## VARIETIES OF TWO-DIMENSIONAL CYLINDRIC ALGEBRAS

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we survey recent developments in the theory of two-dimensional cylindric algebras. In particular, we will deal with varieties of two-dimensional diagonal-free cylindric algebras and with varieties of two-dimensional cylindric algebras with the diagonal. It is well known that two-dimensional diagonal-free cylindric algebras correspond to the two variable equality-free fragment of classical first-order logic FOL, whereas two-dimensional cylindric algebras with the diagonal correspond to the two variable fragment of FOL with equality. It is also well known that one-dimensional cylindric algebras, also called Halmos monadic algebras, provide algebraic completeness for the one variable fragment of FOL. For a systematic discussion on the connection between various fragments of FOL and classes of (cylindric) algebras that correspond to these fragments we refer to [2].

The variety  $Df_1$  of one-dimensional cylindric algebras has a lot of 'nice' properties:  $Df_1$  is finitely axiomatizable, it is generated by its finite algebras, and has a decidable equational theory. Moreover, the lattice of subvarieties of  $Df_1$  is rather simple: it is an  $(\omega + 1)$ -chain. Every proper subvariety of  $Df_1$  is finitely generated, finitely axiomatizable and has a decidable equational theory (see [22], [23] and [44]). In contrast to this, the three variable fragment of FOL corresponding to three-dimensional cylindric algebras is much more complicated and no longer has 'nice' properties. It has been shown by Maddux [28] that the equational theory of three-dimensional cylindric algebras is undecidable. Moreover, every subvariety in between the variety of all representable three-dimensional cylindric algebras and the variety of all threedimensional cylindric algebras is undecidable. Kurucz [27] strengthened this by showing that none of these varieties are generated by their finite algebras. It follows from Monk [36] and Johnson [24] that varieties of all representable three-dimensional cylindric algebras with and without diagonals are not finitely axiomatizable.

Our aim is to show that the two-dimensional case is not as complicated as the threedimensional one, but is not as simple as the one-dimensional case. It has been known for a long time that the variety  $Df_2$  of two-dimensional diagonal-free cylindric algebras is generated by its finite algebras and has a decidable equational theory. Moreover, every  $Df_2$ -algebra is representable. The variety  $CA_2$  of two-dimensional cylindric algebras with the diagonal is also generated by its finite algebras and has a decidable equational theory. However, not every  $CA_2$ -algebra is representable. Representable  $CA_2$ -algebras form a subvariety of  $CA_2$ denoted by  $RCA_2$ . Unlike the three-dimensional case,  $RCA_2$  can be axiomatized by adding only one axiom to the axiomatization of  $CA_2$ . In this chapter we will mainly concentrate on the lattices of subvarieties of  $Df_2$ ,  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ , respectively. As we will see below, the lattice of subvarieties of  $Df_2$ , although more complicated than the one-dimensional case, is still countable. Moreover, every subvariety of  $Df_2$  is finitely axiomatizable and has a decidable equational theory. The lattices of subvarieties of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ , respectively, have

a more complex structure. In particular, it is known that unlike  $Df_2$ ,  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$  have continuum many subvarieties. As a result, there is a continuum of non-finitely axiomatizable and undecidable subvarieties of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ . We will show that every proper subvariety of  $Df_2$  is locally finite and every subvariety of  $Df_2$  is generated by its finite algebras. On the other hand, we will prove that there are continuum many non-locally finite subvarieties of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ . It is still an open problem whether every subvariety of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$  is generated by its finite algebras.

Our main technique in studying varieties of two-dimensional cylindric algebras will be the duality between two-dimensional cylindric algebras and Stone spaces enriched with two commuting equivalence relations. The topology-free analogue of this duality is thoroughly discussed in [23, Section 2.7]. Stone-like topological dualities are extensively used to investigate modal logics (see, e.g, [10, 12]). In fact, many of the results discussed in this chapter are proved using techniques developed in modal logic. These techniques apply to  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$ -algebras since they are algebraic models of cylindric modal logic (see [Venema's chapter]).

The chapter is organized as follows: in Section 2 we recall the definition of  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$ algebras and their topological representation. We also recall the functor from  $CA_2$  to  $Df_2$  that forgets the diagonal and discuss some of its basic properties. In Section 3 we recall representable cylindric algebras and a topological characterization of representable  $CA_2$ -algebras. We also construct rather simple non-representable  $CA_2$ -algebras. In Section 4 we discuss the cardinality of the lattices of subvarieties of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ . Section 5 reviews a criterion of local finiteness for subvarieties of  $Df_2$  and Section 6 discusses a classification of subvarieties of  $Df_2$ . In Section 7 we review local finiteness of subvarieties of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ . Section 8 is devoted to finitely generated varieties of  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$ -algebras, and finally, we close the chapter by discussing some open problems.

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#### 2. Cylindric Algebras and Cylindric spaces

In this section we recall the basic duality for two-dimensional cylindric algebras that will be used throughout this chapter.

**Definition 2.1.** [23, Definition 1.1.2] A triple  $\mathcal{B} = \langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2 \rangle$  is said to be a two-dimensional diagonal-free cylindric algebra, or a Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra for short, if B is a Boolean algebra and  $\mathsf{c}_i : B \to B, i = 1, 2$ , are unary operations satisfying the following axioms for all  $a, b \in B$ :

 $\begin{array}{ll} (\mathbf{C}_1) \ \mathbf{c}_i 0 = 0, \\ (\mathbf{C}_2) \ a \leq \mathbf{c}_i a, \\ (\mathbf{C}_3) \ \mathbf{c}_i (\mathbf{c}_i a \cdot b) = \mathbf{c}_i a \cdot \mathbf{c}_i b, \\ (\mathbf{C}_4) \ \mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{c}_2 a = \mathbf{c}_2 \mathbf{c}_1 a. \end{array}$ 

Let  $Df_2$  denote the variety of all two-dimensional diagonal-free cylindric algebras.

**Definition 2.2.** [23, Definition 1.1.1] A quadruple  $\mathfrak{B} = \langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2, \mathsf{d} \rangle$  is said to be a twodimensional cylindric algebra, or a CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra for short, if  $\langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2 \rangle$  is a Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra and  $\mathsf{d} \in B$  is a constant satisfying the following axioms for all  $a \in B$  and i = 1, 2.

(C<sub>5</sub>) 
$$c_i(d) = 1$$
,  
(C<sub>6</sub>)  $c_i(d \cdot a) \leq -c_i(d \cdot -a)$ .

#### Let $CA_2$ denote the variety of all two-dimensional cylindric algebras.

Cylindric algebras were first introduced in [13] without explicitly mentioning the term 'cylindric algebra'. The full definition later appeared in [25], [47] and [46].

We recall that a  $Df_1$ -algebra or a *Halmos* monadic algebra is a pair  $\langle B, c \rangle$  such that B is a Boolean algebra and c is a unary operator on B satisfying conditions  $C_1$ - $C_3$  of Definition 2.1; see, e.g., [22, p.40]. The unary operator c is called a *monadic operator*, and  $Df_1$ -algebras are widely known as *monadic algebras*. A systematic investigation of monadic algebras has been carried out by Halmos [22], Bass [3], Monk [37], and Kagan and Quackenbush [26].

