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Drags: A Simple Algebraic Framework For Graph Rewriting

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We are interested here in a natural generalization of term rewriting techniques to what we call *drags*, viz. finite, directed, ordered multigraphs. Each vertex is labeled by a function symbol, the arity of which governs the number of vertices to which it relates by an incoming edge in the graph. To this end, we develop a rich algebra of drags which generalizes the familiar term algebra and its associated rewriting capabilities. Viewing graphs as terms provides an initial building block for rewriting with such graphs, that should impact the many areas where computations take place on graphs.

1 Introduction

Rewriting with graphs has a long history in computer science, graphs being used to represent data structures, but also program structures, and even computational models. Since graphs originated from topological investigations, it is therefore no wonder to see them also play an important role in modern algebraic topology, more specifically in the theory of operads [4]. Our interest in graphs originated from the latter theory which has strong relationships with various areas of computer science, including concurrency theory and type theory.

Rewriting graphs is very similar to rewriting terms of an algebra, the same questions occur: What rewriting relation do we use? Is there an efficient pattern matching algorithm? Is rewriting terminating? Is it confluent?

The above questions have therefore been addressed by the rewriting community since the mid-eighties. Termination and confluence techniques have been elaborated for various generalization of trees, such as rational trees, directed acyclic graphs, lambda-terms and lambda-graphs. But the design of a convenient mathematical framework for rewriting arbitrary graphs has made little progress beyond various categorical definitions and the study of the particular cases we just mentioned.

This paper describes the design of a general class of graphs –actually, multigraphs– that has good structural properties with respect to graph rewriting. In particular, graphs in this class can be naturally equipped with a natural, simple algebraic structure that allows to see them as terms with sharing, and therefore to mimic many techniques developed for trees in the past.

Despite being purely theoretical, the framework developed here should lead to easy implementations: the view of a drag as a term with sharing is extremely easy to implement, and therefore to convert many existing term rewriting implementations to actually do graph rewriting.

The particular class of graphs we are interested in is introduced in Section 2. The algebra of drag is described in Section 3, and the view of drags as terms in Section 4. Drag rewriting is introduced in Section 5.

2 Finite, directed, labeled multigraphs

The class of graphs with which we deal here is that consisting of finite directed multi-rooted graphs with labeled vertices and allowing multiple edges between vertices. In the present work, we assume that the outgoing neighbors (vertices at the other end of outgoing edges) are ordered (from left to right, say) and that their number is fixed, depending solely on the label of the vertex: we presuppose a set of function symbols Σ , whose elements $f \in \Sigma$ used as labels are equipped with a fixed arity (we have no associative-commutative symbols here), and a denumerable set of variable symbols Ξ disjoint from Σ , whose arity is 0.

We shall call these finite *directed rooted labelled graphs*, *drags*.

The successors of a vertex labeled f in a drag are implicitly interpreted as the arguments of the function symbol f . The graph describes therefore the inverse of the computational flow. Some might prefer the converse choice. This class of graphs appears to be a very general model to describe computations in the absence of binding constructs.

To lessen notational burden, we use the vertical bars $|\cdot|$ to denote various quantities, such as length of lists, size of sets or of expressions, and even the arity of function symbols. We use \emptyset for an empty list, set or multiset, \cup for list concatenation as well as set and multiset union, \setminus for list, set or multiset difference, and identify a singleton list, set or multiset with its content.

In contrast with the standard categorical approach [6, 5], our multi-graph model is very standard. The novelty, however, is that we allow for arbitrarily many roots and and arbitrarily complex cycles.

Definition 1 (Drag). *A (closed) drag is a tuple $\langle V, R, L, X \rangle$, where V is the finite set of vertices; R is a finite list of vertices, called roots, such that $R(n)$ is the n th root in the list; $L : V \rightarrow \Sigma$ is the labeling function, mapping vertices to labels from some vocabulary Σ ; and $X : V \rightarrow V^*$ is the successor function, mapping each vertex $v \in V$ to a list of vertices in V whose length equals the appropriate arity $|L(v)|$. Given $b \in X(a)$, then (a, b) is an edge with source a and target b . We also write aXb . The reflexive transitive closure X^* of the relation X is called accessibility. A vertex v is said to be accessible if rX^*v for some root r . A drag is clean if all its vertices are accessible. A root r is maximal if $\forall r' \in R. r'X^*r$ implies rX^*r' .*

Labelings extend to lists, sets and multisets of vertices as expected.

Definition 2 (Open drag). *An open drag is a drag over the set $\Sigma \cup \Xi$, where Ξ is a set of variables. The vertices labeled by a function symbol in Σ are internal; those labeled by a variable are called sprouts. When non-empty, the set S of sprouts will be added at the end of the tuple which becomes $\langle V, R, L, X, S \rangle$. An open drag is linear if different sprouts have different labels. It is cyclic if $R \cap S = \emptyset$ and $\forall v \in V \setminus S. \exists r \in R. vX^*r$.*

The component R is a list with repetitions, whereas S is a set. Allowing for repeated roots is needed for rewriting. Sprouts may be roots. Cleanness relates to garbage collection, discussed further in Section 5. It will sometimes be convenient to consider roots as specific incoming edges and to identify a sprout with its label.

