# The Power Word Problem

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## — Abstract

In this work we introduce a new succinct variant of the word problem in a finitely generated group G, which we call the power word problem: the input word may contain powers  $p^x$ , where p is a finite word over generators of G and x is a binary encoded integer. The power word problem is a restriction of the compressed word problem, where the input word is represented by a straight-line program (i.e., an algebraic circuit over G). The main result of the paper states that the power word problem for a finitely generated free group F is  $AC^0$ -Turing-reducible to the word problem for F. Moreover, the following hardness result is shown: For a wreath product  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$ , where G is either free of rank at least two or finite non-solvable, the power word problem is complete for coNP. This contrasts with the situation where G is abelian: then the power word problem is shown to be in  $\mathsf{TC}^0$ .

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## 1 Introduction

Algorithmic problems in group theory have a long tradition, going back to the work of Dehn from 1911 [9]. One of the fundamental group theoretic decision problems introduced by Dehn is the word problem for a finitely generated group G (with a fixed finite generating set  $\Sigma$ ): does a given word  $w \in \Sigma^*$  evaluate to the group identity? Novikov [34] and Boone [8] independently proved in the 1950's the existence of finitely presented groups with undecidable word problem. On the positive side, in many important classes of groups the word problem is decidable, and in many cases also the computational complexity is quite low. Famous examples are finitely generated linear groups, where the word problem belongs to deterministic logarithmic space (L for short) [22] and hyperbolic groups where the word problem can be solved in linear time [17] as well as in LOGCFL [23].

In recent years, also compressed versions of group theoretical decision problems, where input words are represented in a succinct form, have attracted attention. One such succinct representation are so-called straight-line programs, which are context-free grammars that produce exactly one word. The size of such a grammar can be much smaller than the word it produces. For instance, the word  $a^n$  can be produced by a straight-line program of size  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ . For the *compressed word problem* for the group G the input consists of a straight-line program that produces a word w over the generators of G and it is asked whether w evaluates to the identity element of G. This problem is a reformulation of the

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circuit evaluation problem for G. The compressed word problem naturally appears when one tries to solve the word problem in automorphism groups or semidirect products [25, Section 4.2]. For the following classes of groups, the compressed word problem is known to be solvable in polynomial time: finite groups (where the compressed word problem is either P-complete or in  $NC^2$  [6]), finitely generated nilpotent groups [20] (where the complexity is even in  $NC^2$ ), hyperbolic groups [18] (in particular, free groups), and virtually special groups (i.e., finite extensions of subgroups of right-angled Artin groups) [25]. The latter class covers for instance Coxeter groups, one-relator groups with torsion, fully residually free groups and fundamental groups of hyperbolic 3-manifolds. For finitely generated linear groups there is still a randomized polynomial time algorithm for the compressed word problem [26, 25]. Simple examples of groups where the compressed word problem is intractable are wreath products  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  with G a non-abelian group: for every such group the compressed word problem is coNP-hard [25] (this includes for instance Thompson's group F); on the other hand, if, in addition, G is finite, then the (ordinary) word problem for  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  is in  $NC^1$  [37].

In this paper, we study a natural variant of the compressed word problem, called the *power word problem*. An input for the power word problem for the group G is a tuple  $(p_1, x_1, p_2, x_2, \ldots, p_n, x_n)$  where every  $p_i$  is a word over the group generators and every  $x_i$  is a binary encoded integer (such a tuple is called a *power word*); the question is whether  $p_1^{x_1}p_2^{x_2}\cdots p_n^{x_n}$  evaluates to the group identity of G.

From a power word  $(p_1, x_1, p_2, x_2, \ldots, p_n, x_n)$  one can easily (e.g. by an  $AC^0$ -reduction) compute a straight-line program for the word  $p_1^{x_1}p_2^{x_2}\cdots p_n^{x_n}$ . In this sense, the power word problem is at most as difficult as the compressed word problem. On the other hand, both power words and straight-line programs achieve exponential compression in the best case; so the additional difficulty of the the compressed word problem does not come from a higher compression rate but rather because straight-line programs can generate more "complex" words.

Our main results for the power word problem are the following; in each case we compare our results with the corresponding results for the compressed word problem:

- The power word problem for every finitely generated nilpotent group is in DLOGTIMEuniform  $\mathsf{TC}^0$  and hence has the same complexity as the word problem (or the problem of multiplying binary encoded integers). The proof is a straightforward adaption of a proof from [33]. There, the special case, where all words  $p_i$  in the input power word are single generators, was shown to be in DLOGTIME-uniform  $\mathsf{TC}^0$ . The compressed word problem for every finitely generated nilpotent group belongs to the class  $\mathsf{DET} \subseteq \mathsf{NC}^2$  and is hard for the counting class  $\mathsf{C}_{=}\mathsf{L}$  in case of a torsion-free nilpotent group [20].
- The power word problem for a finitely generated group G is NC<sup>1</sup>-many-one-reducible to the power word problem for any finite index subgroup of G. An analogous result holds for the compressed word problem as well [20].
- The power word problem for a finitely generated free group is  $AC^0$ -Turing-reducible to the word problem for  $F_2$  (the free group of rank two) and therefore belongs to L. In contrast, it was shown in [24] that the compressed word problem for a finitely generated free group of rank at least two is P-complete.
- The power word problem for a wreath product  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  with G finitely generated abelian belongs to DLOGTIME-uniform  $\mathsf{TC}^0$ . For the compressed word problem for  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  with G finitely generated abelian only the existence of a randomized polynomial time algorithm for the complement is known [21].
- The power word problem for the wreath products  $F_2 \wr \mathbb{Z}$  and every wreath product  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$ , where G is finite and non-solvable, is coNP-complete. For these groups this sharpens the corresponding coNP-hardness result for the compressed word problem [25].

class of groups	PowerWP	CompressedWP	WP					
nilpotent groups	TC <sup>0</sup>	DET, $C_{=}L$ -hard [20]	TC <sup>0</sup> [35]					
Grigorchuk group $G$	L <sup>a)</sup>	PSPACE	L [13]					
non-abelian f.g. free	L <sup>b)</sup>	P-complete [24]	L [22]					
$G \wr \mathbb{Z}$ for G f.g. abelian	TC <sup>0</sup>	coRP [21]	TC <sup>0</sup> [30]					
$G\wr \mathbb{Z}$ for $G$ finite non-solvable	coNP-complete	PSPACE, coNP-hard [25]	$NC^{1}$ [37]					
$F_2 \wr \mathbb{Z}$	coNP-complete	PSPACE, $coNP$ -hard [25]	$L^{b)}[37]$					
finite extension of a f.g. group $H$	$NC^1$ -many-one-reducible to $POWERWP(H)$							
	(resp. CompressedWP( $H$ ) [20], resp. WP( $H$ ) [37])							

**Table 1** Our results on the power word problem compared to previous results on the (compressed) word problem. Here WP stands for "word problem".

a)  $AC^0$ -many-one-reducible to the word problem of G.

b)  $AC^0$ -Turing-reducible to the word problem of  $F_2$ .

