# Homological Computations for Term Rewriting Systems 

Philippe Malbos ${ }^{1}$ and Samuel Mimram ${ }^{2}$<br>1 LIX, École Polytechnique, Palaiseau, France<br>samuel.mimram@lix.polytechnique.fr<br>2 ICJ, Université de Lyon, Lyon, France<br>malbos@math.univ-lyon1.fr


#### Abstract

An important problem in universal algebra consists in finding presentations of algebraic theories by generators and relations, which are as small as possible. Exhibiting lower bounds on the number of those generators and relations for a given theory is a difficult task because it a priori requires considering all possible sets of generators for a theory and no general method exists. In this article, we explain how homological computations can provide such lower bounds, in a systematic way, and show how to actually compute those in the case where a presentation of the theory by a convergent rewriting system is known. We also introduce the notion of coherent presentation of a theory in order to consider finer homotopical invariants. In some aspects, this work generalizes, to term rewriting systems, Squier's celebrated homological and homotopical invariants for string rewriting systems.


1998 ACM Subject Classification F.4.2 Grammars and Other Rewriting Systems

Keywords and phrases term rewriting system, Lawvere theory, Tietze equivalence, resolution, homology, convergent presentation, coherent presentation

Digital Object Identifier 10.4230/LIPIcs.FSCD.2016.27

## 1 Introduction

An algebraic theory is a mathematical structure specified by operations, with given arities, and relations between those, i.e. a term rewriting system if we consider the relations as being oriented. For instance, the theory of groups is given by three operations $m$ of arity two (the multiplication), $e$ of arity zero (the neutral element) and $i$ of arity one (the inverse), subject to the five expected relations:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
m\left(e, x_{1}\right) & =x_{1} & m\left(x_{1}, e\right) & =x_{1} \\
m\left(i\left(x_{1}\right), x_{1}\right) & =e & m\left(x_{1}, i\left(x_{1}\right)\right) & =e
\end{array}
$$

Of course there are many ways of specifying, or presenting, an algebraic theory. For instance, the relations in the second column are derivable from the other, and we could therefore as well remove them and still get a presentation for the theory of groups, with only three relations. This observation is in fact the starting point of the work of Knuth and Bendix in rewriting theory [10]: by adding derivable relations, in good cases one can obtain a set of relations which are much better behaved from a computational point of view, such as being confluent and terminating, without changing the presented theory. In the case of the theory of groups, one can actually come up with an even smaller presentation by considering other generators; it can be axiomatized with only two generators $a$ of arity zero (standing for any

© Philippe Malbos and Samuel Mimram;
licensed under Creative Commons License CC-BY
1st International Conference on Formal Structures for Computation and Deduction (FSCD 2016).
Editors: Delia Kesner and Brigitte Pientka; Article No. 27; pp. 27:1-27:17
Leibniz International Proceedings in Informatics
LIPICS Schloss Dagstuhl - Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, Dagstuhl Publishing, Germany
element, in order to exclude the "empty group") and $d$ of arity two (standing for division) subject to only one relation [7]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
d\left(x_{1}, d\left(d\left(d\left(d\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right), x_{2}\right), x_{3}\right), d\left(d\left(d\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right), x_{1}\right), x_{3}\right)\right)\right) \quad=\quad x_{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

see also $[24,23]$ for other possible axiomatizations of the theory of groups with one relation.
This quest for small presentations was initiated by Tarski who first gave a similar presentation of abelian groups with one rule [30]: those with only one relation are of particular interest and are sometimes called one-based theories in the literature. As illustrated in the example above, this is not an easy task: in the case of groups, one had to think of completely changing the set of generators and relations... Let us briefly recall some achievements in the field, a detailed overview of the subject can be found in [17]. The theories of semi-lattices [27] and distributive lattices [20] are not one-based. In contrast the theory of lattices is one-based: first, a unique relation was shown to exist by general methods [20], giving rise to a relation of length 300000 on 34 variables, and was then reduced to one of length 29 on 8 variables [18]. Similarly, for boolean algebras a single axiom was provided [26], but its size was more than 40 million symbols [17], and shorter axioms (around a dozen of symbols) were found afterward [19] by using intensive combinatorial computations.

In this article, we provide a novel method of showing that a theory is not one-based, using homological invariants, when the theory is given by a convergent rewriting system. The results mentioned above (such as semi- and distributive lattices) required lots of inventivity and are specific to the considered cases. By contrast, our methods are completely mechanical: by performing a series of computations, one obtains a lower bound on the number of rules in any presentation of the theory, and if this lower bound is greater than two, we know that we need at least two relations to present it, and therefore that the theory is not one-based. Of course, our method does not always gives interesting results: it might answer zero as a lower bound, from which we cannot conclude anything.

## Homological invariants

The homology of a space consists in a sequence of groups which encode the number of "holes" in each dimension, and moreover they constitute invariants of the spaces in the sense that two homotopy equivalent spaces have the same associated groups [15, 6]. Homology can also be computed for algebraic structures which are not obviously spaces, such as monoids, groups, algebras, operads, etc. In the case of monoids, Squier has shown how to compute those invariants in small dimensions $[28,12]$ when the monoid is presented by a convergent string rewriting system, and this construction has since then been generalized in every dimension [11]. Here also, the interest of this construction lies in the fact that, even though it is constructed from a particular presentation, it does not actually depend on the choice of the presentation, only the presented monoid. In particular, the rank of the second homology group is, by construction, a natural number which is smaller than the number of relations of the presentation used to compute it, and thus a lower bound for the number of relations of any presentation since it is an invariant.

In this article, we generalize this approach from monoids presented by convergent string rewriting systems to algebraic theories presented by convergent term rewriting systems, and use the resulting homology computations to provide lower bounds on the number of generators or relations required to present an algebraic theory. This work is based on Jibladze and Pirasvili's definition of a cohomology for algebraic theories [8, 9], as well as Malbos' PhD thesis [16]. The first contribution of this article is to reformulate in concrete terms the fairly abstract categorical definitions used in those works. We also introduce a resolution
when the algebraic theory admits a convergent presentation, which allows us to compute the homology in practice, using classical constructions in rewriting theory and linear algebra. Finally, we also explain how those invariants can be refined into ones of more homotopical nature by introducing a notion of coherent presentation for algebraic theories. Due to space constraints we cannot detail all the constructions performed here, and advise the reader willing to grasp the details to first understand the simpler case of monoids [28, 12], of which this construction is largely inspired; details shall be given somewhere else, and the present article focuses mainly on computations and applications.

## 2 Presentations of Lawvere algebraic theories

### 2.1 Term rewriting systems

## Terms

A signature $\left(\mathrm{P}_{1}, \sigma_{0}\right)$ consists of a set $\mathrm{P}_{1}$ of operations together with a function $\sigma_{0}: \mathrm{P}_{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ associating to each operation its arity. Supposing fixed an infinite countable set $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ of variables, one can consider terms generated by operations with variables in this set, which are defined as usual. We write $\mathrm{FV}(t)$ for the set of indices of free variables occurring in a term, e.g. $\operatorname{FV}\left(f\left(x_{2}, g\left(x_{2}, x_{5}\right)\right)=\{2,5\}\right.$. Parallel substitution of $x_{i}$ by $t_{i}$ in a term $u$ is denoted $u\left[t_{1} / x_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} / x_{n}\right]$.