A cyclic drag may consist of a single internal vertex being a root. Although this may seem odd to call such a drag cyclic, this is an essential ingredient here which allows to see a tree as a particular drag. For example, the ground term a and the term $f(x)$ are cyclic drags, while the terms $f(a)$ and $f(f(x))$ are not. Terms, sequences of terms and terms with sharing are particular drags. Nonlinear drags play an essential rôle for sharing and unsharing subterms in terms.

Given a drag D , we use the following notations: $\mathcal{V}er(D)$ for its set of vertices; X_D for its successor function; $\mathcal{A}cc(D)$ for its set of accessible vertices; $\mathcal{R}(D)$ for its set of roots; $\mathcal{R}(D)_{max}$ for the subset of

maximal roots; $\mathcal{S}(D)$ for its set of sprouts; $\mathcal{V}ar(D)$ for the set of variables labeling its sprouts; $D_{\bar{s}}$ to indicate its roots and sprouts; and $D\downarrow$ for the clean drag obtained by removing its inaccessible vertices and related edges. Given finally L, V which are respectively a list and a set of vertices of some drag D , we denote by $L \setminus V$, the sublist of L obtained by filtering out the vertices belonging to V .

2.1 Subdrags

Definition 3 (Subdrag). *Given a drag $U = \langle V, R, L, X, S \rangle$, and a subset W of its vertices, the subdrag $U|_W$ of U generated by W is the drag $\langle V', R', L', X', S' \rangle$ where*

- (i) V' is the least superset of W that is closed under X ;
- (ii) L', X', S' are the restrictions of L, X, S to V' ;
- (iii) R' is $(R \cap V') \cup (X(V \setminus V') \cap V')$.

A subdrag is clean by construction. Its roots are obtained by adding as new roots those vertices which have an incoming edge in U that is not in $U|_W$. The order of elements in this additional list does not really matter for now.

In particular, restricting a drag D to its maximal roots, yields $D\downarrow$. On the other hand, restricting any drag to an empty set of vertices, yields the empty drag $\emptyset \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 1_{\emptyset} = (\emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset)$.

2.2 Drag Isomorphisms

Drags are graphs. An isomorphism between two open drags is a one-to-one mapping between their respective sets of (accessible) vertices that identifies their respective labels (up to renaming of the sprouts' labels done here by the very same mapping) and lists of roots, and commutes with their respective successor functions. It is sometimes useful to consider multisets instead of lists of roots, resulting in a coarser equivalence on drags:

Definition 4 (Drag isomorphism). *Given two open drags $D = \langle V, R, L, X, S \rangle$ and $D' = \langle V', R', L', X', S' \rangle$ whose sprouts are identified with their labels, an isomorphism from D to D' is a one-to-one mapping $\circ : \mathcal{A}cc(V) \mapsto \mathcal{A}cc(V')$ such that*

- (i) \circ restricts to bijections between the lists of roots and sets of accessible sprouts;
- (ii) $\forall v \in \mathcal{A}cc(V) \setminus S. L(v) = L'(\circ(v))$ and $X(v) = X'(\circ(v))$;

We write $D =_{\circ} D'$, or simply $D = D'$ when D and D' are isomorphic drags. We write $D \simeq_{\circ} D'$, or simply $D \simeq D'$, and say that D, D' are quasi-isomorphic if \circ restricts to a bijection between the multisets (instead of lists) of roots. We write $D \equiv D'$ and $D \cong D'$ instead of $D = D'$ and $D \simeq D'$ in case \circ is the identity.

Note that inaccessible vertices are ignored, making any drag D isomorphic (with \equiv) to $D\downarrow$. Identifying the sprouts with the variables that label them saves an additional one-to-one mapping between the variables that would otherwise become necessary.

Example 5. *Our running example is made of seven single-rooted drags represented in Figure 1.*

The pictorial representation does not tell us precisely which argument of a function symbol comes first. In our convention, the leftmost one in the figure comes first. Another convention tells us the order of arguments, by sweeping the plane counterclockwise from the first. Finally, an incoming down-arrow indicates a root.

Ariola and Klop's wording [1], horizontal/vertical sharing, is intuitive. Let $\Sigma = \{a, b, f, g, h\}$ with $|f| = 3$, $|h| = 2$, $|g| = 1$, $|a| = |b| = 0$. We first consider the term $f(g(b), a, g(b))$ in which b and $g(b)$ can

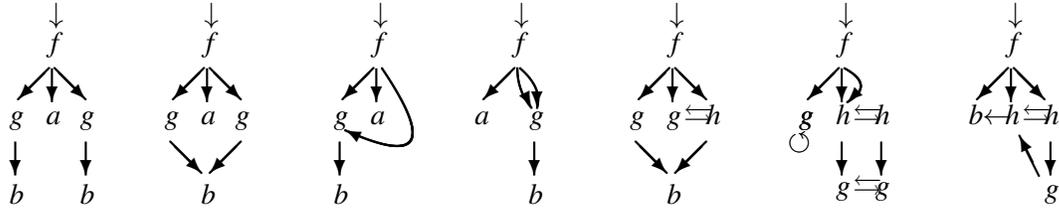


Figure 1: Seven non-isomorphic drags whose vertices are identified with the extremities of their edges.

be shared. Among all possible cases, three are represented. The 5th has both horizontal and vertical sharing. The 6th has three cycles: an independent leftmost loop and a horizontal cycle sharing another horizontal cycle below. The last has a single big cycle, which is both horizontal and vertical including an inside cycle.

