In the first talk we discussed the overall aim of the seminar, which is to understand some aspects of the theory of topoc. One of the things which makes this subject interesting is that it has connections to logic (e.g. classifying topoi of fint-order theories, which are logical concepts) and also the theory of <u>computation</u>. The purpose of today's talk is to clarify what this word "computation" means and explain why categories naturally appear in the theory of computation. The approach will be a bit idiosyncratic, since in preparing this talk I found that the strongest argument I can give for why you ought to care about computation is to explain how I came to care. So, YMMV.

What is a function?

- Kids learn: a function is a <u>rule</u> $x \mapsto x^2$, a <u>domain</u> N and <u>range</u> N.
- Grownups know better : a function $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{I}\mathbb{N}$ is a subset $f \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ s.f.

 $\forall x \in \mathbb{N} \left(\exists y \in \mathbb{N} \left((x, y) \in \mathbb{G} \land \forall y' \in \mathbb{N} \left((x, y') \in \mathbb{G} \Rightarrow y = y' \right) \right) \right)$

- The kids are night: f = { (x,y) ∈ IN × IN | y = x² }. The formula
 F: y = x² determines the function f. In a general sense the "computational" outlook on mathematics distinguishes F from f and emphasizes the former:
 - · F is implicit and finite,
 - · f is explicit and infinite.

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To see what this has to do with computation, let us consider two functions $\mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{N} \xrightarrow{g} \mathbb{N}$ $f(x) = x^2 \qquad g(y) = y^3$ $f = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{N}^2 | y=x^2\} \quad g = \{(y,z) \in \mathbb{N}^2 | z=y^3\}$ $\int_{Coll \text{ this } F} \quad Coll \text{ this } G$ The set-theoretic definition of function composition is $g \circ f = \left\{ (x_1 z) \in \mathbb{N}^2 \mid \exists y \in \mathbb{N} ((x_1 y)) \in f \land (y_1 z) \in g \right\}$ $= \left\{ (x,z) \in \mathbb{N}^{2} \mid \exists y \in \mathbb{N} \left(y = x^{2} \land z = y^{3} \right) \right\}$ $= \left\{ (x,z) \in \mathbb{N}^{2} \mid \exists y \in \mathbb{N} \left(y = x^{2} \land z = (x^{2})^{3} \right) \right\}$ $= \left\{ (x,z) \in \mathbb{N}^{2} \mid \exists y \in \mathbb{N} \left(y = x^{2} \land z = (x^{2})^{3} \right) \right\}$ $= \left\{ \left(x_{1} \geq \right) \in \mathbb{N}^{2} \mid z = x^{6} \right\}$ • This example illustrates the general point: in many cases there is a mathematical object (formula, algorithm, program,...) <u>anterior to functions</u>, and there is a process (computation, reuniting, reduction to normal form, ...)

which is anterior to function composition. The theory of computation is

the study of these anterior objects and processes.

• We will develop this iclea more systematically using <u>A-calculus</u> and categories. (algorithms & reduction functions & composition

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(see Lambek, Scott "Introduction to higherorder) categorical logic" p.72

The λ -calculus (due to Church) is one way of formalising the concept of an <u>algorithm</u>. We only have time for a very brief treatment, but see the earlier semester of this seminar (http://therisingsea.org/post/seminar-ch/) for a more detailed introduction.

λ-calculus

The simply-typed λ -calculus is constructed from a set \sum of atomic types. The set of types and preterms is defined by: for empty product

types if 3, J are types so are 3→J, 3×J. There is a special type 1.

preterms · for each type 3 there is an infinite set of variables V3 of type 3, write x:3 for x E V3.

• if $M: 3 \rightarrow J, N: 3$ are preterms then (MN): J is a preterm

· if M: Jis a preterm and z: 3 is a variable, (Ax.M): 3→J is a preterm. we say x is bound in M

· if M: δ×J is a preterm, π, M: 3, π2M-J are preterms

· if M:3, N:J are preterms then $\langle M, N \rangle: 3 \times J$ is a preterm.

Note There is a special variable *: 1 and all other terms of type 1 are identified with it.

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terms · a term is an equivalence class of preterms, under <u>a-equivalence</u>

$$(\lambda_{x}.M) = \left(\lambda_{y}.M[x = y]\right) \bigoplus \left[\begin{array}{c} \left(\lambda_{x}.M\right) = \left(\lambda_{y}.M[x = y]\right) \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} \left(\lambda_{x}.M\right) = \left(\lambda_{y}.M(x = y)\right) \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} \left(\lambda_{y}.M(x = y)\right) \right) \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} u \text{ line close } \sim u \text{ nder } \left(\left(\begin{array}{c} u \text{ line } u \text{ line } u \text{ loce } u \text{ line } u \text{ line } u \text{ loce } u \text{ line } u \text{ line } u \text{ loce } u \text{ line } u \text{ line } u \text{ loce } u \text{ line } u \text{ line } u \text{ loce } u \text{ line } u \text{ line } u \text{ loce } u \text{ line } u \text{ line } u \text{ loce } u \text{ line } u \text{ l$$

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Upshot A 2-term is an algorithm and B-reduction is computation.

$$\underline{Def}^n = \beta$$
 is the equivalence relation on terms generated by $\cdots \beta$.

