

An introduction to Costas arrays

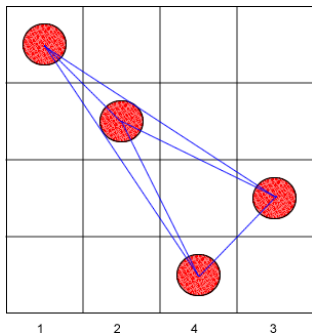
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Example and definition [Costas (1984)]



Let $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$, $f : [n] \rightarrow [n]$
(order n); f is Costas (bijection) iff

$$\forall i, j \in [n], k > 0 : i+k, j+k \in [n]$$
$$(f(i+k) - f(i), k) = (f(j+k) - f(j), k)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow i = j$$

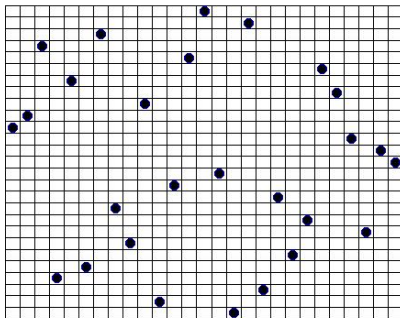
(On a straight line: 4 dots cannot form 2 pairs of equidistant dots, 3 dots cannot be equidistant.)

Otherwise: 4 dots cannot form a parallelogram)

- No two linear segments have the same length and slope!
- Horizontal/vertical flips and transpositions of a Costas array form families/equivalence classes (polymorphs) of Costas arrays: $1 \rightarrow 8$ (or $1 \rightarrow 4$ if symmetric).



A larger example



The only sporadic Costas array of order 27.



Let f/A_f and g/A_g be permutations/permutation arrays of order n . Their cross-correlation is:

$$\Psi_{f,g}(u, v) = \sum_{i=1}^n [f(i-u) + v = g(i)] = \sum_{i,j} a_{i-u,j-v}^f a_{ij}^g,$$

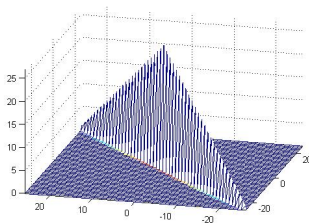
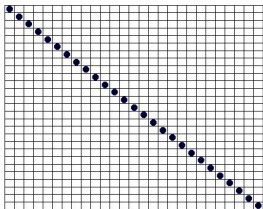
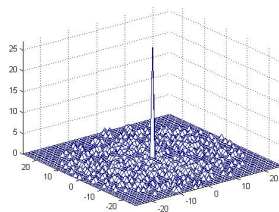
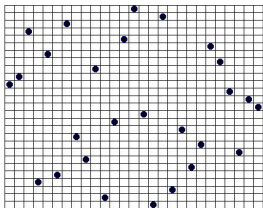
where $[P] = 1/0$ if P is true/false; also assume $f(i) = g(i) = 0$ if $i < 1$ or $i > n$.

In other words, superpose A_f on A_g , slide it by u columns to the right and by v rows downwards and count how many pairs of dots coincide.

If f is a permutation of order n , f is Costas iff $\Psi_{f,f}$ only takes the 3 values $0, 1, n$.



Why Costas arrays?



Aside: Why a permutation?

- [Costas (1984)] states that the original application does not benefit by a violation of the permutation condition.
- Beyond that, no reason!
- Mathematically, permutations are easier to handle and to construct than general binary arrays.
- What is the maximal number of dots that can be placed on a $n \times n$ grid without violating the Costas property?



The difference triangle

[Chang (1987), Barker-Drakakis-Rickard (2009)]