3 Drag algebra

We equip drags with a composition operator, which, given two drags, connects the sprouts of each drag with the roots of the other. As usual, we denote by $\mathcal{D}om(\xi)$ and $\mathcal{I}m(\xi)$ the *domain (of definition)* and *image* of a (partial) function ξ , using $\xi_{A \rightarrow B}$ for its restriction going from subset A of its domain to subset B of its image, omitting $\rightarrow B$ when irrelevant. Both are sets. hence $\mathcal{I}m(\xi)$ may differ from $\xi(R)$, which is a list with possibly repetitions when R is a list itself. First, comes the connection device:

Definition 6 (Switchboard). *Let $D = \langle V, R, L, X, S \rangle$ and $D' = \langle V', R', L', X', S' \rangle$ be open drags. A switchboard ξ for (D, D') is a pair $\langle \xi_D : S \rightarrow [1..|R'|], \xi_{D'} : S' \rightarrow [1..|R|] \rangle$ of partial injective functions (we also say that (D', ξ) is an extension of D), such that*

(i) $\forall s, t \in S. s \in \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D)$ and $L(s) = L(t)$ imply $t \in \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D)$ and $D|_{R'(\xi_D(s))} \simeq D|_{R'(\xi_D(t))}$;

(ii) $\forall s, t \in S'. s \in \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'})$ and $L'(s) = L'(t)$ imply $t \in \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'})$ and $D'|_{R(\xi_{D'}(s))} \simeq D'|_{R(\xi_{D'}(t))}$.

Conditions (i,ii) are always satisfied for linear drags, or for nonlinear drags whose switchboard, called *linear*, is defined for sprouts whose variables are all different. When this is not the case, checking that a particular ξ is a switchboard involves graph isomorphism, which is polynomial in our case, since we have ordained fixed arities. (Were one to allow variadic vertices, isomorphism would be quasi-polynomial [2].) A simple effective approximation here is to require instead that $R'(\xi_D(s)) = R'(\xi_D(t))$ for (i) and similarly $R(\xi_{D'}(s)) = R(\xi_{D'}(t))$ for (ii). This approximation is not expressive enough for the case of trees, but turns out to fit shared trees, for which isomorphism is computable in linear time. In the sequel, we assume this latter condition for simplicity.

In practice, we shall usually enforce $\mathcal{V}ar(D) \cap \mathcal{V}ar(D') = \emptyset$ so as to avoid confusion, but this is by no means necessary since switchboards are pairs of mappings operating on $\mathcal{V}ar(D)$ and $\mathcal{V}ar(D')$ independently, not a single mapping operating on $\mathcal{V}ar(D) \cup \mathcal{V}ar(D')$. Further, splitting ξ makes the definition clearly symmetric.

We shall often restrict switchboards to subdrags, denoting by $\xi_{A \rightarrow B}$, the restriction of ξ_D going from the subdrag A of D to the subdrag B of D' , using ξ_A when $B = D'$.

Note finally that injectivity of ξ and the fact that roots are lists with repetitions go along together. One could think of using sets for roots, in which case ξ would not be injective. This alternative, however, does not fit well with rewriting, for which it will be essential to control precisely both the number and order of roots of left- and right-hand sides of rules. Further, injectivity implies that the list $\xi_D \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D)$ is indeed a set, hence making the set difference $[1..|R'|] \setminus \xi_D(\mathcal{D}om(\xi_D))$ well defined.

Two particular kinds of switchboards play an important rôle:

Definition 7 (Categorization). *A switchboard ξ for (D, D') is*

- *directed if one of ξ_D and $\xi_{D'}$ has an empty domain; the pair $(D', \xi_{D'})$ is called a context extension of D if $\mathcal{D}om(\xi_D) = \emptyset$, and a substitution extension of D if $\mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'}) = \emptyset$;*
- *a rewriting switchboard if $\xi_{D'}$ is linear and surjective and ξ_D is total; the pair (D', ξ) is called a rewriting extension of D .*

Directed switchboards correspond to the tree case, with all connections from one drag to the other. Rewriting switchboards allow one to “encompass” drag D' in drag D .

Note that context extensions and substitution extensions exchange each other by symmetry of the definition of a switchboard.