Now we turn to a topological representation of two-dimensional cylindric algebras. This duality (see [5, Section 2.2] and [6, Section 2]) is based on a standard Jónsson-Tarski duality for modal algebras [25] (see also [10, Section 5.5] and [12, Section 8.2]). A topological duality for Df<sub>1</sub>-algebras was developed by Halmos [22]. We recall that a *Stone space* is a compact, Hausdorff space with a basis of *clopen* (simultaneously closed and open) sets. For a Stone space X, we denote by  $\mathcal{CP}(X)$  the set of all clopen subsets of X. For an arbitrary binary relation R on X,  $x \in X$  and  $A \subseteq X$ , we let  $R(x) = \{y \in X : xRy\}, R^{-1}(x) = \{y \in X : yRx\}, R(A) = \bigcup_{x \in A} R(x)$  and  $R^{-1}(A) = \bigcup_{x \in A} R^{-1}(x)$ . A relation R on a Stone space X is said to be *point-closed* if for each  $x \in X$  the set R(x) is closed, and R is called a *clopen* relation, if  $A \in \mathcal{CP}(X)$  implies  $R^{-1}(A) \in \mathcal{CP}(X)$ . Note that if R is an equivalence relation, then  $R(x) = R^{-1}(x)$  and  $R(A) = R^{-1}(A)$ . In such a case we call R(A) the R-saturation of A.

A Df<sub>2</sub>-space is a triple  $\mathcal{X} = \langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$ , where X is a Stone space, and  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are point-closed and clopen equivalence relations on X such that

$$(\forall x, y, z \in X)((xE_1y \land yE_2z) \rightarrow (\exists u \in X)(xE_2u \land uE_1z)).$$

Given two Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces  $\mathcal{X} = \langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  and  $\mathcal{X}' = \langle X', E'_1, E'_2 \rangle$ , a map  $f : X \to X'$  is said to be a Df<sub>2</sub>-morphism if f is continuous, and for each  $x \in X$  and i = 1, 2 we have  $fE_i(x) = E'_i f(x)$ . We denote by **DS** the category of Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces and Df<sub>2</sub>-morphisms. Then Df<sub>2</sub> is dual (dually equivalent) to **DS**. In particular, every Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\langle B, c_1, c_2 \rangle$  can be represented as  $\langle \mathcal{CP}(X), E_1, E_2 \rangle$ , for the corresponding Df<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$ . We recall that  $\langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$ is constructed as follows: X is the set of all ultrafilters of B,  $\varphi(a) = \{x \in X : a \in x\}$ ,  $\{\varphi(a)\}_{a \in B}$  is a basis for the topology on X, and  $xE_iy$  if  $(c_ia \in x \Leftrightarrow c_ia \in y)$ , for each  $a \in B$ and i = 1, 2. We call  $\langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  the dual of  $\langle B, c_1, c_2 \rangle$ . As an easy corollary of this duality, we obtain that the category FinDf<sub>2</sub> of finite Df<sub>2</sub>-algebras is dual to the category Fin**DS** of finite Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces with the discrete topology. Hence, every finite Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra is represented as the algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(X), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  for the corresponding finite Df<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ denotes the powerset of X (see [23, Theorem 2.7.34]). For i = 1, 2 we call the  $E_i$ -equivalence classes of X the  $E_i$ -clusters.

The dual spaces of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras are obtained as easy extensions of Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces. A quadruple  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  is said to be a CA<sub>2</sub>-space if  $\langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  is a Df<sub>2</sub>-space and D is a clopen subset of X such that for each i = 1, 2, each  $E_i$ -cluster of X contains a unique point from D. This implies that in each CA<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$ , unlike Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces, the cardinality of the set of all  $E_1$ -clusters of X is always equal to the cardinality of the set of all  $E_2$ -clusters of X. Given two CA<sub>2</sub>-spaces  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  and  $\langle X', E'_1, E'_2, D' \rangle$ , a map  $f : X \to X'$  is said to be a CA<sub>2</sub>-morphism if f is a Df<sub>2</sub>-morphism and in addition  $f^{-1}(D') = D$ . We denote the category of CA<sub>2</sub>-spaces and CA<sub>2</sub>-morphisms by CS. Then CA<sub>2</sub> is dual to CS. In particular, every CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathfrak{B} = \langle B, c_1, c_2, d \rangle$  can be represented as  $\langle C\mathcal{P}(X), E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  for the corresponding

 $\mathsf{CA}_2$ -space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$ . The construction of  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  is the same as in the Df<sub>2</sub>-case with the addition that we let  $D = \varphi(\mathsf{d}) = \{x \in X : \mathsf{d} \in x\}$ . We call  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  the dual of  $\langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2, \mathsf{d} \rangle$ . As an easy corollary of this duality we obtain that the category FinCA<sub>2</sub> of finite CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras is dual to the category FinCS of finite CA<sub>2</sub>-spaces with the discrete topology. In particular, every finite CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra is represented as the algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(X), E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  for the corresponding finite CA<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  (see [23, Theorem 2.7.34]).

**Remark 2.3.** We point out a close connection between  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$ -spaces and cylindric atom structures defined in [23]. Recall from [23, Definition 2.7.32] that if  $\mathfrak{B} = \langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2, \mathsf{d} \rangle$  is a  $CA_2$ -algebra (the case of  $Df_2$ -algebras is similar) such that B is an atomic Boolean algebra, then the cylindric atom structure of  $\mathfrak{B}$  is defined as the quadruple  $\mathfrak{AtB} = \langle AtB, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$ , where AtB is the set of all atoms of B;  $E_i$  is defined by setting:  $xE_iy$  if  $\mathsf{c}_ix = \mathsf{c}_iy$ , for  $x, y \in AtB, i = 1, 2$ ; and  $D = \{x \in AtB : x \leq \mathsf{d}\}$ .

Now suppose  $\mathfrak{B} = \langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2, \mathsf{d} \rangle$  is an arbitrary  $\mathsf{CA}_2$ -algebra. Let  $\mathfrak{B}^{\sigma} = \langle B^{\sigma}, \mathsf{c}_1^{\sigma}, \mathsf{c}_2^{\sigma}, \mathsf{d}^{\sigma} \rangle$  be the canonical extension of  $\mathfrak{B}$ , and let  $i: B \to B^{\sigma}$  be the canonical embedding [23, Definition 2.7.4]. Then it is well known that  $B^{\sigma}$  is complete and atomic. Let  $\mathfrak{A}\mathfrak{W}\mathfrak{B}^{\sigma}$  be the cylindric atom structure of  $\mathfrak{B}^{\sigma}$ . For  $a \in B$  let  $O_a = \{x \in AtB^{\sigma} : x \leq i(a)\}$ . We make  $\mathfrak{A}\mathfrak{t}\mathfrak{B}^{\sigma}$  into a topological space by letting  $\{O_a\}_{a \in B}$  to be a basis for the topology  $\tau$ . Then it can be shown that  $\langle \mathfrak{A}\mathfrak{t}\mathfrak{B}^{\sigma}, \tau \rangle$  is a  $\mathsf{CA}_2$ -space, and that  $\langle \mathfrak{A}\mathfrak{t}\mathfrak{B}^{\sigma}, \tau \rangle$  is isomorphic to the dual of  $\mathfrak{B}$ . We note that this connection applies not only to cylindric algebras, but, in general, to any Boolean algebra with operators; see, e.g, [49, Section 5].