The power word problem for the Grigorchuk group is uAC<sup>0</sup>-many-one-reducible to the word problem. The word problem for the Grigorchuk group is in L [13], which implies that the compressed word problem is in PSPACE. However, there is no non-trivial lower-bound known for the compressed word problem for the Grigorchuk group.

Table 1 summarizes the above results. Due to space constraints we present only short proof skteches for our main theorems; proofs of all lemmas can be found in the full version [27].

**Related work.** Implicitly, (variants of) the power word problem have been studied before. In the commutative setting, Ge [14] has shown that one can verify in polynomial time an identity  $\alpha_1^{x_1}\alpha_2^{x_2}\cdots\alpha_n^{x_n}=1$ , where the  $\alpha_i$  are elements of an algebraic number field and the  $x_i$  are binary encoded integers.

Another problem related to the power word problem is the knapsack problem [12, 28, 31] for a finitely generated group G (with generating set  $\Sigma$ ): for a given sequence of words  $w, w_1, \ldots, w_n \in \Sigma^*$ , the question is whether there exist  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $w = w_1^{x_1} \cdots w_n^{x_n}$  holds in G. For many groups G one can show that if such  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{N}$  exist, then there exist such numbers of size  $2^{\text{poly}(N)}$ , where  $N = |w| + |w_1| + \cdots + |w_n|$  is the input length. This holds for instance for right-angled Artin groups (also known as graph groups). In this case, one nondeterministically guesses the binary encodings of numbers  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  and then verifies, using an algorithm for the power word problem, whether  $w_1^{x_1} \cdots w_n^{x_n} w^{-1} = 1$ holds. In this way, it was shown in [28] that for every right-angled Artin group the knapsack problem belongs to NP (using the fact that the compressed word problem and hence the power word problem for a right-angled Artin group belongs to P).

In [16], Gurevich and Schupp present a polynomial time algorithm for a compressed form of the subgroup membership problem for a free group F, where group elements are represented in the form  $a_1^{x_1}a_2^{x_2}\cdots a_n^{x_n}$  with binary encoded integers  $x_i$ . The  $a_i$  must be standard generators of the free group F. This is the same input representation as in [33] and is more restrictive then our setting, where we allow powers of the form  $w^x$  for w an arbitrary word over the group generators (on the other hand, Gurevich and Schupp consider the subgroup membership problem, which is more general than the word problem).

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## 2 Preliminaries

**Words.** An alphabet is a (finite or infinite) set  $\Sigma$ ; an element  $a \in \Sigma$  is called a *letter*. The free monoid over  $\Sigma$  is denoted by  $\Sigma^*$ , its elements are called *words*. The multiplication of the monoid is concatenation of words. The identity element is the empty word 1. The length of a word w is denoted by |w|. If w, p, x, q are words such that w = pxq, then we call x a *factor* of w, p a *prefix* of w, and q a *suffix* of w. We write  $v \leq_{\text{pref}} w$  (resp.  $v <_{\text{pref}} w$ ) if v is a (strict) prefix of w and  $v \leq_{\text{suff}} w$  (resp.  $v <_{\text{suff}} w$ ) if v is a (strict) suffix of w.

**String rewriting systems.** Let  $\Sigma$  be an alphabet and  $S \subseteq \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$  be a set of pairs, called a string rewriting system. We write  $\ell \to r$  if  $(\ell, r) \in S$ . The corresponding rewriting relation  $\Longrightarrow$  over  $\Sigma^*$  is defined by:  $u \Longrightarrow v$  if and only if there exist  $\ell \to r \in S$  and words  $s, t \in \Sigma^*$  such that  $u = s\ell t$  and v = srt. We also say that u can be rewritten to v in one step. We write  $u \Longrightarrow v$  if u can be rewritten to v in exactly k steps, i.e., if there are  $u_0, \ldots, u_k$  with  $u = u_0, v = u_k$  and  $u_i \Longrightarrow u_{i+1}$  for  $0 \le i \le k-1$ . We denote the transitive closure of  $\Longrightarrow by \xrightarrow{+}{S} = \bigcup_{k\ge 1} \xrightarrow{k}{\cong}$  and the reflexive and transitive closure by  $\stackrel{*}{\underset{S}{\longrightarrow}} = \bigcup_{k\ge 0} \xrightarrow{k}$ . Moreover  $\stackrel{*}{\underset{S}{\longrightarrow}}$  is the reflexive, transitive, and symmetric closure of  $\Longrightarrow_{S}$ ; it is the smallest congruence containing S. The set of *irreducible word* with respect to S is  $\operatorname{IRR}(S) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid \text{there is no } v \text{ with } w \Longrightarrow v\}.$ 

**Free groups.** Let X be a set and  $X^{-1} = \{a^{-1} \mid a \in X\}$  be a disjoint copy of X. We extend the mapping  $a \mapsto a^{-1}$  to an involution without fixed points on  $\Sigma = X \cup X^{-1}$  by  $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$ and finally to an involution without fixed points on  $\Sigma^*$  by  $(a_1a_2 \cdots a_n)^{-1} = a_n^{-1} \cdots a_2^{-1}a_1^{-1}$ . For an integer z < 0 and  $w \in \Sigma^*$  we write  $w^z$  for  $(w^{-1})^{-z}$ . The string rewriting system  $S = \{aa^{-1} \to 1 \mid a \in \Sigma\}$  is strongly confluent and terminating meaning that for every word  $w \in \Sigma^*$  there exists a unique word  $\operatorname{red}(w) \in \operatorname{IRR}(S)$  with  $w \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} \operatorname{red}(w)$  (for precise definitions see e.g. [7, 19]). Words from  $\operatorname{IRR}(S)$  are called *freely reduced*. The system S defines the free group  $F_X = \Sigma^*/S$  with basis X. More concretely, elements of  $F_X$  can be identified with freely reduced words, and the group product of  $u, v \in \operatorname{IRR}(S)$  is defined by  $\operatorname{red}(uv)$ . With this definition  $\operatorname{red}: \Sigma^* \to F_X$  becomes a monoid homomorphism that commutes with the involution  $\cdot^{-1}$ :  $\operatorname{red}(w)^{-1} = \operatorname{red}(w^{-1})$  for all words  $w \in \Sigma^*$ . If |X| = 2, we write  $F_2$  for  $F_X$ . It is known that for every countable set X,  $F_2$  contains an isomorphic copy of  $F_X$ .