A switchboard induces a binary operation on open drags:

Definition 8 (Composition). *Let $D = \langle V, R, L, X, S \rangle$ and $D' = \langle V', R', L', X', S' \rangle$ be open drags, and ξ be a switchboard for (D, D') such that $(V \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D)) \cap (V' \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'})) = \emptyset$. Their composition is the drag $D \otimes_{\xi} D' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle V'', R'', L'', X'', S'' \rangle$, where*

- (1) $V'' = (V \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D)) \cup (V' \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'}))$;
- (2) $R'' = R([1..|R|] \setminus \xi_{D'}(S')) \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D) \cup R'([1..|R'|] \setminus \xi_D(S)) \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'}) \cup R(\xi_{D'}(S' \cap (R' \setminus R(\xi_D(S)))) \cup R'(\xi_D(S \cap (R \setminus R(\xi_{D'}(S')))))$;
- (3) $L''(v \in V \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D)) = L(v)$ and $L''(v \in V' \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'})) = L'(v)$;
- (4a) $X''(v \in V \setminus S) = \text{if } X(v) \notin \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D) \text{ then } X(v); \text{ otherwise } R(\xi_D(v))$;
- (4b) $X''(v' \in V' \setminus S') = \text{if } X'(v') \notin \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'}) \text{ then } X'(v'); \text{ otherwise } R'(\xi_{D'}(v'))$;
- (5) $S'' = (S \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_D)) \cup (S' \setminus \mathcal{D}om(\xi_{D'}))$.

The essence of this definition is that the (disjoint) union of the two drags is formed, but with sprouts in the domain of the switchboards merged with the vertices referred to in the switchboard images. This necessitates renaming (via ξ) the targets of edges that had pointed to the sprouts. The only complication is the calculation of the list of roots R'' of the resulting drag D'' . This list is made of two sublists for each component drag, we describe them for D :

1. the remaining roots of D : they are obtained by removing from R the roots which are in the image of $\xi_{D'}$ (note that we remove the root indices from their set before to apply R), before to eliminate all those sprouts belonging to the domain of ξ_D which are also roots.
2. the vertices of D belonging to the image by $\xi_{D'}$ of a sprout of D which was a root in D' : vertices inherit the root status from the sprouts with which they are merged. Of course, one needs to worry about the case where multiple sprouts are merged successively, when the switchboards map sprout to rooted-sprout to rooted-sprout, possibly in a cycle. In such cases, all need to be renamed to the same one, while accumulating the root statuses.

Note that if ξ is a rewriting switchboard, then *all* roots and sprouts of D' disappear in the composed drag. Otherwise, the symmetry of the definition is broken by choosing the roots originating from D to come first.

It is easy to see that $D \otimes_{\xi} D'$ is a well-defined drag, that is, it satisfies the arity constraint required at each vertex.

Example 9. *We show in Figure 2 three examples of compositions, the first two with similar drags. The first composition uses a directed switchboard, while the second uses a rewriting switchboard which induces a cycle. Variables x, y label the sprouts. In the second example, the remaining root is the first (red) root of the first drag which has two roots, the first red, the other black. The third shows how sprouts which are also roots connect to roots in the composition.*

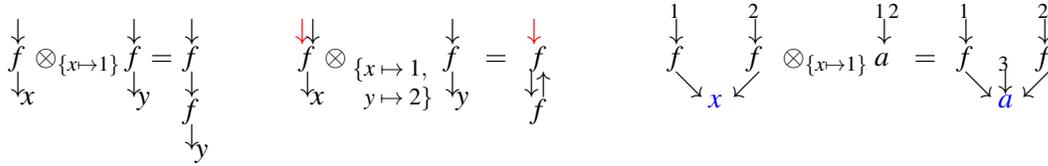


Figure 2: Unidirectional, cyclic and root-transfer compositions.

Our definition of switchboard being (almost) symmetric, composition is itself symmetric provided all roots of the resulting drag originate from the same side. Otherwise, composition yields drags that are equal up to a cyclic permutation of their roots.

Lemma 10 (Commutativity). *Composition of drags is quasi-commutative, and becomes commutative for switchboards whose context or substitution is surjective, e.g. rewriting switchboards.*

Commutativity shows that there is no big difference between the context and the substitution of a switchboard in a composition $D \otimes_{\xi} D'$, since they simply exchange each other when exchanging the input drags of the composition.

Let us call *identity* a linear open drag whose all vertices are its sprouts and set of edges is empty. We denote it by 1_Z^Y , where $Y \subseteq Z^*$ is its list of roots. We use \emptyset for the drag $1_{\emptyset}^{\emptyset}$, which is isomorphic to $1_{\emptyset}^{\emptyset}$, and is called the empty drag for that reason.

Lemma 11 (Neutral). *Let D be an open drag, $X \subseteq \mathcal{V}ar(D)$, and ι the directed identity switchboard for $(D, 1_X^X)$. Then $D \otimes_{\iota} 1_X^X = D$.*

In particular, this property holds when $X = \emptyset$.

