

# Algebraic and Coalgebraic Methods in Software Development

J.N. Oliveira (UM)



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# 1st Module: Basic category theory for the software sciences

# Questions

**Software** is pre-science — **formal** but not fully **calculational**

Software is too diverse — many approaches, lack of unity

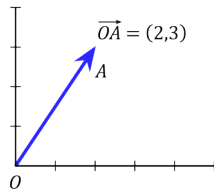
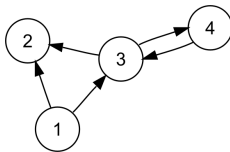
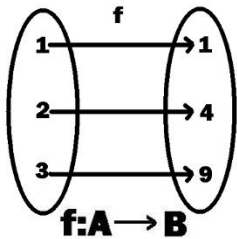
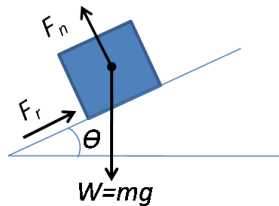
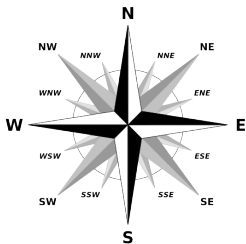
Software is too wide a concept — from assembly to quantum programming

Can you think of a **unified** theory able to express and reason about software *in general*?

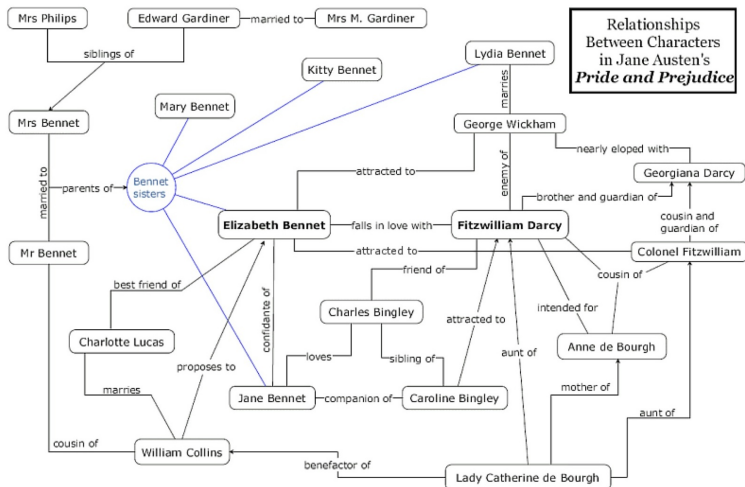
Put in another way:

*Is there a “lingua franca” for the software sciences?*

# Check the pictures...

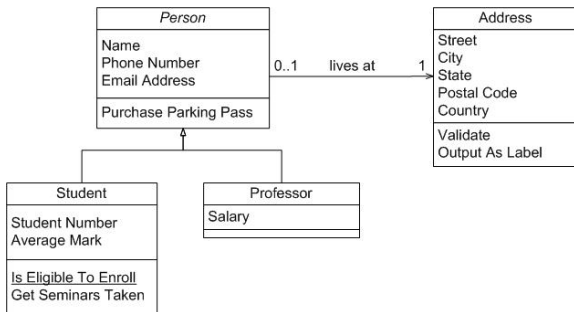
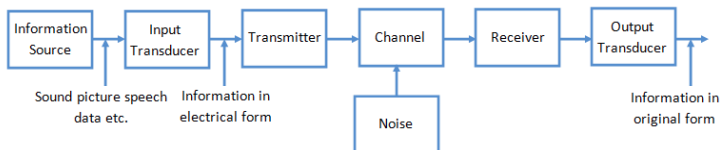


# Check the pictures



(Wikipedia: [Pride and Prejudice](#), by Jane Austin, 1813.)

# Check the pictures



# Check the pictures

Which **graphical** device have you found **common**  
to **all** pictures?

Your answer is likely to match what comes next...



# Arrows everywhere

**Arrows!** Thus we identify a (graphical) ingredient **common** to describing (several) **different** fields of human activity.

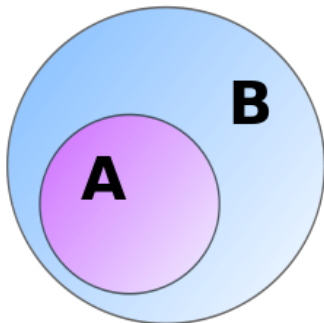
For this ingredient to be able to support a **generic** theory of systems, mind the remarks:

- We need a **generic** notation able to cope with very distinct problem domains, e.g. **process** theory versus **database** theory, for instance.
- Notation is not enough — we need to **reason** and **calculate** about software.
- Semantics-rich **diagram** representations are welcome.
- System description may have a **quantitative** side too.



# Back to basics

Recall your basic school maths. In set theory, for instance,



you wrote  $A \subseteq B$  meaning to say that  $A$  is a subset of  $B$ .

# Back to basics

Quite often one also uses **arrows**



to say the same thing,  $A \subseteq B$ .

**Graphical** notations (Venn diagrams, arrow notation) are useful.

Take, for instance,

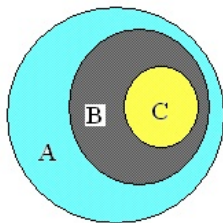
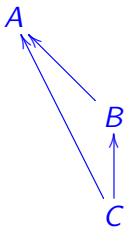
$A \subseteq A$  holds (*reflexivity*)

$C \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$  then  $C \subseteq A$  holds (*transitivity*)

$A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$  then  $B = A$  (*anti-symmetry*)

# Back to basics

Diagram for the **transitive** property:



Diagrams for the other two properties:



# Back to basics

Divisibility — write  $n \sqsubseteq m$  to say that  $n$  divides  $m$  (in  $\mathbb{N}$ ).

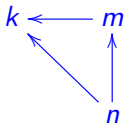
Natural number divisibility basic facts:

$n \sqsubseteq n$  holds (reflexivity)

$n \sqsubseteq m$  and  $m \sqsubseteq k$  then  $n \sqsubseteq k$  holds (transitivity)

$n \sqsubseteq m$  and  $m \sqsubseteq n$  then  $m = n$  (anti-symmetry)

Again we may use **arrows** and **diagrams** to say the same thing, e.g.



to mean the middle property (and so on).

# Back to basics

Statement  $2 \sqsubseteq 6$  is valid but it provides **no evidence** about **why** such a relationship holds.

We argue:

- $3 \cdot 2 = 6$  ;
- that is,  $\exists k = 3$  such that  $k \cdot 2 = 6$ ;
- that is,  $6$  is a **multiple** of  $2$ .

In general,

$$n \sqsubseteq m \text{ iff } \exists k \text{ st } m = k \cdot n$$

Why *so much ado* for *so little*? How about drawing

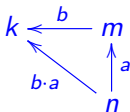


to mean the same? Take  $k$  as the **witness** — evidence, **proof** — of the divisibility **relationship**.

# Back to basics

This helps in providing evidence of the properties themselves by calculating **new** witnesses from **given** witnesses.

Such is the case of  
**transitivity**



and **reflexivity**:



Moreover:



since 1 divides any number (etc).

A graphical, **constructive** way of stating divisibility properties.

# Back to basics

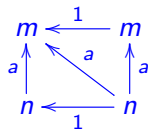
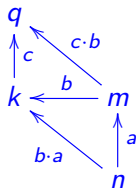
Thus two well-known properties of multiplication, **associativity**

$$c \cdot (b \cdot a) = (c \cdot b) \cdot a \quad (1)$$

and **identity**

$$1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a \quad (2)$$

are depicted aside in diagrammatic form.



Note how the arrows **type** numbers with other numbers.

## Why is this relevant?

We shall say that numbers depicted in this way, as **arrows** (between other numbers in this case) satisfying properties (1) and (2), form a **category**.

---

*Again, “much ado for nothing”? Wait and see — the concept of a **category** will prove very powerful and generic.*

---

Another way to put it, more computer science oriented:

---

*Arrow  $m \xleftarrow{k} n$  means that number  $k$  has become **typed** by an **input** type  $n$  and an **output** type  $m$  (all natural numbers).*

---

**Types** play a **major** role in scientific software engineering, as we shall see.



# Another category of numbers

This example of a category is “boring” — there are natural numbers everywhere, both labelling the arrows and their endpoints.

Is there any other construction in mathematics or computer science which we could describe by arrows

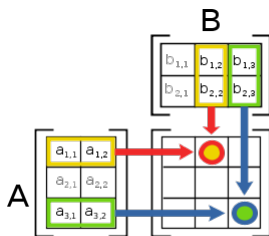
$$m \xleftarrow{k} n$$

where  $n$ ,  $m$  are still natural numbers, but  $k$  is not one such number?

Yes — the Wikipedia describes one (click [this link](#)) as shown in the next slide.

# Matrices as arrows

Recall matrix multiplication:



Index-wise definition

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^2 A_{ik} \times B_{kj}$$

The same in **arrow** notation

$$\begin{array}{c}
 3 \xleftarrow{A} 2 \xleftarrow{B} 3 \\
 \xleftarrow{C=A \cdot B}
 \end{array}$$

Index-free notation

$$C = A \cdot B$$

# Matrices as arrows

Given

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$$

$$m \xleftarrow{A} n$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \cdots & b_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & \cdots & b_{nk} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times k}$$

$$n \xleftarrow{B} k$$

define

$$m \xleftarrow{A} n \xleftarrow{B} k$$

$$\quad \quad \quad \xleftarrow{A \cdot B}$$

as matrix  $A$  multiplied by matrix  $B$ .

# Matrices as arrows

As is well-known, matrix multiplication is **associative**,

$$C \cdot (B \cdot A) = (C \cdot B) \cdot A \quad (3)$$

with **identity**

$$id \cdot A = A \cdot id = A \quad (4)$$

Each identity matrix

$n \xleftarrow{id} n$  is the **diagonal** of size  $n$ , that is,  $id_{j,i} \triangleq j = i$  under the  $(0,1)$  encoding of the Booleans (aside).

$$id_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n}$$

# Matrices as arrows

## Summary:

- Matrices form a **category** whose **objects** are matrix dimensions and whose **arrows**  $m \xleftarrow{A} n$ ,  $n \xleftarrow{B} k$  are the matrices themselves.
- **Composition**  $A \cdot B$  is matrix-multiplication.
- Each arrow  $m \xleftarrow{A} n$  tells that matrix  $A$  has  $n$ -columns and  $m$ -rows.
- We say  $n$  is the **input** type of  $A$  and  $m$  the **output** type.
- Every **identity**  $n \xleftarrow{id} n$  is the 1-diagonal of size  $n$ .
- Arrows (matrices) of types  $n \xleftarrow{A} 1$  and  $1 \xleftarrow{A} n$  are known as (respectively) column and row **vectors**.

# What a category is

A category  $\mathbb{C}$  is a mathematical structure made of **arrows** between **objects** (the end-points of arrows) where

- The set of arrows between two objects  $m$  and  $n$  is denoted by  $\mathbb{C}(m, n)$ .
- Writing  $n \xleftarrow{a} m$ ,  $m \xrightarrow{a} n$  or  $a \in \mathbb{C}(m, n)$  means the same.
- Given arbitrary arrows  $b \in \mathbb{C}(k, n)$  and  $a \in \mathbb{C}(m, k)$ , the composite arrow  $b \cdot a$  always exists and belongs to  $\mathbb{C}(m, n)$ .
- The **identity** arrow  $n \xrightarrow{id} n$  always exists, for each object  $n$ .
- Composition is associative (1) with  $id$  as unit (2).

Arrows are often called **morphisms**.  $\mathbb{C}(m, n)$  are termed **homsets**.

