × B is well defined, then

$$(A \ltimes B)^T = B^T \ltimes A^T, \tag{9}$$

(2) In addition, assume both A and B are invertible, then

$$(A \ltimes B)^{-1} = B^{-1} \ltimes A^{-1}.$$
 (10)

Proposition 2.7. Assume $A \in M_{m \times n}$ is given.

(1) Let $Z \in \mathbb{R}^t$ be a row vector, then

$$A \ltimes Z = Z \ltimes (I_t \otimes A), \tag{11}$$

(2) Let $Z \in \mathbb{R}^t$ be a column vector, then

$$Z \ltimes A = (I_t \otimes A) \ltimes Z. \tag{12}$$

Next we define the concept of swap matrix, which is also called the permutation matrix and is defined implicitly in [Magnus & Neudecker, 1999]. Many properties can be found in [Cheng, 2002; Cheng & Qi, 2007]. The swap matrix $W_{[m,n]}$ is an $mn \times mn$ matrix constructed in the following way: label its columns by $(11, 12, \ldots, 1n, \ldots, m1,$ $m2, \ldots, mn)$ and its rows by $(11, 21, \ldots, m1, \ldots, 1n,$ $2n, \ldots, mn)$. Then its element in the position ((I, J), (i, j)) is assigned as

$$w_{(IJ),(ij)} = \delta_{i,j}^{I,J} = \begin{cases} 1, & I = i \text{ and } J = j, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(13)

When m = n, we simply denote by $W_{[n]}$ for $W_{[n,n]}$.

Example 2.8. Let m = 2 and n = 3, the swap matrix $W_{[2,3]}$ is constructed as

	(11)	(12)	(13)	(21)	(22)	(23)	
	1	0	0	0	0	0	(11)
W.	0	0	0	1	0	0	(21)
	0	1	0	0	0	0	(12)
VV [2,3] —	0	0	0	0	1	0	(22).
	0	0	1	0	0	0	(13)
	0	0	0	0	0	1	$ \begin{array}{c} (11) \\ (21) \\ (12) \\ (22) \\ (13) \\ (23) \end{array} $

Let $A \in M_{m \times n}$, i.e. A is an $m \times n$ matrix. Denote by $V_r(A)$ the row stacking form of A, that is,

$$V_r(A) = (a_{11} \cdots a_{1n} \cdots a_{m1} \cdots a_{mn})^T,$$

and by $V_c(A)$ the column stacking form of A, that is,

$$V_c(A) = (a_{11} \cdots a_{m1} \cdots a_{1n} \cdots a_{mn})^T.$$

The following "swap" property shows the meaning of the name.

Proposition 2.9

(1) Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $Y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be two columns, then

$$W_{[m,n]} \ltimes X \ltimes Y = Y \ltimes X, W_{[n,m]} \ltimes Y \ltimes X = X \ltimes Y.$$
(14)

(2) Let $A \in M_{m \times n}$, then

$$W_{[m,n]}V_{r}(A) = V_{c}(A), W_{[n,m]}V_{c}(A) = V_{r}(A).$$
(15)

(3) Let
$$X_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}$$
, $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Then

$$(I_{n_1+\dots+n_{k-1}} \otimes W_{[n_k,n_{k+1}]} \otimes I_{n_{k+2}+\dots+n_m}) \times X_1 \ltimes \dots \ltimes X_k \ltimes X_{k+1} \ltimes \dots \ltimes X_m$$
$$= X_1 \ltimes \dots \ltimes X_{k+1} \ltimes X_k \ltimes \dots \ltimes X_m.$$
(16)

Proposition 2.10

$$W_{[m,n]}^T = W_{[m,n]}^{-1} = W_{[n,m]}.$$
 (17)

Proposition 2.11

$$W_{[pq,r]} = (W_{[p,r]} \otimes I_q)(I_p \otimes W_{[q,r]}).$$
 (18)

Taking transpose on both sides of (18) yields

$$W_{[r,pq]} = (I_p \otimes W_{[r,q]})(W_{[r,p]} \otimes I_q).$$
(19)

The swap matrix can be constructed by the following method: Denote the *i*th canonical basic element in \mathbb{R}^n by δ_i^n . That is, δ_n^i is the *i*th column of I_n . Then we have

Proposition 2.12

$$W_{[m,n]} = (\delta_n^1 \ltimes \delta_m^1 \cdots \delta_n^n \ltimes \delta_m^1 \cdots \delta_n^1 \ltimes \delta_m^m \cdots \delta_n^n \ltimes \delta_m^m).$$
(20)

In [Magnus & Neudecker, 1999], (20) is used as the definition.

Using swap matrix, we can prove that

Proposition 2.13. Let $A \in M_{m \times n}$ and $B \in M_{s \times t}$. Then

$$A \otimes B = W_{[s,m]} \ltimes B \ltimes W_{[m,t]} \ltimes A$$
$$= (I_m \otimes B) \ltimes A.$$
(21)

If
$$X \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
, $Y^T \in \mathbb{R}^m$, then
 $X \ltimes Y = Y \ltimes W_{[n,m]} \ltimes X.$ (22)

Remark 2.14

- (1) Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^m, Y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be two column (or row) vectors. Then $X \ltimes Y$ is always well defined.
- (2) Throughout this paper, the matrix product is assumed to be semi-tensor product. For notational compactness, hereafter in most cases the symbol "κ" is omitted.

2.2. Matrix expression of k-valued logic

Now we consider the matrix expression of k-valued logic. Similar to Boolean logic, we will show that as the k-valued logical variables are expressed as vectors, the logical operators can also be determined by their structure matrix. Then the action of an operator can be performed as the product of its structure matrix with argument vectors. We refer to [Cheng & Qi, 2007] for this matrix expression.

We need some necessary notations and preresults for the matrix expression of k-valued logic.

Definition 2.15

(1) The domain of a k-valued logic, denoted by D_k , is

$$D_k = \left\{ T = 1, \frac{k-2}{k-1}, \dots, \frac{1}{k-1}, F = 0 \right\}.$$
(23)

(2) An *n*-ary *k*-valued logical operator is a function $f: D_k^n \to D_k$, where *n* is called the arity of *f*, denoted by ar(f) = n [Barnes, 1975].

To use matrix expression we identify the elements in D_k with a k-dimensional vector as $T = 1 \sim \delta_k^1$, $(k - 2/k - 1) \sim \delta_k^2$, ..., $F = 0 \sim \delta_k^k$, where δ_k^i is the *i*th column of the identity matrix I_k . Denote the set of such vectors as

$$\Delta_k := \{\delta_k^1, \delta_k^2, \dots, \delta_k^k\}.$$

We use (k - i/k - 1) or δ_k^i alternatively for the value of a k-valued logical variables without explanation. The D_k and Δ_k will be used freely according to the variable types.

Using this vector expression, we can define the structure matrix of a k-valued logical operator.

First, we define some basic logical operators.

Definition 2.16. The following operators are defined using scalar value expression of logical variables.

• An anary logical operator $\neg : D_k \to D_k$, called the negation, is defined as

$$\neg(P) = \neg P := 1 - P$$

• A binary logical operator $\wedge : D_k^2 \to D_k$, called the conjunction, is defined as

$$\wedge (P,Q) = P \wedge Q := \min(P,Q);$$

• A binary logical operator $\vee : D_k^2 \to D_k$, called the disjunction, is defined as

$$\lor (P,Q) = P \lor Q := \max(P,Q);$$

• An anary logical operator $\nabla_i : D_k \to D_k, i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, is defined as

$$\nabla_i(P) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{when } P = \frac{k-i}{k-1}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Definition 2.17. An anary operator $\oslash : D_k \to D_k$, called the rotator, is defined as

$$\oslash(P) := \begin{cases} P + \frac{1}{k-1}, & P \neq 1, \\ 0, & P = 1. \end{cases}$$

Remark 2.18. In general, there are k^{k^n} n-ary k-valued logical operators. In Definitions 2.16 and 2.17, we give only a few of them. They are commonly used. Moreover, we can prove that they form a complete set [Luo, 1992]. Precisely speaking, all other k-valued logical operators can be expressed as combinations of $\{\oslash, \land, \lor\}$. Roughly speaking, they are enough to express any k-valued logical operators.