Definition 12 (Compatibility). *Two switchboards ξ and ζ for the respective pairs of drags (U, V) and (V, W) are compatible if (i) $\mathcal{D}om(\xi_V) \cap \mathcal{D}om(\zeta_V) = \emptyset$ and (ii) $\mathcal{I}m(\xi_U) \cap \mathcal{I}m(\zeta_W) = \emptyset$.*

Lemma 13 (Associativity). *Let U, V, W be three drags, and ξ, ζ be compatible switchboards for (U, V) and (V, W) respectively. Then, $(U \otimes_{\xi} V) \otimes_{\zeta} W = U \otimes_{\xi} (V \otimes_{\zeta} W)$.*

Proof. Compatibility ensures that ξ and ζ are switchboards for $(U, V \otimes_{\zeta} W)$ and $(U \otimes_{\xi} V, W)$, by eliminating the possibility that a sprout or root is used twice. Both sides of the associativity equation are thus defined. The equality itself results from easy checking. \square

4 Drags decomposition

Next, we investigate ways of decomposing a drag. We first give a general construction which splits a drag into the subdrag generated by some of its vertices, and the rest of the drag, its *antecedent*.

Lemma 14. *Given a drag D and a subset of vertices $W \subseteq V$, there exists a linear drag A , called antecedent, and a total, surjective, and directed switchboard ζ such that $D = A \otimes_{\zeta} D|_W$.*

The fact that the switchboard ξ is directed expresses the property that decomposing a drag into a subdrag and its antecedent does not break any of its cycles. Note that ξ induces an order on the roots of the subdrag which are not roots of the whole drag. If $W = V$, then (A, ξ) must be the identity extension 1_X^X with $|X| = |\mathcal{R}(D)|$.

A tree headed by the symbol f of arity n has one root labeled by f , or equivalently a head corresponding to the expression $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, and several subtrees, seen here as a single drag with several

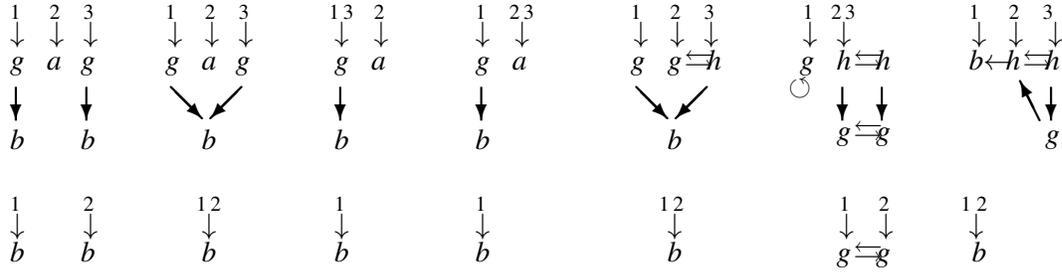


Figure 3: Successive subdrags of the drags of Figure 1

roots. This unique decomposition is a fundamental property of trees which expresses the fact that the set of trees equipped with the “head-operations” has an initial algebra structure.

Likewise, a drag has a head, which is intended to be the largest cycle containing the maximal roots of the drag – also the smallest nontrivial antecedent of the drag – and one tail, possibly a list of several connected components. The cycle may be of zero length in order to have trees as a particular case. As for trees, the head will have a list of new sprouts which are in one-to-one correspondence with the roots of the subdrag. A drag can therefore be seen as a bipartite graph made of its head, its tail, and a directed switchboard specifying that correspondence.

Definition 15. *The tail ∇D of a drag $D = \langle V, R, L, X, S \rangle$ is the subdrag generated by the set of vertices $V \setminus \{v \in V : vX^* \mathcal{R}(D)_{max}\}$.*

As an application of Lemma 14, we get:

Lemma 16. *Given a drag D , there exists a linear drag \widehat{D} , called head of D , and a directed switchboard ξ such that $D = \widehat{D} \otimes_{\xi} \nabla D$.*

The head of a drag is therefore the antecedent of its tail.

Note that ξ is a bijection between the sprouts of the head and the roots of the tail that were not already roots of the drag D . In the sequel, we assume that the sprouts of the head are ordered with respect to a depth first search initialized with its list of roots. This order on the sprouts of the head induces via the switchboard ξ , an order on the roots of the associated tail which were not roots of the original drag. The tail is therefore now canonically determined.

We could have defined the head and tail of D as a pair of drags whose head contains all maximal roots, is cyclic, and its composition with the tail by a directed switchboard is the drag D itself. This characterization of the head of a drag is a property that we should keep in mind.

We can now show the structure theorem of open drags:

Theorem 17 (Structure). *Isomorphic drags have isomorphic heads and tails.*

Proof. Given two isomorphic drags D, D' , constructing bijections between their respective heads and tails from the bijection between their sets of vertices is an easy exercise. \square

Example 18. *The successive tails of the drags of Figure 1 are represented in Figure 3. The numbering displayed above the roots of each tail specifies the order of roots in their list of roots. These tails, represented on the first row, have all the same number of roots which is determined by their head f . The next row represents the next level of tails, which here have one or two roots, depending on their own head. The last tail in that row has two roots, a nonmaximal one in its father drag, and a new one.*

The fundamental property of a drag expressed by Theorem 17 is that its decomposition into a head and tail is a faithful representation of it. This property holds true because drags are multi-rooted. Uni-rooted drags cannot represent horizontal sharing, in contrast to vertical sharing which can *sometimes* be preserved with uni-rooted drags. Moreover, the fact that tails are quasi-isomorphic does not hamper faithfulness: different orders of new roots for the tails yield different switchboards but the order of roots resulting from the composition does not depend upon those orders.

