The purpose of this lecture is to make explicit the limits of computational topology by showing that some simple and natural questions in topology are undecidable. In order to make the statement precise we need to define the notion of decidability and to specify the description of topological spaces we are interested in. Concerning topological spaces we should consider spaces having a combinatorial description such as finite simplicial complexes. Note that many interesting spaces have such a description: compact topological manifolds of dimensions 2 or 3, compact differentiable manifolds, etc. See [Man14] for a survey. Concerning decidability there are essentially two notions. One refers to the independence of a statement with respect to a logical system. In other words, the statement is undecidable if neither its affirmation nor its negation can be proved from the axioms of the system using its logical rules. The existence of such undecidable statements relates to the first Gödel's incompleteness theorem. The other notion of decidability refers to a family of problems with YES/NO answers, such as testing a property over a family of objects, and expresses the existence of an algorithm to output the answer of any problem in the family. Note that any finite family of problems for which the answers is provable is always decidable in this acception. Indeed, an algorithm to solve the problems just needs to store the correct answer of each problem.

---

1 Recall that a simplicial complex is a collection of simplices glued in a nice fashion. It is the total space of an abstract simplicial complex over a set $V$, which is a family of subsets of $V$ closed under the operation of taking non-empty subsets.
Paradoxically, this is valid even if we do not know yet the correct answers since the decidability only claims the existence of an algorithm and not the algorithm itself.

Both notions of decidability may be relevant to computational topology. As an illustration, consider the contractibility problem of deciding if a closed path can be continuously deformed into a point in a simplicial complex. We will prove that there is no algorithm to decide this problem given the path and the simplicial complex as input. As a stronger statement there exists a simplicial complex for which there is no algorithm that decides the contractibility of the closed paths in this simplicial complex. At last, there exists a closed path in some simplicial complex for which it cannot be logically decided if the path is contractible or not.

Most often, undecidability results in topology are shown by first transforming a decision problem into a question concerning combinatorial group theory. In turn, problems about groups are transformed into problems about Turing machines. Ultimately, the proofs of undecidability rely on a reduction to the halting problem for Turing machines. We recommend the survey by Poonen [Poo14] for many undecidable problems in mathematics.

1 The Halting Problem

1.1 Turing Machines

A Turing machine is a mathematical model for the notion of computation. It was introduced by Alan Turing in 1936. According to Church-Turing thesis this is a universal model for the mechanization of computation. It was proved equivalent to other notion of computation such as recursive functions and $\lambda$-calculus.

Formally, a Turing machine is a triple $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{Q}, T)$, where $\mathcal{A}$ is a finite alphabet including a special blank character, $\mathcal{Q}$ is a finite set of states, and $T \subset \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{Q} \times \{R, L\}$ is a transition table specifying how the machine operates on configurations. Those are words of the form $uqv \in \mathcal{A}^* \times \mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{A}^*$, such a configuration represents the machine in state $q$ together with a linear tape marked with the word $u v$ and whose read/write head is on the first letter in $v$ (the empty word is interpreted as a blank). Transition $aqbD \in T$ applies to any configuration $uqv$ such that $a$ is the first letter in $v$. It transforms $uqv$ replacing $a$ with $b$, the state $q$ by $p$, and moves the head one step to the left or right according to whether $D$ equals $L$ or $R$, respectively.

From the computability perspective there is no loss of generality to consider deterministic machines for which $aqbD \in \mathcal{T}$ and $aqb'p'D' \in \mathcal{T}$ implies $a' = a$, $p' = p$ and $D' = D$: reading a letter in some state leads to only one new possible configuration. The machine is halting in a given configuration when no transition applies.

Standard coding of Turing machines

A Turing Machine $M$ is in standard form if its alphabet is a finite subset of $\Sigma = \{\text{blank}, 1, 1', 1'', 1''', \ldots\}$ and its set of states is a finite subset of $\{q, q', q'', q''', \ldots\}$. One can encode the transition table of $M$ on the six letter alphabet $\{\text{blank}, 1, q', q'', R, L\}$ by concatenating its transitions (of the form $1'q'1''q''D'$), where the prime symbol is considered as a letter. Finally, replacing $q', R, L$ by the respective letters $1', 1'', 1'''$, $1''''$, $1'''''$, $1''''''$, $1'''''''$, $1''''''''$, $1'''''''''$, $1''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''', 1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''', 1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''', 1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''', 1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''', 1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$, $1'''''''''''''''''''$, $1''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''''$.
we obtain a coding of the transition table over the finite alphabet \{\text{blank, 1, 1', 1'', 1'''}\}. This coding is the\textbf{ standard code} of \(M\) and is denoted by \([M]\).

1.2 Undecidability of the Halting Problem

A set of words \(W \subset \mathcal{A}^*\) is \textbf{decidable}, or \textbf{recursive}, if there exists a turing machine \(M = (\mathcal{A}, Q, T)\) with three states \(q_i, q_a, q_r \in Q\), respectively called \textit{initial}, \textit{accepting} and \textit{rejecting}, such that for every \(w \in \mathcal{A}^*\) the machine \(M\) starting from configuration \(q_i w\) reaches a halting configuration in state \(q_a\) if \(w \in W\) and in state \(q_r\) otherwise. In particular \(M\) always reaches a halting configuration. Note that \(W\) is \textbf{semi-decidable} if and only if both \(W\) and its complement \(\mathcal{A}^* \setminus W\) are semi-decidable. Recall that \(W\) is \textbf{semi-decidable} if there exists a Turing machine halting in an accepting state if and only if it is given as input a word of \(W\). Although this definition does not require any behavior for words not in \(W\), it is equivalent to assume that the machine never stops given such words. Unfortunately, the same definition was given many names such as \textbf{semi-recursive, recursively enumerable, computably enumerable, listable} or \textbf{Turing recognizable}. The plurality of names comes from the fact that it is equivalent to require the existence of a Turing machine that enumerates \(W\), \textit{i.e.}, outputs all its words one after the other. A\textbf{ decision problem} is a set of questions with YES/NO answers. By extension this problem is decidable, or \textbf{algorithmically solvable}, if the questions can be encoded as words over a finite alphabet and if the subset of words corresponding to questions with positive answers is decidable.

Consider the\textbf{ self-halting problem} of deciding if a Turing machine \(M\) given as input its own standard code, \textit{i.e.} starting with the configuration \(q_i[M]\), will eventually reach a halting configuration in the accepting state.

\textbf{Theorem 1.1.} The self-halting problem is semi-decidable but not decidable.

