

Probabilistic Analysis of Cellular Automata Rules and its Application in Pseudo Random Pattern Generation

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Abstract—The present work is an extension of the work that appeared in the article titled “Pseudorandom Pattern Generation by a 4-Neighborhood Cellular Automata (4NCA) using a Probabilistic Analysis”. In this paper we propose a probabilistic analysis based technique for selecting good CA rules that can be used in pseudo random pattern generation. The proposed technique is applied on a CA of neighborhood four to construct one dimensional, non-uniform 4NCA random number generators. Another set of 4NCA random number generators were evolved using Cellular Programming (CP), a technique proposed by Tomassini and Sipper. A comparison is made between the pseudo random patterns generated by the proposed method and those obtained using CP. The results show that our approach outperforms CP both in terms of average time taken to evolve CA rules and in terms of quality of pseudo random patterns generated. The proposed approach is also shown to be better than the common generators such as Shift Register, Congruential Generator and Lagged Fibonacci Generator.

Index Terms-4NCA, Entropy, Cellular Programming, Probabilistic Analysis.

1 Introduction

Cellular Automata (CA) has been used for pseudo random number generation in the past [4]. They are also used to implement random number generators (RNGs) in cryptographic devices [6] and in Built-In-Self-Test (BIST) circuits. With the increase in the computational capabilities of computers, the demand of RNGs have likewise increased [7] to carry out more sophisticated simulations.

Wolfram [17], in 1986, suggested that CA could be used for efficient hardware implementation of random number generation due to their simplicity and regularity of design.

One dimensional CA based RNGs have been extensively studied in past [4] and their superiority over other widely used methods such as linear feedback shift registers (LFSRs) has been convincingly established, especially in the case of delay type faults which require patterns in specific order [3]. CA based RNGs can also be evolved automatically by genetic algorithms. Sipper and Tomassini [12] described a process of evolving the CA truth table using a co-evolution process termed Cellular Programming.

To provide a standardized means of comparing random number quality among CA based RNGs, Tomassini et. al. introduced the use of Marsaglia’s highly regarded Diehard random number test suite. We also use this acknowledged test suite for evaluating the performance of our random number generation algorithm.

In this paper we propose a new method for random number generation using CA. The method is based on a probabilistic analysis of the CA rules. A comparison is then made between patterns generated by some standard RNGs, CP evolved RNGs and RNGs evolved by our proposed method [9]. It is shown that the proposed method produces patterns that are better in terms of their randomness as compared to the other techniques.

The rest of the article is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces CA followed by a brief description of 4-NCA and entropy. Section 3 describes the technique of probabilistic analysis. In section 4 this technique is applied on 4NCA to choose the most suitable connectivities for pseudo random pattern generation. A Proposed Rule Selection Algorithm (PRSA) based on probabilistic analysis for constructing CA RNGs is given in Section 5. Finally, some results and conclusion are given in section 6 and 7 respectively.

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2 CA Preliminaries

Cellular Automata can be thought of as dynamical systems, discrete in both time and space [16]. It consists of an infinite, regular grid of cells, each in one of a finite number of states. The grid can be in any finite number of dimensions. Time is also discrete and the state of a cell at time $t + 1$ is a function of the states of a finite number of cells (called its neighborhood) at time t . These neighbors are a selection of cells relative to the specified cell, and do not change. Here, we will only consider boolean automata in which the cellular state, $s \in \{0, 1\}$.

All cells update its value synchronously in discrete time steps accordingly to some rule R . Such rule is based on the state of the cell itself and the state of r of its neighbors:

$$q[i](t + 1) = R(q[i - r](t), \dots, q[i - 1](t), q[i](t), q[i + 1](t), \dots, q[i + r](t)). \quad (1)$$

where $q[i](t)$ is a value of i^{th} cell (the state of a cell) in step t and r is a radius of the neighborhood. Neighborhood is composed of $m = 2 * r + 1$ cells. This makes $n = 2^m$ possible configurations of that neighborhood [8]. It can be deduced from eqn.1 that for cell i , the probability of occurrence of a given cellular state (say 1) at time step $t + 1$ depends on rule R , radius of the neighborhood r and the state of connected cells at time step t . In the sections to follow this is proved theoretically and demonstrated experimentally. For a CA with radius r and rule R , cell i can be connected with l neighboring cells where $l \in \{1, 2, \dots, (2r + 1)\}$ and all the cells lie in permissible radius. This means rule R can be implemented by a boolean function which takes l inputs at max. Since cell i is connected with l cells, it is said to have Class l connectivity.