5 Drag rewriting

The notion of composition lead in the previous section to an initial, canonical way of decomposing a drag, into its head and tail. In this section, we investigate further ways of decomposing a drag, possibly breaking its cycles, which will of course become important when rewriting drags. More precisely, can a drag D be seen as the composition of a given drag U with some context W via some switchboard ξ ? In this case, we would of course say that D matches U , W and ξ being the *matching* context and switchboard.

The idea is that W splits into three parts: the vertices of W that are accessible from some sprout of U and can access some of its roots define a drag B ; those that are accessible from some sprout of U but cannot access any of its roots define a drag C which is therefore a substitution extension of U ; those which are not accessible from the sprouts of U form the remaining part A , which is therefore a context extension of U .

Particular substitution extensions of U are identity extensions $(1_z^z, \xi)$ such that $\xi(x_1) = \dots = \xi(x_n) = z$, where x_1, \dots, x_n are variables labeling sprouts of U , and, of course, $z \notin \mathcal{D}om(\xi)$. Then, the drag resulting from the composition of U with that extension is the same as U , except that all its sprouts labeled by the variables x_1, \dots, x_n are now merged into a single sprout labeled by z . The rôle of these identity extensions is to modify the structure of U by introducing sharing among its sprouts.

We are left defining the kind of extension that B belongs to:

Definition 19 (Cyclic extension). *An extension (B, ξ) of a clean drag U is cyclic if B is a linear drag generated by $\mathcal{S}m(\xi_U)$, $B \otimes_\xi U$ is a clean nonempty drag, and for all $t \in V$, there exists $s \in \mathcal{D}om(\xi_B)$ such that tX^*s . The extension is trivial if B is an identity drag and total if ξ_B is surjective.*

This condition resembles the one for cyclic drags, but does not imply that $B \otimes_\xi U$ is cyclic because not all internal vertices of U may reach a root of $B \otimes_\xi U$. Only *total* extensions are cyclic, up to possibly ground subdrags of U when there are such subdrags in U .

The conditions for being a cyclic extension impose that ξ_U is surjective on $R \setminus S$ as a set so as to generate B . The roots of the resulting drag are therefore either remaining roots of B (possibly some roots in S transferred to $B \otimes_\xi U$) or roots of U , but there must be sufficiently many of them so that the resulting drag is clean.

Identity cyclic extensions of U are of the form $(1_Y^Z, \iota)$, where the variables in Y are one-to-one with those in $\mathcal{D}om(\iota_U) \subseteq \mathcal{V}ar(U)$, and $\iota_1 : Y \rightarrow [1 \dots |R|]$ is an arbitrary map. The rôle of cyclic extensions is to modify the structure of U by connecting some of its sprouts to some of its roots. Unfortunately, identity cyclic extensions do not suffice for that purpose unless in special cases:

Example 20. *Let L be the drag made of two copies of the tree $f(x)$ sharing the variable x . Three identity extensions of L are represented at Figure 4. The first is the trivial directed extension while the two others are cyclic ones. The second maps the variable x of L to the only root of the identity drag, which is its sprout y , and the only sprout y of the identity drag to the first root of L . The third maps instead y to the second root.*

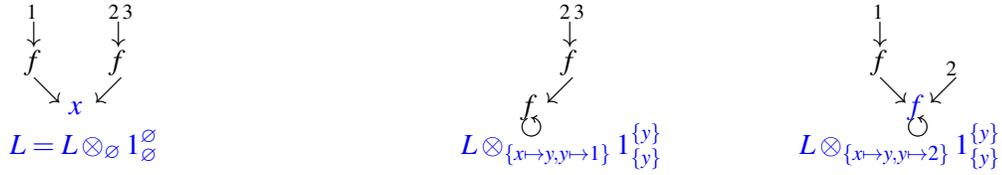


Figure 4: Minimal cyclic extensions.

Identity extensions allow one to change the structure of a drag without changing its internal nodes. If the drag has a single root, it is easy to see that identity extensions are enough to predict all forms that a drag may take under composition with an extension. This is no longer true with multi-rooted drags, since identity cyclic extensions cannot reach two different roots from the same sprout. Note that non-identity cyclic extensions cannot do any better if the vocabulary contains unary symbols only, as in Example 20. If the vocabulary contains a symbol g with $|g| = 2$, then new cyclic extensions pop up, both with the same drag $(\{1, 2, 3\}, \{1\}, L(1) = g$ and $L(2) = y$ and $L(3) = z, X(1) = \{2, 3\}, \{2, 3\})$, and with the respective switchboards $\{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 2\}$ and $\{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 1, z \mapsto 3\}$.