9	5	17	3	13	8	6	11	18	20	12	2	19	16	4	15	21	10	1	14	7	
-4	12	-14	10	-5	-2	5	7	2	-8	-10	17	-3	-12	11	6	-11	-9	13	-7		
8	-2	-4	5	-7	3	12	9	-6	-18	7	14	-15	-1	17	-5	-20	4	6			
-6	8	-9	3	-2	10	14	1	-16	-1	4	2	-4	5	6	-14	-7	-3				
4	3	-11	8	5	12	6	-9	1	-4	-8	13	2	-6	-3	-1	-14					
-1	1	-6	15	7	4	-4	8	-2	-16	3	19	-9	-15	10	-8						
-3	6	1	17	-1	-6	13	5	-14	-5	9	8	-18	-2	3							
2	13	3	9	-11	11	10	-7	-3	1	-2	-1	-5	-9								
9	15	-5	-1	6	8	-2	4	3	-10	-11	12	-12									
11	7	-15	16	3	-4	9	10	-8	-19	2	5										
3	-3	2	13	-9	7	15	-1	-17	-6	-5											
	-7	14	-1	1	2	13	4	-10	-4	-13											
	10	11	-13	12	8	2	-5	3	-11												
	7	-1	-2	18	-3	-7	8	-4													
	-5	10	4	7	-12	6	1														
	6	16	-7	-2	1	-1															
	12	5	-16	11	-6																
	1	-4	-3	4																	
		-8	9	-10																	
		5	2																		
			-2																		



Aside: Complexity considerations

- A permutation of order n is Costas iff no row of the difference triangle contains repeated entries, so

$$\binom{n-1}{2} + \binom{n-2}{2} + \dots + \binom{2}{2} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{k}{2} = \binom{n-1}{3}$$

comparisons need to be carried out.

- Polynomial complexity: $O(n^3)$ comparisons.
- There is no known fast way to discover Costas permutations of order n , except for brute-force search.
- Exponential complexity: $n!$ objects.
- So, existence of Costas arrays is in NP; but is it NP complete?



Important basic open problems

(Note: the numbers below refer to the list of problems in [Golomb-Taylor (1984)].)

For order n , let $C(n)$ be the number of Costas arrays and $c(n)$ the number of equivalence classes of Costas arrays.

1. $C(n) \geq 1$ for all $n \geq 1$.
 - 4.+6. $C(n)/n!$ is monotonically decreasing to 0. [It is known [Drakakis (2006)] that $C(n)/n! = O(1/n)$.]
 7. $C(n)/c(n) \rightarrow 8$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
 10. Are there Costas arrays representing configurations of non-attacking queens?
- New. Can all Costas arrays be “systematically” constructed?
- New. Are there Costas arrays of order 32 or 33 (the smallest orders where none is currently known)?



Known Costas arrays

- All Costas arrays of order $n \leq 28$ (through exhaustive search) [Drakakis et al. (2010), Drakakis et al. (2008), Rickard et al. (2006), Beard et al. (2007)].
- Two construction algorithms (Golomb and Welch) working for infinitely many (but not all) orders [Golomb (1984), Golomb-Taylor (1984)].
- Four additional equivalence classes of Costas arrays, of orders 29(2), 36 and 42 [Rickard (2004)].

Any Costas array belonging in the first set but not in the second or third is characterized as *sporadic*.



Aside: The mystery of sporadic Costas arrays

- Definitely the vast majority in “small” orders: for example, only 16 out of the 10240 known Costas arrays of order 19 are not sporadic!
- Almost die out later: only 2 sporadic equivalence classes of order 26 are known, 1 of 27, and 0 of 28...
- Do sporadic Costas arrays eventually die out?
- Are there unknown constructions that can account for sporadic Costas arrays?



Number of known Costas arrays

1	1	10	2160/28	19	10240/12	28	712/0
2	2	11	4368/36	20	6464/8	29	$\geq 164/10$
3	4	12	7852/34	21	3536/16	30	$\geq 664/8$
4	12/2	13	12828/50	22	2052/10	31	$\geq 8/0$
5	40/4	14	12752/46	23	872/20	32	?
6	116/10	15	19612/62	24	200/0	33	?
7	200/20	16	21104/40	25	88/4		
8	444/18	17	18276/38	26	56/4		
9	760/20	18	15096/20	27	204/14		



The exponential Welch construction $W_1(p, \alpha, c)$

Let p be prime, α a primitive root of the field $\mathbb{F}(p)$, and $c \in \{0, \dots, p-2\}$; then,

$$f(i) = \alpha^{i-1+c} \bmod p, \quad i = 1, \dots, p-1$$

is a Costas permutation of order $p-1$.