Definition 2.19. A $k \times k^s$ matrix M_{σ} is called the structure matrix of an *s*-ary *k*-valued logical operator σ , if

$$\sigma(P_1, P_2, \dots, P_s) = M_{\sigma} P_1 P_2 \cdots P_s, \qquad (24)$$

where $P_1, \ldots, P_s \in \Delta_k$. Like in the Boolean logic case, if a structure matrix exists, it uniquely determines the k-valued logical operator [Cheng & Qi, 2007].

It is easy to check by direct computation that, for each operator we can construct its structure matrix. For notational ease, we let k = 3 and give the truth table for the operators in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1. Truth table of 3-valued anary operators.

Р	$\neg(P)$	$\oslash(P)$	$\nabla_1(P)$	$\nabla_2(P)$	$\nabla_3(P)$
1	0	0	1	0	0
0.5	0.5	1	0	1	0
0	1	0.5	0	0	1

Converting the values in truth table into vector forms yields their structure matrices. For instance, for negative operator \neg , we have

$$M_{\neg} = M_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1\\ 0 & 1 & 0\\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example 2.20. When $P = \delta_3^1$,

$$\neg(P) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \delta_3^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Definition 2.21. A $k \times s$ matrix is called a logical matrix, if its columns, Col(A), are of the form δ_k^i , i.e.

$$\operatorname{Col}(A) \subset \Delta_k.$$

The set of $k \times s$ logical matrixes is denoted by $\mathcal{L}_{k \times s}$. Let $A \in \mathcal{L}_{k \times s}$. Then A has its columns of $\delta_k^{i_j}$, $j = 1, \ldots, s$. For notational compactness, we denote it as

$$A = \delta_k [i_1 \quad i_2 \quad \cdots \quad i_s].$$

Using this notation, we have $M_n := M_{\neg} = \delta_3[3 \ 2 \ 1]$. Similarly, we have

$$\begin{split} M_o &:= M_{\oslash} = \delta_3 [3 \quad 1 \quad 2], \\ M_c &:= M_{\wedge} = \delta_3 [1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 2 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 3], \\ M_d &:= M_{\vee} = \delta_3 [1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3]. \end{split}$$

Table 2.	Truth	table of 3-valued
binary op	erators	ò.

Q	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$
1	1	1
0.5	0.5	1
0	0	1
1	0.5	1
0.5	0.5	0.5
0	0	0.5
1	0	1
0.5	0	0.5
0	0	0
	1 0.5 0 1 0.5 0 1	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Similar to the Boolean case, for k-valued logic, we also need the power-reducing matrix, defined as

$$M_{r_{k}} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_{k}^{1} & 0_{k} & \cdots & 0_{k} \\ 0_{k} & \delta_{k}^{2} & \cdots & 0_{k} \\ \vdots & & & \\ 0_{k} & 0_{k} & \cdots & \delta_{k}^{k} \end{bmatrix},$$
(25)

where $0_k \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $M_{r_k} \in \mathcal{L}_{k^2 \times k}$.

As its name implies, it is easy to check that

Lemma 2.22. Let
$$P \in \Delta_k$$
. Then we have
 $P^2 = M_{r_k} P.$ (26)

For being compact, denote by $M_{r_k} := M_r$. Using the above lemma, we can prove the following [Cheng & Qi, 2007]:

Theorem 2.23 [Cheng & Qi, 2007]. Any k-valued sary logical operator $L(P_1, \ldots, P_s)$, with logical variables $P_1, \ldots, P_s \in \Delta_k$, can be expressed in a canonical form as

$$L(P_1,\ldots,P_s) = M_L P_1 P_2 \cdots P_s, \qquad (27)$$

where $M_L \in \mathcal{L}_{k \times k^s}$, called the structure matrix of L.

Remark 2.24. In Boolean logic, we have $A \to B = (\neg A) \lor B$ and $A \leftrightarrow B = (A \to B) \land (B \to A)$. If we use them as the definitions of implication and equivalence for k-valued logic, when k = 3, we have

 $M_i = M_d M_n = \delta_3 [1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 2 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1],$

and

$$M_e = M_c M_i (I_9 \otimes M_i) (I_3 \otimes M_r) (I_3 \otimes W_{[3]}) M_r$$

= $\delta_3 [1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 2 \ 2 \ 3 \ 2 \ 1].$

In Table 3, we list the structure matrixes for some basic logical operators (when k = 3), which are used in the sequel.

Table 3. Some matrix of operators (k = 3).

Operator	Structure Matrix	
\bigtriangledown \bigtriangledown ∇_1 ∇_2 ∇_3	$M_n = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $M_o = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $M_{\nabla_1} = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $M_{\nabla_2} = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ $M_{\nabla_3} = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$	
$\begin{array}{c} \lor \\ \land \\ \rightarrow \\ \leftrightarrow \end{array}$	$\begin{split} M_d &= \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ M_c &= \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ M_c &= \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ M_e &= \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$	-

3. Algebra Form of Multivalued Networks

In this section, using semi-tensor-product (STP), we convert the dynamics of a multivalued network (3) into an algebraic form. The technique is the same as the one for Boolean networks. We use some examples to depict this.

Example 3.1. Consider the following *k*-valued network

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = A(t) \\
B(t+1) = A(t) \to C(t) \\
C(t+1) = B(t) \lor D(t) \\
D(t+1) = \neg E(t) \\
E(t+1) = \neg C(t).
\end{cases}$$
(28)

In algebraic form, we have

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = A(t) \\
B(t+1) = M_i A(t) C(t) \\
C(t+1) = M_d B(t) D(t) \\
D(t+1) = M_n E(t) \\
E(t+1) = M_n C(t).
\end{cases}$$
(29)

where M_i, M_d, M_n are structure matrixes for the corresponding logical operators defined in the above section.

Define x(t) = A(t)B(t)C(t)D(t)E(t). Then we have

$$x(t+1) = A(t)M_iA(t)C(t)M_dB(t)D(t) \times M_nE(t)M_nC(t).$$
(30)

Using the pseudo-commutative property of semi-tensor product, say Proposition 2.7 etc., we can move $A(t), B(t), \ldots, E(t)$ to the last part of the product in the right-hand side of (30). Then use the power-reducing matrix to reduce the powers of $A(t), B(t), \ldots, E(t)$ to 1. Finally, we have

$$x(t+1) = Lx(t),$$

where

$$L = (I_k \otimes M_i) M_r (I_k \otimes (I_k \otimes M_d (I_k \otimes (I_k \otimes M_n (I_k \otimes M_n (I_k \otimes M_n))))) (I_k \otimes W_{[k]}) \times (I_{k^4} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_{k^3} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_k \otimes (I_k \otimes M_r)).$$

L

When k is decided,	we can calculate	the network matrix	L. Say, $k = 3, I$	L is a 243×243 matrix as

$ = \delta_{243} [9] $	6	3	9	6	3	9	6	3	35
32	29	35	32	29	35	32	29	61	58
55	61	58	55	61	58	55	9	6	3
18	15	12	18	15	12	35	32	29	44
41	38	44	41	38	61	58	55	70	67
4	70	67	64	9	6	3	18	15	12
27	24	21	35	32	29	44	41	38	53
50	47	61	58	55	70	67	64	79	76
73	90	87	84	90	87	84	90	87	84
116	113	110	116	113	110	116	113	110	115
112	109	115	112	109	115	112	109	90	87
84	99	96	93	99	96	93	116	1131	10
125	122	119	125	122	119	115	112	109	124
121	118	124	121	118	90	87	84	99	96
93	108	105	102	116	113	110	125	122	119
134	131	128	115	112	109	124	121	118	133
130	127	171	168	165	171	168	165	171	168
165	170	167	164	170	167	164	170	167	164
169	166	163	169	166	163	169	166	163	171
168	165	180	177	174	180	177	174	170	167
164	179	176	173	179	176	173	169	166	163
178	175	172	178	175	172	171	168	165	180
177	174	189	186	183	170	167	164	179	176
173	188	185	182	169	166	163	178	175	172
187	184	181].							