\textbf{Proof.} That the self-halting problem is semi-decidable is quite clear. Given the standard code of a Turing machine, it is enough to simulate the corresponding machine on this same input. The notion of universal Turing machine (see below) provides such a simulation. By way of contradiction, suppose that the self-halting problem is decidable. Hence, there exists a Turing machine, say \(S\), that recognizes the complementary language. In other words, \(S\) halts in the accepting case if the input does not correspond to the standard code of a Turing machine that halts in the accepting state on its own input, and runs forever otherwise. Let us run \(S\) with the initial configuration \(q_i[S]\). If \(S\) halts in the accepting state, this means that \(S\) does not halt in the accepting state on its own input, a contradiction. So \(S\) must run forever, meaning that \(S\) does halt in the accepting state on its own input, and we have again reached a contradiction. \(\Box\)

The general\textbf{ halting problem} is to decide, given a machine \(M\) and a starting configuration \(I\) if \(M\) reaches a halting configuration. Since the self-halting problem is a particular case of the halting problem, we obtain:

\textbf{Corollary 1.2.} The halting problem is unsolvable.
2. Decision Problems in Group Theory

**Universal Turing Machine**

A Turing machine $T$ is said **universal** if for any Turing machine $M$ and any initial configuration $C$, starting from configuration $q_i[M]C$ the machine $T$ simulates the computation of $M$ from $C$ and halts in its accepting state if and only if this computation eventually stops. Though fastidious, one can write a program in his favourite language, say in C++, to simulate a universal Turing machine. This proves a fortiori its existence. The idea is to traverse the initial configuration $C$ to “read” its state and the current symbol (the one that should lie under the reading head of $M$). Then, $T$ needs to traverse $[M]$ in order to find the transition that applies. This transition transforms $C$ into a configuration $C'$ and we obtain the configuration $q_i[M]C'$ on $T$. We can proceed this way until some configuration $q_i[M]C''$ is reached, where $C''$ is a halting configuration for $M$. In this case, $T$ should stop in its accepting state. Otherwise, $T$ runs forever.

**Theorem 1.3.** The halting problem for the universal machine $T$ is unsolvable.

In other words, there is no Turing machine that can decide for any configuration if $T$ eventually stops starting from this configuration. Indeed, such a Turing machine would solve the general halting problem by considering configurations of the form $q_i[M]C$.

2. Decision Problems in Group Theory

Max Dehn (1911) was among the first to work out the connection between topology and combinatorial group theory. He made explicit that answering to certain topological questions about spaces could be used to solve some general problems about group presentations. Recall that a **combinatorial presentation** $(S \mid R)$ of a group $G$ is defined by a set $S$ of generators and a set $R$ of words over $S$, called **relations**, so that $G$ is the quotient of the free group $F(S)$ over $S$ by the normal closure of $R$ in $F(S)$. Hence, the elements of $G$ are classes of words over $S$ where two words are in the same class if one can be transformed into the other by a sequence of insertions or removals of

1. factors $ss^{-1}$ with $s \in S$,
2. or words in $R$ or their inverses.

We shall only consider **finitely presented** groups for which $S$ and $R$ are both finite. Most computational results nonetheless apply to **recursively presented** groups whose set of relations are recursively enumerable.

**Tietze Tranformations**

Clearly, a group has (infinitely) many presentations. One can indeed replace a presentation $(S \mid R)$ by applying the following **Tietze transformations** or their inverses to obtain presentations of the same group.

---

2By a word over $S$ we always mean a finite sequence of elements in $S \cup S^{-1}$, where the elements of $S^{-1}$ should be thought of as the inverses of the elements in $S$. 


T1: Add a relation which is a consequence of $R$.

T2: Add a new generator $s$ with a new relation $sw$, where $w$ is any word over $S$.

It is quite remarkable that presentations of the same group are always related by such transformations.

**Theorem 2.1.** Two finite presentations represent the same group if and only if one can be obtained from the other by a finite sequence of Tietze transformations and their inverses.

**Proof.** Let $\langle S \mid R \rangle$ and $\langle S' \mid R' \rangle$ be two presentations of the same group. In other words, there is an isomorphism $\langle S' \mid R' \rangle \cong \langle S \mid R \rangle$. The image of any generator $s' \in S'$ under this isomorphism can be expressed as a word $s'(S)$ over $S$. Remark that the relations in $R'$ are consequences of $R$ and the relations $\{s'\cdot(s'(S))^{-1}\}_{s'\in S'}$ expressing each generator $s'$ in terms of $S$ (why?). For each generator $s \in S$, we define $s(S')$ analogously. We have,

$$\langle S \mid R \rangle \cong \langle S \cup S' \mid R \cup \{s' \cdot (s'(S))^{-1}\}_{s' \in S'} \rangle \text{ by repeated applications of } T_2$$

$$\cong \langle S \cup S' \mid R \cup R' \cup \{s' \cdot (s'(S))^{-1}\}_{s' \in S'} \rangle \text{ by repeated applications of } T_1$$

$$\cong \langle S \cup S' \mid R \cup R' \cup \{s' \cdot (s'(S))^{-1}\}_{s' \in S'} \cup \{s \cdot (s(S'))^{-1}\}_{s \in S} \rangle \text{ by repeated applications of } T_1$$

This last presentation is symmetric in prime and unprime symbols and could thus have been derived from $\langle S' \mid R' \rangle$.  

**Exercise 2.2.** By a consequence of $R$ it is meant a word $r$ on $S$ representing an element of the normal closure of $R$. Show that $r$ is freely equivalent (i.e., inserting or removing $ss^{-1}$ or $s^{-1}s$ factors) to a word of the form

$$\prod_{j=1}^{k} g_j^{\epsilon_j} g_j^{-1},$$

where the $g_j$ are words over $S$, $r_j \in R$, and $\epsilon_j \in \{-1, 1\}$.

**Exercise 2.3.** Show that the Tietze transformations $T_1$ and $T_2$ indeed produce isomorphic groups. In other words, show that:

$$\langle S \mid R \rangle \cong \langle S \mid R \cup \{r\} \rangle \cong \langle S \cup \{s\} \mid R \cup \{sw\} \rangle,$$

where $r$ is a consequence of $R$.

**Dehn’s Problems**

Dehn identified three fundamental algorithmic problems [Sti87]. Let $G = \langle S \mid R \rangle$ be a finitely presented group.

- **The word problem:** decide if a word over $S$ represents the identity in $G$.

- **The conjugacy problem:** decide if two words over $S$ represent conjugate elements in $G$. 
2. Decision Problems in Group Theory

- **The isomorphism problem**: decide if two combinatorial presentations represent isomorphic groups.

In the late 1940’s Markov and Post independently proved that the word problem in semi-groups is unsolvable. The main idea is to encode the transition of a Turing machine as relations in a semi-group. In the end the halting problem becomes equivalent to the word problem in the constructed semi-group. The unsolvability of the word problem for groups is based on similar ideas but singularly more complex. It was eventually shown by P. S. Novikov in 1955 and almost at the same time by Boone. The original article by Novikov was 143 pages long. Thanks to the HNN construction introduced by Higman, Neumann and Neumann in 1949, Boone (1959) and Britton (1963) succeeded to reduce the proof to approximately 10 pages.

