# More Work for Robin: <br> Universal Algebra in Everyday <br> Programming Logic, and Concomitant Challenges for Restriction Categories 

Ernie Manes<br>University of Massachusetts at Amherst

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## 1 Talk Objectives

Robin and I advertised a Boolean restriction category as an abstract category of partial functions which supports classical reasoning.

We'll look at three equivalent definitions of a BRC.
But wait! Does everyday programming logic support classical reasoning?

In everyday programming logic, "and" is not commutative.
var x : string;
if (Length $(\mathrm{x})>0$ ) and $(\mathrm{x}[1]=$ 'A') then . . .
if $\left(\mathrm{x}[1]={ }^{\prime} \mathrm{A}\right.$ ') and $($ Length $(\mathrm{x})>0)$ then . .
are different.

We'll consider $i f_{p}(f, g)$ for
Case I: $p$ is total ( $p \in$ Boolean algebra)
Case II: $p$ can diverge, $i f_{p}(f, g)$ computable if $f, g$ are, $(p \in$ ?)

Case III: $p$ can diverge, possess oracle for halting problem ( $p \in ? ?$ )

The univeral-algebraic results we discuss invite further work in restriction categories.

So let's get going.
But wait! What order do we compose in?
Can we figure this out from context?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{g \bar{f}}=\bar{g} \bar{f} \\
& \overline{\bar{g} f}=\overline{g f}
\end{aligned}
$$



## 2 Boolean Restriction Categories

A restriction category (Cockett and Lack, 2002) is a category $X$ equipped with a unary operation $X \xrightarrow{f} Y \mapsto$ $X \xrightarrow{\mathcal{f}} X$ satisfying the four axioms
(R.1) $f \bar{f}=f$
(R.2) $Y \stackrel{f}{\longleftarrow} X \xrightarrow{g} Z, \quad \bar{f} \bar{g}=\bar{g} \bar{f}$
(R.3) $Y \stackrel{f}{\longleftarrow} X \xrightarrow{g} Z, \quad \bar{g} \bar{f}=\bar{g} \bar{f}$
(R.4) Every $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is deterministic in that for all $Y \xrightarrow{g} Z, \bar{g} f=f \overline{g f}$
$\mathcal{X}(X, Y)$ is a poset under the restriction ordering $f \leq g$ if $g \bar{f}=f$. Composition on either side is monotone.
$R(X)=\{\bar{f}: X \xrightarrow{f} Y\}=\{X \xrightarrow{e} X: e=\bar{e}\}$ is the set of restriction idempotents, and it forms a meet semilattice under $\leq$ with $e \wedge f=e f=f e$.

In a restriction category, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is total if $\bar{f}=i d_{X}$. All monics are total.

If $\mathcal{X}$ is a split restriction category (in that all restriction idempotents split), let $\mathcal{M}$ be the class of all restriction monics, the monics that arise from such splittings.

Completeness Theorem (Cockett and Lack, 2002) A split restriction category is restriction isomorphic to the partial morphism category induced by the subcategory of total maps and $\mathcal{M}$-subobjects. The restriction is given by

$$
[X \stackrel{m}{\leftrightarrows} A \xrightarrow{f} X]=[X \stackrel{m}{\leftrightarrows} A \xrightarrow{m} X]
$$

Thus a restriction category is a "category of partial maps", noting that the idempotent completion of a restriction category is a split restriction category.

Carboni, Lack and Walters 1993: An extensive category is one in which finite coproducts exist and are well-behaved (i.e., are like those of Set).

Manes 1992: (Standing on the shoulders of Elgot, Bloom and others): A Boolean category is a category suitable for (possibly non-deterministic) computation in which finite coproducts exist and are well-behaved (i.e., are like those of Set).

How are these categories defined?
A Boolean category (a) has finite coproducts, (b) is such that coproduct injections pull back along any morphism to coproduct injections, (c) if $X \xrightarrow{f} X \stackrel{f}{\leftarrow} X$ is a coproduct, $X=0$, subject to
(B) Coproduct injections pull back coproducts

If $(\mathrm{B})$ is strengthened to
(E) all morphisms pull back coproducts
we get an extensive category.

Example Rel, sets and relations, is Boolean and plays the metamathematical role for Boolean categories that $\mathbf{A b}$ does for abelian categories.

