

The monoidal structure of Turing machines

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Indexed monoidal algebras are introduced as an equivalent structure for self-dual compact closed categories, and a coherence theorem is proved for the category of such algebras. Turing automata and Turing graph machines are defined by generalizing the classical Turing machine concept, so that the collection of such machines becomes an indexed monoidal algebra. On the analogy of the von Neumann data-flow computer architecture, Turing graph machines are proposed as potentially reversible low-level universal computational devices, and a truly reversible molecular size hardware model is presented as an example.

1. Introduction

The importance of reversibility in computation has been argued at several platforms in connection with the speed and efficiency of modern-day computers. As stated originally by Landauer (Landauer 1961) and re-emphasized by Abramsky (Abramsky 2005a): “it is only the logically irreversible operations in a physical computer that necessarily dissipate energy by generating a corresponding amount of entropy for every bit of information that gets irreversibly erased”. Abramsky’s remedy for this situation in (Abramsky 2005a) is to translate high level functional programs in a syntax directed way into a simple kind of automata which are immediately seen to be reversible. The concept strong compact closed category (Abramsky 2005b) has been introduced and advocated as a theoretical foundation for this type of reversibility.

The problem of reversibility, however, does not manifest itself at the software level. Even if we manage to perform our programs in reverse, it is not guaranteed that information will not be lost during the concrete physical computation process. To the contrary, it may get lost twice, once in each direction. The solution must therefore be found at the lowest hardware level. Our model of Turing graph machines is being presented as a possible hardware solution for the problem of reversibility, but follows Abramsky’s structural approach. We even go one step further by showing how computations can be done in a virtually undirected fashion under the theoretical umbrella of self-dual compact closed

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categories. In practical terms we mean that, unlike in synchronous systems (e.g. sequential circuits), where the information is propagated through the interconnections (wires) between the functional elements (logical gates) always in the same direction, in a Turing graph machine the flow of information along these interconnections takes a direction that is determined dynamically by the current input and state of the machine. We are going to reconsider self-dual compact closed categories as indexed monoidal algebras and prove a coherence theorem to establish undirected graphs – constituting the basic underlying structure for Turing graph machines – as free indexed monoidal algebras generated by the ranked alphabet consisting of the star graphs.

Different parts of this paper need not be read in a strict sequential order. In-depth knowledge of algebra and category theory is only required in Sections 2, 3, and 4. The reader less familiar with categories could still understand the concept of Turing automata and Turing graph machines in Section 6, and appreciate the main practical contribution of this study. Then, gradually moving backwards to previous sections, one can also understand the categorical background through the numerous examples and diagrams provided in the text to help the intuition.

Our work relates to several significant theoretical endeavors to capture the geometry of the operations tensor and trace (feedback, iteration) in different models. The most important of these are linear logic (Girard 1987), game semantics (Hyland 1997), semantics of quantum protocols and programming languages (Abramsky and Coecke 2004; D’Hondt and Panangaden 2006), communicating concurrent processes (Milner 2009), interaction nets (Lafont 1989), and Girard’s Geometry of Interaction program (Girard 1989; Girard 1990) in general. The future generalization of our coherence result to ribbon categories (balanced monoidal categories (Joyal and Street 1991)) will also make a connection to knot theory (Freyd and Yetter 1992), and other directions specified in (Joyal *et al.* 1996; Joyal and Street 1991).

The idea of Turing automata and graph machines, however, was inspired solely by C. C. Elgot’s work on flowchart schemes and their semantics (Elgot 1975), which work has later been developed by S. L. Bloom and Z. Ésik to a theory highlighted by the concept *iteration theories* (Bloom and Ésik 1993). In a sense the present paper provides a synthesis of finite automata and Turing machines in the framework of category theory, and introduces an indexing mechanism (Burstall *et al.* 1989) for iteration theories.

This paper is an extension of a talk given by the author at DCM 2010, Edinburgh.

