Is the injectivity of the global function of a cellular automaton in the hyperbolic plane undecidable?

Maurice Margenstern

Laboratoire d’Informatique Théorique et Appliquée, EA 3097, Université de Metz, I.U.T. de Metz, Département d’Informatique, Île du Saulcy, 57045 Metz Cedex, France, margens@univ-metz.fr

Abstract. In this paper, we look at the following question. We consider cellular automata in the hyperbolic plane, see [5,16,9,12] and we consider the global function defined on all possible configurations. Is the injectivity of this function undecidable? The problem was answered positively in the case of the Euclidean plane by Jarkko Kari, in 1994, see [3]. In the present paper, we give a partial answer: when the configurations are restricted to a certain condition, the problem is undecidable.

Keywords: cellular automata, hyperbolic plane, tessellations

1 Introduction

The global function of a cellular automaton \(A\) is defined in the set of all configurations. This is a very different point of view than implementing an algorithm to solve a given problem. In this latter case, the initial configuration is usually finite.

In the case of the Euclidean plane, the definition of the set of configurations is very easy: it is \(Q^{\mathbb{Z}^2}\), where \(Q\) is the set of states of the automaton.

In the hyperbolic plane, see [12], following what we did in [9], we have the following situation: we consider that the grid is the pentagrid or the ternary heptagrid, see [12]. We fix a tile, which will be called the central cell and, around it, we dispatch \(\alpha\) sectors, \(\alpha \in \{5, 7\}\): \(\alpha = 5\) in the case of the pentagrid, \(\alpha = 7\) in the case of the ternary heptagrid. We assume that the sectors and the central cell cover the plane and the sectors do not overlap, neither the central cell, nor other sectors: call them the basic sectors. Denote by \(\mathcal{F}_\alpha\) the set constituted by the central cell and \(\alpha\) Fibonacci trees, each one spanning a basic sector. Then, a configuration of a cellular automaton \(A\) in the hyperbolic plane can be represented as an element of \(Q^{\mathcal{F}_\alpha}\), where \(Q\) is the set of states of \(A\). If \(f_A\) denotes the local transition function of \(A\), its global transition function \(G_A\) is defined by: \(G_A(c)(x) = f(c(x))\).
The injectivity problem for a cellular automaton consists in asking whether there is an algorithm which, applied to a description of \( A \) would indicate whether \( G_A \) is injective or not.

In this paper, we give a partial negative answer to this question: we also assume that \( A \) satisfies a constraint which we shall describe in the fourth section. In order to describe the constraint, we need some preliminary material which we give in the second section.

2 Preliminary constructions

The constructions to which we now turn are described for the ternary heptagrid. However, this can also be performed in the pentagrid, at a price of a different setting which, here, we have not the room to present. In the first sub-section, we indicate the basis of the construction which is described by the second sub-section.

2.1 The interwoven triangles

The interwoven triangles implement a structure which can be simpler described in the Euclidean plane. It is illustrated by figure 1 below.

![Interwoven triangles in the Euclidean plane.](image)

We fix a first infinite set of triangles, which we call the generation 0 and which by definition, have the colour blue-0. They are isosceles triangles with all their symmetry axes on the same line, called the axis. The triangles are all equal and the vertex of the one is the mid-point of the basis of the other. Now, each second triangle is dotted with thick sides, while the others are equipped with thin ones. From now on, call triangles of the generation 0 those which
have thick sides and call **phantoms** of the generation 0, those which have thin sides. As shown in figure [1], triangles and phantoms alternate: the vertex of a triangle, of a phantom, is the mid-point of the basis of a phantom, of a triangle respectively. For properties shared by both triangles and phantoms, we speak of **trilaterals**. We call **mid-point of the legs** the mid-points of the sides of a trilateral which are not its basis. By construction, there is a **green line** between the mid-points of the legs of each phantom of the generation 0.