**Theorem 2.4** (Novikov, Boone). *There exists a group for which the word problem is unsolvable. In particular, the word problem for groups (given a group and a word as input) is unsolvable.*

The simplest example of a group with unsolvable word problem has 4 generators and 12 relations, see Borisov [Bor69]. Since the word problem is a particular case of the conjugacy problem, we immediately infer that

**Corollary 2.5.** *The conjugacy problem for groups is unsolvable.*

The **generalized word problem** is to decide if a word over the generators $S$ of a presentation $P$ belongs to some subgroup of $P$ specified by a set of generators given as words over $S$.

**Theorem 2.6.** *The generalized word problem is unsolvable.*

**Theorem 2.7** (Adyan 1957, Rabin 1958). *The isomorphism problem for groups is unsolvable.*

A **Markov property** for groups is one that is satisfied by at least one group with finite presentation and such that there exists a group $H$ with finite presentation such that any group including $H$ as a subgroup does not satisfy the property. Being the trivial group, or being Abelian are Markov properties (why?). Being the fundamental group of a 3-manifold is also a Markov property because there exist finitely presentable groups which cannot appear as subgroups of 3–manifold groups.

**Theorem 2.8** (Adyan, Rabin). *If $P$ is a Markov property, then the problem of deciding if a finite presentation satisfies $P$ is unsolvable.*

While those negative results assert that the basic decision problems in group theory are unsolvable *in general*, there are positive results for specific classes of groups. For instance, as we saw in a previous lecture, the word and conjugacy problems are solvable for surface groups. It results from the classification of surfaces that the isomorphism
problem is also solvable for surface groups. A much stronger result claims that those problems are solvable for the class of fundamental groups of closed, orientable 3–manifolds. However, none of those groups are algorithmically recognizable. Indeed, the trivial group occurs as the fundamental group of a surface group and of a closed, orientable 3–manifold. The recognition of such groups would thus allow to decide whether a given finite presentation describes the trivial group, in contradiction with Theorem 2.7. See also the survey on decision problems for 3–manifolds by Aschenbrenner, Friedl and Wilton [AFW15] for more details.

We postpone the proof of the undecidability of the word problem to Section 4. In the next section, we shall deduce the undecidability of topological problems from the above negative results in group theory.

3 Decision Problems in Topology

3.1 The Contractibility and Transformation Problems

Given a closed path in a simplicial complex, the contractibility problem is to decide if the path can be deformed continuously to a point in the complex. Likewise, given two closed path in a simplicial complex, the transformation problem is to decide if the paths can be deformed continuously one into the other in the complex. These are extensions of the corresponding problems we saw in the lecture on the homotopy test for surfaces.

Proposition 3.1. The word and conjugacy problems respectively reduce to the contractibility and transformation problems in 2-complexes.

The proof uses a simple construction that associates a two dimensional complex $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$ with every group presentation $\langle S \mid R \rangle$. The complex is built from a bouquet of circles, one for each generator in $S$, and a set of disks, one for each non-trivial relation $r \in R$. If $r = s^i_1 \cdots s^i_k$, the boundary circle of the corresponding disk is subdivided into $k$ subarcs and glued along the bouquet of circles in such a way that the $i$th arc is mapped onto the circle corresponding to generator $s_i$ traversed in the same ($\varepsilon_i = 1$) or opposite ($\varepsilon_i = -1$) direction. By a repeated application of the Seifert–van Kampen theorem, the fundamental group of the resulting two dimensional complex is isomorphic to $\langle S \mid R \rangle$:

$$\pi_1(\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)) \cong \langle S \mid R \rangle.$$ 

Note that the bouquet of circles can be seen as a graph with one vertex and with one loop edge per generator. This graph is the 1-skeleton of $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$.

Proof of Proposition 3.1. Given a word $w = s^i_1 \cdots s^i_k$ on the generators of a presentation $\langle S \mid R \rangle$, we consider the closed path $\ell_w$ of length $k$ whose $i$th edge is the loop edge of the 1-skeleton of $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$ corresponding to $s_i$, traversed in the same ($\varepsilon_i = 1$) or opposite ($\varepsilon_i = -1$) direction. The homotopy class of $\ell_w$ in $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$ is the class of

\[\footnote{For each trivial relation "1" we may also attach a sphere to the vertex of the bouquet. See the construction of Section 3.2.} \]
$w$ in $\langle S \mid R \rangle$, so that $w$ represents the identity in $\langle S \mid R \rangle$ if and only if $\ell_w$ is contractible. Namely, the word problem for $w$ in $\langle S \mid R \rangle$ reduces to the contractibility problem for $\ell_w$ in $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$. Now, given two words $u$ and $v$ and their corresponding closed paths $\ell_u$ and $\ell_w$ in $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$ we saw in the lecture on the homotopy test that $\ell_u$ and $\ell_w$ are (freely) homotopic if and only if their homotopy classes are conjugates in the fundamental group of $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$. It follows that the conjugacy problem for $u$ and $v$ is equivalent to the transformation problem for $\ell_u$ and $\ell_w$.

Exercise 3.2. A 2-complex can be described as a graph, allowing loop and multiple edges, and a collection of polygons, allowing monogons and bigons, such that the boundary of each polygon is attached to a closed path in the graph. Each side of the boundary should be attached to a single edge, but the closed path need not be simple.

The barycentric subdivision of such a 2-complex is obtained by first inserting a vertex in the middle of each edge in the graph and in the middle of each side of the polygons, then triangulating each polygon by inserting a vertex at the center and joining this vertex to the boundary vertices (including the new ones) with new edges. Show that three barycentric subdivisions of $\mathcal{C}(\langle S \mid R \rangle)$ always suffice to obtain a simplicial complex.

Corollary 3.3. There exists a 2-dimensional complex for which the contractibility problem is unsolvable. In particular, the contractibility problem is unsolvable for 2-complexes. The same is true for the transformation problem.

Proof. This follows directly from Theorem 2.4 and the previous Proposition 3.1.

