

## The genetic coding system and unitary matrices

Sergey V. Petoukhov<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>-Mechanical Engineering Research Institute of Russian Academy of Sciences.  
Russia, 101990, Moscow, M. Kharitonievskiy pereulok, 4,  
<http://eng.imash.ru/>, [info@imash.ru](mailto:info@imash.ru)

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**Abstract.** Information molecules of DNA and RNA should obey principles of quantum mechanics where unitary operators in form of unitary matrices have key meanings. Unitary matrices are the basis of calculations in quantum computers. This article presents some author's results, which show that matrix forms of the representation of structured systems of molecular-genetic alphabets can be considered as sets of sparse unitary matrices related with phenomenologic features of the degeneracy of the genetic code. These sparse unitary matrices have orthogonal systems of functions in their rows and columns. A complementarity exists among some unitary genetic matrices in relation each other. Decompositions of numeric genetic matrices into sets of sparse unitary matrices are connected with the logical operation of modulo-2 addition used in quantum computers as well. Tensor (or Kronecker) families of unitary genetic matrices with their fractal-like properties are also considered. The described results are discussed in the frame of development of quantum-information approaches for modeling genetic systems.

**Keywords:** genetic code, alphabet, unitary matrix, dyadic shift, decomposition, spectral presentation, fractal, tensor product, quantum informatics

### 1. Introduction.

The information molecules of DNA and RNA of the genetic coding system belong to the world of molecules, in which the principles of quantum mechanics manage. This article presents results of the author's study of abilities of using formalisms of quantum mechanics and quantum informatics to model regular structures of molecular-genetic systems. First of all, we are talking about searching for correspondences between unitary operators and structured alphabets of DNA and RNA in their matrix forms of representation. The article provides additional materials for the development of quantum information modeling of structured molecular-genetic ensembles; elements of the quantum

information modeling have been described in the author's work about tetragroup symmetries in long DNA texts [Petoukhov, 2017].

In line with one of the postulates of quantum mechanics, the evolution of a closed quantum system is described by unitary transformations. Computational processes in quantum computer science are based on unitary operators that serve as quantum gates. *"Any unitary matrix specifies a valid quantum gate"* [Nielsen, Chuang, 2010, p. 18]. Any physical impact on a qubit in quantum mechanics is described by a linear unitary operator.

In quantum mechanics and quantum computer science, an important role is played by unitary operators in form of Hadamard matrices with complete orthogonal systems of Walsh functions in them. Hadamard operators are also widely used for spectral representations of signal vectors in the technique of noise-immune communication [Seberry, Wysocki, Wysocki, 2005], the sequency analysis of Harmuth [Harmuth, 1977, 1989], the digital logical holography [Derzhypolskyy, Melenevskyy, Gnatovskyy, 2007; Morita, Sakurai, 1973; Soroko, 1974] and algorithms of quantum informatics [Nielsen, Chuang, 2010]. But the Hadamard matrices with their complete systems of orthogonal functions are not the only unitary matrices with complete systems of orthogonal functions in them.

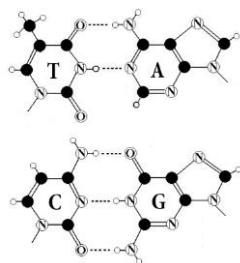
In this paper, we present other unitary matrices with other complete systems of orthogonal functions that were discovered by the author in the course of the algebraic modeling of molecular alphabets of DNA and RNA. These unitary matrices are sparse ones and they form sets of mutual-complementary matrices (in some algebraic sense). We conditionally call them unitary genetic matrices (or briefly, unitary geno-matrices). This makes us recall the well-known proposition that different natural systems may need - for their spectral analysis - in their own systems of orthogonal functions: *"after Fourier it was found that for some problems, harmonic sinusoids rather than other systems of orthogonal functions, for example, the Legendre polynomials, are better suited. In fact, any particular problem needs its own system of orthogonal functions. This was most clearly manifested in the course of the development of quantum mechanics"* [Soroko, 1973]. These unitary sparse geno-matrices contain complete systems of orthogonal functions and have special algebraic properties. They can serve as the basis for a new class of spectral representations of vectors in biology and other fields of science, as well as a new class of bio-mathematical models and algorithms in classical and quantum computer sciences.

One should add that quantum-information aspects of life are actively discussed in modern science, for example, in the book [Quantum aspects of life, 2008]; in articles about a biology of quantum information [Matsuno, 1999, 2003, 2015; Matsuno, Paton, 2000]; in articles about a possible meaning of the quantum algorithm of Grover in genetic information [Patel, 2001 a,b,c], etc.

## 2. Matrix representations of DNA-alphabets and genetic binary oppositions

Science does not know why the basic alphabet of DNA has been created by Nature from just four letters (adenine A, thymine T, cytosine C and guanine G), and why just these very simple molecules were chosen for the DNA-alphabet (out of millions of possible molecules). But science knows [Fimmel, Danielli,

Strüngmann, 2013; Petoukhov, 2008; Petoukhov, He, 2009; Stambuk, 1999] that these four molecules are interrelated due to their symmetrical peculiarities into the united molecular ensemble with its three pairs of binary-oppositional traits or indicators (Fig. 1).



Nº	Binary Symbols	C	A	G	T/U
1	<b>0<sub>1</sub></b> – pyrimidines <b>1<sub>1</sub></b> – purines	<b>0<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>1<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>1<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>0<sub>1</sub></b>
2	<b>0<sub>2</sub></b> – amino <b>1<sub>2</sub></b> – keto	<b>0<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>0<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>1<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>1<sub>2</sub></b>
3	<b>0<sub>3</sub></b> – three hydrogen bonds; <b>1<sub>3</sub></b> – two hydrogen bonds	<b>0<sub>3</sub></b>	<b>1<sub>3</sub></b>	<b>0<sub>3</sub></b>	<b>1<sub>3</sub></b>

Fig. 1. Left: the four nitrogenous bases of DNA: adenine A, guanine G, cytosine C, and thymine T. Right: three binary sub-alphabets of the genetic alphabet on the basis of three pairs of binary-oppositional traits or indicators.

These three pairs of binary-oppositional traits or indicators are the following:

- (1) Two letters are purines (A and G), and the other two are pyrimidines (C and T). From the standpoint of these binary-oppositional traits one can denote  $C = T = 0$ ,  $A = G = 1$ . From the standpoint of these traits, any of the DNA-sequences are represented by a corresponding binary sequence. For example, GCATGAAGT is represented by 101011110;
- (2) Two letters are amino-molecules (A and C) and the other two are keto-molecules (G and T). From the standpoint of these traits one can designate  $A = C = 0$ ,  $G = T = 1$ . Correspondingly, the same sequence GCATGAAGT is represented by another binary sequence, 100110011;
- (3) The pairs of complementary letters, A-T and C-G, are linked by 2 and 3 hydrogen bonds, respectively. From the standpoint of these binary traits, one can designate  $C = G = 0$ ,  $A = T = 1$ . Correspondingly, the same sequence GCATGAAGT is read as 001101101.

Accordingly, each of the DNA-sequences of nucleotides is the carrier of three parallel messages on three different binary languages. At the same time, these three types of binary representations form a common logic set on the basis of the logic operation of modulo-2 addition denoted by the symbol  $\oplus$ : modulo-2 addition of any two such binary representations of the DNA-sequence gives the third binary representation of the same DNA-sequence: for example,  $101011110 \oplus 100110011 = 001101101$ . One can remind here the rules of the bitwise modulo-2 addition:  $0 \oplus 0 = 0$ ;  $0 \oplus 1 = 1$ ;  $1 \oplus 0 = 1$ ;  $1 \oplus 1 = 0$ . The logic operation of modulo-2 addition is actively used in classical and quantum computers. Below we use the operation of modulo-2 addition for those decompositions of genetic matrices, which lead to interesting sets of inter-complementary unitary matrices of sparse types for special kinds of spectral representations of vectors.

Taking into account the phenomenological fact that each of DNA-letters C, A, T and G is uniquely defined by any two kinds of mentioned binary-oppositional indicators (Fig. 1), these genetic letters can be represented by means of corresponding pairs of binary symbols, for example, from the standpoint of two first binary-oppositional indicators. It is convenient for us - for the further description - use at the first position of each of letters its binary symbol from the second pair of binary-oppositional indicators (the indicator "amino or keto": C=A=0, T=G=1) and at the second positions of each of letters its binary symbol from the first pair of binary-oppositional indicators (the indicator "pyrimidine or purine": C=T=0, A=G=1). In this case the letter C is represented by the binary symbol 0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub> (that is as 2-bit binary number), A - by the symbol 0<sub>2</sub>1<sub>1</sub>, T - by the symbol 1<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>, G - by the symbol 1<sub>2</sub>1<sub>1</sub>. Using these representations of separate letters, each of 16 doublets is represented as the concatenation of the binary symbols of its letters (that is as 4-bit binary number): for example, the doublet CC is represented as 4-bit binary number 0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>, the doublet CA - as 4-bit binary number 0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>0<sub>2</sub>1<sub>1</sub>, etc. By analogy, each of 64 triplets is represented as the concatenation of the binary symbols of its letters (that is as 6-bit binary number): for example, the triplet CCC is represented as 6-bit binary number 0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>, the triplet CCA - as 6-bit binary number 0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>0<sub>2</sub>0<sub>1</sub>0<sub>2</sub>1<sub>1</sub>, etc. In general, each of n-plets is represented as the concatenation of the binary symbols of its letters (below we will not show these indexes 2 and 1 of separate letters in binary representations of n-plets but will remember that each of positions corresponds to its own kind of indicators from the first or from the second set of indicators in Fig. 1).

It is convenient to represent DNA-alphabets of 4 nucleotides, 16 doublets, 64 triplets, ... 4<sup>n</sup> n-plets in a form of appropriate square tables (Fig. 2), which rows and columns are numerated by binary symbols in line with the following principle. Entries of each column are numerated by binary symbols in line with the first set of binary-oppositional indicators in Fig. 1 (for example, the triplet CAG and all other triplets in the same column are the combination "pyrimidine-purin-purin" and so this column is correspondingly numerated 011). By contrast, entries of each of rows are numerated by binary numbers in line with the second set of indicators (for example, the same triplet CAG and all other triplets in the same row are the combination "amino-amino-keto" and so this row is correspondingly numerated 001). In such tables (Fig. 2), each of 4 letters, 16 doublets, 64 triplets, ... takes automatically its own individual place and all components of the alphabets are arranged in a strict order.

