

A Lean tactic to solve the word problem in One Relator Groups

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1 Introduction

This paper describes two methods for automating proofs of equalities in groups, given a number of equalities as hypotheses. The first section describes Magnus’ method [MS73], which decides the word problem in one-relator groups.

The second method is capable of using more than one equality as a hypothesis, with the caveat that it may not terminate if the equality it is asked to prove is false. It is a known result that the word problem for finitely presented groups is undecidable [Col86], however it is semidecidable meaning that there is an algorithm that will terminate with a proof whenever an equality is true, but will not necessarily terminate when an equality does not follow from the hypotheses.

In order to be used as part of a Lean tactic, the implementation of the algorithm must not only decide the problem, but also produce a proof certificate that can be converted into a Lean proof to be checked by Lean’s kernel. The Lean tactic can prove that two words in a one relator group are equal, but not that they are unequal.

2 Introduction to Lean

Lean [dMKA⁺18] is a proof assistant; it is a language capable of expressing mathematical propositions and definitions, and also a language for writing formal proofs of these propositions which can then be checked by Lean’s kernel. A formal proof checked by Lean’s kernel provides an extremely high level of confidence in a checked proof, at the expense of requiring a lot of time for a user to write a proof in a completely formal language.

As well as being a proof assistant, Lean is also a programming language. The definitions that are written in Lean are also executable programs, and Lean can be used to prove correctness of programs written in Lean as well as pure mathematical proofs. Lean can be used as a programming language to write Lean tactics, described in the next section.

There is a large library of formal mathematics in Lean, called mathlib [mC20]. As of January 2021 this contains 470000 lines of code.

2.1 Terms and Types

Lean is based on type theory, every expression has a type, including types themselves. The notation $x : y$ indicates that x has type y .

Lean makes use of the Curry Howard correspondence, every proposition is a type, and the inhabitants of the proposition can be thought of as proofs of the proposition. The main difference between propositions and other types, is that every element of a proposition is equal to itself.

If P and Q are propositions and it is known that P implies Q , and P is true, then Q is also true. \top

By the Curry Howard correspondence, theorems can be regarded as functions, and the implication arrow \rightarrow is the same as the arrow defining function types.

For example if X and Y are types, then $f : X \rightarrow Y$ could be read as f is a function from X to

Y. But if X and Y are propositions, then f is a proof that X implies Y .

Suppose X and Y are propositions, and we have $x : X$, and $f : X \rightarrow Y$, i.e. X is true, and $X \rightarrow Y$ is also true. Then by the modus ponens rule, we know Y is also true. The proof of this, the term of type Y , is simply $f\ x$ (Function application can be written without brackets in Lean). The same syntax would be used if X and Y were Types, then if $x : X$ and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ then applying f to x , gives $f\ x : Y$.

Similarly the forall quantifier corresponds to Pi-types, or the type of dependent functions, where the output type depends on the input to the function. For example if $s : \text{set } \mathbb{N}$ is a set of natural numbers, and $h : \forall x : \mathbb{N}, x \in s$, is a proof that every natural number is contained in this set, then this function applied at 2 gives $h\ 2 : 2 \in s$, the proof in the special case when x is 2. In fact the symbols \forall and Π are interchangeable in Lean, it is only a convention that \forall should be used for propositions and Π for types.

We have seen that the function arrow corresponds to the implication arrow. There are other correspondences between logical connectives, and operators for making types. For example logical "and", \wedge corresponds to the product of types, logical "or" \vee correspond to the disjoint union or coproduct of types.

2.2 Tactics

Because of the difficulty of writing a formal proof in Lean directly, it is possible to write tactics in Lean. The tactic framework is a domain specific language for writing Lean expressions, which include Lean proofs. Tactics will return a Lean expression, which will then be checked by the Lean kernel. The tactic itself is not proven correct, it is possible that a tactic returns a proof that is not accepted by the Lean kernel.

When using tactics to write a Lean proof, a tactic state is displayed to a user. This tactic state can be manipulated using tactics. An example of a tactic state is displayed below.

Example 2.0.1. The code below is a statement of the theorem that if G is a group, and $a, b \in G$ are such that $ab = b^2a$, then for any natural number n , $a^n b a^{-n} = b^{2^n}$. Between the `begin ... end`, the user can write tactics to produce a proof of the proposition.

```
example {G : Type} [group G] (a b : G) (h : a * b = b ^ 2 * a) (n : ℕ) :
  a ^ n * b * a ^ -↑n = b ^ 2 ^ n :=
begin

end
```

If the user types the above code then the following tactic state is displayed to the user.

```
1 goal
G : Type,
_inst_1 : group G,
a b : G,
h : a * b = b ^ 2 * a,
n : ℕ
⊢ a ^ n * b * a ^ -↑n = b ^ 2 ^ n
```

The turnstile \vdash indicates the current goal, the proposition the user is currently trying to prove. The preceding lines indicate the hypotheses and variables. $G : \text{Type}$ indicates that G is a type.

`_inst_1` is a group structure on the Type `G`. A term of type `group G`, is a tuple containing a binary operation on `G`, an identity, and an inverse function, as well as proofs that these satisfy the group axioms. `a` and `b` are elements of `G`, `h` is the hypothesis that $a * b = b^2 * a$, and `n` is a natural number.

If the user writes a tactic, then the tactic state will change. If the user wanted to prove this by induction on `n` they could write

```
induction n with k ih
```

The tactic state after this line will now be

```
2 goals
case nat.zero
G : Type,
_inst_1 : group G,
a b : G,
h : a * b = b ^ 2 * a
⊢ a ^ 0 * b * a ^ -↑0 = b ^ 2 ^ 0

case nat.succ
G : Type,
_inst_1 : group G,
a b : G,
h : a * b = b ^ 2 * a,
k : ℕ,
ih : a ^ k * b * a ^ -↑k = b ^ 2 ^ k
⊢ a ^ k.succ * b * a ^ -↑(k.succ) = b ^ 2 ^ k.succ
```

The tactic split the goal into two cases, in the first case, labelled `case nat.zero`, `n` is zero, and in the second case, labelled `case nat.succ n` `n` is the successor of `k`. In the second case, an induction hypothesis `ih` has been added.

The user could then use the `rw` tactic to solve the first goal, for example typing `rw pow_zero` changes the goal to

```
⊢ 1 * b * a ^ -↑0 = b ^ 2 ^ 0
```

The a^0 has been substituted for 1; `pow_zero` is the theorem that says if a is an element of any monoid, then $a^0 = 1$.

To solve the first goal the `simp` tactic can be used. The `simp` tactic applies as many simplification rules as possible. These rules are lemmas in the library marked by the library authors as simplification lemmas that are proofs of an equality where the right hand side is judged to be simpler than the left hand side. For example there is a lemma simplifying $1 * a$ to a , or b^1 to b .

To solve the second goal, the `group_rel` tactic described later in this document can be used.

3 Magnus' Method

This section starts by defining and stating a few important results about both HNN extensions and free groups. Next, the proof certificate is described, and then the algorithm is described along with how to generate the proof certificates.

3.1 Free Group

The free group is implemented in Lean as the set of reduced words. An element of the free group over a type S of letters is a list of pairs $S \times \mathbb{Z}$, the letter and the exponent. A list of the exponent part of every element of the list is non zero, and no two adjacent elements of the list have the same letter. The free group is the set of reduced lists.

Multiplication of elements of the free group is implemented by appending the lists whilst replacing any adjacent occurrences of (s, m) and (s, n) with $(s, m + n)$, and removing any occurrence of $(s, 0)$. Inversion is given by reversing the list and negating the exponent part of every pair. The identity is given by the empty list.

Definition 3.1 (Length). The length of a word w in the free group is the sum of the absolute values of the exponent parts of each element of the corresponding reduced list.

Definition 3.2 (Cyclically Reduced). A word w in the free group is cyclically reduced if it cannot be made shorter by conjugating.

We state the following theorem *Freiheitsatz*. This theorem is an important part of the correctness of Magnus' method. The proof is omitted.