Having this duality at hand, we can obtain dual descriptions of important algebraic concepts of Df<sub>2</sub> and CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras. A subset U of a Df<sub>2</sub>-space (resp. of a CA<sub>2</sub>-space) is said to be saturated if  $E_1(U) = E_2(U) = U$ . For each Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  (resp. CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathfrak{B}$ ), the lattice of all congruences of  $\mathcal{B}$  (resp.  $\mathfrak{B}$ ) is dually isomorphic to the lattice of all closed saturated subsets of its dual space. A Df<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  (resp. a CA<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$ ) is called rooted if

$$(\forall x, y \in X) (\exists z \in X) (xE_1z \wedge zE_2y).$$

(By the commutativity of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , if such a z exists, then there exists  $u \in X$  such that  $xE_2u$  and  $uE_1y$ ). Rooted spaces correspond to subdirectly irreducible and simple cylindric algebras. In particular, a Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra (resp. a CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra) is subdirectly irreducible iff it is simple iff its dual space is rooted [23, Theorems 2.4.43 and 2.4.14]. As a result of the above, we obtain that both Df<sub>2</sub> and CA<sub>2</sub> are semi-simple and congruence distributive varieties with the congruence extension property. As shown in [41], these results also follow from the fact that Df<sub>2</sub> and CA<sub>2</sub> are discriminator varieties. The aforementioned properties are also discussed in [49, Section 4] in a wider context of Boolean algebras with operators.

Now we are ready to recall the definition of the reduct functor  $\mathfrak{Df}$ :  $CA_2 \to Df_2$  [23, Definition 1.1.2] (see also [6, Section 2.2]). For each  $CA_2$ -algebra  $\langle B, c_1, c_2, d \rangle$  we set

$$\mathfrak{Df}\langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2, \mathsf{d} \rangle = \langle B, \mathsf{c}_1, \mathsf{c}_2 \rangle$$

Thus,  $\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{f}$  forgets the diagonal element d from the signature of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras.

Next we will give a simple argument showing that  $\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{f}$  is not onto (see [23, Corollary 5.1.4(ii)]). In fact, the set of isomorphism types of  $\mathsf{D}\mathfrak{f}_2 - \mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{f}(\mathsf{C}\mathsf{A}_2)$  is infinite. For this, we define the reduct functor  $\mathfrak{R}\mathfrak{d}: \mathbf{CS} \to \mathbf{DS}$ . For each  $\mathsf{C}\mathsf{A}_2$ -space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  we set

$$\mathfrak{Rd}\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle = \langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$$



FIGURE 1. Some  $CA_2$ -spaces and their reducts

Suppose a Df<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle Y, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  is rooted. We call  $\langle Y, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  a quasi-square if the cardinalities of the sets of all  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ -clusters of Y coincide. It is not hard to see that a rooted  $\langle Y, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  is a reduct of some CA<sub>2</sub>-space iff it is a quasi-square. Note that not every rooted space from **DS** is a quasi-square. The simplest examples of rooted Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces that are not quasi-squares are rectangle Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces (for the definition of a rectangle consult the next section). Since there are infinitely many rectangle Df<sub>2</sub>-spaces (as we will see below), the set **DS** –  $\Re (\mathbf{CS})$  is infinite.

We call a Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  a quasi-square algebra if its dual space is a quasi-square. As follows from the above, for each simple CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathfrak{B}$ , its Df<sub>2</sub>-reduct is a quasi-square algebra. Therefore, the set Df<sub>2</sub> –  $\mathfrak{D}\mathfrak{f}(CA_2)$  is infinite. Moreover, one Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra can be the reduct of many non-isomorphic CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras. For instance, a Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra whose dual space is shown in Figure 1(a) is the reduct of the CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras whose dual CA<sub>2</sub>-spaces are shown in Figures 1(b) and 1(c), where dots represent points of the spaces, while big dots represent the points belonging to the (diagonal) set D.

More algebraic properties of  $Df_2$  are discussed in [23, Section 5.1] and [5]. In particular, a characterization of finitely approximable  $Df_2$ -algebras, projective and injective  $Df_2$ -algebras, and absolute retracts in  $Df_2$  is given in [5, Sections 3.1 and 3.2].

#### 3. Representable cylindric algebras

In this section we recall some basic facts about representable two-dimensional cylindric algebras.

Let W and W' be sets. We define on the Cartesian product  $W \times W'$  two equivalence relations  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  by setting

$$(w, w')E_1(v, v')$$
 if  $w' = v'$ ,  
 $(w, w')E_2(v, v')$  if  $w = v$ ,

for  $w, v \in W$  and  $w', v' \in W'$ . We call  $\langle W \times W', E_1, E_2 \rangle$  a rectangle. If W = W' then we call  $\langle W \times W, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  a square. For a square  $\langle W \times W, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  we set  $D = \{(w, w) : w \in W\}$ . We call  $\langle W \times W, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  a cylindric square. A generalized rectangle is a disjoint union of rectangles, a generalized square is a disjoint union of squares, and a generalized cylindric square is a disjoint union of cylindric squares. It is easy to see that for each (generalized) rectangle  $\langle U, E_1, E_2 \rangle$ , the algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(U), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  is a Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra and that for each (generalized) cylindric square  $\langle U, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  the algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(U), E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  is a CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra.

We call a Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(U), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  a (generalized) rectangular Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra,<sup>1</sup> if  $\langle U, E_1, E_2 \rangle$ is a (generalized) rectangle and we call  $\langle \mathcal{P}(U), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  a (generalized) square Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra if  $\langle U, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  is a (generalized) square. We call the CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(U), E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  a (generalized) square CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra, if  $\langle U, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  is a (generalized) square. Let (GRECT) RECT denote the class of all (generalized) rectangular Df<sub>2</sub>-algebras, let (GSQ) SQ denote the class of all (generalized) square algebras, and let (GCSQ) CSQ denote the class of all (generalized) square CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras. Finally, we let FinRECT, FinSQ and FinCSQ denote the classes of all finite rectangular, finite square and finite cylindric square algebras, respectively.

For a class K of algebras, we denote by  $\mathbf{H}(\mathsf{K})$ ,  $\mathbf{S}(\mathsf{K})$  and  $\mathbf{P}(\mathsf{K})$  the closure of K under homomorphic images, subalgebras and products, respectively. We say that a variety V is generated by a class K of algebras if  $\mathsf{V} = \mathsf{HSP}(\mathsf{K})$ . The classes  $\mathbf{S}(\mathbb{RECT})$ ,  $\mathbf{S}(\mathbb{SQ})$ ,  $\mathbf{S}(\mathbb{CSQ})$ ,  $\mathbf{S}(\mathbb{GRECT})$ , and  $\mathbf{S}(\mathbb{GCSQ})$  in [23, Definitions 3.1.1 and 5.1.33] are denoted by  $\mathsf{Csdf}_2$ ,  $\mathsf{Csudf}_2$ ,  $\mathsf{Cs}_2$ ,  $\mathsf{Gsdf}_2$ , and  $\mathsf{Gs}_2$ , respectively. The algebras in these classes are called *two-dimensional: diagonal-free cylindric set algebras, diagonal-free uniform cylindric set algebras, cylindric set algebras, diagonal-free generalized cylindric set algebras,* and *generalized cylindric set algebras,* respectively. Since we only work with two-dimensional cylindric algebras, we find our terminology and notations more suggestive.

**Definition 3.1.** [23, Definitions 5.1.33(v), 3.1.1(vii) and Remark 1.1.13]

- (i) A Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  is said to be representable if  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathbf{S}(\mathbb{GRECT})$ .
- (ii) A CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathfrak{B}$  is said to be representable if  $\mathfrak{B} \in \mathbf{S}(\mathbb{GCSQ})$ .

The classes of representable  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$ -algebras are usually denoted by  $RDf_2$  and  $RCA_2$ , respectively. For the proof of the next theorem we refer to [23, Corollary 5.1.35, Theorems 5.1.43 and 5.1.47] for (1) (see also [17, Corollary 5.10]), to [23, Corollary 3.1.108] for (2), and to [23, Lemmas 2.6.41 and 2.6.42] for (3).