	00	01	10	11
00	CC	CA	AC	AA
01	CT	CG	AT	AG
10	TC	TA	GC	GA
11	TT	TG	GT	GG

	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
000	CCC	CCA	CAC	CAA	ACC	ACA	AAC	AAA
001	CCT	CCG	CAT	CAG	ACT	ACG	AAT	AAG
010	CTC	CTA	CGC	CGA	ATC	ATA	AGC	AGA
011	CTT	CTG	CGT	CGG	ATT	ATG	AGT	AGG
100	TCC	TCA	TAC	TAA	GCC	GCA	GAC	GAA
101	TCT	TCG	TAT	TAG	GCT	GCG	GAT	GAG
110	TTC	TTA	TGC	TGA	GTC	GTA	GGC	GGA
111	TTT	TTG	TGT	TGG	GTT	GTG	GGT	GGG

Fig. 2. The square tables of DNA-alphabets of 4 nucleotides, 16 doublets and 64 triplets with a strict arrangement of all components. Each of tables is constructed in line with the principle of binary numeration of its column and rows on the basis of binary-oppositional traits of the nitrogenous bases (see explanations in the text).

It is essential that these 3 separate genetic tables form the joint tensor family of matrices since they are interrelated by the known operation of the tensor (or Kronecker) product of matrices (Fig. 3). So they are not simple tables but matrices. By definition, under tensor multiplication of two matrices, each of entries of the first matrix is multiplied with the whole second matrix [Bellman, 1960]. The second tensor power of the (2\*2)-matrix [C, A; T, G] of 4 DNA-letters gives automatically the (4\*4)-matrix of 16 doublets; the third tensor power of the same (2\*2)-matrix of 4 DNA-letters gives the (8\*8)-matrix of 64 triplets with the same strict arrangement of entries as in Fig. 2. In this tensor construction of the tensor family of genetic matrices, data about binary-oppositional traits of genetic letters C, A, T and G are not used at all. So, the structural organization of the system of DNA-alphabets is connected with the algebraic operation of the tensor product (Fig. 3). It is important since the operation of the tensor product is well known in mathematics, physics and informatics, where it gives a way of putting vector spaces together to form larger vector spaces. The following quotation speaks about the crucial meaning of the tensor product: «*This construction is crucial to understanding the quantum mechanics of multiparticle systems*» [Nielsen, Chuang, 2010, p. 71]. For us the most interesting is that the tensor product is one of basic instruments in quantum informatics.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline
 C & A \\ \hline
 T & G \\ \hline
 \end{array} \otimes \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline
 C & A \\ \hline
 T & G \\ \hline
 \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline
 C & A & C & A \\ \hline
 C^* & T & G & , A^* & T & G \\ \hline
 \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline
 CC & CA & AC & AA \\ \hline
 CT & CG & AT & AG \\ \hline
 TC & TA & GC & GA \\ \hline
 TT & TG & GT & GG \\ \hline
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline
 C & A \\ \hline
 T & G \\ \hline
 \end{array}
 \otimes
 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline
 C & A \\ \hline
 T & G \\ \hline
 \end{array}
 \otimes
 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline
 C & A \\ \hline
 T & G \\ \hline
 \end{array}
 =
 \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline
 CCC & CCA & CAC & CAA & ACC & ACA & AAC & AAA \\ \hline
 CCT & CCG & CAT & CAG & ACT & ACG & AAT & AAG \\ \hline
 CTC & CTA & CGC & CGA & ATC & ATA & AGC & AGA \\ \hline
 CTT & CTG & CGT & CGG & ATT & ATG & AGT & AGG \\ \hline
 \hline
 TCC & TCA & TAC & TAA & GCC & GCA & GAC & GAA \\ \hline
 TCT & TCG & TAT & TAG & GCT & GCG & GAT & GAG \\ \hline
 TTC & TTA & TGC & TGA & GTC & GTA & GGC & GGA \\ \hline
 TTT & TTG & TGT & TGG & GTT & GTG & GGT & GGG \\ \hline
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 3. The tensor family of genetic matrices  $[C, A; T, G]^{(n)}$  (here tensor power  $n = 1, 2, 3$ ) of DNA-alphabets of 4 nucleotides, 16 doublets and 64 triplets. The symbol  $\otimes$  means the tensor product.

As is known, the degeneracy of the genetic code has the important specificity: the entire set of 64 triplets is divided by Nature into 2 equal binary-opposition subsets [Rumer, 1968]:

- 32 triplets with “strong roots” (black colors in Fig. 4), i.e., with 8 “strong” doublets AC, CC, CG, CT, GC, GG, GT, TC;
- 32 triplets with “weak roots” (white colors in Fig. 4), i.e., with 8 “weak” doublets CA, AA, AG, AT, GA, TA, TG, TT.

	00	01	10	11
00	CC (00)	CA (01)	AC (10)	AA (11)
01	CT (01)	CG (00)	AT (11)	AG (10)
10	TC (10)	TA (11)	GC (00)	GA (01)
11	TT (11)	TG (10)	GT (01)	GG (00)

	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
000	CCC (000)	CCA (001)	CAC (010)	CAA (011)	ACC (100)	ACA (101)	AAC (110)	AAA (111)
001	CCT (001)	CCG (000)	CAT (011)	CAG (010)	ACT (101)	ACG (100)	AAT (111)	AAG (110)
010	CTC (010)	CTA (011)	CGC (000)	CGA (001)	ATC (110)	ATA (111)	AGC (100)	AGA (101)
011	CTT (011)	CTG (010)	CGT (001)	CGG (000)	ATT (111)	ATG (110)	AGT (101)	AGG (100)
100	TCC (100)	TCA (101)	TAC (110)	TAA (111)	GCC (000)	GCA (001)	GAC (010)	GAA (011)
101	TCT (101)	TCG (100)	TAT (111)	TAG (110)	GCT (001)	GCG (000)	GAT (011)	GAG (010)
110	TTC (110)	TTA (111)	TGC (100)	TGA (101)	GTC (010)	GTA (011)	GGC (000)	GGA (001)
111	TTT (111)	TTG (110)	TGT (101)	TGG (100)	GTT (011)	GTG (010)	GGT (001)	GGG (000)

Fig. 4. Black-and-white mosaics represent the distribution of strong and weak doublets in the matrix of 16 doublets (left) and the distribution of triplets with strong and weak roots in the matrix of 64 triplets (on the right). Binary number in brackets in each of matrix cells is a sum of modulo-2 addition of binary numberings of the row and the column of the cell.

Code meanings of triplets with strong roots do not depend on the letters on their third position; code meanings of triplets with weak roots depend on their third letter. What are locations of these strong (black) and weak (white) members of DNA-alphabets in the genetic matrices shown in Figs. 2 and 3?

The unexpected phenomenological fact is a symmetrical location (Fig. 4) of all black and white entries in the genetic matrices of 16 doublets and 64 triplets, which were constructed very formally without any mention about amino acids and the degeneracy of the genetic code.

Symmetrical properties of mosaics in the genetic matrices in Fig. 4 are the following:

- 1) the left and right halves of the matrix mosaic are mirror-anti-symmetric each to other in its colors: any pair of cells, disposed by mirror-symmetrical manner in the halves, possesses the opposite colors;
- 2) the block mosaic of the matrix has the cruciform character: both quadrants along each diagonals are identical each other from the standpoint of their mosaic;
- 3) mosaic of each of rows has the meander character identical to known Rademacher functions  $r_n(t) = \text{sign}(\sin 2^n \pi t)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ , ([https://www.encyclopediaofmath.org/index.php/Rademacher\\_system](https://www.encyclopediaofmath.org/index.php/Rademacher_system)), which are particular cases of Walsh functions and contain only values +1 and -1.

Using this analogy with Rademacher-Walsh functions, one can represent the symbolic genetic matrices in Fig. 4 in forms of numeric matrices  $R_4$  and  $R_8$  with their entries +1 and -1 in Fig. 5 where numbers +1 (-1) represent black (white) doublets and triplets correspondingly. Taking into account that meander-like mosaics of rows of matrices  $R_4$  and  $R_8$  correspond Rademacher functions, we conditionally called these matrices "Rademacher matrices" in all our publications beginning from our book [Petoukhov, 2008] (although Hans Rademacher himself never worked with such matrices).

$R_4 =$	$R_8 =$																																																																																
<table border="1"> <tr><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td></tr> </table>	1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	<table border="1"> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td></tr> <tr><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td></tr> <tr><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>-1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td></tr> </table>	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1
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Fig. 5. Numeric representations  $R_4$  and  $R_8$  of the genetic matrices of 16 doublets and 64 triplets from Fig. 4. Matrix cells with number +1 (-1) correspond

cells with black (white) doublets and triplets in Fig. 4. Each of rows of the numeric matrices represents one of Rademacher-Walsh functions.

It should be noted that a huge quantity  $64! \approx 10^{89}$  of variants exists for dispositions of 64 triplets in a separate (8\*8)-matrix. For comparison, the modern physics estimates time of existence of the Universe in  $10^{17}$  seconds. It is obvious that an accidental disposition of black and white triplets in a separate (8\*8)-matrix will give almost never any symmetry. But in our approach, this matrix of 64 triplets is not a separate matrix, but it is one of members of the family of matrices of genetic alphabets interrelated by means of binary-oppositional traits of nitrogenous bases A, T, C, G (and additionally it is one of members of the tensor family of matrices  $[C, A; T, G]^{(n)}$  of interrelated alphabets of DNA).

These numeric matrices  $R_4$  and  $R_8$  with their mosaics (Fig. 5) represent the phenomenological peculiarities of the degeneracy of the genetic code. The exponentiation of these genetic matrices in the second power leads to their doubling and quadrupling:  $R_4^2 = 2 \cdot R_4$  and  $R_8^2 = 4 \cdot R_8$ . This resembles the doubling and quadrupling the genetic material under mitosis and meiosis of biological cells. Let us analyze algebraic properties of these genetic matrices  $R_4$  and  $R_8$  more deeply.

### 3. The genetic matrix $R_4$ and sparse unitary matrices

We begin the algebraic analysis of the (4\*4)-matrix  $R_4$  in Fig. 5. Fig. 6 shows the decomposition of this matrix into a sum of 4 sparse matrices:  $R_4 = R_{04} + R_{14} + R_{24} + R_{34}$  (below we will explain that this decomposition is not arbitrary but constructed on the principle of dyadic-shift decompositions known in technology of digital signal processing).

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ \hline 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Fig. 6. The dyadic-shift decomposition of the matrix  $R_4$  (Fig. 5) into the sum of 4 sparse matrices:  $R_4 = R_{04} + R_{14} + R_{24} + R_{34}$ , where  $R_{04}$  is the identity matrix.