2. Traced monoidal and compact closed categories

In this section we shall assume familiarity with the concept of symmetric monoidal categories (Mac Lane 1971). It is known, cf. (Mac Lane and Paré 1985), that every monoidal category is equivalent to a strict one. Repeating an argument from (Joyal and Street 1991), most results obtained with the hypothesis that a monoidal category is strict can, in principle, be reformulated and proved without that condition. Even though our results in this paper are no exceptions, we shall not assume that our monoidal categories are strict, unless this assumption is clearly technical and simplifies the discussion significantly. Since the concept of indexed monoidal algebras is being introduced in the

present paper, it is appropriate that its definition be given under the general non-strict conditions. As another argument, the principal example of Turing automata presented in Section 6 is not strict as an indexed monoidal algebra or traced monoidal category. A further generalization of this concept for braidings, rather than symmetries, will follow.

Thus, a *monoidal category* consists of a category \mathcal{C} , a bifunctor $\otimes : \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, a unit object I of \mathcal{C} , and natural isomorphisms $a_{X,Y,Z} : (X \otimes Y) \otimes Z \rightarrow X \otimes (Y \otimes Z)$ as *associators*, $l_X : I \otimes X \rightarrow X$ and $r_X : X \otimes I \rightarrow X$ as left and right *unitors*, and $c_{U,V} : U \otimes V \rightarrow V \otimes U$ as *symmetries*, subject to the well-known coherence axioms specified in (Mac Lane 1971).

Traced monoidal categories (with one additional axiom) and their graphical language first appeared in (Bartha 1987a) in an algebraic setting, using the name “scheme algebra” for these structures. The operation trace was called feedback. Essentially the same axiomatization and graphical language was published in (Căzănescu and Ştefănescu 1990) under the name “biflow”. Joyal, Street, and Verity then rediscovered this notion, generalized it to balanced monoidal categories, and presented the fundamental *Int* construction on the embedding of an arbitrary balanced traced monoidal category into a tortile one (Joyal *et al.* 1996). In case braiding is symmetry, as it is in our present study, the *Int* construction transforms an arbitrary traced monoidal category into a compact closed category.

The following definition of traced monoidal categories uses the terminology of (Joyal *et al.* 1996). Trace in a monoidal category \mathcal{C} is introduced as *left trace*, that is, an operation $\mathcal{C}(U + A, U + B) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, rather than $\mathcal{C}(A + U, B + U) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(A, B)$ (i.e., right trace) as it appears in (Joyal *et al.* 1996), to be in accordance with the author’s own work. Let \mathcal{C} be a monoidal category with tensor \otimes and unit object I .

Definition 2.1. A *trace* for a symmetric monoidal category \mathcal{C} is a natural family of functions

$$Tr_{A,B}^U : \mathcal{C}(U \otimes A, U \otimes B) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(A, B)$$

satisfying the following three axioms:

vanishing:

$$Tr_{A,B}^I(f) = f \text{ for } f : A \rightarrow B,$$

$$Tr_{A,B}^{U \otimes V}(a_{U,V,A} \circ g) = Tr_{A,B}^V(Tr_{V \otimes A, V \otimes B}^U(g \circ a_{U,V,B})),$$

where $g : U \otimes (V \otimes A) \rightarrow (U \otimes V) \otimes B$;

superposing:

$$Tr_{A,B}^U(f) \otimes g = Tr_{A \otimes C, B \otimes D}^U(a_{U,A,C}^{-1} \circ (f \otimes g) \circ a_{U,B,D}),$$

where $f : U \otimes A \rightarrow U \otimes B$, and $g : C \rightarrow D$;

yanking:

$$Tr_{U,U}^U(c_{U,U}) = 1_U.$$

Naturality of trace is meant in all three variables A, B, U . Naturality in A and B is self-explanatory, while (di-)naturality in U is expressed by the following separate axiom.

sliding:

$$\text{Tr}_{A,B}^U((g \otimes 1_A) \circ f) = \text{Tr}_{A,B}^V(f \circ (g \otimes 1_B)) \text{ for } f : V \otimes A \rightarrow U \otimes B, g : U \rightarrow V.$$

See Fig. 1, and notice that we write composition of morphisms (\circ) in a left-to-right manner. When using the term feedback for trace, the notation Tr changes to \uparrow .