Rules are usually named using standard convention. A CA characterized by EXOR and/or EXNOR dependence is called an additive CA [4]. If in a CA the neighborhood dependence is EXOR, then it is called a non complemented rule. For neighborhood dependence of EXNOR (where there is an inversion of the modulo-2 logic), the CA is called a complemented CA. The corresponding rule involving the EXNOR function is called a complemented rule. If in a CA same rule applies to all cells, then the CA is called a uniform CA; otherwise the CA is called a hybrid CA. There can be various boundary conditions; namely, null (where extreme cells are connected to logic '0'), periodic (extreme cells are adjacent) etc [4]. Nonuniform, or inhomogeneous, cellular automata function in the same way as uniform ones, the only difference being in the cellular rules that need not be identical for

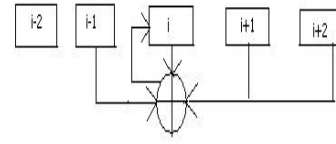


Figure 1: 4NCA with two right neighbors

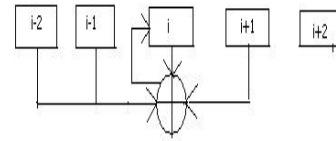


Figure 2: 4NCA with two left neighbors

all cells. Nonuniform CAs share the basic “attractive” properties of uniform ones: simplicity, parallelism and locality [11].

2.1 4-Neighborhood Cellular Automata

4NCA is special type of CA in which the state of cell i at time $t + 1$ depends on states of cells $i - 2$, $i - 1$, i and $i + 1$ or cells $i - 1$, i , $i + 1$ and $i + 2$ at time t [1].

$$q[i](t + 1) = f(q[i - 2](t), q[i - 1](t), q[i](t), q[i + 1](t), q[i + 2](t)). \quad (2)$$

where f defines the CA rules.

The 4NCA consist of an array of identical memory cells arranged in one dimensional fashion. In 4NCA a cell depends on 4 of it's neighbors. This is done by adding one more neighbor either from left or from right but not both. Each cell may have either of the following neighborhood dependencies:

(1) Two left neighbors, self and one right neighbor dependency.

$$q[i](t + 1) = f(q[i - 2](t), q[i - 1](t), q[i](t), q[i + 1](t)). \quad (3)$$

(2) Two right neighbors, self and one left neighbor dependency

$$q[i](t + 1) = f(q[i - 1](t), q[i](t), q[i + 1](t), q[i + 2](t)). \quad (4)$$

The proposed model of cellular automata may use both the above dependencies interchangeably but the left of the immediate left and right of the immediate right cells

of cell i must not be connected to cell i at the same time. As a consequence though it is not configured in this mode, it can exploit 5 neighborhood dependency.

In this paper we use CA having additive rule. An additive CA rule can be defined by following equation:

$$q[i](t+1) = M \oplus P \bullet q[i-2](t) \oplus Q \bullet q[i-1](t) \oplus R \bullet q[i](t) \oplus S \bullet q[i+1](t) \oplus T \bullet q[i+2](t). \quad (5)$$

$q[i](t)$ means the state of cell i at time t .

$M = 0$; indicates linear additive rules .

$M = 1$; indicates non linear additive rules.

P, Q, R, S and T can be either 0, meaning no connectivity, or 1 meaning connectivity. They are called the *impact coefficients* for cell i .

\oplus denotes XOR.

\bullet denotes AND.

where $P \bullet T \neq 1$.

For a 2 state linear additive 4NCA there are 2^5 distinct configurations and 2^{2^5} distinct mappings from all these neighborhood configuration to the next state.

2.2 Classification of 4NCA rules

In this section we define the naming convention for different types of connectivities each cell of a linear 4NCA can have with its neighboring cells. Denoting the state of cell i at time t by $q[i](t)$, the next state of cell i can depend on 4 cells (including any three neighboring cells and itself). Based on neighborhood dependency each CA cell can have one of the 4 classes of connectivity.

If the next state of cell i depends on only one of the 4 cells, the corresponding cell is said to have Class 1 connectivity. If next state depends on 2, 3 or 4 neighbors then the corresponding cell has Class 2, Class 3 or Class 4 connectivity respectively. A rule having Class i connectivity for each cell is called Class i rule, where $1 \leq i \leq 4$. For example 2863311530 is a Class 1 rule and 1019462460 is a Class 4 rule. There are 23 different connectivities each cell can have for our present model of the 4NCA. Therefore 23 different rules are applicable for a cell. Out of these, 5 rules belong to Class 1, 9 belong to Class 2, 7 belong to Class 3 and 2 belong to Class 4.