The terms generated by the signature form a category, denoted $P_{1}^{*}$, whose objects are natural numbers and morphisms in $\mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}(m, n)$ are $n$-uples $\left\langle t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right\rangle$ of terms $t_{i}$ with free variables in $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$. Composition of two morphisms $\left\langle t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right\rangle: m \rightarrow n$ and $\left\langle u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}\right\rangle: n \rightarrow p$ is induced by substitution as follows:

$$
\left\langle u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}\right\rangle \circ\left\langle t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right\rangle=\left\langle u_{1}\left[t_{1} / x_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} / x_{n}\right], \ldots, u_{p}\left[t_{1} / x_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} / x_{n}\right]\right\rangle
$$

and the identity on $n$ is $\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle: n \rightarrow n$. We sometimes overload the notation and denote by $\mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}=\coprod_{m, n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}(m, n)$ the class of all morphisms of this category and by $\sigma_{0}^{*}, \tau_{0}^{*}: \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ the functions respectively associating to a morphism its source and target, also called its arity and coarity. Note that terms are the morphisms of coarity 1 . We write $\iota_{1}: \mathrm{P}_{1} \rightarrow \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}$ for the canonical inclusion, sending an $n$-ary operation $f$ to the term $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$.

## Term rewriting systems

We suppose fixed a signature as above. A term rewriting system on the signature $P_{1}$ consists of a set $\mathrm{P}_{2}$, whose elements are called rewriting rules, together with two functions $\sigma_{1}, \tau_{1}: \mathrm{P}_{2} \rightarrow \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}$ associating to each rule its source and target which should be (1-uples of) terms. The source and target of a rule should have the same arity, which is called the arity of the rule. A rewriting system together with the corresponding signature thus consists of a diagram of sets and functions

such that $\sigma_{0}^{*} \circ \sigma_{1}=\sigma_{0}^{*} \circ \tau_{1}$.

We sometimes write $R: t \Rightarrow u$ to denote a rule $R$ with $\sigma_{1}(R)=t$ and $\tau_{1}(R)=u$. Note that we consider the signature as being part of the rewriting system.

- Example 1 (Monoids). The rewriting system corresponding to monoids has operations $\mathrm{P}_{1}=\{m, e\}$, with $\sigma_{0}(m)=2$ and $\sigma_{0}(e)=0$, and rewriting rules $\mathrm{P}_{2}=\{A, L, R\}$ with $\sigma_{1}(A)=m\left(m\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), x_{3}\right), \tau_{1}(A)=m\left(x_{1}, m\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right)\right), \sigma_{1}(L)=m\left(e, x_{1}\right), \sigma_{1}(R)=m\left(x_{1}, e\right)$, $\tau_{1}(L)=\tau_{1}(R)=x_{1}$. Such a rewriting system will often be written more concisely

$$
\left\langle m: 2, e: 0 \mid A: m\left(m\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), x_{3}\right) \Rightarrow m\left(x_{1}, m\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right)\right), L: m\left(e, x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow x_{1}, R: m\left(x_{1}, e\right) \Rightarrow x_{1}\right\rangle
$$

- Example 2 (Groups). The rewriting system for groups is obtained from the rewriting system for monoids by adding a generator $i$ of arity one and relations $I: m(i(x), x) \Rightarrow e$ and $I^{\prime}: m(x, i(x)) \Rightarrow e$.


## Contexts

An $n$-ary context $C$ is a term with variables in $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, \square\right\}$, in which the "variable" $\square$ occurs exactly once and is called the hole of $C$. Given a term $t$, the substitution $C[t / \square]$ is often denoted $C[t]$. The $n$-ary contexts form a category $\mathcal{K}_{n}$ with one object, morphisms being $n$-ary contexts, with composition given by substitution $D \circ C=D[C]$ and neutral element by the identity context $\square$. In turn, these categories induce a functor $\mathcal{K}:\left(\mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}\right)^{\mathrm{op}} \rightarrow \mathbf{C a t}$, sending an object $n$ to $\mathcal{K}_{n}$ and a morphism $u=\left\langle u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\rangle: m \rightarrow n$ to the functor $\mathcal{K}_{u}: \mathcal{K}_{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{m}$ such that the image of an $n$-ary context $C$ is the $m$-ary context $\mathcal{K}_{u} C=C\left[u_{1} / x_{1}, \ldots, u_{n} / x_{n}\right]$. In the following, we simply write $C u$ instead of $\mathcal{K}_{u} C$, and the previous categorical discussion boils down to the simple facts that $(C u) v=C(u \circ v), C i d=C,(D \circ C) u=D \circ(C u)$ and $\square u=\square$. An occurrence of a variable $x_{i}$ in a term $t$ is a context obtained from $t$ by replacing exactly one instance of the variable $x_{i}$ by $\square$, those will be formally defined (in a linear context) in Definition 13.

We write $\mathbb{K}$ for the category whose objects are natural numbers and morphisms in $\mathbb{K}(m, n)$ are bicontexts, i.e. pairs $(C, u)$ consisting of a context $C$ with variables in $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$, and a morphism $u \in \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}(n, m)$. The composition of two morphisms $(C, u): m \rightarrow n$ and $(D, v): n \rightarrow p$ is given by $(D, v) \circ(C, u)=(D \circ C v, u \circ v)$ and the identity on $n$ is $\left(\square, \operatorname{id}_{n}\right): n \rightarrow n$. Note that composition is reversed in the second component. A bicontext $(C, u): m \rightarrow n$ induces a function $C[-] u: \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}(m, 1) \rightarrow \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}(n, 1)$ which to a term $t$ associates the term $C[t \circ u]$, which we will write $C[t] u$ in the following; for this reason, we will sometimes abusively write $C[-] u$ for a context in order to avoid introducing heavy notations. This function is easily shown to be compatible with composition and substitution:

$$
D[C[t] u] v=(D \circ C)[t](u \circ v) \quad \square[t] \mathrm{id}=t \quad(C[t] u) \circ v=(C v)[t](u \circ v)
$$

In particular, we have $C[t]$ id $=C[t]$ which makes the notation unambiguous on this point, and we will always write composition symbol "o" in order to avoid confusion in wrt the equation on the right above.

In the following, when we need to distinguish between multiple rewriting systems, we will add those in exponent to the constructions, i.e. we write $\mathcal{K}^{P}$ instead of simply $\mathcal{K}$ for the contexts of $P$, etc.

## Rewriting

Suppose fixed a rewriting system P . We say that a term $t$ rewrites in one step into $t^{\prime}$, what we write $t \longrightarrow t^{\prime}$, when there exists a rule $R: u \Rightarrow u^{\prime}$ of arity $m$ and a bicontext $(C, v): m \rightarrow n$ such that $t=C[u] v$ and $t^{\prime}=C\left[u^{\prime}\right] v$. In this situation, we often write $C[R] v: t \longrightarrow t^{\prime}$ and the term $t$ is said to be reducible by the rule $R$. We write $\xrightarrow{*}$ for the reflexive and transitive
closure, and $\stackrel{*}{\longleftrightarrow}$ for the generated equivalence relation. Note that the latter relation is a congruence, in the sense that it is compatible with composition, identities and taking tuples.

A rewriting system is terminating when there is no infinite sequence $t_{0} \longrightarrow t_{1} \longrightarrow \ldots$ of rewriting steps and confluent (resp. locally confluent) when for every terms $t, u_{1}, u_{2}$ such that $u_{1} \stackrel{*}{\longleftarrow} t \xrightarrow{*} u_{2}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.u_{1} \longleftarrow t \longrightarrow u_{2}\right)$ there exists a term $v$ such that $u_{1} \xrightarrow{*} v \stackrel{*}{\longleftarrow} u_{2}$. A confluent rewriting system is always locally confluent, and Newman's lemma [25] ensures the converse implication when the rewriting system is terminating. A rewriting system is convergent when it is both terminating and confluent. In this case, any maximal sequence of rewriting steps starting from a term $t$ will end on the same term $\hat{t}$, called the normal form of $t$, and two terms $t$ and $t^{\prime}$ are such that $t \stackrel{*}{\longleftrightarrow} t^{\prime}$ if and only if $\hat{t}=\hat{t^{\prime}}$ : normal forms provide canonical representatives of equivalence classes under the equivalence relation $\stackrel{*}{\longleftrightarrow}$.