Example 3.2. Consider the following *k*-valued network

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = B(t) \\
B(t+1) = (D(t) \to \neg C(t)) \lor A(t) \\
C(t+1) = B(t) \leftrightarrow D(t) \\
D(t+1) = \neg A(t) \\
E(t+1) = \neg C(t).
\end{cases}$$
(31)

In algebraic form, we have

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = B(t) \\
B(t+1) = M_d M_i D(t) M_n C(t) A(t) \\
C(t+1) = M_e B(t) D(t) \\
D(t+1) = M_n A(t) \\
E(t+1) = M_n C(t).
\end{cases}$$
(32)

Define
$$x(t) = A(t)B(t)C(t)D(t)E(t)$$
. We have

 $x(t+1) = B(t)(M_d M_i D M_n C(t) A(t))(M_e B(t) D(t))$ $\times (M_n A(t))(M_n C(t)).$ (33)

Since there is no E(t) on the left-hand side, we have to formally add it.

As in the Boolean case, we need a dummy operator to add some fabricated variables into the righthand side of Eq. (33) when these variables do not appear. Define

$$E_d := \underbrace{[I_k \ I_k \ \cdots \ I_k]}_k := \delta_k [\underbrace{1 \ \cdots \ k}_k \ \cdots \ \underbrace{1 \ \cdots \ k}_k].$$
(34)

A straightforward computation shows that

Proposition 3.3

$$E_d PQ = Q, \quad P, Q \in \Delta_k.$$
 (35)

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Similar to the Boolean case [Cheng, 2009], we can prove the following power-reducing formula by mathematical induction.

Lemma 3.4. Assume
$$P_{\ell} = A_1 A_2 \cdots A_{\ell}$$
, where $A_i \in \Delta_k$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, \ell$, then

$$P_{\ell}^2 = \Phi_{\ell} P_{\ell}, \tag{36}$$

where

$$\Phi_{\ell} = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \left(I_{k^{i-1}} \otimes \left[I_k \otimes W_{[k,k^{\ell-i}]} M_{r_k} \right] \right).$$

In the following, we give a universal method to convert the network dynamics to a discrete system. For a network described by Eq. (3), using semi-tensor product, we can convert Eq. (3) into an algebraic form. Define

$$x(t) = A_1(t)A_2(t)\cdots A_n(t).$$

Using Theorem 2.23, we can find structure matrixes, $M_i = M_{f_i}$, i = 1, ..., n, such that

$$A_i(t+1) = M_i x(t), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$
 (37)

Using Lemma 3.4, a straightforward computation shows the following:

Proposition 3.5. Equation (3) can be expressed as

$$x(t+1) = Lx(t), \quad x \in \Delta_{k^n}, \tag{38}$$

where the system coefficient matrix L is

$$L = M_1 \prod_{j=2}^{n} [(I_k \otimes M_j) \Phi_n].$$

Proof. Note that from Lemma 3.4 we have

$$x(t)^2 = \Phi_n x(t).$$

Now

$$x(t+1) = M_1 x(t) M_2 x(t) \cdots M_n x(t)$$

= $M_1 (I_k \otimes M_2) x(t)^2 M_3 x(t) \cdots M_n x(t)$
= \cdots

$$= M_1(I_k \otimes M_2) \Phi_n(I_k \otimes M_3) \Phi_n \cdots \times (I_k \otimes M_n) \Phi_n x(t).$$

 So

$$L = M_1(I_k \otimes M_2)\Phi_n(I_k \otimes M_3)\Phi_n \cdots (I_k \otimes M_n)\Phi_n$$
$$= M_1 \prod_{j=2}^n [(I_k \otimes M_j)\Phi_n].$$

We call the system coefficient matrix L of Eq. (38) the network transition matrix. For a particular system, we may get the network transition matrix by a direct computation.

Example 3.6. Reconsider Example 3.2, we add E(t) by using dummy matrix E_d .

$$\begin{aligned} x(t+1) &= B(t)(M_d M_i D M_n C(t) A(t)) \\ &\times (M_e B(t) D(t))(M_n A(t))(M_n C(t)) \\ &= B(t)(M_d M_i D M_n C(t) A(t))(M_e B(t) D(t)) \\ &\times (M_n A(t))(M_n E_d E(t) C(t)). \end{aligned}$$

Using the same technique as in Example 3.1, we have

$$x(t+1) = Lx(t),$$

where

$$\begin{split} L &= (I_k \otimes M_d M_i (I_k \otimes M_n (I_k \otimes (I_k \otimes M_e \\ &\times (I_k \otimes (I_k \otimes M_n (I_k \otimes M_n E_d)))))) (I_{k^2} \otimes W_{[k]}) \\ &\times (I_k \otimes W_{[k]}) W_{[k]} (I_{k^5} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_{k^4} \otimes W_{[k]}) \\ &\times (I_{k^3} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_{k^2} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_k \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_{k^4} \otimes W_{[k]}) \\ &\times (I_{k^3} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_{k^4} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_{k^7} \otimes W_{[k]}) (I_{k^6} \otimes W_{[k]}) \\ &\times (I_{k^5} \otimes W_{[k]}) M_r (I_k \otimes M_r (I_k \otimes M_r (I_k \otimes M_r))). \end{split}$$

When k = 3, we can compute

$L = \delta_{243}[9$	9	9	18	18	18	27	27	27	8
8	8	17	17	17	26	26	26	7	7
7	16	16	16	25	25	25	99	99	99
99	99	99	99	99	99	98	98	98	98
98	98	98	98	98	97	97	97	97	97
97	97	97	97	189	189	189	180	180	180
171	171	171	188	188	188	179	179	179	170
170	170	187	187	187	178	178	178	169	169

169	33	33	33	42	42	42	24	24	24
32	32	32	41	41	41	23	23	23	4
4	4	13	13	13	22	22	22	123	123
123	123	123	123	96	96	96	122	122	122
122	122	122	95	95	95	94	94	94	94
94	94	94	94	94	213	213	213	204	204
204	168	168	168	212	212	212	203	203	203
167	167	167	184	184	184	175	175	175	166
166	166	57	57	57	39	39	39	21	21
21	29	29	29	38	38	38	20	20	20
1	1	1	10	10	10	19	19	19	147
147	147	120	120	120	93	93	93	119	119
119	119	119	119	92	92	92	91	91	91
91	91	91	91	91	91	237	237	237	201
201	201	165	165	165	209	209	209	200	200
200	164	164	164	181	181	181	172	172	172
163	163	163].							

4. Attractors and Transient Period

This section considers the attractors and transient period of k-valued networks. As in the study of Boolean network, the attractors in k-valued networks are also important. We will use the algebraic form [Eq. (38)] to investigate these. Now we have to answer such a question: Is the original logical system equivalent to its algebraic form? Using the properties of semi-tensor product, it is easy to prove the following proposition, which shows how to calculate $A_i(t)$ from x(t). Then one sees easily that x(t) contains the same information as the set $\{A_1(t), A_2(t), \ldots, A_n(t)\}$.

Proposition 4.1

(1) The state, x(t), is of the form of $\delta_{k^n}^i$. Precisely,

$$x(t) \in \Delta_{k^n}, \quad \forall t \ge 0. \tag{39}$$

(2) Assume $x(t) = \delta_{k^n}^i$. Define $b_0 := k^n - i$, then $A_j(t)$ can be calculated inductively (in scalar form) as

$$\begin{cases} a_j(t) = \left[\frac{b_{j-1}}{k^{n-j}}\right], \\ b_j = b_{j-1} - a_j * k^{n-j}, \\ A_j = a_j/(k-1), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n \end{cases}$$
(40)

where in the first equation [a] is the largest integer less than or equal to a.

We give an example to explain how to use the above algorithm.