## Theorem 3.2.

(i) 
$$\mathsf{RDf}_2 = \mathsf{Df}_2 = \mathbf{HSP}(\mathbb{RECT}) = \mathbf{HSP}(\mathbb{SQ}) = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}) = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{SQ}) = \mathbf{S}(\mathbb{GSQ})$$

(ii)  $\mathsf{RCA}_2 = \mathbf{HSP}(\mathbb{CSQ}) = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{CSQ}).$ 

(iii) 
$$\mathsf{RCA}_2 \subsetneq \mathsf{CA}_2$$
.

Let

$$(\mathbf{H}) = \mathsf{c}_i(a \cdot -b \cdot \mathsf{c}_j(a \cdot b)) \le \mathsf{c}_j(-\mathsf{d} \cdot \mathsf{c}_i a), \quad i \ne j, \quad i, j = 1, 2.$$

and

$$(\mathbf{V}) = \mathsf{d} \cdot \mathsf{c}_i(-a \cdot \mathsf{c}_j a) \le \mathsf{c}_j(-\mathsf{d} \cdot \mathsf{c}_i a), \quad i \ne j, \quad i, j = 1, 2.$$

We call (H) and (V) the *Henkin* and *Venema axioms*, respectively. Then  $RCA_2$  is axiomatized by adding either of these axioms to the axiomatization of  $CA_2$ ; see, e.g., [23, Theorem 3.2.65(ii)] or [48, Proposition 3.5.8]). We denote by V + (Ax) the addition of the axiom (Ax) to the axiomatization of a variety V. Then

Theorem 3.3.  $RCA_2 = CA_2 + (H) = CA_2 + (V)$ .

Next we recall from [48] and [6] a dual characterization of representable  $CA_2$ -algebras, and construct rather simple finite non-representable  $CA_2$ -algebras. For this purpose we recall that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Note that the concept of a 'rectangular algebra' is different from the one of a 'rectangular element' defined in [23, Definition 1.10.6].

on each Df<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  and on each CA<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  we can define yet another equivalence relation that naturally arises from  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ . We define  $E_0$  by:  $xE_0y$  if  $xE_1y$ and  $xE_2y$ , for each  $x, y \in X$ . In other words,  $E_0 = E_1 \cap E_2$ . We call  $E_0$ -equivalence classes  $E_0$ -clusters. Suppose  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  is a CA<sub>2</sub>-space. We call  $x \in D$  a diagonal point, and we call  $x \in X - D$  a non-diagonal point. We also call an  $E_0$ -cluster C a diagonal  $E_0$ -cluster if it contains a diagonal point. Otherwise we call C a non-diagonal  $E_0$ -cluster.

**Definition 3.4.** ([6, Definition 3.3]) A CA<sub>2</sub>-space  $\langle X, E_1, E_2, D \rangle$  is said to satisfy (\*) if there exists a diagonal point  $x_0 \in D$  such that  $E_0(x_0) = \{x_0\}$  and there exists a non-singleton  $E_0$ -cluster C whose elements are either  $E_1$  or  $E_2$ -related to  $x_0$ .

The (\*) condition is equivalent to Venema's condition NH7 of [48, Definition 3.2.5] (see also [Definition 1.3, Venema's chapter]). In the terminology of [23] a CA<sub>2</sub>-space satisfies the condition (\*) of Definition 3.4 iff the corresponding CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra has at least one so-called defective atom (for details see [23, Lemma 3.2.59]). Next we recall a dual characterization of representable CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras. There are at least three different proofs of Theorem 3.5. The one given in [23, Lemma 3.2.59] uses Henkin's axioms, the proof of [48, Theorem 3.2.6] (see also [Proposition 1.5, Venema's chapter]) is based on a powerful technique of modal logic called Sahlqvist correspondence and [6, Theorem 3.4] applies Venema's axioms and order-topological methods.

**Theorem 3.5.** A CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathfrak{B}$  is representable iff its dual CA<sub>2</sub>-space  $\mathcal{X}$  does not satisfy (\*).

Using this criterion it is easy to see that the CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras corresponding to the CA<sub>2</sub>-spaces shown in Figure 1(c) (big spots denote the diagonal points) are representable, while the CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras corresponding to the CA<sub>2</sub>-spaces shown in Figure 1(b) are not. Moreover, the smallest non-representable CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra is the algebra corresponding to the CA<sub>2</sub>-space shown in Figure 1(b), where the non-singleton  $E_0$ -cluster contains only two points.

#### 4. The finite model property and cardinality of lattices of varieties

There is a wide variety of proofs available for the decidability of classical first-order logic with two variables. Equivalent results were stated and proved using quite different methods in first-order, modal and algebraic logic. We present a short historic overview.

Decidability of the validity of equality-free first-order sentences in two variables was proved by Scott [43]. The proof uses a reduction to the set of prenex formulas of the form  $\exists^2 \forall^n \varphi$ , whose validity is decidable by Gödel [18]. The result was stated with equality in the language, because at that time it was still believed that the validity problem for  $\exists^2 \forall^n$  formulas containing equality is decidable. This belief was however refuted in Goldfarb [19]. Scott's result was extended by Mortimer [39], who included equality in the language and showed that such sentences cannot enforce infinite models, obtaining decidability as a corollary. A simpler proof was provided in Grädel et al. [20]. They showed that any satisfiable formula can actually be satisfied in a model whose size is single exponential in the length of the formula. Adding two unary function symbols to the language with only one variable leads to undecidability, as shown in Gurevich [21]. Segerberg [45] proved the finite model property and decidability for so-called 'two-dimensional modal logic', which is essentially cylindric modal logic (see [Venema's chapter]) enriched with the operation of involution. For an algebraic proof we refer to [23, Lemma 5.1.24 and Theorem 5.1.64]. A mosaic type proof can be found in Marx and Mikulás [33]. A proof using quasimodels is provided in [17, Theorem 5.22], and [35, Proposition 7.4.3] and [7, Theorem 6.1.1] give simple proofs via the filtration method.

The fact that  $CA_2$  is generated by its finite algebras and has a decidable equational theory was first proved by Henkin [23, Lemma 2.5.4 and Theorem 4.2.7] (see also [7, Theorem 7.1.1] for a proof using the filtration method). That  $RCA_2$  is generated by its finite algebras and has a decidable equational theory follows from Mortimer [39] (see also [23, Theorem 4.2.9], [34, Theorem 2.3.5] and [31]). Summing all this up we arrive at the following result.

**Theorem 4.1.**  $Df_2$ ,  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$  are generated by their finite algebras and have decidable equational theories.

However,  $Df_2$  is not only generated by its finite algebras, but it is also generated by its finite rectangular and finite square algebras. This result follows from Segerberg [45]. A short algebraic proof can be found in Andréka and Németi [1]. For a frame-theoretic proof using quasimodels see [17, Theorem 5.25]. Another frame-theoretic proof is given in [7, Theorem 6.11]. All these proofs can be adjusted to show that  $RCA_2$  is generated by finite cylindric square algebras. This result also follows from Mortimer [39]. Thus, we arrive at the following theorem.