# Three categories thus far

<i>Category</i>	<i>Objects</i>	<i>Arrows</i>	<i>Composition</i>
$\mathbb{N}$	<i>naturals</i>	<i>naturals</i>	<i>multiplication</i>
$\mathbb{M}$	<i>naturals</i>	<i>matrices</i>	<i>MMM</i>
$\mathbb{I}$	<i>sets</i>	$\subseteq$	<i>see below</i>

Note that the homset

- $\mathbb{M}(m, n)$  may contain an arbitrary number of matrices
- $\mathbb{N}(m, n)$  contains either none or just one natural number,  $\frac{n}{m}$  if it exists
- $\mathbb{I}(A, B)$  contains either none or just one arrow, which we have denoted by  $\subseteq$ ; thus **composition** chains two  $\subseteq$  facts.

# The category of sets

Next we add to the group the very well-known **category  $\mathbb{S}$**  of **sets** and **functions** between sets — for many people, the category “par excellence”:

<i>Category</i>	<i>Objects</i>	<i>Arrows</i>	<i>Composition</i>
$\mathbb{N}$	<i>naturals</i>	<i>naturals</i>	<i>multiplication</i>
$\mathbb{M}$	<i>naturals</i>	<i>matrices</i>	<i>MMM</i>
$\mathbb{I}$	<i>sets</i>	$\subseteq$	<i>see above</i>
$\mathbb{S}$	<i>sets</i>	<i>functions</i>	<i>function composition</i>

Category  $\mathbb{S}$  is the theoretical basis of **functional programming**.

The details of  $\mathbb{S}$  are given in the following slide.



# The category of sets

In the  $\mathbb{S}$  category,

- the **identity**  $A \xrightarrow{id} A$  in  $\mathbb{S}$  is the *copy-the-input* function  $id(a) = a$  ;

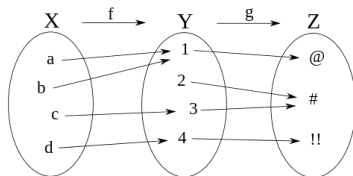
- arrow **composition**

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z \text{ is}$$

the expected

$$(g \cdot f)(x) = g(f(x))$$

pictured aside.



$$(g \cdot f)(x) = g(f(x))$$

Homset  $\mathbb{S}(X, Y)$  is the set of all (total) functions from  $X$  to  $Y$ .

# Functional programming

Some programming languages implement category  $\mathbb{S}$  in a rather simple way, notably Haskell:

```
Prelude> :type id
id :: a -> a
Prelude> :type (.)
(.) :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c
```

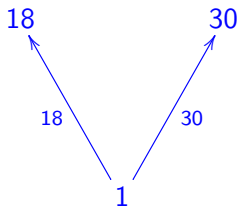
Thus, for instance,

```
Prelude> id "Hello"
"Hello"
Prelude> id 3
3
Prelude> (sqrt . succ) 3
2.0
```

(But be warned that full Haskell requires more than category  $\mathbb{S}$ .)

## Pairing two arrows

Back to category  $\mathbb{N}$ , consider the following diagram:



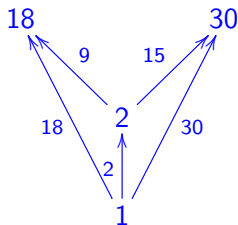
Fine, since 1 indeed divides any number.

In category theory (CT) jargon, we say that 1 is **initial** in  $\mathbb{N}$ . This means that

there **always** is **exactly one** arrow from 1 to any  $n$ .

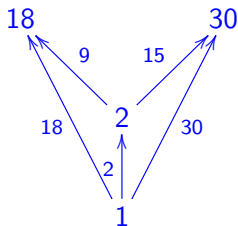
Diagram tells that 1 is a **common divisor** of 18 and 30.

But not the only one, check e.g.



# Pairing two arrows

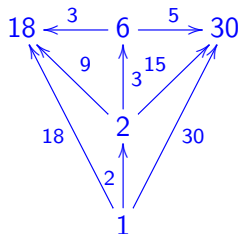
The diagram



tells that  $2$  is also a common divisor, and a larger one.

How far can we go towards **larger** common divisors?

Still another larger one,  $6$ ,

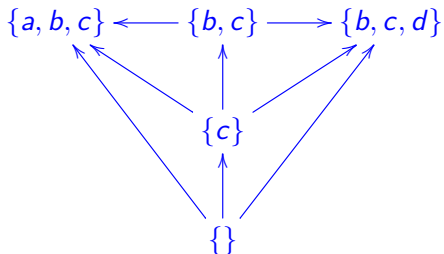


but no more —  $6$  is the **greatest** common divisor (*gcd*) between  $18$  and  $30$ :

$$\text{gcd}(18, 30) = 6$$

# Pairing two arrows

A similar situation — e.g. diagram of the same shape — but in the set inclusion category  $\mathbb{I}$  (omitting the  $\subseteq$  label in each arrow):



In this case,

$$\{b, c\} = \{a, b, c\} \cap \{b, c, d\}$$

is the **greatest** common subset — known as **intersection**.

## Pairing two arrows

Note how both  $6 = \gcd(18, 30)$  and  $\{b, c\} = \{a, b, c\} \cap \{b, c, d\}$  are **limit** objects — you cannot find **larger** objects fitting in the diagrams.

To understand the name given in CT jargon to such limit objects,

$$\{a, b, c\} \longleftarrow \{a, b, c\} \cap \{b, c, d\} \longrightarrow \{b, c, d\}$$

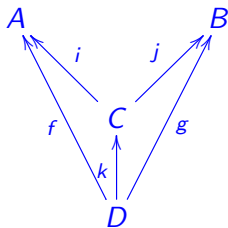
and

$$18 \xleftarrow{3} \underbrace{\gcd(18, 30)}_6 \xrightarrow{5} 30$$

we will play once again with the same "V"-shaped arrow pattern, this time in the category  $\mathbb{S}$  of sets — next slide.

# Products

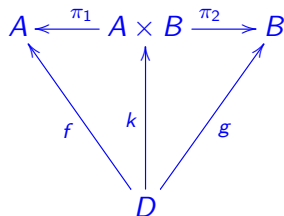
In  $\mathcal{S}$ , two pairs of functions  $f$ ,  $g$  and  $i$ ,  $j$  fitting in a diagram with the "V"-topology:



Assuming  $k : D \rightarrow C$  fits in the diagram too.

$k$  "factors" both  $f$  and  $g$ .

The "limit factorization" of  $f$  and  $g$  occurs when  $C = A \times B$ , the Cartesian product of  $A$  and  $B$ ,



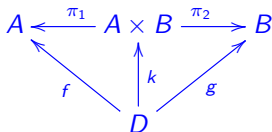
for  $i = \pi_1, j = \pi_2$ , the two **projections**  $\pi_1(a, b) = a$  and  $\pi_2(a, b) = b$ .

# Products (pairing)

What more can we say about  $k$ ?  
From the diagram there is only  
one choice for  $k$ :

$$k \cdot d = (f \cdot d, g \cdot d)$$

That is, given two functions  $f$   
and  $g$  in  $\mathbb{S}$  such that



there is a unique  $k$  such that

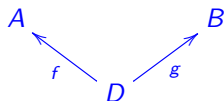
$$\pi_1 \cdot k = f \quad (5)$$

$$\pi_2 \cdot k = g \quad (6)$$

Conversely, for any function  
 $k \in \mathbb{S}(D, A \times B)$  — that is,

$$\begin{array}{c} A \times B \\ \uparrow k \\ D \end{array}$$

in  $\mathbb{S}$  there is a unique pair of  
functions



which fit into the diagram, as  
given by (5,6).



# Products

Thus, there is a **bijection** between *pair-valued* functions and *pairs* of functions,

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \xrightarrow{\text{unsplit}} & \\
 \mathbb{S}(D, A \times B) & & \mathbb{S}(D, A) \times \mathbb{S}(D, B) \\
 & \xleftarrow{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle} & \\
 k \dashv & \xrightarrow[\text{unsplit}]{} & (f, g) \\
 & & \\
 k \dashv & \xleftarrow[\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle]{} & (f, g)
 \end{array}$$

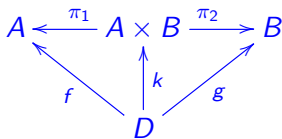
where  $\text{unsplit } k = (\pi_1 \cdot k, \pi_2 \cdot k)$ .

Below we will prefer the “outfix” notation  $k = \langle f, g \rangle$  instead of “prefix” notation  $k = \langle f, g, \cdot \rangle$ .

# Products

Another way of capturing the same bijection is to write the **universal** property:

$$k = \langle f, g \rangle \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \pi_1 \cdot k = f \\ \pi_2 \cdot k = g \end{cases} \quad (7)$$



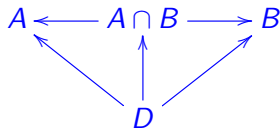
Interpret (7) as explained on the right.

Given  $f$  and  $g$  as in the diagram,

- $(\Rightarrow)$  **existence** — there is always some  $k$  fitting into the diagram
- $(\Leftarrow)$  **uniqueness** — such a  $k$  is unique.

# Products in $\mathbb{I}$

Omitting the  $\subseteq$  labels, the product diagram in  $\mathbb{I}$  is



The product bijection

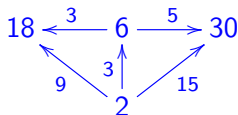
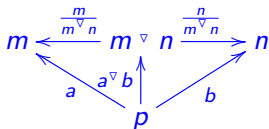
$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \xrightarrow{\text{unsplit}} & \\
 \mathbb{I}(D, A \cap B) & & \mathbb{I}(D, A) \times \mathbb{I}(D, B) \\
 & \xleftarrow{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle} & 
 \end{array}$$

in this case instantiates to the universal property of **intersection**:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \xRightarrow{\quad} & \\
 D \subseteq (A \cap B) & \Leftrightarrow & (D \subseteq A) \wedge (D \subseteq B) \\
 & \xleftarrow{\quad} & 
 \end{array}$$

# Products in $\mathbb{N}$

Next, the same "V"-diagram and property in  $\mathbb{N}$  with an example, abbreviating  $\text{gcd}(x, y)$  by  $x \nabla y$ :



Universal property:

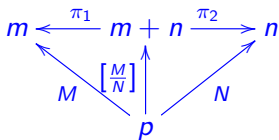
$$k = a \nabla b \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{m}{m \nabla n} \cdot k = a \\ \frac{n}{m \nabla n} \cdot k = b \end{cases}$$

Corollary ( $k = a \nabla b$ ):

$$\frac{m}{a} = \frac{n}{b} = \frac{m \nabla n}{a \nabla b}$$

# Products in $\mathbb{M}$

Finally, still the same "V"-shape and property, now in  $\mathbb{M}$ :



**NB:**  $\begin{bmatrix} M \\ N \end{bmatrix}$  is the vertical stacking of two matrices  $M$  and  $N$  with the same number of columns  $p$ .

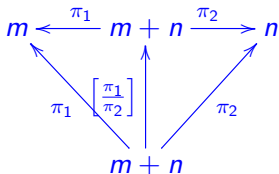
Universal property:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} M \\ N \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \pi_1 \cdot X = M \\ \pi_2 \cdot X = N \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

What kind of matrices are  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$ ? (Next slide)

# Products in $\mathbb{M}$

Consider this instance of the diagram:



Necessarily,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi_1 \\ \pi_2 \end{bmatrix} = id \quad (9)$$

because of **uniqueness**.

Don't buy this argument?

Take the universal property,

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} M \\ N \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \pi_1 \cdot X = M \\ \pi_2 \cdot X = N \end{cases}$$

for  $X = id$  and solve it for  $M$  and  $N$ . You get  $M = \pi_1$  and  $N = \pi_2$ .

## Products in $\mathbb{M}$

Equality (9) tells that  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are complementary **fragments** of the identity matrix, for example  $2 \xleftarrow{\pi_1} 2 + 3 \xrightarrow{\pi_2} 3$  in MATLAB:

```
>> p1(2,3)
```

```
1 0 0 0 0
0 1 0 0 0
```

```
>> p2(2,3)
```

```
0 0 1 0 0
0 0 0 1 0
0 0 0 0 1
```

```
>> [ p1(2,3) ; p2(2,3) ]
```

```
1 0 0 0 0
0 1 0 0 0
0 0 1 0 0
0 0 0 1 0
0 0 0 0 1
```

$\pi_1$ ,  $\pi_2$  and *id* are examples of **Boolean** matrices — they contain either 0s or 1s.