Example 4.2. Assume $x = A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4 A_5$ and $x = \delta_{243}^{17}$. Then $b_0 = 243 - 17 = 226$. It follows that

$$\begin{cases} a_1 = \left[\frac{b_0}{3^4}\right] = 2, \\ A_1 = 1, \\ b_1 = b_0 - a_1 * (3^4) = 64, \\ a_2 = \left[\frac{b_1}{3^3}\right] = 2, \\ A_2 = 1, \\ b_2 = b_1 - a_2 * 3^3 = 10, \end{cases}$$
$$\begin{cases} a_3 = \left[\frac{b_2}{3^2}\right] = 1, \\ A_3 = 0.5, \\ b_3 = b_2 - a_3 * 3^2 = 1, \end{cases}$$
$$\begin{cases} a_4 = \left[\frac{b_3}{3}\right] = 0, \\ A_4 = 0, \\ b_4 = b_3 - a_4 * 3 = 1, \end{cases}$$
$$\begin{cases} a_5 = \left[\frac{b_4}{1}\right] = 1, \\ A_5 = 0.5. \end{cases}$$

We conclude that $A_1 = 1 \sim (1, 0, 0)^T$, $A_2 = 1 \sim (1, 0, 0)^T$, $A_3 = 0.5 \sim (0, 1, 0)^T$, $A_4 = 0 \sim (0, 0, 1)^T$, and $A_5 = 0.5 \sim (0, 1, 0)^T$.

Using the same technique developed for Boolean network, we can obtain the following results for cycles and transient period.

Theorem 4.3. Consider the k-valued network (3).

δⁱ_{kn} is its fixed point, iff in its algebraic form
 (38) the diagonal element l_{ii} of network matrix
 L equals to 1. It follows that the number of
 equilibriums of system (3), denoted by N_e, is
 equal to the number of i, for which l_{ii} = 1.
 Equivalently,

$$N_e = \operatorname{Trace}(L). \tag{41}$$

(2) The number of length s cycles, N_s , is inductively determined by

$$\begin{cases} N_1 = N_e, \\ \operatorname{Trace}(L^s) - \sum_{t \in \mathcal{P}(s)} tN_t \\ N_s = \frac{t \in \mathcal{P}(s)}{s}, \quad 2 \le s \le k^n, \end{cases}$$
(42)

where $\mathcal{P}(s)$ is set of proper factors of s, that is, a positive integer $t \in \mathcal{P}(s)$ iff t < s and s/tis an integer. For example, $\mathcal{P}(6) = \{1, 2, 3\},$ $\mathcal{P}(10) = \{1, 2, 5\}.$

(3) The elements on cycles of length s, denoted by C_s , is

$$\mathcal{C}_s = \mathcal{D}_a(L^s) \setminus \bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{P}(s)} \mathcal{D}_a(L^t), \qquad (43)$$

where $\mathcal{D}_a(L)$ is the set of diagonal nonzero columns of L.

Theorem 4.4. For system (3) the transient period is

$$T_t = r_0 = \min\{r \, | L^r \in \{L^{r+1}, L^{r+2}, \dots, L^{k^n}\}\}.$$
(44)

Moreover, let T > 0 be the smallest positive number, which implies $L^{r_0} = L^{r_0+T}$. Then T is the least common multiplier of the lengths of all cycles.

We give an example to illustrate how to find the fixed points and cycles in k-valued network by using the above theorems. **Example 4.5.** Consider the following 3-valued network

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = C(t) \land (\neg D(t)) \\
B(t+1) = (A(t) \leftrightarrow B(t)) \land D(t) \\
C(t+1) = \neg A(t) \\
D(t+1) = B(t) \lor C(t).
\end{cases}$$
(45)

Define x(t) = A(t)B(t)C(t)D(t). It is easy to calculate that

$$\begin{aligned} x(t+1) &= [M_c C(t) M_n D(t)] [M_c M_e A(t) B(t) D(t)] \\ &\times [M_n A(t)] [M_d B(t) C(t)] \\ &= L x(t). \end{aligned}$$

where $L \in \mathcal{L}_{3^4 \times 3^4}$. L can be calculated as

$L = \delta_{81}[61$	43	25	61	43	52	61
70	79	70	43	25	71	44
53	71	71	80	79	52	25
80	53	53	81	81	81	67
40	22	67	40	49	67	67
76	67	40	22	68	41	50
68	68	77	67	40	22	68
41	50	69	69	78	73	46
19	73	46	46	73	73	73
64	37	19	65	38	47	65
65	74	55	37	19	56	38
47	57	66	75].			

Then it can be readily checked that

$$\begin{cases} \operatorname{Trace}(L^{6k+1}) = 2, & k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ \operatorname{Trace}(L^{6k+2}) = 4, & k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ \operatorname{Trace}(L^{6k+3}) = 11, & k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ \operatorname{Trace}(L^{6k+4}) = 4, & k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ \operatorname{Trace}(L^{6k+5}) = 2, & k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ \operatorname{Trace}(L^{6k}) = 13, & k = 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$$
(46)

From Theorem 4.3, we conclude that the network has two fixed points, one cycle of length 2, three cycles of length 3.

Denote the *i*th column of L as L_i , because $L_{41} = \delta_{81}^{41}$ and $L_{64} = \delta_{81}^{64}$. Hence, the two fixed points are

$$\delta_{81}^{41} \sim (0.5 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5), \quad \delta_{81}^{64} \sim (0 \quad 0.5 \quad 1 \quad 1).$$

Next, we can find the cycles. Consider L^2 . It is easy to figure out that $(L^2)_{41} = \delta_{81}^{41}$, $(L^2)_{64} = \delta_{81}^{64}$, $(L^2)_{55} = \delta_{81}^{55}$, $(L^2)_{73} = \delta_{81}^{73}$. We should note that δ_{81}^{41} and δ_{81}^{64} are two fixed points. For δ_{81}^{55} and δ_{81}^{73} , it follows that

$$L\delta_{81}^{55} = \delta_{81}^{73}, \quad L\delta_{81}^{73} = \delta_{81}^{55}.$$

Using formula (40) to convert δ_{81}^{55} and δ_{81}^{73} back to ternary form, we have $\delta_{81}^{55} \sim (0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1), \ \delta_{81}^{73} \sim (0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1).$

So the cycle of length 2 is

$$\delta_{81}^{55} \rightarrow \delta_{81}^{73} \rightarrow \delta_{81}^{55},$$

and the corresponding state expression is

$$(0\ 1\ 1\ 1) \to (0\ 0\ 1\ 1) \to (0\ 1\ 1\ 1).$$

Similarly, since δ_{81}^{19} is a diagonal nonzero column of L^3 , then δ_{81}^{19} , $L\delta_{81}^{19} = \delta_{81}^{79}$, $L^2\delta_{81}^{19} = \delta_{81}^{57}$, $L^3\delta_{81}^{19} = \delta_{81}^{19}$ form a cycle of length 3. Converting them to ternary form yields the following cycle:

$$(1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1) \to (0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1) \to (0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0) \to (1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1).$$

We can also use δ_{81}^{79} or δ_{81}^{57} to generate the above cycle of length 3. Using the same method, the other two cycles of length 3 are obtained as

Finally, we consider the transient period. Since it is easy to check that the first repeating L^t is $L^4 = L^{10}$, then $r_0 = 4$. This ensures that, from any initial state, the trajectory will enter into an attractor after at most four steps.

Example 4.6. Recall Example 3.1. It is easy to check that

$$Trace(L^t) = 6, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots$$

Using Theorem 4.3, we conclude that there are six fixed points and no other attractors. Moreover, we can find out the fixed points in the following way.

Consider the transition matrix L. It is easy to figure out that the 3rd, 41st, 79th, 84th, 122ed, 165th columns of L are diagonal nonzero columns. So the six fixed points are $\delta_{35}^3, \delta_{35}^{41}, \delta_{35}^{79}, \delta_{35}^{84}, \delta_{35}^{122}, \delta_{35}^{165}$. Using Proposition 4.1, we can convert the fixed points back to standard form as

$$E_{1} = (1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0),$$

$$E_{2} = (1 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5),$$

$$E_{3} = (1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1),$$

$$E_{4} = (0.5 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0),$$

$$E_{5} = (0.5 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5 \quad 0.5),$$

$$E_{6} = (0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0).$$

It is easy to check that the first repeating L^k is $L^6 = L^7$, then $r_0 = 6$. That is $T_t = 6, T = 1$. So the transient period is 6, which means that from any initial state, the trajectory will enter an attractor after at most six steps.