- $\phi(p-1)$ choices for α , $p-1$ for $c \longrightarrow (p-1)\phi(p-1)$ distinct permutations.
- Flips of $W_1(p, \alpha, c)$ are also of this form, possibly for different α, c .
- For $p > 5$, transposes of $W_1(p, \alpha, c)$ form a disjoint set [Drakakis-Gow-O'Carroll (2009)]: they are known as logarithmic Welch arrays.
- In total, there are $2(p-1)\phi(p-1)$ arrays in this family.



Let $i, j, i + k, j + k \in [p - 1]$:

$$\begin{aligned} f(i + k) - f(i) = f(j + k) - f(j) &\Rightarrow \\ f(i + k) - f(i) &\equiv f(j + k) - f(j) \pmod{p} \Leftrightarrow \\ \alpha^{i+k} - \alpha^i &\equiv \alpha^{j+k} - \alpha^j \pmod{p} \Leftrightarrow \\ (\alpha^i - \alpha^j)(\alpha^k - 1) &\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Leftrightarrow \\ i \equiv j \pmod{p - 1} \text{ or } k &\equiv 0 \pmod{p - 1} \Leftrightarrow \\ & i = j \text{ or } k = 0. \end{aligned}$$

The last step follows because of the range i, j, k lie in.



$$W_1(17, 3, 0) \longrightarrow \boxed{1\ 3\ 9\ 10\ 13\ 5\ 15\ 11\ 16\ 14\ 8\ 7\ 4\ 12\ 2\ 6}$$

$$W_1(17, 3, 2) \longrightarrow \boxed{9\ 10\ 13\ 5\ 15\ 11\ 16\ 14\ 8\ 7\ 4\ 12\ 2\ 6\ 1\ 3}$$

Note the *anti-reflective symmetry*:

$$6 + 11 = 2 + 15 = 12 + 5 = \dots = 17.$$

c circularly shifts columns: W_1 Costas arrays are *singly periodic*.



Aside: Inverse problems

- Anti-reflective symmetry does not characterize W_1 !
- Does single periodicity characterize W_1 ? Most likely, but still not formally proved!

In general:

- Problem: show that Costas arrays in a certain collection have a certain property.
- Inverse problem: show that all Costas arrays having a certain property must belong in a certain collection.

Inverse problems are very hard!



- $W_1(p, \alpha, 0)$ begins with 1 (corner dot): removing it yields a new Costas permutation $W_2(p, \alpha)$ of order $p - 2$:

$$W_2(17, 3) \longrightarrow \boxed{2\ 8\ 9\ 12\ 4\ 14\ 10\ 15\ 13\ 7\ 6\ 3\ 11\ 15}$$

- If 2 is a primitive root of $\mathbb{F}(p)$, $W_1(p, 2, 0)$ begins with 1 2 (two corner dots): removing them yields a new Costas permutation $W_3(p)$ of order $p - 3$.
- Adding a corner dot to $W_1(p, \alpha, c)$ may lead to a new Costas array $W_0(p, \alpha, c)$ of order p .



Golomb construction $G_2(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$

Let p be a prime, $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $q = p^m$ and α, β primitive roots of the field $\mathbb{F}(q)$; then, f such that

$$\alpha^i + \beta^{f(i)} = 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, q - 2$$

is a Costas permutation of order $q - 2$.

- $\phi(q - 1)$ choices for $\alpha, \beta \rightarrow \phi^2(q - 1)/m$ distinct permutations: if $\alpha^i + \beta^{f(i)} = 1$, then, for $k = 0, \dots, m - 1$, $1 = (\alpha^i + \beta^{f(i)})^{p^k} = (\alpha^{p^k})^i + (\beta^{p^k})^{f(i)}$.
- Flips and transposes of $G_2(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$ are also of this form, possibly for different α, β .
- There are two subfamilies of symmetric arrays [Drakakis-Gow-O'Carroll (2009)]: i) $\alpha = \beta$ (Lempel Costas arrays); ii) $q = r^2$ and $\beta = \alpha^r$.
- The main diagonal of the latter construction is an asymptotically optimally dense Golomb ruler, equivalent to the Bose-Chowla construction [Drakakis (2009)].