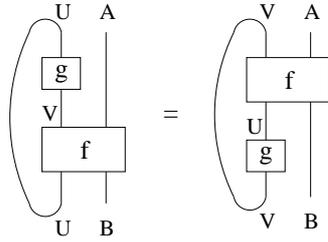


Fig. 1. The sliding axiom

On a separate line, compact closed categories were introduced in (Kelly and Laplaza 1980).

Definition 2.2. A symmetric monoidal category \mathcal{C} is *compact closed* (CC, for short) if every object A has a left adjoint A^* in the sense that there exist morphisms $d_A : I \rightarrow A \otimes A^*$ (the unit map) and $e_A : A^* \otimes A \rightarrow I$ (the counit map) for which the two composites below result in the identity morphisms 1_A and 1_{A^*} , respectively.

$$A \simeq_l I \otimes A \rightarrow_{d_A \otimes 1_A} (A \otimes A^*) \otimes A \simeq_a A \otimes (A^* \otimes A) \rightarrow_{1_A \otimes e_A} A \otimes I \simeq_r A,$$

$$A^* \simeq_l A^* \otimes I \rightarrow_{1_{A^*} \otimes d_A} A^* \otimes (A \otimes A^*) \simeq_a (A^* \otimes A) \otimes A^* \rightarrow_{e_A \otimes 1_{A^*}} I \otimes A^* \simeq_r A^*,$$

where l , r , and a stand for appropriate left unitor, right unitor, and associator morphisms, respectively.

By virtue of the adjunctions $A \dashv A^*$ there is a natural isomorphism between the hom-sets $\mathcal{C}(B \otimes A, C)$ and $\mathcal{C}(B, C \otimes A^*)$ for every objects B, C , hence the name “compact closed” category. Category \mathcal{C} is *self-dual* compact closed (SDCC, for short) if $A = A^*$ for each object A . The category **SDCC** has as objects all SDCC categories, and as morphisms strict monoidal functors preserving the given self-adjunctions.

Every CC category admits a so called *canonical trace* (Joyal *et al.* 1996) defined by the formula

$$\text{Tr}_{A,B}^U f = (d_{U^*} \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_{U^*} \otimes f) \circ (e_U \otimes 1_B)$$

in the strict setting. See Fig. 2. A well-known SDCC category is the category (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) of sets and relations with tensor being the cartesian product \times . We shall use this category as an example to explain the idea of indexing on it.

According to (Burstall *et al.* 1989; Bartha and Jürgensen 1989), an *indexed family of sets* is a functor $\mathcal{I} : \mathbf{Ind} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$, where \mathbf{Ind} is the index category. In our example, \mathbf{Ind} is the monoidal category (\mathbf{Set}, \times) as a subcategory of (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) and \mathcal{I} is the covariant powerset functor \mathcal{P} , which is of course not monoidal. Relations $A \rightarrow B$ are, however, still

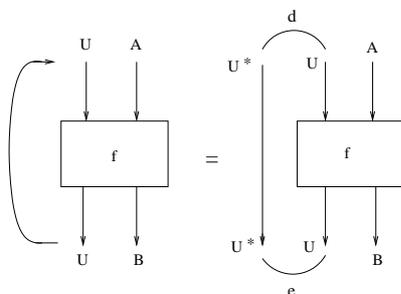


Fig. 2. Canonical trace in CC categories.

subsets of $A \times B$, and as such they can be indexed by morphisms (functions) $A \times B \rightarrow C$ in **Set**. For any two objects (sets) one can then consider the binary operation tensor, $\otimes_{A,B}(= \times) : \mathcal{P}(A) \times \mathcal{P}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A \times B)$, and the unary operation trace, $\downarrow_{A,B} : \mathcal{P}(A \times A \times B) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(B)$ for which $b \in \downarrow_{A,B} R$ iff $\exists a \in A ((a, a), b) \in R$. The concept indexed monoidal algebra arises from observing the equational algebraic laws satisfied by these operations and their relationship to indexing. The reader will soon be reassured that the word “trace” is not being abused in this context.