Note: Rel does not have all pullbacks.
Example Sets and bags forms a Boolean category.

## When is a Boolean category extensive?

In any category with initial 0 , say that $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is null if it factors $f=X \xrightarrow{g} 0 \rightarrow Y$.
Say that $f$ is total if $W \xrightarrow{t} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ null $\Rightarrow t$ null.
In a Boolean category, 0 is "strict" in that every total $X \rightarrow 0$ is an isomorphism.

In any category, say that $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is deterministic if for every coproduct $Q \leftarrow Y \rightarrow Q^{\prime}$ there exists a commutative diagram

with the top row a coproduct.
Theorem (Manes 1992, Corollary 12.3) A category is extensive if and only if it is a Boolean category in which all morphisms are total and deterministic.

## Toward Boolean restriction categories.

In a Boolean category:
Coproduct injections are monic. A summand is a subobject represented by a coproduct injection.
The poset $\operatorname{Summ}(X)$ of all summands of $X$ is always a Boolean algebra.

For $P, Q \in \operatorname{Summ}(X), P \rightarrow P \cup Q \leftarrow Q$ is a coproduct if and only if $P \cap Q=0$.

For $f: X \rightarrow Y$, the pullback


Defines the kernel $\operatorname{Ker}(f)$ of $f$. The complementary summand to $\operatorname{Ker}(f) \in \operatorname{Summ}(X)$ is the domain $\operatorname{Dom}(f)$ of $f$.

A Boolean restriction category is a Boolean category with 0 a zero object such that for $f: X \rightarrow Y$,

defines a restriction.
Note that, unlike restriction categories and allegories which are categories with additional structure, a category is or is not a Boolean restriction category.

## When is a Boolean category a BRC?

Theorem (Manes 2006) For $\mathcal{X}$ a Boolean category with zero object,
$\mathcal{X}$ is a Boolean restriction category $\Leftrightarrow$ every morphism is deterministic

## When is a category a BRC?

Theorem A category is a Boolean restriction category if and only if it is the partial morphism category $\operatorname{Par}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{M})$ with $X$ an extensive category and $\mathcal{M}$ its coproduct injections.
Moreover, if the extensive category $\mathcal{X}$ has a terminal object 1 then the monad $X+1$ classifies these partial morphisms.

Example: The partial morphism category of any Boolean topos.

## When is a restriction category a BRC?

Theorem (Cockett and Manes, 2009). A restriction category is a BRC if and only if

- it has finite coproducts.
- the initial object is a zero.
- restriction idempotent split and the split monics involved are coproduct injections.
- Given $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ with $f \bar{g}=g \bar{f}$ then with respect to the restriction ordering $f \leq g \Leftrightarrow g \bar{f}=f, f \vee g$ exists and composition on either side preserves such suprema.


## Here goes a segue.

Where such a supremum arises is in

$$
\text { if } \bar{p} \text { then } f \text { else } g=f \bar{p} \vee g \bar{p}^{\prime}
$$

A theme of this talk is: let such supremum be everywheredefined, to allow a universal-algebraic description.

## 3 Any coproduct gives an if-then-else

Let $P \xrightarrow{i} X \stackrel{j}{\longleftarrow} Q$ a coproduct in any category $\mathcal{X}$.
Define a binary operation $f g=i f_{P Q}(f, g)$ on $\mathcal{X}(X, Y)$ by


In a Boolean restriction category, $Q=P^{\prime}$ and $f g=f \bar{p} \vee g \bar{p}^{\prime}$.
Proposition In any category, $f g$ is a rectangular band.
Proof $f f i=f i, f f j=f j$ so $f f=f$. Similarly, $(f g) h=f h=f(g h)$.

Continue with $P \xrightarrow{i} X \stackrel{j}{\longleftarrow} Q$
For $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$, one checks

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f \mathcal{L} g \Leftrightarrow f j=g j \\
& f \mathcal{R} g \Leftrightarrow f i=g i
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the semigroup isomorphism

$$
X(X, Y) \rightarrow X(X, Y) / \mathcal{L} \times X(X, Y) / \mathcal{R}
$$

maps $f$ to its restrictions to $P$ and $Q$.
For a converse, see Exercise 3.