Theorem 3.3 (Freiheitsatz). Suppose $F(S)$ is the free group over a set S and r is a cyclically reduced word, and $T \subset S$ is a set of letters such that r cannot be written using any letters in T . Then T is a basis for a free subgroup of $F(S)$. [MS73]

3.2 HNN Extensions

Magnus' method makes use of isomorphisms between one-relator groups and HNN extensions. In this section we define an HNN extension of a group relative to an isomorphism between two subgroups.

Definition 3.4 (HNN Extension). Given a group G , subgroups A and B of G , and an isomorphism $\phi : A \rightarrow B$, we can define the *HNN extension* relative to ϕ of G . Let $\langle t \rangle$ be an infinite cyclic group generated by t . The HNN extension is the coproduct of G and $\langle t \rangle$ quotiented by the normal closure of the set $\{tat^{-1}\phi(a^{-1}) \mid a \in A\}$

Definition 3.5 (HNN normal form). Let $w = g_0 t^{k_1} g_1 t^{k_2} g_2 \cdots t^{k_n} g_n \in G * \langle t \rangle$. Then w is in *HNN normal form* if for every i , $k_i \neq 0$, $k_i > 0$ implies $g_i \notin A$ and $k_i < 0$ implies $g_i \notin B$.

Note that the HNN normal form is not unique; two words $w, v \in G * \langle t \rangle$ that are equal after mapping into the HNN extension and both in normal form might not be equal as elements of $G * \langle t \rangle$. However, if $w \in G * \langle t \rangle$ maps to 1 in the HNN extension then the following lemma tells us that the unique HNN normal form for w is 1.

Theorem 3.6 (Britton's Lemma). Let $w \in G * \langle t \rangle$. If w is in HNN normal form and w contains a t , then $w \neq 1$ [Mil68]

Corollary 3.6.1. If a word w meets the conditions of Britton's Lemma, then w cannot be written as a t free word.

Proof. Suppose $w = g$ with $g \in G$; then $g^{-1}w$ also meets the conditions in Theorem 3.6, and therefore $gw^{-1} \neq 1$, contradicting $w = g$. \square

Given a word $w \in G * \langle t \rangle$, the HNN normalization process replaces any occurrences of ta with $\phi(a)t$ when $a \in A$, and any occurrence of $t^{-1}b$ with $\phi^{-1}(b)t^{-1}$ when $b \in B$. Applying this rewriting procedure will always produce a word w' in HNN normal form and such that w and w' are equal after quotienting by the defining relations of the HNN extension, $\{tat^{-1}\phi(a^{-1}) | a \in A\}$.

The HNN normalization process describes an algorithm for deciding whether two words $w, v \in G * \langle t \rangle$ are equal after mapping into the HNN extension, by applying the normalization procedure to wv^{-1} . In order to compute this algorithm, it is also necessary to have an algorithm for checking equality of elements in G , for checking whether an element of G is in either of the subgroups A or B , and for computing ϕ .

3.3 The Proof Certificate

An element of a group G is equal to 1 in the quotient by the normal closure of a relator r if and only if it can be written as a product of conjugates of r and r^{-1} . More precisely, there is a group homomorphism $Eval : F(G) \rightarrow G$ from the free group over G into G that sends a basis element of $F(G)$, $g \in G$, to $grg^{-1} \in G$. The image of this map is exactly the kernel of the quotient map. Therefore an element p of $F(G)$ such that $Eval(p) = w$ can be seen as a witness that w is in the kernel of the quotient map.

Definition 3.7. (Eval) $Eval(r)$ is a map $F(G) \rightarrow G$, sending a basis element $g \in G$ to grg^{-1} .

The certificate is a pair of a normalised word w' and $p \in F(G)$ such that $w = Eval(p)w'$.

Definition 3.8 (P functor). For any $g \in G$ define an automorphism $MulFree(g)$ of $F(G)$ by sending a basis element $h \in G$ to gh . This defines a left action of G on $F(G)$. Define the group $P(G)$ to be

$$P(G) := F(G) \rtimes_{MulFree} G \quad (1)$$

This group has multiplication given by $(a, b)(a', b') = (aMulFree(b)(a'), bb')$

Definition 3.8.1 (lhs and rhs). Define two group homomorphisms from P into G : let rhs be the obvious map sending (a, b) to b and let lhs be the map sending (a, b) to $Eval(a)b$. Since $Eval(a)$ is in the kernel of the quotient map, for any $p \in P(G)$, $lhs(p)$ and $rhs(p)$ are equal in the quotient by r . Therefore an element p of $P(G)$ can be regarded as a certificate of the congruence $lhs(p) \equiv rhs(p) \pmod{r}$.

One way of expressing this is that the group G/r is the coequalizer of the two surjective maps lhs and rhs

$$P(G) \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{rhs} \\ \xleftarrow{lhs} \end{array} G \longrightarrow G/r$$

Because both lhs and rhs are group homomorphisms, if $p \in P(G)$ is a certificate of the congruence $a \equiv b \pmod{r}$ and q is a certificate of the congruence $c \equiv d \pmod{r}$, then pq is a certificate of the congruence $ac \equiv bd \pmod{r}$. Similarly, p^{-1} is a certificate of the congruence $a^{-1} \equiv b^{-1} \pmod{r}$.

Definition 3.8.2. (P is functorial). Given a homomorphism $f : G \rightarrow H$, functoriality of the free group gives a natural map $F(f) : F(G) \rightarrow F(H)$. Define the map $P(f) : P(G) \rightarrow P(H)$ to send $(p, b) \in P(G)$ to $(F(f)(p), f(b)) \in P(H)$. Given a certificate of the congruence $a \equiv b \pmod{r}$, this map returns a certificate of the congruence $f(a) \equiv f(b) \pmod{f(r)}$.

Definition 3.8.3. (Trans) Given $p, q \in P(G)$ such that p is a certificate of the congruence $a = b \pmod{r}$ and q is a certificate of the congruence $b = c \pmod{r}$, it is possible to define $\text{Trans}(p, q)$ such that $\text{Trans}(p, q)$ is a certificate of the congruence $a = c \pmod{r}$. If $p = (p_1, p_2)$ and $q = (q_1, q_2)$, then $\text{Trans}(p, q) = (p_1 q_1, q_2)$.

Definition 3.8.4. (Refl) Given $a \in G$, $(1, a)$ is a certificate of the congruence $a = a \pmod{r}$. Call this $\text{Refl}(a)$.

It is also possible to define Symm such that $\text{lhs}(\text{Symm}(p)) = \text{rhs}(p)$ and vice versa, but this is not used in the algorithm.

Definition 3.8.5. (ChangeRel) Given a certificate p of the congruence $a \equiv b \pmod{r}$, it is possible to make a certificate of the congruence $a \equiv b \pmod{grg^{-1}}$ for any $g \in G$. For any $g \in G$, let $\phi(g) : F(G) \rightarrow F(G)$ be the map sending $h \in G$ to hg . Then $\text{ChangeRel}(g, (p_1, p_2))$ is defined to be $(\phi(g)(p_1), p_2)$ for $g \in G$ and $(p_1, p_2) \in P(G)$.

3.3.1 Performance

The representation of $F(F(S))$ can be improved. The automorphism MulFree multiplies every letter in a word by another word. The consequence is that many of the words in $F(F(S))$ making up an element of $F(F(S))$ are very similar. Take the word $[w][v] \in F(F(S))$, where $w, v, u \in F(S)$, and consider the element $\text{MulFree}(u)[w][v] = [uw][uv]$. It is more efficient to only store the difference between adjacent letters, so the element $[w][v]$ would be represented as the sequence $w, w^{-1}v$, and the element $[uw][uv]$ would be represented as the sequence uw, v^{-1} . If u is a long word, which it often is, then this representation will usually be shorter. The longer the word x such that the algorithm is attempting to prove $\bar{w} = 1$, the longer a typical length of u is, so in fact the standard representation tends to give certificates more of length or less quadratic in the length of x . This also has the advantage that to compute MulFree only the first term in the sequence needs to be changed.

An improved representation of the group $F(F(S))$ for a set $F(S)$, is to again represent an element as a finite sequence of elements of $F(S) \times \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \times \{-1, 1\}$.