By definition, a complex square matrix  $U$  is unitary if its conjugate transpose  $U^\dagger$  is also its inverse:  $UU^\dagger = I$ , where  $I$  is the identity matrix (its conjugate transpose  $U^\dagger$  is also its inverse matrix  $U^{-1}$ ). The real analogue of a unitary matrix is an orthogonal matrix, for which the conjugate transposition  $U^\dagger$  is identical to the ordinary transposition:  $UU^\dagger = I$ . In this article we consider only the case of real square matrix. Unitary matrices have significant importance in quantum mechanics because they preserve norms, and thus, probability amplitudes ([https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unitary\\_matrix](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unitary_matrix)). The tensor product of two unitary matrices always generates a unitary matrix [Rumer, Fet, 1970, p. 38].

It is interesting that each of sparse matrices  $R_{04}$ ,  $R_{14}$ ,  $R_{24}$  and  $R_{34}$  are unitary (or orthogonal since their entities are real):

$$R_{04}R_{04}^T = I, \quad R_{14}R_{14}^T = I, \quad R_{24}R_{24}^T = I, \quad R_{34}R_{34}^T = I \quad (1)$$

In molecular-genetic systems, relations of complementarity play the very important role. The book [Chapeville, Haenni, 1974, Chapter 1] notes that the proof of the complementary structure of the bases in DNA has led to the most fundamental discoveries in modern biology: this complementarity provides the most important properties of DNA as a carrier of genetic information, including DNA replication in the course of cell division and also all mechanisms of manifestation of genetic information. But one can note that the set of unitary genetic matrices  $R_{04}$ ,  $R_{14}$ ,  $R_{24}$  and  $R_{34}$  (Fig. 6) contains the following algebraic complementarities in their pairs: unitary matrices  $R_{04}$  and  $R_{24}$  form the first pair of the algebraic complementarity since they are transformed into each other by the mirror reflection relative to the average vertical line with simultaneous inversion of signs of their non-zero entries (the mirror-anti-symmetry). The same is true for unitary matrices  $R_{14}$  and  $R_{34}$ , which form the second pair with the similar algebraic complementarity of the mirror-anti-symmetric type. The degeneracy of the genetic code is connected with such algebraic complementarities in the set of unitary genetic matrices.

Determinants of all the unitary matrices  $R_{04}$ ,  $R_{14}$ ,  $R_{24}$  and  $R_{34}$  are equal to 1; by this reason the matrices  $R_{04}$ ,  $R_{14}$ ,  $R_{24}$  and  $R_{34}$  belong to the type of so called special unitary matrices. The special unitary matrices are closed under multiplication and the inverse operation, and therefore form a matrix group called the special unitary group (<http://mathworld.wolfram.com/SpecialUnitaryMatrix.html>).

The table of multiplication of the closed set of genetic unitary matrices  $R_{04}$ ,  $R_{14}$ ,  $R_{24}$  and  $R_{34}$  is shown in Fig. 7. It coincides with the known multiplication table of the algebra of split-quaternions by J.Cockle, which are used in mathematics and physics [<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Split-quaternion> ; Frenkel, Libine, 2011].

x	$R_{04}$	$R_{14}$	$R_{24}$	$R_{34}$		x	1	i	j	k
$R_{04}$	$R_{04}$	$R_{14}$	$R_{24}$	$R_{34}$		1	1	i	j	k
$R_{14}$	$R_{14}$	$-R_{04}$	$R_{34}$	$-R_{24}$		i	i	-1	k	-j
$R_{24}$	$R_{24}$	$-R_{34}$	$R_{04}$	$-R_{14}$		j	j	-k	1	-i
$R_{34}$	$R_{34}$	$R_{24}$	$R_{14}$	$R_{04}$		k	k	j	i	1

Fig. 7. On left: the multiplication table of the unitary genetic  $(4 \times 4)$ -matrices  $R_{04}$ ,  $R_{14}$ ,  $R_{24}$  and  $R_{34}$  from Fig. 6.

On right: the multiplication table of split-quaternions by J. Cockle (from [<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Split-quaternion>]).

From this fact, one can conclude that the division of the set of 16 doublets in line with the degeneracy of the genetic code is connected with the set of sparse unitary matrices  $R_{40}$ ,  $R_{41}$ ,  $R_{42}$  and  $R_{43}$ .

The rows of each of the unitary genetic matrices  $R_{04}$ ,  $R_{14}$ ,  $R_{24}$  and  $R_{34}$  form a complete orthogonal system of functions. The action of each of these matrices (except for the identity matrix  $R_{04}$ ) on an arbitrary 4-dimensional vector  $X = [x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$  transforms it into a new vector  $Y$ , which can be considered as a spectral representation of the vector  $X$  on the basis of the orthogonal system of functions in the rows of the given matrix. The action of the same unitary matrix, taken in its transposed form, on this vector  $Y$  restores the original vector  $X$ . The exponentiation of each of the matrices  $R_{40}$ ,  $R_{41}$ ,  $R_{42}$  and  $R_{43}$  in a tensor power generates a new unitary matrix with an orthogonal system of functions in its rows and columns.

One can add that each of  $(2*2)$ -matrices in 4 quadrants of the genetic matrix  $R_4$  is the sum of 2 unitary matrices. Really, the matrix in two quadrants along the main diagonal  $[1, -1; 1, 1]$  is the sum of two unitary matrices  $[1, 0; 0, 1]$  and  $[0, -1; 1, 0]$ ; the matrix in two quadrants along the secondary diagonal is also the sum of two unitary matrices  $[1, 0; 0, -1]$  and  $[0, -1; -1, 0]$ . One of these unitary matrices is the well-known quantum gate  $Z=[1, 0; 0, -1]$ .

Unitary matrices are used in quantum informatics as quantum logic elements (quantum gates) for performing quantum computations on their basis. In the case of multi-qubit systems, the operation of the tensor product of matrices is of key importance in connection with the postulate of quantum mechanics: the state space of a composite system is the tensor product of the state spaces of its components. In the light of this, it is especially interesting that the entire genetic  $(4x4)$ -matrix  $R_4$  (Fig. 5) is constructed as the sum of the tensor products of four unitary  $(2*2)$ -matrices, that is, of four quantum gates  $U_0$ ,  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$  and  $U_3$  (Fig. 8) in line with the following expression (2):

$$R_4 = U_0 \otimes U_0 + U_0 \otimes U_1 + U_3 \otimes U_2 + U_3 \otimes (-U_3) \quad (2)$$

where matrices  $U_0$ ,  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$  and  $U_3$  are shown in Fig. 8. These matrices are unitary:  $U_0^*U_0^T = I_2$ ,  $U_1^*U_1^T = I_2$ ,  $U_2^*U_2^T = I_2$ ,  $U_3^*U_3^T = I_2$ , where  $I_2$  is the identity matrix.

$$U_0 = \begin{vmatrix} 1, 0 \\ 0, 1 \end{vmatrix}; \quad U_1 = \begin{vmatrix} 0, -1 \\ 1, 0 \end{vmatrix}; \quad U_2 = \begin{vmatrix} -1, 0 \\ 0, 1 \end{vmatrix}; \quad U_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 0, -1 \\ -1, 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

Fig. 8. Unitary  $(2*2)$ -matrices  $U_0$ ,  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$  and  $U_3$ .

The set of these 4 matrices is also closed under multiplication. Fig. 9 shows their multiplication table, which coincides with the multiplication table of split-quaternions by J. Cockle by analogy with the case of unitary  $(4*4)$ -matrices in Figs. 6 and 7.

*	$U_0$	$U_1$	$U_2$	$U_3$
$U_0$	$U_0$	$U_1$	$U_2$	$U_3$
$U_1$	$U_1$	$-U_0$	$U_3$	$-U_2$
$U_2$	$U_2$	$-U_3$	$U_0$	$-U_1$
$U_3$	$U_3$	$U_2$	$U_1$	$U_0$

Fig. 9. The multiplication table of unitary (2\*2)-matrices  $U_0, U_1, U_2$  and  $U_3$  from Fig. 8. It coincides with the multiplication table of split-quaternions by J. Cockle reproduced in Fig. 8.

It should be noted that unitary matrices  $U_0, U_1, U_2$  and  $U_3$  (Fig. 8) have relations with quantum gates used widely in quantum computing [Nielsen, Chuang, 2010, p. XXX].

Exponentiation of unitary matrices  $U_1, U_2$  and  $U_3$  into ordinary integer powers  $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$  gives cyclic groups of matrices with the following periods:

$U_1^n = U_1^{n+4}$ ,  $U_2^n = U_2^{n+2}$ ,  $U_3^n = U_3^{n+2}$ . In this article we specially note a connection of cyclic groups with algebraic properties of genetic unitary matrices since such cyclic groups can be useful for modeling many inherited cyclic processes in physiology of organisms.

Exponentiation of each of unitary matrices  $U_0, U_1, U_2$  and  $U_3$  into tensor (or Kronecker) powers  $k = 2, 3, 4, \dots$  generates corresponding tensor families of unitary matrices:  $U_0^{(k)}, U_1^{(k)}, U_2^{(k)}$  and  $U_3^{(k)}$  where  $(k)$  means the tensor power.

#### 4. The complementarity of sparse unitary matrices in genetics and the cruciform principle in inherited sensory informatics

This Section considers the cruciform character of the block black-and-white mosaic of the (4\*4)-matrix  $R_4$  of 16 doublets, which reflects essential peculiarities of the degeneracy of the genetic code (Figs. 4 and 5). One can note that genetically inherited constructions of physiological sensory-motor systems demonstrate similar cruciform structures. For example, the connection between the hemispheres of human brain and the halves of a human body possesses the similar cruciform character: the left hemisphere serves the right half of the body and the right hemisphere (Fig. 10) [Annett, 1985, 1992; Gazzaniga, 1995; Hellige, 1993]. The system of optic cranial nerves from two eyes possesses the cruciform structures as well: the optic nerves transfer information about the right half of field of vision into the left hemisphere of brain, and information about the left half of field of vision into the right hemisphere. The same is held true for the hearing system [Penrose, 1989, Chapter 9]. In particular, due to existence of such inter-complementary right and left parts in genetically inherited visual and hearing systems, a person has a stereoscopic perception of his environment. Now we show that a similar cruciform character, which is represented in the mosaic matrix of 16 doublets (Figs. 4, 5, 11), is connected with the following fact: this mosaic matrix is a sum of two sparse unitary matrices that are algebraic complementary to each other (they are mirror-anti-symmetric to each other by analogy with the left and right halves of a human body) and that can be considered as the right and left parts of the cruciform matrix  $R_4$ .