# Reversing the arrows

Suppose one wants to investigate what it means to **reverse** the arrows of a diagram. Does it make sense? What does one get?

In  $\mathbb{M}$ , each arrow  $m \xrightarrow{M} n$  can be converted into the reverse arrow  $m \xleftarrow{M^\circ} n$  known as the **converse** or **transpose** of  $M$ , such that

$$(M \cdot N)^\circ = N^\circ \cdot M^\circ \quad (10)$$

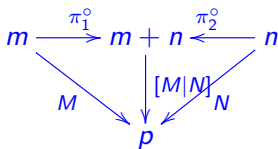
$$(M^\circ)^\circ = M \quad (11)$$

Clearly,  $M^\circ$  is  $M$  with rows swapped with columns.



# Coproducts in $\mathbb{M}$

The converse of a **product** diagram in  $\mathbb{M}$  is a so-called **coproduct** diagram,



**NB:**  $[M|N]$  is the **horizontal** gluing of two matrices  $M$  and  $N$  with the same number of rows  $p$ .

Universal property:

$$X = [M|N] \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} X \cdot i_1 = M \\ X \cdot i_2 = N \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

where  $i_1 = \pi_1^\circ$  and  $i_2 = \pi_2^\circ$  are known as **injections**.

# Coproducts in $\mathbb{M}$

Terminology:

Read  $\left[\frac{M}{N}\right]$  as “ $M$  split  $N$ ” and  $[M|N]$  as “ $M$  junc  $N$ ”.

Duality:

$$\left[\frac{M|N}{\phantom{M|N}}\right]^{\circ} = \left[\frac{M^{\circ}}{N^{\circ}}\right] \quad (13)$$

Exchange law:

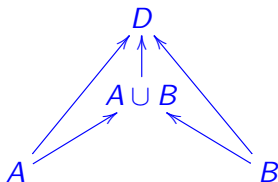
$$\left[\left[\frac{M}{N}\right] \mid \left[\frac{P}{Q}\right]\right] = \left[\frac{[M|P]}{[N|Q]}\right] \quad (14)$$

(More in the sequel.)

# Coproducts in other categories

This duality in  $\mathbb{M}$  is quite strong and is called **self duality**. In other categories the objects involved may change.

In  $\mathbb{I}$ , **coproducts** correspond to set **union**, cf.

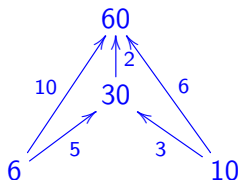


Universal properties

$$(A \cup B) \subseteq D \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq D \wedge B \subseteq D$$

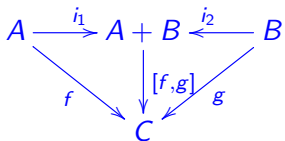
etc

In  $\mathbb{N}$ , coproducts correspond to **least common multiple**, cf.



# Coproducts in $\mathbb{S}$

The coproduct diagram in  $\mathbb{S}$ :



**NB:**  $A + B$  is the **disjoint union** of  $A$  and  $B$  under injections  $i_1 a = (1, a)$  and  $i_2 b = (2, b)$ ; the intuitive meaning of  $[f, g]$  will be given later.

Universal property:

$$k = [f, g] \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} k \cdot i_1 = f \\ k \cdot i_2 = g \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

Combinator  $[f, g]$  hides a kind of “if-then-else”: either  $f$  or  $g$  to run depending on the type of the input.

# Conditional arrows in $\mathbb{S}$

Given a **predicate**  $A \xrightarrow{p} Bool$ , define

$$p? : A \rightarrow A + A$$

$$p? a = \begin{cases} i_1 a \Leftarrow p a \\ i_2 a \Leftarrow \neg p a \end{cases}$$

Then arrow composition grants the existence of **conditional** arrows:

$$\mathbf{if } p \mathbf{ then } f \mathbf{ else } g = [f, g] \cdot p?$$

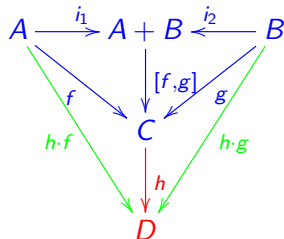
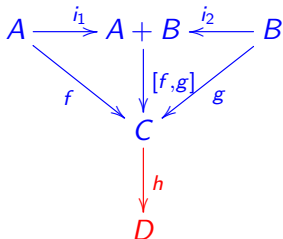
These arrows are of the same type as their arguments  $f, g$ .

(Note how we are getting closer and closer to having a **programming language...**)

# Diagrams as proofs

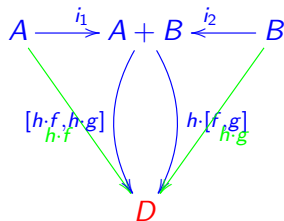
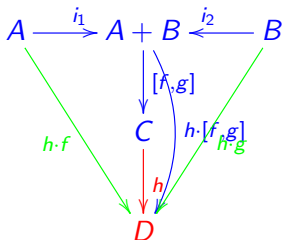
The **existence** and **uniqueness** of arrow  $k$  in (15) offers a nice, diagrammatic way of calculating properties.

For instance, adding another arrow  $h$  to the coproduct diagram entails, by **existence**:



# Diagrams as proofs

Still **existence**:



Next, by **uniqueness**:

$$h \cdot [f, g] = [h \cdot f, h \cdot g] \quad (16)$$

This is known as the coproduct-**fusion** law.

# Saving your brain

A similar sequence of diagrams will yield the **product**-fusion law

$$\langle f, g \rangle \cdot h = \langle f \cdot h, g \cdot h \rangle \quad (17)$$

in  $\mathbb{S}$ , etc. **Most importantly:**

Due to the **abstract equivalence** of all product or co-product diagrams, we can port these properties from  $\mathbb{S}$  to other categories,

e.g. the **gcd**-fusion law in  $\mathbb{N}$ ,

$$(a \nabla b) \cdot c = (a \cdot c) \nabla (b \cdot c)$$

the two fusion laws of blocked linear algebra in  $\mathbb{M}$ ,

$$\left[ \frac{M}{N} \right] \cdot Q = \left[ \frac{M \cdot Q}{N \cdot Q} \right] \quad (18)$$

$$Q \cdot [M|N] = [Q \cdot M|Q \cdot N] \quad (19)$$

and so on and so forth.



# Save your brain!

## Summing up:

- *Saving one's brain* is perhaps the most **practical** outcome of CT: a single, **generic** construct instantiates to many — semantically disparate — concrete constructs.
- A single proof (using **diagrams**, if you like) replaces many repetitive proofs at instance level.
- **Products** and **coproducts** are themselves instances of more general constructs known as **limits** and **colimits** (cf. later in the course).
- A single, unified and **typed** (arrow) **language** for all domains.

More about this next.

# Generalizing $\mathbb{M}$

The objects of  $\mathbb{M}$  can be generalized from numeric dimensions ( $n$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$ ) to arbitrary denumerable sets (types) ( $X$ ,  $Y$ ), taking

- **disjoint union**  $X + Y$  for  $m + n$ ,
- Cartesian product  $X \times Y$  for  $m \times n$
- Any (fixed) singleton type  $1$  for number  $1 \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Matrix multiplication — **composition** in  $\mathbb{M}$  — is still well-defined since addition is commutative, so the order in the summation

$$y (M \cdot N) x = \langle \sum z :: (y M z) \times (z N x) \rangle \quad (20)$$

is irrelevant.

---

**NB:** note that the  $(b, a)$ -cell of **matrix**  $M$  is denoted by  $b M a$  and not by  $M_{b,a}$  or any other notation. (The rationale behind this choice of notation will be explained later.)

# Subcategories

Are the **categories** we have seen completed **isolated worlds**?

No — we can relate/combine them. Let us show, as example, how  $\mathbb{S}$  can be expressed in (generalized)  $\mathbb{M}$ .

Think of a function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  in  $\mathbb{S}$  and check how it can be represented by a matrix  $M : A \rightarrow B$  in  $\mathbb{M}$ , say

$$M = \llbracket f \rrbracket$$

defined by

$$b \llbracket f \rrbracket a = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b = (f a) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

# Subcategories

Example: the function in  $\mathbb{S}$

$$Bool \xrightarrow{\neg} Bool = \begin{cases} \neg False = True \\ \neg True = False \end{cases}$$

is represented in  $\mathbb{M}$  by the matrix

$$Bool \xrightarrow{[\neg]} Bool = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

— a representation we use all the time, albeit “informally”.

The same matrix with the **typing** made explicit:

$$Bool \xrightarrow{[\neg]} Bool = \begin{array}{c|cc} & False & True \\ \hline False & 0 & 1 \\ True & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

# Subcategories

Moreover, everything we can do in  $\mathbb{S}$  can be done in  $\mathbb{M}$ , for instance **composition**

$$\llbracket f \cdot g \rrbracket = \llbracket f \rrbracket \cdot \llbracket g \rrbracket$$

with **identity**  $\llbracket id \rrbracket = id$  — cf. the following check in MATLAB that negation ( $\neg$ ) is a bijection:

```
>> not = [0 1; 1 0]
```

```
>> not * not
```

```
ans =
```

```
1    0  
0    1
```

# Subcategories

However, not every **matrix** in  $\mathbb{M}$  represents a **function** from  $\mathbb{S}$ .

Not even every **Boolean matrix** (containing zeros and ones only) represents a function, e.g.

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here we don't know which output for the first argument to choose, and for the second argument the "function" is **undefined**...

---

*We say that  $\mathbb{S}$  is a **subcategory** of  $\mathbb{M}$ .*

---

(This relationship will be later made more precise using so-called **functors** between categories.)

# Subcategories

There is a nice way of checking whether a matrix represents a function or not.

Pick the **unique** function that one can think of, of type  $A \rightarrow 1$  — (necessarily) a **constant** function.

This function is usually named “bang” (as it “destroys” every argument!) and written  $! : A \rightarrow 1$ .

---

A **Boolean** matrix  $M : A \rightarrow B$  in  $\mathbb{M}$  **uniquely** represents a function of the same type  $A \rightarrow B$  in  $\mathbb{S}$  iff

$$! \cdot M = ! \tag{22}$$

holds.

---

Note the *polymorphism* of the two copies of  $!$ .

# Subcategories

MATLAB: checking that matrix

```
M =  
    1  0  1  
    0  1  0
```

represents a function:

```
>> [1 1] * M
```

```
ans =
```

```
    1  1  1
```

You can see above two copies of the polymorphic “bang” matrix.



Probabilistic functions ( $\mathbb{P}$ )

QUESTION: What does clause (22) mean in case we relax the **Boolean** requirement and let  $M$  hold positive real numbers?

One easily checks that e.g. the following matrix,

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0.3 & 0 & 0.75 \\ 0.5 & 0.7 & 1 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix}$$

satisfies (22).

Thus we have found another interesting **subcategory** of  $\mathbb{M}$  — that which includes all **probabilistic functions** ( $\mathbb{P}$ ), instances of which are commonly known as **Markov chains**.

$\mathbb{S}$  is also a subcategory of  $\mathbb{P}$  — as “pure” functions correspond to restricting to **Dirac distributions** — one sole  $1$  per column.

# Distributions ( $\mathbb{P}$ )

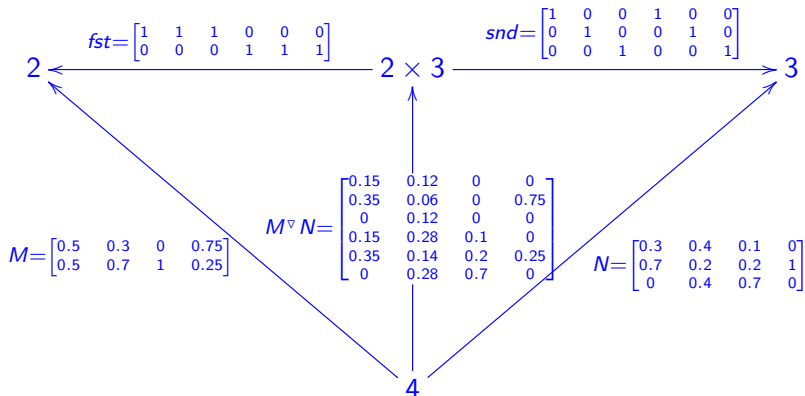
What does a **morphism** of type  $1 \longrightarrow A$  mean?