### Theorem 4.2.

- (i)  $\mathsf{Df}_2 = \mathbf{HSP}(\mathrm{Fin}\mathbb{RECT}) = \mathbf{HSP}(\mathrm{Fin}\mathbb{SQ}).$
- (ii)  $\mathsf{RCA}_2 = \mathbf{HSP}(\operatorname{Fin}\mathbb{CSQ}).$

Now we turn to lattices of subvarieties of two-dimensional cylindric algebras. Let  $\Lambda(Df_2)$  denote the lattice of subvarieties of Df<sub>2</sub>,  $\Lambda(CA_2)$  denote the lattice of subvarieties of CA<sub>2</sub> and  $\Lambda(RCA_2)$  denote the lattice of subvarieties of RCA<sub>2</sub>. We also let  $\Lambda(Df_1)$  denote the lattice of subvarieties of Df<sub>1</sub>-algebras. This lattice is easy to describe. The lattice of all subvarieties of Df<sub>1</sub> is an  $(\omega + 1)$ -chain that converges to Df<sub>1</sub> (see [44, Theorem 4] and [23, Theorem 4.1.22]). As we will see below, the lattice  $\Lambda(Df_2)$  is also countable, although much more complex than  $\Lambda(Df_1)$ . The lattices  $\Lambda(CA_2)$  and  $\Lambda(RCA_2)$ , however, are not countable [23, Theorem 4.1.27] and Remark 4.1.28]. We will sketch the proof of this fact by using the technique of Jankov-Fine formulas, which is a standard tool in modal logic. For an overview on Jankov-Fine formulas we refer to [12, Section 9.4], [10, Section 3.4] or [7, Section 3.4]. This proof will also underline the difference between the finite square Df<sub>2</sub> and CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras.

Let  $\mathfrak{B}$  and  $\mathfrak{B}'$  be simple  $\mathsf{CA}_2$ -algebras. We write

$$\mathfrak{B} \leq \mathfrak{B}'$$
 iff  $\mathfrak{B}$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{B}'$ .

Next we construct simple  $\leq$ -antichains of finite simple RCA<sub>2</sub>-algebras. It follows from [8] that there do not exist any infinite  $\leq$ -antichains of finite simple Df<sub>2</sub>-algebras. For the proof of the next lemma we refer to [23, Theorem 4.1.27] (see also [6, Lemma 4.1] or [7, Lemma 7.1.13]).

### **Lemma 4.3.** Every two non-isomorphic finite cylindric square algebras are $\leq$ -incomparable.

Applying the standard technique of Jankov-Fine formulas to two-dimensional cylindric algebras [7, Section 7.1.2], as an immediate consequence of Lemma 4.3, we obtain the following result ([23, Theorem 4.1.27], (see also [6, Theorem 4.2] or [7, Theorem 7.1.14]).

**Theorem 4.4.** The cardinality of  $\Lambda(\mathsf{RCA}_2)$  is that of the continuum.

Jankov-Fine formulas again we obtain the following result [23, Remark 4.1.28], (see also [6,

Moreover, by replacing a singleton non-diagonal  $E_0$ -cluster with a two-element  $E_0$ -cluster in each finite cylindric square, we obtain an infinite  $\leq$ -antichain of finite rooted CA<sub>2</sub>-spaces satisfying (\*). Therefore, the corresponding algebras do not belong to RCA<sub>2</sub>. Applying

#### Theorem 4.5.

(i) The cardinality of  $\Lambda(CA_2) - \Lambda(RCA_2)$  is that of the continuum.

Theorem 4.4, Corollary 4.5] or [7, Theorem 7.16, Corollary 7.1.17]).

(ii) There exists a continuum of varieties in between  $RCA_2$  and  $CA_2$ .

Note that there are only countably many finitely axiomatizable varieties and there are only countably many varieties with a decidable equational theory. Therefore, Theorem 4.4 also implies that there exists a continuum of non-finitely axiomatizable subvarieties of  $CA_2$ (resp. of  $RCA_2$ ), and there exists a continuum of subvarieties of  $CA_2$  (resp. of  $RCA_2$ ) with an undecidable equational theory. We also remark that for an uncountable  $\alpha$ ,  $CA_{\alpha}$  has  $2^{\alpha}$  many subvarieties [40, p. 246]. It is still an open problem whether the same result holds for  $RCA_{\alpha}$ [23, Problem 4.2] and [38]. We will see in the next section that  $\Lambda(Df_2)$  is countable.

### 5. Locally finite subvarieties of $\mathsf{Df}_2$

In this section we investigate locally finite subvarieties of  $Df_2$ . We recall that a variety V is called *locally finite* if every finitely generated V-algebra is finite. It is well known (see e.g., Halmos [22]) that  $Df_1$  is locally finite. It was Tarski who first noticed that  $Df_2$  is not locally finite. Detailed proofs of this fact can be found in [23, Theorem 2.1.11], [22, p.92], [15], [7, Example 6.2.1].

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a simple  $\mathsf{Df}_2$ -algebra and  $\mathcal{X}$  its dual rooted  $\mathsf{Df}_2$ -space. Let also i = 1, 2 and n > 0. We say that  $\mathcal{X}$  is of  $E_i$ -depth n if the number of  $E_i$ -clusters of  $\mathcal{X}$  is exactly n. The  $E_i$ -depth of  $\mathcal{X}$  is said to be *infinite* if  $\mathcal{X}$  has infinitely many  $E_i$ -clusters.  $\mathcal{B}$  is said to be of  $E_i$ -depth  $n < \omega$  if the  $E_i$ -depth of  $\mathcal{X}$  is n. The  $E_i$ -depth of  $\mathcal{B}$  is said to be *infinite* if  $\mathcal{X}$  is of infinite  $E_i$ -depth.  $\mathsf{V} \subseteq \mathsf{Df}_2$  is said to be of  $E_i$ -depth  $n < \omega$  if n is the maximal  $E_i$ -depth of the simple members of  $\mathsf{V}$ , and  $\mathsf{V}$  is of  $E_i$ -depth  $\omega$  if there is no bound on the  $E_i$ -depth of simple members of  $\mathsf{V}$ . For a simple  $\mathsf{Df}_2$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  and its dual  $\mathcal{X}$ , let  $d_i(\mathcal{B})$  and  $d_i(\mathcal{X})$  denote the  $E_i$ -depth of  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\mathcal{X}$ , respectively. Similarly, let  $d_i(\mathsf{V})$  denote the  $E_i$ -depth of a variety  $\mathsf{V} \subseteq \mathsf{Df}_2$ . We note that there exists a formula measuring the depth of a subvariety of  $\mathsf{Df}_2$  (see [5, Theorem 4.2] or [7, Theorem 6.2.4]).

**Definition 5.1.** For a variety V, let SI(V) and S(V) denote the classes of all subdirectly irreducible and simple V-algebras, respectively. Let also FinSI(V) and FinS(V) denote the class of all finite subdirectly irreducible and simple V-algebras, respectively.

We recall from [4] a criterion of local finiteness.

**Theorem 5.2.** A variety V of a finite signature is locally finite iff the class SI(V) is uniformly locally finite; that is, for each natural number n there is a natural number M(n) such that for each n-generated  $\mathcal{A} \in SI(V)$  we have  $|\mathcal{A}| \leq M(n)$ .

The next theorem is an important tool in characterizing locally finite subvarieties of  $Df_2$ . Its proof, which can be found in [5, Lemma 4.4] or [7, Lemma 6.2.7], relies on the fact that the variety of  $Df_1$ -algebras is locally finite. **Theorem 5.3.** Every subvariety  $V \subseteq Df_2$  such that  $d_1(V) < \omega$  or  $d_2(V) < \omega$  is locally finite.

Now we are in a position to prove that every proper subvariety of  $Df_2$  is locally finite.

**Theorem 5.4.** If a variety  $V \subseteq Df_2$  is not locally finite, then  $V = Df_2$ .

*Proof.* We sketch the main idea of the proof. Suppose V is not locally finite. Then there exists a finitely generated infinite V-algebra  $\mathcal{B}$ . Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be the dual of  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then either there exists an infinite rooted saturated subset of  $\mathcal{X}$ , or  $\mathcal{X}$  consists of infinitely many finite rooted saturated subsets.

