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# Foundations of Algebraic Specification and Formal Software Development 

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## Chapter 3

## Category theory

One of the main purposes of this book is to present a general, abstract theory of specifications, which is independent from the exact details of the semantic structures (algebras) used to model particular aspects of program behaviour. Appropriate mathematical tools are required to support the development of such a theory. The basics of category theory provide us with just what we need: a simple, yet powerful language that allows definitions and results to be formulated at a sufficiently general, abstract level.

The most fundamental "categorical dogma" is that for many purposes it does not really matter exactly what the objects we study are; more important are their mutual relationships. Hence, objects should never be considered on their own, they should always come equipped with an appropriate notion of a morphism between them. In many typical examples, the objects are sets with some additional structure imposed on them, and their morphisms are maps that preserve this structure. "Categorical dogma" states that the interesting properties of objects may be formulated purely in terms of morphisms, without referring to the internal structure of objects at all. As a very simple example, consider the following two definitions.

Definition. Given two sets $A$ and $B$, the Cartesian product of $A$ and $B$ is the set $A \times B$ that consists of all the pairs of elements from $A$ and $B$, respectively: $A \times B=$ $\{\langle a, b\rangle \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$

Definition. Given two sets $A$ and $B$, a product of $A$ and $B$ is a set $P$ together with two functions $\pi_{1}: P \rightarrow A$ and $\pi_{2}: P \rightarrow B$ such that for any set $C$ with functions $f: C \rightarrow A$ and $g: C \rightarrow B$ there exists a unique function $h: C \rightarrow P$ such that $h ; \pi_{1}=f$ and $h ; \pi_{2}=g$.


It is easy to see that the Cartesian product of any two sets is a product in the sense of the latter definition, where the functions $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ are the projections on the first and second components respectively (HINT: Define $h: C \rightarrow A \times B$ by $h(c)=$ $\langle f(c), g(c)\rangle$ for all $c \in C)$. Moreover, although a product $P$ of two sets $A$ and $B$ does not have to be their Cartesian product $A \times B$ since the elements of $P$ do not have to be pairs of objects from $A$ and $B, P$ is always isomorphic to $A \times B$ (there is a one-toone correspondence between elements of $P$ and of $A \times B$ ). Thus, the two definitions may be viewed as equivalent for many purposes.

The reader may feel that the former definition (of the Cartesian product) is far simpler than the latter (of a product). Indeed, to most of us, brought up to consider set-theoretic concepts as the basis of all mathematics, this is in fact the case. However, the former definition suffers from a serious deficiency: it is formulated in terms of elements and the membership relation for sets (which constitute the specific internal structure of sets). Consequently, it is very specifically oriented towards defining the Cartesian product of sets and of sets only. If we now wanted to define the Cartesian product of, say, algebras (cf. Definition 1.2 .9 we would have to reformulate this definition substantially (in this case, by adding definitions of operations for product algebras). To define the Cartesian product of structures of yet another kind, yet another different version of this definition would have to be explicitly stated. It is obviously desirable to avoid such repetition of the same story for different specific kinds of objects whenever possible.

The latter definition (of a product) is quite different from this point of view. It does not make reference to the internal structure of sets at all; it defines a product of two sets entirely in terms of its relationships with these sets and with other sets. To obtain a definition of a product of two algebras, it is enough to replace "set" by "algebra" and "function" by "homomorphism". The same would apply to other kinds of structures, as long as there is an appropriate notion of a morphism between them.

The conclusion we draw from this example is that, first of all, objects of any kind should be considered together with an appropriate notion of a morphism between them, and then, that the structure imposed on the collection of objects by these morphisms should be exploited to formulate definitions at an appropriate level of generality and abstraction.

Let us have a look at another example:
Definition. A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is surjective if for every $b \in B$ there exists $a \in A$ such that $b=f(a)$.

Definition. A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is an epimorphism if for any two functions $g, g^{\prime}: B \rightarrow$ $C, f ; g=f ; g^{\prime}$ implies $g=g^{\prime}$.

Definition. A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a retraction if there exists a function $g: B \rightarrow A$ such that $g ; f=i d_{B}$.

All the three definitions above are equivalent: a function is surjective if and only if it is an epimorphism, if and only if it is a retraction. As with the previous example,
one may argue that the first of these definitions is very much specific to sets, and so not abstract and not general enough. The two other definitions lack this deficiency: they do not refer to the internal structure of sets, but use functions (set morphisms) to define the concept. However, the two definitions when applied to other kinds of objects (and their morphisms) may well turn out not to be equivalent. We cannot say that one of them is "right" and the other is "wrong"; they simply incorporate different aspects of what for sets is the property of "being surjective". The lesson to draw from this is that one has to be cautious when generalising a certain property to a more abstract setting. An attempt to formulate a definition at a more general level should provide us with a better understanding of the essence of the property being defined; it may well turn out, however, that there is more than one essence in it, giving several non-equivalent ways to reformulate the definition in a more abstract way.

Finding an adequate generalisation is not always easy. Sometimes even very simple notions we are accustomed to viewing as fundamental are difficult to formulate in categorical terms, as they depend in an essential way on the internal structure of the objects under consideration, which is exactly what we want to abstract from. The usual set-theoretic union operation is an example of such a notion.

Once we succeed in providing a more general version of a certain notion, it may be instantiated in many different ways. It is interesting to observe how often an adequate generalisation of an important specific concept leads to interesting instantiations in the context of objects (and morphisms between them) different from the ones we started with. Indeed, interesting instantiations in other contexts may be regarded as a test of the adequacy of the generalisation.

A more wide-ranging polemic on the advantages of category theory presented at a rather intuitive level may be found in [Gog91b].

With these remarks in mind, this chapter introduces the basic concepts and results of category theory. It is not our intention to provide a full-blown introductory text on category theory; although a few concepts are introduced which will not be used elsewhere in this book, we consciously refrain from discussing many important but more involved concepts and results. Our aim in this chapter is to provide a brief but comprehensive overview of the basics of category theory, both in order to make this book self-contained and to provide a handy reference.

### 3.1 Introducing categories

### 3.1.1 Categories

Definition 3.1.1 (Category). A category $\mathbf{K}$ consists of:

- a collection $|\mathbf{K}|$ of $\mathbf{K}$-objects;
- for each $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|$, a collection $\mathbf{K}(A, B)$ of $\mathbf{K}$-morphisms from $A$ to $B$; and
- for each $A, B, C \in|\mathbf{K}|$, a composition operation $\rrbracket^{1} ;: \mathbf{K}(A, B) \times \mathbf{K}(B, C) \rightarrow \mathbf{K}(A, C)$ such that:

1. for all $A, B, A^{\prime}, B^{\prime} \in|\mathbf{K}|$, if $\langle A, B\rangle \neq\left\langle A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right\rangle$ then $\mathbf{K}(A, B) \cap \mathbf{K}\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)=\varnothing$;
2. (existence of identities) for each $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$, there is a morphism $i d_{A} \in \mathbf{K}(A, A)$ such that $i d_{A} ; g=g$ for all morphisms $g \in \mathbf{K}(A, B)$ and $f ; i d_{A}=f$ for all morphisms $f \in \mathbf{K}(B, A)$; and
3. (associativity of composition) for any $f \in \mathbf{K}(A, B), g \in \mathbf{K}(B, C)$ and $h \in \mathbf{K}(C, D)$, $f ;(g ; h)=(f ; g) ; h$.

Notation. We refer to objects and morphisms instead of $\mathbf{K}$-objects and $\mathbf{K}$-morphisms when $\mathbf{K}$ is clear from the context. We write $f: A \rightarrow B$ (in $\mathbf{K}$ ) for $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|$, $f \in \mathbf{K}(A, B)$. For any $f: A \rightarrow B$, we will refer to $A$ as the source or domain, and to $B$ as the target or codomain of $f$. The collection of all morphisms of $\mathbf{K}$ will be (ambigously) denoted by $\mathbf{K}$ as well, i.e., $\mathbf{K}=\bigcup_{A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|} \mathbf{K}(A, B)$.

The above is just one of several possible equivalent definitions of a category. For example, the identities, the existence of which is required in (2), are sometimes considered as part of the structure of a category.

Exercise 3.1.2. Prove that in any category, identities are unique.
The notion of a category is very general. Accepting the categorical dogma that objects of any kind come equipped with a notion of morphism between them, it is difficult to think of a collection of objects and accompanying morphisms that do not form a category. Almost always there is a natural operation of morphism composition, which obeys two of the basic requirements above: it has identities and is associative. Perhaps requirement (1), which allows us to unambigously identify the source and target of any morphism, is the most technical and hence least intuitively appealing. But even in cases where the same entity may be viewed as a morphism between different objects, this entity can always be equipped with an explicit indication of the source and target of the morphism (cf. Example 3.1.6, thus satisfying requirement (1).

In the rest of this subsection we give a number of examples of categories. We start with some rather trivial examples, mainly of formal interest, and only then define some more typically considered categories. Further examples, which are often more complex, may be found in the following sections of this chapter (and in later chapters, see e.g. Section 10.3 for somewhat more complex examples).

Example 3.1.3 (Preorder categories). A binary relation $\leq \subseteq X \times X$ is a preorder on $X$ if:

- $x \leq x$ for all $x \in X$; and
- $x \leq y \wedge y \leq z \Rightarrow x \leq z$ for all $x, y, z \in X$.

[^0]A preorder category is a category that has at most one morphism with any given source and target.

Every preorder $\leq \subseteq X \times X$ gives rise to a preorder category $\mathbf{K}_{\leq}$where $\left|\mathbf{K}_{\leq}\right|=X$ and $\mathbf{K}_{\leq}(x, y)$ has exactly one element if $x \leq y$ and is empty otherwise.

This definition does not identify the category $\mathbf{K}_{\leq}$unambigously, since different elements may be used as morphisms in $\mathbf{K}_{\leq}(x, y)$ for $x \leq y$. However, we will not worry here about the exact nature of morphisms (nor objects) in a category, and we will treat this and similar definitions below as sufficient. More formally, all categories satisfying the above requirements are isomorphic in the technical sense to be discussed in Section 3.4 (cf. Definition 3.4.68).

Here are some trivial examples of preorder categories:
0
(the empty category)

1:


2 :


3:


4:
 (+ identities)

Exercise. How many morphisms does $\mathbf{n}$ have?
Example 3.1.4 (Discrete category). A category $\mathbf{K}$ is discrete whenever for all $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|, \mathbf{K}(A, B)$ is empty if $A \neq B$ and contains exactly one element (the identity) otherwise.

Any collection of objects $X$ gives rise to a discrete category $\mathbf{K}_{X}$ where $\left|\mathbf{K}_{X}\right|=X$.

Example 3.1.5 (Monoid category). A category $\mathbf{K}$ is a monoid if $\mathbf{K}$ has exactly one object.

A set $X$ together with a function ; : $X \times X \rightarrow X$ and a distinguished element $i d \in X$ is a monoid $\langle X, ;, i d\rangle$ if $(x ; y) ; z=x ;(y ; z)$ and $i d ; x=x ; i d=x$ for all $x, y, z \in X$. Every monoid $\langle X, ;, i d\rangle$ gives rise to a monoid (category) having morphisms $X$ and composition; .

Example 3.1.6 (Set, the category of sets). The category Set of sets with functions as morphisms is defined as follows:

Objects of Set: sets;
Morphisms of Set: functions; however, to ensure that the requirements stated in Definition3.1.1 are satisfied (disregarding the particular mathematical representation of the concept of a function one uses), we will always consider functions with explicitly given domain and codomain. Thus, a morphism in the category Set with source $A$ and target $B$ is a triple $\langle A, f, B\rangle$, where $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a function.

Example 3.1.7 ( Set $^{S}$, the category of $S$-sorted sets). For any set $S$, the category Set ${ }^{S}$ of $S$-sorted sets is defined as follows:
Objects of Set $^{S}: S$-sorted sets;
Morphisms of $\mathbf{S e t}^{S}: S$-sorted functions (with explicitly given domain and codomain).

Example 3.1.8 $(\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$, the category of $\Sigma$-algebras). For any signature $\Sigma$, the category $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ of $\Sigma$-algebras is defined as follows:
Objects of $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma): \Sigma$-algebras;
Morphisms of $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma): \Sigma$-homomorphisms (with explicitly given domain and codomain).

Example 3.1.9 (CPO, the category of complete partial orders). The category CPO of complete partial orders $\square^{2}$ and continuous functions between them is defined as follows:

Objects of CPO: complete partial orders, i.e., partially ordered sets $\langle X, \leq\rangle$ such that any countable chain $x_{0} \leq x_{1} \leq \ldots$ in $\langle X, \leq\rangle$ has a least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} x_{i}$; Morphisms of $\mathbf{C P O}$ : continuous functions, i.e., functions that preserve least upper bounds of countable chains.

Exercise 3.1.10. Complete the above examples by formalising composition in the obvious way. Indicate identities and prove associativity of composition.

Example 3.1.11 (AlgSig, the category of algebraic signatures). The category AlgSig of (algebraic) signatures is defined as follows:

[^1]Objects of AlgSig: signatures;
Morphisms of AlgSig: signature morphisms;
Composition in AlgSig: for any $\sigma: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ and $\sigma^{\prime}: \Sigma^{\prime} \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime \prime}$, their composition $\sigma ; \sigma^{\prime}: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime \prime}$ is given by $\left(\sigma ; \sigma^{\prime}\right)_{\text {sorts }}=\sigma_{\text {sorts }} ; \sigma_{\text {sorts }}^{\prime}$ and $\left(\sigma ; \sigma^{\prime}\right)_{o p s}=\sigma_{o p s} ; \sigma_{o p s}^{\prime}$, cf. Exercise 1.5 .3 .

Exercise 3.1.12 (AlgSig ${ }^{d e r}$, the category of signatures with derived morphisms). Recall the concept of a derived signature morphism from Definition 1.5.14. Define the category AlgSig ${ }^{d e r}$ of algebraic signatures with derived signature morphisms. Use Exercise 1.5 .18 to define composition of derived signature morphisms.

Example 3.1.13 ( $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$, the category of substitutions over a signature $\Sigma$ ). Recall (cf. Section 1.4 that for any signature $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$ and $S$-sorted set of variables $X$, $T_{\Sigma}(X)$ is the algebra of terms over $\Sigma$ with variables $X . T_{\Sigma}(X)$ is characterised up to isomorphism by the property that for any $\Sigma$-algebra $A$, any $S$-sorted map $v: X \rightarrow|A|$ uniquely extends to a $\Sigma$-homomorphism $v^{\#}: T_{\Sigma}(X) \rightarrow A$ (Facts 1.4.4 and 1.4.10).

For any algebraic signature $\Sigma$, the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$ of substitutions over $\Sigma$ is defined as follows (cf. Exercise 1.4.9):

## Objects of $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}: S$-sorted sets (of variables);

Morphisms of $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$ : for any sets $X$ and $Y$, a morphism $\theta$ from $X$ to $Y$ is a substitution of terms with variables $Y$ for variables $X$, i.e., an $S$-sorted function $\theta: X \rightarrow\left|T_{\Sigma}(Y)\right|$;
Composition in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$ : given any sets $X, Y$ and $Z$, and morphisms $\theta: X \rightarrow Y$ and $\theta^{\prime}: Y \rightarrow Z$ in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$, i.e., functions $\theta: X \rightarrow\left|T_{\Sigma}(Y)\right|$ and $\theta^{\prime}: Y \rightarrow\left|T_{\Sigma}(Z)\right|$, their composition $\theta ; \theta^{\prime}: X \rightarrow Z$ is the function $\theta ; \theta^{\prime}: X \rightarrow\left|T_{\Sigma}(Z)\right|$ defined by $\left(\theta ; \theta^{\prime}\right)_{s}(x)=$ $\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)_{s}^{\#}\left(\theta_{s}(x)\right)$ for all $s \in S, x \in X_{s}$.

Exercise 3.1.14 ( $\mathrm{T}_{\Sigma} / \Phi$, the category of substitutions over $\Sigma$ modulo equations $\Phi)$. Generalise the above definition of the category of substitutions by considering terms up to an equivalence generated by a set of equations. That is, for any algebraic signature $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$ and set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations, for any $S$-sorted set of variables $X$ define two terms $t_{1}, t_{2} \in\left|T_{\Sigma}(X)\right|_{s}$ (for any sort $s \in S$ ) to be equivalent, written $t_{1} \equiv t_{2}$, if $\Phi \vdash_{\Sigma} \forall X \bullet t_{1}=t_{2}$ (cf. Section 2.4). Now, by analogy with the category of substitutions, define the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma} / \Phi$ to have $S$-sorted sets as objects and substitutions modulo $\Phi$ as morphisms. A substitution of terms modulo $\Phi$ with variables $Y$ for variables $X$ is an $S$-sorted function $\theta: X \rightarrow\left(\left|T_{\Sigma}(Y)\right| / \equiv\right)$. Composition in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma} / \Phi$ is defined analogously as in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$, by choosing a representative of each of the equivalence classes assigned to variables: given $\theta: X \rightarrow\left(\left|T_{\Sigma}(Y)\right| / \equiv\right)$ and $\theta^{\prime}: Y \rightarrow\left(\left|T_{\Sigma}(Z)\right| / \equiv\right), \theta ; \theta^{\prime}: X \rightarrow\left(\left|T_{\Sigma}(Z)\right| / \equiv\right)$ maps any $x \in X$ to $\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)^{\#}(t)$, where $\theta(x)=[t]_{\equiv}$ (show that the result does not depend on the choice of the representative $t \in \theta(x))$.

Exercise 3.1.15 ( $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$, the algebraic $\langle\Sigma, \Phi\rangle$-theory). Building on the definition of the category of substitutions modulo a set of equations sketched above, abstract away from the actual names of variables used in the objects of $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma} / \Phi$ by listing them in some particular order, as in derived signatures (cf. Definition 1.5.13). That is, for
any algebraic signature $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$ and set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations, define the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$ with sequences $s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in S^{*}$ of sort names as objects. A morphism in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$ from $s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in S^{*}$ to $s_{1}^{\prime} \ldots s_{m}^{\prime} \in S^{*}$ is an $n$-tuple $\left\langle\left[t_{1}\right]_{\equiv}, \ldots,\left[t_{n}\right]_{\equiv}\right\rangle$ of terms modulo $\Phi$, where the equivalence $\equiv$ is sketched in Exercise 3.1.14 above, and for $i=1, \ldots, n$, $t_{i} \in\left|T_{\Sigma}\left(I_{s_{1}^{\prime} \ldots s_{m}^{\prime}}\right)\right|_{s_{i}}$, with $I_{s_{1}^{\prime} \ldots s_{m}^{\prime}}=\left\{\square: s_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, m: s_{m}^{\prime}\right\}$. The composition in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$ is given by substitution on representatives of equivalence classes (the position of a term in a tuple identifies the variable it is to be substituted for). $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$ is usually referred to as the algebraic theory over $\Sigma$ generated by $\Phi{ }^{3}$

### 3.1.1.1 Foundations

In the above, and in the definition of a category in particular, we have very cautiously used the non-technical term collection, and talked of collections of objects and morphisms. This allowed us to gloss over the issue of the choice of appropriate set-theoretical foundations for category theory. Even a brief look at the examples above indicates that we could not have been talking here just of sets (in the sense of Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory): we want to consider categories like Set, where the collection of objects consists of all sets, and so cannot be a set itself. Using classes (collections of sets that are possibly too "large" to be sets themselves, as in Bernays-Gödel set theory) might seem more promising, since if we replace the term "collection" by "class" in Definition 3.1.1 then at least examples of categories like Set would be covered. However, this is not enough either, since even in this simple presentation of the basics of category theory we will encounter some categories (like Cat, the category of "all" categories, and functor categories defined later in this chapter) where objects themselves are proper classes and the collection of objects forms a "conglomerate" (a collection of classes that is too "large" to be a class, cf. [HS73]). We refer to [Bén85] for a careful analysis of the basic requirements imposed on a set theory underlying category theory.