Let $i, j, i + k, j + k \in [q - 2]$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(i + k) - f(i) &= f(j + k) - f(j) \Rightarrow \\
 f(i + k) - f(i) &\equiv f(j + k) - f(j) \pmod{q - 1} \Leftrightarrow \\
 \beta^{f(i+k)-f(i)} &= \beta^{f(j+k)-f(j)} \Leftrightarrow \\
 \frac{1 - \alpha^{i+k}}{1 - \alpha^i} &= \frac{1 - \alpha^{j+k}}{1 - \alpha^j} \Leftrightarrow \\
 (\alpha^k - 1)(\alpha^i - \alpha^j) &= 0 \Leftrightarrow \\
 i \equiv j \pmod{q - 1} \text{ or } k &\equiv 0 \pmod{q - 1} \Leftrightarrow \\
 & i = j \text{ or } k = 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

The last step follows because of the range i, j, k lie in.



An example of a Golomb construction

$$q = 16 = 2^4, P(x) = x^4 + x + 1, a = x, b = x + 1 = x^4$$

0		1	0	1		
1		x	1	$x + 1$	1	1
2		x^2	2	$x^2 + 1$	2	2
3		x^3	3	$x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$	3	11
4		$x + 1$	4	x	4	4
5		$x^2 + x$	5	$x^2 + x$	5	10
6		$x^3 + x^2$	6	$x^3 + x$	6	7
7		$x^3 + x + 1$	7	$x^3 + x^2 + 1$	7	6
8		$x^2 + 1$	8	x^2	8	8
9		$x^3 + x$	9	$x^3 + x^2$	9	13
10		$x^2 + x + 1$	10	$x^2 + x + 1$	10	5
11		$x^3 + x^2 + x$	11	$x^3 + 1$	11	3
12		$x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$	12	x^3	12	14
13		$x^3 + x^2 + 1$	13	$x^3 + x + 1$	13	9
14		$x^3 + 1$	14	$x^3 + x^2 + 1$	14	12

This is a non-Lempel symmetric Costas permutation with 4 fixed points.



- Let $\alpha + \beta = 1$: this is possible in any finite field [Cohen-Mullen (1991)]; then, $G_2(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$ has a corner dot, and, removing it, yields a new Costas permutation $G_3(p^m, \alpha)$ of order $q - 3$.
- Derived Golomb Costas permutations of order $q - 4$ are possible through three different techniques:
 - G_4 Assuming G_3 and $p = 2$, it follows that $(\alpha + \beta)^2 = \alpha^2 + \beta^2 = 1$; then, $G_2(2^m, \alpha, \beta)$ begins with 1 2 (has two corner dots), so, removing them, yields $G_4(2^m, \alpha)$.
 - G_4^* Assuming $p > 2$, G_3 , and $\alpha^2 + \beta^{-1} = 1$, $G_2(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$ begins with 1 $q - 2$ and has 2 corner dots: removing them yields $G_4^*(p^m, \alpha)$.
 - T_4 Assuming $p > 2$, $\alpha = \beta$, and $\alpha^2 + \alpha = 1$, $G_2(p^m, \alpha, \alpha)$ begins with 2 1 and has a 2×2 corner array: removing it yields $T_4(p^m, \alpha)$.

- Assume G_4^* : it always follows that $\alpha^{-1} + \beta^2 = 1$, so that $G_2(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$ begins with 1 $q - 2$ and ends with 2, so that it has 3 corner dots: removing them yields $G_5^*(p^m, \alpha)$ of order $q - 5$.
- Adding one or two anti-diametrical corner dots to $G_2(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$ may lead to a Costas array of order $q - 1$ or q , respectively: these are $G_1(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$ and $G_0(p^m, \alpha, \beta)$.

Note the following:

- T_4 Costas arrays represent configurations of non-attacking kings on the chessboard [Drakakis-Gow-Rickard (2009)].
- Let f be a G_2 Costas permutation for $p > 2$: then [Drakakis (2010+)], for $\mu = (q - 1)/2$ and $i \in [\mu - 1]$,

$$f(\mu + i) - f(\mu - i) \equiv i[f(\mu + 1) - f(\mu - 1)] \pmod{q - 1}.$$

This is an analog of the anti-reflective symmetry.