Define the set X to be the set of finite sequences of elements of $F(S) \times \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \times \{-1, 1\}$, with the property that there are no adjacent pairs of the form $(g_i, n_i, s_i)(1, n_{i+1}, -s_i)$. A pair of this form will evaluate to $(g_i r^{s_i})^{n_i} r^{-s_i n_{i+1}} \dots g_i^{-n_i}$, so there is a natural cancellation that can be made, whilst preserving the same evaluation. This reduction corresponds to cancellation of inverses in the usual representation of the free group. Later, we will define a Reduce function on sequences.

Given a pair $(g, n, b) \in F(S) \times \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1} \times \{-1, 1\}$, define an element $f(g, n, b) \in P(F(S))$.

$$\begin{cases} f(g, n, 1) := ([g], g)^n \\ f(g, n, -1) := ((1, g^{-1})([g]^{-1}, 1))^{-n} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Therefore given a sequence $(g_1, n_1, s_1), (g_2, n_2, s_2) \dots (g_k, n_k, s_k)$, we can define the corresponding element of $F(F(S))$ to be

$$\left(\prod_{i=1}^k f(g_i, n_i, s_i) \right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^k (1, g_i)^{-n_i} \right) \quad (3)$$

The evaluation map into $F(S)$ can then be define as

$$\text{Eval}((g_1, n_1, s_1), (g_2, n_2, s_2) \dots (g_k, n_k, s_k)) := \left(\prod_{i=1}^k (g_i r_i^{s_i})^{n_i} \right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^k g_i^{n_i} \right) \quad (4)$$

One way of viewing this representation is that it stores a way of representing as a sequence of applications of $h(g_i, s_i)$, to a word w , where each n_i represents how many times the map $h(g_i, s_i)$ should be applied.

$$h(g_i, s_i)(w) = g_i r_i^{s_i} w g_i^{-1} \quad (5)$$

The map MulFree can be defined on this representation much more efficiently, since only the first element in the list need be changed.

$$\begin{cases} \text{MulFree}(w)(1) := 1 \\ \text{MulFree}(w)((g_1, 1, s_1), \dots, (g_k, n_k, s_k)) := (w g_1, 1, s_1), \dots, (g_k, n_k, s_k) \\ \text{MulFree}((g_1, 1, s_1), \dots, (g_k, n_k, s_k)) := (w g_1, 1, s_1), (g_1, n_1 - 1, s_1), \dots, (g_k, n_k, s_k) \quad \text{if } n_1 > 1 \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Multiplication can also now be defined on this representation.

We can now define a reduction map to eliminate pairs of the form $(g_i, n_i, s_i)(1, n_{i+1}, -s_i)$.

Definition 3.9 (Reduce). Reduce eliminates pairs of this form in a sequence with some rewriting rules. In this definition S is some finite sequence.

$$\begin{cases} (g_i, 1, s_i), (1, 1, -s_i), S \rightarrow \text{MulFree}(g_i)(S) \\ (g_i, n_i, s_i), (1, 1, -s_i), S \rightarrow (g_i, n_i - 1, s_i), \text{MulFree}(g_i)(S) & \text{if } n_i > 1 \\ (g_i, 1, s_i), (1, n_{i+1}, -s_i) \rightarrow (g_i, 1, -s_i), (1, n_{i+1} - 1, -s_i) & \text{if } n_{i+1} > 1 \\ (g_i, n_i, s_i), (1, n_{i+1}, -s_i) \rightarrow (g_i, n_i - 1, s_i), (g_i, 1, -s_i), (1, n_{i+1}, -s_i) & \text{if } n_i > 1 \text{ and } n_{i+1} > 1 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Multiplication can be defined on this representation. For a finite sequence

$$S := (g_1, n_1, s_1), \dots, (g_k, n_k, s_k) \quad (8)$$

define

$$p(S) := \prod_{i=1}^k g_i \quad (9)$$

For a pair of sequence S and T use the notation S, T to append the sequences. Then the product of two sequences S and T , $S \cdot T$ is defined to be

$$S \cdot T = \text{Reduce}(S, \text{MulFree}(p(S), T)) \quad (10)$$

It may be sensible to store $p(S)$ as part of the data of a sequence S so it does not need to be recomputed every time sequences are multiplied.

As an illustration of the efficiency of this representation of the free group, consider certificates of equalities of the form $(wr)^n \overline{w^{-n}} = 1$ for large positive values of n , have a much shorter representation. In the efficient representation this certificate will be

$$(w, |n|, \text{sgn}(n)) \quad (11)$$

so the sequence will be of length either 2 or 1. In the less efficient representation, this certificate will be

$$\prod_{i=1}^n [w^i] \quad (12)$$

This certificate will be a sequence of length n even after the word is reduced, the overall data used will be quadratic in n , since the length of the letters increases with the size of n as well.

3.4 Adding and Removing Subscripts

Given a letter t in the free group over a set S , we can define a map into a semidirect product.

Definition 3.10 (ChangeSubscript). Define a homomorphism ChangeSubscript from \mathbb{Z} to the automorphism group of $F(S \times \mathbb{Z})$. If $(x, n) \in S \times \mathbb{Z}$ is a basis element of the free group, then $\text{ChangeSubscript}(m)(x, n) = (x, m + n)$.

Definition 3.11 (AddSubscripts). There is a homomorphism AddSubscripts(t) from $F(S)$ into $F(S \times \mathbb{Z}) \rtimes_{\text{ChangeSubscript}} \mathbb{Z}$ sending a basis element $s \in S$ to $(s, 0) \in F(S \times \mathbb{Z})$ when $s \neq t$ and sending t to $(1, 1_{\mathbb{Z}}) \in F(S \times \mathbb{Z}) \rtimes \mathbb{Z}$. Loosely, this map replaces occurrences of $t^n a t^{-n}$ with a_t .

The map AddSubscripts is only used during the algorithm on words w when the sum of the exponents of t in w is zero, meaning the result will always be of the form $(w', 0_{\mathbb{Z}})$.

Definition 3.12 (RemoveSubscripts). RemoveSubscripts sends a basis element of $F(S \times \mathbb{Z})$, $(s, n) \in S \times \mathbb{Z}$, to $t^n s t^{-n}$.

RemoveSubscripts is a group homomorphism and if r is a word such that $\text{AddSubscripts}(r)$ is of the form $(r', 0_{\mathbb{Z}})$, then $\text{RemoveSubscripts}(r') = r$.

3.5 Overview of The Method

Given an element $w \in F(S)$ of a free group, a relation r in the free group, and a subgroup of the free group generated by a set of letters T , we write \bar{w} for the corresponding element in $F(S)/r$ and \bar{T} for the image of the subgroup generated by T in $F(S)/r$.

The algorithm decides whether $\bar{w} \in F(s)/r$ is in \bar{T} , and if it is, returns an element w' such that $\bar{w'} = \bar{w}$ and $w' \in T$.

We describe the implementation of a function *Solve* whose arguments are a word w in the free group $F(S)$, a relator $r \in F(S)$, and a subset T of S . If there is a word $w' \in F(S)$ such that $w' \in T$ and $\bar{w} \in F(S)/r$ is equal to $\bar{w'}$, then it returns an element p of $P(F(S))$ such that $\text{lhs}(p) = w$ and $\text{rhs}(p) = w'$. It terminates without returning anything if there is no such word.

Without loss of generality we can assume r is cyclically reduced and conjugate r if this is not the case. We can use *ChangeRel*, to make the correct proof certificate after conjugating r .

3.5.1 Case 1: All letters in r are in T

For this case it is helpful to consider the group $F(S)$ as the coproduct of the subgroup generated by the letters in T and the subgroup generated by the rest of the letters: $F(S) \cong F(T) * F(S \setminus T)$.

Since every letter in r is also in T then $F(S)/r \cong F(T)/r * F(S \setminus T)$. An element of $F(S)$ can therefore be written in the form $w_0 v_0 w_1 v_1 \dots w_n v_n$, where $w_i \in F(T)$ and $v_i \in F(S \setminus T)$. The problem can be reduced to deciding whether an element of $w_i \in F(T)$ is equal to an element of the quotient. To decide the word problem whenever $\bar{w}_i = 1$, perform this substitution and then check whether the resulting word in $F(T) * F(S \setminus T)$ is in T .