2.3 Entropy as a Measure of Randomness

The quality of random numbers can be measured in a variety of ways. One common method is to compute the information density, or entropy, in a series of numbers. The entropy of X is the uncertainty about the outcome before an observation of X . In other words entropy is

a measure of the amount of unpredictable information there is in a data source. A sequence of good random numbers will have a high level of entropy.

Let k be the number of possible state values of each cell. The cell state sequences (bit strings) are divided into subsequences of length h , denoted by E_h to calculate the entropy of the cell's state sequence. So there are k^h possible subsequences of length h . Thus, entropy of bit string E_h can be given by:

$$E_h = -\sum_{j=1}^{k^h} p_{h_j} \log_2 p_{h_j}. \quad (6)$$

where h_j is the j^{th} subsequence, $1 \leq j \leq k^h$ and p_{h_j} is the probability of subsequences h_j . The entropy E_h attains the maximum value when the probabilities p_{h_j} are same and equal to $1/k$. Thus, the randomness of the sequences of state of a cell can be judged according to the value of entropy. High entropy is a necessary, but by no means sufficient, condition for obtaining high-quality RNGs. In general, a battery of tests must be applied to this pattern to ascertain whether the evolved RNGs are indeed of high quality.

Once a high quality RNG is designed it is used to produce pseudo random patterns in the following way:

1. The obtained n cell CA is initialized with a random seed.
2. It is then run for l time steps, to produce n random sequences of l bits.
3. These sequences are connected to form one long sequence of $n * l$ bits.
4. This process is repeated m times, thus a binary pattern of $m * n * l$ binary bits are obtained.

The sequence produced can be considered as truly random if the probability of occurrence of next sequence bit as 0 or 1, cannot be calculated from sequence produced so far. This can also be achieved if at any instance of time, the probability of occurrence of 0 or 1 as next bit of the sequence is .5. And this condition is maintained until whole pattern is generated.

3 Probabilistic Analysis of Cellular Automata rules

Consider an n cell cellular automata with radius r for which boolean function f implements rule R i.e.,

$$q[i](t+1) = f(q[i-r](t), \dots, q[i](t), \dots, q[i+r](t)). \quad (7)$$

Following notations hold for the present discussion of probabilistic analysis.

$q(t)$ represents the state of CA at time t .

$p(t)$ represents the frequency count of 1 in $q(t)$ i.e.,

$$p(t) = \frac{\text{Numbers of cells having 1}}{\text{Total number of cells}}. \quad (8)$$

$p[i](t)$ denotes the probability of occurrence of 1 in i^{th} cell at time t .

$p[i]_{avg}(t)$ can be deduced from $p_i(t)$ as follows:

$$p[i]_{avg}(t) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n p[i](t)}{n}. \quad (9)$$

For function f which takes $(2r + 1)$ inputs, L is an f dependent set each of whose element is denoted by L_j . f is characterized by fact that when exactly L_j (where $0 < j \leq (2r + 1)$) of $2r + 1$ inputs are in state 1, f has an output state 1. For each L_j , if T_{L_j} number of different combinations (each combination has $2r+1$ inputs) can be generated, in each of which exactly L_j inputs are in state 1 and the corresponding output is 1 then,

$$p[i](t+1) = \sum_j T_{L_j} p(t)^{T_{L_j}} (1 - p(t))^{(2r+1)-T_{L_j}}. \quad (10)$$

Since, we are interested in a neighborhood of 4, the above equation is applied on 4NCA where,

$$1 \leq 2r + 1 \leq 4.$$

Results were derived for different rule functions R , implemented by boolean functions AND, OR and XOR.

Probabilistic Analysis of OR/AND rule functions:

Table 1 shows the variation of $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ with $p(t)$ depending on L_j for both AND and OR functions.

Theoretically, for an n cell CA, $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ is calculated as follows:

$$p[i]_{avg}(t+1) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n p_i(t+1)}{n}. \quad (11)$$

For experimental purpose $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ is calculated as follows:

Table 1: $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ represented in terms of $p(t)$ for boolean functions AND and OR

L_j	$p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ for AND	$p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ for OR
1	$p(t)$	$p(t)$
2	$p(t)^2$	$p(t)(2 - p(t))$
3	$p(t)^3$	$p(t)(p(t)^2 - 3p(t) + 3)$
4	$p(t)^4$	$p(t)(4 - 6p(t) + 4p(t)^2 - p(t)^3)$

1. For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ do

(a) $c_i = 0$.