- The proof of W_1 construction shows that these permutations satisfy a stricter version of the Costas property (modulo p).
- Add a blank row at the bottom, and circularly shift the rows any number of times. The resulting $p \times (p - 1)$ rectangle has the Costas property.
- Add a blank column, either to the left or to the right, and place a dot at the intersection of the blank row and column.
- The result is a permutation array which may have the Costas property.



Golomb Rickard construction

- The proof of G_2 construction shows that these permutations satisfy a stricter version of the Costas property (modulo $q - 1$).
- Add a blank row at the bottom and a blank column at the right, and circularly shift the rows and columns any number of times. The resulting $(q - 1) \times (q - 1)$ rectangle has the Costas property.
- Place a dot at the intersection of the blank row and column.
- The result is a permutation array which may have the Costas property.



Aside: Reinventing the wheel (and failing)

Can known Costas arrays be combined into larger new Costas arrays? Not in an “obvious” way! For example, letting $A = [a]$, $B = [b]$ be Costas arrays whose orders exceed 3:

- The following composite array seems to never be Costas:

$$\begin{array}{cc} A & 0 \\ 0 & B \end{array}$$

- The following “interlaced” array is never Costas:

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} a & 0 & a & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & b & 0 & b & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{array}$$

The reason is that any two Costas arrays of orders either equal or differing by 1 (and the smallest exceeding 3) have a common distance vector [Drakakis-Gow-Rickard (2008)].



Aside: Common distance vectors

- To disqualify composite Costas arrays, one needs to establish that any two “large” Costas arrays have a common distance vector.
- [Drakakis-Gow-Rickard (2009)] attempted to investigate this, but only for Welch and Golomb Costas arrays.
- Bottom line: there is no proof yet that composition is futile, though, in practice, it works when the order of A is 1 or 2 (when it is 3, the last successful case is for $n = 7$).



Aside: How close to interlacing do Costas arrays come? [Drakakis-Gow-Rickard (2007)]

- Define parity populations ee, oo, eo, oe to stand for the number of dots whose coordinates are both even, both odd, and of mixed parity, respectively.
- $ee + oo + eo + oe = n, eo = oe,$
 $oo + oe - (eo + ee) = oo - ee = n \pmod 2$: need a 4th equation.
- For G_2 Costas arrays with $p > 2$:
 - If $q \equiv 1 \pmod 4, oo = eo = oe = (q - 1)/4, ee = (q - 5)/4;$
 - If $q \equiv 3 \pmod 4, ee = eo = oe = (q - 3)/4, oo = (q + 1)/4;$
- For W_1 Costas arrays:
 - If $p \equiv 1 \pmod 4, oo = eo = oe = ee;$
 - If $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4,$ then $|ee - oe| = h(-p)$ if $p \equiv 7 \pmod 8,$ and $|ee - oe| = 3h(-p)$ if $p \equiv 3 \pmod 8.$

In particular, parity populations are only dependent on p and q ; this is no longer true for G_2 with $p = 2$.



Enumeration:

- Enumeration of order 29 projected to require 350 years of CPU time!
- Complexity of current enumeration algorithm increases 5 times whenever order increases by 1.
- Realistically, order 30 is the last one within reach today...

Genetic algorithms:

- “Mutate” random permutations into Costas ones.
- Current algorithms fail for “large” orders (20 or above).
- Problem: the structure of Costas arrays is very tight. It seems that, for any large order n , i, j, k exist such that the values $f(i), f(j), f(k)$ determine at most one Costas permutation! [Drakakis (2010)]








Classification (finite simple groups style!)

Known Costas arrays seem to fall into 4 categories:


- Generated (G): they are constructed by an algorithm whose applicability is determined by a sufficient condition involving the order alone (W_1, W_2, G_2, G_3, G_4).
- Predictably emergent (PE): they are constructed by an algorithm whose applicability can be asserted by a condition involving the order and some additional parameters (W_3, G_4^*, T_4, G_5^*).
- Unpredictably emergent (UE): they are heuristically constructed and the Costas property has to be explicitly checked (W_0, G_0, G_1 , Welch Rickard, Golomb Rickard).
- Sporadic (S): of unknown origin.

Up to order 300, the last Rickard Costas arrays are the ones reported, while the last G_1 and W_0 Costas arrays were found in orders 52 and 53, respectively. UE seem to die out!







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