3.5.2 Case 2: There is a letter in r that is not in T

Base Case The base case is the case where the relation r is of the form a^n with $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and a a letter in S . It is straightforward to decide the word problem in this group, since $F(S)/a^n$ is isomorphic to the binary coproduct of $F(S \setminus \{a\})$ and $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$.

Case 2a: Letter with exponent sum zero Apply the map *AddSubscripts*(t) (Definition 3.11) to r . Since the exponent sum of t is equal to zero, *AddSubscripts*(t)(r) is of the form $(r', 0_{\mathbb{Z}})$. The length (Definition 3.1) of the relation $r' \in F(S \times \mathbb{Z})$ is less than the length of r . If $t \notin T$ and the exponent sum of t in w is not zero, then $\bar{w} \notin \bar{T}$. If $t \in T$, then w can be written in the form $w't^n$ where t has exponent sum zero in w' , and w' is a word in T if and only if $\bar{w} \in \bar{T}$.

A naive approach would be to apply *AddSubscripts*(t) to w , and solve the word problem in $F(S \times \mathbb{Z})$ with respect to r' . However, the image of the normal closure of r' under *AddSubscripts*(t) restricted to $F(S \times \mathbb{Z})$ is not the normal closure of r' ; it is the normal closure of the set of all relations of the form *ChangeSubscript*(n)(r') for every n .

Pick $x \in S$ such that $x \neq t$, x is a letter in r and such that $t \in T$ implies $x \notin T$. If this is not possible, then apply the procedure in Section 3.5.1. We can assume that the first letter of r is x , since otherwise r can be conjugated until the first letter is x . Let a and b be respectively the

smallest and greatest subscript of x in r' . Let S' be the set

$$S' := \{(i_1, i_2) \in S \setminus \{t\} \times \mathbb{Z} \mid i_1 \neq x \vee a \leq i_2 \leq b\} \quad (13)$$

Define two subsets of S' by

$$A := S' \setminus \{x_b\} \quad (14)$$

$$B := S' \setminus \{x_a\} \quad (15)$$

Then there is an isomorphism ϕ between A and B given by $\phi := \text{ChangeSubscript}(1)$. We claim the group $F(S)/r$ is isomorphic to the HNN extension of $F(S')/r'$ relative to ϕ .

The homomorphism α from $F(S)/r$ to the HNN extension sends a letter $s \in S \setminus \{t\}$ to s_0 and the letter t to the stable letter t of the HNN extension. Since $ts_it^{-1} = s_{i+1}$ in the HNN extension for $s_i \in S'$, r is sent to r' by this map so that α is well defined on the quotient.

Now let β send $s_i \in S'$ to $t^i s t^{-i}$ and the stable letter t to t . Again, r' is sent to r by β , and $\beta(ts_it^{-1}) = t^{i+1} s t^{-(i+1)} = \beta(\phi(s_i))$ so β preserves the defining relations of the HNN extension and it is well defined. It can be checked β is a two sided inverse to α , and thus α is an isomorphism.

We then apply the HNN normalization procedure, which will be described in detail in Section 3.6. We chose x and t such that either $x \notin T$ or $t \notin T$.

In either case, if \bar{w} can be written as a word in T , then an HNN normal form of w will be of the form gt^n with $g \in F(S')/r'$. In the case $x \notin T$, then because any word in $F(S')$ not containing x_i must be in $A \cap B$, there can be no occurrence of tg with $g \notin A$ or $t^{-1}g$. If $t \notin T$, then it must be possible to write w without t , so in fact it can be normalized to $g \in F(S')/r'$. We can check whether any words in $F(S')/r'$ are in the subgroups generated by A or B using Magnus' method again for the shorter relation r' , and rewrite these words using the letters in A or B when possible.

Once in the form gt^n with $g \in F(S')$, it is enough to check that $\overline{\text{RemoveSubscripts}(g)}$ can be written as a word in T . If $t \in T$ then this amounts to solving the word problem for r' and the set $T' := \{s_i \in S' \mid s \in T, i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. If $t \notin T$, this amounts to checking that $n = 0$ and solving the word problem for r' and the set $T' := \{s_0 \in S' \mid s \in T\}$.

Case 2.b: No letter with exponent sum zero

If there is no letter t in r with exponent sum zero, then choose x and t such that $x \neq t$ and such that if $t \notin T$ then $x \notin T$. Let α be the exponent sum of t in r and let β be the exponent sum of x .

Then define the map ψ on $F(S)$ by

$$\psi(s) = \begin{cases} t^\beta & \text{if } s = t \\ xt^{-\alpha} & \text{if } s = x \\ s & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

The map ψ descends to a map $\bar{\psi} : F(S)/r \rightarrow F(S)/\psi(r)$. The map ψ is equal to $\psi_1 \circ \psi_2$, where ψ_2 and ψ_1 are defined as follows:

$$\psi_1(s) = \begin{cases} xt^{-\alpha} & \text{if } s = x \\ s & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

$$\psi_2(s) = \begin{cases} t^\beta & \text{if } s = t \\ s & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

We have that $\overline{\psi_1} : F(S)/r \rightarrow F(r)/\psi_1(r)$ is an isomorphism, with inverse given by sending x to xt^α . Meanwhile, $\overline{\psi_2} : F(S)/r \rightarrow F(r)/\psi_2(r)$ is also injective. This is proven constructively in Theorem 3.24. Hence $\overline{\psi} : F(S)/r \rightarrow F(r)/\psi(r)$ is injective.

The image of the subgroup generated by T under ψ might not be the subgroup generated by a set of letters, but it is always contained in T . By the Freiheitsatz, if $\overline{\psi(w)}$ can be written as a word w' using letters in T then this solution is unique. Therefore, to check if $\overline{\psi(w)}$ is in the subgroup generated by $\overline{\psi(T)}$, one can first write it as a word in $w' \in T$ if possible, and then check if w' is in $\psi(T)$. The exponent sum of t in $\psi(r)$ is 0, so the problem of checking if $\psi(w)$ can be written as a word in T can be solved using the method described in Section 3.5.2 (Sort out this label).

If $t \in T$ then $\psi(T)$ is generated by $T' := T \setminus \{t\} \cup t^\beta$. By the Freiheitsatz, if $\psi(w)$ can be written as a word w' using letters in T then this solution is unique. Therefore, to check if $\psi(w)$ is in the subgroup generated by T' , one can first write it as a word in w' in T if possible, and then check that for every occurrence of t^k in w' , k is a multiple of α .

If $t \notin T$, then $\psi(T) = T$.

3.6 HNN normalization

We first present a simplified version of the HNN normalization that does not compute the proof certificates, and then explain how to compute the certificates at the same time as normalization.

To compute the HNN normalized term, first compute the following isomorphism from $F(S)$ into the binary coproduct $F(S') * \langle t \rangle$, where $\langle t \rangle$ is an infinite cyclic group generated by t .

Definition 3.13. Define a map on a basis element i as follows

$$\begin{cases} i_0 \in S' & i \neq t \\ t & i = t \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

It is important that $a \leq 0 \leq b$, to ensure that the image of this map is contained in $F(S' \times \langle t \rangle)$.

Then apply the HNN normalization procedure. For this particular HNN extension ϕ is *Change-Subscript* (Definition 3.10). We work in the $F(S') * \langle t \rangle$, and apply the following rewriting rules.

For each occurrence of tw where there is an $a \in A$ such that $\bar{a} = \bar{w}$ replace tw with $\phi(a)t$.

For each occurrence of $t^{-1}w$ where there is an $b \in B$ such that $\bar{b} = \bar{w}$ replace tw with $\phi^{-1}(b)t^{-1}$.

We can use *Solve* to check whether there is such a and b with these properties.

3.6.1 Computing Proof Certificates

To compute proof certificates a slight modification of the procedure described in Section 3.6 is used.

First define a modification of Definition 3.13, from $F(S)$ into the binary coproduct $P(F(S \times \mathbb{Z})) * \langle t \rangle$.