First suppose that  $\mathcal{X}$  contains an infinite rooted saturated subset  $\mathcal{X}_0$ . If either the  $E_1$  or  $E_2$ -depth of  $\mathcal{X}_0$  is finite, then the Df<sub>2</sub>-algebra, call it  $\mathcal{B}_0$ , corresponding to  $\mathcal{X}_0$  belongs to some variety  $\mathsf{V}' \subseteq \mathsf{Df}_2$  of a finite  $E_1$  or  $E_2$ -depth. Then  $\mathcal{B}_0$  is a homomorphic image of  $\mathcal{B}$  and is finitely generated. Moreover, by our assumption,  $\mathcal{X}_0$  and hence  $\mathcal{B}_0$  is infinite. This is a contradiction, since by Theorem 5.3,  $\mathsf{V}'$  is locally finite. Thus, both the  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ -depths of  $\mathcal{X}_0$  are infinite. Next we can show (see [5, Claim 4.7] or [7, Claim 6.2.10]) that for each  $n \in \omega$ , the square  $\langle W \times W, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  with |W| = n is a Df<sub>2</sub>-morphic image of  $\mathcal{X}_0$ . By duality, this means that the algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(W \times W), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  is a subalgebra of  $\langle \mathcal{CP}(\mathcal{X}_0), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  for each  $n < \omega$ . Since Df<sub>2</sub> is generated by finite square algebras (see Theorem 3.2) this implies that  $\mathsf{V} = \mathsf{Df}_2$ .

Now suppose that  $\mathcal{X}$  consists of infinitely many finite rooted spaces which we denote by  $\{\mathcal{X}_j\}_{j\in J}$ . If either the  $E_1$  or  $E_2$ -depth of the members of  $\{\mathcal{X}_j\}_{j\in J}$  is bounded by some integer n, then their corresponding algebras belong to some variety  $\mathsf{V}' \subseteq \mathsf{Df}_2$  with  $d_1(\mathsf{V}') < n$  or  $d_2(\mathsf{V}') < n$ . This means that there is an infinite finitely generated algebra in  $\mathsf{V}'$ . By Theorem 5.3, this is a contradiction. Therefore, we can assume that neither the  $E_1$  nor  $E_2$ -depth of  $\{\mathcal{X}_j\}_{j\in J}$  is bounded by any integer. Then we can again show that every finite square algebra is a subalgebra of  $\langle \mathcal{CP}(\mathcal{X}_0), E_1, E_2 \rangle$ . This, by Theorem 3.2, means that  $\mathsf{V} = \mathsf{Df}_2$ .

Thus, if V is not locally finite, then  $V = Df_2$ , which completes the proof of the theorem.  $\Box$ 

Recall that a variety V is called *pre-locally finite* if V is not locally finite but every proper subvariety of V is locally finite. We also recall that every locally finite variety is generated by its finite algebras. Therefore, we arrive at the following theorem.

### Corollary 5.5.

- (i)  $V \in \Lambda(Df_2)$  is locally finite iff V is a proper subvariety of  $Df_2$ .
- (ii)  $Df_2$  is the only pre-locally finite subvariety of  $Df_2$ .
- (iii) Every variety  $V \subseteq Df_2$  is generated by its finite algebras.

In fact, Corollary 5.5(iii) can be significantly strengthened. It is proved in [9] (see also [7, Section 8.2]) that the (bi-)modal logic corresponding to every proper subvariety of  $Df_2$  has the poly-size model property. Moreover, using combinatorial set theory, namely, the theory of better-quasi-orderings, [8] (see also [7, Section 8.1]) proves that every subvariety of  $Df_2$  is finitely axiomatizable. Combining this with Corollary 5.5(iii) gives us that the equational theory of every subvariety of  $Df_2$  is decidable. However, even more is true. It is proved in [8] (see also [7, Section 8.4]) that the equational theory of every subvariety of  $Df_2$  is NP-complete.

We finish this section by mentioning the analogy of these results with those obtained by Monk [37] for two-dimensional polyadic algebras. Two-dimensional polyadic algebras are obtained by adding four extra unary operations to the signature of  $Df_2$ -algebras (see [23, Definition 5.4.1] or [37]). Using the methods very similar to ours Monk [37] proves that the

variety PA<sub>2</sub> of two-dimensional polyadic algebras has only countably many subvarieties, each subvariety is finitely axiomatizable, is determined by its finite members and has a decidable equational theory. Moreover, similarly to Df<sub>2</sub>, each proper subvariety of PA<sub>2</sub> is locally finite. As was noted in [23, Theorem 5.4.5 and Remark 5.4.6], the results on subvarieties of PA<sub>2</sub> do not immediately transfer to subvarieties of Df<sub>2</sub>. For example, the subvarieties of Df<sub>2</sub> axiomatized by the equations  $(c_1x = x)$  and  $(c_2x = x)$ , respectively, are distinct, while the subvarieties of PA<sub>2</sub> axiomatized by these equations coincide. This also means that PA<sub>2</sub> is not a conservative extension of Df<sub>2</sub>.

### 6. Classification of subvarieties of $\mathsf{Df}_2$

In this section we will see that Corollary 5.5 enables us to give a classification of subvarieties of  $Df_2$  in terms of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ -depths (see [5, Section 4] or [7, Section 6.3]). It follows from Corollary 5.5(iii) that every subvariety V of  $Df_2$  is generated by FinS(V).

**Theorem 6.1.** For every proper subvariety V of Df<sub>2</sub> there exists a natural number n such that FinS(V) can be divided into three disjoint sets  $FinS(V) = F_1 \uplus F_2 \uplus F_3$ , where  $d_2(F_1)$ ,  $d_1(F_2) \le n$  and  $d_1(F_3)$ ,  $d_2(F_3) \le n$ . (Note that any two of the sets  $F_1, F_2$  and  $F_3$  may be empty.)

*Proof.* We sketch the proof. Suppose V is a proper subvariety of Df<sub>2</sub>. By Theorem 3.2, Df<sub>2</sub> is generated by finite square algebra. Therefore, there exists  $n \in \omega$  and a square  $\langle W \times W, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  such that |W| = n and  $\langle \mathcal{P}(W \times W), E_1, E_2 \rangle \notin \operatorname{FinS}(V)$ . Let n be the minimal such number. We consider three subclasses of  $\operatorname{FinS}(V)$ :  $F_1 = \{\mathcal{B} \in \operatorname{FinS}(V) : d_1(\mathcal{B}) > n\}, F_2 = \{\mathcal{B} \in \operatorname{FinS}(V) : d_2(\mathcal{B}) > n\}$  and  $F_3 = \{\mathcal{B} \in \operatorname{FinS}(V) : d_1(\mathcal{B}), d_2(\mathcal{B}) \leq n\}$ . It is obvious that  $\operatorname{FinS}(V) = F_1 \cup F_2 \cup F_3$ . We prove that  $F_1, F_2$  and  $F_3$  are disjoint.

Let us show that if  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathsf{F}_1$ , then  $d_2(\mathcal{B}) \leq n$  and if  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathsf{F}_2$ , then  $d_1(\mathcal{B}) \leq n$ . Suppose  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathsf{F}_1 \cup \mathsf{F}_2$ ,  $d_1(\mathcal{B}) = k$ ,  $d_2(\mathcal{B}) = m$  and both k, m > n. Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be the dual of  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then we can show that a finite square  $\langle W \times W, E_1, E_2 \rangle$  such that |W| = n is a Df<sub>2</sub>-morphic image of  $\mathcal{X}$ . By duality, this means that the square algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(W \times W), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathcal{B}$  and therefore belongs to FinS(V), which is a contradiction. Thus,  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathsf{F}_1$  implies  $d_1(\mathcal{B}) > n$  and  $d_2(\mathcal{B}) \leq n$ , and  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathsf{F}_2$  implies  $d_1(\mathcal{B}) \leq n$  and  $d_2(\mathcal{B}) > n$ . Also, if  $\mathcal{B} \in \mathsf{F}_3$ , then  $d_1(\mathcal{B}), d_2(\mathcal{B}) \leq n$ . This shows that all the three sets are disjoint.