In fact, there exists a 2-dimensional complex and a closed path in this complex such that the contractibility of the path cannot be decided! The proof relies on the theory of Diophantine equations. In the famous list of 23 problems published in 1900 by Hilbert, the tenth problem asks for an algorithm to decide if a multivariable polynomial equation with integer coefficients has a solution in integers. Such equations are said Diophantine when one is indeed looking for integral solutions. In 1970, Matiyasevich succeeded to prove that Hilbert tenth problem is unsolvable by showing that any semi-decidable set of natural numbers is Diophantine, i.e., has the form

$$\{ n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \exists (n_1, \ldots, n_k) \in \mathbb{Z}^k : p(n, n_1, \ldots, n_k) = 0 \}$$

for some polynomial $p$ with integer coefficients in $k + 1$ variables. Now, the set of statements in any formal system with recursively enumerable description (axioms and inference rules) can be numbered so that the theorems form a semi-decidable subset. By Gödel first incompleteness theorem, such a system, assuming it can express basic facts about natural numbers, has a statement that can neither be proved or disproved in the system (such as stating its own consistency, which cannot be proved by Gödel second incompleteness theorem). If $n$ is the number of an undecidable statement and $p$ is the Diophantine equation for the set of theorems, then it cannot be decided if $p(n, \cdot)$ has a solution. (See [Jon82, CM14] for explicit constructions.) More precisely, it cannot be proved that $p(n, \cdot)$ has no solution (if $p(n, \cdot)$ had a solution, this solution would provide its own proof). Hence, considering a Turing machine $M$ that looks for a
solution of \( p(n, \cdot) \), we cannot prove that the machine runs indefinitely given \( p(n, \cdot) \) as input. In Section 4 we shall construct, for every Turing machine and every input, a group presentation \( P \) with a word \( w \) in its generators such that the machine eventually halts after being given the input if and only if \( w \) represents the identity in \( P \). This provides a 2-complex \( \mathcal{C}(P) \) and a closed path corresponding to (an encoding of) \( p(n, \cdot) \) for which we cannot prove that the path is non-contractible.

**Remark 3.4.** The results in this section extend to four dimensional manifolds since any finitely presented group can be realized as the fundamental group of a 4-manifolds that can effectively be computed (Dehn 1910).

### 3.2 The Homeomorphism Problem

The **homeomorphism problem** is to decide if two given combinatorial spaces, say simplicial complexes, are homeomorphic. Since we know that the isomorphism problem is unsolvable (Theorem 2.7), it is tempting to use the 2-complex \( \mathcal{C}(P) \) associated to a group presentation \( P \) to reduce the isomorphism problem to the homeomorphism problem and conclude that this last one is also unsolvable. Indeed, if the complexes \( \mathcal{C}(P) \) and \( \mathcal{C}(Q) \) corresponding to the group presentations \( P \) and \( Q \) are homeomorphic, then their fundamental groups, hence \( P \) and \( Q \), are isomorphic. However, different presentations of the same group may lead to non-homeomorphic 2-complexes so that we cannot conclude that the group are distinct when the corresponding 2-complexes are not homeomorphic. As a simple example consider the presentations \( \langle \{s \} \mid \{s\} \rangle \), \( \langle \{s\} \mid \{s, s\} \rangle \), and \( \langle \{s\} \mid \{s, 1\} \rangle \) of the trivial group. The corresponding 2-complexes are respectively homeomorphic to a disk, a sphere, and a sphere attached to a disk through a point. In order to prove the unsolvability of the homeomorphism problem one needs a presentation-invariant construction of a complex whose fundamental group is the given group. This was eventually achieved by Markov, using four dimensional manifolds rather than 2-complexes. Markov’s proof is based on a Seifert and Threlfall construction (1934) using manifold surgery. Following Stillwell, we shall rely on a construction of Boone, Haken and Poénaru (1968).

**Theorem 3.5** (Markov, 1958). The homeomorphism problem is unsolvable for manifolds of dimension 4 or larger.

**Proof.** Given two presentations \( P \) and \( Q \) we shall construct 4-manifold complexes \( \mathcal{C}'(P) \) and \( \mathcal{C}'(Q) \) such that \( P \cong Q \) if and only if \( \mathcal{C}'(P) \) and \( \mathcal{C}'(Q) \) are homeomorphic. Since isomorphic presentations are related by Tietze transformations (Theorem 2.1) a solution is to provide a construction whose homeomorphism type is invariant by Tietze transformations. The above examples show that this is not the case for \( \mathcal{C}(P) \). It turns out that the extra sphere arising from the trivial relation in the examples is essentially the only obstruction to an invariant construction. To overcome this problem Boone et al. introduce three modifications.

1. If \( P \) has \( p \) generators and \( m \) relations and \( Q \) has \( q \) generators and \( n \) relations, first add \( p + n + 1 \) trivial relations (1) to \( P \) and \( q + m + 1 \) trivial relations to \( Q \). Denote by \( P \ast (p + n + 1) \) and \( Q \ast (q + m + 1) \) the resulting presentations.
2. Replace the 2-complexes \( \mathcal{C}(P) \) and \( \mathcal{C}(Q) \) by their thickening in \( \mathbb{R}^5 \). First note that any 2-complex \( \mathcal{C} \) can be triangulated (see Exercise 3.2) and that any such triangulation has a piecewise linear (PL) embedding in \( \mathbb{R}^5 \). For \( \epsilon > 0 \), let \( \mathcal{C}^\epsilon \) be the set of points at distance at most \( \epsilon \) from \( \mathcal{C} \) in \( \mathbb{R}^5 \). When \( \epsilon \) is small enough \( \mathcal{C}^\epsilon \) deform retracts\(^4\) onto \( \mathcal{C} \), hence has the same fundamental group as \( \mathcal{C} \). Moreover, \( \mathcal{C}^\epsilon \) can be triangulated and such a triangulation can be computed from \( \mathcal{C} \). We set \( \mathcal{C}'(P) \) to the boundary of the 5-manifold \( \mathcal{C}^\epsilon(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \) and \( \mathcal{C}'(Q) \) to the boundary of \( \mathcal{C}^\epsilon(Q \ast (q + m + 1)) \).

3. In order to prove the invariance by Tietze transformations, replace the addition of a consequence relation \( T_i \) by four transformations \( T_{11}, T_{12}, T_{13} \) and \( T_{14} \):

\[
T_{11}: \text{ replace a relation } r \text{ by } ss^{-1}r \text{ or } s^{-1}sr \text{ for some generator } s,
\]

\[
T_{12}: \text{ replace a relation } uvw \text{ by a cyclic permutation } vwu,
\]

\[
T_{13}: \text{ replace a relation } r \text{ by } r^{-1},
\]

\[
T_{14}: \text{ replace } r \text{ by } rr' \text{ where } r, r' \text{ are the } i \text{th and } j \text{th relations}, i \neq j.
\]

Hence, transformation \( T_{11} \) replaces a relation rather than adding a new one. It clearly produces isomorphic presentations (prove it!).

**Claim 1.** Let \( P = \langle S \mid R \rangle \) and \( P' = \langle S \mid R \cup \{r\} \rangle \), where \( r \) is a consequence of \( R \). Then \( P \ast 2 \) may be converted to \( P' \ast 1 \) using transformations \( T_{11}, \ldots, T_{14} \) and \( T_2 \) and their inverses.