Definition 3.14. Define a map on the basis as follows

$$\begin{cases} \text{Refl}(i, t^0) \in F(S' \times \langle t \rangle) & i \in S \text{ and } i \neq t \\ t & i = t \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

There is also a map Z from $P(F(S \times \mathbb{Z})) * \langle t \rangle$ into $P(F(S))$. This map is not computed as part of the algorithm, but is useful to define anyway.

Definition 3.15. The map Z sends $t' \in \langle t \rangle$ to $\text{Refl}(t) \in P(F(S))$. It sends $p \in P(F(S \times \mathbb{Z}))$ to $P(\text{RemoveSubscripts})(p) \in P(F(S))$

The aim is to define a normalization process into that turns a word $w \in F(S)$ into word $n \in P(F(S \times \mathbb{Z})) * \langle t \rangle$ such that after applying rhs , the same word is returned as in the normalization process described in Section 3.6. We also want $\text{lhs}(Z(n))$ to be equal to w , so we end up with a certificate that w is equal to some normalized word.

Definition 3.16. (conjP) Let $(p, a) \in P(F(S \times \mathbb{Z}))$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Define ConjP to map into $P(F(S \times \mathbb{Z}))$

$$\text{ConjP}(k, (p, a)) = (\text{MulFree}((t, 0)^k, p), \text{ChangeSubscript}(k, a)) \quad (21)$$

conjP has the property that $\text{lhs}(Z(\text{conjP}(k, p))) = t^k \text{lhs}(Z(p)) t^{-k}$, and similarly for rhs . Note that conjP maps into $P(F(S \times \mathbb{Z}))$ and not $P(F(S'))$, although rhs of every word computed will be in $F(S')$.

The procedure described in Section 3.6 replaced each occurrence of wt^{-1} with $t^{-1} \text{ChangeSubscript}(-1)(a)$, where $a \in A$ was a word equal to $w \in F(S')$ in the quotient $F(S')/r'$.

To compute the certificates apply the following rewriting procedure: for each occurrence of tp where $\text{rhs}(p) = \bar{a}$ for some $a \in A$, and q is a certificate of this equality, replace tp with $\text{ConjP}(1, \text{Trans}(p, q))t$

Similarly, for each occurrence of $t^{-1}p$ where $\overline{\text{rhs}(p)} = \bar{b}$ for some $b \in B$ and q is a certificate of this equality, replace $t^{-1}p$ with $\text{ConjP}(-1, \text{Trans}(p, q))t^{-1}$

3.6.2 Performance

The order in which the rewriting rules are applied can have a big effect on the performance of the algorithm.

Example 3.16.1. Suppose $r' = x_1 x_0^{-2}$ and $w = t^n x_1 t x_0^{-1}$, where $n > 0$. Then S' is the set $\{x_0, x_1\}$, A is the subgroup generated by $S' \setminus x_1$ and B the subgroup generated by $S' \setminus x_0$.

Suppose we first make the substitution tx_0^{-1} to $x_1^{-1}t$; then w becomes $t^n x_1 x_1^{-1} t = t^{n+1}$. This is in HNN normal form.

Now consider trying the HNN normalization process from the left. For any $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $x_1^m = x_0^{2m}$, so the HNN normalization process will rewrite $tx_1^m t$ to $x_1^{2m} t$. Therefore $t^n x_1$ will be rewritten to $x_1^{2^n} t^n$. Hence w gets rewritten to $x_1^{2^n} t^{n+1} x_0^{-1}$, which then will eventually be rewritten to t^{n+1} . The maximum length of w during the normalization process was greater than 2^n .

Applying one rewrite rule first might mean that another rewrite is unnecessary, or a call to *Solve* is given an easier problem.

Example 3.16.2. Consider the word $tw_0 t^{-1} w_1$ with $w_0, w_1 \in F(S')$. In this situation it is best to start by attempting to prove $\overline{w_0} \in \overline{A}$ in the quotient. Applying the left hand rewrite first will put the word into HNN normal form straight away; it will not be necessary to check $\overline{w_1} \in \overline{B}$.

Rewriting starting on the right first might give a word such as $tw_0 \phi^{-1}(b) t^{-1}$, where $\bar{b} = \overline{w_1}$. But since $\phi^{-1}(b) \in A$, checking whether $\overline{w_0 \phi^{-1}(b)} \in \overline{A}$ is no easier than checking $\overline{w_0} \in \overline{A}$ has not become any easier. So in this example it is better to start rewriting on the left, and furthermore, if $\overline{w_0} \notin \overline{A}$ then it will not be possible to eliminate the t 's, so the algorithm can fail straight away without attempting more rewrites.

3.6.3 Other Potential Improvements

There are other potential improvements that could be made but it is not clear what effect, positive or negative, they would have on performance. These are discussed in this section.

A potential improvement is changing the definition of the set S' in Section 3.5.2, to make the set as small as possible. First define the set X of letters that meet the criteria for x from Section 3.5.2.

$$X := \{x \in S \setminus \{t\} \mid x \text{ is contained in } r \text{ and } (x \notin T \text{ or } t \notin T)\} \quad (22)$$

For any $x \in X$, $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ would be defined in a similar way to a and b in Section 3.5.2, as the maximum and minimum subscripts of x in the word $\text{AddSubscript}(t)(r)$. Then

$$S' := \{(x, n) \in S \setminus \{t\} \times \mathbb{Z} \mid x \notin X \text{ or } a_x \leq n \leq b_x\} \quad (23)$$

The sets A and B are then defined in an analogous way to in Section 3.5.2.

$$A := S' \setminus \{(x, b(x)) \mid x \in X\} \quad (24)$$

$$B := S' \setminus \{(x, a(x)) \mid x \in X\} \quad (25)$$

The sets A and B are smaller than the alternative definition, where the constraints on n are only applied to one letter x , rather than a set of letters x . The fact that the set is smaller means that the rewrites in the HNN normalization process are less likely to succeed. This may not seem like a good thing, but it is faster for some examples.

Consider the following Example, a slight modification of Example 3.16.5.

Example 3.16.3. Suppose $r = txt^{-1}(xy)^{-2}$, then $r' := \text{AddSubscript}(t)(r) = x_1(x_0y_0)^{-2}$ and suppose $w = t^n x_1 y_1 t(x_0 y_0)^{-1}$, where $n > 0$.

Suppose S' is defined to be the set $\{x_0, x_1, y_0, y_1\}$. Then the only rewrite possible in the HNN normalization process is to substitute $t(x_0 y_0)^{-1}$ with $(x_1 y_1)^{-1}t$ after which the word will already be in HNN normal form.

If alternatively, S' is defined to be just $\{x_0, x_1\}$, then it is also possible to perform a substitution on the left, rewriting $t^n x_1 y_1$ to $t^{n-1}(y_1 x_1)^2 y_2$, after which it is still possible to perform many more rewrites on the left hand side, meaning the word will be normalized in many more steps.

Whilst changing the definition of S' potentially takes away potential rewrites, in at least one example the option it took away was a bad rewrite to make anyway.

Example 3.16.4. Consider the word $tw_0 t^{-1} w_1 t w_2$. Here it is not possible to determine the best order without considering what particular words w_0, w_1, w_2 are. Starting in the middle gives the word $tw_0 \phi(b) w_2$, and since w_2 might not be in B , the first problem may have become easier.

However starting on the left with the pair tw_0 might also be the best thing to do, since starting on the left would make the second problem easier, giving the word $\phi(bw_1 t w_2)$.

Example 3.16.5. Consider the word $tw_0 t w_1$. Here it is best to apply the right hand rewrite first. Applying the left hand rewrite first will not make the right hand one any easier; the t 's will not cancel, but applying the right hand one first could make the left hand problem easier. After applying the right hand rewrite, the word would become $tw_0 \phi(a) t$, where $a \in A$ and $\bar{a} = \bar{w}_1$. It is possible that it is easier to check $w_0 \phi(a) \in \bar{A}$ than to check both $\bar{w}_0 \in \bar{A}$ and $\bar{p} h \bar{i}(a) \in \bar{A}$.

Example 3.16.2 and Example 3.16.5 give an optimal normalization order for simple examples, with only two occurrences of a power of t . It is not possible to generalize this to more complicated examples, but some sensible heuristics are possible.