Perhaps the most traditional solution to the problem of set-theoretic foundations for category theory is sketched in [Mac71]. The idea is to work within a hierarchy of set universes $\left\langle\mathbf{U}_{n}\right\rangle_{n \geq 0}$, where each universe $\mathbf{U}_{n}, n \geq 0$, is closed under the standard set-theoretic operations, and is an element of the next universe in the hierarchy, $\mathbf{U}_{n} \in \mathbf{U}_{n+1}$. Then there is a notion of category corresponding to each level of the hierarchy, and one is required to indicate at which level of the hierarchy one is working at any given moment.

However, in our view such pedantry would hide the intuitive appeal of "naive" category theory. We will therefore ignore the issue of set-theoretic foundations for category theory in the sequel, with just one exception: we define what it means for a category to be (locally) small and use this to occasionally warn the reader about potential foundational hazards.

[^2]Definition 3.1.16 (Small category). A category $\mathbf{K}$ is locally small if for any $A, B \in$ $|\mathbf{K}|, \mathbf{K}(A, B)$ is a set (an element of the lowest-level universe $\mathbf{U}_{0}$ ); $\mathbf{K}$ is small if in addition $|\mathbf{K}|$ is a set as well.

### 3.1.2 Constructing categories

In the examples of the previous subsection, each category was constructed "from scratch" by explicitly defining its objects and morphisms and their composition. Category theory also provides numerous ways of modifying a given category to yield a different one, and of putting together two or more categories to obtain a more complicated one. Some of the simplest examples are given in this subsection.

### 3.1.2.1 Subcategories

Definition 3.1.17 (Subcategory). A category K 1 is a subcategory of a category K 2 if $|\mathbf{K 1}| \subseteq|\mathbf{K 2}|$ and $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}(A, B) \subseteq \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}(A, B)$ for all objects $A, B \in|\mathbf{K} 1|$, with composition and identities in K1 the same as in K2. K1 is a full subcategory of $\mathbf{K 2}$ if additionally $\mathbf{K 1}(A, B)=\mathbf{K 2}(A, B)$ for all $A, B \in|\mathbf{K 1}| . \mathbf{K 1}$ is a wide subcategory of $\mathbf{K 2}$ if $|\mathbf{K 1}|=|\mathbf{K 2}|$.

For any category $\mathbf{K}$, any collection $X \subseteq|\mathbf{K}|$ of objects of $\mathbf{K}$ determines a full subcategory $\left.\mathbf{K}\right|_{X}$ of $\mathbf{K}$, defined by $|\mathbf{K}|_{X} \mid=X$. Whenever convenient, if $\mathbf{K}$ is evident from the context, we will identify collections $X \subseteq|\mathbf{K}|$ with $\left.\mathbf{K}\right|_{X}$.

Example 3.1.18 (FinSet, the category of finite sets). The category FinSet of finite sets is defined as follows:

Objects of FinSet: finite sets;
Morphisms and composition in FinSet: as in Set.
FinSet is a full subcategory of Set.
Example 3.1.19. The category of single-sorted signatures is a full subcategory of the category AlgSig of (many-sorted) signatures.

The discrete category of sets is a subcategory of the category of sets with inclusions as morphisms, which is a subcategory of the category of sets with injective functions as morphisms, which is a subcategory of Set.

For any signature $\Sigma$ and set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations, the class $\operatorname{Mod}_{\Sigma}(\Phi)$ of $\Sigma$-algebras that satisfy $\Phi$ determines a full subcategory of $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$, which we denote by $\operatorname{Mod}(\Sigma, \Phi)$.

Exercise 3.1.20. Give an example of two categories K1, K2 such that $|\mathbf{K} 1| \subseteq|K 2|$, $\mathbf{K 1}(A, B) \subseteq \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}(A, B)$ for all objects $A, B \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}|$, with composition in $\mathbf{K 1}$ the same as in $\mathbf{K 2}$, but such that $\mathbf{K 1}$ is not a subcategory of $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$.

### 3.1.2.2 Opposite categories and duality

One of the fundamental theorems of lattice theory (cf. e.g. [DP90) is the so-called duality principle. Any statement in the language of lattice theory has a dual, obtained by systematically replacing greatest lower bounds by least upper bounds and vice versa. The duality principle states that the dual of any theorem of lattice theory is a theorem as well. In a sense, this allows the number of proofs in lattice theory to be cut by half: proving a fact gives its dual "for free". A very similar phenomenon occurs in category theory; in fact, the duality principle of lattice theory may be viewed as a consequence of a more general duality principle of category theory. Replacing greatest lower bounds by least upper bounds and vice versa is generalised here to the process of "reversing morphisms".

Definition 3.1.21 (Opposite category). The opposite category of a category $\mathbf{K}$ is the category $\mathbf{K}^{o p}$ where:


Exercise 3.1.22. Check that:

1. $\mathbf{K}^{o p}$ is a category.
2. $\left(\mathbf{K}^{o p}\right)^{o p}=\mathbf{K}$.
3. Identities in $\mathbf{K}^{o p}$ are the same as in $\mathbf{K}$.

If $W$ is a categorical concept (property, statement, ...) then its dual, co- $W$, is obtained by reversing all the morphisms in $W$. This idea may be formalised in two ways. The first is to introduce a formal language of category theory, and then define the operation of forming a dual as an operation on formal statements in this language. The other is to formally interpret $c o-W$ in a category $\mathbf{K}$ as $W$ in the category $\mathbf{K}^{o p}$. Since formalising the language of category theory is beyond the scope of this book (but cf. [Mac71] or [Hat82]), we take the second option here and will rely on an intuitive understanding of duality in the sequel. For example, consider the following property of objects in a category:

$$
P(X): \text { for any object } Y \text { there is a morphism } f: Y \rightarrow X
$$

Then:

$$
\text { co- } P(X): \text { for any object } Y \text { there is a morphism } f: X \rightarrow Y \text {. }
$$

Note that indeed co-P(X) in any category $\mathbf{K}$ amounts to $P(X)$ in $\mathbf{K}^{o p}$.
Since any category is the opposite of a certain category (namely, of its opposite), the following fact holds:

Fact 3.1.23 (Duality principle). If $W$ holds for all categories then co-W holds for all categories as well.

### 3.1.2.3 Product categories

Definition 3.1.24 (Product category). For any two categories K1 and K2, the product category $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is defined by:

Objects of $\mathbf{K 1} \times \mathbf{K 2}:|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}|=|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}| \times|\mathbf{K} 2|$ (the Cartesian product);
Morphisms of $\mathbf{K 1} \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ : for all $A, A^{\prime} \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}|$ and $B, B^{\prime} \in|\mathbf{K 2}|$,

$$
\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}\left(\langle A, B\rangle,\left\langle A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right\rangle\right)=\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}\left(A, A^{\prime}\right) \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}\left(B, B^{\prime}\right) ;
$$

Composition in $\mathbf{K 1} \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ : for $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $f^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ in K1, $g: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ and $g^{\prime}: B^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ in K2, $\langle f, g\rangle ;\left\langle f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle f ; f^{\prime}, g ; g^{\prime}\right\rangle$.

Exercise 3.1.25. Identify the category to which each semicolon in the above definition of composition in $\mathbf{K 1} \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ refers. Then show that $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \times \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is indeed a category.

Exercise 3.1.26. Define $\mathbf{K}^{n}$, where $\mathbf{K}$ is a category and $n \geq 1$. What would you suggest for $n=0$ ?

### 3.1.2.4 Morphism categories

Definition 3.1.27 (Morphism category). For any category $\mathbf{K}$, the category $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ of $\mathbf{K}$-morphisms is defined by:
Objects of $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ : K-morphisms;
Morphisms of $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ : a morphism in $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ from $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ (in $\mathbf{K}$ ) to $g: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ (in $\mathbf{K}$ ) is a pair $\left\langle k, k^{\prime}\right\rangle$ of $\mathbf{K}$-morphisms where $k: A \rightarrow B$ and $k^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ such that $k ; g=f ; k^{\prime}$; Composition in $\mathbf{K}^{\rightarrow}:\left\langle k, k^{\prime}\right\rangle ;\left\langle l, l^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle k ; l, k^{\prime} ; l^{\prime}\right\rangle$.

The requirement in the definition of a morphism in $\mathbf{K}^{\rightarrow}$ may be more illustratively restated as the requirement that the following diagram commutes in the category $\mathbf{K}$ :


For now, we will rely on an intuitive understanding of the concept of a diagram in a category; see Section 3.2 .5 for a formal definition. We say that a diagram in a category commutes (or, is commutative) if for any two paths with the same source and target nodes, the composition of morphisms along each of the two paths yields the same result.

Drawing diagrams and chasing a diagram in order to prove that it is commutative is one of the standard and intuitively most appealing techniques used in category theory. For example, to justify Definition 3.1.27 above it is essential to show that the composition of two morphisms in $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ as defined there yields a morphism in $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$. This may be done by pasting together two diagrams like the one above along a common edge, obtaining the following diagram:


A simple argument may now be used to show that if the two simpler diagrams are commutative then the above diagram obtained by pasting them together along the edge labelled by $g$ commutes as well:

$$
f ;\left(k^{\prime} ; l^{\prime}\right)=\left(f ; k^{\prime}\right) ; l^{\prime}=(k ; g) ; l^{\prime}=k ;\left(g ; l^{\prime}\right)=k ;(l ; h)=(k ; l) ; h
$$

Definition 3.1.28 (Slice category). Let $\mathbf{K}$ be a category with $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$. The category $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ of $\mathbf{K}$-objects over $A$ (or, the slice of $\mathbf{K}$ over $A$ ) is defined by:

Objects of $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ : pairs $\langle X, f\rangle$ where $X \in|\mathbf{K}|$ and $f \in \mathbf{K}(X, A)$;
Morphisms of $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ : a morphism from $\langle X, f\rangle$ to $\langle Y, g\rangle$ is a $\mathbf{K}$-morphism $k: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $k ; g=f$ :


Composition in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ : as in $\mathbf{K}$.
Exercise 3.1.29. Show that $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ may be constructed as a subcategory of $\mathbf{K}^{\rightarrow}$. Is it full?

Exercise 3.1.30. Define $\mathbf{K} \uparrow A$, the category of $\mathbf{K}$-objects under $A$. Compare $(\mathbf{K} \downarrow A)^{o p}$, $\mathbf{K}^{o p} \downarrow A$ and $\left(\mathbf{K}^{o p} \downarrow A\right)^{o p}$ with $\mathbf{K} \uparrow A$.

### 3.1.3 Category-theoretic definitions

In this section we will give a few simple examples of how certain special morphisms may be characterised in a style that is typical for category-theoretic definitions. As indicated in the introduction to this chapter, the idea is to abstract away from the "internal" properties of objects and morphisms, characterising them entirely in categorical language by referring only to arbitrary objects and morphisms of the category under consideration. Such definitions may be formulated for an arbitrary category, and then instantiated to a particular one when necessary. We will also indicate a few basic properties of the concepts we introduce that hold in any category.

Throughout this section, let $\mathbf{K}$ be an arbitrary but fixed category. Morphisms and objects we refer to below are those of $\mathbf{K}$, unless explicitly qualified otherwise.

### 3.1.3.1 Epimorphisms and monomorphisms

Definition 3.1.31 (Epimorphism). A morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ is an epimorphism (or is $e p i)$ if for all $g: B \rightarrow C$ and $h: B \rightarrow C, f ; g=f ; h$ implies $g=h$.


Example 3.1.32. In Set, $f$ is epi iff $f$ is surjective.
There are "natural" categories in which epimorphisms need not be surjective. For example:

Exercise 3.1.33. Recall the category CPO of complete partial orders and continuous functions introduced in Example 3.1.9 Give an example of a continuous function that is an epimorphism in CPO even though it is not surjective. Try to characterise epimorphisms in this category.

Definition 3.1.34 (Monomorphism). A morphism $f: B \rightarrow A$ is a monomorphism (or is mono) if for all $g: C \rightarrow B$ and $h: C \rightarrow B, g ; f=h ; f$ implies $g=h$.


Example 3.1.35. In Set, $f$ is mono iff $f$ is injective.
Note that mono means the same as co-epi, i.e., $f$ is mono in $\mathbf{K}$ iff $f$ is epi in $\mathbf{K}^{o p}$.

## Fact 3.1.36.

1. If $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ are mono then $f ; g: A \rightarrow C$ is mono.
2. For any $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$, if $f ; g: A \rightarrow C$ is mono then $f$ is mono.

Proof. The proof is rather straightforward, and significantly more complex proofs will be omitted in the rest of this chapter. We present it here explicitly only as a simple example of the style of argument, very common in category-theoretic proofs, exploiting the most basic properties of composition in an arbitrary category.

1. According to Definition 3.1.34, we have to show that for any $h, h^{\prime}: D \rightarrow A$ if $h ;(f ; g)=h^{\prime} ;(f ; g)$ then $h=h^{\prime}$. So, suppose $h ;(f ; g)=h^{\prime} ;(f ; g)$. Then, since composition is associative, $(h ; f) ; g=\left(h^{\prime} ; f\right) ; g$. Consequently, since $g$ is mono, by Definition 3.1.34, $h ; f=h^{\prime} ; f$. Thus, using the fact that $f$ is mono, we can indeed derive $h=h^{\prime}$.
2. Similarly as in the previous case: suppose that for some $h, h^{\prime}: D \rightarrow A, h ; f=h^{\prime} ; f$. Then also $(h ; f) ; g=\left(h^{\prime} ; f\right) ; g$, and so $h ;(f ; g)=h^{\prime} ;(f ; g)$. Now, since $f ; g$ is mono, it follows directly from the definition that indeed $h=h^{\prime}$.

Exercise 3.1.37. Dualise both parts of Fact 3.1.36. Formulate the dual proofs and check that they are indeed sound.

### 3.1.3.2 Isomorphic objects

Definition 3.1.38 (Isomorphism). A morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ is an isomorphism (or is iso) if there is a morphism $f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$ such that $f ; f^{-1}=i d_{A}$ and $f^{-1} ; f=i d_{B}$. The morphism $f^{-1}: B \rightarrow A$ is called the inverse of $f$, and the objects $A$ and $B$ are called isomorphic. We write $f: A \cong B$ or just $A \cong B$.


Exercise 3.1.39. Show that the inverse of a morphism, if it exists, is unique.
Note that iso means the same as co-iso, that is, isomorphism is a self-dual concept.

Exercise 3.1.40. Check that if $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ are iso then $f ; g: A \rightarrow C$ is iso as well.

In Set, a morphism is iso iff it is both epi and mono. However, this property does not carry over to an arbitrary category:

Exercise 3.1.41. Show that if $f$ is iso then $f$ is both epi and mono. The converse is not true in general; give a counterexample.

Exercise 3.1.42. We say that a morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a retraction if there is a morphism $g: B \rightarrow A$ such that $g ; f=i d_{B}$. Dually, a morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a coretraction if there is a morphism $g: B \rightarrow A$ such that $f ; g=i d_{A}$. Show that:

1. A morphism is iso iff it is both a retraction and a coretraction.
2. Every retraction is epi.
3. A morphism is iso iff it is an epi coretraction.

Dualise the above facts.
It is easy to see that any two isomorphic objects have the same "categorical properties". Intuitively, such objects have abstractly the same structure and so are indistinguishable within the given category (which does not mean that isomorphic objects cannot have different "non-categorical" properties, cf. Example 1.3.12. Indeed, an isomorphism and its inverse determine one-to-one mappings between morphisms going into and coming out of isomorphic objects. Hence, categorical definitions of objects define them only "up to isomorphism". The following section provides typical examples of this phenomenon.

### 3.2 Limits and colimits

In this section we show how certain special objects in an arbitrary category together with their "characteristic" morphisms may be defined in purely categorical terms by so-called universal properties; we hope that the reader will recognise the pattern in the example definitions below. Sections 3.2.1 3.2.4 present some typical instances of this, introducing the most commonly used cases of the general limit construction and its dual, which are then presented in their full generality in Section 3.2.5. In most of the cases in this section we will explicitly spell out the duals of the concepts introduced, since many of them have interesting instances in some common categories (and are traditionally given independent names).

Throughout this section, let $\mathbf{K}$ be an arbitrary but fixed category. Morphisms and objects we refer to are those of $\mathbf{K}$, unless explicitly qualified otherwise.

### 3.2.1 Initial and terminal objects

Definition 3.2.1 (Initial object). An object $I \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is initial in $\mathbf{K}$ if for each $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ there is exactly one morphism from $I$ to $A$.

Example 3.2.2. The empty set $\varnothing$ is initial in Set. The algebra $T_{\Sigma}$ of ground $\Sigma$-terms is initial in $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$, for any signature $\Sigma \in|\mathbf{A l g S i g}|$.

Recall the definition of an initial model of an equational specification (Definition 2.5.13). For any signature $\Sigma$ and a set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations, the initial model of $\langle\bar{\Sigma}, \Phi\rangle$ (which exists by Theorem 2.5.14 is an initial object in the category $\operatorname{Mod}(\Sigma, \Phi)($ as defined in Example 3.1.19).

Exercise 3.2.3. What is an initial object in AlgSig? Look for initial objects in other categories.

## Fact 3.2.4.

1. Any two initial objects in $\mathbf{K}$ are isomorphic.
2. If I is initial in $\mathbf{K}$ and $I^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $I$ then $I^{\prime}$ is initial in $\mathbf{K}$ as well.

Proof. The proof is rather straightforward. We present it here explicitly only as a simple example of the style of argument, very common in category-theoretic proofs, which exploits universality (a special case of which is the property used in the definition of an initial object). The requirement that there exists a morphism satisfying a certain property is used to construct some diagrams, and then the uniqueness of this morphism is used to show that the diagrams constructed commute.

1. Suppose that $I, I^{\prime} \in|\mathbf{K}|$ are two initial objects in $\mathbf{K}$. Then, by the initiality of $I$, there exists a morphism $f: I \rightarrow I^{\prime}$. Similarly, by the initiality of $I^{\prime}$, there exists a morphism $g: I^{\prime} \rightarrow I$. Thus, we have constructed the following diagram:


Now, by the initiality of $I$, there is a unique morphism from $I$ to $I$, and so $i d_{I}=$ $f ; g$. Similarly, $i d_{I^{\prime}}=g ; f$. Thus $f$ is an isomorphism (with inverse $g$ ) and $I$ and $I^{\prime}$ are indeed isomorphic.
2. Suppose that $I \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is initial in $\mathbf{K}$, and let $i: I \rightarrow I^{\prime}$ be an isomorphism with inverse $i^{-1}: I^{\prime} \rightarrow I$. Consider an arbitrary object $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$. By the "existence part" of the initiality property of $I$, we know that there exists a morphism $f: I \rightarrow A$. Hence, there exists a morphism from $I^{\prime}$ to $A$ as well, namely $i^{-1} ; f: I^{\prime} \rightarrow A$. Then, let $f^{\prime}: I^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ be an arbitrary morphism from $I^{\prime}$ to $A$. By the "uniqueness part" of the initiality property of $I, f=i ; f^{\prime}$, and so $i^{-1} ; f=i^{-1} ;\left(i ; f^{\prime}\right)=\left(i^{-1} ; i\right) ; f^{\prime}=$ $i d_{I^{\prime}} ; f^{\prime}=f^{\prime}$. This shows that $i^{-1} ; f$ is the only morphism from $I^{\prime}$ to $A$, and so that $I^{\prime}$ is indeed initial in $\mathbf{K}$.

The last fact indicates that the initiality property identifies an object up to isomorphism. As argued in Section 3.1.3.2, in category theory this is the most exact characterisation of an object we may expect. In the following we will speak of "the" initial object meaning an initial object identified up to isomorphism. We adopt the same convention in the many similar cases introduced in the sequel.

### 3.2.1.1 Dually:

Definition 3.2.5 (Terminal object). An object $1 \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is terminal in $\mathbf{K}$ if for each $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ there is exactly one morphism from $A$ to 1 .

Note that terminal means the same as co-initial.
Exercise 3.2.6. Are there any terminal objects in Set, $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ or $\operatorname{AlgSig}$ ? What about terminal objects in AlgSig ${ }^{\text {der }}$ ?