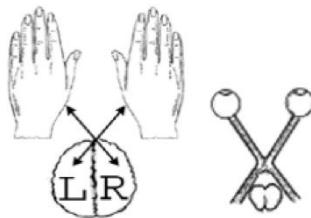


Fig. 10. The cruciform schemes of some morpho-functional structures in human organism. On the left side: the cruciform connections of brain hemispheres with the left and the right halves of a human body. In the right side: the cruciform structure of optic nerves from eyes in brain.

One can suppose that this inherited cruciform character of sensory-motor systems is connected with genetic cruciform structures that include, in particular, the genetic matrices  $R_4$  and  $R_8$  [Petoukhov, 2008; Petoukhov, He, 2009]. Taking into account the quantum-informational character of molecular-genetic systems and also an important role of unitary matrices in quantum mechanics, it is interesting that – as we have discovered - these genetic matrices  $R_4$  and  $R_8$  are connected with inter-complementary sparse unitary matrices described below.

Let us begin with a consideration of the genetic matrix  $R_4$  of 16 doublets. We reveal that its cruciform character is connected with a pair of two sparse unitary matrices, which are mirror-anti-symmetric to each other. Fig. 11 shows that the genetic cruciform matrix  $R_4$  is the sum of two sparse matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$ :  $R_4 = R_{4R} + R_{4L}$ . These two sparse matrices are inter-complementary in an algebraic sense since they mirror-anti-symmetric to each other and they jointly form the non-sparse matrix  $R_4$ . Using the analogy with our stereoscopic vision by means of two – left and right – eyes, we conditionally call the pair of complementary matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  as the stereoscopic pair (or briefly, the stereo-pair) where the matrix  $R_{4R}$  is called the right stereo-matrix and the matrix  $R_{4L}$  is called the left stereo-matrix.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline
 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline
 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ \hline
 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline
 -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline
 \end{array} = 
 \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline
 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline
 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline
 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline
 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline
 \end{array} + 
 \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline
 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline
 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ \hline
 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline
 -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 11. The cruciform matrix  $R_4$  is the sum of two sparse matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$ , non-zero entries of which coincide with non-zero entries in corresponding quadrants along the main diagonal and the secondary diagonal of the matrix  $R_4$ .

Taking with the factor  $2^{-0.5}$ , each of these stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  is the unitary matrix:

$$(2^{-0.5}R_{4R})^*(2^{-0.5}R_{4R})^T = I; \quad (2^{-0.5}R_{4L})^*(2^{-0.5}R_{4L})^T = I. \quad (3)$$

Under actions of unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  and  $2^{-0.5}R_{4L}$ , an arbitrary 4-dimensional vector  $\bar{X} = [x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$  is transformed by the following manner:

$$\begin{aligned}(2^{-0.5}R_{4R})^* \bar{X}^T &= 2^{-0.5} [x_0 - x_1, x_0 + x_1, x_2 - x_3, x_2 + x_3]^T \\ (2^{-0.5}R_{4L})^* \bar{X}^T &= 2^{-0.5} [x_2 - x_3, -x_2 - x_3, x_0 - x_1, -x_0 - x_1]^T\end{aligned}\quad (4)$$

In each of unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  and  $2^{-0.5}R_{4L}$ , the set of its rows contains a complete orthogonal system of functions. The multiplication of each of these sparse unitary matrices with an arbitrary 4-dimensional vector  $\bar{Y}$  leads to a spectral representation  $\bar{Z}$  of the vector  $\bar{Y}$  on the basis of the complete orthogonal system of functions in rows of the unitary matrix. For example, in the case of the vector  $\bar{Y} = [5, -3, 7, 9]$ , its spectral representation  $\bar{Z}_R$  on the basis of the system of functions in rows of the unitary matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  is the following ( $\bar{Y}^T$  means the transposition of the vector  $\bar{Y}$ ):

$$\bar{Z}_R = (2^{-0.5}R_{4R})^* \bar{Y}^T = 2^{-0.5} [8, 2, -2, 16]^T \quad (5)$$

This spectral representation  $\bar{Z}_R$  means that the vector  $\bar{Y}$  is the sum of the following 4 basic vectors:

- the vector  $2^{-0.5}[1, -1, 0, 0]$  from the first row of the matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  (Fig. 11) multiplied by the factor  $2^{-0.5}8$ ;
- the vector  $2^{-0.5}[1, 1, 0, 0]$  from the second row of  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  multiplied by the factor  $2^{-0.5}2$ ;
- the vector  $2^{-0.5}[0, 0, 1, -1]$  from the third row of  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  multiplied by the factor  $-2^{-0.5}2$ ;
- the vector  $2^{-0.5}[0, 0, 1, 1]$  from the fourth row of  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  multiplied by the factor  $2^{-0.5}16$ .

Really,  $2^{-0.5}8*(2^{-0.5}[1, -1, 0, 0]) + 2^{-0.5}2*(2^{-0.5}[1, 1, 0, 0]) - 2^{-0.5}2*(2^{-0.5}[0, 0, 1, -1]) + 2^{-0.5}16*(2^{-0.5}[0, 0, 1, 1]) = [5, -3, 7, 9] = \bar{Y}$ .

The multiplication of the spectral vector  $\bar{Z}_R^T$  with unitary transposed matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}^T$  restores automatically the initial vector  $\bar{Y}$ :  $\bar{Z}_R^T * (2^{-0.5}R_{4R}^T) = [5, -3, 7, 9]$ .

Turning to the left stereo-matrix  $R_{4L}$ , one can check that the action of the unitary matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4L}$  on the same vector  $\bar{Y} = [5, -3, 7, 9]$  leads to the following spectral representation  $\bar{Z}_L$  of the vector  $\bar{Y}$  on the basis of orthogonal functions in its rows:

$$\bar{Z}_L = (2^{-0.5}R_{4L})^* \bar{Y}^T = 2^{-0.5} [-2, -16, 8, -2]^T \quad (6)$$

The multiplication of the spectral vector  $\bar{Z}_L^T$  with unitary transposed matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4L}^T$  restores automatically the initial vector  $\bar{Y}$ :  $\bar{Z}_L^T * (2^{-0.5}R_{4L}^T) = [5, -3, 7, 9]$ . Such spectral representations (5, 6) of vector-signals can be used for noise-immunity coding of information by some analogies with known noise-immunity coding on the basis of Hadamard matrices in digital signal processing.

Exponentiation of the unitary matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4L}$  into integer powers generates a cyclic group with the period 2:  $(2^{-0.5}R_{4L})^n = (2^{-0.5}R_{4L})^{n+2}$  (the matrix  $R_{4L}$  specifies the transformation of reflection in the informational 4-dimensional space). In contrast, exponentiation of the unitary matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  in integer powers generates a cyclic group with the period 8:  $(2^{-0.5}R_{4R})^n = (2^{-0.5}R_{4R})^{n+8}$  (the matrix  $2^{-0.5}R_{4R}$  specifies the transformation of turn in the informational

4-dimensional space). Fig. 12 shows transformations of the vector  $\bar{X} = [x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$  under actions of the matrix  $(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^n$ .

$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^* \bar{X}^T =$ $2^{-0.5} [x_0 - x_1, x_0 + x_1, x_2 - x_3, x_2 + x_3]^T$	$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^5 \cdot \bar{X}^T =$ $2^{-0.5} [x_1 - x_0, -x_0 - x_1, x_3 - x_2, -x_2 - x_3]^T$
$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^2 \cdot \bar{X}^T = [-x_1, x_0, -x_3, x_2]^T$	$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^6 \cdot \bar{X}^T = [x_1, -x_0, x_3, -x_2]^T$
$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^3 \cdot \bar{X}^T =$ $2^{-0.5} [-x_0 - x_1, x_0 - x_1, -x_2 - x_3, x_2 - x_3]^T$	$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^7 \cdot \bar{X}^T =$ $2^{-0.5} [x_0 + x_1, x_1 - x_0, x_2 + x_3, x_3 - x_2]^T$
$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^4 \cdot \bar{X}^T = [-x_0, -x_1, -x_2, -x_3]^T$	$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^8 \cdot \bar{X}^T = [x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]^T$
	$(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^9 \cdot \bar{X}^T =$ $2^{-0.5} [x_0 - x_1, x_0 + x_1, x_2 - x_3, x_2 + x_3]^T$

Fig. 12. Transformations of the vector  $\bar{X} = [x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3]$  under actions of the matrix  $(2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R})^n$ .

Another important difference between unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R}$  and  $2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4L}$  is the following: the matrix  $2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4L}$  is symmetric and correspondingly all its eigenvalues are real. By contrast, the matrix  $2^{-0.5} \cdot R_{4R}$  is asymmetric and has complex eigenvalues.

The multiplication of the stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  are non-commutative:  $R_{4R} \cdot R_{4L} \neq R_{4L} \cdot R_{4R}$ . Their commutator  $R_{4R} \cdot R_{4L} - R_{4L} \cdot R_{4R}$  taken with the factor  $8^{-0.5}$  is the unitary matrix:  $(R_{4R} \cdot R_{4L} - R_{4L} \cdot R_{4R})^* \cdot (R_{4R} \cdot R_{4L} - R_{4L} \cdot R_{4R})^T / 8 = I$ .

In relation to each other, the right and left stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  are amicable and disjoint (these algebraic notions are used in different applications of matrices). In linear algebra, by definition, two square matrices  $M$  and  $N$  of order  $n$  are said to be amicable if  $MN^T = NM^T$  (see, for example, [Seberry, Wysocki, Wysocki, 2005]). Also by definition, two  $\{0, \pm 1\}$  matrices  $M$  and  $N$  of the same size are said to be disjoint if for all of their positions the following rule is true: if  $M$  has a nonzero entry at the  $(i, j)$ -th position then  $N$  has zero entry at the same position and vice versa, i.e.,  $M^*N=0$ .

Stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  taken in tensor power  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  defines tensor families of matrices  $R_{4R}^{(k)}$  and  $R_{4L}^{(k)}$  of order  $4^k$ , members of which satisfy the condition (6):

$$R_{4R}^{(k)*} (R_{4R}^{(k)})^T = I_s \cdot 4^{k/2} \text{ and } R_{4L}^{(k)*} (R_{4L}^{(k)})^T = I_s \cdot 4^{k/2}, \quad (7)$$

where  $I_s$  is the identity matrix of order  $4^k$ .