The implemented code normalises the word from left to right, always applying a substitution at the leftmost position where one is possible. This was found to have better performance than right to left normalisation, probably because the cancellation in Example 3.16.2 is more likely than the cancellation in the Example 3.16.1.

We describe below a potentially improved way of performing the rewrites in the an order with good performance.

Consider a word $W := w_0 t^{n_1} w_1 \dots t^{n_{k-1}} w_{k-1} t^{n_k} w_k$, and the following two sets

$$R^+ := \left\{ i \mid \forall j, \sum_0^i n_i \leq \sum_0^j n_j \right\} \quad (26)$$

$$R^- := \left\{ i \mid \forall j, \sum_0^i n_i \geq \sum_0^j n_j \right\} \quad (27)$$

Let I be the smaller of the two intervals $[\min R^+, \max R^+]$ and $[\min R^-, \max R^-]$.

Within the interval I , let Q be the set of pairs $t^{n_i} w_i$ such that $\text{sgn}(n_i) \neq \text{sgn}(n_{i+1})$.

Then Q has the property that if there are no applicable rewrites in the set Q , then the word cannot be put into the form wt^n with $w \in F(S')$. This is because if no rewrite can be performed at the first and last pairs $t^{n_i}w_i$ in the interval, then no substitutions performed outside this interval will make these rewrites possible.

The rewriting procedure always chooses a rewrite within the set Q , prioritising pairs $w_it^{n_i}$ where w_i has the least occurrences of letters not in the set T . These are likely to be the fastest problems to solve. This heuristic mitigates the exponential behaviour described in Example 3.16.1.

Care must also be taken to ensure that equivalent problems are not attempted twice. For example if a rewrite is attempted at a pair $t^{n_i}w_i$, where $0 < n_i$ and fails because $\overline{w_i} \notin A$ is not in the relevant subgroup, and then later on after substitutions elsewhere, this pair becomes $t^{n_i}w_i\phi^{-1}(w_k)$, then since $\phi^{-1}(w_k) \in A$, then a rewrite is still not possible here so none should be attempted.

3.7 Shortening Proofs

Most of the tactic execution time is spent generating and checking the Lean proof, and not on generating the proof certificate described in Section 3.3. An algorithm was defined which implemented some heuristics to shorten the certificates produced. There are two heuristics used to do this.

There are three equalities that the heuristics make use of. Recall that a certificate is an element of $P(F(S))$, which is a semidirect product of $F(S)$ and $F(F(S))$. Given an element $p \in F(F(S))$, we aim to find an element $p' \in F(F(S))$ such that $\text{Eval}(p) = \text{Eval}(p')$ (Definition 3.7). Given a relator r , and words $w, v \in F(S)$, the heuristics make use of the following equalities.

$$\text{Eval}([w]) = \text{Eval}([wr^n]) \quad (28)$$

$$\text{Eval}([w][v]) = \text{Eval}([wrw^{-1}v][w]) \quad (29)$$

$$\text{Eval}([w][v]) = \text{Eval}([v][vr^{-1}v^{-1}w]) \quad (30)$$

A total order ($<$) is put on the set of words in $F(S)$, this order has the property the if $\text{Length}(w) < \text{Length}(v)$, then $r(w, v)$. It is not important what the relation is on words of the same length, as long as it is a total order, but the Lean implementation uses a lexicographic ordering.

Definition 3.17 (Golf_1). Golf_1 folds through a word $p \in F(F(S))$ and replaces each letter $w \in F(S)$ with the least word of the form wr^n . It also performs any cancellations that can be performed after performing these substitutions, to return a reduced word $p' \in F(F(S))$. In practice, there are very often cancellations that can be performed after this normalization of each letter.

Definition 3.18 (Golf_2). Golf_2 performs substitutions of the form in Equations 29 and 30. If $wrw^{-1}v$ is less than v , it will perform the substitution in Equation 29, and if $vr^{-1}v^{-1}w$ is less than w it performs this substitution. It performs these substitutions until no more can be made. Again, it performs any cancellations that can be performed to return a reduced word.

Definition 3.19 (Golf). For an element $(p, w) \in P(F(S))$, $\text{Golf}(p, w)$ is defined to be $((\text{Golf}_2 \circ \text{Golf}_1)(p), w)$.

These heuristics were surprisingly effective at shortening the proof certificates. As an extreme example, if $r = aba^{-11}b^4$, and $w = a^{10}b^{-4}a^{11}b^{-1}aba^{-11}b^5a^{-11}ba^{11}b^{-1}a^{-1}b^{-1}a^{-10}$, then the certificate produced by Solve that $\bar{w} = 1$ has length 72 before shortening and length 4 after shortening. This shortens the overall tactic execution from 54 seconds to around 3 seconds, with only 120ms spent executing Golf.

The biggest benefit of the *Golf* function, is that it reduces the number of letters in a certificate $p \in F(F(S))$, not just the length of each letter $w \in F(S)$. It does this because shortening each letter, is also canonicalising the letters, making cancellation more likely. This is the motivation for putting a total order on the set of letters $w \in F(S)$. For example, if w and wr are the same length, but $w < wr$, then the word $[w][wr]^{-1}$, would not be reduced if Golf only compared lengths of letters, but would be reduced to 1 by using a total order.

3.8 Heuristics

A few heuristics are implemented when there is a simpler method than Magnus' method. They are implemented in the following order

- Check whether the word w is already written using letters in T . If $w \in T$, then trivially $\bar{w} \in \bar{T}$
- If there is a letter x in the relator r such that $x \notin T$, but x is in w then by the *Freiheitsatz*, $\bar{w} \notin \bar{T}$, so the algorithm can fail straight away.
- If w is not in the subgroup generated by r and T after abelianizing the free group, the algorithm can fail straight away.
- If the relation r has exactly one occurrence of a letter, say x , then the problem can be solved by rearranging the equation $r = 1$ to the form $x = v$, where v is a word not containing x , and making this substitution everywhere in w .

3.8.1 Injectivity

The correctness of the algorithm relies on the fact that the map ψ_2 is an injective map. Since ψ_2 is injective, if $p \in P(F(S))$ is a witness of the congruence $\psi_2(a) \equiv \psi_2(b) \pmod{\psi_2(r)}$, then there must exist a certificate q of the congruence $a = b \pmod{r}$. The question is how to compute this. The proof of this congruence given in [Put20] relies on the fact that the canonical maps into an amalgamated product of groups are injective. However the standard proof seems to rely on the law of the excluded middle, so it cannot be translated into an algorithm to compute q .

Suppose $p \in P(F(S))$ is a witness of the congruence $\psi_2(a) = \psi_2(b) \pmod{\psi_2(r)}$. It is not necessarily the case that k is a multiple of n in every occurrence of t^k in p . For example $p := ([t][tr^{-1}t^{-1}][t]^{-1}, 1) \in P(F(S))$ is a witness of the congruence $r = 1$. Both $\text{lhs}(p)$ and $\text{rhs}(p)$ are in the image of ψ_2 for $n = 2$, when r is in the image of ψ_2 , but p is not in the image of $P(\psi_2)$. However where there are occurrences of t , they are all cancelled after lhs is applied, in fact one could remove every occurrence of t from p and still have a certificate of the same congruence.

In practice, it is observed that whenever there is an occurrence of t^k it is always the case that t is a multiple of n . If this were true all the time, then a slightly simpler algorithm could be possible.

Definition 3.20. Given a word $w \in F(S)$, define the set of partial exponent sums of a letter $t \in S$ to be the set of exponent sums of all the initial words of w . For example, the partial exponent sums of t in $t^n a t$ are the exponent sums of t in t^n , $t^n a$ and $t^n a t$.

Definition 3.21. h is a map $F(S) \rightarrow F(S \cup \{t'\})$, where t' is some letter not in S . h replaces every occurrence of t^k with $t'^a t^b$ in such a way that $a + nb = k$, and every partial exponent sum of t' in $h(w)$ is either not a multiple of n , or it is zero.

Definition 3.22. θ is a group homomorphism $F(S \cup \{t'\})$. Let $s \in S$. Then

$$\theta(s) = \begin{cases} t & \text{if } s = t' \\ t^n & \text{if } s = t \\ s & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (31)$$

θ and h satisfy $\theta \circ h = \text{id}$. For any w in $F(S)$, $\theta(w) = \psi_2(w)$.