(b) For a fixed value of $p(t)$ repeat m times.

i. Initialize CA with a random seed and evolve the CA for 1 time step. Increment c_i if $q_i(t+1)$ is 1.

(c) Set c_i to $\frac{c_i}{m}$.

2. $p[i]_{avg}(t+1) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i}{n}$.

c_i denotes the count value for cell i .

For an n cell CA, the above procedure is repeated $n+1$ times, each time with a different value of $p(t)$. Initially with $p(t)=0$ and incrementing $p(t)$ by $1/n$ at each iteration we get $n+1$ values of $p_{i,avg}$. For our experiment we have $n=100$ and $m=100$.

Fig. 3 and Fig. 5 shows the ideal plot obtained from the above equation for rule functions AND and OR respectively. Fig. 4 and Fig. 6 shows the corresponding experimental plot. Similarity between ideal and experimental plots is evident from the figures.

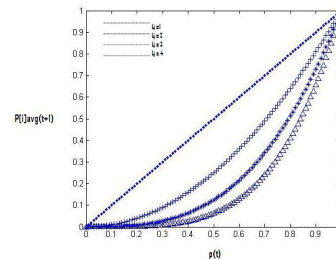


Figure 3: Theoretical plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ Vs $p(t)$ for AND

4 Probabilistic Analysis of 4NCA rules

In this paper, we are considering a non-linear additive 4NCA. Therefore, for present discussion neighbor-

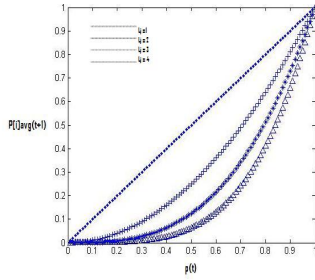


Figure 4: Experimental plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t + 1)$ Vs $p(t)$ for AND

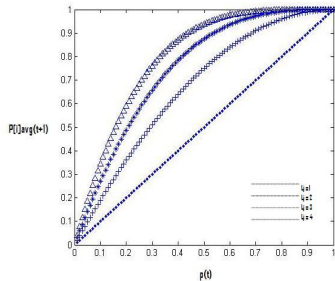


Figure 5: Theoretical plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t + 1)$ Vs $p(t)$ for OR

hood size is restricted to 4 and XOR (modulo-2 operator) is taken as the boolean function implementing the rule R . The following notations hold for the present discussion on probabilistic analysis of 1-dimensional 4NCA rules having n cells with each cell having the same class of connectivity.

$\delta(t)$ represents the deviation of $p(t)$ from 0.5 i.e.,

$$\delta(t) = p(t) - 0.5. \tag{12}$$

$|\delta[i]_{avg}(t)|$ represents the average of the modulus of the deviation of $p_i(t)$ from 0.5 at time t i.e.,

$$|\delta[i]_{avg}(t)| = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n |p[i](t) - 0.5|}{n}. \tag{13}$$

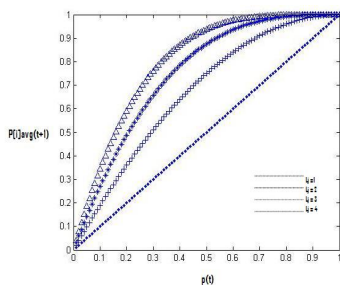


Figure 6: Experimental plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t + 1)$ Vs $p(t)$ for OR

In the sections to follow it is mathematically shown and experimentally verified that for the i^{th} cell $p_i(t + 1)$ depends on $p(t)$ and the class of rule the cell is having. Let us explain how $p[i](t + 1)$ is obtained from $p(t)$ for a non complemented linear CA. We take the example of a Class 4 rule.

Assume that the cell i is connected to cells $i - 1, i + 1, i + 2$ and itself. Since we are considering only linear CA, cell i will have a 1 in it at time $t + 1$ if and only if out of cells $i - 1, i, i + 1$ and $i + 2$:

1. Any one of the cells has a 1 in it at time t . And there are C_1^4 ways to select any one out of the 4 cells.
2. Any three of the cells have 1s in them at time t . There can be C_3^4 ways to select three different cells from the 4 cells.