**Finitely generated groups and the power word problem.** A group G is called *finitely* generated if there exist a finite a finite set X and a surjective group homomorphism  $h: F_X \to G$ . In this situation, the set  $\Sigma = X \cup X^{-1}$  is called a finite (symmetric) generating set for G. For words  $u, v \in \Sigma^*$  we usually say that u = v in G or  $u =_G v$  in case  $h(\operatorname{red}(u)) = h(\operatorname{red}(v))$ . The word problem for the finitely generated group G,  $\operatorname{WP}(G)$  for short, is defined as follows: input: a word  $w \in \Sigma^*$ .

• question: does  $w =_G 1$  hold?

A power word (over  $\Sigma$ ) is a tuple  $(p_1, x_1, p_2, x_2, \ldots, p_n, x_n)$  where  $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in \Sigma^*$  are words over the group generators (called the periods of the power word) and  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ are integers that are given in binary notation. Such a power word represents the word  $p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \cdots p_n^{x_n}$ . Quite often, we will identify the power word  $(p_1, x_1, p_2, x_2, \ldots, p_n, x_n)$  with the word  $p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \cdots p_n^{x_n}$ . Moreover, if  $x_i = 1$ , then we usually omit the exponent 1 in a power word. The *power word problem* for the finitely generated group G, POWERWP(G) for short, is defined as follows:

- input: a power word  $(p_1, x_1, p_2, x_2, \dots, p_n, x_n)$ .
- $\blacksquare$  question: does  $p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \cdots p_n^{x_n} =_G 1$  hold?

Due to the binary encoded exponents, a power word can be seen as a succinct description of an ordinary word. Hence, a priori, the power word problem for a group G could be computationally more difficult than the word problem. We will see examples of groups G, where POWERWP(G) is indeed more difficult than WP(G) (under standard assumptions from complexity theory), as well as examples of groups G, where POWERWP(G) and WP(G)are equally difficult.

Wreath products. Let G and H be groups. Consider the direct sum  $K = \bigoplus_{h \in H} G_h$ , where  $G_h$  is a copy of G. We view K as the set  $G^{(H)}$  of all mappings  $f: H \to G$  such that  $\operatorname{supp}(f) := \{h \in H \mid f(h) \neq 1\}$  is finite, together with pointwise multiplication as the group operation. The set  $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq H$  is called the *support* of f. The group H has a natural left action on  $G^{(H)}$  given by  $hf(a) = f(h^{-1}a)$ , where  $f \in G^{(H)}$  and  $h, a \in H$ . The corresponding semidirect product  $G^{(H)} \rtimes H$  is the (restricted) wreath product  $G \wr H$ . In other words:

- = Elements of  $G \wr H$  are pairs (f, h), where  $h \in H$  and  $f \in G^{(H)}$ .
- The multiplication in  $G \wr H$  is defined as follows: Let  $(f_1, h_1), (f_2, h_2) \in G \wr H$ . Then  $(f_1, h_1)(f_2, h_2) = (f, h_1 h_2)$ , where  $f(a) = f_1(a)f_2(h_1^{-1}a)$ .

**Complexity.** We assume that the reader is familiar with the complexity classes P, NP, and coNP and many-one reductions; see e.g. [2] for details. We use circuit complexity for classes below deterministic logspace (L for short).

A language  $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  is  $\mathsf{AC}^0$ -Turing-reducible to  $K \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  if there is a family of constant-depth, polynomial-size Boolean circuits with oracle gates for K deciding L. More precisely,  $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  belongs to  $\mathsf{AC}^0(K)$  if there exists a family  $(C_n)_{n\geq 0}$  of circuits which, apart from the input gates  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are built up from *not*, and, or, and oracle gates for K(which output 1 if and only if their input is in K). All gates may have unbounded fan-in, but there is a polynomial bound on the number of gates and wires and a constant bound on the depth (length of a longest path from an input gate  $x_i$  to the output gate o). Finally,  $C_n$  accepts exactly the words from  $L \cap \{0,1\}^n$ , i.e., if each input gate  $x_i$  receives the input  $a_i \in \{0,1\}$ , then a distinguished output gate evaluates to 1 if and only if  $a_1a_2 \cdots a_n \in L$ .

In the following, we only consider DLOGTIME-uniform  $AC^{0}(K)$  for which we write  $uAC^{0}(K)$ . DLOGTIME-uniform means that there is a deterministic Turing machine which decides in time  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  on input of two gate numbers (given in binary) and the string  $1^{n}$  whether there is a wire between the two gates in the *n*-input circuit and also computes the type of a given gate. For more details on these definitions we refer to [36]. If the languages K and L in the above definition of  $uAC^{0}(K)$  are defined over a non-binary alphabet  $\Sigma$ , then one first has to fix a binary encoding of words over  $\Sigma$ .

The class  $uTC^0$  is defined as  $uAC^0(MAJORITY)$  where MAJORITY is the problem to determine whether the input contains more 1s than 0s. The class  $NC^1$  is the class of languages accepted by Boolean circuits of bounded fan-in and logarithmic depth. When talking about hardness for  $uTC^0$  or  $NC^1$  we use  $uAC^0$ -Turing reductions unless stated otherwise. As a consequence of Barrington's theorem [3], we have  $NC^1 = uAC^0(WP(A_5))$  where  $A_5$  is the alternating group over 5 elements [36, Corollary 4.54]. Moreover, the word problem for any finite group G is in  $NC^1$ . Robinson proved that the word problem for the free group  $F_2$  is  $NC^1$ -hard [35], i.e.,  $NC^1 \subseteq uAC^0(WP(F_2))$ .

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## 3 Results

In this section we state our (and prove the easy) results on the power word problem. Outlines of the proofs of Theorems 2, 8 and 9 can be found in Sections 4 and 5, respectively.

**Theorem 1.** If G is a finitely generated nilpotent group, then POWERWP(G) is in  $uTC^0$ .

**Proof.** In [33], the so-called word problem with binary exponents was shown to be in  $uTC^0$  for finitely generated nilpotent groups. We can apply the same techniques as in [33]: we compute Mal'cev normal forms of all  $p_i$  [33, Theorem 5], then use the power polynomials from [33, Lemma 2] to compute Mal'cev normal forms with binary exponents of all  $p_i^{x_i}$ . Finally, we compute the Mal'cev normal form of  $p_1^{x_1} \cdots p_n^{x_n}$  again using [33].

▶ **Theorem 2.** The power word problem for a finitely generated free group is  $AC^0$ -Turing-reducible to the word problem for the free group  $F_2$ .