## Critical pairs

Local confluence of a rewriting system can be tested by considering minimal obstructions to confluence. Generalizing the above notion of context, a context with two holes $E$ is a term using usual variables as well as $\square$ and $\square^{\prime}$, in which both $\square$ and $\square^{\prime}$ occur exactly once; we write $E\left[t, t^{\prime}\right]$ instead of $E\left[t / \square, t^{\prime} / \square^{\prime}\right]$. Consider a pair of rewriting steps $C_{1}\left[R_{1}\right] v_{1}: t \longrightarrow u_{1}$ and $C_{2}\left[R_{2}\right] v_{2}: t \longrightarrow u_{2}$, with $R_{i}: t_{i}^{\prime} \Rightarrow u_{i}^{\prime}$, rewriting the same term $t$. The pair of rewriting steps is non-overlapping when there exists a context $E$ with two holes such that $C_{1}=E\left[\square, t_{2}^{\prime} \circ v_{2}\right]$ and $C_{2}=E\left[t_{1}^{\prime} \circ v_{1}, \square\right]$. In this situation, the two reductions are always confluent:


Given a pair of rewriting steps as above, a context $(C, v)$ induces another pair of rewriting steps rewriting the same terms: $\left(C \circ C_{i}\right)[R]\left(v_{i} \circ v\right): C[t] v \Rightarrow C\left[u_{i}\right] v$. In this case, we say that the former pair is smaller than the latter, and this induces a partial order on pairs of rewriting steps rewriting the same term.
$\rightarrow$ Definition 3. A pair of rewriting steps $C_{1}\left[R_{1}\right] v_{1}: t \longrightarrow u_{1}$ and $C_{2}\left[R_{2}\right] v_{2}: t \longrightarrow u_{2}$ rewriting the same term $t$ is critical when the two steps are distinct, i.e. $\left(C_{1}, R_{1}, v_{1}\right) \neq\left(C_{2}, R_{2}, v_{2}\right)$, overlapping, and minimal wrt the above partial order. It is confluent when there exists a term $v$ such that $u_{1} \stackrel{*}{\longleftrightarrow} v \xrightarrow{*} u_{2}$.

This reformulates with our formalism the classical notion of critical pair, and the usual associated lemma holds: a rewriting system is locally confluent if and only if all its critical pairs are confluent. In particular, a terminating rewriting system with confluent critical pairs is convergent.

### 2.2 Lawvere algebraic theories

A rewriting system P induces a category, noted $\overline{\mathrm{P}^{*}}$ and called the category presented by the rewriting system, defined as the quotient of the category of terms $\mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}$ under the congruence $\stackrel{*}{\longleftrightarrow}$ generated by the rules: given a tuple of terms $t \in P_{1}^{*}$, we write $\bar{t}$ (or sometimes even simply $t$ ) for its equivalence class. This presented category is easily shown to be a a Lawvere theory [13]:

- Definition 4. A Lawvere theory $\mathcal{T}$ (also sometimes called an algebraic theory) is a category with finite products whose objects are natural numbers, products are given on objects by addition, and the terminal object is 0 .

In particular, when the rewriting system has no rules, the associated Lawvere theory is $\mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}$ and called the Lawvere theory freely generated by the signature. It can in fact be shown to correspond to a left adjoint to the suitable forgetful functor from Lawvere theories to signatures (for space constraints, we do not detail this construction nor even morphisms of signatures and Lawvere theories because they do not play an important rôle here).

- Lemma 5. Any Lawvere theory $\mathcal{T}$ admits a presentation P , called the standard presentation, with

$$
\mathrm{P}_{1}=\coprod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{T}(n, 1)
$$

$$
\mathrm{P}_{2}=\left\{t \Rightarrow u \mid t, u \in \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*} \text { and } \epsilon(t)=\epsilon(u)\right\}
$$

where we take all morphisms of $\mathcal{T}$ of coarity 1 as operations in $\mathrm{P}_{1}$, with the expected arity, and write $\epsilon: \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*} \rightarrow \mathrm{P}_{1}$ for the morphism which to a term, seen as a formal composite of morphisms in $\mathcal{T}$, associates the result of its compositions. The rules are thus all pairs of formal composites whose result is the same.

A model of a Lawvere theory $\mathcal{T}$ is a functor $\mathcal{T} \rightarrow$ Set which preserves finite products. In the case where $\mathcal{T}$ is presented by a rewriting system P , this amounts to the specification of a set $X$, of a function $\llbracket f \rrbracket: X^{n} \rightarrow X$ for each operation $f$ of arity $n$, in such a way that $\llbracket t \rrbracket=\llbracket u \rrbracket$ for each rule $R: t \Rightarrow u$.

- Example 6. A model for the theory of monoids (Example 1) consists of a set $X$ together with functions $\llbracket m \rrbracket: X \times X \rightarrow X$ and $\llbracket e \rrbracket: 1 \rightarrow X$ such that for every $x, y, z \in X$, $\llbracket m \rrbracket(\llbracket m \rrbracket(x, y), z)=\llbracket m \rrbracket(x, \llbracket m \rrbracket(y, z)), \llbracket m \rrbracket(\llbracket e \rrbracket(), x)=x=\llbracket m \rrbracket(x, \llbracket e \rrbracket())$. The models for this theory are thus precisely monoids in the usual sense. Similarly, the models for the theory of groups (Example 2) are groups.


### 2.3 Tietze transformations

Two rewriting systems are Tietze equivalent when they present isomorphic Lawvere theories, which implies that they have the same models (in fact, the converse is also true). For instance, the theory of groups can be presented by the rewriting system of Example 2. As explained in the introduction, it also admits a presentation with two generators $d$ of arity 2 and $a$ of arity 0 , with one rewriting rule corresponding to the equation (1). In the context of presentations of groups, Tietze has shown that the corresponding equivalence is generated by two transformations and their inverse [31]. This property can be adapted to the context of presentation of Lawvere theories as follows.

- Definition 7. The Tietze transformations are the two following operations, transforming a rewriting system P into another one $\mathrm{P}^{\prime}$, as well as their converse (transforming $\mathrm{P}^{\prime}$ into P ):

1. adding a superfluous operation: given a symbol $f$ not occurring in $\mathrm{P}_{1}$, a symbol $R$ not occurring in $\mathrm{P}_{2}$, and a term $t \in \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*}$ of arity $n$, we set

$$
\mathrm{P}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathrm{P}_{1} \uplus\{f\} \quad \mathrm{P}_{2}^{\prime}=\mathrm{P}_{2} \uplus\{R\}
$$

where $f$ is an operation of arity $n$ and $R: t \Rightarrow f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$,
2. adding a derivable relation: given a symbol $R$ not occurring in $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ and two terms $t, u$ such that $t \stackrel{*}{\longleftrightarrow} P u$, we set

$$
\mathrm{P}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathrm{P}_{1} \quad \mathrm{P}_{2}^{\prime}=\mathrm{P}_{2} \uplus\{R\}
$$

with $R: t \Rightarrow u$.

- Proposition 8. Two rewriting systems P and Q are Tietze equivalent if and only if Q can be obtained from P by applying a series of Tietze transformations.

In our quest for minimizing the number of relations (and generators) of a Lawvere theory, the Tietze transformations can be helpful, as illustrated in the following simple example.