- In  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $1 \xrightarrow{n} n$  denotes the **number**  $n$  itself
- In  $\mathbb{S}$ ,  $1 \xrightarrow{p} A$  means a **point**, since  $p$  can only yield one element (point) of  $A$
- In  $\mathbb{M}$ ,  $1 \xrightarrow{v} A$  is known as a **column vector** (matrix with only one column)
- In  $\mathbb{P}$ ,  $1 \xrightarrow{\delta} A$  is called a **distribution**, for instance

$$1 \xrightarrow{\delta} 6 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0.2 \\ 0.2 \\ 0.6 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Probabilistic pairing

What does **arrow pairing** mean in **M** or **P**? Check the diagram:



# Probabilistic pairing

In  $\mathbb{M}$  (also  $\mathbb{P}$ ) pairing corresponds to the so called **Khatri-Rao product**  $A \times B \xleftarrow{M^\nabla N} C$  of two matrices  $A \xleftarrow{M} C$  and  $B \xleftarrow{N} C$ :

$$(a, b) (M^\nabla N) c = (a M c) \times (b N c) \quad (23)$$

Example in MATLAB:

```
>> kr([1,0,11;-3,-4,0;], [0,1,3;0,2,4;])
ans =
```

```
0    0    33
0    0    44
0   -4    0
0   -8    0
```

# Probabilistic pairing

This time there are differences, however, compared to  $\mathbb{S}$ , as pairing in  $\mathbb{P}$  is not perfect:

$$X = M \triangleright N \Rightarrow \begin{cases} fst \cdot X = M \\ snd \cdot X = N \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

As  $(\Leftarrow)$  is not guaranteed, lossless decomposition may fail and

$$(fst \cdot X) \triangleright (snd \cdot X)$$

differs from  $X$  in general.

We say that **pairing** in  $\mathbb{P}$  is a **weak-product**.

Note, however, that  $\llbracket f \rrbracket \triangleright \llbracket g \rrbracket = \llbracket \langle f, g \rangle \rrbracket$ , where  $f$  and  $g$  are “pure” functions.

# Probabilistic pairing (entanglement)

The problem is that **reconstruction**

$$X = (fst \cdot X) \vee (snd \cdot X)$$

doesn't hold in general, cf. e.g.

$$\begin{array}{l}
 X : 2 \rightarrow 2 \times 3 \\
 X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0 \\ 0.2 & 0.1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 (fst \cdot X) \vee (snd \cdot X) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.24 & 0.4 \\ 0.08 & 0 \\ 0.08 & 0.1 \\ 0.36 & 0.4 \\ 0.12 & 0 \\ 0.12 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$X$  is not recoverable from its projections: Khatri-Rao not **surjective**.

In **quantum** computing this situation is known as **entanglement** — entangled distributions on pairs cannot be projected into pairs of distributions.

# Probabilistic programming

Consider the following instance of pairing, in  $\mathbb{S}$ ,

$$12 \xleftarrow{\text{add}} 6 \times 6 \xleftarrow{a^\nabla b} 1 \quad (25)$$

where  $\text{add}(x, y) = x + y$ .

Clearly, the composition expresses the term  $a + b$ , since  $a$  and  $b$  stand for numbers in  $\{1..6\}$ .

What does the **same diagram** mean in  $\mathbb{P}$ ? In this case  $a$  and  $b$  are bound to be **distributions**.

One can think of  $a$  and  $b$  being two **dice** and of diagram (25) as expressing the **probability of the sum** of the faces shown (next slide).

# Probabilistic programming

Assume both dice are **fair**, that is, the input distributions are **uniform**:

$$a = b = \left[ \frac{1}{6} \quad \frac{1}{6} \quad \frac{1}{6} \quad \frac{1}{6} \quad \frac{1}{6} \quad \frac{1}{6} \right]^\circ$$

Addition is represented by the matrix

$$y \llbracket \text{add} \rrbracket (a, b) = \text{if } y = a + b \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0$$

Then the arrow  $12 \xleftarrow{\text{add} \cdot (a \nabla b)} 1$  evaluates to the distribution aside, where outcome **1** is impossible, outcome **7** is the most likely, and so on.

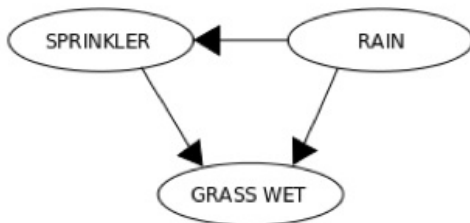
0
0.0278
0.0555
0.0833
0.1111
0.1389
0.1667
0.1389
0.1389
0.0833
0.0555
0.0278



# Probabilistic modelling

Example adapted from

[ [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bayesian\\_network](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bayesian_network) ]



Control a **sprinkler** to wet the **grass** in case it does not **rain**.

# Deterministic model in $\mathbb{S}$

$$S = R = G = 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sprinkler} &: R \rightarrow S \\ \text{sprinkler } r &= \neg r \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{grass} &: S \times R \rightarrow G \\ \text{grass } (s, r) &= s \vee r \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{rain} \in \{0, 1\}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} G \times (S \times R) \\ \uparrow \text{grass}^\nabla \text{id} \\ S \times R \\ \uparrow \text{sprinkler}^\nabla \text{id} \\ R \\ \uparrow \text{rain} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

Grass always wet:

$$\text{grass } (\text{sprinkler } r, r) = \neg r \vee r = \text{True}$$

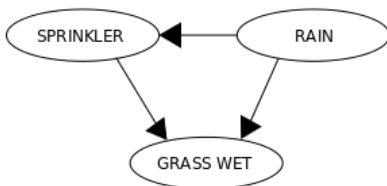
Altogether, two possible states  $\{(1, (1, 0)), (1, (0, 1))\}$  of type:

$$G \times (S \times R) \xleftarrow{\text{state}} 1 = (\text{grass}^\nabla \text{id}) \cdot (\text{sprinkler}^\nabla \text{id}) \cdot \text{rain}$$

# Bayesian networks

Previous model (in [S](#)) is not realistic — the pictures actually found on Wikipedia are:

RAIN	SPRINKLER	
	T	F
F	0.4	0.6
T	0.01	0.99



RAIN	T	F
	0.2	0.8

SPRINKLER	RAIN	GRASS WET	
		T	F
F	F	0.0	1.0
F	T	0.8	0.2
T	F	0.9	0.1
T	T	0.99	0.01

# Bayesian network ( $\mathbb{P}$ )

This corresponds to moving to  $\mathbb{P}$  and letting

$$S = R = G = 2$$

$$S \xleftarrow{\text{sprinkler}} R = \begin{bmatrix} 0.60 & 0.99 \\ 0.40 & 0.01 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R \xleftarrow{\text{rain}} 1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.80 \\ 0.20 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$G \xleftarrow{\text{grass}} S \times R = \begin{bmatrix} 1.00 & 0.20 & 0.10 & 0.01 \\ 0 & 0.80 & 0.90 & 0.99 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 G \times (S \times R) \\
 \uparrow \text{grass}^\nabla \text{id} \\
 S \times R \\
 \uparrow \text{sprinkler}^\nabla \text{id} \\
 R \\
 \uparrow \text{rain} \\
 1
 \end{array}$$

The “same” state arrow

$$G \times (S \times R) \xleftarrow{\text{state}} 1 = (\text{grass}^\nabla \text{id}) \cdot (\text{sprinkler}^\nabla \text{id}) \cdot \text{rain}$$

now has a different meaning since the category became  $\mathbb{P}$  (next slide).

# Bayesian network ( $\mathbb{P}$ )

$$G \times (S \times R) \xleftarrow{\text{state}} 1 =$$

	$G$	$S$	$R$	
dry	off	<i>no</i>	0.4800	0.0396
		<i>yes</i>	0.0320	
	on	<i>no</i>	0.0000	0.0000
		<i>yes</i>	0.1584	
wet	off	<i>no</i>	0.2880	0.0020
	on	<i>yes</i>	0.0020	

Moreover, we can define

$$1 \xleftarrow{\text{grass\_wet}} G \times (S \times R) = [0 \ 1] \cdot \text{fst}$$

$$1 \xleftarrow{\text{raining}} G \times (S \times R) = [0 \ 1] \cdot \text{snd} \cdot \text{snd}$$

etc. to obtain e.g.  $P_{\text{state}}(\text{grass\_wet}) = \text{grass\_wet} \cdot \text{state} = 44.84\%$ .

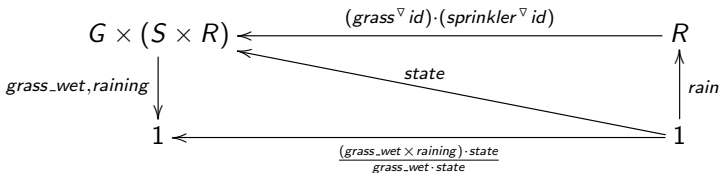
# Bayesian network querying

**Conditional probabilities** over a state distribution  $\delta$ :

$$P_\delta(a \mid b) = \frac{(a \times b) \cdot \delta}{b \cdot \delta} \quad \text{given} \quad 1 \xleftarrow{a,b} S \xleftarrow{\delta} 1 \quad (26)$$

Boolean vectors  $a$  and  $b$  describe "event" sets.

Recall



Forwards:  $P_{\text{state}}(\text{grass\_wet} \mid \text{raining}) = 80.19\%$

Backwards:  $P_{\text{state}}(\text{raining} \mid \text{grass\_wet}) = 35.77\%$

# Summary thus far

Diagrams central to category theory.

They can express **abstract** properties or abstract **models** of problems.

A diagram modeling a problem captures its essence, or abstract structure.

Keeping the diagram, more elaborate semantics for the problem can be expressed **just** by changing category:

---

*“Keep definition, change category” principle (Oliveira and Miraldo, 2016)*

---

# Enriched categories

Given two numbers  $a$  and  $b$ , we can add them ( $a + b$ ), multiply them ( $a \times b$ ) etc.

Likewise, given two matrices  $n \xleftarrow{M,N} m$  we can add them ( $M + N$ ), e.g.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -9 & 3 & 12 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ -7 & 6 & 16 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and multiply them ( $M \times N$ ):

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -9 & 3 & 12 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -18 & 9 & 48 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

But, matrices are **arrows** (morphisms) — does it make sense to “add / multiply arrows”?



# Enriched categories

Yes it does, in so-called **enriched**-categories: categories with **extra** mathematical **structure**.

Recall that a homset  $\mathbb{C}(m, n)$  in a category  $\mathbb{C}$  is a set.

An **enrichment** consists in adding some algebraic structure to such sets.

Some care is needed concerning the interplay between such enriched  $\mathbb{C}(m, n)$  and the basic structure, namely **composition**.

**Abelian** categories (next slide) are particularly interesting cases of enriched categories.

# Abelian categories

$\mathbb{M}$  is **Abelian** because every homset  $\mathbb{M}(m, n)$  forms an additive Abelian group (**Ab**-category) such that composition is bilinear relative to  $+$ :

$$M \cdot (N + L) = M \cdot N + M \cdot L \quad (27)$$

$$(N + L) \cdot K = N \cdot K + L \cdot K \quad (28)$$

The Abelian structure grants  $M + 0 = M$ , where  $0$  is the all- $0$  matrix of its type.