5. Network Reconstruction

Assume for a k-valued logical system the network matrix L is given. We have to reconstruct the logical network and its dynamics from the network matrix. Denoting a set of column vectors as

$$\Omega_i^k = [\underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_i, \underbrace{2, \dots, 2}_i, \dots, \underbrace{k, \dots, k}_i].$$

Define a set of matrices, called the retrievers, as

$$S_{1}^{n} = \delta_{k}[\Omega_{k^{n-1}}^{k}];$$

$$S_{2}^{n} = \delta_{k}[\underbrace{\Omega_{k^{n-2}}^{k}, \dots, \Omega_{k^{n-2}}^{k}}_{k}];$$

$$\vdots$$

$$S_{n}^{n} = \delta_{k}[\underbrace{\Omega_{1}^{k}, \dots, \Omega_{1}^{k}}_{k^{n-1}}].$$

$$(47)$$

For example, when n = 2 and k = 3, $\Omega_{3^{2-1}}^3 = \Omega_3^3 = [1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3]$, $\Omega_{3^{2-2}}^3 = \Omega_1^3 = [1, 2, 3]$. Hence,

$$S_1^2 = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix};$$

$$S_2^2 = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Using them, we have

Proposition 5.1. Assume the network matrix L of system (38) is known. Then the structure matrix of f_i is

$$M_i = S_i^n L, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$
 (48)

Next, we have to find which node is connected to i. That is, to remove fabricated variables from ith logical equation. We have the following:

Proposition 5.2. Consider system (38). Assume M_i satisfies

$$M_{i}W_{[k,k^{j-1}]}(M_{o} - I_{k}) = 0,$$

$$M_{i}W_{[k,k^{j-1}]}((M_{o})^{2} - I_{k}) = 0,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$M_{i}W_{[k,k^{j-1}]}((M_{o})^{k-1} - I_{k}) = 0,$$
(49)

where M_o is the structure matrix of \oslash . Then the node j is not in the neighborhood of node i. In other words, the edge $j \rightarrow i$ does not exist. Then the equation of A_i can be replaced by

$$A_{i}(t+1) = M'_{i}A_{1}(t)\cdots A_{j-1}(t)A_{j+1}(t)\cdots A_{n}(t),$$
(50)

where

$$M_i' = M_i W_{[k,k^{j-1}]} \delta_k^1.$$

Proof. Using the property of semi-tensor product, we can rewrite the *i*th equation of (3) as

$$A_{i}(t+1) = M_{i}W_{[k,k^{j-1}]}A_{j}(t)A_{1}(t)\cdots$$
$$A_{j-1}(t)A_{j+1}(t)\cdots A_{n}(t).$$

Now we replace $A_j(t)$ by $\nabla_1(A_j(t))$, $\nabla_2(A_j(t))$, ..., $\nabla_{k-1}(A_j(t))$, if it does not affect the overall structure matrix, it means $A_i(t+1)$ is independent of

 $A_j(t)$. The invariance of replacement is depicted by Eq. (49). As for Eq. (50), since $A_j(t)$ does not affect $A_i(t+1)$, we can simply set $A_j(t) = [1, 0, \dots, 0]^T$ (you can set $A_j(t) = [0, \dots, 0, 1]^T$ or any other elements in Δ_k) to simplify the expression.

Example 5.3. Given a 3-valued network with four nodes. Assume its network transition matrix $L \in M_{81 \times 81}$ is

$L = \delta_{81}[3$	6	9	29	41	44	55	67	79
3	3	6	9	29	41	44	28	40
52	3	6	9	2	14	17	1	13
25	6	6	9	32	41	44	58	67
79	6	6	9	32	41	44	31	40
52	6	6	9	5	14	17	4	13
25	9	9	9	35	44	44	61	70
79	9	9	9	35	44	44	34	43
52	9	9	9	8	17	17	$\overline{7}$	16
25].								

We can reconstruct the system as follows. Using retrievers S_i^3 , we have

$$M_i = S_i^3 L, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, 4.$$

A straightforward computation shows that

$M_1 = \delta_3[1$	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	2	2	2
2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3
1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1],			
$M_2 = \delta_3[1$	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	1
1	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	2
1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3
1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3],			
$M_3 = \delta_3[1$	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
1	2	3	1	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3
2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3],			
$M_4 = \delta_3[3$	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	3	3	3
2	2	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	2
1	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
3	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	1].			

Next, to remove fabricated variables, it is easy to verify that

$$\begin{split} M_1 M_o - M_1 &= 0, \quad M_1 (M_o)^2 - M_1 = 0, \\ M_1 W_{[3]} (M_o - I_3) &\neq 0, \quad M_1 W_{[3]} ((M_o)^2 - I_3) \neq 0, \\ M_1 W_{[3,3^2]} (M_o - I_3) &\neq 0, \\ M_1 W_{[3,3^2]} ((M_o)^2 - I_3) \neq 0, \\ M_1 W_{[3,3^3]} (M_o - I_3) &= 0, \\ M_1 W_{[3,3^3]} ((M_o)^2 - I_3) &= 0. \end{split}$$

So we conclude that A(t + 1) depends on B(t) and C(t) only. Using the same procedure, we know that B(t + 1) depends only on C(t) and D(t); C(t + 1) depends only on A(t) and D(t); D(t + 1) depends only on C(t). To remove the fabricated variables A(t) and D(t) from the first equation, we set $A(t) = D(t) = \delta_3^1$ and get

$$A(t+1) = M_1 \delta_3^1 B(t) C(t) \delta_3^1$$

= $M_1 \delta_3^1 W_{[3,9]} \delta_3^1$
= $\delta_3 [1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1]$
 $\times B(t) C(t).$ (51)

In a similar way, we can remove the fabricated variables from the other equations. And finally we get

$$B(t+1) = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

× $C(t)D(t)$,
 $C(t+1) = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ & \times D(t)A(t)$,
 $D(t+1) = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} C(t)$.

Converting back to logical equations, we have

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = B(t) \to C(t), \\
B(t+1) = C(t) \lor D(t), \\
C(t+1) = D(t) \land A(t), \\
D(t+1) = \neg C(t).
\end{cases}$$
(52)

In general, converting an algebraic form back to its logical form is not an easy job. We give a mechanical procedure to do this.

Recall Definition 2.16, it is easy to see that,

$$M_{\nabla_i} = \delta_k[\underbrace{k, \dots, k}_{i-1}, 1, \underbrace{k, \dots, k}_{k-i}], \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$
(53)

Proposition 5.4. Assume a k-valued logical variable L has an algebraic expression as

$$L = L(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n) = M_L A_1 A_2 \cdots A_n,$$
 (54)

where M_L is the structure matrix of logical variable L. Then

$$M_L = [\nabla_1(A_1) \wedge L_1(A_2, \dots, A_n)]$$
$$\vee [\nabla_2(A_1) \wedge L_2(A_2, \dots, A_n)] \vee \cdots$$
$$\vee [\nabla_k(A_1) \wedge L_k(A_2, \dots, A_n)],$$

where

$$M_L = (M_{L_1}|M_{L_2}|\cdots|M_{L_k})$$

Precisely, if we divide the columns of matrix M_L into k equal length blocks, then the structure matrix of L_i is the *i*th block of M_L . That is,

$$L_i(A_2,\ldots,A_n)=M_{L_i}A_2\cdots A_n.$$

Using Proposition 5.4 we can get the logical expression of L recursively. We give an example to describe this.