## A network is the sum of its paths.

For example, one conceptualizes the following formal sum:

$$
\begin{aligned}
i f_{p}\left(f, i f_{q}(g, h)\right) & =f p+\left(g q+h q^{\prime}\right) p^{\prime} \\
& =f p+g q p^{\prime}+h q^{\prime} p^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

With this end, let $X$ now be semiadditive. Thus it has a zero object 0 and a coproduct $X \xrightarrow{i n_{1}} X+X \xrightarrow{i n_{2}} X$ is also a product

$$
X \stackrel{\binom{1}{0}}{\longleftrightarrow} X+X \xrightarrow{\binom{0}{1}} X
$$

$X(X, Y)$ is an abelian monoid via

$$
f+g=X \xrightarrow{\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1
\end{array}\right)} X+X \xrightarrow{\binom{f}{g}} Y
$$

Relative to the coproduct $P \xrightarrow{i} X \stackrel{j}{\longleftarrow} Q$, define corresponding guards $p, q: X \rightarrow X$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p=X \xrightarrow{\binom{1}{0}} P \xrightarrow{i} X \\
& q=X \xrightarrow{\binom{0}{1}} Q \xrightarrow{j} X
\end{aligned}
$$

By construction, these are split idempotents whose monics are coproduct injections. Moreover, $p q=q p=0, p+q=1$.

It follows at once that for

$f g=f p+g q$.

## 4 Universal Algebra

Operations and equations, e.g. semigroups, groups, lattices, rings, modules over a rig, but not fields.

A quotient algebra of $A$ is $A / R$ where the equivalence relation $R$ is a congruence, that is, is also a subalgebra of $A \times A$.

For a subclass $\mathcal{A}, P \mathcal{A}, S \mathcal{A}, Q \mathcal{A}$ is the class of all products, subalgebras, quotient algebras of algebras in $\mathcal{A}$.
$\mathcal{A}$ is a variety if it is closed under $P, S$ and $Q$. Denote the smallest variety containing $\mathcal{A}$ by $\operatorname{Var}(\mathcal{A})$.

Note: The concepts generalize to categories. For example, restriction categories and allegories are varieties of categories!

## Surprising Examples

Huntington 1933: $\left(B, \vee,(\cdot)^{\prime}\right)$ is a Boolean algebra (for unique 0,1 ) if and only if

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \vee y & =y \vee x \\
x \vee(y \vee z) & =(x \vee y) \vee z \\
\left(x^{\prime} \vee y\right)^{\prime} \vee\left(x^{\prime} \vee y^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} & =x
\end{aligned}
$$

Sholander 1951: $(L, \vee, \wedge)$ is a distributive lattice if and only if

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \vee(x \wedge y)=x \\
& x \vee(y \wedge z)=(z \vee x) \wedge(z \vee x)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Theorem (Garrett Birkhoff, 1935)

- $\mathcal{A}$ is a variety if and only if it is the class of all algebra satisfying a set of further equations in the same operations.
- $\operatorname{Var}(\mathcal{A})=\operatorname{QSP}(\mathcal{A})$.
- The equations satisfied by all algebras in $\operatorname{Var}(\mathcal{A})$ are precisely those equations satisfied by all algebras in $\mathcal{A}$.
- Every variety has free algebras.
- Any variety is generated by its free algebra on $\omega$ generators. (This requires that operations are finitary, which we assume).

Example (Tarski, 1946) Let $A$ be the free group on 2 generators. Then $\operatorname{Var}(A)$ is all groups because the free group on $\omega$ generators is a subgroup of $A$.

## 5 Subdirect Irreducibility

If $0 \neq p \neq 1$ in a Boolean algebra $B, B \rightarrow[0, p] \times\left[0, p^{\prime}\right]$, $q \mapsto\left(p \wedge q, p^{\prime} \wedge q\right)$ is a Boolean algebra isomorphism.

Corollary A finite Boolean algebra has $2^{n}$ elements where $n$ is the number of atoms.