Mathematically,

$$\begin{aligned} p[i](t + 1) &= C_1^4 p(t)(1 - p(t))^3 + C_3^4 p(t)^3(1 - p(t)). \\ &= 4p(t)(1 - p(t))^3 + 4p(t)^3(1 - p(t)). \\ &= 4p(t)(1 - p(t))(2p(t)^2 - 2p(t) + 1). \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

Table 2 gives the relationship between $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ and $p(t)$ for an n cell periodic boundary, non complemented CA. Fig. 7 shows the ideal plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t + 1)$ against $p(t)$ with $p(t)$ on x-axis and $p(t+1)$ on y-axis. In order to experimentally verify the theoretical results, experiments were carried out to obtain various values of $p[i]_{avg}(t + 1)$ for different values of $p(t)$ for a CA of size $n=100$. Fig. 8 shows the plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t + 1)$ against $p(t)$ for the experiments conducted. As can be seen from Fig. 7 and Fig. 8, the experimentally obtained plot for the different classes of rules closely follow the theoretically obtained plots.

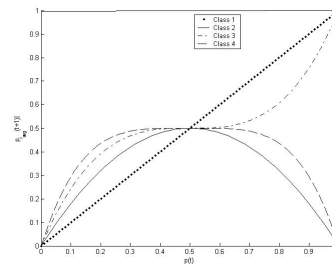


Figure 7: Experimental plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t + 1)$ Vs $p(t)$

Table 3 represents $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t + 1)|$ in terms of $\delta(t)$ for n cell periodic boundary, non complemented CA for various

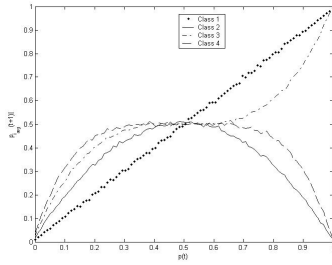


Figure 8: Experimental plot of $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ Vs $p(t)$

Table 2: $p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ represented in terms of $p(t)$

Class	$p[i]_{avg}(t+1)$
Class 1	$p(t)$
Class 2	$2p(t)(1-p(t))$
Class 3	$p(t)(4p(t)^2 - 6p(t) + 3)$
Class 4	$4p(t)(1-p(t))(2p(t)^2 - 2p(t) + 1)$

classes of rules. Fig. 9 shows the ideal plot of $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)|$ against $\delta(t)$ with $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)|$ on y-axis and $\delta(t)$ on x-axis. In order to experimentally verify the theoretical results, experiments were carried out to obtain various values of $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)|$ for different values of $\delta(t)$ for a CA of size $n=100$. Fig. 10 shows the plot of $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)|$ against $\delta(t)$ for the experiments conducted. As earlier, the experimentally obtained plots closely follow the theoretical ones.

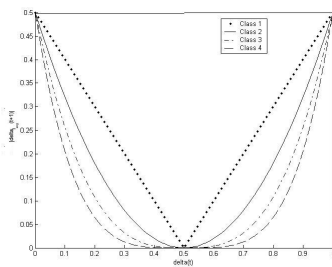


Figure 9: Theoretical plot of $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)|$ Vs $\delta(t)$

From the above discussion it can be seen that $\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)$ is the minimum for any value of $\delta(t)$ for Class 4 rules followed by Class 3, 2 and 1 rules in that order. Hence substitution of Class 4 rules tends to equalize the probability of occurrence of 0 and 1 more than any other class of rule. This forms the basis of the proposed rule selection algorithm discussed in the next section.

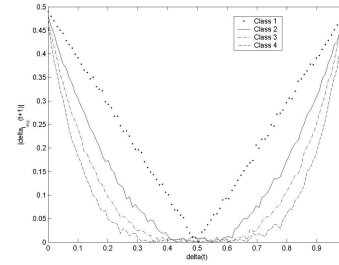


Figure 10: Experimental plot of $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)|$ Vs $\delta(t)$

Table 3: $|\delta[i]_{avg}(t+1)|$ expressed in terms of $\delta(t)$

Class	$ \delta[i]_{avg}(t+1) $
Class 1	$ \delta(t) $
Class 2	$ 2\delta(t)(1-\delta(t)) $
Class 3	$ \delta(t)(4\delta(t)^2 - 6\delta(t) + 3) $
Class 4	$ 4\delta(t)(1-\delta(t))(2\delta(t)^2 - 2\delta(t) + 1) $

5 Proposed Rule Selection Algorithm (PRSA)

The proposed rule selection algorithm works as follows [10].