![Figure 2](image.png)

**Figure 2** *Construction of the interwoven triangles in the Euclidean plane: the green signal.*

Now, assume that we have constructed the trilaterals of the generation $n$. When $n$ is positive, the colour of the trilaterals of the generation is blue or red and these colours are said to be **opposite** to each other. We consider that the red colour is also opposite to the blue-0 one. When the construction of the trilaterals of the generation $n$ is completed, there is a green line which goes from the mid-point of a leg to the other in each trilateral when $n > 0$, in each phantom when $n = 0$. At this point, we choose a triangle $T$, at random. Then, on the mid-point of the segment which joins the mid-points of the legs of $T$, this segment is the green line of $T$ when $n > 0$, we put the vertex $V$ of an isosceles triangle $S$ of an opposite colour with respect to that of the generation $n$ and whose legs are parallel to those of $T$. To the right-hand side of $T$, there is a phantom $P$ of the generation $n$, whose vertex is the mid-point of the basis of $T$. The green line of $P$ goes on across the mid-points of the legs of $P$ and they meet the legs of $S$ at their mid-point: the legs of $S$ stop the green line at these points. Now, from the mid-point of the basis of $S$, we construct a phantom $Q$ which is the image of $S$ under a shift along the axis whose amplitude is the height of $S$: of course, the sides of $Q$ are thin while those of $S$ are thick. Then, we reproduce the pattern.
constituted by the union of $S$ and $Q$ by shifts along the axis of amplitude the distance between the vertex of $S$ and the mid-point of the basis of $Q$, the vertex of a triangle, of a phantom being the mid-point of the basis. The trilaterals $S$ and $Q$ and their images under the just indicated shifts constitute the trilaterals of the generation $n+1$. This construction is recursively repeated. The union of all the generations constitute the interwoven triangles, also see figure 2. See also [13,7] for a more precise description of this construction and of its properties. Here are the main properties of the interwoven triangles:

**Lemma 1** (Margenstern, see [13,7]) — The trilaterals of the interwoven triangles have the following properties:

(i) The triangles of the same colour never intersect: their areas are disjoint or one of them contains the other.

(ii) The legs of a trilateral never intersect the leg of another trilateral. But it may intersect the basis of a few trilaterals.

More precisely, the rules of these intersections are:

(iii) The intersection of a leg of a trilateral with the basis of another one only occurs between the vertex and the mid-point of the leg.

(iv) A leg of a triangle intersects the basis of a triangle of the previous generation.

(v) A leg of a phantom intersects the basis of exactly one trilateral for all the previous generations. The trilateral of the previous generation which is met by the leg is a triangle and all the other bases which are met by the leg belong to a phantom.

(vi) Phantoms can be grouped into towers which are finite sets of phantoms which have the same green line. The phantoms of a tower have their areas successively included one in the other. All generations up to the last one of the tower are present in the tower.

Now, we consider that the axis has marks which are defined by the vertices of the trilaterals of the generation 0, as well as the mid-points between the vertex of a trilateral $T$ and the mid-point of the basis $T$. We say that each mark defines a row which, by definition is a line which meets trilaterals. Consider a red triangle $R$ and let $\rho$ be a row which cuts the legs of $R$: we exclude the rows which contain the vertex or the basis of $R$. We say that $\rho$ is free in $R$ if and only if does not meet a red triangle inside $R$: if $\rho$ meets the vertex or the basis of a red triangle inside $R$ it is also not free. Similarly, we define the free rows of the blue and blue-0 triangles. In [13,7], we prove the following property:

**Theorem 1** (Margenstern, see [13,7]) — In the generation $2n+1$, with $n \in \mathbb{N}$, each red triangle contains $2^{n+1}+1$ free rows exactly. Each blue or blue-0 triangle contains one free row exactly: it accompanies the green line in the blue triangles; it crosses the mid-point between the vertex and the mid-point of the basis in the blue-0 triangles.