Garrett Birkhoff 1935 generalized product decompositions. A subdirect embedding of algebra $A$ in a family $\mathcal{B}$ of algebras is a subalgebra $A \rightarrow \Pi B_{i}$ with all $B_{i} \in \mathcal{B}$ and all $A \rightarrow \Pi B_{i} \xrightarrow{p r_{j}} B_{j}$ surjective.
$A$ is subdirectly irreducible if $|A|>1$ and $A$ admits no non-trivial dubdirect embedding, i.e. if $A \rightarrow \Pi B_{i}$ is subdirect, some $A \rightarrow \Pi B_{i} \xrightarrow{p r_{j}} B_{j}$ is an isomorphism.

Birkhoff proved:
Proposition For $|A|>1, A$ is subdirectly irreducible if and only if the intersection of all non-diagonal congruences on $A$ is again non-diagonal.
Proof idea If $\mathcal{R}$ is the set of all non-diagonal congruences, consider the canonical map $A \rightarrow \Pi_{R \in \mathcal{R}} A / R$.
Corollary Every simple algebra is subdirectly irreducible.
Corollary Every two-element algebra is simple, hence subdirectly irreducible.

Birkhoff then proved:
Theorem Let $A$ be a (finitary!) algebra with $|A|>1$. Then $A$ admits a subdirect embedding $A \rightarrow \Pi B_{i}$ with each $B_{i}$ subdirectly irreducible.

Proof idea By Zorn's Lemma, given $x \neq y$ let $R_{x y}$ be a maximal congruence not containing $(x, y)$. The canonical map $A \rightarrow \Pi_{x \neq y} A / R_{x y}$ is the desired subdirect embedding.
Corollary (Stone 1936) Every Boolean algebra is isomorphic to a Boolean algebra of sets.

Proof 2 is the only subdirect irreducible.
Corollary 2 generates the variety of Boolean algebras. This means truth tables can be used to establish any Boolean equation.

## Example

Let $(G,+, 0)$ be an abelian group and also a meet semilattice $(G, \wedge)$. Consider the axioms
$(\mathrm{BR}) x \wedge(y+z)=(x \wedge y)+(x \wedge z)$
(LOG) $x+(y \wedge z)=(x+y) \wedge(x+z)$

With (BR) get Boolean rings with 2 as unique subdirect irreducible.

With (LOG) get abelian lattice-ordered groups with every subgroup of $\mathbb{R}$ being subdirect irreducible.

## 6 The Lattice of Congruences

For any \{finitary\} algebra $A$, its congruences form a complete \{algebraic\} lattice $\operatorname{Cong}(A)$.
Say that $R, S \in \operatorname{Cong}(A)$ permute if $R S=S R$. In that case, $R S=R \vee S=S R$.

Theorem (Mal'cev 1954) In a variety of algebras, congruences permute if and only if there exists a ternary term $\tau(x, y, z)$ with

$$
\tau(x, x, y)=y, \quad \tau(x, y, y)=x
$$

In general, if congruences permute then $\operatorname{Cong}(A)$ is a modular lattice.

Example For groups, $\tau(x, y, z)=x y^{-1} z$ is a Mal'cev term. This shows

- $H K=K H$ for $K, H$ normal subgroups.
- Normal subgroups form a modular lattice.

Theorem (Alden Pixley 1963) In a variety of algebras, congruences permute and all lattices $\operatorname{Cong}(A)$ are distributive if and only if there exists a "two-thirds minority" term $p(x, y, z)$ with

$$
p(x, y, x)=p(x, y, y)=p(y, y, x)=x
$$

Example Heyting algebras have a two-thirds minority term and hence so does Boolean algebras. For Boolean algebras, a suitable example is

$$
p(x, y, z)=(x \wedge z) \vee\left(x \wedge y^{\prime} \wedge z^{\prime}\right) \vee\left(x^{\prime} \wedge y^{\prime} \wedge z\right)
$$

Thus the congruences of a Boolean algebra satisfy

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R \cap(S T)=(R \cap S)(R \cap T) \\
& R(S \cap T)=R S \cap R T
\end{aligned}
$$

## $7 \quad$ Primal Algebras

Let $F_{X}$ be the free algebra generated by $X$. Elements are equivalence classes of terms under the equations. For example, the free semigroup is all non-empty lists $x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$ with $n>0$. For example, $x y z$ is the equivalence class $[x(y z)]=[(x y) z]$. Finding canonical forms such as " $[a(b(c d))]$ " is the word problem.
The interpretation of an $n$-variable term $\tau$ in an algebra $A$ is the function $A^{n} \rightarrow A$ obtained as the image of $[\tau]$ under the unique homomorphism $\psi_{n}: F_{n} \rightarrow A^{A^{n}}$ which maps $i \in n$ to the $i$ th projection.