**Proof.** By Exercise 2.2, we may write \( r = \prod_{j=1}^k g_j r_j^{e_j} g_j^{-1} \). By a combination of \( T_{11}, \ldots, T_{14} \) and their inverses, we can transform the second of the two extra relations in \( P \ast 2 \) into \( g_j r_j^{e_j} g_j^{-1} \). We can then use transformation \( T_{14} \) to accumulate such factors in the first extra relation, resetting each time the second extra relation to 1 by the reverse transformations used to get \( g_j r_j^{e_j} g_j^{-1} \). The details are left to the reader. \( \square \)

**Claim 2.** If \( P \) and \( Q \) are isomorphic then we can transform \( P \ast (n + m + 1) \) into \( Q \ast (n + m + 1) \) using a sequence of transformations \( T_{11}, \ldots, T_{14} \) and \( T_2 \) and their inverses.

**Proof.** Let \( P = \langle S \mid R \rangle \) and \( Q = \langle S' \mid R' \rangle \). Using the notations in the proof of Theorem 2.1 we first transform \( P \ast (p + n + 1) \) into \( \langle S \cup S' \mid R \cup \{r\} \cdot (s'(S))^{-1} \rangle \ast (p + n + 1) \) by repeated applications of \( T_2 \). We further mimic the proof of Theorem 2.1 using combinations of transformations \( T_{11}, \ldots, T_{14} \) in place of \( T_1 \). We obtain this way the isomorphic presentation \( \langle S \cup S' \mid R \cup R' \cup \{s' \cdot (s'(S))^{-1} \}_{s' \in S'} \cup \{s \cdot (s(S))^{-1} \}_{s \in S} \rangle \ast 1 \) which is symmetric in prime and unprime symbols and could thus have been derived from \( Q \ast (q + m + 1) \). \( \square \)

**Claim 3.** If presentation \( P_2 \) results from presentation \( P_1 \) by a transformation \( T_{11}, \ldots, T_{14} \) or \( T_2 \), then \( \mathcal{C}'(P_2) \) is homeomorphic to \( \mathcal{C}'(P_1) \).

---

\(^4\)A **retraction** is a continuous map from a topological space onto a subspace whose restriction to the subspace is the identity map. A **deformation retraction** is a homotopy between the identity map and a retraction.
We are now ready to prove that \( \mathcal{C}(P) \) and \( \mathcal{C}(Q) \) are homeomorphic if and only if \( P \) and \( Q \) are isomorphic. Recall that the fundamental group of \( \mathcal{C}(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \) is \( P \ast (p + n + 1) \cong P \). Since \( \mathcal{C}(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \) is a 5-manifold, removing its 2-dimensional core \( \mathcal{C}(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \) does not change its fundamental group. Moreover, since \( \mathcal{C}(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \setminus \mathcal{C}(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \) deform retracts onto the boundary of \( \mathcal{C}(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \) they also have the same fundamental group. We conclude that \( \pi_1(\mathcal{C}(P)) \cong P \). Likewise, \( \pi_1(\mathcal{C}(Q)) \cong Q \). It follows that \( \mathcal{C}(P) \) and \( \mathcal{C}(Q) \) cannot be homeomorphic if \( P \) and \( Q \) are not homeomorphic.

Suppose now that \( P \) and \( Q \) are isomorphic. According to Claim 2, \( P \ast (p + n + 1) \) can be converted to \( Q \ast (q + m + 1) \) using a sequence of transformations \( T_i \), \( T_{i1} \) and \( T_2 \) and their inverses. Following Claim 3, \( \mathcal{C}(P \ast (p + n + 1)) \) and \( \mathcal{C}(Q \ast (q + m + 1)) \) are homeomorphic and so are their boundaries \( \mathcal{C}(P) \) and \( \mathcal{C}(Q) \).

**Exercise 3.6.** Prove that any finite 2-dimensional simplicial complex has a PL embedding in \( \mathbb{R}^5 \).

**Exercise 3.7.** Provide the details in the proof of the above Claim 1.

Quite surprisingly, while there is no algorithm to decide whether two 2-complexes have isomorphic fundamental groups, the homeomorphism problem for 2-complexes is solvable! This results from the existence of a normal form for 2-complexes due to Whittlesey [Whi58, Whi60]. This normal form easily leads to an equivalence between the homeomorphism problem for 2-complexes and the graph isomorphism problem [STP94, DWW00]. The homeomorphism problem is also solvable for closed, oriented, triangulated 3-manifolds as recently proved by Kuperberg [Kup15]. The proof relies on the geometrization theorem conjectured by Thurston and proved by Perelman. This geometrization theorem provides a canonical decomposition of 3-manifolds into elementary pieces that can be algorithmically recognized.
4. Proof of the Undecidability of the Group Problems

In this Section we give a complete proof of Theorems 2.4, 2.6 and 2.7. We follow the proof by Stillwell [Sti82, Sti93]\(^5\). A first step is to replace Turing machines by the \(\mathbb{Z}^2\)-machine formalism.

4.1 \(\mathbb{Z}^2\)-Machines

We can interpret a Turing machine \(M = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{F})\) as a set of transformations over \(\mathbb{Z}^2\). To this end we associate with every letter and state of \(M\) a distinct digit in base \(\beta\) between 0 and \(\beta - 1\), where \(\beta = |\mathcal{A}| + |\mathcal{Q}|\). For a word \(w\) in \((\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{Q})^*\), let \(\mathcal{B}(w)\) be the integer in base \(\beta\) whose digits are associated with the letters and states of \(w\), in the same order. We encode a configuration \(uqv\) of \(M\) as a couple \((\mathcal{B}(u), \mathcal{B}(v))\) of integers, where \(v = v_1v_2\ldots v_k = v_k \ldots v_1\). Every transition of \(M\) may be interpreted as a partial transformation over \(\mathbb{Z}^2\). Precisely, we associate with every transition \(aqb\) of the \(l\)-transformations:

\[
(\beta^2U + \mathcal{B}(ca), \beta V + \mathcal{B}(a)) \xrightarrow{\ell} (\beta U + \mathcal{B}(p), \beta^2V + \mathcal{B}(bc))
\]

corresponding to the transitions \(\mathcal{B}^{-1}(U)cqa\mathcal{B}^{-1}(V) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}^{-1}(U)pcb\mathcal{B}^{-1}(V)\). Those four numbers determine the \(l\)-transformation. Note that a single transition gives rise to a number \(|\mathcal{A}|\) of \(l\)-transformations, one for each \(c \in \mathcal{A}\). Similarly, every transition \(aqbp\) is associated the \(r\)-transformations:

\[
(\beta U + \mathcal{B}(q), \beta^2 V + \mathcal{B}(ca)) \xrightarrow{r} (\beta^2U + \mathcal{B}(p), \beta V + \mathcal{B}(c))
\]