3. Association and permutation symbols

Following up on our example SDCC category (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) as an indexed family of sets equipped with the operations \otimes and \downarrow , observe that the index category **Ind** can be chosen in many different meaningful ways without affecting the outcome of indexing, as long as **Ind** remains a sub-(monoidal) category of (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) containing all permutations. For example **Ind** could be chosen as the restriction of (\mathbf{Set}, \times) to bijections, or, on the other extreme, it could even be the whole category (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) . In any case, the index functor \mathcal{I} is essentially an appropriate restriction of the covariant hom-functor $Hom(I, _)$ in (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) . Clearly, the larger the index category, the less is hidden from the SDCC category to be recaptured, that is, the less interesting the whole description. Therefore we take a minimalistic approach with regard to indexing, and abolish the index category altogether. Instead, we introduce permutation symbols, which can be interpreted as permutations in any suitable choice of a hypothetical index monoidal category. The problem is that the symbols themselves do not form a category over the given objects; in our example, sets. By Mac Lane’s coherence theorem for monoidal categories, permutation symbols form a category over object terms as objects, which terms are built up freely from the given objects as object variables. Eventually, permutation symbols will be used as unary operations in the algebraic structure already containing \otimes and \downarrow .

3.1. Association symbols

Let $\tau = (\otimes, I)$ be the algebra type – fixed for the rest of the paper – consisting of a binary operation symbol \otimes (tensor) and a constant symbol I (unit). Let, furthermore, $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots\}$ be a countably infinite set of variable symbols, and $X_n =$

$\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ for each $n \in N$. The carrier set of the free τ -algebra generated by X is denoted by $T_\tau(X)$, as usual. This set consists of all τ -terms (trees) over the variables X . For a tree $t \in T_\tau(X)$, $yield(t) \in X^*$ is the string of variables appearing on the leaves of t in a left-to-right order. The set $\tilde{T}_\tau(X) \subseteq T_\tau(X)$ consists of those trees t for which $yield(t) = x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ for some $n \in N$. The number n is called the *length* of t , denoted $l(t)$. Observe that a tree $t \in \tilde{T}_\tau(X)$ is just an alternative representation of a binary word in Mac Lane's (Mac Lane 1971) coherence theorem, so that every occurrence of a variable is one of the place holder symbol $_$. Note that, even though we have infinitely many variables, there is only one place holder in t , since x_i always marks the i -th occurrence of the place holder from left to right. In the concrete representation of trees we shall adopt the usual prefix notation for the operation \otimes . For example, $t = \otimes(x_1, \otimes(\otimes(I, x_2), \otimes(x_3, I)))$ is a tree in $\tilde{T}_\tau(X)$ of length 3.

Redefine the operation \otimes over $\tilde{T}_\tau(X)$ in such a way that $t_1 \otimes t_2$ is obtained from $\otimes(t_1, t_2)$ by incrementing the index of each variable occurring in the subtree t_2 by $l(t_1)$. Notice that the notation for \otimes changes from prefix to infix in the resulting τ -algebra. Clearly, $l(t_1 \otimes t_2) = l(t_1) + l(t_2)$. According to Mac Lane's coherence theorem, $(\tilde{T}_\tau(X), \otimes, I)$ then becomes the object structure of a monoidal category Λ in which there is a single morphism between t and t' iff $l(t) = l(t')$. This is the free single-sorted monoidal category, i.e., the one freely generated by a single object, in our representation the tree x_1 .

Proposition 3.1. (Mac Lane 1971, Theorem VII.1) For every monoidal category \mathcal{C} and any object C of \mathcal{C} there exists a unique strict monoidal functor $\Lambda \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ sending x_1 to C .