- Example 9. Consider the string rewriting system with generators $a, b$ and $c$ of arity one and two rules:

$$
\mathrm{P}=\left\langle a: 1, b: 1, c: 1 \mid A: a\left(x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow x_{1}, B: a\left(b\left(x_{1}\right)\right) \Rightarrow c\left(x_{1}\right)\right\rangle
$$

We can then apply the following sequence of Tietze transformations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{P}^{\prime} & =\left\langle a: 1, b: 1, c: 1 \mid A: a\left(x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow x_{1}, B: a\left(b\left(x_{1}\right)\right) \Rightarrow c\left(x_{1}\right), C: b\left(x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow c\left(x_{1}\right)\right\rangle \\
\mathrm{P}^{\prime \prime} & =\left\langle a: 1, b: 1, c: 1 \mid A: a\left(x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow x_{1}, C: b\left(x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow c\left(x_{1}\right)\right\rangle \\
\mathrm{P}^{\prime \prime \prime} & =\left\langle b: 1, c: 1 \mid C: b\left(x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow c\left(x_{1}\right)\right\rangle \\
\mathrm{P}^{\prime \prime \prime \prime} & =\langle c: 1 \mid\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

We have first added the derivable relation $C$, then removed the derivable relation $B$, then removed the definable operation $a$, then removed the definable operation $b$. So, in fact, our theory can be presented without any relation and only one operation.

It is clear that, in above example, we had to first add a new relation in order to remove all of them: one cannot simply hope to always reduce the number of relations by Tietze transformations in order to obtain a minimal one (and for similar reasons, one might be forced to add new generators before reducing the presentation, as illustrated for the theory of groups in the introduction). For this reason, it is quite difficult to minimize the number of relations in general, or to decide whether a presentation is minimal wrt to relations or generators.

Note in particular that, in a convergent rewriting system, a critical pair witnesses a derivable relation, and Newman's lemma ensures that any derivable relation can be obtained via critical pairs: if a presentation has a removable relation, then such a relation can be obtained by inspecting critical pairs.

## 3 Homology of Lawvere algebraic theories

In this section, we introduce the notion of homology of a Lawvere theory by adapting the general methodology which is now classical for monoids, groups, algebras [15], operads [14], etc. This construction associates to a Lawvere theory a sequence of groups which are invariants of the Lawvere theory: we will see that these can be computed from any presentation with suitable properties, however these groups only depend on the presented theory, and not on the presentation. It thus provides interesting information about all the possible presentations of the theory: its relevance will be illustrated in Section 3.6, where we use it to show that a
particular theory admits no presentation with only one rule, whichever possible signature we use.

The basic idea of homology is to "count" the number of times a thing is used (positively when it occurs in the target and negatively in the source). For example, a rule $R: g\left(f\left(x_{1}\right), f\left(x_{1}\right)\right) \Rightarrow h\left(x_{1}\right)$ "consumes" two instances of $f$ and one of $g$ to "produce" one of $h$. Therefore, we can think of the associated balance to be $h-2 f-g$. Since this is a relation, it induces the equation $h=2 f+g$ when counting operations, which indicates that the operation $h$ might be superfluous, i.e. we might be able to remove it using a Tietze transformation. A similar process for critical pairs will allow us to provide an "over-approximation" of the superfluous relations, and therefore give lower bounds on necessary relations.

Note that above, we formally consider the "ring" of operations (actually a "ringoid" since operations are typed by their arities) in order to be able to consider sums of operations. Much care is however needed in order to ensure that this way of counting is compatible with duplication and erasure of variables, and independent of the presentation. As customary in homological algebra, we thus begin by introducing the notion of resolution for a Lawvere theory, which is easily shown to be invariant (in a suitable sense) under Tietze equivalences and derive homology from those. Roughly, the resolution amounts to perform a similar linearization process as above, but keeping track of the contexts, i.e. the rule $R$ would give rise to a relation of the form $\underline{h}\left(x_{1}\right)-\underline{g}\left(f\left(x_{1}\right), f\left(x_{1}\right)\right)-g\left(\underline{f}\left(x_{1}\right), f\left(x_{1}\right)\right)+g\left(f\left(x_{1}\right), \underline{f}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$, and to ensure that all (higher-)relations are present.

One could be tempted to use standard notions of homology for a category in order to study Lawvere theories. However, because such a theory contains a terminal object, its homology in this sense will always be trivial. Therefore, one has to adapt the setting of homology in order to take in account the cartesian structure. Following the general methodology of Barr and Beck [3, 2], Jibladze and Pirashvili have been able to define a suitable ringoid of coefficients for cohomology [8, 9], which was later on reworked by Malbos [16]. The section 3.1 to 3.4 are a reformulation, in operational terms, of those (to simplify the presentation, the framework is also less general: we use bimodules instead of cartesian natural systems). We suppose fixed a rewriting system P and write $\mathcal{T}=\overline{\mathrm{P}^{*}}$ for the theory it presents.

### 3.1 Modules over ringoids

## Ringoids

A monoid is the same as a category with only one object, or thinking backward, a category is a "monoid with multiple objects". Similarly, a ringoid can be thought of as a "ring with multiple objects". We briefly introduce here this algebraic structure and refer the reader to seminal paper [22] for details. The category $\mathbf{A b}$ of abelian groups is monoidal when equipped with the usual tensor product $\otimes$ of abelian groups, with $(\mathbb{Z},+, 0)$ as unit (in the following, we always denote abelian groups additively).

- Definition 10. A ringoid $\mathcal{R}$ is a small category enriched in the monoidal category $\mathbf{A b}$.

More explicitly, a ringoid consists of a category $\mathcal{C}$ in which each hom-set $\mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is equipped with a structure of abelian group, in such a way that composition is bilinear, i.e. respects addition and zero. For instance, given $f, f^{\prime}: A \rightarrow B$ and $g, g^{\prime}: B \rightarrow C$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(g+g^{\prime}\right) \circ\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)=g \circ f+g \circ f^{\prime}+g^{\prime} \circ f+g^{\prime} \circ f^{\prime} \quad 0 \circ f=0 \quad f \circ 0=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

- Lemma 11. The category of ringoids with one object is equivalent to the category of rings.

Any category $\mathcal{C}$ freely generates a ringoid that we denote $\mathbb{Z C}$. It always exists for general arguments [1] and can be explicitly described as follows. It has the same objects as $\mathcal{C}$ and, given objects $A$ and $B, \mathbb{Z} \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ is the free abelian group over $\mathcal{C}(A, B)$, which is the same as the free $\mathbb{Z}$-module, i.e. formal sums of morphisms in $\mathcal{C}(A, B)$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$, quotiented by the usual axioms of groups, and composition is induced by the one of $\mathcal{C}$ and satisfies the axioms of ringoids such as (3).

## Modules

The usual notion of module over a ring, can also easily be generalized to "multiple objects" as follows.

- Definition 12. A (left) module $\mathcal{M}$ over a ringoid $\mathcal{R}$, or $\mathcal{R}$-module, is a functor $\mathcal{M}: \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ which is enriched in $\mathbf{A b}$. A morphism $f: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ of $\mathcal{R}$-modules, or $\mathcal{R}$-linear map, is an enriched natural transformation: it consists of a group morphism $f_{A}: \mathcal{M} A \rightarrow \mathcal{N} A$ for every object $A$ of $\mathcal{R}$, satisfying naturality conditions. We write $\operatorname{Mod}(\mathcal{R})$ for the category of $\mathcal{R}$-modules.

A right $\mathcal{R}$-module is defined as a left $\mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{op}}$-module, which explains why we will only need to consider left modules in the following. More explicitly, an $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{M}$ consists of an abelian group $\mathcal{M} A$ for every object $A$ of $\mathcal{R}$, and a morphism $\mathcal{M} f: \mathcal{M} A \rightarrow \mathcal{M} B$ of groups for every morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ in such a way that $\mathcal{M}\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{M} f+\mathcal{M} f^{\prime}$ (we are considering the pointwise addition on the right) and $\mathcal{M} 0=0$ (on the right, 0 is the constant map). The category $\operatorname{Mod}(\mathcal{R})$ is enriched in $\mathbf{A b}$ and can be shown to have enough structure to support usual computations in homological algebra: it is abelian and has enough projectives [22].