Notice that if the free group has rank one, then the power word problem is in  $uTC^0$  because iterated addition is in  $uTC^0$ .

▶ Remark 3. If the input is of the form  $(p_1, x_1, p_2, x_2, ..., p_n, x_n)$  where all  $p_i$  are freely reduced, then the reduction in Theorem 2 is a  $uTC^0$ -many-one reduction.

▶ Remark 4. One can consider variants of the power word problem, where the exponents are not given in binary representation but in even more compact forms. *Power circuits* as defined in [32] are such a representation that allow non-elementary compression for some integers. The proof of Theorem 2 involves iterated addition and comparison of exponents. For power circuits iterated addition is in  $uAC^0$  (just putting the power circuits next to each other), but comparison (even for equality) is P-complete [38]. Hence, the variant of the power word problem, where exponents are encoded with power circuits is P-complete for free groups.

▶ Remark 5. The proof of Theorem 2 can be easily generalized to free products. However, in order to have a simpler presentation we only state and prove the result for free groups and postpone the free product case to a future full version.

It is easy to see that the power word problem for every finite group belongs to  $NC^1$ . The following result generalizes this fact:

▶ **Theorem 6.** Let G be finitely generated and let  $H \leq G$  have finite index. Then POWERWP(G) is NC<sup>1</sup>-many-one-reducible to POWERWP(H).

**Proof sketch.** W.l.o.g. we can assume that H is a finitely generated normal subgroup and R is a finite set of representatives of Q := G/H with  $1 \in R$ . As a first step we replace in the input power word every  $p_i^{x_i}$  by  $h_i^{y_i} p_i^{z_i}$  where  $x_i = y_i |Q| + z_i$ ,  $0 \le z_i < |Q|$  and  $h_i$  is a word over the generators of H with  $p_i^{|Q|} =_G h_i$ . Moreover, we write  $p_i^{z_i}$  as a word without exponents. Using the conjugate collection process from [35, Theorem 5.2], the result can be rewritten in the form hr where h is a power word in the subgroup H and  $r \in R$ .

As an immediate consequence of Theorem 2, Theorem 6 and the NC<sup>1</sup>-hardness of the word problem for  $F_2$  [35, Theorem 6.3] we obtain:

▶ Corollary 7. The power word problem for every finitely generated virtually free group is  $AC^0$ -Turing-reducible to the word problem for the free group  $F_2$ .

▶ Theorem 8. For every finitely generated abelian group G, POWERWP(G ≀ Z) is in  $uTC^0$ .

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▶ **Theorem 9.** Let G be either a finite non-solvable group or a finitely generated free group of rank at least two. Then  $POWERWP(G \wr \mathbb{Z})$  is coNP-complete.

▶ **Theorem 10.** The power word problem for the Grigorchuk group (as defined in [15] and also known as first Grigorchuk group) is  $uAC^0$ -many-one-reducible to its word problem.

Theorem 10 applies only if the generating set contains a neutral letter. Otherwise, the reduction is in  $uTC^0$ . It is well-know that the word problem for the Grigorchuk group is in L (see e.g. [13]). Thus, also the power word problem is in L.

**Proof sketch of Theorem 10.** By [5, Theorem 6.6], every element of length N in the Grigorchuk group has order at most  $CN^{3/2}$  for some constant C. Since the order of every element is a power of two, we can reduce all exponents modulo the smallest power of two  $\geq CN^{3/2}$  where N is the length of the longest period  $p_i$ . After that the words are short and can be written without exponents.

## 4 Proof of Theorem 2

The proof of Theorem 2 consists of two main steps: first we do some preprocessing leading to a particularly nice instance of the power word problem. While this preprocessing is simple from a theoretical point of view, it is where the main part of the workload is performed during the execution of the algorithm. Then, in the second step, all exponents are reduced to polynomial size. After this shortening process, the power word problem can be solved by the ordinary word problem. The most difficult part is to prove correctness of the shortening process. For this, we introduce a rewriting system over an extended alphabet of words with exponents. We outline the proof in a sequence of lemmas which all follow rather easily from the previous ones and we give some small hints how to prove the lemmas.

**Preprocessing.** We use the notations from the paragraph on free groups in Section 2. In particular, recall that  $S = \{ aa^{-1} \rightarrow 1 \mid a \in \Sigma \}$ . Fix an arbitrary order on the input alphabet  $\Sigma$ . This gives us the lexicographic order on  $\Sigma^*$ , which is denoted by  $\preceq$ . Let  $\Omega \subseteq \operatorname{IRR}(S) \subseteq \Sigma^*$  denote the set of words w such that

 $\bullet$  w is non-empty,

- w is cyclically reduced (i.e, w cannot be written as  $aua^{-1}$  for  $a \in \Sigma$ ),
- w is primitive (i.e, w cannot be written as  $u^n$  for  $n \ge 2$ ),
- w is lexicographically minimal among all cyclic permutations of w and  $w^{-1}$  (i.e.,  $w \leq uv$  for all  $u, v \in \Sigma^*$  with vu = w or  $vu = w^{-1}$ ).

Notice that  $\Omega$  consists of Lyndon words [29, Chapter 5.1] with the stronger requirement of being freely reduced, cyclically reduced and also minimal among the conjugacy class of the inverse. The first aim is to rewrite the input power word in the form

$$w = s_0 p_1^{x_1} s_1 \cdots p_n^{x_n} s_n \qquad \text{with } p_i \in \Omega \text{ and } s_i \in \text{IRR}(S).$$
(1)

The reason for this lies in the following crucial lemma which essentially says that, if a long factor of  $p_i^{x_i}$  cancels with some  $p_j^{x_j}$ , then already  $p_i = p_j$ . Thus, only the same  $p_i$  can cancel implying that we can make the exponents of the different  $p_i$  independently smaller.

▶ Lemma 11. Let  $p, q \in \Omega$ ,  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  and let v be a factor of  $p^x$  and w a factor of  $q^y$ . If  $vw \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} 1$  and  $|v| = |w| \ge |p| + |q| - 1$ , then p = q.

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**Proof.** Since p and q are cyclically reduced, v and w are freely reduced, i.e.,  $v = w^{-1}$  as words. Thus, v has two periods |p| and |q|. Since v is long enough, by the theorem of Fine and Wilf [10] it has also a period of gcd(|p|, |q|). This means that also p and q have period gcd(|p|, |q|)(since cyclic permutations of p and q are factors of v). Assuming gcd(|p|, |q|) < |p|, would mean that p is a proper power contradicting the fact that p is primitive. Hence, |p| = |q|. Since  $|v| \ge |p| + |q| - 1 = 2 |p| - 1$ , p is a factor of v, which itself is a factor of  $q^{-y}$ . Thus, pis a cyclic permutation of q or of  $q^{-1}$ . By the last condition on  $\Omega$ , this implies p = q.