---

*The Abelian structure can be further enriched to a ring with  $M \times N$  given by the so-called **Hadamard** product:*

$$b(M \times N)a = (bMa) \times (bNa) \quad (29)$$

*$M \times 1 = M$  holds where  $1$  is the all- $1$  matrix of its type.*

---

**NB:** as before we assume  $\mathbb{M}$  defined over the reals.

# Abelian categories

The additive structure of  $\mathbb{M}$  grants a number of laws, namely the so called **divide-and-conquer** law

$$[M|N] \cdot \left[ \frac{P}{Q} \right] = M \cdot P + N \cdot Q \quad (30)$$

which is the basis of (**parallel**) blocked linear algebra, and can also be written as

$$[M|N] \cdot [P|Q]^\circ = M \cdot P^\circ + N \cdot Q^\circ \quad (31)$$

It turns out that

$$[M|N] = M \cdot \pi_1 + N \cdot \pi_2 \quad (32)$$

$$\left[ \frac{M}{N} \right] = i_1 \cdot M + i_2 \cdot N \quad (33)$$

also hold.

# Order enrichment

Categories can also be enriched by regarding homsets as ordered structures, for instance **partial orders**.

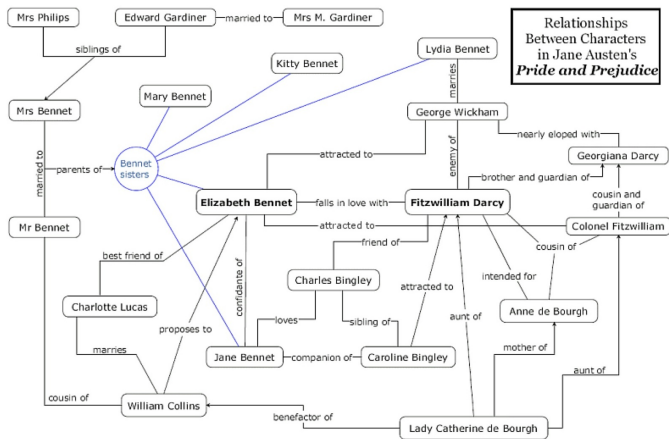
This is useful when we want to solve **recursive equations** in a category (more about this later).

The topic brings about another category — the category of **binary relations**  $\mathbb{R}$ .

This category is very useful to model real-life problems: relational **databases** rely on  $\mathbb{R}$  by definition.

# Everything is a relation...

... in **real** life — recall



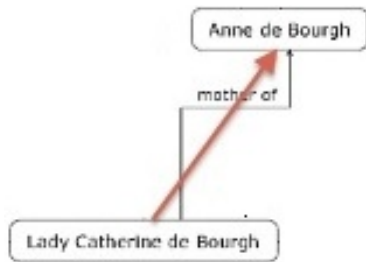
# Arrow notation for relations

The picture is a collection of **relations** — aka. a **semantic network** — elsewhere known as a (binary) **relational system**.

However, in spite of the use of **arrows** in the picture (aside) not many people would write

*mother\_of* : *People* → *People*

as the **type** of **relation**  
*mother\_of*.



# The category of relations $\mathbb{R}$

Let the arrows of  $\mathbb{S}$  be not only functions, say  $A \xrightarrow{f} B$ , but also relations  $A \xrightarrow{R} B$ .

In the same way assertion  $b = f a$  may hold or not, so may  $b R a$ , the assertion that pair  $(b, a)$  belongs to  $R$ .

Thus extended,  $\mathbb{S}$  becomes  $\mathbb{R}$ , the category of **binary relations**.

In  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $id$  is the **equality** relation; **composition**  $R \cdot S$  is given by

$$b (R \cdot S) c \Leftrightarrow \exists a : b R a \wedge a S c \quad (34)$$

cf.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 B & \xleftarrow{R} & A & \xleftarrow{S} & C \\
 & \searrow & \swarrow & \searrow & \\
 & & R \cdot S & & 
 \end{array}$$

# The category of relations $\mathbb{R}$

In general, the **converse**  $f^\circ$  of a function  $f$  is a relation, not a function.

Thus  $\mathbb{S}$  does not have converse morphisms, while  $\mathbb{R}$  does:  $a (R^\circ) b$  means the same as  $b R a$  — as in  $\mathbb{M}$ , recall.

Like in  $\mathbb{M}$ , we have the laws

$$(R \cdot S)^\circ = S^\circ \cdot R^\circ \quad (35)$$

$$R^{\circ\circ} = R \quad (36)$$

So  $\mathbb{R}$  is another example of a self-dual category. Arrows  $A \rightarrow 1$  and  $1 \rightarrow A$  both denote **sets**.



# The category of relations $\mathbb{R}$

Category  $\mathbb{R}$  provides a useful generalization of  $\mathbb{S}$ .

A rich terminology emerges simply by defining the **order**

$$R \subseteq S \Leftrightarrow R \cup S = S \quad (37)$$

on the homsets:

- $R$  is **reflexive** iff  $id \subseteq R$
- $R$  is **symmetric** iff  $R^\circ \subseteq R$
- $R$  is **transitive** iff  $R \cdot R \subseteq R$
- $R$  is **injective** iff  $R^\circ \cdot R \subseteq id$
- $R$  is **simple** (aka. a partial function) iff  $R \cdot R^\circ \subseteq id$
- $R$  is **entire** (aka. total) iff  $id \subseteq R^\circ \cdot R$
- $R$  is **surjective** iff  $id \subseteq R \cdot R^\circ$

# The category of relations $\mathbb{R}$

Each homset  $\mathbb{R}(A, B)$  forms a **Boolean algebra** under union ( $\cup$ ), intersection ( $\cap$ ) and complementation, plus a **topmost** relation

$$B \xleftarrow{\top} A \text{ and a } \mathbf{least} \text{ relation } B \xleftarrow{\perp} A.$$

Pairing in  $\mathbb{R}$

$$(a, b) (R \nabla S) c = (a R c) \wedge (b S c) \quad (38)$$

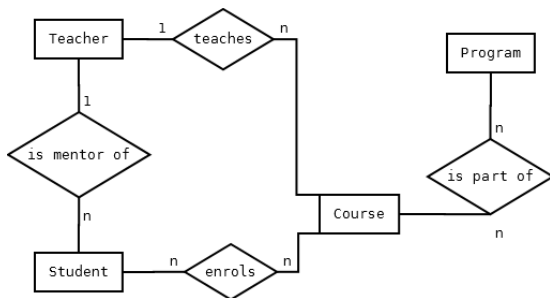
does not even form a weak-product. But its universal property takes advantage of the order-enriched structure:

$$\pi_1 \cdot X \subseteq R \wedge \pi_2 \cdot X \subseteq S \Leftrightarrow X \subseteq R \nabla S \quad (39)$$

(This is an example of a so-called **Galois** connection.)

# Exercise

So-called “**Entity-Relationship**” (ER) diagrams are commonly used to capture relational data schemas, e.g.<sup>1</sup>



Draw the same using morphism (arrows) in  $\mathbb{R}$  and identify the properties of each relation in the diagram.

<sup>1</sup>Credits: <https://dba.stackexchange.com/questions>.

# Relational programming

If  $\mathbb{S}$  supports functional programming,  $\mathbb{R}$  supports another programming paradigm: take the (simple) Prolog program

```
mother_child(trude, sally).
```

```
father_child(tom, sally).
```

```
father_child(tom, erica).
```

```
father_child(mike, tom).
```

```
parent_child(X, Y) :- father_child(X, Y).
```

```
parent_child(X, Y) :- mother_child(X, Y).
```

```
sibling(X, Y)      :- parent_child(Z, X), parent_child(Z, Y).
```

```
grand_parent(X, Y) :- parent_child(X, Z), parent_child(Z, Y).
```

# Relational programming ( $\mathbb{R}$ )

Meaning of this program in category  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \textit{sibling} \\
 \textit{grand\_parent} \\
 P \xleftarrow{\quad} P \xleftarrow{\{trude,sally,\dots\}} 1 \\
 \textit{father\_child} \\
 \textit{mother\_child} \\
 \textit{parent\_child}
 \end{array}$$

Clauses:

$$\textit{mother\_child} \cup \textit{father\_child} \subseteq \textit{parent\_child} \quad (40)$$

$$\textit{parent\_child}^\circ \cdot \textit{parent\_child} \subseteq \textit{sibling} \quad (41)$$

$$\textit{parent\_child} \cdot \textit{parent\_child} \subseteq \textit{grand\_parent} \quad (42)$$

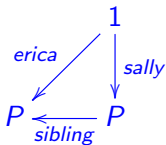
Note how object  $P$  (type for people) is made explicit (typing!).

# Relational programming ( $\mathbb{R}$ )

Running query

```
?- sibling(erica,sally)
```

cf. diagram



corresponds to checking whether arrow  $1 \xleftarrow{erica^\circ \cdot sibling \cdot sally} 1$  (a scalar in  $\mathbb{R}$ ) is empty or not.

NB: *erica* and *sally* are atoms, therefore (“atomic”) functions.

# Relational programming ( $\mathbb{R}$ )

Checking:

$$erica^\circ \cdot sibling \cdot sally$$

$$\supseteq \{ (41) ; (35) \}$$

$$(parent\_child \cdot erica)^\circ \cdot parent\_child \cdot sally$$

$$\supseteq \{ (40) \}$$

$$(father\_child \cdot erica)^\circ \cdot father\_child \cdot sally$$

$$= \{ facts \}$$

$$tom^\circ \cdot tom$$

$$= \{ tom \text{ is an atom} \}$$

T

□

# What about quantum programming?

“Equation” *a la* Wirth:

$$(Quantum) Programs = (Quantum) Algorithms + (Quantum) Data Structures$$

Quantum algorithms based on elementary **components**, called **quantum gates**.

Classical bits generalize to quantum bits (**qubits**) — quantum data.

		CONTROL	
		Classic	Quantum
DATA	Classic	—	x
	Quantum	x	x



# What about quantum programming?

In quantum programming, all computations are **reversible**.

This is expressed in linear algebra by so-called **unitary** matrices.

Standard **quantum programming gates**, used in **quantum circuits** (Nielsen and Chuang, 2011) can be expressed in  $\mathbb{M}$ , that is, in typed LA.

They can be **decomposed** into polymorphic, elementary matrix categorical **units**.

Pairing (Khatri-Rao  $\nabla$  + Kronecker products  $\otimes$ ) is central to quantum data structuring.

From now on we extend matrices in  $\mathbb{M}$  to hold **complex** numbers ( $\mathbb{C}$ ) and not just reals.

# Unitary gates

A  $\mathbb{C}$ -valued matrix  $U$  is unitary iff  $U \cdot U^* = U^* \cdot U = id$ , where  $U^*$  is the **conjugate** transpose of  $U$ .

Thus all isomorphisms (reversible functions) are special cases of **unitary** matrices.

But **isomorphisms** admit further decompositions in terms of such matrices, for instance “the sqrt of not”

$$\neg = (\sqrt{\neg}) \cdot (\sqrt{\neg})$$

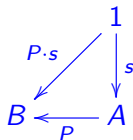
where

$$\sqrt{\neg} = \frac{1}{2} (\top + i (id - \neg)) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1+i & 1-i \\ 1-i & 1+i \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus one gets into the wonderful world of **actual** quantum gates in which classical logic operations are no longer primitive.

# Quantum processing

**Quantum application** — like function application, the outcome of processing quantum data  $s$  by quantum gate  $P$  is given by  $P \cdot s$ .



**Qubits** — The smallest (useful)  $A$  is  $2$ , the Booleans — so a (qu)bit  $2 \xleftarrow{s} 1$  is always a vector of the form  $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ .

**'Ket' Notation** — traditionally,

- $|0\rangle : 1 \rightarrow 2$  denotes the vector  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  which represents point 0 (a bit holding 0).
- $|1\rangle : 1 \rightarrow 2$  denotes the vector  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  which represents point 1 (a bit holding 1).

# $|\phi\rangle$ notation

Since  $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = a \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , the notation  $a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$  is normally used to denote **qubit**  $\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$ .

A qubit  $2 \xleftarrow{a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle} 1$  expresses a quantum **superposition** of the two truth values.

Complex numbers  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$  are called **amplitudes** and are such that  $a^2 + b^2 = 1$ .

Given two qubits  $1 \xrightarrow{u} 2$  and  $1 \xrightarrow{v} 2$ ,  $1 \xrightarrow{u^\vee v} 2 \times 2$  denotes their **pairing**.