## Free modules

Suppose given a set $X_{A}$ for every object $A$ of $\mathcal{R}$. The free module generated by this family of sets, written $\mathcal{R} \underline{X}$, can be described as the functor which to every object $A$ associates the formal finite sums $\sum_{i} f_{i} \underline{x}_{i}$, with $x_{i} \in X_{A_{i}}$ and coefficients $f_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow A$, subject to the usual laws of left modules, e.g.

$$
g\left(\sum_{i} f_{i} \underline{x}_{i}\right)=\sum_{i}\left(g \circ f_{i}\right) \underline{x}_{i} \quad g \circ 0=0 \quad\left(\sum_{i} g_{i}\right)(\underline{f})=\sum_{i}\left(g_{i} \circ f\right) \underline{x} \quad 0(f \underline{x})=0
$$

Above, the "underline" notation is here only to make the distinction between the elements of $\mathcal{R}$ and those of $X$, and as customary we write $g(f \underline{x})$ instead of $((\mathcal{R} \underline{X}) g)(f \underline{x})$ for the left action.

## Tensor product of modules

The usual definition of the tensor product of modules can be generalized to modules over ringoids as follows. Given a right $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{M}: \mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ and a left $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{M}: \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$, their tensor product is the ringoid defined by the (enriched) coend $\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N}=\int^{A} \mathcal{M} A \otimes \mathcal{N} A$. This means that an element of $(\mathcal{M} \otimes \mathcal{N})(B)$ is a quotient of $\bigoplus_{A \in \mathcal{R}} \mathcal{M} A \otimes \mathcal{N} A$ by the relation identifying elements of the form $\left(f^{\circ \mathrm{p}} x\right) \otimes y$ and $x \otimes(f y)$, for any suitably typed morphism $f$ of $\mathcal{R}$.

### 3.2 The ringoid of bicontexts

The ringoid we will be mainly interested in is a quotient of $\mathbb{Z} \mathbb{C}$, the free ringoid over bicontexts. We begin by first defining a similar quotient on contexts.

- Definition 13. We define $\kappa_{i}: \mathbb{Z} \mathrm{P}_{1}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \mathcal{K}$ as the linear map which sends a term $t$ to the formal sum of occurrences of the variable $x_{i}$ in $t$. Formally, it is defined, for $j \neq i$ and $t=\left\langle t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right\rangle$, by

$$
\kappa_{i}\left(x_{i}\right)=\square \quad \kappa_{i}\left(x_{j}\right)=0 \quad \kappa_{i}(u \circ t)=\sum_{j \in \mathrm{FV}(u)}\left(\kappa_{j}(u) t\right)\left[\kappa_{i}\left(t_{j}\right)\right]
$$

On the right, the notations for contexts introduced in Section 2.1 are implicitly extended by linearity, e.g. $(C+D)[t]=C[t]+D[t], C[t+u]=C[t]+C[u]$, etc.

- Example 14. Consider the term $t=f\left(g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), x_{1}\right)$. We have

$$
\kappa_{1}(t)=f\left(g\left(\square, x_{2}\right), x_{1}\right)+f\left(g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), \square\right) \quad \kappa_{2}(t)=f\left(g\left(x_{1}, \square\right), x_{1}\right) \quad \kappa_{3}(t)=0
$$

We write $\overline{\mathbb{Z} \mathcal{K}}$ for the quotient of $\mathbb{Z} \mathcal{K}$ by the ideal generated by all elements of the form $\kappa_{i}(u)-\kappa_{i}(t)$ for a rule $R: t \Rightarrow u$ of arity $n$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$; we thus have a well-defined quotient morphism $\kappa_{i}: \mathbb{Z} \overline{\mathbf{P}_{1}^{*}} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{Z}}$. The ringoid of bicontexts $\overline{\mathbb{Z} \mathbb{C}}$ is defined as the quotient of the free ringoid $\mathbb{Z} \mathbb{K}$ by quotienting contexts as above and morphisms by the rewriting rules: we identify element $\sum_{i} n_{i}\left(C_{i}, u\right)$ to 0 whenever $\sum_{i} n_{i} C_{i}=0$ in $\overline{\mathbb{Z} \mathcal{K}}$, and $\sum_{i} n_{i}\left(C, u_{i}\right)$ to 0 whenever $\sum_{i} n_{i} u_{i}=0$ in $\mathbb{Z C}$.

- Example 15. Consider the rewriting system with operations and arities $a: 0, b: 0, f: 1$, $g: 2$, and two rules $A: a \Rightarrow b$ and $B: f\left(x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow g\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right)$. The quotient on contexts is generated by $g\left(\square, x_{1}\right)+g\left(x_{1}, \square\right)-f(\square)$.

In the rest of the paper, we write $\mathcal{R}=\overline{\mathbb{Z} \mathbb{K}}$ for the ringoid of bicontexts of $\mathcal{T}$, which will be where coefficients will be taken in. In a free module, of the form $\mathcal{R} \underline{X}$, the elements are sums of monomials of the form $(C, u) \underline{x}$ where $(C, u)$ is an equivalence class of bicontexts and $x \in X_{n}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In the following, we will adopt the notation $C \underline{x} u$ instead: this makes it clear that contexts $C \in \overline{\mathbb{Z}}_{n}$ are acting on the left and morphisms in $\mathcal{T}$ are acting on the right (since their composition is reversed in the composition of bicontexts). In fact, the definition of $\overline{\mathcal{R}}$ does not depend on the choice of the presentation P , but only on the presented theory $\mathcal{T}$. Since every Lawvere theory admits a presentation (Lemma 5), the notions developed here will apply to any theory.

- Lemma 16. Given two Tietze equivalent rewriting systems P and Q , the ringoids $\mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{P}}$ and $\mathcal{R}^{\mathrm{Q}}$ are isomorphic.


### 3.3 Resolutions for Lawvere algebraic theories

The trivial $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{Z}: \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ is the quotient of the free $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{R} \underline{X}$, with $X_{n}=\left\{\star_{n}\right\}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, quotiented by relations of the form $\sum_{i} \kappa_{i}(u) t \not t_{t}=\star_{n}$ for every term $u \circ t$ of arity $n$ (we write $\star$ instead of $\star_{1}$ ).

- Example 17. Given a signature with a binary operation $m$, since $m \circ \mathrm{id}_{2}=\mathrm{id} \circ\left\langle m\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right\rangle$, we have the following relation in $\mathcal{Z}: m\left(\square, x_{2}\right) \underline{\star}\left\langle x_{1}\right\rangle+m\left(x_{1}, \square\right) \underline{\star}\left\langle x_{2}\right\rangle=\underline{\star_{2}}=\underset{\star}{ } m\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$.

The general idea of a free resolution is to start with the trivial module $\mathcal{Z}$ and equip it with a sequence of free $\mathcal{R}$-modules $\mathcal{M}_{i}$ such that $\mathcal{M}_{0}$ contains the sorts of the theory (there is always only one in our setting), $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ the operations, $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ the relations, $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ the relations between relations, and so on:

- Definition 18. A free resolution $\mathcal{M}$ • of $\mathcal{Z}$ consists of a sequence

of free $\mathcal{R}$-modules $\mathcal{M}_{i}=\mathcal{R} X_{i}$ and $\mathcal{R}$-linear maps $\partial_{i}$ and $\varepsilon$ such that for any two successive arrows the image of the first is equal to the kernel of the second: $\operatorname{im} \partial_{i+1}=\operatorname{ker} \partial_{i}, \operatorname{im} \partial_{0}=\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon$ and $\operatorname{im} \varepsilon=\mathcal{Z}$. The resolution is partial when it is finite on the left.