Recall the definition of a terminal (final) model of an equational specification (Definition 2.7.12). Restate it using the notion of a terminal object as defined above.

Exercise 3.2.7. Dualise Fact 3.2.4

### 3.2.2 Products and coproducts

Definition 3.2.8 (Product). A product of two objects $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is an object $A \times B \in$ $|\mathbf{K}|$ together with a pair of morphisms $\pi_{A}: A \times B \rightarrow A$ and $\pi_{B}: A \times B \rightarrow B$ such that for any object $C \in|\mathbf{K}|$ and pair of morphisms $f: C \rightarrow A$ and $g: C \rightarrow B$ there is exactly one morphism $\langle f, g\rangle: C \rightarrow A \times B$ such that the following diagram commutes:


Example 3.2.9. In Set, the Cartesian product of $A$ and $B$ is a product $A \times B$, where $\pi_{A}, \pi_{B}$ are the projection functions. For any signature $\Sigma$, products in $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ are defined analogously (cf. Definition 1.2.9).

Exercise 3.2.10. What is the product of two objects in a preorder category?
Exercise 3.2.11. Show that any two products of $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ are isomorphic.
Exercise 3.2.12. Suppose that $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ have a product. Given $f: C \rightarrow A$ and $g: C \rightarrow$ $B$, and hence $\langle f, g\rangle: C \rightarrow A \times B$, show that for any $h: D \rightarrow C, h ;\langle f, g\rangle=\langle h ; f, h ; g\rangle$.

Exercise 3.2.13. Prove that:

1. $A \times B \cong B \times A$ for any $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|$.
2. $(A \times B) \times C \cong A \times(B \times C)$ for any $A, B, C \in|\mathbf{K}|$. Hint: The following diagram might be helpful:


Exercise 3.2.14. Define the product of an arbitrary family of K-objects. What is the product of the empty family?

### 3.2.2.1 Dually:

Definition 3.2.15 (Coproduct). A coproduct of two objects $A, B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is an object $A+B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ together with a pair of morphisms $\imath_{A}: A \rightarrow A+B$ and $\imath_{B}: B \rightarrow A+B$ such that for any object $C \in|\mathbf{K}|$ and pair of morphisms $f: A \rightarrow C$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ there is exactly one morphism $[f, g]: A+B \rightarrow C$ such that the following diagram commutes:


Example 3.2.16. In Set, the disjoint union of sets $A$ and $B$ is their coproduct $A+B$, where $l_{A}, l_{B}$ are the injections. Similarly, in AlgSig, the (componentwise) disjoint union of algebraic signatures $\Sigma$ and $\Sigma^{\prime}$ is their coproduct $\Sigma+\Sigma^{\prime}$, where $t_{A}, l_{B}$ are the obvious injections.

Note that coproduct means the same as co-product.
Exercise 3.2.17. Dualise the exercises for products.

Exercise 3.2.18. For any algebraic signature $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$ and two $S$-sorted sets $X$ and $Y$, show that their disjoint union $X \uplus Y$ is the coproduct of $X$ and $Y$ in the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$ of substitutions over $\Sigma$ (recall Example 3.1.13), where the coproduct injections are the identity substitutions (of the corresponding variables from $X \uplus Y$ for variables in $X$ and in $Y$, respectively). Generalise this to the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma} / \Phi$ of substitutions over $\Sigma$ modulo a set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations (cf. Exercise 3.1.14). Finally, characterise coproducts in the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$, the algebraic theory over $\Sigma$ generated by $\Phi$ (Exercise 3.1.15.

### 3.2.3 Equalisers and coequalisers

We have defined above products and coproducts for arbitrary pairs of objects in a category. In this section we deal with constructions for pairs of morphisms constrained to be parallel, i.e., pairs of morphisms that have the same source and the same target.

Definition 3.2.19 (Equaliser). An equaliser of two parallel morphisms $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: A \rightarrow B$ is an object $E \in|\mathbf{K}|$ together with a morphism $h: E \rightarrow A$ such that $h ; f=h ; g$, and such that for any object $E^{\prime} \in|\mathbf{K}|$ and morphism $h^{\prime}: E^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ satisfying $h^{\prime} ; f=h^{\prime} ; g$ there is exactly one morphism $k: E^{\prime} \rightarrow E$ such that $k ; h=h^{\prime}$ :


Exercise 3.2.20. Show that an equaliser of $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: A \rightarrow B$ is unique up to isomorphism.

Exercise 3.2.21. Show that every equaliser (to be more precise: its morphism part) is mono, and every epi equaliser is iso.
Exercise 3.2.22. Construct equalisers of pairs of parallel morphisms in Set. Then, for any signature $\Sigma$, construct equalisers of pairs of parallel morphisms in $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$. HINT: For any two functions $f, g: A \rightarrow B$ consider the set $\{a \in A \mid f(a)=g(a)\} \subseteq A$.

### 3.2.3.1 Dually:

Definition 3.2.23 (Coequaliser). The dual notion to equaliser is coequaliser. The diagram now looks as follows:


Exercise. Formulate explicitly the definition of a coequaliser. Then dualise the exercises for equalisers.

Exercise 3.2.24. What is the coequaliser of two morphisms in Set? What is the coequaliser of two morphisms in AlgSig? What is the coequaliser of two morphisms in $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ ? Hint: Given two functions $f, g: A \rightarrow B$ consider the quotient of $B$ by the least equivalence relation $\equiv$ on $B$ such that for all $a \in A, f(a) \equiv g(a)$.

Exercise 3.2.25. What is the coequaliser of two morphisms in the category of substitutions $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma}$ ?

### 3.2.4 Pullbacks and pushouts

Definition 3.2.26 (Pullback). A pullback of two morphisms $f: A \rightarrow C$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ having the same codomain is an object $P \in|\mathbf{K}|$ together with a pair of morphisms $j: P \rightarrow A$ and $k: P \rightarrow B$ such that $j ; f=k ; g$, and such that for any object $P^{\prime} \in|\mathbf{K}|$ and pair of morphisms $j^{\prime}: P^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ and $k^{\prime}: P^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ satisfying $j^{\prime} ; f=k^{\prime} ; g$ there is exactly one morphism $h: P^{\prime} \rightarrow P$ such that the following diagram commutes:


Exercise 3.2.27. Show that a pullback of $f: A \rightarrow C$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ is unique up to isomorphism.

Exercise 3.2.28. Show that if $\mathbf{K}$ has products (of all pairs of objects) and equalisers (of all pairs of parallel morphisms) than it has pullbacks as well (i.e., all pairs of morphisms with common target have pullbacks in $\mathbf{K}$ ).

Hint: To construct a pullback of $f: A \rightarrow C$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$, first construct the product $A \times B$ with projections $\pi_{A}: A \times B \rightarrow A$ and $\pi_{B}: A \times B \rightarrow B$ and then the equaliser $h: P \rightarrow A \times B$ of $\pi_{A} ; f: A \times B \rightarrow C$ and $\pi_{B} ; g: A \times B \rightarrow C$.

Exercise 3.2.29. Construct the pullback of two morphisms in Set, then in $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$, and in AlgSig.

Exercise 3.2.30. Prove that if $\mathbf{K}$ has a terminal object and all pullbacks (i.e., any pair of $\mathbf{K}$-morphisms with common target has a pullback in $\mathbf{K}$ ) then:

1. $\mathbf{K}$ has all (binary) products.
2. K has all equalisers. Hint: Get the equaliser of $f, g: A \rightarrow B$ from the pullback of $\left\langle i d_{A}, f\right\rangle,\left\langle i d_{A}, g\right\rangle: A \rightarrow A \times B$.

Exercise 3.2.31. Prove that pullbacks translate monomorphisms to monomorphisms: if

is a pullback square and $g$ is mono, then $f$ is mono as well.
Exercise 3.2.32. Consider the following diagram:


Prove that:

1. If the two squares are pullbacks then the outer rectangle is a pullback.
2. If the diagram commutes and the outer rectangle and right-hand square are both pullbacks then so is the left-hand square.

### 3.2.4.1 Dually:

Definition 3.2.33 (Pushout). The dual notion to pullback is pushout. The diagram now looks as follows:


Exercise. Spell out the definition of a pushout explicitly. Then dualise the exercises for pullbacks.

Pushouts provide a basic tool for "putting together" structures of different kinds. Given two objects $A$ and $B$, a pair of morphisms $f: C \rightarrow A$ and $g: C \rightarrow B$ indicates a common source from which some "parts" of $A$ and $B$ come. The pushout of $f$ and $g$ puts together $A$ and $B$ while identifying the parts coming from the common source as indicated by $f$ and $g$, but keeping the new parts disjoint (cf. the dual of Exercise 3.2.28.
Example 3.2.34. Working in Set, consider:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A=\{1,2,3\} \\
& B=\{3,4,5\} \\
& C=\{\boldsymbol{\phi}\} \\
& f=\{\boldsymbol{0} \mapsto 2\} \quad: C \rightarrow A \\
& g=\{\boldsymbol{0} \mapsto 4\} \quad: C \rightarrow B
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the pushout object $P$ is (up to isomorphism) given as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P=\left\{1^{\prime},\left\{2^{\prime}=4^{\prime \prime}\right\}, 3^{\prime}, 3^{\prime \prime}, 5^{\prime \prime}\right\} \\
& j=\left\{1 \mapsto 1^{\prime}, 2 \mapsto\left\{2^{\prime}=4^{\prime \prime}\right\}, 3 \mapsto 3^{\prime}\right\} \quad: A \rightarrow P \\
& k=\left\{3 \mapsto 3^{\prime \prime}, 4 \mapsto\left\{2^{\prime}=4^{\prime \prime}\right\}, 5 \mapsto 5^{\prime \prime}\right\} \quad: B \rightarrow P
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 3.2.35. The general comments above about the use of pushouts for putting together objects in categories apply in particular when one wants to combine algebraic signatures, as we will frequently do throughout the rest of the book. As a very simple example of a pushout in the category AlgSig of algebraic signatures, consider the signature $\Sigma$ NAT of natural numbers defined in Exercise 2.5.4. Then, let $\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{f i b}$ be its extension by a new operation name fib: nat $\rightarrow$ nat and $\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{\text {mult }}$ its extension by another operation name mult: $n a t \times$ nat $\rightarrow$ nat. We then have two signature inclusions:

$$
\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{f i b} \longleftrightarrow \Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{\mathrm{AT}} \longleftrightarrow \Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{m u l t}
$$

Their pushout in AlgSig yields a signature $\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{\text {fib,mult }}$ which (up to isomorphism) consists of the shared signature $\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}$ (once, no repetitions!) together with each of the operations added by the two extensions.

This is deceptively simple though, involving only single-sorted signature inclusions that introduce different operation names.
Exercise. Give examples of pushouts in AlgSig with signatures involving more than one sort, operation names that coincide, and signature morphisms that are not injective on sorts and/or on operation names.

### 3.2.5 The general situation

The definitions introduced in the previous subsections followed a common, more general pattern. As an example, let's have another look at the definition of a pullback (Definition 3.2.26, the notation below refers to the diagram there). Given a diagram in the category at hand (the two morphisms $f$ and $g$ of which we construct the pullback), we consider an object $P$ in this category together with morphisms going from this object to the nodes of the diagram ( $j, k$ and an anonymous $c: P \rightarrow C$ ) such that all the resulting paths starting from $P$ commute ( $j ; f=c=k ; g$ - hence $c$ may remain anonymous). Moreover, from among all such objects we choose the one that is in a sense "closest" to the diagram: for any object $P^{\prime}$ with morphisms from it to the diagram nodes ( $j^{\prime}, k^{\prime}$ and an anonymous $c^{\prime}$ ) satisfying the required commutativity property ( $j^{\prime} ; f=c^{\prime}=k^{\prime} ; g$ ), $P^{\prime}$ may be uniquely projected onto the chosen object $P$ (via a morphism $h$ ) so that all the resulting paths starting from $P^{\prime}$ commute $\left(h ; j=j^{\prime}\right.$ and $h ; k=k^{\prime}$, which also implies $h ; c=c^{\prime}$ ). This is usually referred to as the universal property of pullbacks and, more generally, of arbitrary limits as defined below. The (dual) universal property of pushouts and, more generally, of arbitrary colimits as defined below, may be described by looking at objects with morphisms going from the nodes of a diagram into them. We will formalise this in the rest of this section.

Definition 3.2.36 (Graph). Let $\Sigma_{G}$ be the following signature:

```
sorts node, edge
ops source:edge }->\mathrm{ node
    target:edge }->\mathrm{ node
```

A $\Sigma_{G}$-algebra is called a graph. (Note that these graphs may have multiple edges between any two nodes; such graphs are sometimes called multigraphs.) The category Graph of graphs is $\operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma_{G}\right)$. Given a graph $G$, we write $e: n \rightarrow m$ as an abbreviation for $n, m \in|G|_{\text {node }}, e \in|G|_{\text {edge }}, \operatorname{source}_{G}(e)=n$ and $\operatorname{target}_{G}(e)=m$.

Exercise 3.2.37. Construct an initial object, coproducts, coequalisers and pushouts in Graph.

Exercise 3.2.38. Define formally the category $\operatorname{Path}(G)$ of paths in a graph $G$, where:

Objects of $\operatorname{Path}(G):|G|_{\text {node }}$;
Morphisms of Path $(G)$ : paths in $G$, i.e., finite sequences $e_{1} \ldots e_{n}$ of elements of $|G|_{\text {edge }}$ such that $\operatorname{source}_{G}\left(e_{i+1}\right)=\operatorname{target}_{G}\left(e_{i}\right)$ for $i<n$. Notice that we have to allow for $n=0$.

A diagram in $\mathbf{K}$ is a graph having nodes labelled with $\mathbf{K}$-objects and edges labelled with K-morphisms with the appropriate source and target. Formally:

Definition 3.2.39 (Diagram). A diagram $D$ in $\mathbf{K}$ consists of:

- a graph $G(D)$;
- for each node $n \in|G(D)|_{\text {node }}$, an object $D_{n} \in|\mathbf{K}|$; and
- for each edge $e: n \rightarrow m$ in $G(D)$, a morphism $D_{e}: D_{n} \rightarrow D_{m}$.

A diagram $D$ is connected if its graph $G(D)$ is connected (that is, any two nodes in $G(D)$ are linked by a sequence of edges disregarding their direction, or fully formally: if the total relation on the set of nodes of $G(D)$ is the only equivalence between the nodes that links all nodes having an edge between them).

Exercise 3.2.40. Show how every small category $\mathbf{K}$ gives rise to a graph $G(\mathbf{K})$ and a diagram $D(\mathbf{K})$.

Definition 3.2.41 (Cone and cocone). A cone $\alpha$ over a diagram $D$ in $\mathbf{K}$ is a $\mathbf{K}$ object $X$ together with a family of K-morphisms $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: X \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in|G(D)|_{\text {node }}}$ such that for every edge $e: n \rightarrow m$ in the graph $G(D)$ the following diagram commutes:


Dually: A cocone $\alpha$ over a diagram $D$ in $\mathbf{K}$ is a $\mathbf{K}$-object $X$ together with a family of K-morphisms $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: D_{n} \rightarrow X\right\rangle_{n \in|G(D)|_{\text {node }}}$ such that for every edge $e: n \rightarrow m$ in the graph $G(D)$ the following diagram commutes:


In the following we will write cones simply as families $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: X \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in|G(D)|_{\text {node }}}$, omitting any explicit mention of the apex $X$, and similarly for cocones. The notation is not quite justified only in the case when the diagram (and hence the family) is empty; this will not lead to any misunderstanding.

Let $D$ be a diagram in $\mathbf{K}$ with $|G(D)|_{\text {node }}=N$ and $|G(D)|_{\text {edge }}=E$.
Definition 3.2.42 (Limit and colimit). A limit of $D$ in $\mathbf{K}$ is a cone $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: X \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ such that for any cone $\left\langle\alpha_{n}^{\prime}: X^{\prime} \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ there is exactly one morphism $h: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$ such that for every $n \in N$ the following diagram commutes:


If $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: X \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ is a limit of $D$, we will refer to $X$ as the limit object of $D$ (or sometimes just the limit of $D$ ), and to the morphisms $\alpha_{n}, n \in N$, as the limit projections.

Dually: A colimit of $D$ in $\mathbf{K}$ is a cocone $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: D_{n} \rightarrow X\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ such that for any cocone $\left\langle\alpha_{n}^{\prime}: D_{n} \rightarrow X^{\prime}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ there is exactly one morphism $h: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ such that for every $n \in N$ the following diagram commutes:


If $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: D_{n} \rightarrow X\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ is a colimit of $D$, we will refer to $X$ as the colimit object of $D$ (or sometimes just the colimit of $D$ ), and to the morphisms $\alpha_{n}, n \in N$, as the colimit injections.

Definition 3.2.43 (Completeness and cocompleteness). A category $\mathbf{K}$ is (finitely) complete if every (finite) diagram in $\mathbf{K}$ has a limit. Dually, $\mathbf{K}$ is (finitely) cocomplete if every (finite) diagram in $\mathbf{K}$ has a colimit.

Exercise 3.2.44. Define formally the category $\operatorname{Cone}(D)$ of cones over a diagram $D$, where:

Objects of $\operatorname{Cone}(D)$ : cones over $D$;
Morphisms of $\operatorname{Cone}(D)$ : a morphism from $\alpha=\left\langle\alpha_{n}: X \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ to $\alpha^{\prime}=\left\langle\alpha_{n}^{\prime}: X^{\prime} \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$
is a K-morphism $h: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ such that $\alpha_{n}=h ; \alpha_{n}^{\prime}$ for $n \in N$.

Prove that the limit of $D$ is a terminal object in $\operatorname{Cone}(D)$. Note that this implies that a limit of any diagram is unique up to isomorphism.

Present the category of objects over an object (cf. Definition 3.1.28) as the category of cones over a certain diagram.

Exercise 3.2.45. Show that products, terminal objects, equalisers and pullbacks in $\mathbf{K}$ are limits of simple diagrams in $\mathbf{K}$.

Exercise 3.2.46. Construct in Set a limit of the diagram


Exercise 3.2.47. Show that limiting cones are jointly mono: if $\left\langle\alpha_{n}: X \rightarrow D_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in|G(D)|_{\text {node }}}$ is a limit of $D$, then $f=g$ whenever for all $n \in|G(D)|_{\text {node }}, f ; \alpha_{n}=g ; \alpha_{n}$.

Exercise 3.2.48. Show that if $\mathbf{K}$ has a terminal object, binary products and all equalisers then it is finitely complete. HINT: Given a finite diagram in $\mathbf{K}$, first build the product of all its objects, and then gradually turn it into a limit by "equalising" the triangles formed by product projections and morphisms in the diagram.

Use Exercise 3.2.30 to conclude that if $\mathbf{K}$ has a terminal object and all pullbacks then it is finitely complete.

Exercise 3.2.49. Show that if $\mathbf{K}$ has products of arbitrary families of objects and all equalisers then it is complete. Hint: Proceed as in Exercise 3.2.48, but notice that all the triangles involved may be "equalised" simultaneously in one step, cf. [Mac71], Theorem V.2.1.

Exercise 3.2.50. A wide pullback is the limit of a non-empty family of morphisms with a common target. Show that if a category has a terminal object and all wide pullbacks then it has products of arbitrary families of objects, and then conclude that it is complete. Hint: Generalise Exercise 3.2.30 and use Exercise 3.2.49.

Exercise 3.2.51. Recall that for any category $\mathbf{K}$ and object $A \in|\mathbf{K}|, \mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ is the slice category of objects over $A$ (Definition 3.1.28).

Notice that $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ has a terminal object. Then show that binary products in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ are essentially given by the pullbacks in $\mathbf{K}$ (of morphisms to $A$ ) and similarly, arbitrary non-empty products in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ are essentially given by wide pullbacks in $\mathbf{K}$. Check also that any (wide) pullback in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ is given by the corresponding (wide) pullback in $\mathbf{K}$ (no morphisms to $A$ added).

Conclude that $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ is finitely complete if $\mathbf{K}$ has all pullbacks, and $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ is complete if $\mathbf{K}$ has all wide pullbacks.