which write

\[
(\beta U + A_l, \beta^2 V + B_l) \xrightarrow{r} (\beta U + C_l, \beta^2 V + D_l)
\]

for some appropriate numbers \(A_l, B_l, C_l, D_l\). Those four numbers determine the \(r\)-transformation. For numbers \(X, Y, X', Y'\), we write \((X, Y) \xrightarrow{s} (X', Y')\) if \((X', Y')\) is the result of an \(s\)-transformation, \(s \in \{l, r\}\), applied to \((X, Y)\). More generally, we write

\[
(X, Y) \xrightarrow{s} (X', Y')
\]

if \((X', Y')\) is obtained from \((X, Y)\) by applying a finite sequence of transformations. Hence, \(M\) changes from a configuration to another one by a sequence of transitions if and only if \((X, Y) \xrightarrow{\ast} (X', Y')\) for the corresponding \(\mathbb{Z}^2\)-couples. We finally write

\[
(X, Y) \xleftarrow{\ast} (X', Y')
\]

if there exist \(\mathbb{Z}^2\)-couples \((X, Y) = (X_0, Y_0), (X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n) = (X', Y')\) such that, for \(0 \leq i < n\), either \((X_i, Y_i) \xrightarrow{s_i} (X_{i+1}, Y_{i+1})\) or \((X_{i+1}, Y_{i+1}) \xrightarrow{s_i} (X_i, Y_i)\), where \(s_i \in \{l, r\}\).

---

\(^{5}\)Another interesting but incomplete presentation is proposed by Andrews [And05].
We shall prove that the halting problem for Turing machines is Turing reducible to the generalized word problem. For this, we consider the $\mathbb{Z}^2$-machine $Z$ corresponding to an arbitrary Turing machine. We then construct a group $K_Z$ and a 1-1 map $p : \mathbb{Z}^2 \to K_Z$ so that the statement

\[ Z, \text{ starting from some } (u, v) \in \mathbb{Z}^2, \text{ eventually stops} \]

is equivalent to $p(u, v)$ belonging to a certain subgroup of $K_Z$. We start recalling fundamental constructions in group theory.

### 4.2 Useful Constructs in Combinatorial Group Theory

#### Free Groups and Free Products

Recall that a free group over a set $S$ is the group $F(S) = \langle S \mid - \rangle$ of words over $S$ modulo the insertion of trivial relations $ss^{-1}$ and $s^{-1}s$, $s \in S$.

A relation between elements of a group is any product of those elements and their inverses which is the identity in the group. A relation is **reduced** if it does not contain two inverse consecutive factors. A subgroup $H$ of a group $G$ is free if $H$ is isomorphic to a free group. A subset $S \subset G$ is a **free basis** for the subgroup it generates if there is no non-trivial reduced relations between the elements of $S$. In this case, the subgroup generated by $S$ is a free subgroup isomorphic to $F(S)$.

The **free product** of two groups with presentations $\langle S \mid R \rangle$ and $\langle S' \mid R' \rangle$ is the group $\langle S \mid R \rangle \ast \langle S' \mid R' \rangle := \langle S \cup S' \mid R \cup R' \rangle$ (here, $S, S'$ must be considered as disjoint sets even when $\langle S \mid R \rangle \cong \langle S' \mid R' \rangle$). The free product only depends on the group factors and not on the used presentations. The **normal form theorem for free products** says that any non-trivial element of $G \ast H$ may be uniquely written as an alternating product of non-trivial elements of $G$ and non-trivial elements of $H$. In particular, $G$ and $H$ embeds as subgroups of $G \ast H$.

#### HNN Extension and Britton's Lemma

Given a group $G = \langle S \mid R \rangle$ and an isomorphism $\varphi : A \to B$ between two subgroups $A$ and $B$ of $G$, Graham Higman, Bernhard Neumann et Hanna Neumann (1949) established the existence of a group $G*_{\varphi}$ containing $G$ as a subgroup and such that $\varphi : A \to B$ are conjugate subgroups in $G*_{\varphi}$. More precisely,

**Definition 4.1.** The HNN **extension** of $G$ relatively to $\varphi$ is the group

\[ G*_{\varphi} := \langle S \cup \{t\} \mid R \cup \{\varphi(a) = t^{-1}at\}_{a \in A} \rangle \]

where $t$ is a new generator qualified as **stable**.

An essential property of HNN extensions is the existence of some kind of normal forms resulting from the following Britton’s lemma.

**Lemma 4.2** (Britton, 1963). If a product $g_0t_1^{{\epsilon_1}} g_1 t_2^{{\epsilon_2}} \ldots t_n^{{\epsilon_n}} g_n$ represents the identity in $G*_{\varphi}$, where $g_i \in G$ and $\epsilon_i \in \{-1, 1\}$, $\forall i \in [0, n]$, then either $n = 0$ and $g_0 = 1_G$, or for some $i \in [1, n - 1]$ we have

---

6Free products can be defined by a universal property.
• either \( \epsilon_i = -1, \epsilon_{i+1} = 1 \) and \( g_i \in A \),
• or \( \epsilon_i = 1, \epsilon_{i+1} = -1 \) and \( g_i \in B \).

**Corollary 4.3** (Normal form for HNN extensions). Every element of \( G \cdot \varphi \) has a unique expression as \( g_0 t_1^i g_1 T_2^j \ldots t_n g_n \), where

• for \( 0 < i < n \), \( g_i = 1 \) implies \( \epsilon_i = \epsilon_{i+1} \),
• \( \epsilon_i = 1 \) implies \( g_i \in A \),
• \( \epsilon_i = -1 \) implies \( g_i \in B \).

Here, uniqueness applies to \( n \), the \( \epsilon_i \) and the right coset representatives of the \( g_i \) modulo respectively \( A \) of \( B \).

### 4.3 Undecidability of the Generalized Word Problem

Let
\[
K = \langle x, y, z \mid [x, y] \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad p : \mathbb{Z}^2 \longrightarrow K
\]
\[
(u, v) \longrightarrow (x^u y^v)^{-1} z x^u y^v
\]

Note that \( K \cong \langle x, y \mid [x, y] \rangle \ast \langle z \mid - \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}^2 \ast \mathbb{Z} \).

**Lemma 4.4.** The image of \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \) under the map \( p \) forms a free basis of a free subgroup of \( K \). In particular, \( p \) is one-to-one.