Note that the relation $\operatorname{im} \varepsilon=\mathcal{Z}$ means that $\varepsilon$ is surjective and therefore $\mathcal{M}_{0}$ is free on at least one generator. Suppose that the theory contains an operation, for instance $m$ as in Example 17: the kernel of $\varepsilon$ will contain $m\left(\square, x_{2}\right) \underline{1}\left\langle x_{1}\right\rangle+m\left(x_{1}, \square\right) \underline{1}\left\langle x_{2}\right\rangle-\underline{1} m\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ as non-trivial element, and therefore $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ will need to contain a generator for $m$ in order for the relation $\operatorname{im} \partial_{0}=\operatorname{ker} \varepsilon$ to be satisfied. More generally, $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ should be free on a set of operations generating $\mathcal{T}$. For similar reasons, $\mathcal{M}_{2}$ should be free on a set of elements generating all the relations of $\mathcal{T}$, and $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ should be free on enough generators so that any two relations between the same (linearized) terms should be equal modulo them.

A major interest of free resolutions is that they can be shown to be essentially unique:

- Proposition 19. Any two free resolutions of $\mathcal{Z}$ are homotopy equivalent.

We do not detail further here the meaning of the above classical equivalence. Its main interest is that it will enable us to show that the definition of homology makes sense in next section (Proposition 21).

### 3.4 Homology of Lawvere algebraic theories

We are now in position to introduce the notion of homology of a Lawvere theory. The chain complex $\left(\mathcal{M}_{\bullet}, \partial_{\bullet}\right)$ of a resolution by $\mathcal{R}$-modules is acyclic, that is im $\partial_{i+1}=\operatorname{ker} \partial_{i}$ holds. We are going to tensor it by $\mathcal{Z}^{\text {op }}$, which means that we "erase" the coefficients in $\mathcal{R}$ everywhere, e.g. if $\mathcal{M}_{i}$ is free on the set $X_{i}\left(\right.$ i.e. $\mathcal{M}_{i}=\mathcal{R} X_{i}$ ) then we have $\mathcal{Z}^{\text {op }} \otimes \mathcal{M}_{i}=\mathbb{Z} X_{i}$. The resulting chain complex $\left(\mathcal{Z}^{\mathrm{op}} \otimes \mathcal{M}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, \tilde{\partial}_{\bullet}\right)$ still satisfies im $\tilde{\partial}_{i+1} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} \tilde{\partial}_{i}$, but the converse inclusion is not true anymore in general. It thus makes sense to consider the following homology groups:

- Definition 20. Suppose given a Lawvere theory $\mathcal{T}$ and a resolution of the associated trivial $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{Z}$ as in Definition 18. The homology $H_{\bullet}(\mathcal{T})$ of $\mathcal{T}$ (with coefficients in the trivial $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{Z}$ ) is the homology of the chain complex

$$
\ldots \xrightarrow{\tilde{\partial}_{2}} \mathcal{Z}^{\mathrm{op}} \otimes \mathcal{M}_{2} \xrightarrow{\tilde{\partial}_{1}} \mathcal{Z}^{\mathrm{op}} \otimes \mathcal{M}_{1} \xrightarrow{\tilde{\partial}_{0}} \mathcal{Z}^{\mathrm{op}} \otimes \mathcal{M}_{0}
$$

where $\tilde{\partial}_{i}=\mathcal{Z}^{\mathrm{op}} \otimes \partial_{i}$. More explicitly, the homology consists of a sequence $H_{\bullet}(\mathcal{T})$ of groups defined by $H_{i}(\mathcal{T})=\operatorname{ker} \tilde{\partial}_{i-1} / \operatorname{im} \tilde{\partial}_{i}$ where, by convention, $\tilde{\partial}_{-1}$ is the constant null map.

Proposition 19 ensures that it is well defined, because two homotopic chain complexes will give rise to the same homology:

- Proposition 21. The homology $H_{\bullet}(\mathcal{T})$ of a Lawvere theory $\mathcal{T}$ does not depend on the choice of the resolution.

Any theory can be shown to admit a resolution, called the standard resolution, by easily adapting usual constructions performed for monoids. More generally any partial resolution can be extended into a full one. We do not detail it here however, because it involves modules of infinite rank, and difficult to work with: in order to actually compute the homology of a theory, one should start with a resolution which is reasonably small. The purpose of next section is to construct such a (partial) resolution in the case where we start from a convergent presentation of the Lawvere theory.

### 3.5 A partial resolution for convergent Lawvere theories

In this section, we suppose that the Lawvere theory $\mathcal{T}$ we are considering is presented by a convergent reduced rewriting system P , and construct from it a partial free resolution of the trivial $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{Z}$. Writing $\mathrm{P}_{0}=\{1\}$ for the set with one element and $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ for the set of critical pairs of the rewriting system, the resolution we consider is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{R} \underline{\mathrm{P}_{3}} \xrightarrow{\partial_{2}} \mathcal{R} \underline{\mathrm{P}_{2}} \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}} \mathcal{R} \underline{\mathrm{P}_{1}} \xrightarrow{\partial_{0}} \mathcal{R} \underline{\mathrm{P}_{0}} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} \mathcal{Z} \longrightarrow 0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the maps are defined as follows, and will be illustrated in next section. The map $\varepsilon: \mathcal{R} \underline{P_{0}} \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}$ is the $\mathcal{R}$-linear map preserving the unit, i.e. such that $\varepsilon(\underline{1})=\underline{\star}$. More generally, because of relations defining $\mathcal{Z}$, we have $\varepsilon(C \underline{1} u)=\underline{\star_{n}}$. The map $\partial_{0}: \mathcal{R} \underline{P_{1}} \rightarrow \mathcal{R} \underline{P_{0}}$ is the $\mathcal{R}$-linear map such that for each operation $f \in \mathrm{P}_{1}$ of arity $n$, we have

$$
\partial_{0}(\underline{f})=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \kappa_{i}(f) \underline{1}\left\langle x_{i}\right\rangle\right)-\underline{1}\langle f\rangle
$$

The map $\partial_{1}: \mathcal{R} \underline{P}_{2} \rightarrow \mathcal{R} \underline{P}_{1}$ is the $\mathcal{R}$-linear map such that for each rule $R: t \Rightarrow u$ in $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ we have

$$
\partial_{1}(R)=\underline{u}-\underline{t}
$$

where the notation $\underline{t}$ generalizes the notation $\underline{f}$ for operations, and is defined inductively by

$$
\underline{u \circ t}=\underline{u} t+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\kappa_{i}(u) t\right)\left[\underline{t_{i}}\right] \quad \underline{\mathrm{id}}=0
$$

for $t=\left\langle t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right\rangle$. The map $\partial_{2}: \mathcal{R} \underline{P}_{3} \rightarrow \mathcal{R} \underline{P_{2}}$ is the $\mathcal{R}$-linear map such that the image of a critical pair ( $C_{1}\left[R_{1}\right] v_{1}, C_{2}\left[R_{2}\right] v_{2}$ ), with $C_{i}\left[R_{1}\right] v_{i}: t \longrightarrow u_{i}$, is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial_{2}\left(C_{1}\left[R_{1}\right] v_{1}, C_{2}\left[R_{2}\right] v_{2}\right)=C_{2} \underline{R_{2}} v_{2}-C_{1} \underline{R_{1}} v_{1}+\underline{S_{2}}-\underline{S_{1}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $S_{i}: u_{i} \xrightarrow{*} \hat{t}$ are a choice of rewriting paths from $u_{i}$ to $\hat{t}$, the normal form of $t$, see (2), which exist because the rewriting system is supposed to be convergent. Again, writing • for the concatenation of rewriting paths and Id for the empty one, the notation $\underline{T}$ is extended to rewriting paths by

$$
\underline{C[R]}=C \underline{R} v \quad \underline{T^{\prime} \cdot T}=\underline{T^{\prime}}+\underline{T} \quad \underline{\mathrm{Id}}=0
$$

The main result of this article is the following one:

- Theorem 22. The sequence (4) as defined above is a partial free resolution of the trivial $\mathcal{R}$-module $\mathcal{Z}$.