Exercise 3.2.52. Dualise the above exercises.
Exercise 3.2.53. Show that:

1. Set is complete and cocomplete.
2. FinSet is finitely complete and finitely cocomplete, but is neither complete nor cocomplete.
3. $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ is complete for any signature $\Sigma$. (It is also cocomplete, but the proof is harder - give it a try!)
4. AlgSig is cocomplete. (Is it complete?)

Hint: Use Exercise 3.2 .49 and its dual, and the standard constructions of (co)products and (co)equalisers in these categories hinted at in Examples 3.2.9, 3.2.16 and Exercises 3.2.22, 3.2.24 Check that, given a diagram $D$ with nodes $N$ and edges $E$ in Set, its limit is (up to isomorphism) the set of families $\left\langle d_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ that are compatible with $D$ in the sense that $d_{n} \in D_{n}$ for each $n \in N$ and $d_{m}=D_{e}\left(d_{n}\right)$ for each edge $e: n \rightarrow m$, with the obvious projections. Check that its colimit is (up to isomorphism) the quotient of the disjoint union $\biguplus_{n \in N} D_{n}$ by the least equivalence relation that is generated by all pairs $\left\langle d_{n}, D_{e}\left(d_{n}\right)\right\rangle$ for $e: n \rightarrow m$ in $E$ and $d_{n} \in D_{n}$.
Exercise 3.2.54. Show that AlgSig ${ }^{\text {der }}$ is not finitely cocomplete. (Hint: Consider a morphism mapping a binary operation to the projection on the first argument and another morphism mapping the same operation to the projection on the second argument. Can such a pair of morphisms have a coequaliser?)

Exercise 3.2.55. When is a preorder category (finitely) complete and cocomplete?

### 3.3 Factorisation systems

In this section we will interrupt our presentation of the basic concepts of category theory and try to illustrate how they can be used to formulate some well-known ideas at a level of generality and abstraction that ensures their applicability in many specific contexts.

The concept on which we concentrate here is that of reachability (cf. Section 1.2). Recall that the original definition of a reachable algebra used the notion of a subalgebra (cf. Definition 1.2.7). Keeping in mind that in the categorical framework we deal with objects identified up to isomorphism, we slightly generalise the standard formulation and, for any signature $\Sigma \in|\mathbf{A l g S i g}|$, say that a $\Sigma$-algebra $B$ is a subalgebra of $A$ if there exists an injective $\Sigma$-homomorphism from $B$ to $A$. A dual notion is that of a quotient: a $\Sigma$-algebra $B$ is a quotient of a $\Sigma$-algebra $A$ if there exists a surjective $\Sigma$-homomorphism from $A$ to $B$. Now, a $\Sigma$-algebra $A$ is reachable if it has no proper subalgebra (i.e., every subalgebra of $A$ is isomorphic to $A$ ), or equivalently, if it is a quotient of the algebra $T_{\Sigma}$ of ground $\Sigma$-terms (cf. Exercise 1.4.14). In this formulation, the above definitions may be used to introduce a notion of reachability in an arbitrary category. However, we need an appropriate generalisation of the concept of injective and surjective homomorphisms. A first attempt might be to use arbitrary epimorphisms and monomorphisms for this purpose, but it soon turns out that these concepts are not "fine enough" to ensure the properties we are after. An appropriate refinement of these is given if the category is equipped with a factorisation system.

Definition 3.3.1 (Factorisation system). Let $\mathbf{K}$ be an arbitrary category. A factorisation system for $\mathbf{K}$ is a pair $\langle\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{M}\rangle$, where:

- $\mathbf{E}$ is a collection of epimorphisms in $\mathbf{K}$ and $\mathbf{M}$ is a collection of monomorphisms in $\mathbf{K}$;
- each of $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{M}$ is closed under composition and contains all isomorphisms in K;
- every morphism in $\mathbf{K}$ has an $\langle\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{M}\rangle$-factorisation: for each $f \in \mathbf{K}, f=e_{f} ; m_{f}$ for some $e_{f} \in \mathbf{E}$ and $m_{f} \in \mathbf{K}$;

- $\langle\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{M}\rangle$-factorisations are unique up to isomorphism: for any $e, e^{\prime} \in \mathbf{E}$ and $m, m^{\prime} \in$ $\mathbf{M}$, if $e ; m=e^{\prime} ; m^{\prime}$ then there exists an isomorphism $i$ such that $e ; i=e^{\prime}$ and $i ; m^{\prime}=$ m.


Example 3.3.2. Set has a factorisation system $\langle\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{M}\rangle$, where $\mathbf{E}$ is the collection of all surjective functions and $\mathbf{M}$ is the collection of all injective functions.
Example 3.3.3. For any signature $\Sigma, \operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ has a factorisation system ${ }^{4}\left\langle\mathbf{T E}_{\Sigma}, \mathbf{T M}_{\Sigma}\right\rangle$, where $\mathbf{T E}_{\Sigma}$ is the collection of all surjective $\Sigma$-homomorphisms and $\mathbf{T M}_{\Sigma}$ is the collection of all injective $\Sigma$-homomorphisms; see Exercise 1.3.23.

Consider an arbitrary category $\mathbf{K}$ equipped with a factorisation system $\langle\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{M}\rangle$.
4 " $\mathbf{T}$ " in $\mathbf{T E}_{\Sigma}$ and $\mathbf{T M}_{\Sigma}$ indicates that we are dealing with ordinary total algebras here, as opposed to partial and continuous algebras with the factorisation systems discussed below.

Lemma 3.3.4 (Diagonal fill-in lemma). For any morphisms $f_{1}, f_{2}, e, m$ in $\mathbf{K}$, where $e \in \mathbf{E}$ and $m \in \mathbf{M}$, if $f_{1} ; m=e ; f_{2}$ then there exists a unique morphism $g$ such that $e ; g=f_{1}$ and $g ; m=f_{2}$.
Proof sketch. The required "diagonal" is given by $g=e_{f_{2}} ; i ; m_{f 1}$, as illustrated by the diagram below; its uniqueness follows easily since $e$ is an epimorphism.


Exercise 3.3.5. Show that if $e \in \mathbf{E}$ and $e ; f \in \mathbf{M}$ for some morphism $f \in \mathbf{K}$, then $e$ is an isomorphism. Dually, if $m \in \mathbf{M}$ and $f ; m \in \mathbf{E}$ for some morphism $f \in \mathbf{K}$, then $m$ is an isomorphism.
Definition 3.3.6 (Subobject and quotient). Let $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$. A subobject of $A$ is an object $B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ together with a morphism $m: B \rightarrow A$ such that $m \in \mathbf{M}$. A quotient of $A$ is an object $B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ together with a morphism $e: A \rightarrow B$ such that $e \in \mathbf{E}$.

Definition 3.3.7 (Reachable object). An object $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is reachable if it has no proper subobject, i.e., if every morphism $m \in \mathbf{M}$ with target $A$ is an isomorphism.

The category $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ of $\Sigma$-algebras and the notion of a reachable algebra provide an instance of the general concept of reachability introduced in the above definition. The following theorem gives more general versions of well-known facts often laboriously proved in the standard algebraic framework.
Theorem 3.3.8. Assume that $\mathbf{K}$ has an initial object $\Lambda$. Then:

1. An object $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is reachable iff it is a quotient of the initial object $\Lambda$.
2. Every object in $|\mathbf{K}|$ has a reachable subobject which is unique up to isomorphism.
3. If $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is reachable then for every $B \in|\mathbf{K}|$ there exists at most one morphism from $A$ to $B$.
4. If $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is reachable and $f \in \mathbf{K}$ is a morphism with target $A$ then $f \in \mathbf{E}$.

Exercise 3.3.9. Prove the theorem and identify the familiar facts about reachable algebras generalised here.

One of the main results of Chapter 2. Theorem 2.5.14, states that any equational specification has an initial model. This is just a special case of a more general result which we formulate and prove for an arbitrary category with "reachability structure" satisfying an additional, technical property that any object has up to isomorphism only a set of quotients.

Definition 3.3.10 (Co-well-powered category). $\mathbf{K}$ is $\mathbf{E}$-co-well-powered if for any $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ there exists a set of morphisms $E \subseteq \mathbf{E}$ such that for every morphism $e \in \mathbf{E}$ with source $A$ there exist a morphism $e^{\prime} \in E$ and an isomorphism $i$ such that $e=e^{\prime} ; i$.

Definition 3.3.11 (Quasi-variety). A collection of objects $Q \subseteq|\mathbf{K}|$ is a quasivariety if it is closed under subobjects and products of non-empty sets of objects in $Q$.

Lemma 3.3.12 (Initiality lemma). Assume that $\mathbf{K}$ has an initial object, is $\mathbf{E}$-co-well-powered, and any set of objects in $\mathbf{K}$ has a product. Then any non-empty quasivariety in $\mathbf{K}$ (considered as the corresponding full subcategory of $\mathbf{K}$ ) has an initial object which is reachable in $\mathbf{K}$.

Proof. Let $Q \subseteq|\mathbf{K}|$ be a non-empty collection of objects closed under subobjects and products of non-empty sets. Let $Q_{r}$ be a set of reachable objects in $Q$ such that every reachable object in $Q$ is isomorphic to an element of $Q_{r}$ (such a set exists since $\mathbf{K}$ is $\mathbf{E}$-co-well-powered). The reachable subobject of the product of $Q_{r}$ (which is unique up to isomorphism) is a reachable initial object in $Q$.

It is now easy to check that in the context of Example 3.3.3 every class of $\Sigma$ algebras definable by a set of $\Sigma$-equations is a non-empty quasi-variety, and hence Lemma 3.3.12 indeed directly implies Theorem 2.5.14.

We conclude this section with two examples of categories naturally equipped with a notion of reachability which is an instance of the general concept introduced above.

Example 3.3.13. Recall Definitions 2.7.30 and 2.7.31 of partial $\Sigma$-algebras and $\Sigma$ homomorphisms between them. For any signature $\Sigma$, define the category of partial $\Sigma$-algebras, $\operatorname{PAlg}(\Sigma)$, as follows:

Objects of $\operatorname{PAlg}(\Sigma)$ : partial $\Sigma$-algebras;
Morphisms of $\operatorname{PAlg}(\Sigma)$ : weak $\Sigma$-homomorphisms.
Define also the subcategory $\mathbf{P A l g}_{\text {str }}(\Sigma)$ of partial $\Sigma$-algebras with strong homomorphisms between them, as follows:

Objects of $\mathbf{P A l g}_{\text {str }}(\Sigma)$ : partial $\Sigma$-algebras;
Morphisms of $\mathbf{P A l g}_{\text {str }}(\Sigma)$ : strong $\Sigma$-homomorphisms.
The category $\mathbf{P A l g}(\Sigma)$ of partial $\Sigma$-algebras has a factorisation system $\left\langle\mathbf{P E}_{\Sigma}, \mathbf{P M}_{\Sigma}\right\rangle$, where $\mathbf{P E}_{\Sigma}$ is the collection of all epimorphisms in $\mathbf{P A l g}(\Sigma)$ and $\mathbf{P M} \boldsymbol{P}_{\Sigma}$ is the collection of all monomorphisms in $\operatorname{PAlg}(\Sigma)$ that are strong $\Sigma$-homomorphisms.
Exercise. Characterise epimorphisms in $\operatorname{PAlg}(\Sigma)$ (they are not surjective in general) and prove that $\left\langle\mathbf{P E}_{\Sigma}, \mathbf{P M}_{\Sigma}\right\rangle$ is indeed a factorisation system for $\mathbf{P A l g}(\Sigma)$. Check then that factorisation of a strong $\Sigma$-homomorphism in $\left\langle\mathbf{P} \mathbf{E}_{\Sigma}, \mathbf{P M}_{\Sigma}\right\rangle$ consists of strong $\Sigma$-homomorphisms. Conclude that strong homomorphisms in $\mathbf{P E}_{\Sigma}$ and $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{M}_{\Sigma}$, respectively, form a factorization system for $\mathbf{P A l g}$ str $(\Sigma)$.

Example 3.3.14. For any signature $\Sigma$, define the category of continuous $\Sigma$-algebras, $\operatorname{CAlg}(\Sigma)$, as follows:
Objects of $\mathbf{C A l g}(\Sigma)$ : continuous $\Sigma$-algebras, which are just like ordinary (total) $\Sigma$-algebras, except that their carriers are required to be complete partial orders and their operations are continuous functions (cf. Exercise 3.1.9);
Morphisms of $\operatorname{CAlg}(\Sigma)$ : continuous $\Sigma$-homomorphisms: a continuous $\Sigma$-homomorphism from a continuous $\Sigma$-algebra $A$ to a continuous $\Sigma$-algebra $B$ is a $\Sigma$-homomorphism $h: A \rightarrow B$ which is continuous as a function between complete partial orders. We say that $h$ is full if it reflects the ordering, i.e., for all $a, a^{\prime} \in|A|_{s}, h(a) \leq_{B} h\left(a^{\prime}\right)$ implies $a \leq_{A} a^{\prime}$.
The category $\operatorname{CAlg}(\Sigma)$ of continuous $\Sigma$-algebras has a factorisation system $\left\langle\mathbf{C E}_{\Sigma}, \mathbf{C M}_{\Sigma}\right\rangle$, where $\mathbf{C M} \mathbf{C}_{\Sigma}$ is the collection of all full monomorphisms in $\operatorname{CAlg}(\Sigma)$ and $\mathbf{C E}_{\Sigma}$ is the collection of all strongly dense epimorphisms in $\mathbf{C A l g}(\Sigma)$. A continuous $\Sigma$-homomorphism $h: A \rightarrow B$ is strongly dense if $B$ has no proper continuous subalgebra which contains the set-theoretic image of $|A|$ under $h$. (Note that the expected notion of a continuous subalgebra is determined by the chosen collection of factorisation monomorphisms $\mathbf{C M}_{\Sigma}$.) This is equivalent to the requirement that every element of $|B|$ is the least upper bound of a countable chain of least upper bounds of countable chains of $\ldots$ of elements in the set-theoretic image of $|A|$ under $h$. Consequently, given a strongly dense continuous homomorphism $h: A \rightarrow B$, every element of $|B|$ is the least upper bound of a subset (not necessarily a chain though) of the set-theoretic image of $|A|$ under $h$, which yields the key argument to show that $\mathbf{C A l g}(\Sigma)$ is $\mathbf{C E}_{\Sigma}$-co-well-powered.
Exercise. Prove that $\left\langle\mathbf{C E}_{\Sigma}, \mathbf{C M}_{\Sigma}\right\rangle$ is indeed a factorisation system for $\operatorname{CAlg}(\Sigma)$. Also, try to construct an example of an epimorphism in $\operatorname{CAlg}(\Sigma)$ which is not strongly dense.

Exercise 3.3.15. Characterise reachable algebras in $\operatorname{PAlg}(\Sigma)$ and in $\operatorname{CAlg}(\Sigma)$. Instantiate the facts listed in Theorem 3.3.8 to these categories.

### 3.4 Functors and natural transformations

As explained in the introduction to this chapter, for category theorists it is tantamount to heresy to consider objects in the absence of morphisms between them. Up to now we have departed from this dogma in our study of categories themselves; in the previous sections of this chapter we have worked with categories without introducing any notion of a morphism between them. We hasten here to correct this lapse: morphisms between categories are functors, to be introduced in this section. And by way of atonement we will also introduce natural transformations, which are morphisms between functors.

### 3.4.1 Functors

A category consists of a collection of objects and a collection of morphisms with structure given by the choice of sources and targets of morphism, by the definition of composition and by the identities that are assumed to exist. As in other standard cases of collections with additional structure, morphisms between categories are maps between the collections of objects and morphisms, respectively, that preserve this structure.

Definition 3.4.1 (Functor). A functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2$ from a category $\mathbf{K} 1$ to a category K2 consists of:

- a function $\mathbf{F}_{O b j}:|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}| \rightarrow|\mathbf{K} 2|$; and
- for each $A, B \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}|$, a function $\mathbf{F}_{A, B}: \mathbf{K 1}(A, B) \rightarrow \mathbf{K 2}\left(\mathbf{F}_{O b j}(A), \mathbf{F}_{O b j}(B)\right)$
such that:
- $\mathbf{F}$ preserves identities: $\mathbf{F}_{A, A}\left(i d_{A}\right)=i d_{\mathbf{F}_{O b j}(A)}$ for all objects $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$; and
- F preserves composition: for all morphisms $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$ in K1, $\mathbf{F}_{A, C}(f ; g)=\mathbf{F}_{A, B}(f) ; \mathbf{F}_{B, C}(g)$.

Notation. We use $\mathbf{F}$ to refer to both $\mathbf{F}_{O b j}$ and $\mathbf{F}_{A, B}$ for all $A, B \in|\mathbf{K 1}|$.
In the literature, functors as defined above are sometimes referred to as covariant functors. A contravariant functor is then defined in the same way except that it "reverses the direction of morphisms", i.e., a contravariant functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ maps a K1-morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ to a K2-morphism $\mathbf{F}(f): \mathbf{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathbf{F}(A)$. Even though we will use this terminology sometimes, no new formal definition is required: a contravariant functor from K1 to $\mathbf{K 2}$ is a (covariant) functor from $\mathbf{K 1}{ }^{o p}$ to $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ (cf. e.g. Examples 3.4.7 and 3.4.29 below).

Example 3.4.2 (Identity functor). A functor $\mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K}}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ is defined in the obvious way.

Example 3.4.3 (Inclusion functor). If $\mathbf{K} 1$ is a subcategory of $\mathbf{K} 2$ then the inclusion $\mathbf{I}: \mathbf{K 1} \hookrightarrow \mathbf{K 2}$ is a functor.

Example 3.4.4 (Constant functor). For any $A \in|\mathbf{K 2}|, \mathbf{C}_{A}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2$ is a functor, where $\mathbf{C}_{A}(B)=A$ for any $B \in|\mathbf{K} 1|$ and $\mathbf{C}_{A}(f)=i d_{A}$ for any K1-morphism $f$.

Example 3.4.5 (Opposite functor). For any functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2$, there is a functor $\mathbf{F}^{o p}: \mathbf{K 1}{ }^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}^{o p}$ which is the "same" as $\mathbf{F}$, but is considered between the opposite categories.

Example 3.4.6 (Powerset functor). $\mathcal{P}$ : Set $\rightarrow$ Set is a functor, where $\mathcal{P}(X)=\{Y \mid$ $Y \subseteq X\}$ for any set $X$, and for any function $f: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}, \mathcal{P}(f): \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ is defined by $\mathcal{P}(f)(Y)=\{f(y) \mid y \in Y\}$.

Example 3.4.7 (Contravariant powerset functor). $\mathcal{P}_{-1}:$ Set $^{o p} \rightarrow$ Set is a functor, where $\mathcal{P}_{-1}(X)=\{Y \mid Y \subseteq X\}$ for any set $X$, and for any morphism $f: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ in Set ${ }^{o p}$ (i.e., any function $\left.f: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X\right), \mathcal{P}_{-1}(f): \mathcal{P}_{-1}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ is defined by $\mathcal{P}_{-1}(f)(Y)=\left\{x^{\prime} \in X^{\prime} \mid f\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in Y\right\}$.

Example 3.4.8 (Sequence functor). Seq: Set $\rightarrow$ Mon is a functor, where Mon is the category of monoids with monoid homomorphisms as morphisms. For any set $X \in|\operatorname{Set}|, \operatorname{Seq}(X)=\left\langle X^{*},{ }^{\wedge}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\right\rangle$, where $X^{*}$ is the set of all finite sequences of elements from $X,{ }^{\wedge}$ is sequence concatenation, and $\varepsilon$ is the empty sequence. Then, for any function $f: X \rightarrow Y, \operatorname{Seq}(f): \operatorname{Seq}(X) \rightarrow \mathbf{S e q}(Y)$ is the homomorphism defined by $\operatorname{Seq}(f)\left(x_{1} \ldots x_{n}\right)=f\left(x_{1}\right) \ldots f\left(x_{n}\right)$.