This leads to an extension of the 'ket' notation (next slide).

# $|\phi\rangle$ notation and pairing

$$\begin{aligned}
 & |0\rangle \nabla |1\rangle \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{thinking functional helps here} \} \\
 & \underline{0} \nabla \underline{1} \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{constant functions} \} \\
 & \underline{(0, 1)} \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{vector notation} \} \\
 & \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{extended 'ket' notation} \} \\
 & |01\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

# $|\phi\rangle$ notation and pairing

More generally, the qubit pairing  $(a |0\rangle + b |1\rangle) \nabla (c |0\rangle + d |1\rangle)$  yields, once converted to vector notation

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \nabla \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Khatri-Rao} \} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} ac \\ ad \\ bc \\ bd \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \quad \{ \text{vector addition} \}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} ac \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ ad \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ bc \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ bd \end{bmatrix}$$

that is,  $ac |00\rangle + ad |01\rangle + bc |10\rangle + bd |11\rangle$ .

# Qubit entanglement

The qubit pair

$$2 \times 2 \longleftarrow \frac{|00\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} 1$$

is a well-known example of **entanglement** – you get

$$fst \cdot \left( \frac{|00\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$snd \cdot \left( \frac{|00\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = \left( \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

but

$$\frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \nabla \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = 2 \times 2 \longleftarrow \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^\circ 1$$

is different from the original  $2 \times 2 \longleftarrow \frac{|00\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} 1$ .

# Classic (quantum) control

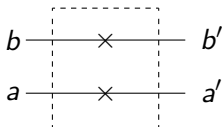
(Polymorphic) functional programming can play a nice role in quantum processing (perhaps not fully appreciated yet).

Think of the function  $swap(a, b) = (b, a)$ , that is, the **isomorphism**:

$$A \times B \xrightarrow{swap} B \times A = snd \triangleright fst.$$

For  $A = B = 2$ , this corresponds to the classical gate

		0	0	1	1
		0	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	0	0	1





# SWAP Gates

Applied to a qubit pair it will yield:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{swap} \cdot (a |00\rangle + b |01\rangle + c |10\rangle + d |11\rangle) \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{explain to vector notation} \} \\
 & \text{swap} \cdot \left( a \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + c \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + d \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{swap} = \text{snd} \nabla \text{fst} ; \text{vector addition} \} \\
 & (\text{snd} \nabla \text{fst}) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{bmatrix} \\
 = & \quad \{ \text{matrix-vector multiplication; then back to } |\phi\rangle \text{ notation} \} \\
 & a |00\rangle + c |01\rangle + b |10\rangle + d |11\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

# Quantum control

A well-known quantum gate is the **Hadamard gate**:

$$2 \xleftarrow{H} 2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Applying this gate to qubit  $u = a |0\rangle + b |1\rangle$ :

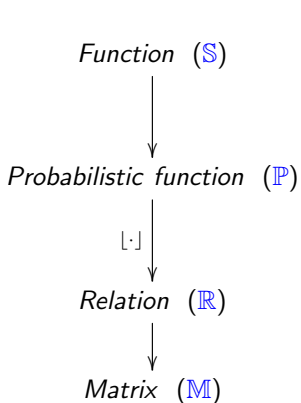
$$2 \xleftarrow{H} 2 \xleftarrow{u} 1$$

$\xleftarrow{H \cdot u}$

Calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot (a |0\rangle + b |1\rangle) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \right) = \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} a+b \\ a-b \end{bmatrix} &= \frac{a+b}{\sqrt{2}} |0\rangle + \frac{a-b}{\sqrt{2}} |1\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

# Summary



$$f = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0.5 & 0.1 \\ 0 & 0.7 & 0 & 0.9 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f \subseteq R = \llbracket g \rrbracket = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\llbracket g \rrbracket$  is called the **support** of  $g$ . Supports “convert” probabilistic functions into relations. Matrices in  $\mathbb{M}$  can be unitary.

# Pivot point

What is the **exact** meaning of the word “convert” in the previous slide?

This question also arises about matrix  $[[f]]$  (in category  $\mathbb{M}$ ) “representing” function  $f$  in category  $\mathbb{S}$ .

The type of  $[[_]]$  should be something like  $\mathbb{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{M}$ .

But  $\mathbb{S}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  are **categories**, not mere **sets**.

This raises the need for **functors** — functions which “map arrows to arrows”.

# Functors

Given categories  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $\mathbb{D}$ , a functor  $\mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}} \mathbb{D}$  maps the arrows of  $\mathbb{C}$  into the arrows of  $\mathbb{D}$ ,

$$\mathbb{C}(a, b) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}} \mathbb{D}(a, b)$$

$$\mathbb{C} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{F}} \mathbb{D}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 a & \cdots & \mathfrak{F} a \\
 f \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathfrak{F} f \\
 b & \cdots & \mathfrak{F} b
 \end{array}$$

such that

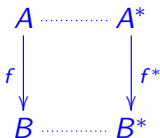
$$\mathfrak{F} id = id \tag{43}$$

$$\mathfrak{F}(g \cdot f) = (\mathfrak{F} g) \cdot (\mathfrak{F} f) \tag{44}$$

So  $\mathfrak{F}$  “respects” the core structure of categories: **identity** and **composition**.

# Functors

A well-known example of a functor in  $\mathbb{S}$ , dear to **functional programming**, is the operation which **maps** a function  $f$  over a list,  $\mathfrak{F} f = f^*$  where  $f^* x = [f a \mid a \leftarrow x]$ , cf. the diagram



Clearly, (43) and (44) hold for this functor, that is,

$$id^* x = x$$

$$(g^* \cdot f^*) x = [(g \cdot f) a \mid a \leftarrow x] = (g \cdot f)^*$$

hold. Functor  $\_{}^* : \mathbb{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}$  is an example of a **endo**-functor — a functor from a category to itself.

# Bifunctors

Given in general three categories  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\mathbb{D}$  and  $\mathbb{E}$ , a **bifunctor**

$\mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{D} \xrightarrow{\tilde{\mathfrak{F}}} \mathbb{E}$  is a binary functor

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \mathbb{C} & \times & \mathbb{D} & \xrightarrow{\tilde{\mathfrak{F}}} & \mathbb{E} \\
 \\
 a & \cdots & c & \cdots & \tilde{\mathfrak{F}}(a, c) \\
 f \downarrow & & g \downarrow & & \downarrow \tilde{\mathfrak{F}}(f, g) \\
 b & \cdots & d & \cdots & \tilde{\mathfrak{F}}(b, d)
 \end{array}$$

such that:

$$\tilde{\mathfrak{F}}(id, id) = id \tag{45}$$

$$\tilde{\mathfrak{F}}(h \cdot f, k \cdot g) = \tilde{\mathfrak{F}}(h, k) \cdot \tilde{\mathfrak{F}}(f, g) \tag{46}$$

# Bifunctors

Wherever  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{D} = \mathbb{E}$  we say  $\mathfrak{F}$  is an **endo**-bifunctor.

Examples: in  $\mathbb{M}$ , **direct sum**

$$M \oplus N = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c} M & 0 \\ \hline 0 & N \end{array} \right] \quad (47)$$

is an (endo)bifunctor defined by

$$M \oplus N = [i_1 \cdot M | i_2 \cdot N] \quad (48)$$

cf. the coproduct diagram

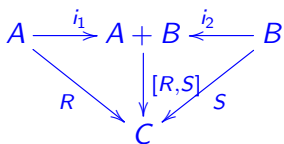
$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{i_1} & A + B & \xleftarrow{i_2} & B \\
 M \downarrow & & \downarrow M \oplus N & & \downarrow N \\
 C & \xrightarrow{i_1} & C + D & \xleftarrow{i_2} & D
 \end{array}$$



# Bifunctors

## Direct sum

Notably, direct sum (48) is present in all categories  $\mathbb{M}$ ,  $\mathbb{S}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$ , as coproducts of  $\mathbb{S}$  lift to coproducts in  $\mathbb{R}$ :



$$X = [R, S] \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} X \cdot i_1 = R \\ X \cdot i_2 = S \end{cases}$$

## Kronecker product

Also interesting is the fact that, in spite of not being a product, **pairing** in  $\mathbb{M}$  leads to a bifunctor,

$$M \otimes N = M \cdot \text{fst} \triangleright N \cdot \text{snd} \quad (49)$$

known as **Kronecker product**, which also extends to  $\mathbb{S}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$ .

# Composite Functors

As expected, functors compose with each other.

The most simple functors are the **identity** functor, which maps an arrow onto itself,

$$\mathcal{I} ( b \xleftarrow{f} a ) = b \xleftarrow{f} a$$

and so-called **constant** functors: given an object  $k$  of a category  $\mathbb{C}$ , we define the constant functor  $\mathcal{K}$  as

$$\mathcal{K} ( b \xleftarrow{f} a ) = k \xleftarrow{id} k$$

In  $\mathbb{M}$  we will be particularly interested in the composite functor

$$\mathfrak{M} M = id \oplus M$$

which will be present in examples to follow.

# Stop and think

Recall where we started from (broad picture):

- Divisibility ordering in  $\mathbb{N}$  as example of a **reflexive** and **transitive** orders (**preorders**)
- We replaced each ordered pair by an **arrow** (witness)
- Thus preorders were “lifted” to **categories**.

In the same trend,

- what is the “lifting” of the concept of a **monotone function** between preorders,  $a \leq b \Rightarrow (f a) \sqsubseteq (f b)$ ?

Well, we've just studied it:

---

**Functors** *between categories* generalize **monotone functions** *between preorders*.

---

# Equations

**Functors** make it possible to think of solving **equations** in a categorical setting.

Starting point: we know that, given a **monotonic** function  $f$  we have techniques for solving the equation

$$x = f x$$

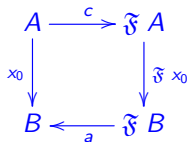
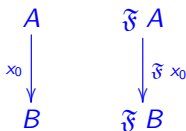
Above we have seen that **monotonic** functions between ordered structures scale up to **functors** between categories. So, what does the “categorical lifting” of  $x = f x$ ,

$$x = \mathfrak{F} x$$

yield? Note that, in the CT setting, any solution to  $x = \mathfrak{F} x$  is bound to be an **arrow**: what kind of arrow?

# Functor equations

Let us draw a diagram for a candidate solution  $x_0$ ,



How do  $x_0$  and  $\mathfrak{F} x_0$  relate to each other?

so that indeed there is an **equation** to solve:

We need to “bridge” them up,

$$x_0 = a \cdot (\mathfrak{F} x_0) \cdot c$$

---

*In  $\mathbb{S}$ ,  $x_0$  can be regarded as a **recursive morphism** — a **program**.*

---

Questions: given  $a$  and  $c$ , does  $x_0$  always exist? Is there a unique solution to  $x_0 = a \cdot (\mathfrak{F} x_0) \cdot c$ ?

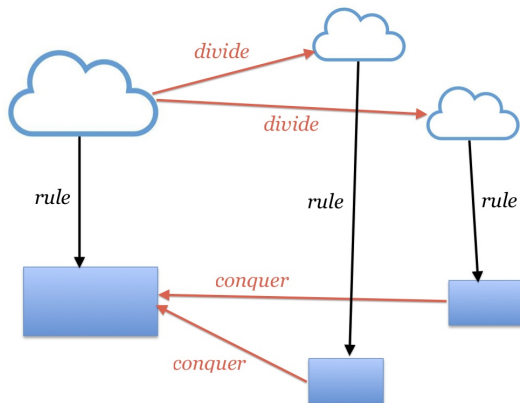
# Divide & conquer programs

Compare diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{c} & \mathfrak{F} A \\
 x_0 \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathfrak{F} x_0 \\
 B & \xleftarrow{a} & \mathfrak{F} B
 \end{array}$$

with the drawing  
aside.

This is how every  
**algorithm**, or  
**program** works...



(Dictionary) **Divide & rule** — “the policy of maintaining control over subordinates by encouraging dissent between them”.