### 2.2 Implementing the interwoven triangles in the hyperbolic plane

As indicated in [13,10], we implement this Euclidean construction in the hyperbolic plane, namely in a tiling based on the ternary heptagrid, also see [12] for
the sector is defined by the angular sector of these two rays. In an 
oughly proved in [6,15].
sectors into which the main sector is split. A tree. The nodes are the centres and the sons of a node are the c entres of the 
flowers around the centre. These figures induce rules from wh ich we obtain a 
understand the pictures we sketchily define the sectors: in a n 
into sectors or half-sectors also attached to the flowers. In order the reader can 
the pictures of figures 3 indicates how a sector attached to a fl ower can be split 
the red-vertex which does not meet the centre. The lines whic h continue the two 
constitute a flower. We define it by rules applied to two kinds of tiles, the cencentres and the petals. By construction, each petal must abut three centers and 
a centre is surrounded by petals only. A centre together with its seven petals constitute a flower. We mark two kinds of flowers by introducing one or two red vertices at a vertex shared by two petals of the flower, but not any centre. Of course, a red vertex is shared by three adjacent flowers. A flower with one red vertex only is called an 8-flower. There are two kinds of flowers with two red vertices; the difference depends on the smallest number of petals which are around the centre, between these two red vertices and which do not share it. In the F-flowers, this number is 0 and in the G-flower, this number is 1. We can also go from one red-vertex to the other through a bigger number of petals which, by definition constitute the non-parental petals of the flower. Below, the pictures of figures 8indicates how a sector attached to a flower can be split into sectors or half-sectors also attached to the flowers. In order the reader can understand the pictures we sketchily define the sectors: in an F-flower, we issue a ray from each red-vertex, following an edge of the non-parental petal sharing the red-vertex which does not meet the centre. The lines which continue the two rays meet in the mid-point of the tile B in the picture of an F-flower, in figure 8.
The sector is defined by the angular sector of these two rays.

Figure 3 Splitting of the sectors defined by the flowers. From left to right: an F-sector, a G-sector and an 8-sector.

In a G-flower, we define the sector in a similar way, as the continuations of the ray meet in the centre of the flower, this time. The sector is the one which is defined by the rays and which contains an F-flower which touches the G-centre. In an 8-flower, the sector is the union of the four F-sectors defined by the four F-flowers around the centre. These figures induce rules from which we obtain a recursive process which produces the tiling. In a sector, such a process defines a tree. The nodes are the centres and the sons of a node are the centres of the sectors into which the main sector is split.

Based on these considerations, we have the following result which is thor-oughly proved in [11,15].
Lemma 2 There is a set of 4 tiles of type \textbf{centre} and 17 tiles of type \textbf{petal} which allows to tile the hyperbolic plane as a mantilla. Moreover, there is an algorithm to perform such a construction.

Next, we define the isoclines, which are obtained in the following way, based on the following property. Define the status of a tile as \textbf{black} or \textbf{white}, applying the usual rules of such nodes in a Fibonacci tree, see \cite{12}. Then, we have:

Lemma 3 It is possible to require that 8-centres are always black tiles. When this is the case, the \textit{F}-son of a \textit{G}-flower is always a black tile.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.7\textwidth]{figure4.png}
\caption{The black tile property and the levels: On the left-hand side, a black \textit{F}-centre; on the right-hand side, a black \textit{G}_\ell-centre. We can see the case of an 8-centre on both figures.}
\end{figure}

Define arcs as follows, see \cite{8}: in a white tile, the arc joins the mid-point of the sides which have a common vertex with the side to the father. In a black tile, the arc joins the mid-point of the sides separated by the side to the father and the side to the uncle, on the left-hand side of the father. Joining arcs, we get paths. The maximal paths are called \textbf{isoclines}. They are illustrated on figure 4. An isocline is infinite and it splits the hyperbolic plane into two infinite parts. The isoclines from the different trees match, even when the areas are disjoint.

We number the isocline from 0 to 19 and repeat this, periodically. This defines \textbf{upwards} and \textbf{downwards} in the hyperbolic plane. By definition, we call \textbf{seed} the \textit{F}-sons of \textit{G}-flowers which are on an isocline 0, 5, 10 or 15. The reason of this choice lies in the following property:

Lemma 4 (see \cite{8,13}) – Let the root of a tree of the mantilla \textit{T} be on the isocline 0. Then, there is a seed in the area of \textit{T} on the isocline 5. If an 8-centre \textit{A} is on the isocline 0, starting from the isocline 4, there are \textit{F}-sons of \textit{G}-flowers on all the levels. From the isocline 10 there are seeds at a distance at most 20 from \textit{A}.

Now, we look at the implementation of the interwoven triangles defined in the Euclidean plane, in the hyperbolic plane.

The implementation meets two kinds of difficulties: first, we have to define how to implement the triangles and then, the consequences of this definition on the implementation itself.
The seeds will be candidate for vertices of trilaterals: any vertex will be defined by a seed but, not any seed will be allowed to define a vertex.