The second tensor power of  $(4 \times 4)$ -matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$ , that is  $(16 \times 16)$ -matrices  $R_{4R}^{(2)}$  and  $R_{4L}^{(2)}$ , can be written in line with the block algorithms in Fig. 13.  $(64 \times 64)$ -matrices  $R_{4R}^{(3)}$  and  $R_{4L}^{(3)}$  can be similarly generated from  $R_{4R}^{(2)}$  and  $R_{4L}^{(2)}$  correspondingly.

$$R_{4R}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{4R} & -R_{4R} & 0 & 0 \\ R_{4R} & R_{4R} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R_{4R} & -R_{4R} \\ 0 & 0 & R_{4R} & R_{4R} \end{bmatrix} \quad ; \quad R_{4L}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & R_{4R} & -R_{4R} \\ 0 & 0 & -R_{4R} & -R_{4R} \\ R_{4R} & -R_{4R} & 0 & 0 \\ -R_{4R} & -R_{4R} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Fig. 13. The algorithmic construction of the second tensor power of genetic stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  from Fig. 11.

Genetic stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}^{(k)}$  and  $R_{4L}^{(k)}$  have some analogies with Hadamard matrices. By definition, Hadamard matrices  $H_n$  of order  $n$  is a square matrix with entries +1 or -1 that satisfies the condition (8):

$$H_n H_n^T = n I_n, \quad (8)$$

where  $I_n$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix. The mentioned analogies allow considering applications of stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}^{(k)}$  and  $R_{4L}^{(k)}$  in quantum informatics, noise-immune coding and recovering information in the presence of noise and interferences, and in some other fields in a parallel with traditional using Hadamard matrices there (a web search of bibliography of different applications of Hadamard matrices gives 44 thousands of publications in the period 1978-2005 years [Seberry, Wysocki, Wysocki, 2005]).

As we can judge, stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  didn't meet previously in mathematical natural sciences. They were discovered in the analysis of molecular-genetic structures and they seem to be new interesting mathematical tools for genetic researches, quantum informatics and some other areas. The pair of complementary stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  gives new materials to discussions existing from the ancient time about a role of binary principles "Yin-Yang", "left-right", "male-female", "odd-even" in organization of Nature (see, for example, a collection of facts in the book [Ivanov, 1978]).

Exponentiation of each of genetic unitary  $(4 \times 4)$ -matrices  $2^{-0.5} R_{4R}$  and  $2^{-0.5} R_{4L}$  in tensor (Kronecker) powers  $k = 2, 3, 4, \dots$  gives new tensor families of unitary matrices  $(2^{-0.5} R_{4R})^{(k)}$  and  $(2^{-0.5} R_{4L})^{(k)}$  of order  $4^k$  with complete orthogonal systems of functions in their rows and columns. As known, exponentiation of matrices in tensor power can generate matrices with fractal structures [Gazale, 1999]. Fig. 14 shows examples of fractal structures inside tensor families of matrices  $(2^{-0.5} R_{4R})^{(k)}$  and  $(2^{-0.5} R_{4L})^{(k)}$ .

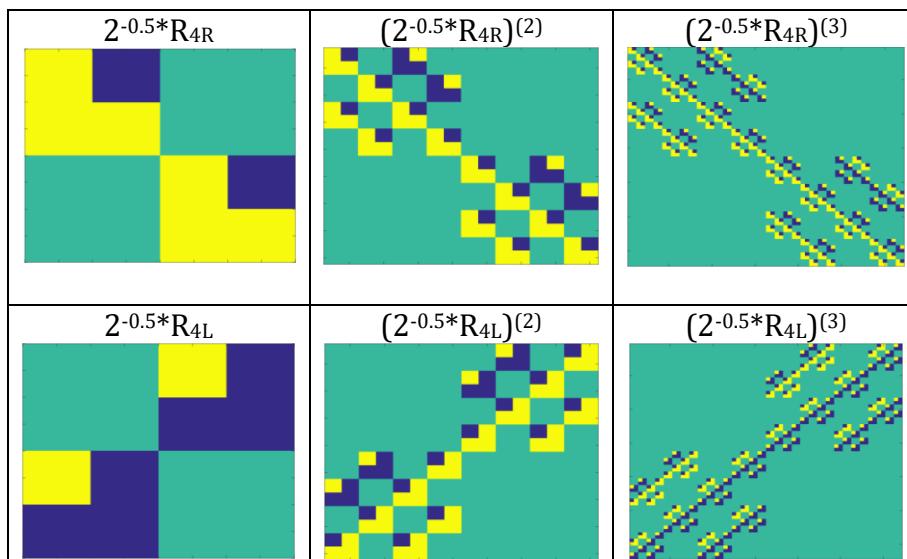


Fig. 14. Initial members of tensor families of matrices  $(2^{-0.5} R_{4R})^{(k)}$  and  $(2^{-0.5} R_{4L})^{(k)}$  having fractal structures. Entries +1, -1 and 0 are marked by yellow, blue and green correspondingly.

Let us note additionally that described decompositions of the matrix  $R_4$  of 16 doublets (Figs. 4, 6, 11) into sparse unitary matrices were not arbitrary but they were based on objective binary-oppositional indicators of nitrogenous bases C, A, G, A and T/U (Fig. 1) and on the logical operation of modulo-2 addition. One can check that these decompositions were constructed in line with binary numbers in brackets inside matrix cells (Fig. 4). In each cell, such binary number is equal to a sum of binary numberings of the row and the column of the cell on the basis of modulo-2 addition. For example, the cell with the triplet CAG is located in the row 001 and in the column 011. The operation of modulo-2 addition gives their sum:  $001 \oplus 011 = 001$ ; this binary number is shown in brackets in the cell with the triplet CAG. Such type of numeration of cells in matrices, whose rows and columns are numerated by means of dyadic groups of binary numbers, is known in theory of processing digital signals as a "dyadic-shift numeration" [Ahmed, Rao, 1975; Harmuth, 1989; Petoukhov, He, 2009]. Matrices with such numeration of their cells are called dyadic-shift matrices. One can see that such dyadic-shift numeration of cells of the  $(4 \times 4)$ -matrix  $R_4$  of 16 doublets (Fig. 4, left) divides the set of 16 doublets into 4 subsets with 4 doublets in each: the subset of cells with numberings 00 contains doublets CC, CG, GC and GG; the subset of cells with numberings 01 contains CA, CT, GA and GT; the subset of cells with numberings 10 contains AC, AG, TC and TG; the subset of cells with numberings 11 contains AA, AT, TA and TT. Below we use similar dyadic-shift decompositions for the  $(8 \times 8)$ -matrix  $R_8$  of 64 triplets from Fig. 5 with non-trivial results. As known, if any system of elements demonstrates its connection with dyadic shifts, it indicates that the structural organization of its system is related to the logic of modulo-2 addition. Correspondingly the structural organization of the genetic system is related to the logic of modulo-2 addition.

One should note that each of two stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  (Fig. 11) is the sum of two unitary matrices shown in Fig. 15:  $R_{4R} = K_0 + K_1$ ,  $R_{4L} = K_2 + K_3$ . Really,  $K_0 * K_0^T = I_4$ ,  $K_1 * K_1^T = I_4$ ,  $K_2 * K_2^T = I_4$  and  $K_3 * K_3^T = I_4$ , where  $I_4$  is the identity matrix of order 4 and the matrix  $K_0$  resembles the well-known quantum gate "controlled-NOT":  $[1, 0, 0, 0; 0, 1, 0, 0; 0, 0, 0, 1; 0, 0, 1, 0]$  [Nielsen, Chuang, 2010, p. XXXI].

Rows and columns of sparse matrices  $K_0$ ,  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$  and  $K_3$  correspond to complete orthogonal systems of functions. Below we will also meet other examples that genetic unitary matrices with block structures are constructed as sums of more simple unitary matrices.

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_{4R} = & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = K_0 + K_1 \\
 R_{4L} = & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ \hline 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} = K_2 + K_3
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 15. Each of stereo-matrices  $R_{4R}$  and  $R_{4L}$  (Fig. 11) is the sum of two unitary matrices:  $R_{4R} = K_0 + K_1$ ,  $R_{4L} = K_2 + K_3$ , where  $K_0, K_1, K_2$  and  $K_3$  are unitary matrices.

Exponentiations of genetic unitary (4\*4)-matrices  $K_0$ ,  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$  and  $K_3$  (Fig. 15) in tensor (Kronecker) powers  $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$  give tensor families of unitary matrices  $K_0^{(n)}$ ,  $K_1^{(n)}$ ,  $K_2^{(n)}$  and  $K_3^{(n)}$  of order  $4^n$  with complete orthogonal systems of functions in their rows and columns. Fig. 16 shows initial members of these tensor families with their fractal structures, which are constituent parts of the fractal structures in Fig. 14.

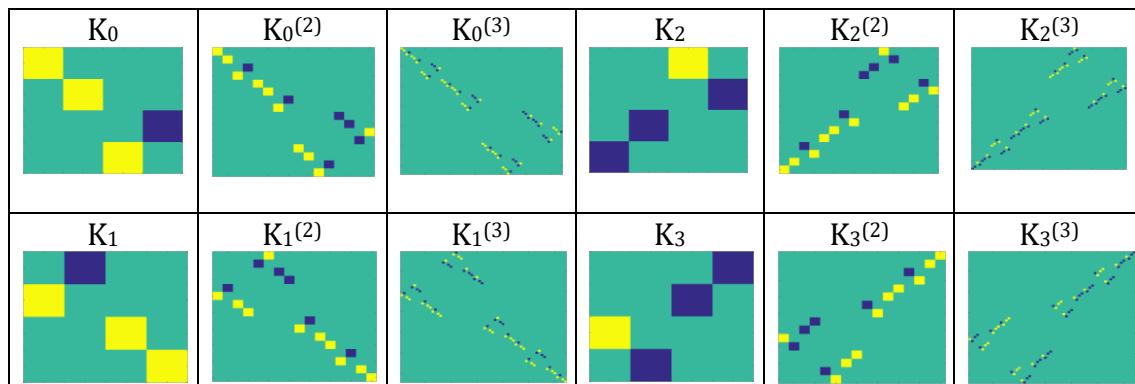


Fig. 16. Initial members of tensor families of unitary matrices  $K_0^{(n)}$ ,  $K_1^{(n)}$ ,  $K_2^{(n)}$  and  $K_3^{(n)}$  having fractal structures and complete orthogonal systems of functions in their rows and columns. Entries +1, -1 and 0 are marked by yellow, blue and green correspondingly.

#### 4. The 8 sparse unitary matrices in the dyadic-shift decomposition of genetic matrix $R_8$ of 64 triplets

Turn now to the algebraic analysis of the (8\*8)-matrix  $R_8$  (Fig. 5). Fig. 17 shows the dyadic-shift decomposition of the matrix  $R_8$  into 8 sparse unitary matrices:  $R_8 = R_{80} + R_{81} + R_{82} + R_{83} + R_{84} + R_{85} + R_{86} + R_{87}$ .