This theorem allows us to explicitly compute low-dimensional homology of a theory with a convergent presentation. Moreover, since the homology is independent of the choice of the presentation (Proposition 21), and any partial resolution can be extended into a full one (Section 3.4), it provides us with invariants for any presentation of $\mathcal{T}$. In particular, since $H_{1}(\mathcal{T})$ is defined as a quotient of $\mathbb{Z} \mathrm{P}_{1}$, and similarly for $H_{2}(\mathcal{T})$, we have

- Proposition 23. The rank of $H_{1}(\mathcal{T})$ (resp. $H_{2}(\mathcal{T})$ ) is a lower bound of the number of operations (resp. relations) in any presentation of $\mathcal{T}$.


### 3.6 An example

Let us illustrate the previous definitions on a simple example. Consider the term rewriting system with two generators $f$ and $g$ of arity 2 , three generators $a, b$ and $c$ of arity 0 and four rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A: f\left(a, x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow g\left(a, x_{1}\right) \quad A^{\prime}: \quad f\left(x_{1}, a\right) \Rightarrow g\left(x_{1}, a\right) \\
& B: f(b, b) \Rightarrow g(b, b) \quad C \quad: \quad f(c, c) \Rightarrow g(c, c)
\end{aligned}
$$

The rewriting system is locally confluent, the only critical pair being

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(a, a) \\
{[A]\langle a\rangle(\Phi)\left[A^{\prime}\right]\langle a\rangle} \\
g(a, a)
\end{gathered}
$$

It is also terminating, because all the rules decrease the number of occurrences of $f$ in terms, and thus convergent. Therefore we can construct a resolution (4), as described in Section 3.5. The boundary maps are given on operations by

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\partial_{0}(\underline{f})=f\left(\square, x_{2}\right) \underline{1}\left\langle x_{1}\right\rangle+f\left(x_{1}, \square\right) \underline{1}\left\langle x_{2}\right\rangle-\underline{1}\left\langle f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right\rangle & \partial_{0}(\underline{a})=-\underline{1}\langle a\rangle \\
\partial_{0}(\underline{g})=g\left(\square, x_{2}\right) \underline{1}\left\langle x_{1}\right\rangle+g\left(x_{1}, \square\right) \underline{1}\left\langle x_{2}\right\rangle-\underline{1}\left\langle g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right\rangle & \partial_{0}(\underline{b})=-\underline{1}\langle b\rangle \\
& \partial_{0}(\underline{c})=-\underline{1}\langle c\rangle
\end{array}
$$

on relations by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial_{1}(\underline{A}) & =\underline{g}\left\langle a, x_{1}\right\rangle+g\left(\square, x_{1}\right) \underline{a}-\underline{f}\left\langle a, x_{1}\right\rangle-f\left(\square, x_{1}\right) \underline{a} \\
\partial_{1}\left(\underline{A^{\prime}}\right) & =\underline{g}\left\langle x_{1}, a\right\rangle+g\left(x_{1}, \square\right) \underline{a}-\underline{f}\left\langle x_{1}, a\right\rangle-f\left(x_{1}, \square\right) \underline{a} \\
\partial_{1}(\underline{B}) & =\underline{g}\langle b, b\rangle+g(\square, b) \underline{b}+g(b, \square) \underline{b}-\underline{f}\langle b, b\rangle-f(\square, b) \underline{b}-f(b, \square) \underline{b} \\
\partial_{1}(\underline{C}) & =\underline{g}\langle c, c\rangle+g(\square, c) \underline{c}+g(c, \square) \underline{c}-\underline{f}\langle c, c\rangle-f(\square, c) \underline{c}-f(c, \square) \underline{c}
\end{aligned}
$$

and on critical pairs by

$$
\partial_{2}(\underline{\Phi})=\underline{A^{\prime}}\langle a\rangle-\underline{A}\langle a\rangle
$$

The homology is the one of the chain complex obtained by tensoring with $\mathcal{Z}^{\text {op }}$, which amounts to "erase contexts", i.e. all symbols which are not elements of $\mathbb{Z}$ or underlined:

above, $\mathbb{Z} \underline{X}$ denotes the free abelian group (or equivalently $\mathbb{Z}$-module) on a set $X$ and the linear maps are defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \tilde{\partial}_{0}(\underline{f})=\tilde{\partial}_{0}(\underline{g})=\tilde{\partial}_{0}(\underline{a})=\tilde{\partial}_{0}(\underline{b})=\tilde{\partial}_{0}(\underline{c})=0 \\
& \tilde{\partial}_{1}(\underline{A})=\tilde{\partial}_{1}\left(\underline{A}^{\prime}\right)=\tilde{\partial}_{1}(\underline{B})=\tilde{\partial}_{1}(\underline{C})=\underline{g}-\underline{f} \\
& \tilde{\partial}_{2}(\underline{\underline{I}})=\underline{A^{\prime}}-\underline{A}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore the homology groups are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{0}=\mathbb{Z} \underline{11} /(\underline{1})=0 \\
& H_{1}=\mathbb{Z}\{f, g, a, b, c\} \\
& \\
& H_{2}\left.=\mathbb{Z} \underline{g}-\underline{f})=\mathbb{Z}^{4}-A, B-A, C-A\right\} \\
& \hline\left(\underline{A^{\prime}}-\underline{A}\right)=\mathbb{Z}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

The homology groups are of the form $\mathbb{Z}^{r_{i}}$ and their rank is $r_{i}$. From $r_{1}=4$, we deduce that any presentation of the theory will have at least four generating operations, and from $r_{2}=2$ that any presentation has at least two relations: it is thus not one-based.

## 4 Coherent presentations

A resolution of a Lawvere theory is obtained by an "abelianization" process: in $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ we only recall which operations in which context are used, but not the order they are used in, similarly for the rules in $\mathcal{M}_{2}$, etc. This suggests extending the notion of presentation, so that the module $\mathcal{M}_{3}$ is the abelianization of something too, as we briefly mention.

- Definition 24. An extended rewriting system consists of a rewriting system P together with a set $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ of homotopy generators and two functions $\sigma_{2}, \tau_{2}: \mathrm{P}_{3} \rightarrow \mathrm{P}_{2}^{\top}$ :

where $P_{0}=\{1\}$, thus $P_{0}^{*}=\mathbb{N}$ as before, and $P_{2}^{\top}$ is the set of 2-cells of the cartesian (2,1)-category freely generated by adding the elements of $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ as invertible 2-cells to the free cartesian category $P_{1}^{*}$. It is coherent when any 2 -cells with same source and target are related by the smallest congruence generated by $\mathrm{P}_{3}$.

Intuitively, in a coherent rewriting system the set $P_{3}$ is big enough to relate two possible rewriting paths (or zig-zags) between the same terms. Newman's lemma thus reformulate as follows in this context:

- Lemma 25. Given a convergent rewriting system P , its extension obtained by taking the set of confluence diagrams induced by critical pairs as $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ is coherent.

Finally, the abelianization process mentioned above can be formulated as follows:

- Proposition 26. To any coherent presentation P one can associate a partial free resolution with $\mathcal{R} P_{i}$ as modules, for $0 \leq i \leq 3$, as in (4).

Notice that by Lemma 25, we recover the construction of Section 3.5 as a particular case. Also, it can be noticed that all the constructions we have been performing are compatible with the laws induced by the cartesian structure on cells (the definitions have in fact been chosen so that this is true).

- Example 27. Consider the theory $\mathcal{T}$ presented by the following term rewriting system

$$
\mathrm{P}=\left\langle d: 2, t: 0, f: 0 \quad \mid \quad T: d\left(t, x_{1}\right) \Rightarrow t, \quad T^{\prime}: d\left(x_{1}, t\right) \Rightarrow t, \quad F: d(f, f) \Rightarrow f\right\rangle
$$

corresponding to the famous parallel implementation of the disjunction, sometimes called por ( $d$ stands for disjunction, $t$ for true and $f$ for false), which was used by Melliès as a central example for standardization [21] (incidentally, this paper notices the similarity with algebraic topology...). There is one confluent critical pair $d(t, t) \overbrace{\left[T^{\prime}\right]\langle t\rangle}^{[T]\langle t\rangle} t$ and thus the
presentation can be extended into a coherent one by setting $P_{3}=\{\Theta\}$ with expected source and target. By Proposition 26, we recover the resolution of Section 3.5, and one can easily compute the associated homology: we have $H_{0}(\mathcal{T})=0, H_{1}(\mathcal{T})=\mathbb{Z}$ and $H_{2}(\mathcal{T})=0$.