We decide that all the seeds of an isocline 0 define the vertex of a blue-0 triangle, we say that the seeds of an isocline 0 are active. Now, an active seed defines a Fibonacci tree whose legs are supported by the borders of the tree: its left- and its rightmost branches, see [13,7]. The seed dispatches a scent which propagates to each tile, inside the tree and on its borders too, down to the fifth level after the level of the seed. If the tile which is met there by the scent is not a seed, the scent dies at this tile. If the tile met by the scent there is a seed, then this seed becomes active to its turn. Now, the bases of the triangles of the generation 0 are defined by the active seeds of the isoclines 10 which, at the same time, issue the legs of the phantoms of the generation 0. The scent issued from the active seeds of the isoclines 10 also raises the green line which runs on the mid-point line of the phantoms of the generation 0 which is supported by an isocline 15. This fully defines the trilaterals of the generation 0.

Next, the scent which meets an isocline 15 also emits the green line which is now called the green signal. It is used for the construction of the further generations. The vertices of the trilaterals of the generation 1 occurs on the isoclines 5. And next, for all the other generations, the vertex is defined by a seed which is activated on an isocline 15. The process is mainly the same as in the Euclidean case.

However, two concurrent phenomena occur which might disturb the construction: the same isocline may cross several triangles inside a given triangle; the same isocline may cross trilaterals of the same generation as well as trilaterals of a smaller generation inside a trilateral of a bigger one or in between two contiguous triangles of a bigger generation. As an example, on the same isocline, we may have a green signal inside two contiguous triangles of the same generation as well as, in between, the green signal of smaller phantoms. Now, the phantoms do not stop the green signal while the triangles do.

Here, we do not have the room to indicate how to handle this situation. This is performed in [13,10] under the name of synchronization mechanisms which are introduced to guarantee the correctness of the construction algorithm which was devised for the Euclidean implementation. What is important here is that we have an implementation of the interwoven triangles in the hyperbolic plane.

An another important property of this implementation is the density of the active seeds in the hyperbolic plane:

**Lemma 5** (see [13,7,8]) — For any tile τ of the mantilla, there is an active seed within a ball of radius 20 around τ.

2.3 An application to the tiling problem

In fact, this construction was used to prove the following result:

**Theorem 2** (Margenstern, [13,10], Kari, [4]) — The tiling problem is undecidable for the hyperbolic plane.
The two indicated proofs are completely different and independent. Also, [7,10] occurred first. Also, the proof given in [13,7,10] has the following property: given the 1-bit information that the considered finite set constructed for the proof tiles the plane, the proof provides an algorithm which constructs the tiling, of course, in infinite time. It is interesting to note that the interwoven triangles define a strongly non-periodic tiling of the hyperbolic plane, as Chaim Goodman-Strauss pointed to me. Remember that, in the case of the Euclidean plane, Berger’s proof of the undecidability of the same tiling problem for this plane, see [1], was the first example of an aperiodic tiling. However, in the case of the hyperbolic plane, the existence of strongly aperiodic set of tiles was known before the solution to the result stated by theorem 2, see [2].

As we need this construction of the interwoven triangles for the result of this paper, we sketchily mention how we derive the proof of theorem 2 from the previous two sub-sections.

First, we ignore the blue-0 and the blue triangles, the phantoms of any colour as well as most of the construction signals indicated in [13] for instance. We just keep the yellow signal which, by definition, marks the free rows in the red triangles. Indeed, the free rows of the red triangles constitute the horizontals of the grid which we shall construct in order to simulate the space-time diagram of a Turing machine.

Now, we have to define the verticals of the grid to complete the simulation. They consist of rays which cross 8-centres. Figure 5 illustrates the various ways of their connection with the tile of a border of the tree being on a free row.

The computing signal starts from a the seed. It travels on the free rows. Each time a vertical is met, which contains a symbol of the tape, the required instruction is performed. If the direction is not changed and the corresponding border is not met, the signal goes on, on the same row. Otherwise, it goes down along the vertical until it meets the next free row. There, it looks at the expected vertical, going in the appropriate direction. Further details are dealt with in [8].

**Figure 5** The perpendicular starting from a point of the border of a triangle which represents a square of the Turing tape.

On the left-hand side: the case of the vertex. On the right-hand side, the three other cases for the right-hand side border are displayed on the same figure.