# Functor equations

In the  $\mathbb{R}$  category:

---

*As homsets form a complete Boolean algebras in  $\mathbb{R}$ , for monotonic  $\mathfrak{F}$  the equation*

$$x = a \cdot (\mathfrak{F} x) \cdot c$$

*always has a least solution (Knaster-Tarski fixpoint theorem) termed **hylomorphism** and denoted by  $\llbracket a, c \rrbracket$ .*

---

In the  $\mathbb{S}$  category:

---

$\mathbb{S}$  is not so flexible because solutions have to be **total functions**. But for particular  $a$  and  $c$  we can find standard solutions in  $\mathbb{S}$  termed **catamorphisms** and **anamorphisms**, as explained below.

---

# $\mathfrak{F}$ algebras and coalgebras

Terminology: in the equation

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{c} & \mathfrak{F} A \\
 \downarrow x_0 & & \downarrow \mathfrak{F} x_0 \\
 B & \xleftarrow{a} & \mathfrak{F} B
 \end{array}$$

- $B \xleftarrow{a} \mathfrak{F} B$  is referred to as an  **$\mathfrak{F}$ -algebra**
- $A \xrightarrow{c} \mathfrak{F} A$  is referred to as an  **$\mathfrak{F}$ -coalgebra**.

We will understand this terminology in a minute.

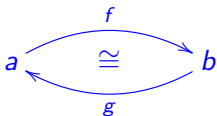
Before this, let us be aware that some  $\mathfrak{F}$ -(co)algebras are rather special.



# $\mathfrak{F}$ algebras and coalgebras

A morphism  $a \xrightarrow{f} b$  in a category  $\mathbb{C}$  is an **isomorphism** if it has a “two-sided” inverse, namely another morphism  $a \xleftarrow{g} b$  in the same category such that  $g \cdot f = id$  and  $f \cdot g = id$ .

One way of recording such an isomorphism is by drawing



It can be shown that the isomorphisms in  $\mathbb{R}$ , for instance, are the functions whose converses are also functions — the so-called **bijections**.

# $\mathfrak{F}$ algebras and coalgebras

To understand all this terminology, let us see an example in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Take Peano's (1858-1932) definition of the natural numbers ( $\mathbb{N}_0$ ):

- $0$  is a natural number
- $n + 1$  is a natural number once  $n$  is so
- there are no more natural numbers.

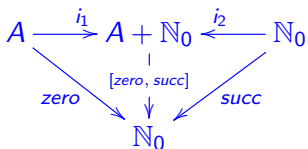
We thus have a constant  $0 \in \mathbb{N}_0$  and a natural number “factory”

$\text{succ} : \mathbb{N}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$  such that  $\text{succ } n = n + 1$ .

$0$  can be represented by the constant function  $\text{zero } x = 0$ , of type  $\text{zero} : A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$ , for some non-empty set  $A$ .

# Peano algebra

Also note that *zero* and *succ* together generate a coproduct diagram:

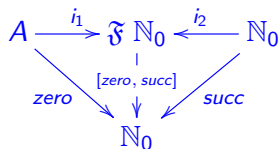


Let us define functor

$\mathfrak{F} X = A + X$ , constant in  $A$ :

$\mathfrak{F} f = id \oplus f$ .

Re-draw the diagram using  $\mathfrak{F}$ :

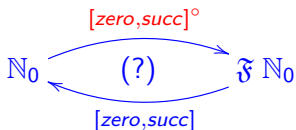


Thus  $[zero, succ]$  is an  $\mathfrak{F}$ -algebra.

Yes! it packs the algebraic operators of  $\mathbb{N}_0$  into a single arrow.

# Peano algebra

The same algebra, rotated 90 degrees (in  $\mathbb{R}$ , cf. converse):



Question: is  $[zero, succ]$  an isomorphism?

- It is **surjective** — “there are no more natural numbers...”
- It is **not injective** — the  $A$  inputs are all ignored!

Clearly: it would be injective had  $A$  **only one** element...

# Peano algebra

So we choose  $A = 1$ . Recall that  $1$  denotes a set with only one element (predefined, not relevant which one in particular).

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \xrightarrow{[\text{zero}, \text{succ}]^\circ} & \\
 \mathbb{N}_0 & \xrightarrow{\cong} & 1 + \mathbb{N}_0 \\
 & \xleftarrow{[\text{zero}, \text{succ}]} & 
 \end{array}$$

By the way, object  $1$  discriminates  $\mathbb{S}$  from both  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$ : the homset  $\mathbb{S}(A, 1)$  is a singleton, a constant function which we have denoted by  $! : A \rightarrow 1$ .

In  $\mathbb{R}$  the homset  $\mathbb{R}(A, 1)$  contains many relations, all below  $!$ .

In  $\mathbb{M}$  the homset  $\mathbb{M}(A, 1)$  contains all row vectors with  $|A|$ -many columns.

# Catamorphisms

Back to diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{c} & \mathfrak{F} A \\
 \downarrow x & & \downarrow \mathfrak{F} x \\
 B & \xleftarrow{a} & \mathfrak{F} B
 \end{array}$$

suppose **coalgebra**  $c := \text{in}^\circ$   
exists as an isomorphism over  
the smallest possible object  
 $A := I$ :

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 I & \xrightarrow{\text{in}^\circ} & \mathfrak{F} I \\
 \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\
 I & \xleftarrow{\text{in}} & \mathfrak{F} I
 \end{array}$$

In this case, solution  $x$   
**uniquely** depends on algebra  
 $a$ ,

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 I & \xrightarrow{\text{in}^\circ} & \mathfrak{F} I \\
 \downarrow x & \cong & \downarrow \mathfrak{F} x \\
 B & \xleftarrow{\text{in}} & \mathfrak{F} B \\
 & \xleftarrow{a} &
 \end{array}$$

and we write  $(a)$  to denote it  
in the corresponding  
**universal** property:

$$x = (a) \Leftrightarrow x \cdot \text{in} = a \cdot \mathfrak{F} x$$

# Anamorphisms

Back to diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{c} & \mathfrak{F} A \\
 x \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathfrak{F} x \\
 B & \xleftarrow{a} & \mathfrak{F} B
 \end{array}$$

suppose **algebra**  $a := \omega$  exists  
as an isomorphism over the  
largest possible  $B := T$ :

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 T & \xrightarrow{\omega^\circ} & \mathfrak{F} T \\
 \cong & & \\
 T & \xleftarrow{\omega} & \mathfrak{F} T
 \end{array}$$

In this case, solution  $x$

uniquely depends on  
coalgebra  $c$ ,

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{c} & \mathfrak{F} A \\
 x \downarrow & \xrightarrow{\omega^\circ} & \downarrow \mathfrak{F} x \\
 T & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \mathfrak{F} T \\
 & \xleftarrow{\omega} &
 \end{array}$$

and we denote it by  $\llbracket c \rrbracket$   
in the corresponding **universal**  
property:

$$x = \llbracket a \rrbracket \Leftrightarrow x \cdot \omega^\circ = c \cdot \mathfrak{F} x$$

# Summing up

- Programs can be of three different kinds, **catamorphisms**, **anamorphisms** or **hylomorphisms**.
- In  $\mathbb{R}$ , **initial**  $\mathfrak{F}$ -algebra  $I$  coincides with **terminal**  $\mathfrak{F}$ -algebra  $T$  and therefore the category has hylomorphisms,
 
$$\llbracket a, c \rrbracket = (a) \cdot \llbracket c \rrbracket$$
- In  $\mathbb{S}$ , **initial**  $\mathfrak{F}$ -algebra  $I$  is smaller than **terminal**  $\mathfrak{F}$ -algebra  $T$ , and so  $\llbracket a, c \rrbracket = (a) \cdot \llbracket c \rrbracket$  is not always defined.
- $\mathbb{P}$  is “half way” between  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{S}$ , but we need to study still another concept — that of a **monad** — to understand the relation between  $\mathbb{S}$  and such categories.

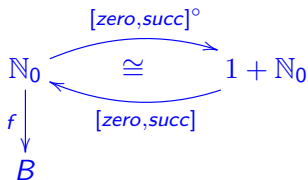
Before this, some examples to help understand why the diagrams above are regarded as **programs**.



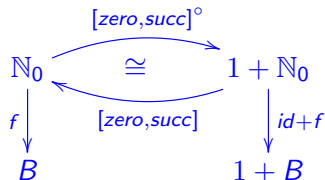
# Peano programs (for-loops)

As earlier on, we play the game of adding arrows to diagrams and seeing what happens:

Add function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{N}_0$ :



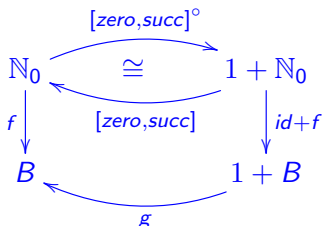
Since  $\mathfrak{F}$  is a functor:



We can close the diagram provided we add another  $(1+)$ -**algebra** from  $1 + B$  to  $B$  (next slide).

# Peano programs (for-loops)

Thus our first (recursive, but still abstract) program is born:



$$f = (\text{id}) \Leftrightarrow$$

$$f \cdot [\text{zero}, \text{succ}] = g \cdot (\text{id} + f)$$

Note that  $g = [g_1, g_2]$ , since it mediates a sum:  $g_1 : 1 \rightarrow B$  will tell how the program **stops** while  $g_2 : B \rightarrow B$  calls for **further** iterations.

An instance of this schema follows in the next slide.

# Peano programs (for-loops)

Example: let  $g = [\text{zero}, (n+)]$ , where  $(n+) x = n + x$ , as expected.  
Then, using the universal property,

$$\begin{aligned}
 f = \llbracket g \rrbracket &\Leftrightarrow f \cdot [\text{zero}, \text{succ}] = [\text{zero}, (n+)] \cdot (\text{id} + f) \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{fusion and absorption (coproducts in } \mathbb{S} \text{ or } \mathbb{R} \text{)} \end{array} \right\} \\
 &\quad [f \cdot \text{zero}, f \cdot \text{succ}] = [\text{zero}, (n+) \cdot f] \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{coproduct equality} \end{array} \right\} \\
 &\quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} f \cdot \text{zero} = \text{zero} \\ f \cdot \text{succ} = (n+) \cdot f \end{array} \right.
 \end{aligned}$$

Clearly,  $f = (n \times)$ . That is, we've synthesized the functional program

$$\begin{aligned}
 n \times 0 &= 0 \\
 n \times (m + 1) &= n + n \times m
 \end{aligned}$$

the same as:  $n \times m = (\text{if } m = 0 \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } n + n \times (m - 1))$ .

# Peano programs (for-loops)

Another way to write the same program would be

$$(n \times) = \mathbf{for} (n+) 0$$

by introducing a suggestive shorthand combinator

$$\mathbf{for} \ g \ k = ([\underline{k}, g])$$

where  $\underline{k} \ x = k$  denotes the constant function yielding  $k$ .

EXAMPLE in Haskell:

```
*Nat> let mul n = for (n+) 0
*Nat> mul 34 23
782
```

# Peano predicates

Another example for the same  $\mathfrak{F}$ , but in  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$(\geq) = ([\top, succ])$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{universal property (in } \mathbb{R}) \}$$

$$(\geq) \cdot [zero, succ] = [\top, succ] \cdot (id + (\geq))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{fusion, absorption, equality etc} \}$$

$$\begin{cases} (\geq) \cdot zero = \top \\ (\geq) \cdot succ = succ \cdot (\geq) \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \{ \text{introduce variables} \}$$

$$\begin{cases} n \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow true \\ n \geq m + 1 \Leftrightarrow \exists k : n = k + 1 \wedge k \geq m \end{cases}$$

Cf. primitive induction.

# Why monads

So far we have been able to encode, in instances of the CT framework, **neat** constructs and **elegant** programs.

What about “**dirty**” programs, that is, those which produce **side-effects** ?

What about **imperative** ones?

And what about “**faulty**” programs, that is, those which misbehave, e.g. because they run on defective hardware?