▶ Lemma 12. The following is in  $uAC^{0}(WP(F_{2}))$ : given a power word v, compute a power word w of the form (1) such that  $v =_{F_{X}} w$ .

The proof of this lemma is straightforward using [39, Proposition 20] in order to compute freely reduced words. We call these steps the *preprocessing steps*. Henceforth, we will assume that the inputs for the power word problem are given in the form (1).

The symbolic reduction system. We define the infinite alphabet  $\Delta = \Delta' \cup \Delta''$  with  $\Delta' = \Omega \times (\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\})$  and  $\Delta'' = \operatorname{IRR}(S) \setminus \{1\}$ . We write  $p^x$  for  $(p, x) \in \Delta'$ . A word over  $\Delta$  can be read as a word over  $\Sigma$  in the natural way. Formally, we can define a canonical projection  $\pi : \Delta^* \to \Sigma^*$  that maps a symbol  $a \in \Delta$  to the corresponding word over  $\Sigma$ , but most of the times we will not write  $\pi$  explicitly.

Whenever there is the risk of confusion, we write  $|v|_{\Sigma}$  to denote the length of  $v \in \Delta^*$ read over  $\Sigma$  (i.e.,  $|v|_{\Sigma} = |\pi(v)|$ ) whereas  $|v|_{\Delta}$  is the length over  $\Delta$ . Moreover, we denote the number of occurrences of letters from  $\Delta'$  in w with  $|w|_{\Delta'}$ . Finally, for a symbol  $s \in \Delta''$ define  $\lambda(s) = |s|_{\Sigma}$  and for  $p^x \in \Delta'$  set  $\lambda(p^x) = |p|_{\Sigma}$ . For  $u = a_1 \cdots a_m \in \Delta^*$  with  $a_i \in \Delta$  for  $1 \leq i \leq m$  we define  $\lambda(u) = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda(a_i)$ . Thus,  $\lambda(u)$  is the number of letters from  $\Sigma$  required to write down u ignoring the binary exponents.

A word w as in (1), which has been preprocessed as in the previous section, can be viewed as word over  $\Delta$  with  $w \in ((\Delta'' \cup \{1\})\Delta')^*(\Delta'' \cup \{1\}), |w|_{\Delta'} = n$  and  $|w|_{\Delta} \leq 2n + 1$  (we only have  $\leq$  because some  $s_i$  might be empty).

We define the infinite string rewriting system T over  $\Delta^*$  by the following rewrite rules, where  $p^x, p^y, q^y \in \Delta'$ ,  $s, t \in \Delta'', r \in \Delta'' \cup \{1\}$ , and  $d, e \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Here,  $p^0$  is identified with the empty word. Note that the strings in the rewrite rules are over the alphabet  $\Delta$ , whereas the strings in the if-conditions are over the alphabet  $\Sigma$ .

$$p^x p^y \to p^{x+y} \tag{2}$$

$$p^{x}q^{y} \to p^{x-d}rq^{y-e}$$
 if  $p \neq q, p^{x}q^{y} \stackrel{+}{\longrightarrow} p^{x-d}rq^{y-e} \in \text{IRR}(S)$  for (3)

$$r = p'q'$$
 with  $p' <_{\text{pref}} p^{\text{sign}(x)}$  and  $q' <_{\text{suff}} q^{\text{sign}(y)}$ 

$$st \to r$$
 if  $st \stackrel{+}{\Longrightarrow} r \in \mathrm{IRR}(S)$  (4)

$$p^x s \to p^{x-d} r$$
 if  $p^x s \xrightarrow{+}{S} p^{x-d} r \in \operatorname{IRR}(S)$  for (5)

$$r = p's' \text{ with } p' <_{\text{pref}} p^{\text{sign}(x)} \text{ and } s' <_{\text{suff}} s$$

$$p^x \to rp^{x-d} \qquad \text{if } sp^x \xrightarrow{+}_{S} rp^{x-d} \in \text{IRR}(S) \text{ for} \qquad (6)$$

$$r = s'p'$$
 with  $s' <_{\text{pref}} s$  and  $p' <_{\text{suff}} p^{\text{sign}(x)}$ 

- ▶ Lemma 13. The following length bounds hold in the above rules:
- $\quad \quad \text{in rule (3): } 0 < |r|_{\Sigma} \le |p|_{\Sigma} + |q|_{\Sigma}, \ |d| \le |q|_{\Sigma}, \ and \ |e| \le |p|_{\Sigma}$
- in rules (5) and (6):  $|d| \le |s|_{\Sigma}$ .

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The inequalities  $|d| \leq |q|_{\Sigma}$  and  $|e| \leq |p|_{\Sigma}$  follow from Lemma 11. The other inequalities are obvious. The next lemma is also straightforward from the definition.

▶ Lemma 14. For  $u \in \Delta^*$  we have  $u =_{F_X} 1$  if and only if  $u \stackrel{*}{\xrightarrow{}} 1$ .

▶ Lemma 15. Let  $u \in \Delta^*$ . If  $u \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} v$ , then  $u \stackrel{\leq k}{\Longrightarrow} v$  for  $k = 2 |u|_{\Delta} + 4 |u|_{\Delta'} \le 6 |u|_{\Delta}$ .

**Proof sketch.** The proof is based on the fact that at most  $2|u|_{\Delta'} - 3$  applications of rules of the form (3) can occur. These are the only length increasing rules. All other rules either decrease the number of non-reduced two-letter factors of u (this can happen at most  $|u|_{\Delta} - 1$  times) or decrease the length of u (this can happen at most  $|u|_{\Delta'} - 3$  times).

Consider a word  $u \in \Delta^*$  and  $p \in \Omega$ . Let  $\Delta_p = \{p^x \mid x \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}\}$ . We can write u uniquely as  $u = u_0 p^{y_1} u_1 \cdots p^{y_m} u_m$  with  $u_i \in (\Delta \setminus \Delta_p)^*$ . We define  $\eta_p^i(u) = \sum_{j=1}^i y_j$  and  $\eta_p(u) = \eta_p^m(u)$ . By Lemma 13 we know that all rules of T change  $\eta_p(\cdot)$  by at most  $\lambda(u)$ . We can use this observation in order to show the next lemma by induction on k.

▶ Lemma 16. Let  $u \stackrel{k}{\longrightarrow} v$ . Then for all  $v' \leq_{pref} v$  with  $v' \in \Delta^*$  there is some  $u' \in \Delta^*$  with  $u' \leq_{pref} u$  and  $|\eta_p(u') - \eta_p(v')| \leq (k+1)^2 \lambda(u)$ .