Example 3.4.9 (Reduct functor). For any signature morphism $\sigma: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime},{ }_{-} \mid \sigma: \operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { l g }}(\Sigma)$ is a functor that takes each $\Sigma^{\prime}$-algebra $A^{\prime}$ to its $\sigma$-reduct $\left.A^{\prime}\right|_{\sigma} \in|\mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\operatorname { l g }}(\Sigma)|$ and each $\Sigma^{\prime}$-homomorphisms $h^{\prime}$ to its $\sigma$-reduct $h^{\prime} \mid \sigma$ (cf. Definitions 1.5.4 and 1.5.8.

Example 3.4.10 (Forgetful functor). Let $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$ be a signature. Then $\left.\right|_{-} \mid: \operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma) \rightarrow$ Set ${ }^{S}$ is the functor that takes each $\Sigma$-algebra $A \in|\mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma)|$ to its $S$-sorted carrier set $|A| \in\left|\mathbf{S e t}^{S}\right|$ and each $\Sigma$-homomorphism to its underlying $S$-sorted function. (The functor $\left.\right|_{-} \mid$should really be decorated with a subscript identifying the signature $\Sigma$ - we hope that leaving it out will not confuse the reader.) These special reduct functors $\left.\right|_{-}$will be referred to as forgetful functors.

More generally, the term "forgetful functor" is used to refer to any functor that, intuitively, forgets the structure of objects in a category, mapping any structured object to its underlying unstructured set of elements. Thus, in addition to examples that exactly fit the above definition (like the functor mapping any monoid to the set of its elements) this also covers examples like the functor that maps any topological space to the set of its points and the functor that forgets the metric of a metric space.

Example 3.4.11 (Term algebra). For any signature $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$, there is a functor $T_{\Sigma}: \boldsymbol{S e t}^{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma)$ that maps any $S$-sorted set $X$ to the term algebra $T_{\Sigma}(X)$, and any $S$-sorted function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ to the unique $\Sigma$-homomorphism $f^{\#}: T_{\Sigma}(X) \rightarrow T_{\Sigma}(Y)$ that extends $f$.

Exercise 3.4.12. For any signature $\Sigma$ and set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations, define the quotient functor $/ \Phi: \mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma) \rightarrow \mathbf{\operatorname { A g }}(\Sigma)$ such that for any $\Sigma$-algebra $A, A / \Phi$ is the quotient of $A$ by the least congruence $\simeq$ on $A$ generated by $\Phi$, that is, such that $t_{A}(v) \simeq t_{A}^{\prime}(v)$ for each $\Sigma$-equation $\forall X \bullet t=t^{\prime}$ in $\Phi$ and valuation $v: X \rightarrow|A|$. Make sure that what you define is a functor!

Exercise 3.4.13. For any signature $\Sigma$, define the restriction functor $\mathbf{R}_{\Sigma}: \operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ such that for any $\Sigma$-algebra $A, \mathbf{R}_{\Sigma}(A)$ is the reachable subalgebra of $A$.

More generally: let $\mathbf{K}$ be an arbitrary category with an initial object and a factorisation system, and let $\mathbf{K}_{R}$ be the full subcategory of $\mathbf{K}$ determined by the collection of all reachable objects in $\mathbf{K}$ (cf. Section 3.3). Define a functor $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{K}}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}_{R}$ that maps any $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ to the (unique up to isomorphism) reachable subobject of $A$.

Example 3.4.14 (Projection functor). For any two categories $\mathbf{K} 1$ and $\mathbf{K} 2$, the projection functors $\Pi_{\mathbf{K} 1}: \mathbf{K 1} \times \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 1}$ and $\Pi_{\mathbf{K} 2}: \mathbf{K 1} \times \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2$ are defined by $\Pi_{\mathbf{K} 1}(\langle A, B\rangle)=A$ and $\Pi_{\mathbf{K} 1}(\langle f, g\rangle)=f$, and $\Pi_{\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}}(\langle A, B\rangle)=B$ and $\Pi_{\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}}(\langle f, g\rangle)=g$.

Example 3.4.15 (Hom-functor). Let $\mathbf{K}$ be a locally small category. Hom: $\mathbf{K}^{o p} \times$ $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ Set is a functor, where $\mathbf{H o m}(\langle A, B\rangle)=\mathbf{K}(A, B)$ and


Exercise 3.4.16 (Exponent functor). For any set $X$ define a functor $[-\rightarrow X]:$ Set $^{o p} \rightarrow$ Set mapping any set to the set of all functions from it to $X$. That is, for any set $Y \in|\mathbf{S e t}|,[Y \rightarrow X]$ is the set of all functions from $Y$ to $X$ and then for any morphism $f: Y \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ in Set $^{o p}$, which is a function $f: Y^{\prime} \rightarrow Y$ in Set, $[f \rightarrow X]:[Y \rightarrow X] \rightarrow\left[Y^{\prime} \rightarrow X\right]$ is defined by pre-composition with $f$ as follows: $[f \rightarrow X](g)=f ; g$.

Example 3.4.17 (Converting partial functions to total functions). Let Pfn be the category of sets with partial functions and let Set ${ }_{\perp}$ be the subcategory of Set having sets containing a distinguished element $\perp$ as objects and $\perp$-preserving functions as morphisms. Then Tot: $\mathbf{P f n} \rightarrow \mathbf{S e t}_{\perp}$ converts partial functions to total functions by using $\perp$ to represent "undefined" as follows:

- $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}(X)=X \uplus\{\perp\}$
- $\operatorname{Tot}(f)(x)= \begin{cases}f(x) & \text { if } f(x) \text { is defined } \\ \perp & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$

Exercise. Notice that strictly speaking the above definition is not well-formed: according to the definition of disjoint union, if $X$ is non-empty then $X \nsubseteq X \uplus\{\perp\}$; thus, given a partial function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}(f)$ as defined above need not be a function from $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}(X)$ to $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}(Y)$. Restate this definition formally, using explicit injections $\iota_{1}: X \rightarrow X \uplus\{\perp\}$ and $\iota_{2}:\{\perp\} \rightarrow X \uplus\{\perp\}$ for each set $X$.

Example 3.4.18 (Converting partial algebras to total algebras). The same "totalisation" idea as used in the above Example 3.4.17 yields a totalisation functor $\boldsymbol{T o t}_{\Sigma}: \mathbf{P A l g}_{\text {str }}(\Sigma) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{A l g}(\Sigma)$, for each signature $\Sigma$, mapping partial $\Sigma$-algebras and their strong homomorphisms to total $\Sigma$-algebras and their homomorphisms (cf. Definitions 2.7.30 and 2.7.31 and Example 3.3.13.

Let $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle \in|\mathbf{A l g S i g}| . \operatorname{Tot}_{\Sigma}: \mathbf{P A l g}_{\text {str }}(\Sigma) \rightarrow \mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma)$ is defined as follows:

- For any partial $\Sigma$-algebra $A \in\left|\mathbf{P A l g}_{\text {str }}(\Sigma)\right|, \boldsymbol{T o t}_{\Sigma}(A) \in|\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)|$ is the $\Sigma$-algebra whose carriers are obtained from the corresponding carriers of $A$ by adding a distinguished element $\perp$, and whose operations are obtained from the operations of $A$ by making the result $\perp$ for arguments on which the latter are undefined, that is:
- for each sort name $s \in S,\left|\operatorname{Tot}_{\Sigma}(A)\right|_{s}=|A|_{s} \uplus\{\perp\}$; and
- for each operation name $f: s_{1} \times \ldots \times s_{n} \rightarrow s$ in $\Sigma, f_{\operatorname{Tot}_{\Sigma}(A)}$ is the function which yields $\perp$ if any of its arguments is $\perp$, and for $a_{1} \in|A|_{s_{1}}, \ldots, a_{n} \in|A|_{s_{n}}$,

$$
f_{\mathbf{T o t}_{\Sigma}(A)}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}f_{A}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) & \text { if } f_{A}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \text { is defined } \\ \perp & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

- For any strong $\Sigma$-homomorphism $h: A \rightarrow B$ (which is a family of total functions between the corresponding carriers of $A$ and $B), \boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}_{\Sigma}(h): \boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}_{\Sigma}(A) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}_{\Sigma}(B)$ is (the family of functions in) $h$ extended to map $\perp$ to $\perp$.

Exercise. Check that for any strong $\Sigma$-homomorphism $h: A \rightarrow B$, $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}_{\Sigma}(h): \boldsymbol{\operatorname { T o t }}_{\Sigma}(A) \rightarrow$ $\boldsymbol{T o t}_{\Sigma}(B)$ is indeed a $\Sigma$-homomorphism. Can you extend $\mathbf{T o t}_{\Sigma}$ to weak $\Sigma$-homomorphisms between partial algebras?

Exercise 3.4.19. Do the above functors map monomorphisms to monomorphisms? Do they map epimorphisms to epimorphisms? What about isomorphisms? (Co)limits? (Co)cones? Anything else you can think of?

Definition 3.4.20 (Diagram translation). Given a functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2$ and a diagram $D$ in K1, the translation of $D$ by $\mathbf{F}$ is defined as the diagram $\mathbf{F}(D)$ in $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ with the same underlying graph as $D$ and with the labels of $D$ translated by $\mathbf{F}$ :

- $G(\mathbf{F}(D))=G(D)$;
- for each $n \in|G(D)|_{\text {node }}, \mathbf{F}(D)_{n}=\mathbf{F}\left(D_{n}\right)$; and
- for each $e \in|G(D)|_{\text {edge }}, \mathbf{F}(D)_{e}=\mathbf{F}\left(D_{e}\right)$.

Exercise 3.4.21 (Diagrams as functors). A diagram $D$ in $\mathbf{K}$ corresponds to a functor from the category $\operatorname{Path}(G(D))$ of paths in the underlying graph of $D$ to $\mathbf{K}$. Formalise this. Hint: Given a diagram $D$, define a functor that maps each path $e_{1} \ldots e_{n}$ in $G(D)$ to $D_{e_{1}} ; \ldots ; D_{e_{n}}$. Do not forget the case where $n=0$.

Then, anticipating Definition 3.4.27, define the translation of a diagram by a functor in terms of functor composition.

Definition 3.4.22 (Functor continuity and cocontinuity). A functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2$ is (finitely) continuous if it preserves the existing limits of all (finite) diagrams in K1, that is, if for any (finite) diagram $D$ in K1, F maps any limiting cone over $D$ to a limiting cone over $\mathbf{F}(D)$.

A functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is (finitely) cocontinuous if it preserves the existing colimits of all (finite) diagrams in K1, that is, if for any (finite) diagram $D$ in K1, F maps any colimiting cocone over $D$ to a colimiting cocone over $\mathbf{F}(D)$.

Exercise 3.4.23. Assuming that $\mathbf{K 1}$ is (finitely) complete, use Exercise 3.2 .49 to show that a functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 2}$ is (finitely) continuous if and only if it preserves (finite) products and equalisers.

Similarly, show that $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is finitely continuous if and only if it preserves terminal objects and all pullbacks, and it is continuous if and only if it preserves terminal objects and all wide pullbacks. Hint: Exercises 3.2.48 and 3.2.50.

Dually, give similar characterisation of (finitely) cocontinuous functors, for instance as those that preserve (finite) coproducts and coequalisers.

Exercise 3.4.24. Given a set $X$, show that the functor $[-\rightarrow X]$ : Set ${ }^{o p} \rightarrow$ Set from Exercise 3.4.16 is continuous. Hint: Use Exercise 3.4.23, relying on the explicit constructions of (co)products and (co)equalisers in Set, show that the functor maps any coproduct (disjoint union) of sets $\left\langle X_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ to a product of sets of functions $\left[X_{n} \rightarrow X\right], n \in N$, and a coequaliser of functions $f, g: X_{1} \rightarrow X_{2}$ to an equaliser of (precomposition) functions $(f ;-),(g ;-):\left[X_{2} \rightarrow X\right] \rightarrow\left[X_{1} \rightarrow X\right]$.

You may also want to similarly check which of the examples of functors given above are (finitely) (co)continuous.

Exercise 3.4.25. Consider a category $\mathbf{K}$ with a terminal object $1 \in|\mathbf{K}|$. Given any functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}^{\prime}$, check that $\mathbf{F}$ determines a functor $\mathbf{F}_{11}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}^{\prime} \downarrow \mathbf{F}(1)$ from $\mathbf{K}$ to the slice category of $\mathbf{K}^{\prime}$-objects over $\mathbf{F}(1)$ (Definition 3.1.28, where for any object $A \in|\mathbf{K}|, \mathbf{F}_{\downarrow 1}(A)=\mathbf{F}\left(!_{A}\right)$, with $!_{A}: A \rightarrow 1$ being the unique morphism from $A$ to 1 , and $\mathbf{F}_{\downarrow 1}$ coincides with $\mathbf{F}$ on morphisms.

Suppose now that $\mathbf{K}$ has all pullbacks (so that it is finitely complete) and $\mathbf{F}$ preserves them (but we do not require $\mathbf{F}$ to preserve the terminal object, so it does not have to be finitely continuous). Show that $\mathbf{F}_{\downarrow 1}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}^{\prime} \downarrow \mathbf{F}(1)$ is finitely continuous. Hint: Recall Exercise 3.2.51. By the discussion there, since $\mathbf{F}$ preserves pullbacks, $\mathbf{F}$ maps products in $\mathbf{K}$, which are pullback of morphisms to 1, to pullbacks in $\mathbf{K}^{\prime}$ of morphisms to $\mathbf{F}(1)$ - and these are essentially products in $\mathbf{K}^{\prime} \downarrow \mathbf{F}(1)$. Moreover, by the construction, $\mathbf{F}_{\downarrow 1}$ preserves the terminal object, and the conclusion follows by Exercise 3.4.23.

Similarly, show that if $\mathbf{K}$ has all wide pullbacks (so that it is complete) and $\mathbf{F}$ preserves them then $\mathbf{F}_{\downarrow 1}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}^{\prime} \downarrow \mathbf{F}(1)$ is continuous.

Exercise 3.4.26. Recall the definition of the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$, the algebraic theory generated by a set $\Phi$ of equations over a signature $\Sigma$ (cf. Exercise 3.1.15). Show that those functors from $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \varnothing}^{o p}$ to Set that preserve finite products (where products in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}^{o p}$, that is coproducts in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$, are given by concatenation of sequences of sort names, cf. Exercise 3.2.18 and products in Set are given by the Cartesian product) are in a bijective correspondence with $\Sigma$-algebras in $|\mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma)|$. Generalise this correspondence further to product-preserving functors from $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}^{o p}$ to Set and $\Sigma$-algebras in $\operatorname{Mod}_{\Sigma}(\Phi)$.

Definition 3.4.27 (Functor composition). The category Cat (the category of all categories) is defined as follows:

Objects of Cat: categories ${ }^{5}$.
Morphisms of Cat: functors;
Composition in Cat: If $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{3}$ are functors, then $\mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{K 3}$ is a functor defined as follows: $(\mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G})_{O b j}=\mathbf{F}_{O b j} ; \mathbf{G}_{O b j}$ and $(\mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G})_{A, B}=$ $\mathbf{F}_{A, B} ; \mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{F}(A), \mathbf{F}(B)}$ for all $A, B \in \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$.

Example 3.4.28. In the following we will often use the functor $\left.\right|_{-} \mid$: $\mathbf{C a t} \rightarrow \mathbf{S e} 1^{6}$ which for any category $\mathbf{K} \in|\mathbf{C a t}|$ yields the collection $|\mathbf{K}|$ of the objects of this category and for each functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}^{\prime}$ yields its object part $|\mathbf{F}|=\mathbf{F}_{\text {Obj }}:|\mathbf{K}| \rightarrow\left|\mathbf{K}^{\prime}\right|$.

Example 3.4.29. Alg: $\mathbf{A l g S i g}^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{C a t}$ is a functor, where:

- for any $\Sigma \in|\mathbf{A l g S i g}|, \operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ is the category of $\Sigma$-algebras; and
- for any morphism $\sigma: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ in $\operatorname{AlgSig}, \operatorname{Alg}(\sigma)$ is the reduct functor ${ }_{-} \mid \sigma: \operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$.

Exercise 3.4.30. Define a functor $\mathbf{A l g}^{d e r}:\left(\mathbf{A l g S i g}^{d e r}\right)^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{C a t}$ so that $\boldsymbol{A l g}^{d e r}(\Sigma)=$ $\operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma)$ for any signature $\Sigma \in\left|\mathbf{A l g S i g}^{\text {der }}\right|$, and for any derived signature morphism $\delta, \operatorname{Alg}^{\operatorname{der}}(\boldsymbol{\delta})$ is the $\delta$-reduct as sketched in Definition 1.5.16 and Exercise 1.5.17.

Exercise 3.4.31. Define the category Poset (objects: partially-ordered sets; morphisms: order-preserving functions). Define the functor from Poset to Cat that maps a partially-ordered set to the corresponding (preorder) category (cf. Example 3.1.3) and an order-preserving function to the corresponding functor.

Exercise 3.4.32. Characterise isomorphisms in Cat. Show that product categories are products in Cat. What are terminal objects, pullbacks and equalisers in Cat? Conclude that Cat is complete. Hint: Use constructions analogous to those in Set, as summarised in Exercise 3.2.53

Exercise 3.4.33. Prove that Alg: AlgSig ${ }^{o p} \rightarrow$ Cat (cf. Example 3.4.29) is continuous, that is, that it maps colimits in the category AlgSig of signatures to limits in the category Cat of all categories.

Hint: By Exercise 3.4.23 it is enough to show that Alg maps coproducts of signatures to products of the corresponding categories of algebras and coequalisers of signature morphisms to equalisers of the corresponding reduct functors.
(Coproducts): Recall that by Exercise 3.2.16, a coproduct of signatures is in fact their disjoint union. Now, it is easy to see that an algebra over a disjoint union of a family of signatures may be identified with a tuple of algebras over the signatures in the family. Since a similar fact holds for homomorphisms, the rest of the proof in this case is straightforward (cf. Exercise 3.4.32). Notice that this argument covers the coproduct of the empty family of signatures as well.

[^3](Coequalisers): Recall (cf. Exercise 3.2.24 that a coequaliser of two signature morphisms $\sigma, \sigma^{\prime}: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ is the natural projection $p: \Sigma^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(\Sigma^{\prime} / \equiv\right)$, where $\equiv$ is the least equivalence relation on $\Sigma^{\prime}$ such that $\sigma(x) \equiv \sigma^{\prime}(x)$ for all sort and operation names $x$ in $\Sigma$ (this is just a sketch of the construction). Notice now that $\left(\Sigma^{\prime} / \equiv\right)$-algebras correspond exactly to those $\Sigma^{\prime}$-algebras that have identical components $\sigma(x)$ and $\sigma^{\prime}(x)$ for all sort and operation names $x$ in $\Sigma$, or equivalently, to those algebras $A^{\prime} \in\left|\boldsymbol{\operatorname { I g }}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}\right)\right|$ for which $\left.A^{\prime}\right|_{\sigma}=\left.A^{\prime}\right|_{\sigma^{\prime}}$. Moreover, the correspondence is given by the functor ${ }_{-} p: \operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma^{\prime} / \equiv\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { l g }}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}\right)$. Since a similar fact holds for homomorphisms, it is straightforward now to prove that ${ }_{-} \mid p=\operatorname{Alg}(p)$ is an equaliser of ${ }_{-} \mid \sigma=\operatorname{Alg}(\sigma)$ and ${ }_{-} \sigma^{\prime}=\mathbf{A l g}\left(\sigma^{\prime}\right)$ (cf. Exercises 3.4.32 and 3.2.22.

Exercise 3.4.34 (Amalgamation Lemma for algebras). Consider a pushout in the category AlgSig of signatures:


Conclude from Exercise 3.4 .33 above that for any $\Sigma_{1}$-algebra $A_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$-algebra $A_{2}$ such that $\left.A_{1}\right|_{\sigma_{1}}=A_{2} \mid \sigma_{2}$, there exists a unique $\Sigma^{\prime}$-algebra $A^{\prime}$ such that $\left.A^{\prime}\right|_{\sigma_{1}^{\prime}}=A_{1}$ and $\left.A^{\prime}\right|_{\sigma_{2}^{\prime}}=A_{2}$.