Example 5.5. Let L be a logical variable, and

$$L = M_L ABCD,$$

where $A, B, C, D \in \Delta_3$ and $M_L = \delta_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$\Lambda_L = \delta_3[1$	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	1	2	2	2
2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	1	3	2	1
3	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2
2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2
3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
3	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	3],			
											(55)

Then

$$M_L = [\nabla_1(A) \wedge L_1(B, C, D)]$$

$$\vee [\nabla_2(A) \wedge L_2(B, C, D)]$$

$$\vee [\nabla_3(A) \wedge L_3(B, C, D)], \qquad (56)$$

and

$$M_{L_3} = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$
(59)

Next, consider L_1

$$L_1(B, C, D) = M_{L_1}BCD$$

= $[\nabla_1(B) \wedge L_{11}(C, D)] \vee [\nabla_2(B)$
 $\wedge L_{12}(C, D) \vee [\nabla_3(B) \wedge L_{13}(C, D)],$
(60)

where

$$\begin{split} M_{L_{11}} &= \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \\ M_{L_{12}} &= \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ M_{L_{13}} &= \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \end{split}$$

Hence, we have

$$L_{11}(C, D) = C \leftrightarrow D,$$

$$L_{12}(C, D) = M_{L_{12}}CD,$$

$$L_{13}(C, D) = \neg D.$$

In the same way, we have the following expression.

$$L_{2}(B, C, D) = [\nabla_{1}(B) \wedge L_{21}(C, D)] \vee [\nabla_{2}(B) \\ \wedge L_{22}(C, D) \vee [\nabla_{3}(B) \wedge L_{23}(C, D)],$$
(61)
$$L_{2}(B, C, D) = [\nabla_{1}(B) \wedge L_{21}(C, D)] \vee [\nabla_{2}(B)$$

$$L_{3}(B, C, D) = [\mathbb{V}_{1}(B) \land L_{31}(C, D)] \lor [\mathbb{V}_{2}(B) \land L_{32}(C, D) \lor [\nabla_{3}(B) \land L_{33}(C, D)].$$
(62)

Putting all together, we have

$$L = [\nabla_1(A) \land [\nabla_1(B) \land L_{11}(C, D)]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_2(B) \land L_{12}(C, D)] \lor [\nabla_3(B) \land L_{13}(C, D)]]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_2(A) \land \nabla_1(B) \land L_{21}(C, D)]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_2(B) \land L_{22}(C, D)] \lor [\nabla_3(B) \land L_{23}(C, D)]]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_3(A) \land \nabla_1(B) \land L_{31}(C, D)]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_2(B) \land L_{32}(C, D)] \lor [\nabla_3(B) \land L_{33}(C, D)]]$$

(63)

Remark 5.6. We can also write down the split form of all binary operators. For instance,

$$L_{12}(C, D) = \delta_3 [2 \ 2 \ 2 \ 2 \ 2 \ 2 \ 3 \ 2 \ 2]CD,$$

$$= [\nabla_1(C) \land \delta_3 [2 \ 2 \ 2]D]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_2(C) \land \delta_3 [2 \ 2 \ 2]D]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_3(C) \land \delta_3 [3 \ 2 \ 2]D],$$

$$= [\nabla_1(C) \land \delta_3^2] \lor [\nabla_2(C) \land \delta_3^2]$$

$$\lor [\nabla_3(C) \land \psi(D)], \qquad (64)$$

where the structure matrix of the anary logical operator ψ is $\delta_3[3 \ 2 \ 2]$.

6. *k*-valued Logical Control Networks

A k-valued logical control network is defined as

$$\begin{cases}
A_1(t+1) = f_1(A_1(t), \dots, A_n(t), \\
u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t)), \\
A_2(t+1) = f_2(A_1(t), \dots, A_n(t), \\
u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t)), \\
\vdots \\
A_n(t+1) = f_n(A_1(t), \dots, A_n(t), \\
u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t));
\end{cases}$$
(65)

and

$$y_j(t) = h_j(A_1(t), A_2(t), \dots, A_n(t)),$$

 $j = 1, 2, \dots, p.$ (66)

where $A_i(t) \in D_k$, $u_i \in D_k$, f_i , i = 1, 2, ..., n, h_j , j = 1, 2, ..., p are k-valued logical functions; y_j , j = 1, 2, ..., p are outputs; u_i , i = 1, 2, ..., m are controls. We may either assume u_i are logical variables satisfying certain logical rule, say

$$\begin{cases} u_1(t+1) = g_1(u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t)), \\ u_2(t+1) = g_2(u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t)), \\ \vdots \\ u_m(t+1) = g_m(u_1(t), u_2(t), \dots, u_m(t)), \end{cases}$$
(67)

or assume $\{u_i\}$ are a sequence of k-valued variables.

In the first case, system (65)–(67) can also be expressed into an algebraic form as

$$\begin{cases} u(t+1) = Gu(t), & u \in \Delta_k^m, \\ x(t+1) = Lu(t)x(t)x(t), & x \in \Delta_k^n, \\ y(t) = Hx(t), & y \in \Delta_k^p. \end{cases}$$
(68)

We give an example.

Example 6.1. Consider the following system

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = u(t) \to B(t), \\
B(t+1) = A(t) \land C(t), \\
C(t+1) = \neg A(t), \\
y(t) = \neg B(t),
\end{cases}$$
(69)

with input network

$$u(t+1) := u(t).$$

We set x(t) = A(t)B(t)C(t), then

$$\begin{aligned} x(t+1) &= A(t+1)B(t+1)C(t+1) \\ &= M_i u(t)B(t)M_c A(t)C(t)M_n A(t) \\ &:= Lu(t)x(x). \end{aligned}$$

Then L can be calculated easily as

$L = \delta_{27}[3$	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27
5	5	8	14	14	17	23	23	26
7	7	7	16	16	16	25	25	25
3	6	9	12	15	18	12	15	18
5	5	8	14	14	17	14	14	17
7	7	7	16	16	16	16	16	16
3	6	9	3	6	9	3	6	9
5	5	8	5	5	8	5	5	8
7	7	7	$\overline{7}$	7	7	7	7	7].

Note that

$$y(t) = M_n B(t) = M_n E_d^2 (I_3 \otimes W_{[3]}) x(t) := H x(t),$$

then

$$H = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Finally, the algebraic form of (69) is obtained as

$$\begin{cases} u(t+1) = u(t), \\ x(t+1) = Lu(t)x(t), \\ y(t) = Hx(t). \end{cases}$$
(70)

Next, we consider the controllability of (65).

Definition 6.2. Consider a k-valued network (65) with control (67). Given the initial state $x(0) = x_0$ and destination state x_d . x_d is said to be reachable from x_0 (in s steps) with fixed (designable) input structure (G), if we can find u_0 (and G), such that $x(u, 0) = x_0$ and $x(u, s) = x_d$ (for some $s \ge 1$).

We use $\Theta^G(t, 0)$ to denote the input-state transfer matrix in k-valued network, which can be calculated as

$$\Theta^{G}(t,0) = LG^{t-1}(I_{k^{m}} \otimes LG^{t-2})(I_{k^{2m}} \otimes LG^{t-3}) \cdots$$
$$(I_{k^{(t-1)m}} \otimes L)(I_{k^{(t-2)m}} \otimes \Phi_{m}) \cdots$$
$$(I_{k^{m}} \otimes \Phi_{m})\Phi_{m}, \tag{71}$$

where Φ_m is defined in Lemma 3.4 as

$$\Phi_m = \prod_{i=1}^m I_{k^{i-1}} \otimes [(I_k \otimes W_{[k,k^{m-i}]})M_{r_k}].$$

Then, it is easy to prove that for system (68),

$$x(t) = \Theta^G(t, 0)u(0)x(0).$$
(72)

In fact, Eq. (72) provides a tool for investigating the control problems. To avoid a similar argument, we discuss only the following two cases:

Case 1. Fixed s and fixed G.

From the definition of transfer matrix, the following result is obvious.

Theorem 6.3. Consider system (65) with control (67), where G is fixed. x_d is s-step reachable from x_0 , iff

$$x_d \in Col\left\{\Theta^G(s,0)W_{[k^n,k^m]}x_0\right\},\tag{73}$$

where Col means the set of columns.

We give an example to describe this result.