As indicated in [13,7,10], there are continuously many realizations of the mantilla and also continuously many realizations of the interwoven triangles in
each realization of the mantilla. One realization of the interwoven triangles will keep our attention: it is what we have called the butterfly model, in [8]. In this model, there is a single isocline 15 which is never cut by red triangles. This isocline may be the basis of an infinite red phantom and, in this case, it contains infinitely many vertices of red triangles which, therefore, are infinite.

3 The mauve triangles and a plane filling path

In [14], we defined a construction which, up to a point, forces the construction of a plane filling path in the hyperbolic plane.

Here, let us remember the main lines of this construction.

3.1 The mauve triangles

The first step of the construction is the introduction of the mauve triangles. We again start from an implementation of the interwoven triangles in the hyperbolic plane. The reason of these new triangles will become more clear after the next sub-section where we construct a path which crosses each tile of the tiling exactly once. At the present moment, we can simply say that these new triangles allow to better control the various turns of the path in order to satisfy the just indicated constraint.

As indicated in [14], the mauve triangles are constructed from the red triangles. They double the height of the red triangles: accordingly, they loose the separation property of the red triangles. Mauve triangles do intersect inside a generation and also in between generations: this point raises several difficulties which are overcome as will be indicated below.

Each vertex of a red triangle is also the vertex of a mauve triangle, and conversely. Let $V$ be a vertex of a red triangle $R$. The legs of the mauve triangle $M$ with vertex $V$ are supported by the same branches of the Fibonacci tree rooted at $V$ as $R$. Now, the legs of $M$ go further on the branches. They continue until they meet the next isocline which contains the vertices of red triangles of the same generation as $R$. And so, the height of $M$ is twice the height of $R$. The construction of the mauve triangles from the red triangles supporting them is not very difficult. The reader is referred to [14] for useful details and constructions.

The mauve triangles have interesting properties which are stated by the following two lemmas, taken from [14]. We call latitude of a mauve triangle the set of isoclines which crosses the legs of the triangle from its vertex to its basis, the isoclines of the vertex and of the basis being included.

Lemma 6 Let $\tau$ be a tile of the tiling. Then for any non-negative $n$, there is a mauve latitude $\Lambda$ of the generation $n$ such that $\tau \in \Lambda$. And then: either $\tau$ falls within a mauve triangle of generation $n$ in this latitude or $\tau$ falls outside two consecutive mauve triangles of generation $n$ and of the latitude $\Lambda$ and in between them.
This property follows immediately from the fact that the latitude of a mauve triangle exactly covers that of the corresponding red triangle and the following latitude of red phantoms.

However, there is a price to pay to this. Remember: the red triangles are either disjoint or embedded. Now, mauve triangles do intersect from one generation to another. Fortunately, this intersection is not that big and it is characterized by the following statement.

**Lemma 7** A mauve triangle $T$ of positive generation $n$ intersects mauve triangles of generation $n-1$, and it possibly intersects one mauve triangle of generation $n+h+1$, with $h \geq 0$. When the intersection occurs, the legs of $T$ cut the basis of the mauve triangle of the higher generation at a point which is on the mid-distance line of the red phantoms which share their basis with that of $T$. Call **low point** this point on the legs of $T$. The basis of $T$ is cut by the legs of mauve triangles of generation $m$, with $m < n$, at their low points.

In [14], we indicate how to construct the low points of the mauve triangles. We mean by this that the tiles must force the detection of the low points at the
same time as they force the construction of the mauve triangles. This is not very difficult to obtain.

3.2 A plane filling path

Once the mauve triangles are installed, it is possible to define a path which visits all the tiles exactly once for each of them. Such a path will here be called a **plane filling path**.

The construction consists in defining a way to fill the mauve triangles as well as the space in between two consecutive mauve triangles of the same generation and within the same latitude. This latter space is called a **trapeze**.

First, we split the mauve triangles and the trapezes in slices which again involve mauve triangles and trapezes of a smaller generation. Then, we shall proceed to a tuning: unfortunately, things cannot be that simple, due to the property stated by lemma 7 about the possible overlapping of mauve triangles of different generations. Such a splitting is suggested by figure 7.

Figure 8 indicates when the slicing is refined to a second smaller generation.