One can note that the set of 8 unitary genetic matrices  $R_{80}, R_{81}, R_{82}, R_{83}, R_{84}, R_{85}, R_{86}, R_{87}$  (Fig. 17) also contains the following algebraic complementarities in corresponding pairs of these matrices: unitary matrices  $R_{80}$  and  $R_{87}$  form the first pair of the algebraic complementarity since they are transformed into each other by mirror reflection relative to the average vertical line with inversion of signs of their non-zero entries (the mirror-anti-symmetry). The same is true for the pairs of unitary matrices  $R_{81}$  and  $R_{86}$ ,  $R_{82}$  and  $R_{85}$ ,  $R_{83}$  and  $R_{84}$ , which form the other pairs with their similar algebraic complementarity of the mirror-anti-symmetric type.

$$R_8 = \begin{array}{c|c|c|c} \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 100000000 \\ 010000000 \\ 001000000 \\ 000100000 \\ 000010000 \\ 000001000 \\ 000000100 \\ 000000010 \\ 000000001 \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 010000000 \\ 100000000 \\ 000100000 \\ 001000000 \\ 000001000 \\ 000000100 \\ 000000010 \\ 000000001 \\ 000000000 \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 00-1000000 \\ 000-100000 \\ 100000000 \\ 010000000 \\ 000000-100 \\ 0000000-10 \\ 00000000-1 \\ 000000000 \\ 000000000 \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 000-100000 \\ 00-100000 \\ 010000000 \\ 100000000 \\ 0000000-10 \\ 00000000-10 \\ 000000000 \\ 000000000 \\ 000000000 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ + & + & + & + \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 + \begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 \begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 \hline
 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
 \end{array} &
 \begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 \hline
 \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 \mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
 \end{array} &
 \begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 \hline
 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 -\mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 -\mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
 \end{array} &
 \begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 \hline
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & -\mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 -\mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
 \end{array} &
 \begin{array}{c|c|c|c}
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 \hline
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & \mathbf{-1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & -\mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 -\mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
 \end{array} &
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 17. The dyadic-shift decomposition of the matrix  $R_8$  into 8 sparse unitary matrices:  $R_8 = R_{80} + R_{81} + R_{82} + R_{83} + R_{84} + R_{85} + R_{86} + R_{87}$ .

Each of these 8 sparse matrices is unitary:  $R_{80}^*R_{80}^T = I$ ,  $R_{81}^*R_{81}^T = I$ ,  $R_{82}^*R_{82}^T = I$ ,  $R_{83}^*R_{83}^T = I$ ,  $R_{84}^*R_{84}^T = I$ ,  $R_{85}^*R_{85}^T = I$ ,  $R_{86}^*R_{86}^T = I$ ,  $R_{87}^*R_{87}^T = I$ .

Determinants of all these 8 unitary matrices are equal to 1; by this reason they belong to the type of so called special unitary matrices. The special unitary matrices are closed under multiplication and the inverse operation. They form the special unitary group ([https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Special\\_unitary\\_group](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Special_unitary_group)). The multiplication table (Fig. 18) of this closed set of 8 unitary matrices coincides with the multiplication table of the algebra of bi-split-quaternions of Cockle.

*	$R_{80}$	$R_{81}$	$R_{82}$	$R_{83}$	$R_{84}$	$R_{85}$	$R_{86}$	$R_{87}$
$R_{80}$	$R_{80}$	$R_{81}$	$R_{82}$	$R_{83}$	$R_{84}$	$R_{85}$	$R_{86}$	$R_{87}$
$R_{81}$	$R_{81}$	$R_{80}$	$R_{83}$	$R_{82}$	$R_{85}$	$R_{84}$	$R_{87}$	$R_{86}$
$R_{82}$	$R_{82}$	$R_{83}$	$-R_{80}$	$-R_{81}$	$-R_{86}$	$-R_{87}$	$R_{84}$	$R_{85}$
$R_{83}$	$R_{83}$	$R_{82}$	$-R_{81}$	$-R_{80}$	$-R_{87}$	$-R_{86}$	$R_{85}$	$R_{84}$
$R_{84}$	$R_{84}$	$R_{85}$	$R_{86}$	$R_{87}$	$R_{80}$	$R_{81}$	$R_{82}$	$R_{83}$
$R_{85}$	$R_{85}$	$R_{84}$	$R_{87}$	$R_{86}$	$R_{81}$	$R_{80}$	$R_{83}$	$R_{82}$
$R_{86}$	$R_{86}$	$R_{87}$	$-R_{84}$	$-R_{85}$	$-R_{82}$	$-R_{83}$	$R_{80}$	$R_{81}$
$R_{87}$	$R_{87}$	$R_{86}$	$-R_{85}$	$-R_{84}$	$-R_{83}$	$-R_{82}$	$R_{81}$	$R_{80}$

Fig. 18. The multiplication table of 8 genetic unitary matrices  $R_{80}$ ,  $R_{81}$ ,  $R_{82}$ ,  $R_{83}$ ,  $R_{84}$ ,  $R_{85}$ ,  $R_{86}$ ,  $R_{87}$  from Fig. 17 coincides with the multiplication table of the algebra of bi-split-quaternions of Cockle.

The set of these 8 sparse matrices is divided into 2 equal subsets with 4 matrices in each. The first subset contains matrices  $R_{80}$ ,  $R_{81}$ ,  $R_{82}$ ,  $R_{83}$ , whose non-zero entries belong only to two quadrants along the main diagonal of the matrix  $R_8$  (in the symbolic matrix of triplets in Fig. 4, all triplets in these two quadrants begin with letters C or G). In this subset two matrices  $R_{80}$  and  $R_{81}$  are symmetric and two other matrices  $R_{82}$  and  $R_{83}$  are asymmetric. The second subset contains matrices  $R_{84}$ ,  $R_{85}$ ,  $R_{86}$ ,  $R_{87}$ , whose non-zero entries belong only to two quadrants

along the second diagonal of the matrix  $R_8$  (in the symbolic matrix of triplets in Fig. 4, all triplets in these two quadrants begin with letters A or T). All these 4 matrices are symmetric and correspondingly have real eigenvalues.

The exponentiation of the sum of matrices  $R_{80}$ ,  $R_{81}$ ,  $R_{82}$  and  $R_{83}$  (Fig. 17) taken with the factor  $8^{-0.5}$  defines a cyclic group with its period 8:  $(8^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{81}+R_{82}+R_{83}))^n = (8^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{81}+R_{82}+R_{83}))^{n+8}$ .

The exponentiation of the sum of matrices  $R_{84}$ ,  $R_{85}$ ,  $R_{86}$  and  $R_{87}$  (Fig. 17) taken with the factor  $8^{-0.5}$  defines a cyclic group with its period 2:  $(8^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{85}+R_{86}+R_{87}))^n = (8^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{85}+R_{86}+R_{87}))^{n+8}$ . Correspondingly this matrix  $8^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{85}+R_{86}+R_{87})$  defines transformation of reflection in the 8-dimensional informational space.

One should note that these two subsets of 8 unitary genetic matrices have some relations to evolution changes of the genetic code. Modern science knows more than 20 variants (or dialects) of the genetic code represented on website <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Taxonomy/Utils/wprintgc.cgi>. As this website shows, these dialects differ from the Standard Code only by the code meanings of a small number of triplets. For example, in the Standard Code the triplet TAG encodes the amino acid Leu but in the Chlorophycean Mitochondrial Code it serves as the stop-codon. One can check that in all dialects without exception all stop-codons have their first letter A or T; practically all initiative codons also begin with the letters A or T. Beside this, practically all triplets with changed coding meaning are triplets with the first letters A or T in them; such triplets belong to two quadrants along the second diagonal of the matrix in Fig. 4. All entries of these two quadrants in the corresponding numeric matrix in Fig. 5 belong to the second subset of symmetric unitary matrices  $R_{84}$ ,  $R_{85}$ ,  $R_{86}$  and  $R_{87}$  (Fig. 17). A small exception is the case of two genetic codes of yeast (the Yeast Mitochondrial Code and the Alternative Yeast Nuclear Code), in which the triplets CUU, CUC, CUA and CUG, having the first letter C, change their coding meaning: in the Standard Code, all these 4 triplets encode the amino acid Leu but in the Yeast Mitochondrial Code they encode the amino acid Thr. These 4 triplets having strong roots are located in the upper quadrant of the matrix of triplets in Fig. 4, and their representations by entries +1 in the numeric matrix  $R_8$  belong to the unitary matrices  $R_{82}$  and  $R_{83}$  (Fig. 17).

The genetic  $(8*8)$ -matrix  $R_8$  can be represented via unitary genetic  $(2*2)$ -matrices  $U_0$ ,  $U_1$ ,  $U_2$  and  $U_3$  from Fig. 8:

$$R_8 = U_0 \otimes U_0 \otimes U_0 + U_0 \otimes U_0 \otimes (-U_3) + U_0 \otimes U_1 \otimes U_0 + U_0 \otimes U_1 \otimes (-U_3) + U_3 \otimes U_2 \otimes U_0 + U_3 \otimes U_2 \otimes (-U_3) + U_3 \otimes (-U_3) \otimes U_0 + U_3 \otimes (-U_3) \otimes (-U_3) \quad (9)$$

Each of the 8 summands on the right-hand side of the expression (9) coincides with one of the above unitary matrices  $R_{80}$ ,  $R_{81}$ ,  $R_{82}$ ,  $R_{83}$ ,  $R_{84}$ ,  $R_{85}$ ,  $R_{86}$ ,  $R_{87}$  (Fig. 17).

## 5. Connections among amino acids and triplets from the standpoint of unitary genetic matrices

Our results about connections of the genetic  $(8*8)$ -matrix  $R_8$  (Fig. 5) with unitary matrices give additional approaches to study symmetric relations between the set of 64 triplets and the set of 20 amino acids and stop-codons encoded by

triplets. Fig. 19 reproduces the symbolic matrix of 64 triplets from Fig. 4 but with the additional indication of amino acids and stop-codons in the Vertebrate Mitochondrial Code; this dialect is the most symmetrical among all dialects of the genetic code in line with known data of the website <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Taxonomy/Utils/wprintgc.cgi>. One can see in Figs. 4, 5 and 18 that the genetic symbolic matrix of 64 triplets and its corresponding numeric representation  $R_8$  (Fig. 5) have pairs of adjacent rows 0 and 1, 2 and 3, 4 and 5, 6 and 7, whose mosaics are identical inside each of pairs. Moreover, both rows inside each of these pairs have the identical list of amino acids and stop-codons marked by identical colors (Fig. 19).