Algebra $A$ is primal if $A$ is finite with at least two elements and is such that $\psi_{n}$ is surjective for all $n>0$-every function interprets some term.
If $P$ is primal and $A$ is an algebra in $\operatorname{Var}(P)$, congruences on $A$ permute and $A$ has a distributive congruence lattice. This is immediate from Pixley's theorem.

Example In the variety of Boolean algebras, 2 is primal. Sierpinski's proof of this will emerge later.

In the exercises you will prove: every primal algebra is simple and has no proper subalgebras.
Algebra $A$ is equationally complete if $\operatorname{Var}(A)$ has no proper subvarieties.

Theorem (Rosenbloom, 1942) A primal algebra is equationally complete.

Theorem (Krauss, 1942) Let $P$ be a primal algebra.

- Each finite algebra in $\operatorname{Var}(P)$ is isomorphic to $P^{m}$ for some $m$
- $P$ is the only primal algebra in $\operatorname{Var}(P)$. For example, the Boolean algebra $4=\left\{0,1, x, x^{\prime}\right\}$ is not primal because any $f: 4 \rightarrow 4$ such that $f(0)=x$ is not a Boolean term.
- Two varieties each generated by a primal algebra of the same cardinality are isomorphic.

For example, if one knows that $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is a primal generator of the variety of rings with unit with $x^{2}=x$ (which is true), then a Boolean algebra is the same thing as a ring with unit with $x^{2}=x$.

Proposition For primal $P$ and $n \geq 0$ an integer, the free algebra generated by $n$ in $\operatorname{Var}(P)$ is $P^{P^{n}}$.
Proof $\psi_{n}: F_{n} \rightarrow P^{P^{n}}$ is surjective by primal and injective since $F_{n}$ and $P$ satisfy the same equations.

Theorem (Tah-Kai Hu, 1969) If $P$ is primal, $\operatorname{Var}(P)$ is equivalent to the category of Boolean algebras.

Proof Idea For $A$ an algebra in $\operatorname{Var}(P)$, the set $\Psi A$ of homomorphisms $A \rightarrow P$ is closed in the compact space $P^{A}$ induced by the discrete topology on finite $P$, and so is a Stone space. Then $\Psi: \operatorname{Var}(P)^{o p} \rightarrow$ Stone spaces is an equivalence of categories.

## 8 McCarthy's Equations for if-then-else

We now enter Case II, letting tests diverge and giving up $i f_{p}(f, f)=$ $f$ and $p \wedge q=q \wedge p$. We have these universal-algebraic questions:

- What is the theory of $i f_{p}(f, g)$ ?
- What sort of an algebra $M$ do $p, q, \ldots$ range over?
- How does such $M$ act on an abelian monoid?

We let $p \wedge q, p \vee q$ take their usual "short-circuit evaluation" meaning in computer programming.

## John McCarthy 1963

$$
\begin{aligned}
i f_{1}(f, g) & =f \\
i f_{0}(f, g) & =g \\
i f_{p}\left(i f_{p}(f, g), h\right) & =i f_{p}(f, h)=i f_{p}\left(f, i f_{p}(g, h)\right) \\
i f_{(p \wedge q) \vee\left(p^{\prime} \wedge\right)}(f, g) & =i f_{p}\left(i f_{q}(f, g), i f_{r}(f, g)\right) \\
i f_{p}\left(i f_{q}(f, g), i f_{q}(t, u)\right) & =i f_{q}\left(i f_{p}(f, t), i f_{p}(g, u)\right) \\
i f_{p}\left(i f_{q}(f, g), h\right) & =i f_{p}\left(i f_{q}\left(i f_{p}(f, f), i f_{p}(g, g)\right), h\right) \\
i f_{p}\left(f, i f_{q}(g, h)\right) & =i f_{p}\left(f, i f_{q}\left(i f_{p}(g, g), i f_{p}(h, h)\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Completeness theorem These equations reduce each term to a canonical form and distinct canonical forms differ in the standard model.