The above definition of extended rewriting systems constitutes a generalization of polygraphs to Lawvere theories, using which one can show an analogous of Squier's homotopical theorem [29], which implies the homological one. Burroni's original paper on polygraphs shows that those theories can be described by polygraphs by considering explicitly the cartesian structure (duplications and erasures of variables) [4]. By contrast, this structure is implicit in this work, thus giving rise to much smaller and manipulable rewriting systems. It would be interesting to compare the two resulting homologies though. Also, as in the case of polygraphs, the formulation of Definition 24 should make it clear that this definition can be generalized in any dimension. Finally, we should mention that in the case of presentations of monoids, Tietze transformations and completion procedures can be generalized to coherent presentations [5]; we expect that similar constructions can be performed in the setting developed in this paper.

## 5 Extensions and future work

In conclusion, we would like to mention some other possible generalizations of this work, which we plan to investigate and detail in future work. For instance, the generalization to term rewriting systems with multiple sorts is easy (it roughly consists in allowing $\mathrm{P}_{0}$ to contain multiple elements and use $P_{0}^{*}$ instead of $\mathbb{N}$ for the objects of our ringoids).

One should be able to continue the resolution in higher dimension, as done for monoids [11], by using critical $n$-uples for $\mathrm{P}_{n+1}$. In particular, the next dimension of the resolution can easily be done and allows to compute $H_{3}(\mathcal{T})$ for a theory $\mathcal{T}$, whose rank provides a lower bound on the number of critical pairs of any convergent presentation of $\mathcal{T}$. Consider the rewriting system with generators $i, h$ and $k$ of arity one, generators $a$ and $f$ of arity two, and three rules
$h\left(a\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right) \Rightarrow a\left(f\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right), x_{2}\right) \quad k\left(a\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right) \Rightarrow a\left(f\left(x_{1}, x_{1}\right), x_{2}\right) \quad a\left(f\left(i\left(x_{1}\right), i\left(x_{1}\right)\right), x_{2}\right) \Rightarrow a\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$
One can compute that $H_{3}(\mathcal{T})$ is not finitely generated, showing that it cannot be presented by a finite convergent rewriting system (since any such would have a finite number of critical pairs), even though this theory $\mathcal{T}$ has a decidable equality. This generalizes to terms rewriting systems Squier's example for monoids [28].

Computations are quite time-consuming: we plan on implementing those to be able to study more full-fledged examples. Also, many natural examples (e.g. lattices) contain commutative operations, for which there is no hope of obtaining a terminating rewriting system, which suggests that we should investigate a generalization of the construction for rewriting modulo.

Finally, homological invariants are quite rough, in the sense that they do not provide interesting information about some interesting rewriting systems. In order to handle those, we believe that investigating properties of homotopical nature would provide much more precise insights.

[^0]2 Michael Barr. Cartan-Eilenberg cohomology and triples. Journal of Pure and Applied Algebra, 112(3):219-238, 1996.
3 Jonathan Mock Beck. Triples, algebras and cohomology. PhD thesis, Columbia Univ, 1967.
4 Albert Burroni. Higher-dimensional word problems with applications to equational logic. Theoretical computer science, 115(1):43-62, 1993.
5 Yves Guiraud, Philippe Malbos, and Samuel Mimram. A homotopical completion procedure with applications to coherence of monoids. In RTA, volume 21, pages 223-238. Dagstuhl, 2013.

6 Allen Hatcher. Algebraic Topology. Cambridge University Press, 2002.
7 Graham Higman and B. H. Neumann. Groups as groupoids with one law. Publicationes Mathematicae Debrecen, 2(215-227):228, 1952.
8 Mamuka Jibladze and Teimuraz Pirashvili. Cohomology of algebraic theories. Journal of Algebra, 137(2):253-296, 1991.
9 Mamuka Jibladze and Teimuraz Pirashvili. Quillen cohomology and Baues-Wirsching cohomology of algebraic theories. Cahiers de top. et géom. diff. cat., 47(3):163-205, 2006.
10 Donald E Knuth and Peter B Bendix. Simple word problems in universal algebras. In Automation of Reasoning, pages 342-376. Springer, 1983.
11 Yuji Kobayashi. Complete rewriting systems and homology of monoid algebras. Journal of Pure and Applied Algebra, 65(3):263-275, 1990.
12 Yves Lafont and Alain Prouté. Church-rooser property and homology of monoids. Mathematical Structures in Computer Science, 1(03):297-326, 1991.
13 F William Lawvere. Functorial semantics of algebraic theories. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 50(5):869, 1963.
14 Jean-Louis Loday and Bruno Vallette. Algebraic operads, volume 346 of Grundlehren der Mathematischen Wissenschaften. Springer, Heidelberg, 2012.
15 Saunders Mac Lane. Homology. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1995.
16 Philippe Malbos. Critères de finitude homologique pour la non convergence des systèmes de réécriture de termes. PhD thesis, Université de Montpellier II, 2004.
17 William Mccune et al. Single Axioms: With and Without Computers. In Computer Mathematics: Proceedings of the Fourth Asian Symposium (ASCM 2000), page 83. World Scientific, 2000.
18 William McCune, Ranganathan Padmanabhan, and Robert Veroff. Yet another single law for lattices. Algebra Universalis, 50(2):165-169, 2003.
19 William McCune, Robert Veroff, Branden Fitelson, Kenneth Harris, Andrew Feist, and Larry Wos. Short single axioms for Boolean algebra. Journal of Automated Reasoning, 29(1):1-16, 2002.
20 Ralph McKenzie. Equational Bases for Lattice Theories. Math. Scandinavica, 27:24-38, 1970.

21 Paul-André Melliès. Axiomatic rewriting theory VI: Residual theory revisited. In Rewriting techniques and applications, pages 24-50. Springer, 2002.
22 Barry Mitchell. Rings with several objects. Advances in Mathematics, 8(1):1-161, 1972.
23 B. H. Neumann et al. Yet another single law for groups. Illinois Journal of Mathematics, 30(2):295-300, 1986.
24 Bernhard Hermann Neumann. Another single law for groups. Bulletin of the Australian Mathematical Society, 23(01):81-102, 1981.
25 Maxwell Herman Alexander Newman. On theories with a combinatorial definition of "equivalence". Annals of mathematics, pages 223-243, 1942.
26 R Padmanabhan and RW Quackenbush. Equational theories of algebras with distributive congruences. Proceedings of the American Mathematical Society, 41(2):373-377, 1973.
27 DH Potts. Axioms for semi-lattices. Canad. Math Bulletin, 8:519, 1965.

28 Craig Squier and Friedrich Otto. The word problem for finitely presented monoids and finite canonical rewriting systems. In Rewriting Techniques and Applications, pages 74-82. Springer, 1987.
29 Craig C Squier, Friedrich Otto, and Yuji Kobayashi. A finiteness condition for rewriting systems. Theoretical Computer Science, 131(2):271-294, 1994.
30 Alfred Tarski. Ein Beitrag zur Axiomatik der Abelschen Gruppen. Fundamenta Mathematicae, 1(30):253-256, 1938.
31 Heinrich Tietze. Über die topologischen Invarianten mehrdimensionaler Mannigfaltigkeiten. Monatsh. Math. Phys., 19(1):1-118, 1908.


[^0]:    1 Jiří Adámek and Jiří Rosicky. Locally presentable and accessible categories, volume 189. Cambridge University Press, 1994.