Here is the property at the heart of drag rewriting:

Lemma 21 (Decomposition). *Let U, W be clean nonempty drags and ξ be a switchboard for (W, U) . If ξ_W is surjective on $\mathcal{R}(U)_{max}$, then, there exist drags A, B, C and switchboards ζ, θ such that*

- 1 $(B, \langle \xi_B, \xi_{U \rightarrow B} \rangle)$ is a cyclic extension of U denoted by (B, ξ) ;
- 2 (C, θ) is a substitution extension of $B \otimes_{\xi} U$;
- 3 (A, ζ) is a context extension of $(B \otimes_{\theta} U) \otimes_{\eta} C$;
- 4 $W \otimes_{\xi} U = A \otimes_{\zeta} ((B \otimes_{\theta} U) \otimes_{\eta} C)$;
- 5 C is empty if all internal nodes of W reach one of its sprouts.

Proof. The lemma is depicted in Figure 5. Let first D be the subdrag of $W \otimes_{\xi} U$ generated by $\mathcal{R}(U)_{max}$. Since U is clean, D must contain all vertices of U by definition of $\mathcal{R}(U)_{max}$. By Lemma 14, $W \otimes_{\xi} U = A \otimes_{\zeta} D$ for some context extension (A, ζ) of D such that ζ is total, surjective and directed. Observe that $\zeta_{A \rightarrow U} = \xi_A$. Let now C be the subdrag of D generated by those vertices which cannot reach a sprout in $\mathcal{D}om(\xi_W)$, hence a root of U . By definition of C and the fact that D contains all vertices of U , the ancestor of C in D must contain all vertices of U , hence is of the form $B \otimes_{\langle \xi_B, \xi_{U \rightarrow B} \rangle} U$. By Lemma 14, $D = (B \otimes_{\xi} U) \otimes_{\theta} C$ for some θ which is total, surjective and directed. Observe that $\theta_U = \xi_{U \rightarrow C}$. Property (4) now follows. Property (5) is straightforward. \square

This lemma applies of course to rewriting extensions (W, ξ) of U , since ξ_W is surjective on all roots. It applies as well to cyclic extensions (B, ξ) since ξ_U generates B , hence must be surjective on its maximal roots. but

Definition 22 (Rules). *A graph rewrite rule is a pair of open clean drags written $L \rightarrow R$ such that $|\mathcal{R}(L)| = |\mathcal{R}(R)|$ and $\mathcal{V}ar(R) \subseteq \mathcal{V}ar(L)$. A graph rewrite system is a set of graph rewrite rules.*

Trees are particular clean drags. Because they have a single root, term rewrite rules satisfy the first condition. The second must be explicitly stated in the definition of a term rewrite rule, as for drags.

Note that we could allow R to be unclean, and strengthen instead the second condition to be $\mathcal{V}ar(R) = \mathcal{V}ar(L)$. Adding unreachable sprouts to a clean R would then do with an isomorphic right-hand side. Such a handy trick is not possible with trees.



Figure 5: Decomposition of a pair of drags.

Definition 23 (Rewriting). *Let \mathcal{R} be a graph rewrite system. We say that a nonempty clean drag D rewrites to a clean drag D' , and write $D \rightarrow_{\mathcal{R}} D'$ iff $D = W \otimes_{\xi} L$ and $D' = (W \otimes_{\xi} R) \downarrow$ for some drag rewrite rule $L \rightarrow R \in \mathcal{R}$ and rewriting extension (W, ξ) of L , such that ξ_L is linear if L is linear.*

All assumptions on ξ play a rôle. First, because ξ is a rewriting switchboard, ξ_W must be linear. This implies that the variables labeling the sprouts of W which are not already sprouts of D must be all different. Second, ξ_C must be surjective, implying that the roots of L disappear in the composition. Third, ξ_L must be total, implying that the sprouts of L disappear in the composition. Fourth, D must be nonempty, implying that the roots of W do not all disappear in the composition; hence ξ_L cannot be surjective. Finally, if L is linear, then ξ is a linear rewriting switchboard: no test for isomorphism is needed when pattern matching D with L .

If left-hand and right-hand sides of a drag rewrite rule have the same variables as sprouts, the computed drag generated will be clean if the starting drag is. But if there are strictly fewer variables in the right-hand side, replacement may generate inaccessible vertices, hence require garbage collection, which is therefore explicitly built in this model of computation. On the other hand, duplication is banned by the drag rewriting model, which therefore generalizes shared rewriting, but not term rewriting per se.

Can our drag model capture term rewriting? As should be expected, the answer is affirmative. The term model does not permit sharing. Taking terms with sharing as our term structure, terms without sharing become normal forms in that richer structure. We can therefore capture term rewriting within our model by changing the definition of a clean drag. Details are left to the reader.

In the case of trees, the rewrite extension of L is made of a context and a substitution. What is remarkable about the above definition is that there is no longer any distinction between the two, which, together, constitute the rewriting extension of the left-hand side. The context and substitution of L correspond respectively to the context extension and substitution extension of Lemma 21. The cyclic extension is of course the identity in the case of trees.