To switch from single-sorted to many-sorted, let O be a class of *object variables*. Define $T_\tau(O)$ as the collection of pairs (t, α) , where $t \in \tilde{T}_\tau(X)$ is a tree of length n and $\alpha : X_n \rightarrow O$ is a mapping. The pair (t, α) is called an *object term*. The mapping α defines a sequence of objects (A_1, \dots, A_n) (also denoted α), so that we can identify the pair (t, α) with a single tree u the leaves of which are labeled by the object variables in O rather than the symbols in X . Roughly speaking, O takes over the role of X , except that O is not necessarily a set.

For pairs (trees) $u_1 = (t_1, \alpha_1)$ and $u_2 = (t_2, \alpha_2)$, let $u_1 \otimes u_2 = (t_1 \otimes t_2, \alpha_1 \otimes \alpha_2)$, where

$$(\alpha_1 \otimes \alpha_2)(x_i) = \begin{cases} \alpha_1(x_i) & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq l(t_1) \\ \alpha_2(x_{i-l(t_1)}) & \text{if } l(t_1) < i \leq l(t_1) + l(t_2). \end{cases}$$

Define Λ_O to be the monoidal category having $(T_\tau(O), \otimes, (I, \emptyset))$ as its object structure, so that there is a unique morphism $(t_1, \alpha) \rightarrow (t_2, \alpha)$ in Λ_O iff $l(t_1) = l(t_2)$. This unique morphism will be called the *O-association symbol* (a-symbol, for short) $(t_1, \alpha) \rightarrow (t_2, \alpha)$, denoted $a(t_1, t_2, \alpha)$. On the analogy of Proposition 3.1 it is easy to see that Λ_O is freely generated by the object variables (sorts) O .

Proposition 3.2. For every monoidal category \mathcal{C} and any mapping ϕ from O to the objects of \mathcal{C} there exists a unique strict monoidal functor $\Lambda_O \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, also denoted ϕ , sending (x_1, A) to $\phi(A)$ for each object variable A .

Now let $\mathcal{O} = (O, \otimes, I)$ be a τ -algebra, that is, a class O of *objects* with an interpretation of the τ -operations on O . Considering objects as object variables, we can still speak of

object terms over O . For an object term $u = (t, \alpha)$ in $T_\tau(O)$, let $|u|_{\mathcal{O}}$ (or simply $|u|$, if \mathcal{O} is understood) be the evaluation of u in \mathcal{O} as an object in O . If $\rho = a(t_1, t_2, \alpha)$ is any O -association symbol $u_1 \rightarrow u_2$, then we also say that ρ is an \mathcal{O} -association symbol from $|u_1|$ to $|u_2|$, and use the somewhat abusing notation $\rho : |u_1| \Rightarrow |u_2|$. Keep in mind that two \mathcal{O} -association symbols may not be composed as “morphisms” suggested by this way of writing. In general, to speak of the category $\Lambda_{\mathcal{O}}$ of \mathcal{O} -association symbols does not make sense. Nevertheless, by Proposition 3.2, each a-symbol $\rho : A \Rightarrow B$ has a unique canonical interpretation as a real associator morphism $\rho : A \rightarrow B$ in every monoidal category \mathcal{C} having \mathcal{O} as its object structure.