The shortened version of a word. Take a word  $u \in \Delta^*$  and  $p \in \Omega$  and write u as  $u = u_0 p^{y_1} u_1 \cdots p^{y_m} u_m$  with  $u_i \in (\Delta \setminus \Delta_p)^*$  (we are only interested in the case that  $p^x$  appears as a letter in u for some  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ). Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a finite set of finite, non-empty, non-overlapping intervals of integers, i.e., we can write  $\mathcal{C} = \{ [\ell_j, r_j] \mid 1 \leq j \leq k \}$  for  $k = |\mathcal{C}|$  and  $\ell_j \leq r_j$  for all j. We can assume that the intervals are ordered increasingly, i.e., we have  $r_j < \ell_{j+1}$ . We set  $d_j = r_j - \ell_j + 1 > 0$ . We say that u is compatible with  $\mathcal{C}$  if  $\eta_p^i(u) \notin [\ell_j, r_j]$  for any i, j. If w is compatible with  $\mathcal{C}$ , we define the shortened version  $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{C}}(u)$  of u: for  $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$  we set

$$C_i = C_i(u) = \begin{cases} \{ j \mid 1 \le j \le k, \eta_p^{i-1}(u) < \ell_j \le r_j < \eta_p^i(u) \} & \text{if } y_i > 0 \\ \{ j \mid 1 \le j \le k, \eta_p^i(u) < \ell_j \le r_j < \eta_p^{i-1}(u) \} & \text{if } y_i < 0, \end{cases}$$

i.e.,  $C_i$  collects all intervals between  $\eta_p^{i-1}(u)$  and  $\eta_p^i(u)$ . Then  $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{C}}(u)$  is defined by

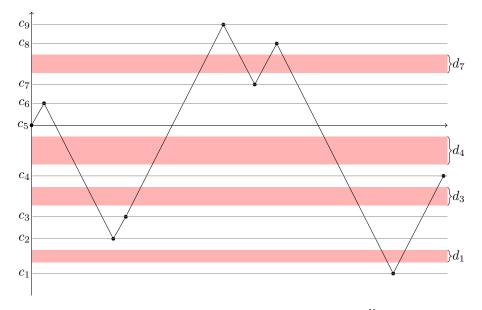
$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{C}}(u) &= u_0 p^{z_1} u_1 \cdots p^{z_m} u_m \quad \text{where} \\ z_i &= y_i - \operatorname{sign}(y_i) \cdot \sum_{j \in C_i} d_j = \begin{cases} y_i - \sum_{j \in C_i} d_j & \text{if } y_i > 0, \\ y_i + \sum_{j \in C_i} d_j & \text{if } y_i < 0. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

A straightforward computation yields the next lemma:

▶ Lemma 17. For all *i* we have  $z_i \neq 0$  and  $\operatorname{sign}(z_i) = \operatorname{sign}(y_i)$ . In particular, if  $u \in \operatorname{IRR}(T)$ , then also  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(u) \in \operatorname{IRR}(T)$ .

Furthermore, we define dist<sub>p</sub>(u, C) = min {  $|\eta_p^i(u) - x| | 0 \le i \le m, x \in [\ell, r] \in C$  }. Note that dist<sub>p</sub>(u, C) > 0 if and only if u is compatible with C. Moreover, if dist<sub>p</sub>(u, C) = a,  $v = v_0 p^{z_1} v_1 \cdots p^{z_m} v_m$ , and  $|\eta_p^i(u) - \eta_p^i(v)| \le b$  for all  $i \le m$ , then dist<sub>p</sub>(v, C) ≥ a - b.

► Lemma 18. If dist<sub>p</sub>(u, C) > (k + 1)<sup>2</sup>  $\lambda(u)$  and  $u \xrightarrow{k}{T} v$ , then  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(u) \xrightarrow{k}{T} S_{\mathcal{C}}(v)$ .



**Figure 1** The red shaded parts represent the intervals from the set  $C_{u,p}^{K}$  in (7). The differences  $c_3 - c_2$ ,  $c_6 - c_5$ ,  $c_7 - c_6$  and  $c_9 - c_8$  are strictly smaller than 2K.

**Proof sketch.** The first step for proving this lemma is to show that if  $\operatorname{dist}_p(u, \mathcal{C}) > \lambda(u)$  and  $u \Longrightarrow_T v$ , then  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(u) \Longrightarrow_T S_{\mathcal{C}}(v)$ . To see this this, we distinguish between the rules applied: When applying one of the rules (3)–(6), we have  $C_i(u) = C_i(v)$  for all *i* since the exponents are only changed slightly. Thus, the shortening process does the same on *v* as on *u*. When applying a rule (2), the exponents are added, which is compatible with the shortening process. Now we obtain the lemma by induction on *k*. In order to see that  $\operatorname{dist}_p(u, \mathcal{C}) > \lambda(u)$  is satisfied in the inductive step, we use Lemma 16.

We define a set of intervals which should be "cut out" from u as follows: We write  $\{c_1, \ldots, c_l\} = \{\eta_p^i(u) \mid 0 \le i \le m\}$  with  $c_1 < \cdots < c_l$  and we set

$$\mathcal{C}_{u,p}^{K} = \left\{ \left[ c_j + K, c_{j+1} - K \right] \mid 1 \le j \le l - 1, c_{j+1} - c_j \ge 2K \right\}.$$
(7)

Notice that  $\operatorname{dist}_p(u, \mathcal{C}_{u,p}^K) = K$  (given that  $\mathcal{C}_{u,p}^K \neq \emptyset$ ). The situation is shown in Figure 1.

▶ Proposition 19. Let  $p \in \Omega$ ,  $u = u_0 p^{y_1} u_1 \cdots p^{y_m} u_m \in \Delta^*$  with  $u_i \in (\Delta \setminus \Delta_p)^*$ , and  $K = (6 |u|_{\Delta} + 1)^2 \lambda(u) + 1$ . Then  $u =_{F_X} 1$  if and only if  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(u) =_{F_X} 1$  for  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}_{u,p}^K$ .

**Proof.** By Lemma 14 we have  $u =_{F_X} 1$  if and only if  $u \stackrel{*}{\xrightarrow{T}} 1$ . Let  $k = 6 |u|_{\Delta}$ . By Lemma 15, for all  $u \stackrel{*}{\xrightarrow{T}} v$  we have  $u \stackrel{\leq k}{\xrightarrow{T}} v$ . By the choice of  $\mathcal{C}$ , we have  $\operatorname{dist}_p(u,\mathcal{C}) > (k+1)^2 \lambda(u)$ . Hence, we can apply Lemma 18, which implies that  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(u) \stackrel{*}{\xrightarrow{T}} S_{\mathcal{C}}(v)$  where v is a T-reduced (thus freely reduced) word for u. Clearly, if v is the empty word, then  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(v)$  will be the empty word. On the other hand, if v is non-empty, then  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(v)$  is non-empty and T-reduced by Lemma 17. Hence, we have  $u =_{F_X} 1$  if and only if  $S_{\mathcal{C}}(u) =_{F_X} 1$ .