Similarly, for any two homomorphisms $h_{1}: A_{11} \rightarrow A_{12}$ in $\operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma_{1}\right)$ and $h_{2}: A_{21} \rightarrow$ $A_{22}$ in $\operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma_{2}\right)$ such that $h_{1}\left|\sigma_{1}=h_{2}\right| \sigma_{2}$, there exists a unique $\Sigma^{\prime}$-homomorphism $h^{\prime}: A_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow A_{2}^{\prime}$ such that $\left.h^{\prime}\right|_{\sigma_{1}^{\prime}}=h_{1}$ and $\left.h^{\prime}\right|_{\sigma_{2}^{\prime}}=h_{2}$.
Example 3.4.35. Recall Example 3.2 .35 of a simple pushout of algebraic signatures. Let $N \in|\mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma \mathrm{NAT})|$ be the standard model of natural numbers. Build $N_{1} \in\left|\mathbf{A l g}\left(\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{f i b}\right)\right|$ by adding to $N$ the interpretation of the operation $f i b$ as the standard Fibonacci function, and $N_{2} \in\left|\boldsymbol{\operatorname { I g }}\left(\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{\text {mult }}\right)\right|$ by adding to $N$ the interpretation of the operation mult as multiplication. By construction we have $\left.N_{1}\right|_{\Sigma N_{\text {AT }}}=N=\left.N_{2}\right|_{\Sigma \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{AT}}}$ and so $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$ amalgamate to a unique algebra $N^{\prime} \in$ $\left|\operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{f i b, \text { mult }}\right)\right|$ such that $\left.N^{\prime}\right|_{\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{f i b}}=N_{1}$ and $\left.N^{\prime}\right|_{\Sigma \mathrm{NAT}_{\text {mult }}}=N_{2}$. Clearly, $N^{\prime}$ is the only expansion of $N$ that defines fib as the Fibonacci function (as $N_{1}$ does) and mult as multiplication (as $N_{2}$ does).

Exercise 3.4.36. Define initial objects and coproducts in Cat. (Hint: This is easy.) Try to define coequalisers and then pushouts in Cat. (HINT: This is difficult.)


### 3.4.2 Natural transformations

Let $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ be two functors with common source and target categories.

A transformation from $\mathbf{F}$ to $\mathbf{G}$ should map the results of $\mathbf{F}$ to the results of $\mathbf{G}$. This means, that it should consists of a family of morphisms in K2, one K2-morphism from $\mathbf{F}(A)$ to $\mathbf{G}(A)$ for each $\mathbf{K 1}$-object $A$. An extra requirement to impose is that this family should be compatible with the application of $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ to $\mathbf{K 1}$-morphisms, as formalised by the following definition:

Definition 3.4.37 (Natural transformation). A natural transformation from $\mathbf{F}$ to $\mathbf{G}, \tau: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}^{7}$ is a family $\left\langle\tau_{A}: \mathbf{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(A)\right\rangle_{A \in \mid \mathbf{K} 1}$ of $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$-morphisms such that for any $A, B \in|\mathbf{K 1}|$ and $\mathbf{K 1}$-morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ the following diagram commutes:

(this property is often referred to as the naturality of the family $\tau$ ).
Furthermore, $\tau$ is a natural isomorphism if for all $A \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}|, \tau_{A}$ is iso (in $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ ).
Example 3.4.38. The identity transformation $i d_{\mathbf{F}}: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$, where $\left(i d_{\mathbf{F}}\right)_{A}=i d_{\mathbf{F}(A)}$, is a natural isomorphism.

For any morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ in a category $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and for any category $\mathbf{K 1}$, there is a constant natural transformation $\mathbf{c}_{f}: \mathbf{C}_{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}_{B}$ between the constant functors $\mathbf{C}_{A}, \mathbf{C}_{B}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 2}$ (cf. Example 3.4.4) defined by $\left(\mathbf{c}_{f}\right)_{o}=f$ for all objects $o \in|\mathbf{K 1}|$.

Example 3.4.39. The family of singleton functions sing_set: $\mathbf{I d}_{\text {Set }} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}$, where for any set $X$, sing_set $t_{X}: X \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$ is defined by sing_set $_{X}(a)=\{a\}$, is a natural transformation.

Let ()$^{*}=\mathbf{S e q} ;|-|:$ Set $\rightarrow$ Set be the functor given as the composition of $\mathbf{S e q}: \mathbf{S e t} \rightarrow$ Mon (Example 3.4.8 with the forgetful functor $\left.\right|_{\mid} \mid:$Mon $\rightarrow$ Set mapping any monoid to its underlying carrier set. The family of singleton functions sing_seq: Id $_{\text {Set }} \rightarrow$ $\left(\_\right)^{*}$, where for any set $X, \operatorname{sing}_{-} \operatorname{seq}_{X}: X \rightarrow X^{*}$ is defined by $\operatorname{sing}_{-s e q_{X}}(a)=a$ (sing_seq maps any element to the singleton sequence consisting of this element only) is a natural transformation.

[^4]Exercise 3.4.40. Consider the functor ()$^{*}:$ Set $\rightarrow$ Set mapping any set $X$ to the set $X^{*}$ of sequences over $X$ (cf. Example 3.4 .39 above). Show that the following families of functions (indexed by sets $X \in|\mathbf{S e t}|$ ) yield natural transformations from
$(-)^{*}$ to $(-)^{*}$ :

- for each $k \geq 0$, for $n \geq 0$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in X$, $\operatorname{stutter}_{X}^{k}\left(x_{1} \ldots x_{n}\right)=\underbrace{x_{1} \ldots x_{1}}_{k \text { times }} \ldots \underbrace{x_{n} \ldots x_{n}}_{k \text { times }} ;$
- for each $k \geq 0$, for $n \geq 0$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in X$, repeat $_{X}^{k}\left(x_{1} \ldots x_{n}\right)=\underbrace{x_{1} \ldots x_{n}}_{k \text { times }} \ldots \underbrace{x_{1} \ldots x_{n}} ;$
- for $n \geq 0$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in X$,
reverse $_{X}\left(x_{1} \ldots x_{n}\right)=x_{n} \ldots x_{1}$;
- for $n \geq 0$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{2 n+1} \in X$, $\operatorname{odds}_{X}\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} \ldots x_{2 n}\right)=x_{1} x_{3} \ldots x_{2 n-1}$ and $o d d s_{X}\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} \ldots x_{2 n+1}\right)=x_{1} x_{3} \ldots x_{2 n+1}$.
Check which of these functions also yield natural transformations from Seq to Seq (where Seq: Set $\rightarrow$ Mon, cf. Example 3.4.8.

The above examples indicate a close link between polymorphic functions as encountered in functional programming languages (like Standard ML MTHM97] or Haskell [Pey03]) and natural transformations between functors representing polymorphic types. This property, often referred to as "parametric polymorphism" (as opposed to "ad hoc polymorphism") can be explored to derive some propeties of polymorphic functions directly from their types [Wad89].
Exercise 3.4.41. Recall (Exercise 3.4.26) the correspondence between productpreserving functors from $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}^{o p}$ to Set and $\Sigma$-algebras in $|\boldsymbol{\operatorname { M o d }}(\Sigma, \Phi)|$. Show that this correspondence extends to morphisms: each $\Sigma$-homomorphism between algebras gives rise to a natural transformation between the corresponding functors, and vice versa, each natural transformation between such functors determines a homomorphism between the corresponding algebras. HINT: To prove that this yields a bijective correspondence, first use the naturality condition for product projections to show that for any natural transformation $\tau: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}$ between product-preserving functors $\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}: \mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{S e t}$, any sequence $s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$ of sort names (an object in $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$ ) and any $\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle \in \mathbf{F}\left(s_{1} \ldots s_{n}\right), \tau_{s_{1} \ldots s_{n}}\left(\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle\right)=\left\langle\tau_{s_{1}}\left(a_{1}\right), \ldots, \tau_{s_{n}}\left(a_{n}\right)\right\rangle$.

Natural transformations have been introduced as morphisms between functors. The obvious thing to do next is to define composition of natural tranformations. Traditionally, two different composition operations for natural transformations are introduced: vertical and horizontal composition. The former is a straightforward composition of natural transformations between parallel functors. The latter is somewhat more involved; in a sense, it shows how natural transformations "accumulate" when functors are composed.
Definition 3.4.42 (Vertical composition). Let F1,F2,F3: K1 $\rightarrow$ K2 be three functors with common source and target categories. Let $\tau: \mathbf{F} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{F} 2$ and $\sigma: \mathbf{F} 2 \rightarrow \mathbf{F} 3$ be natural transformations:


Then the vertical composition of $\tau$ and $\sigma, \tau ; \sigma: \mathbf{F} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{F} 3$, is defined by $(\tau ; \sigma)_{A}=$ $\tau_{A} ; \sigma_{A}$ (in K2) for all $A \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}|$.

Exercise 3.4.43. Prove that $\tau ; \sigma$ is indeed a natural transformation.
Definition 3.4.44 (Horizontal composition). Let F1,F2: K1 $\rightarrow$ K2 and G1, G2: K2 $\rightarrow$ $\mathbf{K 3}$ be two pairs of parallel functors. Let $\tau: \mathbf{F} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} 2$ and $\sigma: \mathbf{G 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{G} 2$ be natural transformations:


Then the horizontal composition of $\tau$ and $\sigma, \tau \cdot \sigma: \mathbf{F} \mathbf{;} \mathbf{G 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} 2 ; \mathbf{G 2}$, is defined by $(\tau \cdot \sigma)_{A}=\mathbf{G 1}\left(\tau_{A}\right) ; \sigma_{\mathbf{F} 2(A)}=\sigma_{\mathbf{F 1}(A)} ; \mathbf{G} 2\left(\tau_{A}\right)$ (in $\mathbf{K 3}$ ) for all $A \in|\mathbf{K 1}|:$


Exercise 3.4.45. Prove that the above diagram commutes, and so $(\tau \cdot \sigma)_{A}$ is welldefined. Then prove that $\tau \cdot \sigma$ is indeed a natural transformation. Hint:


Definition 3.4.46 (Multiplication by a functor). A special case of the horizontal composition of natural transformations is the multiplication of a natural transformation by a functor. Under the assumptions of Definition 3.4.44, we define:

- $\tau \cdot \mathbf{G 1}=\tau \cdot i d_{\mathbf{G 1}}: \mathbf{F 1 ;} \mathbf{G 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} 2 ; \mathbf{G 1}$, or more explicitly: $(\tau \cdot \mathbf{G 1})_{A}=\mathbf{G 1}\left(\tau_{A}\right)$ for $A \in$ |K1|;
- $\mathbf{F 1} \cdot \sigma=i d_{\mathbf{F} 1} \cdot \sigma: \mathbf{F 1} ; \mathbf{G 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} 1 ; \mathbf{G 2}$, or more explicitly: $(\mathbf{F} 1 \cdot \sigma)_{A}=\sigma_{\mathbf{F} 1(A)}$ for $A \in$ |K1 $\mid$.

Exercise 3.4.47. Show that $\tau \cdot \sigma=(\tau \cdot \mathbf{G 1}) ;(\mathbf{F} 2 \cdot \sigma)=(\mathbf{F} 1 \cdot \sigma) ;(\tau \cdot \mathbf{G} 2)$.
Exercise 3.4.48 (Interchange law). Consider any categories K1, K2, K3, functors F1,F2,F3: K1 $\rightarrow$ K2 and G1, G2, G3: K2 $\rightarrow \mathbf{K 3}$, and natural transformations $\tau: \mathbf{F 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F 2}, \tau^{\prime}: \mathbf{F 2} \rightarrow \mathbf{F 3}, \sigma: \mathbf{G 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{G 2}$, and $\sigma^{\prime}: \mathbf{G} 2 \rightarrow \mathbf{G 3}:$


Show that $\left(\tau ; \tau^{\prime}\right) \cdot\left(\sigma ; \sigma^{\prime}\right)=(\tau \cdot \sigma) ;\left(\tau^{\prime} \cdot \sigma^{\prime}\right)$.

### 3.4.3 Constructing categories, revisited

### 3.4.3.1 Comma categories

Definition 3.4.49 (Comma category). Let $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} 2 \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ be two functors with a common target category. The comma category $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$ is defined by:
Objects of $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$ : triples $\langle A 1, f, A 2\rangle$, where $A 1 \in|\mathbf{K 1}|, A 2 \in|\mathbf{K 2}|$ and $f: \mathbf{F}(A 1) \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{G}(A 2)$ is a morphism in $\mathbf{K}$;
Morphisms of $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$ : a morphism from $\langle A 1, f, A 2\rangle$ to $\langle B 1, g, B 2\rangle$ is a pair $\langle h 1, h 2\rangle$ of morphisms where $h 1: A 1 \rightarrow B 1$ (in K1) and $h 2: A 2 \rightarrow B 2$ (in K2) such that (the middle part of) the following diagram commutes:


Composition in $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}):\langle h 1, h 2\rangle ;\left\langle h 1^{\prime}, h 2^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle h 1 ; h 1^{\prime}, h 2 ; h 2^{\prime}\right\rangle$.
Exercise 3.4.50. Construct the category $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ of $\mathbf{K}$-morphisms and the category $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ of $\mathbf{K}$-objects over $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ as comma categories (cf. Definitions 3.1.27 and 3.1.28. Hint: Consider categories $\left(\mathbf{I} \mathbf{d}_{\mathbf{K}}, \mathbf{I} \mathbf{d}_{\mathbf{K}}\right)$ and $\left(\mathbf{I} \mathbf{d}_{K}, \mathbf{C}_{A}^{\mathbf{1}}\right)$, where $\mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K}}$ is the identity functor on $\mathbf{K}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{A}^{\mathbf{1}}: \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ is a constant functor from the terminal category $\mathbf{1}$.

Example 3.4.51. Another way of presenting the category Graph is as the comma category ( $\left.\mathbf{I d}_{\text {Set }}, \mathbf{C P}\right)$, where $\mathbf{C P}:$ Set $\rightarrow$ Set is the Cartesian product functor defined by $\mathbf{C P}(X)=X \times X$ and $\mathbf{C P}(f: X \rightarrow Y)\langle x 1, x 2\rangle=\langle f(x 1), f(x 2)\rangle$.

To see this, write an object in $\left|\left(\mathbf{I d}_{\text {Set }}, \mathbf{C P}\right)\right|$ as $\langle E,\langle$ source: $E \rightarrow N$, target: $E \rightarrow N\rangle, N\rangle$.

Exercise 3.4.52. Another way to present the category of signatures AlgSig is as the comma category $\left(\mathbf{I d} \mathbf{S e t},\left(\left(_{-}\right)^{+}\right)\right.$, where $\left({ }_{-}\right)^{+}:$Set $\rightarrow$ Set is the functor which for any set $X \in|\mathbf{S e t}|$ yields the set $X^{+}$of all finite non-empty sequences of elements from $X$.

First, complete the definition of the functor $\left({ }_{-}\right)^{+}$. Then, notice that $X^{+}=X^{*} \times X$ and hence an object in $\left|\left(\mathbf{I d}_{\text {Set }},()^{+}\right)\right|$may be written as $\left\langle\Omega,\left\langle\right.\right.$ arity: $\Omega \rightarrow S^{*}$, sort: $\left.\left.\Omega \rightarrow S\right\rangle, S\right\rangle$. Indicate now why the category defined is almost, but not quite, the same as the category AlgSig of signatures (cf. Exercise 3.4.75 below).

Exercise 3.4.53. Prove that if $\mathbf{K} 1$ and $\mathbf{K} 2$ are (finitely) complete categories, $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{K}$ is a functor, and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ is a (finitely) continuous functor, then the comma category $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$ is (finitely) complete. Moreover, the obvious projections from $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$ to K1 and K2, respectively, are (finitely) continuous. HINT: To construct a limit
of a diagram in $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$, start by building limits of the projections of the diagram to $\mathbf{K 1}$ and $\mathbf{K 2}$, respectively, and then use the continuity property of $\mathbf{G}$ to complete the construction of the limit object in $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$. If the notation in the proof gets too heavy, use Exercise 3.2 .49 and spell the details out for the construction of products and equalisers.

Check that this construction of limits in $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$ works for diagrams of any given shape: if K1 and K2 have limits of diagrams of a given shape, and G preserves them, then $(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G})$ has limits of diagrams of this shape, and the projection functors preserve them.

State and prove the analogous facts about cocompleteness of (F,G). Hint: Clearly, appropriate colimits must exist in K1 and K2, but unlike with limits, it is $\mathbf{F}$ that must preserve them.

Exercise 3.4.54. Use Exercises 3.4 .50 and 3.4 .53 to show that if $\mathbf{K}$ is a (finitely) complete category then so is the category $\mathbf{K}^{\rightarrow}$ of morphisms in $\mathbf{K}$.

Then, without looking at Exercise 3.2.51, use Exercises 3.4.50 and 3.4.53 to prove that if a category $\mathbf{K}$ has limits of all (finite) non-empty connected diagrams then so does the slice category $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ of its objects over $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$, and that the obvious forgetful functor from $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ to $\mathbf{K}$ preserves these limits. Notice though that this does not generalise to arbitrary (finite) limits that exist in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ if $\mathbf{K}$ is (finitely) complete by Exercise 3.2.51.

Check that your proof shows a stronger fact: without assuming the existence of any limits in $\mathbf{K}$, the forgetful functor from $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ to $\mathbf{K}$ creates limits of all non-empty connected diagrams, that is: for any such diagram $D_{\downarrow A}$ in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$, if its projection $D$ to $\mathbf{K}$ has a limit in $\mathbf{K}$ then there is a unique cocone on $D_{\downarrow A}$ in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$ that projects to this limit, and this cocone is a limit of $D_{\downarrow A}$ in $\mathbf{K} \downarrow A$.

Exercise 3.4.55. Show that if $\mathbf{K}$ has all pullbacks and a terminal object (so, it is finitely complete) and a functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}^{\prime}$ preserves pullbacks, then $\mathbf{F}$ also preserves the limits of all finite non-empty connected diagrams. Hint: Put together Exercises 3.4.25 and 3.4.54

Similarly, show that if $\mathbf{K}$ has all wide pullbacks and a terminal object (so, it is complete) and a functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}^{\prime}$ preserves wide pullbacks, then $\mathbf{F}$ also preserves the limits of all non-empty connected diagrams.

### 3.4.3.2 Indexed categories

We frequently need to deal not just with a single category, but rather with a family of categories, "parameterised" by a certain collection of indices. The categories of $S$-sorted sets (one for each set $S$ ) and the categories of $\Sigma$-algebras (one for each signature $\Sigma$ ) are typical examples. A crucial property here is that all the categories in such a family are defined in a uniform way, and consequently any change of an index induces a smooth translation between the corresponding component categories. In typical examples, the translation goes in the opposite direction than the change of index, which leads to the following definition:

Definition 3.4.56 (Indexed category). An indexed category (over an index category Ind) is a functor $\mathbf{C}:$ Ind $^{o p} \rightarrow$ Cat.

Example 3.4.57. $\mathbf{A l g}: \operatorname{AlgSig}^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{C a t}$ is an indexed category (cf. Example 3.4.29.

Definition 3.4.58 (Grothendieck construction). Every indexed category C:Ind ${ }^{o p} \rightarrow$ Cat gives rise to a flattened category $\operatorname{Flat}(\mathbf{C})$ defined as follows:
Objects of $\mathbf{F l a t}(\mathbf{C})$ : pairs $\langle i, A\rangle$ for all $i \in|\mathbf{I n d}|$ and $A \in|\mathbf{C}(i)|$;
Morphisms of $\operatorname{Flat}(\mathbf{C})$ : a morphism from $\langle i, A\rangle$ to $\langle j, B\rangle$ is a pair $\langle\sigma, f\rangle:\langle i, A\rangle \rightarrow$ $\langle j, B\rangle$, where $\sigma: i \rightarrow j$ is an Ind-morphism and $f: A \rightarrow \mathbf{C}(\sigma)(B)$ is a $\mathbf{C}(i)$ morphism;
Composition in $\mathbf{F l a t}(\mathbf{C}):\langle\sigma, f\rangle ;\left\langle\sigma^{\prime}, f^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle\sigma ; \sigma^{\prime}, f ; \mathbf{C}(\sigma)\left(f^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle$.
Exercise 3.4.59. Show that if Ind is complete, $\mathbf{C}(i)$ are complete for all $i \in|\mathbf{I n d}|$, and $\mathbf{C}(\sigma)$ are continuous for all $\sigma \in \mathbf{I n d}$, then $\mathbf{F l a t}(\mathbf{C})$ is complete.