Consider now $T_\tau(O)$ as the base collection of object variables, and concentrate on the monoidal category $\Lambda_{T_\tau(O)}$. The objects in this category are pairs (t, α) , where t is a term in $\tilde{T}_\tau(X)$ and $\alpha : X_n \rightarrow T_\tau(O)$ is a mapping. By Proposition 3.2 there exists a unique “syntactical” strict monoidal functor $\Lambda_{\mathcal{O}} : \Lambda_{T_\tau(O)} \rightarrow \Lambda_{\mathcal{O}}$ extending the “identity” injection $(x_1, u) \mapsto u$. Technically, $\Lambda_{\mathcal{O}}a(t_1, t_2, \alpha)$ is obtained by substituting the sequence of trees u_1, \dots, u_n determined by α into t_1 and t_2 . Given the algebra \mathcal{O} , the result is viewed as an \mathcal{O} -association symbol $A \Rightarrow B$ for appropriate objects A and B . On the other hand, the a-symbol $a(t_1, t_2, \alpha)$ gives rise “semantically” to the \mathcal{O} -association symbol $a(t_1, t_2, \alpha)/\mathcal{O} = a(t_1, t_2, \gamma) : A' \Rightarrow B'$, where $\gamma = (|u_1|, \dots, |u_n|)$. By the algebraic laws of tree substitution, $A = A'$ and $B = B'$. We say that the a-symbols $\rho_1 = \Lambda_{\mathcal{O}}a(t_1, t_2, \alpha)$ and $\rho_2 = a(t_1, t_2, \alpha)/\mathcal{O}$ are *equivalent*, and write $\rho_1 \equiv \rho_2$. We call ρ_1 a *refinement* of ρ_2 . The point is that ρ_1 and ρ_2 define the same associator morphism $A \rightarrow B$ in every monoidal category having the object structure \mathcal{O} . In general, it is not easy to give a concrete characterization of the equivalence \equiv as the symmetric and transitive closure of refinement. Fortunately, however, we shall not need any such characterization in our coherence axiom I3 in Section 4.1 below, for simple refinement will do as \equiv in that axiom.

3.2. Permutation symbols

Let O and $\mathcal{O} = (O, \otimes, I)$ be as in the previous subsection.

Definition 3.1. An *O-permutation symbol* is a quadruple (t_1, t_2, α, χ) , where $t_1, t_2 \in \tilde{T}_\tau(X)$ are of the same length n , $\alpha : X_n \rightarrow O$ is a mapping, and $\chi : n \rightarrow n$ is a permutation.

As a concrete permutation symbol (p-symbol, for short), the quadruple above will be identified as $p(t_1, t_2, \alpha, \chi)$. Extending the monoidal category $\Lambda_{\mathcal{O}}$ of \mathcal{O} -association symbols, the symmetric monoidal category $\Pi_{\mathcal{O}}$ of \mathcal{O} -permutation symbols is constructed as follows. Objects in $\Pi_{\mathcal{O}}$ are the same as in $\Lambda_{\mathcal{O}}$, whereas morphisms $(t_1, \alpha) \rightarrow (t_2, \alpha')$ are p-symbols $p(t_1, t_2, \alpha, \chi)$ such that $\alpha(i) = \alpha'(\chi(i))$ for all $i \in [n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$, where n is the common length of t_1 and t_2 . Technically speaking, the object variables appearing on the leaves of the tree $u_1 = (t_1, \alpha)$ are relabeled according to χ , and the tree structure itself is replaced by t_2 . Composition and tensor in $\Pi_{\mathcal{O}}$ are defined by:

- $p(t_1, t_2, \alpha, \chi) \circ p(t_2, t_3, \alpha', \eta) = p(t_1, t_3, \alpha, \chi \circ \eta)$;
- $p(t_1, t_2, \alpha, \chi) \otimes p(q_1, q_2, \beta, \eta) = p(t_1 \otimes q_1, t_2 \otimes q_2, \alpha \otimes \beta, \chi \otimes \eta)$.

Remember that $\alpha' = \chi^{-1} \circ \alpha$ and $\chi \otimes \eta$ is the obvious tensor of χ and η . The identity on object $u = (t, \alpha)$ is $1_u = p(t, t, \alpha, id_n)$, and the symmetry $c_{u,v}$ for $u = (t, \alpha)$ and $v = (q, \beta)$ is $p(t \otimes q, q \otimes t, \alpha \otimes \beta, \pi_{n,m})$, where $n = l(t)$, $m = l(q)$, and $\pi_{n,m}$ is the block transposition $n + m \rightarrow m + n$. Notice that the uniqueness of morphisms between two given objects no longer holds in Π_O . By Mac Lane's coherence theorem (Mac Lane 1963) for symmetric monoidal categories, however, we still have the counterpart of Proposition 3.2.

Proposition 3.3. For every symmetric monoidal category \mathcal{C} and any mapping ϕ from O to the objects of \mathcal{C} there is a unique strict symmetric monoidal functor $\phi : \Pi_O \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ sending (x_1, A) to $\phi(A)$ for each object variable A in O .