▶ Lemma 20. Let p, u, K, and C be as in Proposition 19 and  $S_C(u) = u_0 p^{z_1} u_1 \cdots p^{z_m} u_m$ . Then  $|z_i| \leq m \cdot (2 \cdot (6 |u|_{\Delta} + 1)^2 \cdot \lambda(u) + 1)$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq m$ . **Proof of Theorem 2.** We start with the preprocessing as described in Lemma 12 leading to a word  $w = s_0 p_1^{x_1} s_1 \cdots p_n^{x_n} s_n$  with  $p_i \in \Omega$  and  $s_i \in \text{IRR}(S)$  as in (1). After that we apply the shortening procedure for all  $p \in \{p_i \mid 1 \le i \le n\}$ . This can be done in parallel for all p, as the outcome of the shortening only depends on the p-exponents. By Lemma 20 this leads to a word  $\hat{w}$  of polynomial length. Finally, we can test whether  $\hat{w} =_{F_X} 1$  using one oracle gate for WP(F\_2) (recall that  $F_2$  contains a copy of  $F_X$ ). The computations for shortening only involve iterated addition (and comparisons of integers), which is in  $\mathsf{uTC}^0$  and, thus, can be solved in  $\mathsf{uAC}^0$  with oracle gates for WP( $F_2$ ).

## 5 The power word problem in wreath products

The goal of this section is to prove Theorems 8 and 9. We first fix some notation. Let G be a finitely generated group with the finite symmetric generating set  $\Sigma$ . For  $\mathbb{Z}$  we fix the generator a. Hence  $\Sigma \cup \{a, a^{-1}\}$  is a symmetric generating set for the wreath product  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$ . For a word  $w = v_0 a^{e_1} v_1 \cdots a^{e_n} v_n$  with  $e_i \in \{-1, 1\}$  and  $v_i \in \Sigma^*$  let  $\sigma(w) = e_1 + \cdots + e_n$ . With I(w) we denote the interval  $[b, c] \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ , where b (resp., c) is the minimal (resp., maximal) integer of the form  $e_1 + \cdots + e_i$  for  $0 \le i \le n$ . Note that if w represents  $(f, d) \in G \wr \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $d = \sigma(w)$ ,  $\operatorname{supp}(f) \subseteq I(w)$  and  $0, d \in I(w)$ .

**Periodic words over groups.** We recall a construction from [12]. With  $G^+$  we denote the set of all tuples  $(g_0, \ldots, g_{q-1})$  over G of arbitrary length  $q \ge 1$ . With  $G^{\omega}$  we denote the set of all mappings  $f: \mathbb{N} \to G$ . Elements of  $G^{\omega}$  can be seen as infinite sequences (or words) over the set G. We define the binary operation  $\otimes$  on  $G^{\omega}$  by pointwise multiplication:  $(f \otimes g)(n) = f(n)g(n)$ . The identity element is the mapping id with id(n) = 1 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . For  $f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_n \in G^{\omega}$  we write  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^n f_i$  for  $f_1 \otimes f_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes f_n$ . If G is abelian, we write  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i$  for  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^{n} f_i$ . A function  $f \in G^{\omega}$  is periodic with period  $q \ge 1$  if f(k) = f(k+q) for all  $k \ge 0$ . In this case, f can specified by the tuple  $(f(0), \ldots, f(q-1))$ . Vice versa, a tuple  $u = (g_0, \ldots, g_{q-1}) \in G^+$  defines the periodic function  $f_u \in G^\omega$  with  $f_u(n \cdot q + r) = g_r$  for  $n \geq 0$  and  $0 \leq r < q$ . One can view this mapping as the sequence  $u^{\omega}$  obtained by taking infinitely many repetitions of u. Let  $G^{\rho}$  be the set of all periodic functions from  $G^{\omega}$ . If  $f_1$ is periodic with period  $q_1$  and  $f_2$  is periodic with period  $q_2$ , then  $f_1 \otimes f_2$  is periodic with period  $q_1q_2$  (in fact, lcm $(q_1, q_2)$ ). Hence,  $G^{\rho}$  forms a countable subgroup of  $G^{\omega}$ . Note that  $G^{\rho}$  is not finitely generated: The subgroup generated by elements  $f_i \in G^{\rho}$  with period  $q_i$  $(1 \le i \le n)$  contains only functions with period  $lcm(q_1, \ldots, q_n)$ . For  $n \ge 0$  we define the subgroup  $G_n^{\rho}$  of all  $f \in G^{\rho}$  with f(k) = 1 for all  $0 \le k \le n-1$ . We consider the uniform membership problem for subgroups  $G_n^{\rho}$ , MEMBERSHIP $(G_*^{\rho})$  for short:

input: tuples  $u_1, \ldots, u_n \in G^+$  (elements of G are represented by finite words over  $\Sigma$ ) and a binary encoded number m.

question: does  $\bigotimes_{i=1}^{n} f_{u_i}$  belong to  $G_m^{\rho}$ ? The following result was shown in [12]:

▶ Theorem 21. For every finitely generated abelian group G, MEMBERSHIP( $G_*^{\bullet}$ ) is in uTC<sup>0</sup>.

▶ Lemma 22. Let  $w \in (\Sigma \cup \{a, a^{-1}\})^*$  with  $\sigma(w) \neq 0$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , and  $I(w^n) = [b, c]$ . Moreover, let s = c - b + 1 be the size of the interval I(w) and let  $(g, n \cdot \sigma(w)) \in G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  be the group element represented by  $w^n$ . Then g is periodic on the interval [b+s, c-s] with period  $|\sigma(w)|$ .

► Example 23. Let us consider the wreath product  $\mathbb{Z} \wr \mathbb{Z}$  and let the left copy of  $\mathbb{Z}$  in the wreath product be generated by *b*. Consider the word  $w = ba^{-1}babab^3ab^3ab^5a^{-1}b$  and let n = 8. We have  $\sigma(w) = 2$  and I(w) = [-1, 3]. Moreover, *w* represents the group element

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(f,2) with f(-1) = 1, f(0) = 2, f(1) = 3, f(2) = 4, and f(3) = 5. Let us now consider the word  $w^8$ . The following diagram shows how to obtain the corresponding element of  $\mathbb{Z} \wr \mathbb{Z}$ :

-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	2	3	4	5														
		1	2	3	4	5												
				1	2	3	4	5										
						1	2	3	4	5								
								1	2	3	4	5						
										1	2	3	4	5				
												1	2	3	4	5		
														1	2	3	4	5
1	2	4	6	9	6	9	6	9	6	9	6	9	6	9	6	8	4	5

We have  $I(w^8) = [-1, 17]$  and  $\sigma(w^8) = 8\sigma(w) = 16$ . If (g, 16) is the group element represented by  $w^8$ , then the function g is periodic on the interval [2, 14] (which includes the interval [-1 + s, 17 - s], where s = |I(w)| = 5) with period 2.