Hint: Given a diagram in the flattened category Flat(C), first consider its obvious projection on the index category Ind. Since Ind is complete, this has a limit $l \in|\mathbf{I n d}|$. Using the functors assigned by $\mathbf{C}$ to the projection morphism of the limit, "translate" all the nodes and edges of the diagram to the category $\mathbf{C}(l)$, thus obtaining a diagram in $\mathbf{C}(l)$. Since $\mathbf{C}(l)$ is complete, it has a limit. Check that the projection morphisms of the limit of the diagram constructed in Ind when paired with the corresponding projection morphisms of the limit of the diagram in $\mathbf{C}(l)$ form the limit of the original diagram in $\operatorname{Flat}(\mathbf{C})$.

To make the construction manageable, consider only products and equalisers: this is sufficient by Exercise 3.2.49.

### 3.4.3.3 Functor categories

Definition 3.4.60 (Functor category). Let K1 and K2 be categories ${ }^{8}$ The functor category $[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}]$ is defined by:
Objects of $[\mathbf{K} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2]$ : functors from $\mathbf{K 1}$ to $\mathbf{K 2}$;
Morphisms of $[\mathbf{K} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{K 2}]$ : natural transformations;
Composition in $[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}]$ : vertical composition.
Exercise 3.4.61. Define the category $\operatorname{Set}^{S}$ of $S$-sorted sets as a functor category.
Exercise 3.4.62. For any category $\mathbf{K}$, define its morphism category $\mathbf{K} \rightarrow$ as the category of functors $[\mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}]$.

Exercise 3.4.63. Let K 1 and K 2 be categories. Show that if $\mathbf{K} 2$ is (finitely) complete then so is the functor category $[\mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2]$. State and show the dual fact as well. Hint: The limit of any diagram in $[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2]$ may be constructed "pointwise", for

[^5]each object in $|\mathbf{K 1}|$ separately. More precisely, using Exercise 3.2.49 to simplify the notational burden: consider any family of functors $\left\langle\mathbf{F}_{n}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 2}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$. For each $X \in|\mathbf{K 1}|$, let $\mathbf{Q}(X) \in|\mathbf{K 2}|$ with projections $\left(\pi_{n}\right)_{X}: \mathbf{Q}(X) \rightarrow \mathbf{F}_{n}(X), n \in N$, be a product of $\left\langle\mathbf{F}_{n}(X)\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ in $\mathbf{K 2}$. Check that there is a unique way to extend $\mathbf{Q}$ to a functor $\mathbf{Q}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ so that all $\pi_{n}: \mathbf{Q} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}_{n}, n \in N$, become natural transformations. Show that $\mathbf{Q}$ with projections $\left\langle\pi_{n}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ is a product of $\left\langle\mathbf{F}_{n}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}\right\rangle_{n \in N}$ in $[\mathbf{K} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2]$. Then proceed similarly for equalisers: consider functors $\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}^{\prime}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and natural transformations $\tau_{1}, \tau_{2}: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$. For each $X \in|\mathbf{K} 1|$, let $\tau_{X}: \mathbf{Q}(X) \rightarrow \mathbf{F}(X)$ be an equaliser of $\left(\tau_{1}\right)_{X},\left(\tau_{2}\right)_{X}: \mathbf{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathbf{F}^{\prime}(X)$ in $\mathbf{K} 2$. This yields a unique functor $\mathbf{Q}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ such that $\tau: \mathbf{Q} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$ is a natural transformation, which is an equaliser of $\tau_{1}, \tau_{2}$ in $[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}]$.

Exercise 3.4.64. Let $\mathbf{K 1}, \mathbf{K 1} 1^{\prime}$ and $\mathbf{K} 2$ be categories. Show how any functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{K 1}{ }^{\prime}$ induces a functor $(\mathbf{F}$; $):\left[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}\right] \rightarrow[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2]$. Relying on the construction outlined in Exercise 3.4 .63 and assuming that $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is (finitely) complete, show that this functor is (finitely) continuous.

Prove also that this yields a functor $[-\rightarrow \mathbf{K 2}]: \mathbf{C a t}^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{C a} 1^{9}$ (cf. Exercise 3.4.16).

Exercise 3.4.65. For any category $\mathbf{K}$, define a category $\mathbf{F u n c t}(\mathbf{K})$ of functors into $\mathbf{K}$ as follows:

## Objects of $\mathbf{F u n c t}(\mathbf{K})$ : functors $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ into $\mathbf{K}$;

Morphisms of $\mathbf{F u n c t}(\mathbf{K}):$ a morphism from $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ to $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ is a pair $\langle\boldsymbol{\Phi}, \rho\rangle$, where $\boldsymbol{\Phi}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is a functor and $\rho: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\Phi} ; \mathbf{G}$ is a natural transformation (between functors from $\mathbf{K 1}$ to $\mathbf{K}$ );
Composition in $\mathbf{F u n c t}(\mathbf{K}):\langle\boldsymbol{\Phi}, \boldsymbol{\rho}\rangle ;\left\langle\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{\rho}^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle\boldsymbol{\Phi} ; \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{\rho} ;\left(\boldsymbol{\Phi} \cdot \rho^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle$.
Show how the category $\operatorname{Funct}(\mathbf{K})$ arises by the flattening construction of Definition 3.4.58 for the functor $[-\rightarrow \mathbf{K}]$ as defined in the previous exercise ${ }^{10}$

Exercise 3.4.66. Show that if $\mathbf{K}$ is a (finitely) complete category then the category Funct(K) of functors into $\mathbf{K}$ is (finitely) complete as well. Hint: You may construct the limits in $\operatorname{Funct}(\mathbf{K})$ directly, perhaps using Exercise 3.2.49. Alternatively, rely on the construction of $\operatorname{Funct}(\mathbf{K})$ by flattening (Definition 3.4.58) for the functor $[-\rightarrow \mathbf{K}]:$ Cat $^{o p} \rightarrow \mathbf{C a t}$ and on Exercise 3.4 .59 , recall that Cat is complete by Exercise 3.4.32 for any category $\mathbf{K 1},[\mathbf{K} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{K}]$ is (finitely) complete by Exercise 3.4.63. and for every functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2},(\mathbf{F} ;-):[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}] \rightarrow[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}]$ is (finitely) continuous by Exercise 3.4.64.

Exercise 3.4.67. Show that if a category $\mathbf{K} 1$ has a factorisation system (cf. Section 3.3) than for any category $\mathbf{K 2}$, the functor category $[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}]$ has a factorisation system as well.

Hint: Let $\langle\mathbf{E} 1, \mathbf{M} 1\rangle$ be a factorisation system for $\mathbf{K} 1$. Define $\mathbf{E}=\{\varepsilon \in[\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}] \mid$ $\varepsilon_{A} \in \mathbf{E} 1$ for $\left.a \in|\mathbf{K} 2|\right\}$ and $\mathbf{M}=\left\{\eta \in[\mathbf{K} 2 \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1] \mid \eta_{A} \in \mathbf{M} 1\right.$ for $\left.a \in|\mathbf{K} 2|\right\}$. Now,

[^6]to construct an $\langle\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{M}\rangle$-factorisation of a natural transformation $\tau: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}$ between functors $\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1$, first for each object $a \in|\mathbf{K} 2|$ obtain an $\langle\mathbf{E} 1, \mathbf{M 1}\rangle$ factorisation of $\tau_{A}$, say $\tau_{A}=\varepsilon_{A} ; \eta_{A}$ with $\varepsilon_{A} \in \mathbf{E} 1$ and $\eta_{A} \in \mathbf{M} 1$, and $\varepsilon_{A}: \mathbf{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathbf{H}(A)$, $\eta_{A}: \mathbf{H}(A) \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(A)$ for some $\mathbf{H}(A) \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}|$. Then use the diagonal fill-in lemma (Lemma 3.3.4 to extend the mapping $\mathbf{H}:|\mathbf{K 2}| \rightarrow|\mathbf{K} 1|$ to a functor $\mathbf{H}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 1}$ such that $\varepsilon: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}$ and $\eta: \mathbf{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}$ are natural transformations.

### 3.4.3.4 Equivalence of categories

Definition 3.4.68 (Isomorphic categories). Two categories K1 and $\mathbf{K 2}$ are isomorphic if there are functors $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{F}^{-1}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ such that $\mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{F}^{-1}=\mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1}$ and $\mathbf{F}^{-1} ; \mathbf{F}=\mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}}$.

In other words, we say that two categories are isomorphic if they are isomorphic as objects of Cat. As with isomorphic objects of other kinds, we will view isomorphic categories as abstractly the same. It turns out, however, that in this case there is a coarser relation which allows us to identify categories which have all the same categorical properties, even though they may not be isomorphic.

Definition 3.4.69 (Equivalent categories). K 1 and $\mathbf{K 2}$ are equivalent if there are functors $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ and natural isomorphisms $\tau: \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}$ and $\sigma: \mathbf{G} ; \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 2}$.

To characterise equivalent categories, we need one more concept:
Definition 3.4.70 (Skeletal category). A category $\mathbf{K}$ is skeletal iff any two isomorphic K-objects are identical. A skeleton of $\mathbf{K}$ is any maximal skeletal subcategory of $\mathbf{K}$.

Exercise 3.4.71. Prove that two categories are equivalent iff they have isomorphic skeletons.

Thus, intuitively, two categories are equivalent if and only if they differ only in the number of isomorphic copies of corresponding objects.

Example 3.4.72. The category FinSet of all finite sets is equivalent to its full subcategory of all natural numbers, where any natural number $n$ is defined as the set $\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ of all natural numbers smaller than $n$. In fact, the latter is a skeleton of FinSet. Similarly, the category Set of all sets is equivalent to its full subcategory of all ordinals.

Exercise 3.4.73. Show that for any signature $\Sigma$ and set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations, the full subcategory of $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma} / \Phi$ given by the finite sets of variables is equivalent to the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$ (cf. Exercises 3.1.14 and 3.1.15).

Exercise 3.4.74. Let K1 and K2 be equivalent categories. Show that if K1 is (finitely) (co)complete then so is K2.

Exercise 3.4.75. Recall Exercise 3.4.52. As indicated there, categories AlgSig and $\left(\mathbf{I d}_{\text {Set }},()^{+}\right)$are not isomorphic. Show that they are equivalent. Then, using Exercises 3.4.74 and 3.4.53, conclude from this that AlgSig is complete and cocomplete.

### 3.5 Adjoints

## Recall Facts 1.4.4 and 1.4.10.

Fact 1.4.4. For any $\Sigma$-algebra $A$ and $S$-sorted function $v: X \rightarrow|A|$ there is exactly one $\Sigma$-homomorphism $v^{\#}: T_{\Sigma}(X) \rightarrow A$ which extends $v$, i.e. such that $v_{s}^{\#}\left(l_{X}(x)\right)=$ $v_{s}(x)$ for all $s \in S, x \in X_{s}$, where $\imath_{X}: X \rightarrow\left|T_{\Sigma}(X)\right|$ is the embedding that maps each variable in $X$ to the corresponding term.

Fact 1.4.10. This property defines $T_{\Sigma}(X)$ up to isomorphism: if $B$ is a $\Sigma$-algebra and $\eta: X \rightarrow|B|$ is an $S$-sorted function such that for any $\Sigma$-algebra $A$ and $S$-sorted function $v: X \rightarrow|A|$ there is a unique $\Sigma$-homomorphism $v^{\$}: B \rightarrow A$ such that $\eta ;\left|v^{\$}\right|=$ $v$ then $B$ is isomorphic to $T_{\Sigma}(X)$.

The construction of the algebra of $\Sigma$-terms is one example of an adjoint functor (it is left adjoint to the functor $\left.\left.\right|_{-} \mid: \operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{S e t}^{\text {sorts }(\Sigma)}\right)$. The general concept of an adjoint functor, to which this section is devoted, has many other important instances. In fact, [Gog91b] goes so far as to say:

Any canonical construction from widgets to whatsits is an adjoint of another functor, from whatsits to widgets.

### 3.5.1 Free objects

Let $\mathbf{K 1}$ and $\mathbf{K 2}$ be categories, $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ be a functor, and $A 1$ be an object of $\mathbf{K 1}$.
Definition 3.5.1 (Free object). A free object over A1 w.r.t. G is a K2-object A2 together with a K1-morphism $\eta_{A 1}: A 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(A 2)$ such that for any $\mathbf{K} 2$-object $B 2$ and $\mathbf{K} 1$-morphism $f: A 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(B 2)$ there is a unique $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$-morphism $f^{\#}: A 2 \rightarrow B 2$ such that $\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}\left(f^{\#}\right)=f$.

$\eta_{A 1}$ is called the unit morphism.
Example 3.5.2. Let $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$ be an arbitrary signature. Consider the forgetful functor $\left.\right|_{-} \mid: \operatorname{Alg}(\Sigma) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{S e t}^{S}$. Fact 1.4 .4 asserts that for any $S$-sorted set $X$, the term algebra $T_{\Sigma}(X)$ with the inclusion $\eta_{X}: X \hookrightarrow\left|T_{\Sigma}(X)\right|$ is a free object over $X$ w.r.t. |-|.

Exercise 3.5.3. Define free monoids and the path categories Path $(G)$ as free objects w.r.t. some obvious functors. Then, look around at the areas of mathematics with which you are familiar for more examples. For instance, check that free groups and discrete topologies, (ideal) completion of partial orders, of ordered algebras, etc. may be defined as free objects w.r.t. some straightforward functors.

Exercise 3.5.4. Prove that any free object over $A 1$ w.r.t. $\mathbf{G}$ is an initial object in the comma category $\left(\mathbf{C}_{A 1}, \mathbf{G}\right)$, where $\mathbf{C}_{A 1}: \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1$ is the constant functor. Conclude that a free object over $A 1$ w.r.t. $\mathbf{G}$ is unique up to isomorphism.

Exercise 3.5.5. Prove that if $A 2 \in|\mathbf{K} 2|$ is a free object over $A 1 \in|\mathbf{K} 1|$ w.r.t. $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{K 1}$, then for any $B 2 \in|\mathbf{K 2}|, \#: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}(A 1, \mathbf{G}(B 2)) \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}(A 2, B 2)$ is a bijection.

Check that one consequence of this is that two morphisms $g, h: A 2 \rightarrow B 2$ coincide (in K2) whenever $\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}(g)=\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}(h)$ in $\mathbf{K} 1$.

### 3.5.2 Left adjoints

Let K1 and K2 be categories and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 1}$ be a functor. So far we have considered free objects w.r.t. G one by one, without relating them with each other. One crucial property is that the construction of free objects, if they exist, is functorial.

Proposition 3.5.6. If for any $A 1 \in|\mathbf{K 1}|$ there is a free object over $A 1$ w.r.t. $\mathbf{G}$, say $F(A 1) \in|\mathbf{K} 2|$ with unit morphism $\eta_{A 1}: A 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(F(A 1))$ (in $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ ), then $A 1 \mapsto F(A 1)$ and $f \in \mathbf{K 1}(A 1, B 1) \mapsto\left(f ; \eta_{B 1}\right)^{\#} \in \mathbf{K 2}(F(A 1), F(B 1))$ determine a functor $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow$ K2.


Proof. $\mathbf{F}$ preserves identities: $\mathbf{F}\left(i d_{A 1}\right)=\left(i d_{A 1} ; \eta_{A 1}\right)^{\#}=i d_{\mathbf{F}(A 1)}$ follows from the fact that the following diagram commutes:


F preserves composition: Since the following diagram commutes:

it follows that $\mathbf{F}(f ; g)=\left(f ; g ; \eta_{C 1}\right)^{\#}=\mathbf{F}(f) ; \mathbf{F}(g)$.
Exercise 3.5.7. Prove that $\eta: \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}$ in Proposition 3.5 .6 is a natural transformation.

Definition 3.5.8 (Left adjoint). Let $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 2$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} 2 \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1$ be functors and $\eta: \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}$ be a natural transformation. $\mathbf{F}$ is left adjoint to $\mathbf{G}$ with unit $\eta$ if for any $A 1 \in|\mathbf{K} 1|, \mathbf{F}(A 1)$ with unit morphism $\eta_{A 1}: A 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{F}(A 1))$ is a free object over $A 1$ w.r.t. G.

Before we give any examples, let us prove a very important property of left adjoints.

Proposition 3.5.9. A left adjoint to $\mathbf{G}$ is unique up to (natural) isomorphism: if $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{F}^{\prime}$ are left adjoints of $\mathbf{G}$ with units $\eta$ and $\eta^{\prime}$ respectively, then there is a natural isomorphism $\tau: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$ such that $\eta ;(\tau \cdot \mathbf{G})=\eta^{\prime}$.


Proof. First notice that for any $f \in \mathbf{K} 1(A 1, B 1), \mathbf{F}(f)=\left(f ; \eta_{B 1}\right)^{\#}$ and $\mathbf{F}^{\prime}(f)=$ $\left(f ; \eta_{B 1}^{\prime}\right)^{\#^{\prime}}$.

Then, for $A 1 \in|\mathbf{K} 1|$, define $\tau_{A 1}=\left(\eta_{A 1}^{\prime}\right)^{\#}$ and $\tau_{A 1}^{-1}=\left(\eta_{A 1}\right)^{\#^{\prime}}$. Then $\tau_{A 1} ; \tau_{A 1}^{-1}=$ $i d_{\mathbf{F}(A 1)}$ since the following diagrams commute:

and $\tau_{A 1}^{-1} ; \tau_{A 1}=i d_{\mathbf{F}^{\prime}(A 1)}$ by a similar argument.
Finally, for $f: A 1 \rightarrow B 1$ (in K1), the following diagrams commute:


Thus, $\mathbf{F}(f)=\left(f ; \eta_{B 1}\right)^{\#}=\tau_{A 1} ; \mathbf{F}^{\prime}(f) ; \tau_{B 1}^{-1}$. This proves that $\mathbf{F}(f) ; \tau_{B 1}=\tau_{A 1} ; \mathbf{F}^{\prime}(f)$, and hence that $\tau: \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}^{\prime}$ is natural.

Example 3.5.10. For any signature $\Sigma=\langle S, \Omega\rangle$, the functor $T_{\Sigma}: \operatorname{Set}^{S} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { A l g }}(\Sigma)$ is left adjoint to the forgetful functor $\left.\right|_{-} \mid: \mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma) \rightarrow \mathbf{S e t}^{S}$ (cf. Examples 3.4.11 and 3.4.9.

The functor Seq:Set $\rightarrow$ Mon is left adjoint to the forgetful functor $\left.\right|_{-} \mid$: Mon $\rightarrow$ Set which takes a monoid to its underlying set of elements. The unit is sing_seq: $\mathbf{I d}_{\text {Set }} \rightarrow$ Seq; |-| (cf. Examples 3.4.8 and 3.4.39).

The "free group" functor $\mathbf{F}$ : Set $\rightarrow \mathbf{G r p}$ is left adjoint to the forgetful functor $\left.\right|_{-} \mid: \mathbf{G r p} \rightarrow$ Set. Also, the functor taking a set $X$ to the discrete topology on $X$ is left adjoint to the forgetful functor $\left.\right|_{-} \mid: \mathbf{T o p} \rightarrow$ Set (cf. Exercise 3.5.3).

Exercise 3.5.11. Consider any algebraic signature morphism $\sigma: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$. Prove that the reduct functor ${ }_{-} \sigma: \operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{A l g}(\Sigma)$ has a left adjoint.