From this theorem we obtain the following classification of subvarieties of  $Df_2$  (see [5, Theorem 4.10] or [7, Theorem 6.3.4]).

**Theorem 6.2.** For each  $V \in \Lambda(Df_2)$ , either  $V = Df_2$ , or  $V = \bigvee_{i \in S} V_i$  for some  $S \subseteq \{1, 2, 3\}$ , where  $d_1(V_1), d_2(V_2), d_1(V_3), d_2(V_3) < \omega$ .

*Proof.* The proof follows Theorem 6.1, by setting  $V_i = \mathbf{HSP}(F_i)$  for i = 1, 2, 3.

We close this section by recalling from [5, Section 6] a characterization of rectangularly and square representable subvarieties of  $Df_2$ . First we give a general definition of representability for varieties of  $Df_2$ -algebras.

**Definition 6.3.** A variety  $V \subseteq Df_2$  is called representable by (algebras from class)  $K \subseteq Df_2$  if  $V = SP(K \cap V)$ .

For a variety  $V \subseteq Df_2$ , we denote by  $(\mathbb{GRECT}_V) \mathbb{RECT}_V$  and  $(\mathbb{GSQ}_V) \mathbb{SQ}_V$  the classes of (generalized) rectangular and (generalized) square V-algebras, respectively. By Definition 6.3,  $V \subseteq Df_2$  is rectangularly representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if  $V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}_V)$  and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) and V is square representable if V = \mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{RECT}\_V) is sq

 $\mathbf{SP}(\mathbb{SQ}_V)$ . Moreover, we have that  $V \subseteq \mathsf{Df}_2$  is rectangularly representable iff  $V = \mathbf{S}(\mathbb{GRECT}_V)$ and V is square representable iff  $V = \mathbf{S}(\mathbb{GSQ}_V)$ . (This is a consequence of a general result of modal logic concerning a duality between products of complete and atomic modal algebras and disjoint unions of corresponding frames; see e.g., [49, Section 5.6].). Thus, square and rectangular representability in the subvarieties of  $\mathsf{Df}_2$  are restricted versions of the general definition of representability (Definition 3.1).

For positive integers m and n let  $\mathcal{P}(m \times n)$  denote the rectangular algebra  $\langle \mathcal{P}(W \times W'), E_1, E_2 \rangle$  such that |W| = m and |W'| = n. Let  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  be positive integers. We let  $\mathsf{V}_{(\omega,n_1)} = \mathbf{HSP}(\{\mathcal{P}(m \times n_1)\}_{m \in \omega})$  and  $\mathsf{V}_{(n_2,\omega)} = \mathbf{HSP}(\{\mathcal{P}(n_2 \times m)\}_{m \in \omega})$ . The next theorem provides a full characterization of rectangular and square representable subvarieties of  $\mathsf{Df}_2$ .

## **Theorem 6.4.** Let $V \in \Lambda(Df_2)$ .

- (i) V is square representable iff  $V = Df_2$  or  $V = HSP(\mathcal{P}(n \times n))$  for some  $n \in \omega$ .
- (ii) V is rectangularly representable iff  $V = Df_2$  or  $V = V_{(\omega,n_1)} \vee V_{(n_2,\omega)} \vee V'$ , where  $V' = \bigvee_{i=1}^{r} \mathbf{HSP}(\mathcal{P}(m_i \times k_i))$  for some  $m_i, k_i, r \in \omega$ .

# 7. Locally finite subvarieties of $\mathsf{CA}_2$

In the previous section we proved that  $Df_2$  is pre-locally finite. It is known (see, e.g., [23, Theorem 2.1.11]) that RCA<sub>2</sub>, and hence every variety in the interval [RCA<sub>2</sub>, CA<sub>2</sub>], is not locally finite. In this section, we present a criterion of local finiteness for varieties of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras (see [6, Section 5] or [7, Section 7.2]). We also show that there exists exactly one pre-locally finite subvariety of CA<sub>2</sub>. The  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ -depths of simple CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras are defined as in the Df<sub>2</sub>-case. Since the number of the  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ -clusters in every CA<sub>2</sub>-space is the same, for each simple CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra  $\mathfrak{B}$ , we have  $d_1(\mathfrak{B}) = d_2(\mathfrak{B})$ . We denote it by  $d(\mathfrak{B})$  and call it the *depth* of  $\mathfrak{B}$ . The depth of a variety of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras we denote by d(V). Our goal is to show that a variety V of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras is locally finite iff  $d(V) < \omega$ . For this we need the following definition.

## Definition 7.1.

- (i) Call a rooted  $CA_2$ -space  $\mathcal{X}$  uniform if every non-diagonal  $E_0$ -cluster of  $\mathcal{X}$  is a singleton set, and every diagonal  $E_0$ -cluster of  $\mathcal{X}$  contains only two points.
- (ii) Call a simple  $CA_2$ -algebra  $\mathfrak{B}$  uniform if its dual rooted  $CA_2$ -space  $\mathcal{X}$  is uniform.

Finite uniform rooted spaces are shown in Figure 2, where big dots denote the diagonal points. Let  $\mathcal{X}_n$  denote the uniform rooted space of depth n. Also let  $\mathfrak{B}_n$  denote the uniform CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra of depth n. It is obvious that  $\mathcal{X}_n$  is (isomorphic to) the dual CA<sub>2</sub>-space of  $\mathfrak{B}_n$ . Let U denote the variety generated by all finite uniform CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras; that is  $U = \mathbf{HSP}(\{\mathfrak{B}_n\}_{n\in\omega})$ . Applying the criterion of Theorem 3.5, it is easy to check that  $U \subseteq \mathbf{RCA}_2$ . For the proof of the next lemma we refer to [6, Lemma 5.2] or [7, Lemma 7.2.4].

## Lemma 7.2.

- (i) If  $\mathfrak{B}$  is a simple cylindric algebra of infinite depth, then each  $\mathfrak{B}_n$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{B}$ .
- (ii) If  $\mathfrak{B}$  is a simple cylindric algebra of depth 2n, then  $\mathfrak{B}_n$  is a subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{B}$ .

Now we characterize varieties of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras of infinite depth in terms of U.

**Theorem 7.3.** For a variety V of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras,  $d(V) = \omega$  iff  $U \subseteq V$ .



FIGURE 2. Uniform rooted  $CA_2$ -spaces

Proof. It is obvious that  $d(U) = \omega$ . So, if  $U \subseteq V$ , then obviously  $d(V) = \omega$ . Conversely, suppose  $d(V) = \omega$ . We want to show that every finite uniform CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra belongs to V. Since  $d(V) = \omega$ , the depth of the simple members of V is not bounded by any integer. So, either there exists a family of simple V-algebra of increasing finite depth, or there exists a simple V-algebra of infinite depth. In either case, it follows from Lemma 7.2 that  $\{\mathfrak{B}_n\}_{n\in\omega} \subseteq V$ . Therefore,  $U \subseteq V$ , since  $\{\mathfrak{B}_n\}_{n\in\omega}$  generates U.