Example 6.4. Consider the following system

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = B(t) \leftrightarrow C(t), \\
B(t+1) = C(t) \lor u_1(t), \\
C(t+1) = A(t) \land u_2(t);
\end{cases}$$
(74)

with controls satisfying

$$\begin{cases} u(t+1) = g_1(u_1(t), u_2(t)), \\ v(t+1) = g_2(u_1(t), u_2(t)). \end{cases}$$
(75)

Assume g_1 and g_2 are fixed as

$$\begin{cases} g_1(u_1(t), u_2(t)) = \neg u_2(t), \\ g_2(u_1(t), u_2(t)) = u_1(t). \end{cases}$$
(76)

Assume A(0) = 0.5, B(0) = 0, and C(0) = 0.5 and s = 5. Denote by $u(t) = u_1(t)u_2(t)$, then

$$u(t+1) = M_n u_2(t) u_1(t) = M_n W_{[3]} u(t).$$

Then

$$G = M_n W_{[3]} = \delta_9 \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 4 & 1 & 8 & 5 & 2 & 9 & 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$x(t+1) = M_e B(t) C(t) M_d C(t) u_1(t) M_c A(t) u_2(t) = L u(t) x(t),$$

where

$L = \delta_{27} [1]$	10	19	10	10	10	19	10	1	2	11	20	11
11	11	20	11	2	3	12	21	12	12	12	21	12
3	2	11	20	11	11	11	20	11	2	2	11	20
11	11	11	20	11	2	3	12	21	12	12	12	21
12	3	3	12	21	12	12	12	21	12	3	3	12
21	12	12	12	21	12	3	3	12	21	12	12	12
21	12	3	1	13	22	10	13	13	19	13	4	2
14	23	11	14	14	20	14	5	3	15	24	12	15
15	21	15	6	2	14	23	11	14	14	20	14	5
2	14	23	11	14	14	20	14	5	3	15	24	12
15	15	21	15	6	3	15	24	12	15	15	21	15
6	3	15	24	12	15	15	21	15	6	3	15	24
12	15	15	21	15	6	1	13	25	10	13	16	19
13	$\overline{7}$	2	14	26	11	14	17	20	14	8	3	15
27	12	15	18	21	15	9	2	14	26	11	14	17
20	14	8	2	14	26	11	14	17	20	14	8	3
15	27	12	15	18	21	15	9	3	15	27	12	15
18	21	15	9	3	15	27	12	15	18	21	15	9
3	15	27	12	15	18	21	15	9].				
								-				

$$\Phi_2 = (I_3 \otimes W_{[3]}) M_{r_3} (I_3 \otimes M_{r_3}) = \delta_{81} [1, 11, 21, 31, 41, 51, 61, 71, 81].$$

Finally, using formula (71) yields $\Theta(5,0)$ as

$$\Theta(5,0) = LG^4(I_{3^2} \otimes LG^3)(I_{3^4} \otimes LG^2)(I_{3^6} \otimes LG)(I_{3^8} \otimes L)(I_{3^6} \otimes \Phi_3)(I_{3^4} \otimes \Phi_3)(I_{3^2} \otimes \Phi_3)(I_3 \otimes \Phi_3)\Phi_3.$$
(77)

It is calculated as

$\delta_{27}[21$	20	19	20	20	20	19	20	21	21	20	19	20	20
20	19	20	21	21	20	19	20	20	20	19	20	21	11
11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
11	11	11	12	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	12	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	14	14	23
14	14	14	23	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	15	15	15	15	15
15	6	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	6	15	15	15
15	15	15	15	15	6	15	15	27	27	27	27	27	27

27	27	27	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	3	3
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	15	14	14
15	14	14	15	14	14	9	18	27	9	18	27	9	18
27	9	18	27	9	18	27	9	18	27	9	18	27	9
18	27	9	18	27].									

Now let (A(0), B(0), C(0)) = (0.5, 1, 1). Then

Using Theorem 6.3, we have the reachable set as

$$\Theta(5,0)W_{[27,9]}x_0$$

= $\delta_{27}[21 \ 11 \ 3 \ 14 \ 14 \ 15 \ 15 \ 14 \ 9].$

We conclude that the reachable set at step 5 is

 $\left\{\delta_{27}^{21}, \delta_{27}^{11}, \delta_{27}^{3}, \delta_{27}^{14}, \delta_{27}^{15}, \delta_{27}^{9}\right\}.$

Converting them to ternary form, we have

$$(A(5), B(5), C(5)) \in \{(0, 1, 0), (0.5, 1, 0.5), (1, 1, 0), \\(0.5, 0.5, 0.5), (0.5, 0.5, 0), \\(1, 0, 0)\}.$$

Finally, we have to find the initial control u_0 , which drives the trajectory to assigned x_d . Since

$$\begin{aligned} x_d &= \Theta(5,0) W_{[27,9]} x_0 u_0 \\ &= \delta_{27} [21 \quad 11 \quad 3 \quad 14 \quad 14 \quad 15 \quad 15 \quad 14 \quad 9] u_0, \end{aligned}$$

it is obvious that to reach, say, $\delta_{27}^{21} \sim (0, 1, 0)$, the control should be $u_0 = [1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]^T$, i.e. $u_1(0) = \delta_3^1 \sim 1$ and $u_2(0) = \delta_3^1 \sim 1$. Similarly, to reach all the six points (0, 1, 0), (0.5, 1, 0.5), (1, 1, 0), (0.5, 0.5, 0.5), (0.5, 0.5, 0), (1, 0, 0) at step 5, the corresponding control initials are given in the Table 4.

Remark 6.5. The $\Theta^G(s, 0)$ can be calculated inductively, and the algorithm is similar to the one in [Cheng & Qi, 2009a].

Case 2. Fixed s and constrained G.

It is easy to estimate that there are $m_0 = (k^m)^{k^m}$ possible distinct G's. For statement ease, we may express each G in a condensed form and order them in "increasing order". Say, when

 $\begin{array}{ll} m=2,k=3 \mbox{ we have } G_1=\delta_9[1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1],\\ G_2=\delta_9[1,1,1,1,1,1,1,2],\ldots,G_{9^9}=\delta_9[9,9,\\ 9,9,9,9,9,9,9]. \mbox{ In general, we may consider a subset } \Lambda\subset\{1,2,\ldots,m_0\},\mbox{ and allow } G \mbox{ to be chosen from an admissible set: } \{G_\lambda|\lambda\in\Lambda\}. \end{array}$

Corollary 6.6. Consider system (65) with control (67), where $G \in \{G_{\lambda} | \lambda \in \Lambda\}$. Then x_d is reachable from x_0 , iff

$$x_d \in \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} Col\left\{\Theta^{G_\lambda}(s,0)W_{[k^n,k^m]}x_0\right\}.$$
 (78)

Example 6.7. Consider the system (71) again, and also assume k = 3. We still assume A(0) = 1, B(0) = 0, and C(0) = 1 and s = 5. Assume $\Xi = \{G_1, G_2, G_3, G_4\}$, where $G_1 = \delta_9[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9], G_2 = \delta_9[1, 5, 8, 9, 7, 4, 6, 3, 2], G_3 = \delta_9[1, 8, 9, 6, 5, 7, 3, 2, 4], G_4 = \delta_9[9, 8, 5, 6, 4, 2, 3, 1, 7], the corresponding <math>V_i = \text{Col}\{\Theta^i(5, 0)W_{[3^n, 3^m]}x_0\}$ are

$\delta_{27}[2$	11	21	14	14	15	14	14	9],
$\delta_{27}[2$	14	12	14	15	15	11	26	15],
$\delta_{27}[2$	11	17	27	14	6	15	14	12],
$\delta_{27}[23$	17	11	11	15	15	5 15	21	15].

Table 4. Destinations and the corresponding controls, x(0) = (0.5, 1, 1).

	-		
x_d	u(0)	$u_1(0)$	$u_2(0)$
(0, 1, 0)	$\delta_9^1 \sim (0, 1, 0)$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 1$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 1$
(0.5, 1, 0.5)	$\delta_9^2 \sim (0,1,0)$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 1$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 0.5$
(1, 1, 0)	$\delta_9^3 \sim (0,1,0)$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 1$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 0$
	$\delta_9^4 \sim (0, 1, 0)$	$\delta_3^2 \sim 0.5$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 1$
(0.5, 0.5, 0.5)	$\delta_9^5 \sim (0, 1, 0)$	$\delta_3^2 \sim 0.5$	$\delta_3^2 \sim 0.5$
	$\delta_9^8 \sim (0, 1, 0)$	$\delta_3^3 \sim 0$	$\delta_3^2 \sim 0.5$
(0.5, 0.5, 0)	$\delta_9^6 \sim (0,1,0)$	$\delta_3^2 \sim 0.5$	$\delta_3^3 \sim 0$
	$\delta_9^7 \sim (0, 1, 0)$	$\delta_3^3 \sim 0$	$\delta_3^1 \sim 1$
(1, 0, 0)	$\delta_9^9 \sim (0,0,0)$	$\delta_3^3 \sim 0$	$\delta_3^3\sim 0$

So the reachable set at five steps is

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{4} V_i = \{\delta_{27}^2, \delta_{27}^6, \delta_{27}^9, \delta_{27}^{11}, \delta_{27}^{12}, \delta_{27}^{14}, \delta_{27}^{15}, \delta_{27}^{17}, \delta_{27}^{17}, \delta_{27}^{17}, \delta_{27}^{17}, \delta_{27}^{12}, \delta_{27}^{21}, \delta_{27}^{22}, \delta_{27}$$

Now assume we want to reach (A(5), B(5), C(5)) = (0.5, 1, 0), which is δ_{27}^{12} . The 3rd component of V_2 is 12. (We have some other choices such as the 9th component of V_3 .) So we can choose G_2 and $u(0) = u_1(0)u_2(0) = \delta_9^3$ to drive (0.5, 0, 0.5) to (0.5, 1, 0) at five steps.