Definition 3.23. (PowProof) PowProof is a map $F(S) \rightarrow F(S)$. $\text{PowProof}(w)$ is defined to be $h(w)$, but with every occurrence of t' replaced with 1.

Theorem 3.24. For any $p \in F(F(S))$ if

$\text{Eval}(\psi_2(r))(p) = \psi_2(w)$, then $\text{Eval}(r)(F(\text{PowProof})(p)) = w$.

Lemma 3.24.1. Consider $\prod_{i=1}^a s_i^{k_i}$, as an element of the $F(S \cup \{t'\})$ with $s_i \in S \cup \{t'\}$ (Note that this is not necessarily a reduced word; k_i may be zero and s_i may be equal to s_{i+1}). Suppose every partial product $\prod_{i=1}^b s_i^{k_i}$, with $b \leq a$ has the property that if the exponent sum of t' is a multiple of n , then it is zero. Suppose also that $\prod_{i=1}^b s_i^{k_i}$ has the property that for every occurrence of t'^k in the reduced product, k is a multiple of n . Then the reduced word $\prod_{i=1}^a s_i^{k_i}$ can be written without an occurrence of t' .

Proof of Lemma 3.24.1. $\prod_{i=0}^a s_i^{k_i}$ can be written as a reduced word $\prod_{i=1}^c u_i^{k'_i}$ such that k'_i is never equal to zero and $u_i \neq u_{i+1}$ for any i . The set of partial products of this, $\prod_{i=1}^c u_i^{k'_i}$, is a subset of the set of partial products of $\prod_{i=1}^a s_i^{k_i}$, therefore the exponent sum of t' in every partial product of $\prod_{i=1}^a s_i^{k_i}$, is either 0 or not a multiple of n . However, by assumption every occurrence t'^k in $\prod_{i=0}^a s_i^{k_i}$, k , is a multiple of n , so the exponent sum of t' in every partial product is 0. So $\prod_{i=1}^a s_i^{k_i}$ does not contain t' .

Proof of Theorem 3.24

If $\text{Eval}(\psi_2(r))(p)$ is in the image of ψ_2 , then $\text{Eval}(r)(F(h)(p))$ has the property that for every occurrence of t'^k , k is a multiple of n . If $p' := F(h)(p)$, then $\text{Eval}(r)(p')$ can be written as a product of the form in Lemma 3.24.1. If $r' = \prod_i u_i^{l_i}$, then to write $\text{Eval}(r)(p')$ in this form, send $\prod_i \left[\prod_{j=1}^a s_{ij}^{k_j} \right] \in P(F(S \cup \{t'\}))$, to

$$\prod_i \left(\left(\prod_{j=1}^a s_{ij}^{k_j} \right) \left(\prod_j u_j^{l_j} \right) \left(\prod_{j=1}^a s_{i(a-j)}^{-k_{a-j}} \right) \right) \quad (32)$$

If all the nested products in Equation 32 are appended into one long product, then the product has the form in Lemma 3.24.1. Therefore when the word is reduced it will not contain t' by Lemma 3.24.1. This means that deleting all occurrences of t' will in p' will not change $\text{Eval}(r)(p')$, and therefore $\text{Eval}(r)(F(\text{PowProof})(p)) = \text{Eval}(r)(F(h)(p))$. Applying ψ_2 to both sides gives $\psi_2(\text{Eval}(r)(F(\text{PowProof})(p))) = \psi_2(\text{Eval}(r)(F(h)(p))) = \theta(\text{Eval}(r)(F(h)(p))) = \text{Eval}(\psi_2(r))(p)$.

4 Efficiency of the Algorithm

The worst case performance of this algorithm is worse than any finite tower of exponents [MUW11]. The more relevant question is what is the typical performance.

Definition 4.1 (Area of a Relation). For a finitely presented group $G := \langle S | R \rangle$, if $w \in F(S)$ is equal to 1 in the quotient G , then we say it is a *relation*. The *area of a relation* is the smallest N such that w can be written in the form $\prod_{i=1}^N g_i r_i^{\epsilon_i} g_i^{-1}$, where $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$ and $r_i \in R$ for all i .

Definition 4.2 (Dehn Function). For a finitely presented group $G := \langle S | R \rangle$, the Dehn function of the presentation $\text{Dehn}(n) \in \mathbb{N}$ is defined as the largest area of a relation of length at most n .

The Dehn function puts a lower bound on the complexity of the one-relator algorithm. The area of a relation is by definition the length of the shortest certificate that the algorithm might produce, so the complexity of the algorithm is bounded above by the Dehn function of a relator. The group $\langle a, b | bab^{-1}aba^{-1}b^{-1} = a^2 \rangle$ is such that $\text{Dehn}(n)$ is worse than any finite tower of exponents. This means that the complexity of the one relator algorithm is also worse than any finite tower of exponents.

Not all groups have such a fast growing Dehn function. For example, if the relator is of the form r^k with $|k| \neq 1$ then $\text{Dehn}(n) \leq n$. Similarly, even in groups with a rapidly increasing Dehn function, there are words that do not have a large area as the worst case.

So, even though the worst case behaviour is very bad, there are still potentially many problems that the algorithm could solve in a practical amount of time. The aim of this implementation was to have good performance on relations with a small area. A typical Lean tactic state will usually be used on problems where the author knows the solution, but simply needs automation to write a formal proof of the solution. These relations will usually have a very small area. The aim of this implementation was that the algorithm should have good performance on relations with a small area, but makes no attempt to solve problems where the area of the relation is very large.

5 Graph Search Method

In this section we present an alternative method to solve word problems in groups. This method searches for a sequences of rewrites to prove an equality. This search will usually not terminate if there is no such sequence of rewrites. I conjecture that it will terminate whenever there is a such sequence of rewrites. It was inspired by an online solver written Kyle Miller, with some modifications since that solver would sometimes fail to prove true formulas.

This section describes a solver that attempts to prove a word in the free group is in the normal closure of a finite set of relators. It then describes a Lean tactic that makes use of this solver, but employs some methods to convert various Lean tactic states into a form that can be tackled by the solver.

5.1 Substitution heuristic

Sometimes it happens that it is very straightforward to eliminate a variable. For example, if one of the relators has exactly one occurrence of one of the letters, then this letter and the relator

can easily be eliminated.

For example, consider the following problem.

$$\begin{aligned} aba &= b^{-1}c \\ bac^2ba^2 &= 1 \\ \vdash ab &= ba \end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

The first equation can be rewritten as $c = bab a$, which means that c can be eliminated from the problem, and the new problem is

$$\begin{aligned} bababab a^2 &= 1 \\ \vdash ab &= ba \end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

5.2 Outline

Given a set of relators R , the method first generates a set of rewriting rules from the set of relators. Given a relator, the algorithm generates all equalities that can be made using the generator such that there is one letter of the starting relator on the left hand side of the equality. For example, if a relator is $abab^2$, then the equalities generated are

$$\begin{aligned} a &= b^{-2}a^{-1}b^{-1}, a^{-1} = bab^2 \\ b &= a^{-1}b^{-2}a^{-1}, b^{-1} = ab^2a \\ a &= b^{-1}a^{-1}b^{-2}, a^{-1} = b^2ab \\ b &= a^{-1}b^{-1}a^{-1}b^{-1}, b^{-1} = babab = b^{-1}a^{-1}b^{-1}a^{-1}, \quad b^{-1} = abab \end{aligned} \tag{35}$$

Given a starting word, the algorithm then generated all words that can be generated from this starting word rewrites using the above rules and adds these words to a set of leaves. The process is then repeated at the word in the set of leaves with the least cost. The cost function assigns a natural number to each word in the free group. In general, shorter words have a lower cost, but different cost functions are discussed in section TODO. Before being added to the set of leaves, each word is cyclically reduced as well, a word is replaced by the shortest of its conjugates.

As an example, we could apply the first rewriting rule $a = b^{-2}a^{-1}b^{-1}$ to $aba^{-1}b^{-1}$ and obtain the word $b^{-2}a^{-1}b^{-1}ba^{-1}b^{-1} = b^{-2}a^{-2}b^{-1}$ which is then added to the set of leaves. The process is then repeated from the word in the set of leaves with the least cost, taking care not to repeat any words, until the word is rewritten to 1.