![Figure 7](image1.png)  
*Figure 7* The basic figures: triangle and trapeze within a latitude, and the splitting of the slices.  
*On the right-hand side: above, the descending case; below, the ascending case.*

![Figure 8](image2.png)  
*Figure 8* The splitting of the slices: second generation.  
*On the left-hand side: the descending case. On the right-hand side: the ascending case.*
At this point, it should be indicated that the situation is not as simple as it can be viewed from the figures 7 and 8. Indeed, in these figures, the representation ignores the fact that mauve triangles overlap. As can be seen in figure 6 if we take into account the overlap, we have to change the definition of the basis of a mauve triangle, as well as its vertex.

As indicated in [14][11], we re-define the bottom of a mauve triangle.

First, the entry point into a triangle is not necessary one of its corner. It may be the low point. This depends on the fact whether the mauve triangle is crossed or not by a triangle of a bigger generation. As can be deduced from figure 6, this may happen and it may also not happen as well. When it happens, the basis of the bigger triangle cuts the legs of the smaller one at their low points.

In the case when the mauve triangle $T$ is not crossed by a bigger one, the entry is at a corner and the basis follows the lower part of the inner triangles whose legs are cut by the basis of $T$. Now, for these lower parts, we apply recursively the same principle. When the mauve triangle $T$ is crossed by a bigger one, the entry is at the low point: other wise, there would be a contradiction between the path following the basis of the big triangle and that which runs inside $T$. As explained in [14], the path follows the lower part of $T$, which is also in agreement with what we have just defined above, and we apply the same recursive process for further intersections down to a mauve triangle of the first generation.

We call the new definition of this bottom of a mauve triangle, the refined basis. This correspondingly may redefine the vertex of a mauve triangle $T$, as the upper part of the legs of $T$, as it may be cut by a refined basis. See [14][11] for more precise information. With these modifications, the above indications define a path which passes through all tiles exactly once. Moreover, this path has no origin in this sense that no tile play a special rôle with respect to the path. We shall say that the path is a uniform plane-filling path.

Accordingly, we have proved the following theorem:

**Theorem 3** (Margenstern, see [14]) — *There is a uniform plane-filling path for the ternary heptagrid in hyperbolic plane.*

### 3.3 The exceptional case: the butterfly model

However, this construction does not provide us with a strong plane filling property as the construction of Jarkko Kari does for the Euclidean plane.

In fact, when the realization of the interwoven triangles has the property that any tile falls in the interior of some mauve triangle, then our construction provides us with a uniform plane filling path which is then forced by the tiling.

But there is a realization when this may be not the case: it is the situation of the butterfly model.

When the realization of the interwoven triangles is the butterfly model, there can still be four cases, depending on the basis which accompanies the infinite green line. There is one case where our construction does not provide a plane filling path: it is the situation when the infinite green line is accompanied by
the basis of a red phantom. In this case, this basis can be the basis of an infinite mauve triangle, of course, applying to it the refinements which we have mentioned in the previous sub-section.

4 About the injectivity of the global function of a cellular automaton in the hyperbolic plane

If we had not this exceptional situation, we could mainly apply the argument of 3, with a slight modification. Remember that the automaton $A_T$ attached to a set of tiles $T$ in 3 has its states in $D \times \{0, 1\} \times T$, where $D$ is the set of tiles which defines the tiling with the plane filling property and $T$ is an arbitrary finite set of tiles. We can still tile the plane as we assume that the tiles of $T$ are ternary heptagons but the abutting conditions may be not observed: if it is observed with all the neighbours of the cell $c$, the corresponding configuration is said to be correct at $c$, otherwise it is said incorrect. When the considered configuration is correct at every tile for $D$ or at every tile for $T$, it is called a realization of the corresponding tiling. Let $\delta$ denote the path induced by a realization of $D$. As in 3, the transition function does not change neither the $D$- nor the $T$-component of the state of a cell $c$; it only changes its $\{0, 1\}$-component $x(c)$ which is later on called the bit of $c$. As in 3, we define $A_T(x(c)) = x(c)$ if the configuration in $D$ or in $T$ is incorrect at the considered tile. If both are correct, we define $A_T(x(c)) = \text{xor}(x(c), x(\delta(c)))$. It is plain that if $T$ tiles the hyperbolic plane, there is a configuration of $D$ and one of $T$ which are realizations of the respective tilings. Then, the transition function computes the xor of the bit of a cell and its next neighbour along the path. Hence, defining all cells with 0 and then all cells with 1 define two configurations which $A_T$ transform to the same image: the configuration where all cells have the bit 0. Accordingly, $A_T$ is not injective.