1. Select a Class 4 connectivity and substitute it to all the cells.
2. Select $m = (.1 * n)$ cells randomly. For each of the selected cells choose one of its impact coefficient (described in section 2.1) randomly and invert it, still producing a valid rule.
3. If resultant rule has entropy $> .997 * \text{MAXIMUM ENTROPY}$, then stop the process else go to Step 1.

6 Results

The experiments were carried out for a 4NCA having 50 cells. The 50 cells were initialized with a random seed. The 4NCA was executed for 65536 time steps to produce 50 random sequences of 65536 bits. These 50 bit sequences are concatenated to form one long sequence of 3276800 bits. This process is repeated 30 times. Thus we obtain a sequence of little more than 98 million binary bits. This produces random data of 11.7 MB.

For evaluating the randomness of the pseudo random patterns statistical tests can be applied. If the sequence passes a number of quantitative statistical tests, it can

be said that the sequence posses a certain amount of randomness. But it should be noticed that no guarantees are possible, only predictions can be made. We used what is probably the most stringent suite of randomness tests presented to date: Marsaglia’s Diehard suite [5]. Tomas-sine et al. [14] first used Diehard battery of tests for evaluating the quality of random patterns. It consists of 23 different statistical tests. The results of these tests are real values, between 0 and 1, and are referred to as ”P-values”. For any given test, a P-value between .025 and .975 corresponds to a pass at the .05 level. A detailed description of the tests can be found at [5].

A comparison of the performance of the proposed technique is made with those of some common generators namely Shift Register Generator (SR), Extended Congru-ential Generator (EC) and Lagged Fibonacci Generator (LF). The results for these generators are taken from [18]. Another CA based RNG using an evolutionary technique is called cellular programming has been proposed in the literature [13]. The goal of the evolutionary algorithm is to evolve “good” rule tables for a nonuniform CA, i.e., rules that give rise to high-quality sequences of random numbers. For the purpose of comparison, the results for CP evolved CAs, CA1, CA2, CA3 are taken from [2]. Using the CA based approaches namely PRSA and CP, three different CAs are evolved thus providing three sets of results each. PRSA evolved CAs are given in Table 4. The diehard tests results are provided in Table 6. The results show that the bit patterns generated using PRSA evolved CA passes more number of diehard tests than any other competing method. PRSA is found to provide quite consistent test results for the three CAs, CA1, CA2 and CA3, while those obtained using CP provide vary-ing performance. This indicates the effectiveness of the proposed RNG.

6.1 Effect of CA size on randomness of pat- terns

Random patterns were generated with CAs of vary- ing sizes. It was observed that with decrease in CA size randomness decreases as indicated by results of diehard battery of tests. CAs with 45 or more number of cells passed all diehard tests. CAs of size between 25 to 45 cells passed 21 of 23 tests (they consistently failed Bi- nary Rank for 31X31 and 32X32 Matrices tests). The number of tests passed then decreased with decrease in size. Some results are shown in Table 7.

6.2 Comparison of timing requirements

Comparing the timing requirements of the proposed and 50 cell CP based RNG, we found that while the former took 6 seconds, the latter required 12 minutes and

Table 4: Table showing CA1, CA2 and CA3 evolved from PRSA

CA1	011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011100111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 0111101111
CA2	011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111100111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 011110111101111011110111101111 0111101111
CA3	111101111011110111101111011110 111101111011110111101111011110 110001111011010111101111011110 111101111011110111101111011110 111101111011110111101111011110 111101111011110111101011011110 111101111011110111101111011110 011101111011110111101111011110 1111011110

4 seconds to evolve the CAs on a 3GHz Intel Pentium 4 machine. The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Comparison between average CPU time taken by PRSA and CP to evolve CA rules

	PRSA	CP
Average CPU Time	6(sec)	12(min) 4(sec)

7 Conclusion

The proposed probabilistic analysis technique is suc- cessfully applied on a 4NCA to construct CA RNGs. The analysis points out the fact that Class 4 connectivities produce better random patterns than Class 3, 2 or 1 con- nectivities. The technique can however be applied on CA of any neighborhood size. The technique demonstrates the fact that 1-dominated connectivities (connectivities having majority of 1 in their representation) dominates the evolved CA RNG rule which is also in accordance

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