Thus $f g=p(f, g)$ is a semigroup satisfying the law of the redundant middle $f g h=f h$ (third equation above). This is not a rectangular band because $f f \neq f$.

## 9 McCarthy Algebras

What do $p, q, \ldots$ range over? Boole introduced the "Boolean" connectives, but these were not axiomatized until Huntington 1904. Similarly, McCarthy used the short-circuit connectives, but these were not axiomatized until the paper of Fernando Guzmán and Craig Squier in 1990. They called these algebras "C-algebras" after "Conditional logic". By analogy to the situation with Boole, we feel these should be called McCarthy algebras.
A McCarthy algebra is $\left(M, \vee, \wedge,(\cdot)^{\prime}, 0,2\right)$ subject to
(M.1) $x^{\prime \prime}=x$
(M.2) $(x \wedge y)^{\prime}=x^{\prime} \vee y^{\prime}$
(M.3) $(x \wedge y) \wedge z=x \wedge(y \wedge z)$
(M.4) $x \wedge(y \vee z)=(x \wedge y) \vee(x \wedge z)$
(M.5) $(x \vee y) \wedge z=(x \wedge z) \vee\left(x^{\prime} \wedge y \wedge z\right)$
(M.6) $x \vee(x \wedge y)=x$
(M.7) $(x \wedge y) \vee(y \wedge x)=(y \wedge x) \vee(x \wedge y)$
(M.8) $0 \wedge x=0,2 \wedge x=2$
(M.9) $2^{\prime}=2,0^{\prime} \wedge 2=2$

Some "Boolean" properties hold: Here, $1=0$ '.

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \wedge x & =x \\
x \wedge y & =x \wedge\left(x^{\prime} \vee y\right) \\
x \vee\left(x^{\prime} \wedge x\right) & =x \\
\left(x \vee x^{\prime}\right) \wedge y & =(x \wedge y) \vee\left(x^{\prime} \wedge y\right) \\
\left(x \vee x^{\prime}\right) \wedge x & =x \\
x \wedge 1 & =x=1 \wedge x
\end{aligned}
$$

These properties fail in every nontrivial McCarthy algebra:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \wedge x^{\prime}=0 \\
& x \vee x^{\prime}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

$3=\{0,1,2\}$ is a McCarthy algebra.

| $x$ | $x^{\prime}$ | $x \wedge y$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | $x \vee y$ | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |

3 is simple, hence subdirectly irreducible.
Theorem (Guzmán and Squier) 3 is the only subdirectly irreducible McCarthy algebra.
Corollary Every McCarthy algebra is a subalgebra of $3^{I}$.
Corollary All potential McCarthy algebra equations can be verified or disproved by 3-truth tables. The Guzmán-Squier equations are complete!

Corollary In a McCarthy algebra, $x=x^{\prime} \Rightarrow x=2$. Thus every finite McCarthy algebra has an odd number of elements.
Proof Obvious in $3^{I}$.

Corollary In a McCarthy algebra, define

$$
i f_{p}(q, r)=(p \wedge q) \vee\left(p^{\prime} \wedge r\right)
$$

Then all of McCarthy's equations hold.

## Implementation of if-then-else in a BRC

The next idea was employed by Guzmán and Squier and was due originally to Alfred Foster, 1951 who was investigating certain rings.

Let $B$ be a Boolean algebra. Let $M_{B}$ be the set of all pairs $(p, q)$ with $p, q \in B, p \wedge q=0$. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =(0,1) \\
2 & =(0,0) \\
(p, q)^{\prime} & =(q, p) \\
(p, q) \wedge(r, s) & =(p \wedge q, q \vee(p \wedge s)) \\
(p, q) \vee(r, s) & =(p \vee(q \wedge r), q \wedge s)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $M_{B}$ is a McCarthy algebra.
We can do this in any Boolean restriction category.
The origin of the idea is simple. There is a natural bijection between $3^{I}$ and pairs of disjoint subsets of $I$ via

$$
I \xrightarrow{f} 3 \mapsto \quad\left(f^{-1} 0, f^{-1} 1\right)
$$

The formulas above are the transport of the pointwise operations in $3^{I}$.

This leads us to
Proposition For every odd $n \geq 3$ there exists an $n$-element McCarthy algebra.