In summary, the process is as follows given a word w that we are trying to prove is equal to 1.

1. Eliminate as many variables as possible using the method outlined in Section 5.1
2. Generate the set G of all rewriting rules such that there is one letter on the left hand side that can be generated from the starting relators.
3. We store two sets of words, a set of seen words S , and a set of leaves L .
4. Add the word w to the set of seen words leaves S
5. Generate all new words that can be made by applying a rewrite rule in G , and add these words to the set L after cyclically reducing them.

6. Take the word w in L with the least cost. If it is equal to 1 then stop. Otherwise, check whether this word is in S . If it is not, then remove it from L and go to step 3, otherwise remove it from L and repeat this step.

A slightly different approach to the above approach would be to check if a word is in the set S of seen words at step 5, and add it to both sets S and L if it was not in S , and neither set otherwise, and then there would be no need to check if words were in S at step 6, and the set L would be much smaller. However, this was found to be a lot slower, since so much time was spent checking whether words were in S .

5.3 Cost Function

The method mentions a cost function which was not defined yet. Two cost functions were tested, one was simply the length of a word, the other effectively ordered words by length first and then lexicographically, after the letters are put in some arbitrary order.

The second cost function was defined as follows. Suppose n is the total number of letters in all words in R and the target word w . Label the letters a_1, \dots, a_n . Then the cost of a word is defined inductively on the length of the word as follows

$$\text{Cost}(1) = 0 \tag{36}$$

$$\text{Cost}(a_i^{\pm 1}w) = i + n\text{Cost}(w) \tag{37}$$

This cost function was found to have better performance than simply using the length of a word as the cost function. As an example consider the problem of proving that if $ab = ba$, then $a^5b^5 = b^5a^5$. Using length as the cost function, the size of the search graph for this problem is 5906, but using the improved cost function, the search graph size contains 604 words. This method is obviously not the best method for problems in abelian groups like this, but the improved cost function should also speed up the search in problems where some, but not all of the variables commute.

5.4 Generating Proofs

In order to generate proof terms the algorithm must keep track of what path was taken to rewrite a word to the identity. The following information is stored at each node in the search graph, in the data type `path_step`

```
@[derive inhabited] structure path_step : Type :=
  (rel_index : ℕ) -- Index of the relator used to make the rewrite
  (rel_is_inv : bool) -- Boolean representing whether the relator or
    --its inverse was used to make the substitution
  (old_word : free_group) -- word before the substitution was made
  (new_word : free_group) -- word after the substitution was made
  (new_word_cost : ℕ) -- cost of the new word
  (word_letter_index : ℕ) -- Letter index in the old word,
    -- indicating where the substitution was made
```

```
(rel_letter_index : ℕ) -- Letter index in the relator indicating
-- which letter in the relator was substituted.
```

This information is enough to retrack the path that was taken and write a proof that will always take the same standard form.

Given words `word1` `rel` `word2` `conj` `old_word` `new_word` `rel_conj` in the free group, it is true that if `conj-1 * word1 * rel_conj-1 * rel * rel_conj * word2 * conj` is in the normal closure of a set of relators, `word1 * word2 = old_word`, and `rel` is one of the relators, then `old_word` is also in the normal closure of the set of relators.

Intuitively, we are splitting `old_word` into two parts, `word1` and `word2`, inserting some conjugate of `rel` in between `word1` and `word2`, and then conjugating the result as well.

6 The Tactic

The practical problems that might come up in Lean proofs sometimes are not already in exactly the form that can be solved by the algorithm described, and some work is needed to convert them to a form that can be solved.

As an example, consider the following proposition. If a and b are elements of a group, and $ab = b^2a$, then for any natural number n , $a^nba^{-n} = b^{2^n}$. The proof is by induction, and we consider the inductive step. The information visible to the user at the inductive step is as follows

For the inductive step of this proof, we have the hypothesis that $ab = b^2a$, the induction hypothesis says that $a^nba^{-n} = b^{2^n}$, and we need to prove $a^{n+1}ba^{-(n+1)} = b^{2^{n+1}}$.

This can be converted into a word problem. Our atoms will be a , a^n , b and b^{2^n} and we add assumptions for commuting powers, because a commutes with a^n , and b commutes with b^{2^n} .

We will introduce new variables $c := a^n$ and $d := b^{2^n}$. The problem then becomes the following

$$\begin{aligned}
 ac &= ca \\
 bd &= db \\
 ab &= b^2a \\
 cbc^{-1} &= d \\
 \vdash acbc^{-1}a^{-1} &= d^2
 \end{aligned} \tag{38}$$

We now describe some of the process of converting the Lean tactic state into the problem above. The tactic has to effectively identify the atoms, a , a^n , b , and b^{2^n} .

```
G : Type,
_inst_1 : group G,
a b : G,
h : a * b = b ^ 2 * a,
n : ℕ,
ih : a ^ n * b * a ^ -↑n = b ^ 2 ^ n
⊢ a ^ n.succ * b * a ^ -↑(n.succ) = b ^ 2 ^ n.succ
```


Note that `n.succ` means $n + 1$, or the successor of n . Another thing to note is the coercion arrow \uparrow . This arrow represents the canonical map from the natural numbers to the integers - usually in maths, this is not explicitly written, but in Lean it must be used, and this provides a small challenge in identifying the atoms, care has to be taken to ensure that the tactic identifies that $a \wedge \neg \uparrow n$ is indeed the inverse of $a \wedge n$.

Formally speaking the \wedge notation is being used for two distinct functions in this tactic state. One is a binary function whose domain is $G \times \mathbb{Z}$, the other has domain $G \times \mathbb{N}$. There is a lemma in Lean identifying that these two functions are compatible, in other words, that applying the natural number power function, is the same as applying the canonical map from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{Z} , and then applying the integer power. The tactic must invoke this lemma in order to prove that $a \wedge \neg \uparrow n$ is the inverse of $a \wedge n$.

The tactic must also identify that $b \wedge 2 \wedge n.succ$ is equal to $(b \wedge 2 \wedge n) \wedge 2$.

In order to transform this tactic state into the problem in Equation 38, the hypotheses and the goal must first be rewritten. Below is an incomplete list of some of the rules used to normalize the goal.

- Normalize all numerals to the form $1 + 1 + 1 + \dots$
- Normalize all powers to use the integer power, not the natural power
- Rewrite expression of the form $a^{(m+n)}$ to $a^m a^n$
- Apply the distributivity law within exponents, expand $a(b+c)$ to $ab+ac$.

Lean has an inbuilt tactic called `simp` which is used to perform the above substitutions.

Normalizing all numerals to the form $1 + 1 + 1 + \dots$, may seem very inefficient, but whilst it is certainly not the fastest approach, the solving algorithm has such poor performance on large exponents, that it is not made that much worse by this approach, and the tactic should probably not be used with large exponents anyway.

After this normalization procedure is applied, the new tactic state is as follows. Note that this stage will be invisible to the user of the tactic.

```
G : Type,
_inst_1 : group G,
a b : G,
h : a * b = b * a,
n : ℕ,
ih : a ^ ↑n * b * (a ^ ↑n)-1 = b ^ ↑((1 + 1) ^ n)
⊢ a * a ^ ↑n * b * (a ^ ↑n)-1 = b ^ ↑((1 + 1) ^ n) * b ^ ↑((1 + 1) ^ n)
```

Now it is easier to identify the atoms, since $a \wedge \uparrow n$ appears in exactly the same form wherever it appears, and similarly, $b \wedge \uparrow((1 + 1) \wedge n)$ appears as the exact same expression each time it appears.

7 Comparison of Methods

8 To Do

- Comparison with Z3/sledgehammer whatever
- Comparison of search method and one-relator method
- No other implementations for Magnus' method
- Mention that source that said Knuth Bendix was no good, maybe compare other potential approaches
- Mention crappy justification for termination of search.
- Mention injectivity of map into HNN. Is this actually needed?
- Mention stuff about proof by computation, e.g. the idea of proof by verified algorithm, pros, cons.

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