	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
000	CCC Pro	CCA Pro	CAC His	CAA Gln	ACC Thr	ACA Thr	AAC Asn	AAA Lys
001	CCT Pro	CCG Pro	CAT His	CAG Gln	ACT Thr	ACG Thr	AAT Asn	AAG Lys
010	CTC Leu	CTA Leu	CGC Arg	CGA Arg	ATC Ile	ATA Met	AGC Ser	AGA Stop
011	CTT Leu	CTG Leu	CGT Arg	CGG Arg	ATT Ile	ATG Met	AGT Ser	AGG Stop
100	TCC Ser	TCA Ser	TAC Tyr	TAA Stop	GCC Ala	GCA Ala	GAC Asp	GAA Glu
101	TCT Ser	TCG Ser	TAT Tyr	TAG Stop	GCT Ala	GCG Ala	GAT Asp	GAG Glu
110	TTC Phe	TTA Leu	TGC Cys	TGA Trp	GTC Val	GTA Val	GGC Gly	GGA Gly
111	TTT Phe	TTG Leu	TGT Cys	TGG Trp	GTT Val	GTG Val	GGT Gly	GGG Gly

Fig. 19. The correspondence among 64 triplets and 20 amino acids and stop-codons in the case of the Vertebrate Mitochondrial Code. Both rows inside each of pairs of adjacent rows 0-1, 2-3, 4-5, 6-7 with their even-odd numberings have identical black-and-white mosaics (reproduced in the numeric matrix  $R_8$  in Fig. 5) and also identical lists of amino acids and stop-codons (marked with the same colors).

The described decomposition (Fig. 17) of the numeric matrix  $R_8$  of triplets into sums of unitary matrices is accompanied by a separation of the complete set of 64 triplets into corresponding subsets of triplets. This separation of the set of 64 triplets is accompanied by a relevant separation of the complete set of 20 amino acids and stop-codons into appropriate subsets taking into account the code meaning of each of triplets. For example, the matrix  $R_8$  can be represented in the following form using the decomposition in Fig. 17:

$$R_8 = (R_{80} + R_{82}) + (R_{81} + R_{83}) + (R_{84} + R_{86}) + (R_{85} + R_{87}) \quad (10)$$

Here each of 4 expressions in brackets taken with the factor  $2^{-0.5}$  is a unitary matrix:

$$0.5*(R_{80}+R_{82})(R_{80}+R_{82})^T = I_8; \quad 0.5*(R_{81}+R_{83})(R_{81}+R_{83})^T = I_8; \\ 0.5*(R_{84}+R_{86})(R_{84}+R_{86})^T = I_8; \quad 0.5*(R_{85}+R_{87})(R_{85}+R_{87})^T = I_8 \quad (11)$$

where  $I_8$  is the identity matrix of order 8.

Fig. 20 shows these 4 inter-complementary matrices  $(R_{80}+R_{82})$ ,  $(R_{81}+R_{83})$ ,  $(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $(R_{85}+R_{87})$  whose sum is equal to the matrix  $R_8$  from Fig. 5.

$$\begin{array}{l}
 R_{80}+R_{82} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} ; \quad R_{81}+R_{83} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\
 R_{84}+R_{86} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} ; \quad R_{85}+R_{87} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 20. The result of the decomposition of the genetic matrix  $R_8$  (Fig. 5) into 4 inter-complementary matrices  $(R_{80}+R_{82})$ ,  $(R_{81}+R_{83})$ ,  $(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $(R_{85}+R_{87})$ , which, taken with the factor  $2^{-0.5}$ , are unitary matrices with their own complete systems of orthogonal functions. Matrices  $R_{80}$ ,  $R_{81}$ ,  $R_{82}$ ,  $R_{83}$ ,  $R_{84}$ ,  $R_{85}$ ,  $R_{86}$ ,  $R_{87}$  are shown in Fig. 17.

Rows and columns of each of the 4 unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82})$ ,  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83})$ ,  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87})$  represent complete systems of orthogonal functions. By this reason, these 4 matrices can be used for a decomposition of an arbitrary 8-dimensional vector  $\bar{V}=[x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7]$  on the basis of orthogonal functions of each of these orthogonal systems. By this way, an 8-dimensional vector  $\bar{V}$  receives different spectral representations in a general case. The multiplication of any of such spectral representations of the vector  $\bar{V}$  with correspondence transposed unitary matrix restores the initial vector  $\bar{V}$ . Such spectral representations of vector-signals can be used for noise-immunity coding of information by some analogies with known noise-immunity coding on the basis of Hadamard matrices in digital signal processing.

Determinants of all the unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82})$ ,  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83})$ ,  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87})$  are equal to 1. Some multiplications of the matrices  $P_{R0}$ ,  $P_{R1}$ ,  $P_{L0}$  and  $P_{L1}$  each with other are commutative and others are non-commutative (12):

$$\begin{aligned}
 (R_{80}+R_{82})(R_{81}+R_{83}) &= (R_{81}+R_{83})(R_{80}+R_{82}); \\
 (R_{84}+R_{86})(R_{85}+R_{87}) &= (R_{85}+R_{87})(R_{84}+R_{86}); \\
 (R_{80}+R_{82})(R_{84}+R_{86}) &\neq (R_{84}+R_{86})(R_{80}+R_{82}); \\
 (R_{80}+R_{82})(R_{85}+R_{87}) &\neq (R_{85}+R_{87})(R_{80}+R_{82}); \\
 (R_{81}+R_{83})(R_{84}+R_{86}) &\neq (R_{84}+R_{86})(R_{81}+R_{83}); \\
 (R_{81}+R_{83})(R_{85}+R_{87}) &\neq (R_{85}+R_{87})(R_{81}+R_{83})
 \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Exponentiation of unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82})$  and  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83})$  defines cyclic groups with their period 8:  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82}))^n = (2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82}))^{n+8}$ ;  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83}))^n = (2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83}))^{n+8}$ . Exponentiation of unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87})$  defines cyclic groups with their period 2:  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86}))^n = (2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86}))^{n+2}$ ;  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87}))^n = (2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87}))^{n+2}$ .

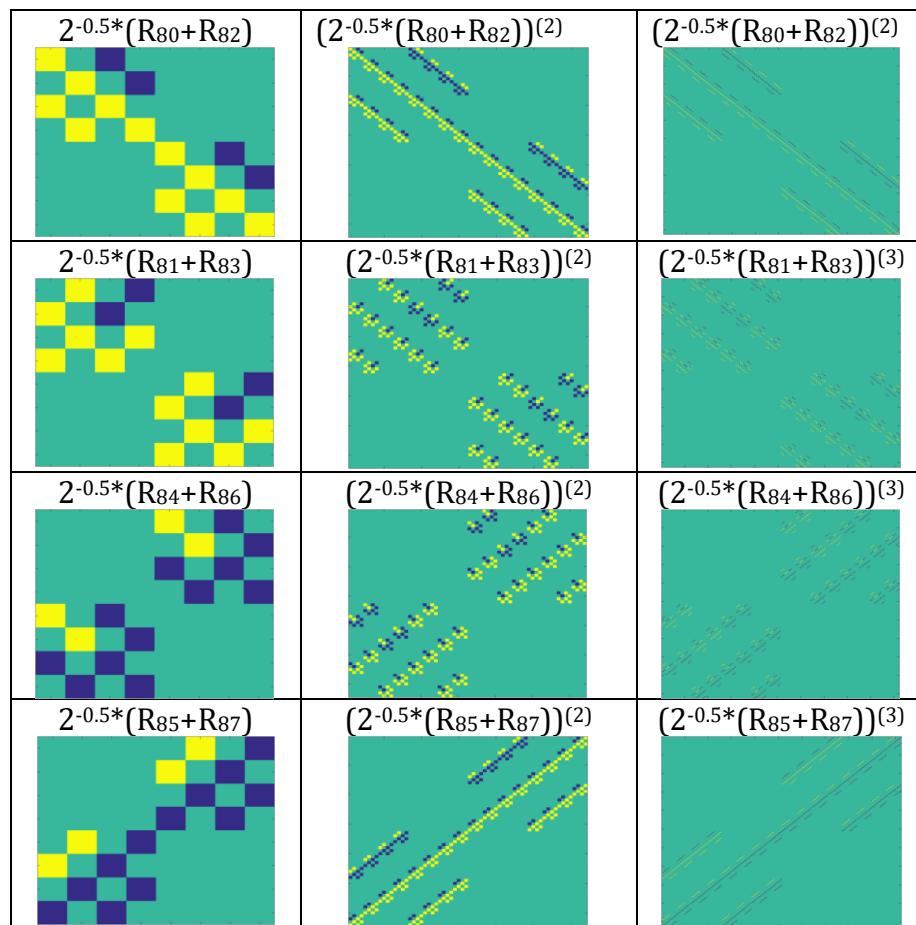


Fig. 21. Initial members of tensor families of unitary matrices  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82}))^{(k)}$ ,  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83}))^{(k)}$ ,  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86}))^{(k)}$  and  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87}))^{(k)}$  having fractal structures and complete orthogonal systems of functions. Entries  $+2^{-0.5}$ ,  $-2^{-0.5}$  and 0 are marked by yellow, blue and green correspondingly.

Exponentiation of genetic unitary  $(8*8)$ -matrices  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82})$ ,  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83})$ ,  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87})$  in tensor (Kronecker) powers  $k = 2, 3, 4, \dots$  gives tensor families of new unitary matrices of order  $8^k$  with new complete systems of orthogonal functions:  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{80}+R_{82}))^{(k)}$ ,  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{81}+R_{83}))^{(k)}$ ,  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{84}+R_{86}))^{(k)}$  and  $(2^{-0.5}*(R_{85}+R_{87}))^{(k)}$  (Fig. 21).

The 4 matrices  $(R_{80}+R_{82})$ ,  $(R_{81}+R_{83})$ ,  $(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $(R_{85}+R_{87})$  are pairwise amicable:  $(R_{80}+R_{82})(R_{81}+R_{83})^T = (R_{81}+R_{83})(R_{80}+R_{82})^T$ ;  $(R_{80}+R_{82})(R_{84}+R_{86})^T = (R_{84}+R_{86})(R_{80}+R_{82})^T$ ;  $(R_{80}+R_{82})(R_{85}+R_{87})^T = (R_{85}+R_{87})(R_{80}+R_{82})^T$ ;  $(R_{81}+R_{83})(R_{84}+R_{86})^T = (R_{84}+R_{86})(R_{81}+R_{83})^T$ ;  $(R_{81}+R_{83})(R_{85}+R_{87})^T = (R_{85}+R_{87})(R_{81}+R_{83})^T$ .