Proof Given a McCarthy algebra $M$, consider it a subalgebra of some $3^{I}$ using the pairs-of-sets representation. If $I \subset J$ with $J$ strictly larger, the new 0 and 1 are the pairs $(0, J),(J, 1)$ which together with the old pairs constitute a new McCarthy algebra with two more elements.
Corollary 3 is not a primal McCarthy algebra.
Proof Otherwise, every finite McCarthy algebra would have $3^{m}$ elements.

## 10 An Oracle for Halting

What would it take to make 3 primal?
Let $u_{x y z}: 3 \rightarrow 3$ be $0 \mapsto x, 1 \mapsto y, 2 \mapsto z$.
Define if: $3^{3} \rightarrow 3$ by $i f_{p}(q, r)=(p \wedge q) \vee\left(p^{\prime} \wedge r\right)$.
Now observe for any $f: 3^{4} \rightarrow 3$ that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(w, x, y, z)= & i f_{u_{100} z}(f(w, x, y, 0) \\
& \left.i f_{u_{001} z}(f(w, x, y, 2), f(w, x, y, 1))\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

This works the same way for any $n>0$, not just $n=4$. For example,

$$
\text { Halt } \left.=u_{110}=\lambda_{z} i f_{u_{100}} z, i f_{u_{001 z} z}(2,1)\right)
$$

This 3 is primal providing if and the two unary operations $u_{100}, u_{001}$ interpret terms. This idea dates fo Sierpinski, 1945: "If $X$ is finite, any function $X^{n} \rightarrow X$ is a composition of binary functions".

Now if: $3^{3} \rightarrow 3$ already interprets a McCarthy term, so we need only to get $u_{100}, u_{001}: 3 \rightarrow 3$.

Write $u_{010}$ as $p^{\downarrow}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Halt}(p) & =u_{110}=(p \vee 1)^{\downarrow} \\
u_{100} & =p^{\downarrow} \\
u_{001} & =(p \vee 1)^{\downarrow^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Throwing in $p^{\downarrow}$ provides an oracle for the halting problem because

$$
\operatorname{Halt}(p)=p^{\prime} \vee(p \vee 1)^{\downarrow}=u_{100} \vee u_{001}^{\prime}
$$

In that case, 3 is primal.

A McCarthy algebra with halt or $M h$-algebra adds to McCarthy algebra a unary operation $p^{\downarrow}$ with equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
0^{\downarrow} & =0=2^{\downarrow}, \quad 1^{\downarrow}=1 \\
p \wedge q^{\downarrow} & =p \wedge(p \wedge q)^{\downarrow} \\
p^{\downarrow} \vee p^{\downarrow^{\prime}} & =1 \\
p & =p^{\downarrow} \vee p
\end{aligned}
$$

We immediately have:
3 is a primal $M h$-algebra.
Also, by exactly the Guzmán-Squier proof, 3 is the only subdirectly irreducible $M h$-algebra.
Thus every $M h$-algebra embeds in some power $3^{I}$, and $\operatorname{Var}(3)$ is all $M h$-algebras.
By Hu's theorem, $M h$-algebras is equivalent to Boolean algebras.

A more direct proof of this "Morita equivalence" is given in Manes 1993:

- For $H$ an $M h$-algebra, $H_{\#}=\left\{a \in H: a^{\downarrow}=a\right\}$ is closed under $\left\{0,1,(\cdot)^{\prime}, \vee, \wedge\right\}$ and is a Boolean algebra under these operations.
- $H \mapsto H_{\#}$ is an equivalence of categories.
- The inverse equivalence maps $B$ to the McCarthy algebra $M_{B}=\left\{(p, q) \in B^{2}: p \wedge q=0\right\}$ which is an $M h$-algebra if $(p, q)^{\downarrow}=\left(p, p^{\prime}\right)$.

Thus every $M h$-algebra has form $M_{B}$. General implementation of the short-circuit operations can be done in a Boolean restriction category!

Boolean algebras are rings. What a about $M h$-algebras?
For prime $p$, a $p$-ring is a commutative ring satisfying $p x=0$, $x^{p}=x$. The concept is due to McCoy and Montgomery, 1937.
Take note of this equation $x^{p}=x$ with regard to later remarks about abelian restriction semigroups.