Our next task is to show that U is not locally finite. For this we first need to observe that every finite uniform algebra is 1-generated (see [6, Lemma 5.6] or [7, Lemma 7.2.6]). Now Theorem 5.2 immediately implies that U is not locally finite. Next, using the fact that the variety of Boolean algebras is locally finite, we show that varieties of CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras of finite depth are locally finite. For the proof of this result we refer to [6, Theorem 5.10] or [7, Theorem 7.2.9].

## **Theorem 7.4.** If $d(V) < \omega$ , then V is locally finite.

We note that Theorem 7.4 is a  $CA_2$ -analogue of Theorem 5.3. Its proof, however, relies on local finiteness of Boolean algebras, whereas the proof of Theorem 5.3 uses the fact that  $Df_1$  is locally finite. Finally, combining Theorems 7.3 and 7.4, we obtain the following characterization of locally finite varieties of  $CA_2$ -algebras.

## Theorem 7.5.

(i) For  $V \in \Lambda(CA_2)$  the following conditions are equivalent:

- (a)  $\forall$  is locally finite,
- (b)  $d(\mathsf{V}) < \omega$ ,
- (c)  $U \not\subseteq V$ .
- (ii) U is the only pre-locally finite subvariety of  $CA_2$ .

Therefore, in contrast to the diagonal-free case, there exist uncountably many subvarieties of  $CA_2$  (RCA<sub>2</sub>) which are not locally finite. Since every locally finite variety is generated by its finite algebras we obtain from Theorem 7.5 that every subvariety of  $CA_2$  of finite depth is generated by its finite algebras. We leave it as an open problem whether each subvariety of  $CA_2$  is generated by its finite algebras.

#### 8. FINITELY GENERATED VARIETIES OF CYLINDRIC ALGEBRAS

Recall that a variety is called *finitely generated* if it is generated by a single finite algebra, and that a variety is called *pre-finitely generated* if it is not finitely generated, but all its proper subvarieties are finitely generated. In studying a lattice of subvarieties of a given variety, finitely generated and pre-finitely generated varieties play an important role. Finitely generated varieties constitute the 'lower' part of this lattice, whereas pre-finitely generated ones are borderlines between the finitely generated and non-finitely generated ones. Prefinitely generated varieties are minimal among non-finitely generated ones. Moreover, an explicit description of pre-finitely generated varieties provides a criterion for characterizing finitely generated varieties. For varieties of modal and Heyting algebras there are few wellknown characterizations of pre-finitely generated varieties. Maksimova [29] showed that there are exactly three pre-finitely generated varieties of Heyting algebras. Maksimova [30] and Esakia and Meskhi [16] proved that there are exactly five pre-finitely generated varieties of **S4**-algebras. Blok [11] showed that there is a continuum of pre-finitely generated varieties of K4-algebras. On the other hand,  $Df_1$  is the only pre-finitely generated variety in the lattice of subvarieties of  $Df_1$ . For  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$  the picture is more complex than for  $Df_1$ . As follows from [5, Theorem 5.4] and [7, Corollary 6.4.7] there are exactly six pre-finitely generated varieties in  $\Lambda(Df_2)$ , there are exactly fifteen pre-finitely generated varieties in  $\Lambda(CA_2)$ , and six of them belong to  $\Lambda(\mathsf{RCA}_2)$  (see [6, Corollary 6.6] and [7, Corollary 7.3.7]). These results yield a characterization of finitely generated varieties of  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$ -algebras. A variety V is finitely generated iff none of the pre-finitely generated varieties is a subvariety of V. Another characterization of finitely generated varieties of  $Df_2$  and  $CA_2$ -algebras can be found in [5, Section 5] and [6, Section 7].

In Section 6 we gave a classification of subvarieties of  $Df_2$ . We close this section with a very rough description of  $\Lambda(CA_2)$ . We need the following notation: Let FG denote the class of all finitely generated subvarieties of  $CA_2$ . Also let  $D_F$  denote the class of varieties of  $CA_2$ -algebras of finite depth which are not finitely generated varieties and let  $D_{\omega}$  denote the class of varieties of  $CA_2$ -algebras of infinite depth.

It follows from the results discussed in Sections 7 and 8 that the variety  $V_{tr}$  generated by the trivial CA<sub>2</sub>-algebra is the least element of FG, that FG does not have maximal elements, that D<sub>F</sub> has precisely fifteen minimal elements, that D<sub>F</sub> does not have maximal elements, and that U and CA<sub>2</sub> are the least and greatest elements of D<sub> $\omega$ </sub>, respectively.

The detailed investigation of the 'lower' part of  $\Lambda(CA_2)$  can be found in [6, Section 7]. In particular, a complete characterization of the lattice structure of the extensions of  $CA_2$  of depth one is given in [6, Section 7.1]. Using the reduct functor  $\mathfrak{Df}: CA_2 \to Df_2$ , we can define a reduct functor from the lattice  $\Lambda(CA_2)$  into the lattice  $\Lambda(Df_2)$ . This reduct functor and the properties that are preserved and reflected by it are investigated in [6, Section 7].

### 9. Open problems

We close this chapter by listing some open problems.

(i) As we saw in Section 5, every subvariety of Df<sub>2</sub> is generated by its finite members. Moreover, corresponding logical systems have the poly-size model property and NPcomplete satisfiability problem. The same question for CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras remains open. Every subvariety of CA<sub>2</sub> of finite depth is locally finite and therefore is generated by its finite algebras. However, it is still an open (and rather complicated) question whether every subvariety of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$  of infinite depth is generated by its finite algebras.

- (ii) Subvarieties of  $CA_{\alpha}$  (for both infinite and finite  $\alpha$ ) are investigated in [40, Section 1.1]. In particular, a characterization of subvarieties of  $CA_{\omega}$  with decidable equational theories is given in [40]. An existence of such a characterization for finite  $\alpha$  (especially in the case  $\alpha = 2$ ) remains an open problem.
- (iii) That  $Df_2$  (resp.  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ ) does not have the amalgamation property was first noticed by Comer [14] (see also Sain [42] and Marx [32]). In particular, it follows from the proof of this result that every subvariety V of  $Df_2$  (resp. of  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ ) such that  $d_1(V) > 2$  or  $d_2(V) > 2$  lacks the amalgamation property. We leave it as an open problem to give a full characterization of subvarieties of  $Df_2$  (resp.  $CA_2$  and  $RCA_2$ ) with the amalgamation property.
- (iv) In this chapter we considered two types of two-dimensional algebras: diagonal-free cylindric algebras and cylindric algebras with the diagonal. However, in order to get the full two-variable fragment of FOL (with substitution), we could have added to our signature four extra unary operations (analogous to substitutions of first-order variables) used in polyadic algebras. Then in addition to Df<sub>2</sub>-algebras and CA<sub>2</sub>-algebras we would have two more similarity types of two-dimensional cylindric-like algebras: two-dimensional polyadic algebras (PA<sub>2</sub>-algebras) and two-dimensional polyadic equality algebras (PEA<sub>2</sub>algebras), see [23, Section 5.4]. A PA<sub>2</sub>-like similarity type was also considered in [45].

As was pointed out earlier, it was shown by Monk [37] that subvarieties of the variety of  $PA_2$ -algebras have very similar (good) properties as subvarieties of  $Df_2$ -algebras. We leave it as an open problem to investigate the lattice of varieties of  $PEA_2$ -algebras and compare it with the lattices of varieties of  $PA_2$ -algebras,  $Df_2$ -algebras and  $CA_2$ -algebras. We also suggest studying the obvious reduct functors arising between these lattices. We conjecture that in the same way most of the properties of (varieties of)  $Df_2$ -algebras hold for (varieties of)  $PA_2$ -algebras, most of the properties of (varieties of)  $CA_2$ -algebras would hold for (varieties of)  $PEA_2$ -algebras.

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