Matrices  $(R_{80}+R_{82})$ ,  $(R_{81}+R_{83})$ ,  $(R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $(R_{85}+R_{87})$  taken in tensor powers  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  define corresponding tensor families whose matrices satisfy the condition (13):

$$(R_{80}+R_{82})^{(k)} * ((R_{80}+R_{82})^{(k)})^T = I_w * 4^{k/2}, \quad (R_{81}+R_{83})^{(k)} * ((R_{81}+R_{83})^{(k)})^T = I_w * 4^{k/2}, \\ (R_{84}+R_{86})^{(k)} * ((R_{84}+R_{86})^{(k)})^T = I_w * 4^{k/2}, \quad (R_{85}+R_{87})^{(k)} * ((R_{85}+R_{87})^{(k)})^T = I_w * 4^{k/2} \quad (13)$$

where  $I_w$  is the identity matrix of order  $8^k$ .

Now let us compare the distribution of amino acids and stop-codons in the symbolic matrix in Fig. 19 with the distribution of non-zero entries in numeric matrices  $R_{80}+R_{82}$ ,  $R_{81}+R_{83}$ ,  $R_{84}+R_{86}$  and  $R_{85}+R_{87}$  (Fig. 20). The comparison shows that the phenomenon of pairwise distributions of amino acids and stop-codons in adjacent rows 0-1, 2-3, 4-5 and 6-7 of the genetic matrix in Fig. 19 is connected with the set of 4 complementary unitary matrices  $R_{80}+R_{82}$ ,  $R_{81}+R_{83}$ ,  $R_{84}+R_{86}$  and  $R_{85}+R_{87}$ . More precisely, these 4 matrices define the symmetric separations of the set of 64 triplets and the set of 20 amino acids and stop-codons into the following subsets:

- the set of non-zero entries in the matrix  $R_{80}+R_{82}$  corresponds to the set of 10 amino acids Pro, His, Gln, Leu, Arg, Ala, Asp, Glu, Val, Gly, which are encoded by the set of 16 triplets - CCC, CAC, CCG, CAG, CTC, CGC, CTG, CGG, GCC, GAC, GCG, GAG, GTC, GGC, GTG and GGG;
- the set of non-zero entries in the matrix  $R_{81}+R_{83}$  corresponds to the same set of 10 amino acids Pro, His, Gln, Leu, Arg, Ala, Asp, Glu, Val, Gly, which are encoded by another set of 16 triplets - CCA, CAA, CCT, CAT, CTA, CGA, CTT, CGT, GCA, GAA, GCT, GAT, GTA, GGA, GTT, GGT;
- the set of non-zero entries in the matrix  $R_{84}+R_{86}$  corresponds to the following set of amino acids and stop-codons: Thr, Asn, Lys, Ile, Met, Ser, Tyr, Phe, Leu, Cys, Trp and 2 stop-codons, which are encoded by the set of 16 triplets - ACC, AAC, ACG, AAG, ATC, AGC, ATG, AGG, TCC, TAC, TCG, TAG, TTC, TGC, TTG and TGG;
- the set of non-zero entries in the matrix  $R_{85}+R_{87}$  corresponds to the same set of amino acids and stop-codons: Thr, Asn, Lys, Ile, Met, Ser, Tyr, Phe, Leu, Cys, Trp and 2 stop-codons, which are encoded by another set of 16 triplets - ACA, AAA, ACG, AAG, ATC, AGC, ATG, AGG, TCA, TAA, TCT, TAT, TTA, TGA, TTT and TGT.

The 32 triplets in both matrices  $R_{80}+R_{82}$  and  $R_{81}+R_{83}$  begin with letters C or G and define the content of two quadrants along the main diagonal of the symbolic matrix in Figs. 2, 19. Other 32 triplets in both matrices  $R_{84}+R_{86}$  and  $R_{85}+R_{87}$  begin with letters A and T and define the content of two quadrants along the secondary diagonal of the same matrix. It was mentioned above that in all dialects of the genetic code without exception all stop-codons have their first letters A or T; practically all initiative codons also begin with the letters A or T (so they are connected with unitary matrices  $2^{-0.5} * (R_{84}+R_{86})$  and  $2^{-0.5} * (R_{85}+R_{87})$ ).

Beside this, practically all triplets with changed coding meaning in different dialects are also triplets with the first letters A or T in them and they are connected with the same unitary matrices.

One can note that our study belongs to the field of applications of algebraic methods and notions of quantum mechanics for modeling molecular-genetic structures where works of many authors exist, for example, the following [Dragovich, Dragovich, 2007; Dragovich, Khrennikov, Misic, 2017; Fimmel, Danielli, Strüngmann, 2013; Fimmel, Strüngmann, 2016; Igamberdiev, 1993; Ji, 2015, 2017; Hu, Petoukhov, 2017; Hu, Petoukhov, Petukhova, 2017; Matsuno, 1999, 2003, 2015; Matsuno, Paton, 2000; Moon Ho Lee et al, 2017; Pellionis, 2008; Pellionisz et al, 2012; Penrose, 1996; Perez, 2010, 2013, 2017; Petoukhov, 2008, 2010a,b, 2011, 2012, 2015a,b,c,d,c, 2016, 2017a,b; Petoukhov, He, 2009; Petoukhov, Petukhova, 2017a,b; Petoukhov, Svirin, 2012; Petoukhov et al, 2017; Rapoport, 2016a,b,c; Rumer, 1968; Simeonov, 2013; Stambuk, 1999].

### Some concluding remarks

The article describes author's results about connections of genetic matrices with unitary matrices, the logical operation of the modulo-2 addition and complete orthogonal systems of functions. These genetic matrices represent genetic alphabets jointly with known features of the degeneracy of the genetic code. These results are interesting by the following main reasons.

Firstly, they give new approaches to model some genetic structures and phenomena on the basis of mathematical formalisms of quantum mechanics and quantum informatics where unitary operators have a key meaning. Correspondingly – from this standpoint - a hidden logic organization of the genetic system should be considered in the light of notions of quantum logic. Our results show that, from this modeling standpoint, the genetic system is a whole hierarchical system of interconnected unitary matrices of different orders woven together and formed tensor families of unitary matrices. Some of these unitary genetic matrices coincide with well-known quantum gates of quantum informatics; all other unitary genetic matrices can be also considered as special quantum gates for hidden quantum-information calculations in the genetic system. Complementary relations exist among some unitary genetic matrices.

We suppose that unitary genetic operators (unitary matrices) are the basis for calculations in genetics by some analogy with calculations in quantum informatics. In the frame of our model approach we put forward the working hypothesis that DNA- and RNA-sequences of n-plets (of doublets, triplets, etc.) serve to define unitary operators for quantum calculations in genetics by analogy with quantum-logical calculations in quantum computing. From this standpoint, DNA- and RNA-sequences are instruments to define systems of interconnected unitary operators for quantum calculations by means of the quantum logic (in particular, this is reflected in the special mosaic organisation of genetic matrices in Figs. 4 and 5). The presented materials about connections of genetic systems with quantum informatics (see additionally [Petoukhov, 2017a]) can lead to new studies of analogies between quantum physics and matrix representations of the genetic code. Here one should note that the Hungarian scientist Gyorgy Darvas was the first who – in his study of quantum electrodynamics - paid attention on

connections of the genetic numeric matrices with Pauli's matrices [Darvas, Petoukhov, 2017]. It is additional interesting that cyclic shifts of positions in doublets and triplets transform the mosaic matrices in Figs. 4 and 5 into new mosaic matrices [Petoukhov, 2008; Petoukhov, He, 2009], which are connected with new systems of unitary genetic matrices.

Secondly, described unitary genetic matrices contain complete orthogonal systems of functions in their rows or columns. But it is known the following: *"after Fourier it was found that for some problems, harmonic sinusoids rather than other systems of orthogonal functions, for example, the Legendre polynomials, are better suited. In fact, any particular problem needs its own system of orthogonal functions. This was most clearly manifested in the course of the development of quantum mechanics"* [Soroko, 1973]. Correspondingly one can think that the genetic systems have their own orthogonal systems of functions, which should be used in physiology for appropriate spectral decompositions to study genetically inherited processes and structures (including genetic sequences, information processes in neuronal systems, cardio-vascular processes, etc.).

Thirdly, described fractal features of the mentioned tensor families of unitary genetic matrices give additional materials to the wide topic of inherited fractal-like structures in biological bodies, including symmetries in long texts of single stranded DNA [Petoukhov, 2017a] and facts about connections of fractals with cancer [Baish, Jain, 2000; Bizzarri et al, 2011; Dokukin et al, 2015; Lennon et al, 2015; Perez, 2017]. Fractal patterns are related with the theory of dynamic chaos, which has many applications in sciences and technology (see, for example, [Dmitriev, 2002; Potapov, 2015]). A specificity of fractal patterns in tensor families of unitary genetic matrices can be used for a further development of the theory of dynamic chaos and its applications. The bridge between knowledges about fractals in information technologies and in bio-information systems can lead to a mutual enrichment of both these fields.

The author hopes that the further usage in genetics the concepts and formalisms of quantum informatics, which was undertaken in this article in the connection with unitary genetic matrices, will lead to the development of substantial quantum-information genetics. This will promote the inclusion of genetics and all biology in the field of profound mathematical natural science. Consideration of biological phenomena, including the phenomena of inheritance of the intellectual abilities of biological bodies, from the standpoint of the theory of quantum computers, gives many valuable opportunities for their comprehension and also for development of artificial intelligence systems [Petoukhov, 2016a,b; Petoukhov, Petukhova, 2017a; Petoukhov et al., 2017] (the work [Biamonte et al, 2017] contains a review about quantum computing and the problems of artificial intelligence). For example, an adult human organism has around 10 trillion ( $10^{14}$ ) human cells and each of cells contains an identical complect of DNA, whose genetic information is used for physiological functioning organism as the holistic system of cells. How such huge number of cells can reliably functioning as a cooperative whole? Quantum informatics and associations with quantum computers can help to model and understand such holistic biological systems with their ability of computing complex tasks and transferring genetic information from one generation to another. Quantum-information approaches allow modeling complex biological systems without using data and hypotheses about interactions between adjacent molecules or

between separate biological cells each with other; all of such separate elements are parts of a holistic organism as a quantum-information essence. The fundamental question about quantum computing was firstly touched upon in the book [Manin, 1980].

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