In 1957, Alfred Foster proved that $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is a primal $p$-ring which generates the variety of all $p$-rings. We conclude from Krauss' theorem:

Theorem $M h$-algebras $\cong 3$-rings as a variety.

## 11 A Cayley theorem for McCarthy algebras

## An idea championed by Steve Bloom

For $X$ a set, define nullary 1 , unary $f^{\prime}$ and binary $f \wedge g$ on the set $\left[X^{2} \rightarrow X\right]$ of binary operations on $X$ by

$$
\begin{aligned}
1(x, y) & =x \\
f^{\prime}(x, y) & =f(y, x) \\
(f \wedge g)(x, y) & =f(g(x, y), y)
\end{aligned}
$$

We say two binary operations $f, g: X^{2} \rightarrow X$ commute if each is a homomorphism in the other.
Theorem (Bloom, Ésik and Manes 1990)

1. Let $\mathcal{A} \subset\left[X^{2} \rightarrow X\right]$ consist of rectangular bands any two of which commute, and be closed under $1, f^{\prime}$ and $f \wedge g$. Then $\mathcal{A}$ is a Boolean algebra.
2. If $B$ is a Boolean algebra then $B \rightarrow\left[B^{2} \rightarrow B\right], p \mapsto$ $p x \vee p^{\prime} y$, is an injective Boolean algebra homomorphism.

Consider

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl|llll|lll}
p \vee q & 0 & 1 & 2 & p \| q & 0 & 1 & 2 \\
\hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\
2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2
\end{array}\right] \quad \begin{array}{lllllll} 
\\
p \| q=\left(p \wedge\left(q \vee q^{\prime}\right)\right) \vee\left(p^{\prime} \wedge q\right)
\end{array}
$$

Both of these are regular extensions of 2-valued logic in the sense of Kleene 1952.

Cayley theorem For a McCarthy algebra, $M \rightarrow\left[M^{2} \rightarrow M\right]$,

$$
p \mapsto I_{p}(q, r)=(p \wedge q) \|\left(p^{\prime} \wedge r\right)
$$

is an injective homomorphism in $0,(\cdot)^{\prime}, \wedge$.

## 12 Abelian Restriction Semigroups

Proposition (James Johnson and Ernie Manes, 1970). Let $\mathcal{V}$ be a variety of abelian monoids equipped with additional unary operations, each of which is a monoid endomorphism together with any set of further equations. Then there exists a rig $R$ with $\mathcal{V} \cong R$-Mod.

Corollary Abelian restriction semigroups arise as the modules over a rig.

Abelian restriction semigroups are abelian semigroups together with $\bar{x}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \bar{x} & =x \\
\overline{\bar{x}} & =\bar{x} \\
\overline{x y} & =\bar{x} \bar{y}
\end{aligned}
$$

By the way: A question from the cited paper which I believe remains open is to characterize those rigs $R$ for which $R$-Mod is balanced.

Observation Let $A$ be a commutative semigroup such that $\forall x \exists n>1 x^{n}=x$. Then $A$ is an inverse semigroup, hence a restriction semigroup; $\bar{x}=x^{n-1}$.

- Every idempotent is a restriction idempotent.
- $x \leq y \Leftrightarrow x^{2}=x y$.
- Total $\Leftrightarrow$ invertible.

As a special case, let $A=\Pi F_{i}$ be a product of (the multiplicative semigroups of) finite fields with $\vee\left|F_{i}\right|<\infty$. Then

- if $x \perp y$ (that is, $\bar{x} \bar{y}=0$ ), $x \vee y$ exists and is $x+y$.
- $A$ is a locally Boolean poset in the restriction order.

Many examples of abelian restriction semigroups exist besides these:

- Any abelian monoid with trivial restriction.
- The lower sets of an abelian restriction monoid forms an abelian restriction monoid under the setwise operations $I J$, $\bar{I}$.
- One can take arbitrary products, subalgebras and quotients.

Open Question What is the rig whose modules are all abelian restriction monoids?

## 13 Conclusion

So, where are the promised challenges for restriction categories?
By now you're all brain dead.
So I wrote them all down on the handout!

CONGRATS ON SURVIVING TUTORIAL 20!