We can reconstruct the control dynamics from the logical matrix, G_2 . Converting $G_2 =$ [1, 5, 8, 9, 7, 4, 6, 3, 2] back to standard form, we have

 $G_2 = \delta_9 [1 \quad 5 \quad 8 \quad 9 \quad 7 \quad 4 \quad 6 \quad 3 \quad 2].$

From $u_1(0)u_2(0) = \delta_9^3$, we have $u_1(0) = \delta_3^1$ and $u_2(0) = \delta_3^3$.

To reconstruct control dynamics, we need retrievers

 $S_1 = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 \\ S_2 = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix},$

Then, we have the structure matrixes as

 $M_1 = S_1 G = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$ $M_2 = S_2 G = \delta_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$

It follows that

$$u_1(t+1) = M_1 u_1(t) u_2(t),$$

 $u_2(t+1) = M_2 u_1(t) u_2(t).$

Similar to [Cheng & Qi, 2009a], some other cases can also be investigated.

Next, we consider the controllability via the control of k-valued sequence. We give the following definition.

Definition 6.8 [Akutsu *et al.*, 2007]. Consider *k*-valued logical system (65), assume an initial state of the network A_I^i , i = 1, ..., n and a desired state of the network A_D^i , i = 1, ..., n at the *s*th time step are given. Then the problem is to find a sequence of δ_k^i vectors u(0), ..., u(s-1) such that $A_i(0) = A_I^i$, $A_i(s) = A_D^i$, i = 1, ..., n.

Define $L = LW_{[k^n,k^m]}$, then the second equation in (68) can be expressed as

$$x(t+1) = \tilde{L}x(t)u(t).$$
(79)

Using it repetitively yields

$$x(s) = \tilde{L}^{s} x(0) u(0) u(1) \cdots u(s-1).$$
(80)

So the answer to this kind of control problem is obvious.

Theorem 6.9. A_D^i is reachable from $A_I^i, i = 1, \ldots, n$ at sth time step by controls of k-valued sequences of length s, iff

$$x_s \in \operatorname{Col}\{\tilde{L}^s x_0\},\tag{81}$$

where $x_s = \ltimes_{i=1}^n A_D^i, x_0 = \ltimes_{i=1}^n A_I^i.$

Remark 6.10. Note that (81) means x_s is equal to a column of $\tilde{L}^s x_0$. Say, x_s is equal to the kth column of $\tilde{L}^s x_0$, then the controls should be

$$u(0)u(1)\cdots u(s-1) = \delta_{m^s}^k,$$
 (82)

which uniquely determines all $u_i, i = 0, 1, \ldots, s - 1$.

The following example is taken from [Akutsu *et al.*, 2007], but here we allow the values of the notes in the network to be three different values $\{0, 0.5, 1\}$.

Example 6.11. Consider a 3-valued logical control network depicted in Fig. 3.

Its logical equation is

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = C(t) \land u_1(t), \\
B(t+1) = \neg u_2(t), \\
C(t+1) = A(t) \lor B(t).
\end{cases}$$
(83)

Its algebraic form is

$$\begin{cases}
A(t+1) = M_c C(t) u_1(t), \\
B(t+1) = M_n u_2(t), \\
C(t+1) = M_d A(t) B(t).
\end{cases}$$
(84)

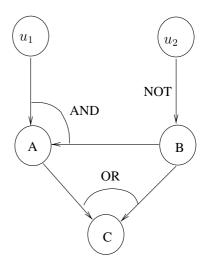


Fig. 3. A 3-valued control network.

Denote
$$x(t) = A(t)B(t)C(t)$$
, $u(t) = u_1(t)u_2(t)$. Then, we can express the system by
 $x(t+1) = \tilde{L}x(t)u(t)$,

where

$\tilde{L} = \delta_{27} [7$	4	1	16	13	10	25	22	19	16	13	10	16	13
10	25	22	19	25	22	19	25	22	19	25	22	19	7
4	1	16	13	10	25	22	19	16	13	10	16	13	10
25	22	19	25	22	19	25	22	19	25	22	19	7	4
1	16	13	10	25	22	19	16	13	10	16	13	10	25
22	19	25	22	19	25	22	19	25	22	19	7	4	1
16	13	10	25	22	19	16	13	10	16	13	10	25	22
19	25	22	19	25	22	19	25	22	19	8	5	2	17
14	11	26	23	20	17	14	11	17	14	11	26	23	20
26	23	20	26	23	20	26	23	20	8	5	2	17	14
11	26	23	20	17	14	11	17	14	11	26	23	20	26
23	20	26	23	20	26	23	20	7	4	1	16	13	10
25	22	19	16	13	10	16	13	10	25	22	19	25	22
19	25	22	19	25	22	19	8	5	2	17	14	11	26
23	20	17	14	11	17	14	11	26	23	20	26	23	20
26	23	20	26	23	20	9	6	3	18	15	12	27	24
21	18	15	12	18	15	12	27	24	21	27	24	21	27
24	21	27	24	21].									

Now we assume (A(0), B(0), C(0)) = (0, 0, 0). We wish to know if a designed state can be reached by the sth step. Say, s = 3, using Theorem 6.9, we calculate $\tilde{L}^3 x_0 \in M_{3^3 \times 3^6}$ as follows. (It is too large and we cite only a few columns.).

It is clear that at third step all states can be reached (via computer searching). Choose one state, say $\delta_{27}^{25} \sim (0,0,1)$. The program reported that in 19th, 22nd, 25th,... columns we have 25, which means controls δ_{729}^{19} , or δ_{729}^{22} , or δ_{729}^{25} , or ... can drive the initial state (0,0,0) to the destination state (0,0,1). we choose, for example,

$$u_1(0)u_2(0)u_1(1)u_2(1)u_1(2)u_2(2) = \delta_{729}^{19}$$

Converting 729 - 19 = 710 to ternary form yields (1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1), which means the corresponding controls are $u_1(0) = 1, u_2(0) = 1; u_1(1) = 1, u_2(1) = 0; u_1(2) = 1, u_2(2) = 1$. It is easy to check directly that this set of controls work. We may check some others. Say, choosing δ_{729}^{22} , and converting 729 - 22 = 707 to ternary form as (1, 1, 1, 0, 0.5, 1),

we have $u_1(0) = 1, u_2(0) = 1; u_1(1) = 1, u_2(1) = 0; u_1(2) = 0.5, u_2(2) = 1$. It also works.

(85)

In general, it is easy to calculate that when s = 1 the reachable set from (0, 0, 0) is

$$\{(0,0,0), (0,0.5,0), (0,1,0)\}.$$

when s = 2 the reachable set is

 $\{ (0,0,0), (0,0.5,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,0.5), (0,0.5,0.5), \\ (0,1,0.5), (0,0.5,1), (0,0,1), (0,1,1) \}.$

7. Conclusion

In this paper, we first review some recent developments of the semi-tensor product approach to Boolean networks, and then provide a framework to study the dynamics of multivalued networks. For a k-valued network, the network equation was converted into an algebraic form as a standard discrete-time linear system. By analyzing the network transition matrix, easily computable formulas were obtained to show (a) the number of fixed points; (b) the numbers of cycles of different lengths; (c) transient period, i.e. the minimum time for all points to enter the set of attractors. Then formulas were obtained to recover the network and its dynamics from its transition matrix L. Finally, the controllability of k-valued logical control network via two kinds of controls has been discussed. Formulas were obtained to construct the reachable set.

Several examples were included to illustrate the results. The computations involved seem complicated, but they can be easily performed with a computer.

Acknowledgments

A toolbox for all the related computations is available at http://lsc.amss.ac. cn/dcheng/.

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