**Proof.** Let \( w = p(u_1, v_1)^{l_1} \cdot p(u_2, v_2)^{l_2} \ldots p(u_n, v_n)^{l_n} \) be a reduced product of \( p(u, v) \) factors, i.e., such that \( (u_i, v_i) \neq (u_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) \) and \( j_i \neq 0 \). Substituting the \( p(u_i, v_i) \) with their values and using that \( x \) and \( y \) commute in \( K \), we get
\[
w = x^{u_1-u_{i+1}} y^{v_1-v_{i+1}} z^{l_1} x^{u_2-u_{i+1}} y^{v_2-v_{i+1}} z^{l_2} \ldots x^{u_n-u_{i+1}} y^{v_n-v_{i+1}} z^{l_n} x^{u_n} y^{v_n}.
\]

From the normal form theorem of free products, if \( w \) is the identity in \( K \), then it contains a factor \( x^{u_i-u_{i+1}} y^{v_i-v_{i+1}} z^{l_i} \) which is 1 in \( \langle x, y \mid [x, y] \rangle \). However this is in contradiction with the hypothesis that \( (u_i, v_i) \neq (u_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) \). It follows that the \( p(u_i, v_i) \) constitute a free basis. \( \square \)

With every \( l \)-transformation, we associate a morphism
\[
\phi_l : < x^{\beta}, y^{\beta}, p(A_l, B_l) > \longrightarrow < x^{\beta}, y^{\beta}, p(C_l, D_l) >
\]

between the two subgroups of \( K \) respectively generated by \( x^{\beta}, y^{\beta}, p(A_l, B_l) \) and \( x^{\beta}, y^{\beta}, p(C_l, D_l) \). This morphism is defined by \( x^{\beta} \mapsto x^{\beta}, y^{\beta} \mapsto y^{\beta} \) and \( p(A_l, B_l) \mapsto p(C_l, D_l) \). That this indeed defines a morphism is not obvious, see the next lemma. We similarly associate with every \( r \)-transformation the morphism
\[
\phi_r : < x^{\beta}, y^{\beta}, p(A_r, B_r) > \longrightarrow < x^{\beta}, y^{\beta}, p(C_r, D_r) >
\]

defined by \( x^{\beta} \mapsto x^{\beta}, y^{\beta} \mapsto y^{\beta}, p(A_r, B_r) \mapsto p(C_r, D_r) \).
4. Proof of the Undecidability of the Group Problems

**Lemma 4.5.** The maps $\phi_1$ and $\phi_r$ are well-defined isomorphisms.

**Proof.** Let $\rho_1$ be the (inner) automorphism acting by conjugation by $x^{-A_i}y^{-B_i}$. This morphism sends $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, p(A_1, B_1)>$ isomorphically onto $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z>$. Similarly, we have an inner automorphism $\theta_t$ sending $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, p(C_i, D_i)>$ onto $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z>$. Now, we just need to show that $\theta_t \circ \phi_t \circ \rho_t^{-1}$ exists and is an isomorphism. To see this, first note that $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z>$ as a subgroup of $K$ is equal to $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z>$ (show inclusion in both directions) and similarly $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z>$ isomorphic to $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z>$. Therefore, the map $x^{B_1} \rightarrow x^{B_1}, y^\beta \rightarrow y^\beta$ induces an isomorphism $<x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z> \rightarrow <x^{B_1}, y^\beta, z>$ between groups isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$. The "free product" of this isomorphism with the identity over $<z>$ is an isomorphism and is precisely $\theta_t \circ \phi_t \circ \rho_t^{-1}$. The same proof holds for $\phi_r$, substituting $r$ for $l$. □

We can thus consider the HNN extension $K*_{\phi_t}$ of $K$ by $\phi_t$. Let $t_i$ be the stable generator of this extension.

**Lemma 4.6.** $(u, v) \rightarrow (u', v')$ if and only if $t_i^{-1}p(u, v)t_i = p(u', v')$ in $K*_{\phi_t}$. Likewise, $(u, v) \rightarrow (u', v')$ if and only if $t_r^{-1}p(u, v)t_r = p(u', v')$ in $K*_{\phi_r}$.

**Proof.** If $(u, v) \rightarrow (u', v')$ then for some numbers $U, V : u = \beta^2U + A_i, v = \beta V + B_i, u' = \beta U + C_i, v' = \beta^2 V + D_i$. It easily follows that $\phi_t(p(u, v)) = p(u'v')$, whence $t_i^{-1}p(u, v)t_i = p(u', v')$ in $K*_{\phi_t}$. Conversely, suppose that $t_i^{-1}p(u, v)t_i p(u', v')^{-1} = 1$. By Britton's Lemma 4.2 applied to $K*_{\phi_t}$, we have $p(u, v) \equiv <x^{B_1}, y^\beta, p(A_1, B_1)>$. Hence,

$$p(u, v) = x^{B_1j_1}y^{B_1j_2}p(A_1, B_1)^{j_3}x^{B_1j_4}...p(A_1, B_1)^{j_n} (1)$$

for some integers $j_1, j_2, ..., j_n$. Using trivial relations and the commutation of $x$ and $y$, the right-hand side of (1) may be written as

$$p(\beta^2U_1 + A_1, \beta V_1 + B_1)^{j_1} \cdot p(\beta^2U_2 + A_1, \beta V_2 + B_1)^{j_3}...p(\beta^2U_n + A_1, \beta V_n + B_1)^{j_n}x^{B_1p}y^{Bq}$$

for some $U_1, V_1, U_2, V_2, ...U_k, V_k, p, q$. Making $x, y$ and $z$ commute (by Abelianizing $K$) in this equality, we deduce that $p = q = 0$. By Lemma 4.4, we then conclude that the right-hand side member of (1) reduces to a single factor $p(\beta^2U + A_1, \beta V + B_1)$ for which $u = \beta^2U + A_1$ and $v = \beta V + B_1$. We thus compute in $K*_{\phi_t}$ that $t_i^{-1}p(u, v)t_i = \phi_t(p(u, v)) = p(\beta U + C_i, \beta^2 V + D_i)$. It then follows from the hypothesis $p(u', v') = t_i^{-1}p(u, v)t_i$ and Lemma 4.4 that $u' = \beta U + C_i$ et $v' = \beta^2V + C_i$. In other words, $(u, v) \rightarrow (u', v')$. The case of an $r$-transformation may be treated the same way. □

Denote by $K_Z$ the group obtained from $K$ by the successive HNN extensions by the morphisms $\phi_0$ and $\phi_r$ associated with all the $l$ and $r$-transformations of $Z$. Clearly, the resulting group does not depend on the order of successive extensions. Since a group embeds in all its extensions, the previous lemma remains valid in $K_Z$. Denote by $\{t_i\}$ and $\{r\}$ the stable generators of all the HNN extensions corresponding to the $\phi_l$ and $\phi_r$ morphisms.
4. Proof of the Undecidability of the Group Problems

**Lemma 4.7.** \((u', v') \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} (u, v)\) if and only if \(p(u', v') \in < p(u, v), \{t_i\}, \{t_i\} > \subset K_Z.\)