Conversely, if $A_T$ is not injective, we have two different configurations $c_0$ and $c_1$ for which the image is the same. Hence, there is a cell $t$ at which the configurations differ. Hence, the xor was applied, which means that $D$ and $T$ are both correct at this cell in these configurations and it is not difficult to see that the value for each configuration on the next neighbour along the path must also be different. And so, following the path in one direction, we have a correct tiling for both $D$ and $T$. Note that this entails nothing for the part of the path which is before $t$. But we need not to take any finite set of tiles. We can take the family of set of tiles defined in 13 which are attached to Turing machines, as sketchily mentioned in subsection 2.3. We denote by $T_M$ such a finite set of tiles attached to a Turing machine $M$. Indeed, it is not difficult to see that the half of the path after $t$ covers infinitely many mauve triangles of arbitrary sizes, hence it covers infinitely many balls of arbitrary sizes. Now, in these balls, $T_M$ is also correct and so, by the density property of the seeds, there are infinitely many red triangles of $T_M$ which are correct and so, the computation of $M$ does not halt. And so, we can see that the injectivity of $A_{T_M}$ would be reduced to the halting problem.
Now, as indicated, this cannot be derived as there is an exceptional situation in which we could have a non injective cellular automaton although the Turing machine halts: it is enough to take the above mentioned configuration with the infinite mauve triangle in which $T_M$ is correct along the refined basis of the infinite mauve triangle.

But, we can impose a condition which boils down to ignore the refined basis.

Say that $A$ is a $\beta$-freezed cellular automaton, if $A$ is associated with a fixed refined basis $\beta$ of a mauve triangle and if its transition function if the identity on all cells which belong to $\beta$. We also say that $A$ is freezed along $\beta$. Then we have:

**Theorem 4** The injectivity problem is undecidable for $\beta$-freezed cellular automata on the ternary heptagrid.

Proof. Indeed, we define $D$ and $T_M$ as previously. The set of tiles $D$ defines a uniform plane filling path in the conditions of theorem 3 and $T_M$ is associated to the Turing machine $M$ as in [13]. We define the transition function of a $\beta$-freezed cellular automaton as described above, except when the cell is on $\beta$: in that case, necessarily, the new state is the same as the previous one.

Assume that $M$ does not halt. Then, there is a configuration for $D$ which corresponds to the realization of $D$ as a butterfly model with $\beta$ as the refined basis of an infinite mauve triangle. There is also a configuration for $T_M$ which is a realization of a tiling of the hyperbolic plane by $T_M$. Then $A_{T_M}$ is not injective: take again the configuration where all cells have the bit 0 and the configuration when they all have the bit 1 except on $\beta$ where the cells have the bit 0. As the xor function is applied, and as the path is always defined, even when it is not unique, we get that $A_{T_M}$ is not injective: both indicated configurations are transformed in the configuration where all the cells have the bit 0.

Now, assume that $A_{T_M}$ is not injective. In this case, there are two different configurations $c_0$ and $c_1$ which have the same image. Necessarily there is a tile $t$ such that $c_0(t) \neq c_1(t)$. As the automaton is freezed along $\beta$, $t \not\in \beta$. And so, either $t$ is above $\beta$, either it is below. In bot cases, we can apply the argument which we have above reproduced from [3], with this restriction that only the path after $t$ is correct as well as the tiling of $T_M$ along this restriction to a half of the path.

Now, as indicated in [14], in the exceptional situation of the butterfly model with a refined basis of an infinite mauve triangle, above $\beta$ there is a single path defined by $D$ which visits all the tiles above $t$ exactly once. And so, if $t$ is above $\beta$, we conclude that $M$ does not halt. Assume that $t$ is below $\beta$. Then, from [14,11], we know that the part of the tiling which is below $\beta$ can be split into infinitely many regions in which the path visits all the tiles exactly once and in which there are infinitely many mauve triangles with arbitrary sizes. Indeed, we can sketchily describe these regions. In the considered situation, there are infinitely many infinite mauve triangles whose vertices are on $\beta$. Each region is defined by such an infinite mauve triangle $T$ rooted on $\beta$ and the intermediate region between $T$ and the next infinite mauve triangle $M$ rooted on $\beta$, $M$ being not
included. Now, if the path after $t$ visits $T$, we are done. If, on the contrary, it visits the intermediate region in between $T$ and $M$, we are also done: indeed, it is not difficult to see that in this intermediate zone, there are infinitely many mauve triangles with arbitrary sizes.