**Proofs of Theorem 8 and 9.** A conjunctive truth-table reduction is a Turing reduction where the output is the conjunction over the outputs of all oracle gates.

▶ **Proposition 24.** For every finitely generated group G,  $\text{POWERWP}(G \wr \mathbb{Z})$  is conjunctive truth-table  $uTC^0$ -reducible to  $\text{MEMBERSHIP}(G_*^{\rho})$  and POWERWP(G).

**Proof sketch.** Let  $w = u_1^{x_1} u_2^{x_2} \cdots u_k^{x_k}$  be the input power word and let  $(f, d) \in G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  be the element represented by w. We can check in  $\mathsf{uTC}^0$  whether d = 0. The difficult part is to check whether f is the zero-mapping. For this we compute an interval I (of exponential size) that contains the support of f. We then partition I into two sets C and  $I \setminus C$ . The set C has polynomial size and we can check whether f is the zero-mapping on C using polynomially many oracle calls to POWERWP(G). The complement  $I \setminus C$  can be written as a union of polynomially many intervals. The crucial property of C is that on each of these intervals f can be written as a sum of periodic sequences; for this we use Lemma 22. Using oracle calls to MEMBERSHIP( $G_*^{p}$ ) allows us to check whether f is the zero mapping on  $I \setminus C$ .

Since for a finitely generated abelian group G, one can solve POWERWP(G) in  $uTC^0$ , Theorem 8 is a consequence of Proposition 24 and Theorem 21.

We split the proof of Theorem 9 into three propositions: one for the upper bound and two for the lower bounds. It is straightforward to show that if the word problem for the finitely generated group G belongs to coNP, then also MEMBERSHIP( $G_*^{\rho}$ ) belongs to coNP. Since coNP is closed under conjunctive truth-table uTC<sup>0</sup>-reducibility, Proposition 24 yields:

▶ **Proposition 25.** Let G be a finitely generated group such that POWERWP(G) belongs to coNP. Then also  $POWERWP(G \wr \mathbb{Z})$  belongs to coNP.

▶ **Proposition 26.** If G is a finite, non-solvable group,  $\text{POWERWP}(G \wr \mathbb{Z})$  is coNP-hard.

**Proof sketch.** Barrington [4] proved the following result: Let C be a fan-in two boolean circuit of depth d with n input gates  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . From C one can compute a sequence of triples (a so-called *G*-program)  $P_C = (k_1, g_1, h_1)(k_2, g_2, h_2) \cdots (k_\ell, g_\ell, h_\ell) \in ([1, n] \times G \times G)^*$  of length  $\ell \leq (4|G|)^d$  such that for every input valuation  $v : \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \to \{0, 1\}$  the following two statements are equivalent:

(a) C evaluates to 0 under the input valuation v.

(b)  $c_1c_2\cdots c_\ell = 1$  in G, where  $c_i = g_i$  if  $v(x_{k_i}) = 0$  and  $c_i = h_i$  if  $v(x_{k_i}) = 1$ .

This G-program is constructed as a sequence of iterated commutators, based on the observation that [g, h] = 1 if and only if g = 1 or h = 1 (given some reasonable assumptions on gand h). Every formula C in conjunctive normal form can be written as a circuit of depth  $\mathcal{O}(\log |C|)$ . Hence the G-program  $P_C$  has length polynomial in |C|. From [4] it is easy to see that on input of the formula C, the G-program  $P_C$  can be computed in logspace.

Let  $P_C = (k_1, g_1, h_1) \cdots (k_\ell, g_\ell, h_\ell)$  and  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  be the variables in C. We compute in logspace the n first primes  $p_1, \ldots, p_n$  and  $M = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i$  (the latter in binary notation). Let a denote the generator of  $\mathbb{Z}$  in the wreath product  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$ . We now compute for every  $1 \le i \le \ell$  the power word  $w_i = (h_i(ag_i)^{p_{k_i}-1}a)^{M/p_{k_i}}a^{-M}$  and set  $w_C = w_1w_2\cdots w_\ell$ . The group element of  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  represented by  $w_C$  is of the form (f, 0).

We claim that  $w_C = 1$  in  $G \wr \mathbb{Z}$  if and only if C is unsatisfiable: For a number  $z \in [0, M-1]$ we define the valuation  $v_z : \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \to \{0, 1\}$  by  $v_z(x_i) = 1$  if  $z \equiv 0 \mod p_i$  and  $v_z(x_i) = 0$  otherwise. By the Chinese remainder theorem, for every valuation  $v : \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \to \{0, 1\}$  there exists  $z \in [0, M-1]$  with  $v = v_z$ . Based on the above statements (a) and (b), the final step of the proof checks that f(z) = 1 if and only if C evaluates to 0 under  $v_z$ .

▶ **Proposition 27.** Let F be a finitely generated free group of rank at least two. Then  $POWERWP(F \wr \mathbb{Z})$  is coNP-hard.

The proof is almost the same as for Proposition 26. The difference is that we mimic Robinson's proof that the word problem for  $F_2$  is NC<sup>1</sup>-hard [35] instead of Barrington's result.

## 6 Further Research

We conjecture that the method of Section 4 can be generalized to right-angled Artin groups (RAAGs – also known as graph groups) and hyperbolic groups, and hence that the power word problem for a RAAG (resp., hyperbolic group) G is  $AC^0$ -Turing-reducible to the word problem for G. One may also try to prove transfer results for the power word problem with respect to group theoretical constructions, e.g., graph products, HNN extensions and amalgamated products over finite subgroups. For finitely generated linear groups, the power word problem leads to the problem of computing matrix powers with binary encoded exponents. The complexity of this problem is open; variants of this problem have been studied in [1, 11].

Another open question is what happens if we allow nested exponents. We conjecture that in the free group for any nesting depth bounded by a constant the problem is still in  $uAC^{0}(WP(F_{2}))$ . However, for unbounded nesting depth it is not clear what happens: we only know that it is in P since it is a special case of the compressed word problem; but it still could be in  $uAC^{0}(WP(F_{2}))$  or it could be P-complete or somewhere in between.

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