**Proof.** By repeated applications of Lemma 4.6, if \((u', v') \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} (u, v)\) then there exists \(w \in < \{t_i\}, \{t_i\} > \subset K_Z\) such that \(p(u', v') = w^{-1}p(u, v)w.\) In particular, \(p(u', v') \in < p(u, v), \{t_i\}, \{t_i\} >.\) Conversely, suppose that \(p(u', v') \in < p(u, v), \{t_i\}, \{t_i\} >.\) Hence, \(p(u', v')\) may be written

\[T_0p(u, v)^{j_1}T_1p(u, v)^{j_2} \ldots p(u, v)^{j_k}K_Z\]

(2)

for some integers \(j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_k\) and words \(T_0, T_1, \ldots, T_k\) in \(< \{t_i\}, \{t_i\} >.\) Since the value \(p(u', v')\) of this product is in \(K.\) it follows by induction on the number of HNN extensions from \(K\) to \(K_Z\) and by Britton’s lemma that this product contains a factor of the form \(t_s^{\pm 1} w t_s^{\mp 1},\) where \(w\) is in the domain or codomain of \(\phi.\) We must have \(w = p(u, v)^j\) for some \(j \in \{j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_k\},\) so that

\[t_s^{\pm 1} w t_s^{\mp 1} = t_s^{\pm 1} p(u, v)^j t_s^{\pm 1} = (t_s^{\pm 1} p(u, v) t_s^{\mp 1})^j = p(u'', v'')^j\]

where either \((u, v) \stackrel{s}{\rightarrow} (u'', v'')\) or \((u, v) \stackrel{s}{\leftarrow} (u'', v'')\) depending on the signs in the \(t_s\) exponents. In particular, the fact that \(p(u, v)^j\) in the (co)domain of \(\phi\) implies that the \(s\)-transformation (or its inverse) corresponding to \(t_s\) applies to \((u, v).\) Substituting \(p(u'', v'')^j\) to \(t_s^{\pm 1} p(u, v)^j t_s^{\mp 1}\) in (2) we get a new expression in terms of the \(T_i's, p(u, v)\) and \(p(u'', v'').\) Iterating the process we eventually obtain

\[p(u', v') = p(u_1, v_1)^{j_1} p(u_2, v_2)^{j_2} \ldots p(u_k, v_k)^{j_k}\]

where \((u_i, v_i) \stackrel{s}{\leftrightarrow} (u, v)\) for each \(i.\) Lemma 4.4 allows to conclude that the right-hand side reduces to a single \(p(u_i, v_i)\) with \((u_i, v_i) = (u', v').\) so that \((u', v') \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} (u, v).\) \(\square\)

**Lemma 4.8.** Let \((u_0, v_0) \in \mathbb{Z}^2\) corresponds to a halting configuration of \(Z.\) Then, \((u, v) \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} (u_0, v_0)\) if and only if \((u, v) \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} (u_0, v_0).\)

**Proof.** On the one hand, we cannot have \((u, v) \stackrel{s}{\rightarrow} (u_0, v_0)\) since \((u_0, v_0)\) is halting. On the other hand, \((u, v) \stackrel{s}{\leftarrow} (u', v') \stackrel{s}{\rightarrow} (u'', v'')\) implies \((u, v) = (u'', v'')\) since \(Z\) is deterministic. We can thus assume that this pattern does not occur in \((u, v) \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} (u_0, v_0).\) It follows that \((u, v) \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} (u_0, v_0).\) \(\square\)

**Proof of Theorem 2.6.** Let \(Z\) be the \(\mathbb{Z}^2\)-machine corresponding to a universal Turing machine \(T.\) Up to a simple modification, we can assume that \(T\) has a unique halting configuration corresponding to some \((u_0, v_0)\) for \(Z.\) It follows from Lemmas 4.7 and 4.8 that \(T\) eventually halts starting from a configuration with \(\mathbb{Z}^2\) code \((u, v)\) if and only if \(p(u, v)\) belongs to the subgroup \(< p(u_0, v_0), \{t_i\}, \{t_i\} > \subset K_Z.\) This last generalized word problem is thus unsolvable by Corollary 1.2. \(\square\)

**Proof of Theorem 2.4.** Let \(H = < p(u_0, v_0), \{t_i\}, \{t_i\} > \subset K_Z.\) Consider the HNN extension \(L := K_Z *_{\{t_i\}} \) and let \(k\) be the stable generator of this extension. By Britton’s lemma \(p(u, v) k p(u, v)^{-1} k^{-1} = 1\) if and only if \(p(u, v) \in H.\) Hence, the generalized word problem reduces to the word problem. \(\square\)
Proof of Theorem 2.7. The unsolvability of the isomorphism problem results from Theorem 2.8 since being isomorphic to the trivial group is a Markov property. For completeness we nonetheless provide an independent proof based on the above construction. First note that all non-trivial elements of $K_{Z}$ have infinite order. This is true for $K = \langle x,y,z \mid [x,y]\rangle$ and its embedding in $K_{Z}$. Moreover, applying Britton's lemma to the powers of the normal form of an element involving a stable generator shows that such an element has also infinite order.

Let $\langle \{s_1,s_2,\ldots,s_n\} \mid R \rangle$ be the presentation of $K_{Z}$ naturally obtained by the successive extensions. In particular, $\{s_1,s_2,\ldots,s_n\} = \{x,y,z\} \cup \{t_i\} \cup \{t_r\}$. For a word $w$ in the $s_i$'s, we consider the group with presentation

$$K_{Z}(w) := \langle \{s_1,s_2,\ldots,s_n\} \cup \{k_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mid R \cup \{k_i^{-1} w k_i = s_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq n} \rangle$$

We claim that $w$ represents the identity in $K_{Z}$ if and only if $K_{Z}(w)$ is isomorphic to the free group over $n$ elements. Indeed, if $w =_K 1$ then the new relations in $K_{Z}(w)$ becomes $1 = s_i$, whence $K_{Z}(w) = \langle \{k_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mid \rangle$. Conversely, if $w \neq 1$ then $w$, like the $s_i$'s, has infinite order in $K_{Z}$. It follows that $w \rightarrow s_i$ defines an isomorphism of cyclic infinite groups. Hence, $K_{Z}(w)$ may be viewed as resulting from a sequence of HNN extensions with stable generators $\{k_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$. In particular, $K_{Z}$ embeds in $K_{Z}(w)$, implying that the word problem for $K_{Z}(w)$ is unsolvable. On the other hand, if $K_{Z}(w)$ was isomorphic to a free group then the word problem for $K_{Z}(w)$ would be solvable, a contradiction. Hence, $K_{Z}(w)$ is not isomorphic to a free group, thus proving the claim. It follows that this instance of the isomorphism problem reduces to an unsolvable word problem. □

References


REFERENCES