To make the connection to the earlier example, suppose we have a special type IN and constants (special terms) $n: \mathbb{N}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and a multiplication $\mu: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$ (which is again a special term). Then

$$\mathcal{F} := (\lambda_{\mathcal{A}}, (\mu \langle x, x \rangle)) : \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N} \qquad (\text{recall } f(x) = x^2)$$

$$\mathcal{G} := (\mathcal{J}_{\mathcal{Y}}^{\mathcal{N}}, (\mathcal{M} < (\mathcal{M} < \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y}), \mathcal{Y})) : \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N} \quad (\text{recall } g(\mathcal{Y}|=\mathcal{Y}^{3})$$

The "plugging" of
$$\mathcal{G}$$
 and \mathcal{F} is
(λz^{N} . (\mathcal{G} (\mathcal{F} z))) \longrightarrow_{ρ} ($\lambda z.$ (\mathcal{G} ($\mathcal{M} < z, z >$)))
(λz^{N} . (\mathcal{G} (\mathcal{F} z))) \longrightarrow_{ρ} ($\lambda z.$ (\mathcal{I} ($\mathcal{I} < (\mathcal{M} < z, z >$)))
($\mu < z, z >$))
($\mu < z, z >$)))
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If we define

$$\mathcal{C}(N, \mathbb{N}) := \{ \text{cloued } \lambda - \text{terms of type } \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \} / = \beta$$

then plugging of 2-terms induces a composition

$$c: \mathcal{C}(N, N) \times \mathcal{C}(N, N) \longrightarrow \mathcal{C}(N, N)$$

$$([\mathcal{G}], [\mathcal{F}]) \longmapsto [(\mathcal{A}_{z}.(\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{F}_{z})))]_{\beta}$$

$$= [(\mathcal{A}_{z}.z^{6})]_{\beta}$$

which more generally defines composition in the <u>category</u> C of types (=objects) and closed terms (=morphisms) in simply-typed A-calculus. This category is the principled way of associating functions, e.g. g in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{C}(\ast,\mathbb{N}) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{C}([\ensuremath{\cdot}],-)} & \mathcal{C}(\ast,\mathbb{N}) \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & &$$

to <u>algorithms</u>, in this case the term g in λ -calculus. This gives an explicit context in which algorithms are anterior to functions, and anterior to function composition is the process of "plugging and then reducing to normal form".

Upshot There is more structure in A-calculus than in the category G. This difference is what the theory of computation is about !

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(ccc)

This construction associates a Cartesian closed category C(Z) to

any N-calculus L, and all CCCs arise this way:

Theorem (Lamber-Scott.) There is an equivalence of categories



In light of our previous discussion, one might say: A-calculus provides a computational envictment L(T) for any Cartesian closed category J.

<u>To summarine</u>: the theory of computation is about <u>algorithms</u> and <u>plugging</u>. Category theory is an abstract theory of <u>functions</u> and <u>composition</u>. Since algorithms determine functions, it is natural that <u>part</u> of the structure of computation can be organised using category theory. But this is the "boring" part!

> Nonetheless category theory is very ureful, an a source of concepts which can be used to organize the more mysterious anterior would of algorithms.

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BHK

According to Stanford's philosophy encyclopedia (see the entry on the development of intuition isticilogic) the standard explanation of intuition isticilogic today is the BHK (Browner-Heyting-Kolmogorov) interpretation:

· A proof of A A B is given by presenting a proof of A and a proof of B

- · A proof of AVB is given by presenting either a proof of Aor a proof of B.
- A poor of A→B is a construction which permits us to transform any poor of A into a poorf of B.

To appreciate the tuly radical nature of this last point, it is useful to know that there are, in general, proofs of $A \rightarrow B$ which give rise to different transformations of proofs of A into proofs of B. The computational perspective on intuitionistic logic de-emphasizes the question of whether $A \rightarrow B$ is purable and emphasizes the structure of the collection of proofs (viewed as transformations of proofs into other proofs).

This point of view is made precise by the Curry-Howard concerpondence.

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For a more detailed discussion of the Curry-Howard correspondence with detailed references see last remester's lecture notes at (http://therisingsea.org/post/seminar-ch/). We only have time for a sketch. The correspondence relates <u>intuitionistic logic</u> and <u>A-calculus</u>. For simplicity we consider only the \rightarrow connective on the logical side (so not \land, \lor) and the λ -calculus side (so not \times).

— Intuitionistic logic (more precisely, natural deduction) has propositional variables p, q, r,... and formulas Y, Ø,... built from these variables using →, e.g. (p→q)→(q→p). A sequent is

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{l} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}_{j}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}_{n} \vdash \boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}$$

where the x; are some labels, used to distinguish multiple copies of a formula. Read the sequent as: from hypotheses Sy..., In we may clecluce Y. A proof of a sequent is a devivation of it from axioms via deduction miles

 $T, x \cdot f \vdash f$ (Axiom, Taubitray)



We identify proofs that are "X-equivalent".



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Technically this is very shallow, but it is nonetheless important, as it gives a foundation to BHK (poor as programs/algorithms/transformations) and thereby has the potential to move computation from the periphery of a mathematician's worldview ("I don't cave about programs") to somewhere near the center ("Oh, but every intuitionistic proof is an example of a program ... "). This happened to me.

Conclusion