Hint: Formalise and complete the following construction. For any $\Sigma$-algebra $A$, let $\Sigma(A)$ be an algebraic signature which extends $\Sigma$ by a constant $a$ : $s$ for each element $a \in|A|_{s}, s \in \operatorname{sorts}(\Sigma)$, and let $\Sigma^{\prime}(A)$ be a similar extension of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ by a constant $a: \sigma(s)$ for each $a \in|A|_{s}, s \in \operatorname{sorts}(\Sigma)$. Consider the congruence $\equiv_{A}$ on $T_{\Sigma(A)}$ generated by the identities that hold in $A$. The congruence $\equiv_{A}$ may be translated by $\sigma$ to $\Sigma^{\prime}(A)$-terms, generating there a congruence $\sigma\left(\equiv_{A}\right)$, and the algebra $T_{\Sigma^{\prime}(A)} / \sigma\left(\equiv_{A}\right)$ is (almost) the free $\Sigma^{\prime}$-algebra over $A$.

Consider then a set $\Phi^{\prime}$ of $\Sigma^{\prime}$-equations. Recall that $\operatorname{Mod}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}, \Phi^{\prime}\right)$ is the full subcategory of $\operatorname{Alg}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}\right)$ with all $\Sigma^{\prime}$-algebras that satisfy $\Phi^{\prime}$ as objects (cf. Example 3.1.19. Prove that the reduct functor $-\mid \sigma: \operatorname{Mod}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}, \Phi^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { A l g }}(\Sigma)$ has a left adjoint.

Hint: In the construction above, close the congruence $\sigma\left(\equiv_{A}\right)$ so that for each equation $\forall X^{\prime} \bullet t=t^{\prime}$ in $\Phi^{\prime}$ and substitution $\theta: X^{\prime} \rightarrow\left|T_{\Sigma^{\prime}(A)}\right|$, it identifies the terms $t[\theta]$ and $t^{\prime}[\theta]$ (cf. Exercise 1.4 .9 for the notation used here).

Finally, for any set $\Phi$ of $\Sigma$-equations such that $\Phi^{\prime} \models_{\Sigma^{\prime}} \sigma(\Phi)$, prove that the reduct functor ${ }_{-} \sigma: \operatorname{Mod}\left(\Sigma^{\prime}, \Phi^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { M o d }}(\Sigma, \Phi)$ has a left adjoint.

Hint: This is easy now (Proposition 2.3.13 ensures that the functor is well defined).

Exercise 3.5.12. Generalise Exercise 3.5.11 to derived signature morphisms, with reduct functors as introduced in Exercise 3.4.30

Example 3.5.13. Let $\mathbf{K}$ be a category, and recall that $\mathbf{1}$ is a category containing a single object, say $a$. Let $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ be left adjoint to $\mathbf{C}_{a}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{1}$ (note that such a functor $\mathbf{F}$ may not exist). Then $\mathbf{F}(a)$ is an initial object in $\mathbf{K}$.

Exercise 3.5.14. Let $\Delta: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \times \mathbf{K}$ be the "diagonal" functor such that $\Delta(A)=$ $\langle A, A\rangle$ and $\Delta(f: A \rightarrow B)=\langle f, f\rangle: \Delta(A) \rightarrow \Delta(B)$. Prove that $\mathbf{K}$ has all coproducts iff $\Delta$ has a left adjoint. What is the unit?

Exercise 3.5.15. Formulate analogous theorems for coequalisers and pushouts and prove them. Show how this may be done for any colimit.

Exercise 3.5.16. Let $\mathbf{K}$ be a category with an initial object and a factorisation system and let $\mathbf{K}_{R}$ be its full subcategory of reachable objects. Recall that $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{K}}: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}_{R}$ is a functor that maps any object to its reachable subobject (cf. Exercise 3.4.13. Show that the inclusion functor $\mathbf{I}: \mathbf{K}_{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ is left adjoint to $\mathbf{R}_{K}$.

Exercise 3.5.17. Show that left adjoints preserve colimits of diagrams. Do they preserve limits as well?

Exercise 3.5.18. Let $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1$ be left adjoint to $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ with unit $\eta: \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1} \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}$. Consider two objects $A, B \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}|$ and suppose that for some epimorphism $e: A \rightarrow B$ there exists a morphism $h: B \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{F}(A))$ such that $e ; h=\eta_{A}$. Prove that $\mathbf{F}(e): \mathbf{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathbf{F}(B)$ is an isomorphism.

Hint:


First show that $\mathbf{F}(B)$ with $e ; \eta_{B}: A \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{F}(B))$ as the unit morphism is a free object over $A$ w.r.t. G. For this, use the following construction: for any $C \in|\mathbf{K} 2|$ and $f: A \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{G}(C)$, let $f_{B}: \mathbf{F}(B) \rightarrow C$ be the unique morphism such that $\eta_{B} ; \mathbf{G}\left(f_{B}\right)=h ; \mathbf{G}\left(f_{A}\right)$, where in turn $f_{A}: \mathbf{F}(A) \rightarrow C$ is the unique morphism such that $\eta_{A} ; \mathbf{G}\left(f_{A}\right)=f$. Now, $f_{B}$ satisfies $\left(e ; \eta_{B}\right) ; \mathbf{G}\left(f_{B}\right)=f$ and moreover, it is the only morphism from $\mathbf{F}(B)$ to $C$ with this property (use the fact that $e$ is an epimorphism and the freeness of $\mathbf{F}(B)$ to prove the latter). Then, show the conclusion following the proof of the uniqueness of left adjoints, cf. Proposition 3.5.9

### 3.5.3 Adjunctions

Consider two categories K1 and K2 and functors $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1$ such that $\mathbf{F}$ is left adjoint to $\mathbf{G}$ with unit $\eta: \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}$.
Proposition 3.5.19. There is a natural transformation $\varepsilon: \mathbf{G} ; \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 2}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
(*): & (\mathbf{G} \cdot \eta) ;(\varepsilon \cdot \mathbf{G}) & =i d_{\mathbf{G}} \\
(* *): & (\eta \cdot \mathbf{F}) ;(\mathbf{F} \cdot \varepsilon) & =i d_{\mathbf{F}}
\end{aligned}
$$

K1: K2:


Proof idea.

- $(*)$ defines $\varepsilon_{A 2}: \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(A 2)) \rightarrow A 2$ as $\varepsilon_{A 2}=\left(i d_{\mathbf{G}(A 2)}\right)^{\#}$.
- Check naturality: To show that for all $g: A 2 \rightarrow B 2$ in $\mathbf{K 2}, \varepsilon_{A 2} ; g=\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(g)) ; \varepsilon_{B 2}$, it is enough to prove that (in $\mathbf{K 1}) \eta_{\mathbf{G}(A 2)} ; \mathbf{G}\left(\varepsilon_{A 2} ; g\right)=\eta_{\mathbf{G}(A 2)} ; \mathbf{G}\left(\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(g)) ; \varepsilon_{B 2}\right)$.
- Check $(* *)$ : To prove that $\mathbf{F}\left(\eta_{A 1}\right) ; \varepsilon_{\mathbf{F}(A 1)}=i d_{\mathbf{F}(A 1)}$, it is enough to show that (in K1) $\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}\left(\mathbf{F}\left(\eta_{A 1}\right) ; \varepsilon_{\mathbf{F}(A 1)}\right)=\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}\left(i d_{\mathbf{F}(A 1)}\right)$.

Proposition 3.5.20. Consider functors $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 1}$, and natural transformations $\eta: \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}$ and $\varepsilon: \mathbf{G} ; \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
(*): & (\mathbf{G} \cdot \eta) ;(\varepsilon \cdot \mathbf{G}) & =i d_{\mathbf{G}} \\
(* *): & (\eta \cdot \mathbf{F}) ;(\mathbf{F} \cdot \varepsilon) & =i d_{\mathbf{F}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\mathbf{F}$ is left adjoint to $\mathbf{G}$ with unit $\eta$.
Proof. For $A 1 \in|\mathbf{K} 1|, B 2 \in|\mathbf{K 2}|, f: A 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}(B 2)$, let $f^{\#}=\mathbf{F}(f) ; \varepsilon_{B 2}: \mathbf{F}(A 1) \rightarrow B 2$.

- $\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}\left(f^{\#}\right)=\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{F}(f)) ; \mathbf{G}\left(\varepsilon_{B 2}\right)=f ; \eta_{\mathbf{G}(B 2)} ; \mathbf{G}\left(\varepsilon_{B 2}\right)=f ; i d_{\mathbf{G}(B 2)}=f$.
- Suppose that for some $g: \mathbf{F}(A 1) \rightarrow B 2, \eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}(g)=f$. Then: $f^{\#}=\mathbf{F}(f) ; \varepsilon_{B 2}=$ $\mathbf{F}\left(\eta_{A 1} ; \mathbf{G}(g)\right) ; \varepsilon_{B 2}=\mathbf{F}\left(\eta_{A 1}\right) ; \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(g)) ; \varepsilon_{B 2}=\mathbf{F}\left(\eta_{A 1}\right) ; \varepsilon_{\mathbf{F}(A 1)} ; g=g$.

Definition 3.5.21 (Adjunction). Let K1 and K2 be categories. An adjunction from $\mathbf{K 1}$ to $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is a quadruple $\langle\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}, \eta, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\rangle$ where $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ are functors and $\eta: \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{G}$ and $\varepsilon: \mathbf{G} ; \mathbf{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}}$ are natural transformations such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
(*): & (\mathbf{G} \cdot \eta) ;(\varepsilon \cdot \mathbf{G}) & =i d_{\mathbf{G}} \\
(* *): & (\eta \cdot \mathbf{F}) ;(\mathbf{F} \cdot \varepsilon) & =i d_{\mathbf{F}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Fact 3.5.22. Equivalently, an adjunction may be given as either of the following:

- A functor $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K 1}$ and for each $A 1 \in|\mathbf{K 1}|$, a free object over A1 w.r.t. $\mathbf{G}$;
- A functor $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1$ and its left adjoint.

Exercise 3.5.23 (Galois connection). Recall that any partial order gives rise to a corresponding preorder category (cf. Example 3.1.3). Galois connections (Definition 2.3.3 arise as adjunctions between preorder categories:

Consider two partially ordered sets $\left\langle A, \leq_{A}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle B, \leq_{B}\right\rangle$ and two order-preserving functions $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow A$ (i.e., for $a, a^{\prime} \in A$, if $a \leq_{A} a^{\prime}$ then $f(a) \leq_{B} f\left(a^{\prime}\right)$ and for $b, b^{\prime} \in B$, if $b \leq_{B} b^{\prime}$ then $\left.g(b) \leq_{A} g\left(b^{\prime}\right)\right)$.

Show that $f$ and $g$ (viewed as functors) form an adjunction between $\left\langle A, \leq_{A}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle B, \leq_{B}\right\rangle$ (viewed as categories) if and only if for all $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ :

$$
a \leq_{A} g(b) \quad \text { iff } \quad f(a) \leq_{B} b
$$

Then show that this is further equivalent to the requirement that:

- $a \leq_{A} g(f(a))$ for all $a \in A$; and
- $f(g(b)) \leq_{B} b$ for all $b \in B$.

View the Galois connection between sets of equations and classes of algebras on a given signature defined in Section 2.3 (cf. Proposition 2.3.2) as a special case of the above definition. That is, check that for any signature $\Sigma$, the function mapping any set of $\Sigma$-equations to the class of all $\Sigma$-algebras that satisfy this set of equations and the function mapping any class of $\Sigma$-algebras to the set of all $\Sigma$-equations that hold in this class form an adjunction between the powerset of the set of $\Sigma$-equations (ordered by inclusion) and the powerclass of the class of $\Sigma$-algebras (ordered by containment).

Then check that the above definition of Galois connection coincides with the more explicit Definition 2.3.3 of a Galois connection between $\left\langle A, \leq_{A}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle B, \geq_{B}\right\rangle$ (note the opposite order for $B$ ).

Exercise 3.5.24. Dualise the development in this section. Begin with the following definition, dual to Definition 3.5.1.

Definition. Let $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ be a functor and let $A 2 \in|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}|$. A cofree object over $A 2$ w.r.t. $\mathbf{F}$ is a $\mathbf{K} 1$-object $A 1$ together with a $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$-morphism $\varepsilon_{A 2}: \mathbf{F}(A 1) \rightarrow A 2$ such that for any $\mathbf{K} 1$-object $B 1$ and $\mathbf{K} 2$-morphism $f: \mathbf{F}(B 1) \rightarrow A 2$ there is a unique $\mathbf{K 1}$ morphism $f^{\#}: B 1 \rightarrow A 1$ such that $\mathbf{F}\left(f^{\#}\right) ; \varepsilon_{A 2}=f$.

Then dually to Section 3.5 .2 show how cofree objects induce right adjoints. Finally, prove facts dual to Propositions 3.5 .19 and 3.5 .20 , thus proving that right adjoints and cofree objects give another equivalent definition of adjunction.

Exercise 3.5.25. Develop yet another equivalent definition (at least for small categories) of an adjunction, centering around the bijection \#: $\mathbf{K 1}(A 1, \mathbf{G}(A 2)) \rightarrow \mathbf{K 2}(\mathbf{F}(A 1), A 2)$ using a generalised version of Hom-functors (cf. Example 3.4.15.

Proof sketch.

- For any small category $\mathbf{K}$ and two functors $\mathbf{F 1}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ and $\mathbf{F 2}: \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$, define a functor $\mathbf{H o m}_{\mathbf{F 1}, \mathbf{F} 2}: \mathbf{K 1}^{o p} \times \mathbf{K 2} \rightarrow$ Set by $\mathbf{H o m}_{\mathbf{F 1}, \mathbf{F 2}}(\langle A 1, A 2\rangle)=\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{F 1}(A 1), \mathbf{F} 2(A 2))$ and $\mathbf{H o m}_{\mathbf{F 1}, \mathbf{F} 2}(\langle f 1, f 2\rangle)(h)=\mathbf{F} 1(f 1) ; h ; \mathbf{F} 2(f 2)$.
- Show that if $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is left adjoint to $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ then $\#: \mathbf{H o m}_{\mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1}, \mathbf{G}} \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{H o m}_{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{I d}}^{\mathbf{K} 2}$ is a natural isomorphism.
- Finally, prove that for any functors $\mathbf{F}: \mathbf{K 1} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ and $\mathbf{G}: \mathbf{K} \mathbf{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{K} 1$, a natural isomorphism \#: $\mathbf{H o m}_{\mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 1}, \mathbf{G}} \rightarrow \mathbf{H o m}_{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{I d}_{\mathbf{K} 2}}$ shows that $\mathbf{F}$ is left adjoint to $\mathbf{G}$.

Exercise 3.5.26. Show that adjunctions compose: given any categories K1, K2 and $\mathbf{K 3}$, and adjunctions $\langle\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}, \eta, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\rangle$ from $\mathbf{K} 1$ to $\mathbf{K 2}$ and $\left\langle\mathbf{F}^{\prime}, \mathbf{G}^{\prime}, \eta^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ from $\mathbf{K 2}$ to $\mathbf{K 3}$, we have an adjunction of the form $\left\langle\mathbf{F} ; \mathbf{F}^{\prime}, \mathbf{G}^{\prime} ; \mathbf{G},_{-},{ }_{-}\right\rangle$from $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ to $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{3}$. Fill in the holes!

### 3.6 Bibliographical remarks

Category theory has found very many applications in computer science, and the material presented here covers just those fragments that we will require in later chapters. Books on category theory for mathematicians include the classic [Mac71] as well as the encyclopedic [HS73], with [AHS90] as a more recent favourite, the threevolume handbook [Bor94], the modestly-sized textbook [Awo06], and many more. An early book on category theory directed towards computer scientists is AM75], followed by [Pie91], [Poi92] and [BW95]. An interesting angle is in [RB88], where categorical concepts are presented by coding them in ML.

Our terminology is mainly based on [Mac71], although we prefer to write composition in diagrammatic order, denoted by semicolon. The reader should be warned that the terminology and notation in category theory is not completely standardized, and differ from one author to another.

We have decided to keep to the basics, and have not ventured into many more advanced topics, some of which are quite important for computer-science applications. In particular, Cartesian closed categories [BW95], [Mit96] and the CurryHoward isomorphism [SU06], categorical logic [LS86], monads [Man76], [Mog91], [Pho92], fibrations [Jac99], and topoi [Joh02], [Gol06] all deserve attention.

We have presented somewhat more material than usual on certain topics that will find application in some of the subsequent chapters. For example, in the material on factorisation systems (with Section 3.3 taken from Tar85) and on indexed categories (with Section 3.4.3.2 based on TBG91), we include some exercises which formulate facts that we will rely on later. We will work with indexed categories throughout the book, sometimes implicitly, since we find them more natural for these applications than equivalent formulations in terms of fibrations [Jac99].

We have deliberately chosen to use a notion of factorisation system based on [HS73]. The later book [AHS90] uses a somewhat more general concept, where factorisation morphisms are not required to be epi and mono, respectively, and therefore the uniqueness of the isomorphism between different factorisations of the same morphisms - or equivalently, of the diagonal in Lemma 3.3.4- must be required explicitly. Although much of the material carries over, some results are simpler under our assumptions: for instance, we rely on Exercise 3.3.5 which does not hold in this form in the framework of [AHS90].

Our presentation of signatures, terms and algebras in Chapter 1 was elementary and set-theoretic, and we retain this style throughout the book. But category theory offers a whole spectrum of possibilities of doing universal algebra fruitfully in a different style. Exercises 3.4.26 and 3.4.41 relate to a categorical "Lawverestyle" presentation of some of the same concepts, see [Law63], Man76], [BW85]. This was used in some early papers on algebraic specification, e.g. [GTWW75], but as it abstracts away from the choice of operation names in the signature, it seems less useful for applications to program specification. (This argument was put forward already in [BG80], with the notion of "signed theory" from [GB78] called to the rescue.) An alternative approach to specifications in this framework is given by sketches, see [BW95], which present specifications as graphs with indicated diagrams, cones and cocones that in a functorial model of the graph are mapped to commutative diagrams, limits and colimits, respectively. Commutative diagrams capture equational requirements here, with (co)limiting (co)cones offering additional specification power. Another related approach takes the general notion of a $T$-algebra for a functor $T: \mathbf{K} \rightarrow \mathbf{K}$ as its starting point, where a $T$-algebra on an object $A \in|\mathbf{K}|$ is a morphism from $T(A)$ to $A$; this works smoothly if $T$ is a monad, see [Man76]. Such abstract approaches offer natural generalisations based on semantic interpretation in categories other than Set, but again, in our view, abstraction from familiar concepts and syntactic presentations makes them less convenient for practical use.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ We will use semicolon ; to denote composition of morphisms in any category, just as we used it for composition of functions and homomorphisms in the preceding chapters. Composition will always be written in diagrammatic order: $f ; g$ is to be read as " $f$ followed by $g$ ".

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ Cpos and continuous functions as defined here are often referred to as $\omega$-cpos and $\omega$-continuous functions, respectively.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ In the literature, the algebraic theory over $\Sigma$ generated by $\Phi$ is often defined with substitutions considered as morphisms in the opposite direction, i.e., as the category $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}^{o p}$ opposite to $\mathbf{T}_{\Sigma, \Phi}$ (cf. Definition 3.1.21 below).

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ To be cautious about the set-theoretic foundations here, we should rather say: small categories.
    ${ }^{6}$ Again, we should restrict attention to small categories here. Alternatively, in place of Set we could use the category of all discrete categories, inheriting all of the foundational problems of Cat.

[^4]:    ${ }^{7}$ Some authors would use a dotted or double arrow here, writing $\tau: \mathbf{F} \dot{\rightarrow}$ or $\tau: \mathbf{F} \Rightarrow \mathbf{G}$, respectively. We prefer to use the same symbol for all morphisms, and also for natural transformations, since they are morphisms in certain categories, see Definition 3.4.60 below.

[^5]:    ${ }^{8}$ To be cautious about set-theoretic foundations, one may want to assume that $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{1}$ is small.

[^6]:    ${ }^{9}$ Assuming that $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{2}$ is small would help to resolve potential foundational problems here.
    ${ }^{10}$ So, for foundational reasons, one may prefer to keep all categories small around here as well.