And so, in all cases, the half of the path after $t$ visits infinitely many mauve triangles with arbitrary sizes. And so, the argument which we have above produced allows us to conclude that $M$ does not halt.

Accordingly $M$ does not halt if and only if $A_{TM}$ is not injective. Accordingly, the injectivity of the $A_{TM}$’s is undecidable. ■

5 Conclusion

The question of the injectivity of the global function of cellular automata in the hyperbolic plane is still open. However, I think that it is undecidable, although the above argument does not allow to derive this conclusion. Even if the injectivity happens to be clearly proved as undecidable, we shall remain with the question of the surjectivity. In the Euclidean case, it is known that the surjectivity of the global function of a cellular automaton is equivalent to its injectivity on the set of finite configurations, see [14,15]. Now, in the case of cellular automata in the hyperbolic plane, this is not at all the case. The surjectivity and the injectivity of the global function are independent: there are examples of surjective global functions which are not injective and of injective global functions which are not surjective. Accordingly, this question is completely open in the hyperbolic plane.

References

1. Berger R., The undecidability of the domino problem, Memoirs of the American Mathematical Society, 66, (1966), 1-72.
2. Goodman-Strauss, Ch., A strongly aperiodic set of tiles in the hyperbolic plane, Inventiones Mathematicae, 159(1), (2005), 119-132.
3. Kari J., Reversibility and Surjectivity Problems for Cellular Automata, Journal of Computer and System Sciences, 48, (1994), 149-182.
4. Kari J., The Tiling Problem Revisited, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, 4664, (2007). 72-79.
5. M. Margenstern, New Tools for Cellular Automata of the Hyperbolic Plane, Journal of Universal Computer Science 6(12), (2000), 1226–1252.
6. Margenstern M., About the domino problem in the hyperbolic plane from an algorithmic point of view, Technical report, 2006-101, LITA, Université Paul Verlaine – Metz, (2006), 100p., available at: http://www.lita.sciences.univ-metz.fr/~margens/hyp_dominoes.ps.gzip
7. Margenstern M., About the domino problem in the hyperbolic plane, a new solution, arXiv:cs.CG/0701096, (2007), January, 60p.
8. Margenstern M., About the domino problem in the hyperbolic plane, a new solution, Technical report, 2007-102, LITA, Université Paul Verlaine – Metz, (2007), 106p., available at: http://www.lita.sciences.univ-metz.fr/~margens/new_hyp_dominoes.ps.gzip
9. Margenstern M., On a characterization of cellular automata in tilings of the hyperbolic plane, \textit{arXiv:cs/0702155}, (2007), February, 17p.
10. Margenstern M., The Domino Problem of the Hyperbolic Plane Is Undecidable, \textit{arXiv:0706.4161}, (2007), June, 18p.
11. Margenstern M., Constructing a uniform plane-filling path in the ternary heptagrid of the hyperbolic plane, \textit{arXiv:0710.0232}, (2007), October, 22p.
12. Margenstern M., Cellular Automata in Hyperbolic Spaces, Volume 1, Theory, \textit{OCP}, Philadelphia, (2007), 422p.
13. Margenstern M., The Domino Problem of the Hyperbolic Plane is Undecidable, \textit{Bulletin of the EATCS}, 93, (2007), October, 220-237.
14. Margenstern M., Constructing a uniform plane-filling path in the ternary heptagrid of the hyperbolic plane. \textit{Computer Science Journal of Moldova}, 15(3-45), (2007), to appear.
15. Margenstern M., About the domino problem in the hyperbolic plane from an algorithmic point of view, \textit{Theoretical Informatics and Application}, (2008), to appear.
16. M. Margenstern, K. Morita, NP problems are tractable in the space of cellular automata in the hyperbolic plane, \textit{Theoretical Computer Science}, 259, 99–128, (2001)
17. Moore E.F., Machine Models of Self-reproduction, \textit{Proceedings of the Symposium in Applied Mathematics}, 14, (1962), 17-33.
18. Myhill J., The Converse to Moore's Garden-of-Eden Theorem, \textit{Proceedings of the American Mathematical Society}, 14, (1963), 685-686.