Example 24. *Consider the cyclic composition of Figure 2, and let $f(y') \rightarrow y'$ be a graph rewrite rule whose left-hand and right-hand sides are, more precisely, the respective drags $(\{1, 2\}, 1, L(1) = f$ and $L(2) = y', X(1) = 2, \{2\})$ and $(\{1\}, 1, L(1) = y', \{1\})$. Then, the drag $(\{1, 2\}, 1, L(1) = L(2) = f, X(1) = 2$ and $X(2) = 1)$ rewrites to the drag $(\{1, 2\}, 1, L(1) = f$ and $L(2) = x', X(1) = 2, \{2\}) \otimes_{\{x' \mapsto 1, y' \mapsto 1\}} (\{1\}, 1, L(1) = y', \{1\}) = (\{1\}, 1, L(1) = f, X(1) = 1)$: a cycle of length 2 has been rewritten into one of length 1.*

It is also possible to break a cycle in a drag: the same drag $(\{1, 2\}, 1, L(1) = L(2) = f, X(1) = 2$ and $X(2) = 1)$ rewrites to the drag $(\{1, 2\}, 1, L(1) = f$ and $L(2) = x', X(1) = x', \{2\}) \otimes_{\{x' \mapsto 1\}} (\{1\}, 1, L(1) = a,) = (\{1, 2\}, 1, L(1) = f, L(2) = a, X(1) = 2)$ with the rule $f(y') \mapsto a$ whose both sides are the drags $(\{1, 2\}, 1, L(1) = f$ and $L(2) = y', X(1) = 2, \{2\})$ and $(\{1\}, 1, L(1) = a,)$.

$$\begin{array}{c}
\begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ f \\ \downarrow \uparrow \\ f \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 12 \\ f \\ \downarrow x' \end{array} \otimes \{x' \mapsto 1, y' \mapsto 2\} \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ f \\ \downarrow y' \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 12 \\ f \\ \downarrow x' \end{array} \otimes \{x' \mapsto 1, y' \mapsto 2\} \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ y' \\ \circ \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ f \\ \circ \end{array} \quad \text{(shrinking)} \\
\\
\begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ f \\ \downarrow \uparrow \\ f \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 12 \\ f \\ \downarrow x' \end{array} \otimes \{x' \mapsto 1, y' \mapsto 2\} \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ f \\ \downarrow y' \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 12 \\ f \\ \downarrow x' \end{array} \otimes \{x' \mapsto 1, y' \mapsto 2\} \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ a \\ \downarrow a \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \downarrow 1 \\ f \\ \downarrow a \end{array} \quad \text{(breaking)}
\end{array}$$

Figure 6: Rewriting a cycle.

These rewrites are shown in Figure 6. In both cases, the upper occurrence of f (in blue) is part of the context, while the one below (in red) is part of the rewrite rule. Rewriting the upper occurrence of f instead of the lower is an exercise left to the reader.

Lemma 25. *If $U \longrightarrow_{\mathcal{R}} V$, then $\mathcal{V}ar(V) \subseteq \mathcal{V}ar(U)$.*

Proof. The property is true of rules and preserved by rewriting. \square

Lemma 26. *Assume U, V, W are three open drags such that the pair (U, V) is a rewrite and ξ is a switchboard for (W, U) . Then, ξ is a switchboard for (W, V) .*

Proof. Because the lists of roots of U and V have the same length, and because the sprouts of U, V are labeled by the same variables that are here identified with the sprouts themselves, ξ_U does need any change, and since $\mathcal{V}ar(V) \subseteq \mathcal{V}ar(U)$, ξ_V is the restriction of ξ_U to the sprouts of V whose variables are in $\mathcal{V}ar(W)$. \square

A consequence of this property is that properties of extensions are preserved by rewriting. Further, the decomposition lemma itself is also preserved:

Lemma 27. *Assume $U \xrightarrow{\mathcal{R}} V$. Then, $U = A \otimes_{\zeta} ((B \otimes_{\xi} L) \otimes_{\theta} C)$ and $V \equiv A \otimes_{\zeta} ((B \otimes_{\xi} L) \otimes_{\theta} C)$ for some A, B, C and ζ, ξ, θ such that (A, ζ) , (B, ξ) and (C, θ) are context, cyclic and substitution extensions, resp.*

Proof. Using Lemma 21. \square

6 Conclusion

We have invented drags, a very general class of multigraphs, and explored their nice and useful properties, which yield a new, simple and very effective model for graph rewriting. In a companion paper, we have used this model to show that termination techniques that have been developed for terms, namely the recursive path order, scale to drags, but we believe that this is a general fact for syntactic techniques. This allowed us, in particular, to design a total order for extending the theory of Gröbner bases to algebraic operads, which are just polynomial expressions built over drags.

Our term representation and ordering have the potential to be further extended with abstraction and application, as done in the computability path order [3], and obtain an ordering over λ -terms with sharing and back-arrows, also called *lambda graphs* [1]. We presume that this problem conceals some unseen difficulties.

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