We need another CT concept, and a very relevant one — that of a **monad**. Our last topic in this module.

# The monadic “curse”

*“Monads [...] come with a curse. The monadic curse is that once someone learns what monads are and how to use them, they lose the ability to explain it to other people”*

(Douglas Crockford: Google Tech Talk on how to express monads in JavaScript, 2013)



Douglas Crockford (2013)

(<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=b0EF0VTs9Dci>)

# Why monads

Some patterns of arrow **composition** don't work because the output are “ $\mathfrak{F}$ -times” more complex than expected, e.g.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \mathfrak{F} B & \xleftarrow{g} A \\
 & \vdots & \\
 \mathfrak{F} C & \xleftarrow{f} B & \xleftarrow{\quad} A
 \end{array}
 \tag{50}$$

Let e.g.  $\mathfrak{F} B = E + B$  record the fact that  $g$  fails for some outputs, raising an **exception** in  $E$ , otherwise yielding a  $B$ .

In general,  $\mathfrak{F} B$  (and  $\mathfrak{F} C$  etc) carry some information about a **computational effect** which we have to **handle** but would like (technically) to **ignore**...



# Example

Declare in Haskell ( $\mathbb{S}$ ):

$$g \ a = [a + 1, a - 1]$$

$$f \ a = [\sqrt{a}, -\sqrt{a}]$$

This defines two arrows:

$$g :: \text{Num } t \Rightarrow t \rightarrow [t]$$

$$f :: \text{Floating } t \Rightarrow t \rightarrow [t]$$

which do not compose. We search for a **new** form of arrow composition  $f \bullet g$  such that e.g.

$$(f \bullet g) \ 3 = [2.0, -2.0, 1.414213562, -1.414213562]$$

Output yields the square roots of the two natural numbers centered at 3.

# Example

Programming  $f \bullet g$ :

$$f \bullet g \ a = \text{concat} [f \ b \mid b \leftarrow g \ a]$$

where  $\text{concat} :: [[a]] \rightarrow [a]$  concatenates a list of lists.

This works because, in Haskell, **lists** form a **monad**

---

$\mathfrak{F} \ x = x^*$  is not only a **functor** but also a **monad**.

---

Our purpose in the slides to follow is to generalize  $\mathfrak{F} \ x = x^*$  to other monads.

Remember that CT as a whole is based on two core notions:

- **composition** of arrows
- **identity** arrows.

# Monads

So the way to go about the  $\mathfrak{F}$ -**inflated** arrows of (50) has to devise a form of composition and an identity.

For this we need a CT construction known as a **monad**:

---

Let  $\mathfrak{F}$  be an (endo)functor in some category  $\mathbb{C}$ , such that the following arrows always exist, for any  $X$ :

$$X \xrightarrow{\eta} \mathfrak{F} X \xleftarrow{\mu} \mathfrak{F}^2 X$$

subject to a number of **properties** left out for the moment.

---

Why are such arrows useful?

# Monads

They enable us to *complete diagram* (50),

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \mathfrak{F}^2 C & \xleftarrow{\mathfrak{F} f} & \mathfrak{F} B & \xleftarrow{g} & A \\
 \downarrow \mu & & \vdots & & \downarrow \\
 \mathfrak{F} C & \xleftarrow{f} & B & & \\
 & \swarrow f \bullet g & & & 
 \end{array}$$

where  $\mu$  copes with the **nesting** of effects (exceptions on top of exceptions, for instance). The other arrow,  $X \xrightarrow{\eta} \mathfrak{F} X$ , converts a **pure** value into an effectful one.

Thus  $f \bullet g$  can be regarded as a form of (monadic) **composition**.

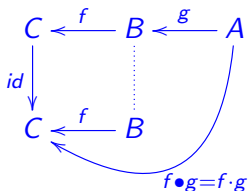
# Monads

Indeed, the monadic properties (which we once again skip for brevity) grant the expected properties, with  $\eta$  behaving as identity:

$$f \bullet (g \bullet h) = (f \bullet g) \bullet h$$

$$f \bullet \eta = f = \eta \bullet f$$

Now suppose  $\mathfrak{F} X = X$ , the identity functor:



Conclude that we have been working in a monad since the very beginning of this course — the **identity** monad!

# The list monad

A monad instance dear to functional programmers is the **list** monad :

$$\begin{aligned}\mu [] &= [] \\ \mu (l : t) &= l \# \mu t\end{aligned}$$

where  $\mu = \text{concat}$  — list concatenation — and

$$\eta a = [a]$$

builds singleton lists.

If we ignore the ordering of elements in a list, this monad mimics bounded **non-determinism**. See the next slide for an evolution of this idea.

# The (finite) powerset monad

The monad

$$X \xrightarrow{\eta} \mathfrak{P} X \xleftarrow{\mu} \mathfrak{P}^2 X$$

is *par excellence* the one behind non-deterministic finite automata (NFA), where  $\mathfrak{P} X = \{S \mid S \subseteq X\}$ . Its components are

$$\mu \{\} = \{\}$$

$$\mu (\{l\} \cup t) = l \cup \mu t$$

— union of a set of sets — and

$$\eta x = \{x\}$$

which builds singleton sets.

# Monads pointwise

Here is a way of writing  $f \bullet g$  in a (generic) pointwise manner

$$(f \bullet g) a = \mathbf{do} \{ b \leftarrow g a; \mathit{return} (f b) \}$$

where *return* is a synonym for  $\eta$  popular in monadic languages such as e.g. Haskell.

Likewise,

$$\mathbf{do} \{ a \leftarrow x; \mathit{return} (g a) \}$$

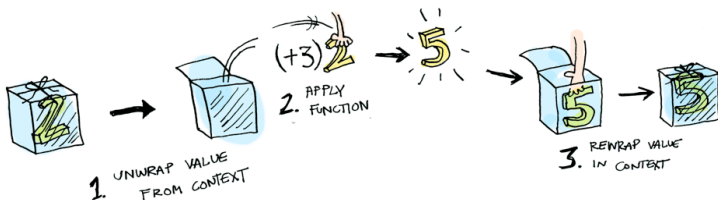
denotes the *application* of  $A \xrightarrow{g} \mathfrak{F} B$  to monadic data  $x$ .

A final example:  $\mathbf{do} \{ a \leftarrow x; b \leftarrow y; \mathit{return} (x + y) \}$  adds two numbers extracted from monadic data.



# Monads pointwise

Here is a cartoon



for the calculation of  $\mathfrak{F} (+3) x$ , where  $x = \text{return } 2$  is the monadic object which contains number  $2$  in monad  $\mathfrak{F}$ :

**do**  $\{ a \leftarrow \text{return } 2; \text{return } (a + 3) \}$

# Kleisli category

We observe that properties

$$f \bullet (g \bullet h) = (f \bullet g) \bullet h$$

$$f \bullet \eta = f = \eta \bullet f$$

where

$$f \bullet g = \mu \cdot (\mathfrak{F} f) \cdot g$$

offer a sub-category of  $\mathbb{C}$ , that made of  $\mathfrak{F}$ -inflated arrows only, that is, homsets of pattern  $\mathbb{C}(A, \mathfrak{F} B)$ .

Such a sub-category (usually denoted by  $\mathbb{C}^b$ ) is known as the **Kleisli** category associated to monad  $\mathfrak{F}$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ , as follows:

$$\mathbb{C}^b(A, B) \cong \mathbb{C}(A, \mathfrak{F} B)$$

# Kleisli category

The best known example of a Kleisli category is  $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{S}^b$ , induced by monad  $\mathfrak{P}$ :

$$\mathbb{R}(A, B) \cong \mathbb{S}(A, \mathfrak{P} B)$$

This simply tells that every **relation** can be represented by a **set**-valued function.

It can also be shown that  $\mathbb{M}$  and  $\mathbb{P}$  can be regarded as Kleisli categories of suitable **monads** in  $\mathbb{S}$ .

This is why  $\mathbb{S}$  is, for many people, “*the category par excellence*”.

# Wrapping up

The application of the two **CT** concepts of **functor** and **monad** to **programming** is perhaps the most significant development in the software sciences for the last 30 years.

To program with them one needs to know about **CT**, the **lingua franca** of software science.

Many useful monads can be found in the literature.

Haskell is among the languages that first incorporated **functors** and **monads** into them.<sup>2</sup>

Python, Scala, Swift, F# have got there too; Java8 seems to have tried.

---

<sup>2</sup>See e.g. <https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.9.0.0/docs/Control-Monad.html>.

## Postlude

Sir Arthur Eddington (1882-1944):

*"I cannot believe that  
anything so ugly as  
multiplication of matrices is  
an essential part of the  
scheme of nature"*

(in *"Relativity Theory of Electrons and  
Protons"*, 1936).



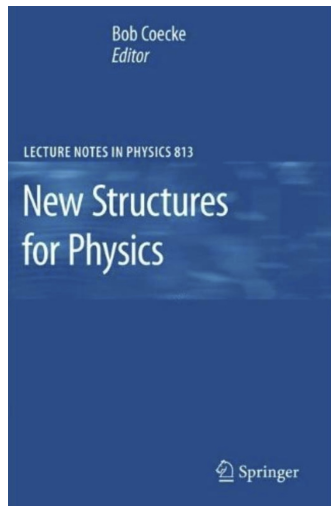
Serious warning to mathematicians and physicists — **notations**  
should be **elegant** :-)

I agree — standard **linear algebra notation** is clumsy by **modern  
computer science** standards.

Unfortunately, Sir A. Eddington did not live long enough to find the following answer to his complaint,

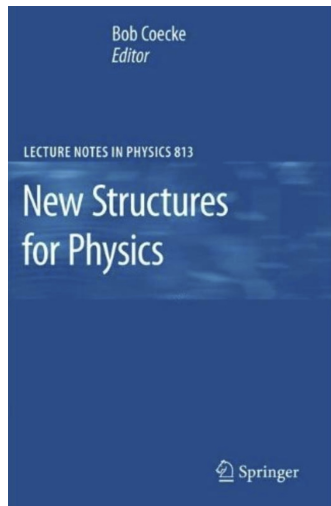
**“New Structures for Physics”**, **Lect. Notes in Physics** *volume 813*

compiled by B. Coecke.



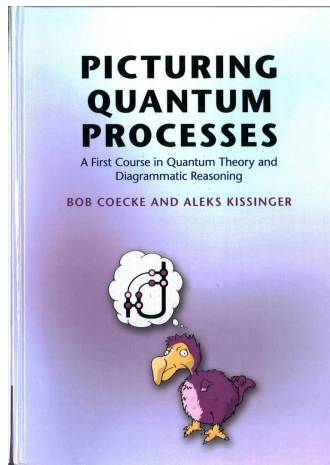
# Postlude

The generic structures  
(**monoidal categories**) in which  
**quantum physics** are expressed  
in this book generalize the  
categories  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{P}$  that we have  
studied in this module.



# Postlude

More recently, a quite accessible book by B. Coecke and Aleks Kissinger:





# Local setting (HASLab)

This **unified way** of thinking has been a subject of research at the HASLab (INESC TEC & U.Minho) laboratory for quite a while, covering **application areas** as disparate as e.g.

- **Data mining** — (Macedo and Oliveira, 2015; Oliveira and Macedo, 2017)
- **Component-oriented** programming — (Oliveira and Miraldo, 2016)
- **Fault** propagation — (Oliveira, 2012)
- Managing **risk** in functional programming — (Murta and Oliveira, 2015)
- **Weighted automata** — (Oliveira, 2013)
- **Linear algebra** — (Macedo and Oliveira, 2013)

# Textbooks

Having a look at one (or more!) of these textbook is highly recommended:

The standard “*bible*” on category theory: (MacLane, 1971), aside.

An enjoyable introduction to the same field: (Lawvere and Schanuel, 1997)

Another good book for computer scientists: (Pierce, 1991)

The standard “algebra of programming” textbook: (Bird and de Moor, 1997)

(There is much more on the web — just search for “Category Theory textbook”).

## Graduate Texts in Mathematics

Saunders Mac Lane

### Categories for the Working Mathematician

Second Edition



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