Given the algebra \mathcal{O} one can again classify an O -permutation symbol $p(t_1, t_2, \alpha, \chi) : u_1 \rightarrow u_2$ as an \mathcal{O} -one $|u_1| \Rightarrow |u_2|$, based on the evaluation of the trees u_1 and u_2 . Permutation symbols $\rho_1 : A \Rightarrow B$ and $\rho_2 : B \Rightarrow C$ are called *composable* if they are such as morphisms in the category Π_O . The concept of refinement and equivalence is also adopted in the straightforward manner: for every $T_\tau(O)$ -permutation symbol $\rho = p(t_1, t_2, \alpha, \chi)$ with $\alpha = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$, the p-symbol $\Pi_O \rho$ is a refinement of $\rho/\mathcal{O} = p(t_1, t_2, \gamma, \chi)$, where $\gamma = (|u_1|, \dots, |u_n|)$. Remember that Π_O is the syntactical strict symmetric monoidal functor $\Pi_{T_\tau(O)} \rightarrow \Pi_O$ extending the injection $(x_1, u) \mapsto u$. The meaning of $\rho_1 \equiv \rho_2$ is again that ρ_1 and ρ_2 define the same permutation in every symmetric monoidal category \mathcal{C} having the object structure \mathcal{O} .

3.3. Strict permutation symbols

On the ground of strict monoidal categories the form of permutation symbols becomes considerably simpler. Since the \otimes -tree structure need not be indicated, the objects of the category Π_O are simply finite sequences (strings) of object variables. Accordingly, a strict \mathcal{O} -permutation symbol is a pair (u, χ) , where u is a string of object variables having length n and χ is a permutation $n \rightarrow n$. In the presence of a monoid \mathcal{O} over O , the empty string as an object term is identified with I .

For notational convenience we shall use a few instances of the symbols 1_u and $c_{u,v}$ in the non-strict setting as if they were strict, i.e., as if the object terms u, v were strings and not trees. This can be done safely if the length of u and v is not more than 2, and I does not occur on the leaves of these trees. For example, 1_A , 1_{AB} , and $c_{A,AB}$ will do as p-symbols

$$\begin{aligned} (x_1, A) &\rightarrow (x_1, A), \\ (\otimes(x_1, x_2), (A, B)) &\rightarrow (\otimes(x_1, x_2), (A, B)), \text{ and} \\ (\otimes(x_1, \otimes(x_2, x_3)), (A, A, B)) &\rightarrow (\otimes(\otimes(x_1, x_2), x_3), (A, B, A)), \end{aligned}$$

respectively, but 1_{ABC} is already ambiguous as a non-strict identity. Taking this idea one step further, an object $u = (t, \alpha)$ of Π_O can be represented by a string of pairs

$$(A_1, p_1) \dots (A_n, p_n),$$

where each A_i is either an object variable or an occurrence of the symbol I (which is not supposed to be present in O). The second component p_i of (A_i, p_i) is the *path identifier*

for leaf A_i in the tree u as a string of 1's and 2's. (E.g., $1 \dots 1$ identifies the leftmost leaf, and $2 \dots 2$ the rightmost one.) See Fig. 3. The set of all such paths in u will be denoted by $path(u)$, and $obj_u(p)$ will refer to the object variable (or I) sitting at leaf p of u . Path p is called *variable* if it points to an object variable, and *constant* if $obj_u(p) = I$. Then every p-symbol $p(t_1, t_2, \alpha, \chi) : u_1 \rightarrow u_2$ can be written in a unique way as a “quasi”-strict p-symbol

$$(A_1, p_1) \dots (A_n, p_n) \rightarrow (B_1, q_1) \dots (B_m, q_m),$$

where p_i and q_j are appropriate paths in $path(u_1)$ and $path(u_2)$. In this way of writing the permutation χ indeed appears as one in the corresponding strict permutation symbol between the yields of u_1 and u_2 . See again Fig. 3. We shall need this representation of p-symbols in Section 5.

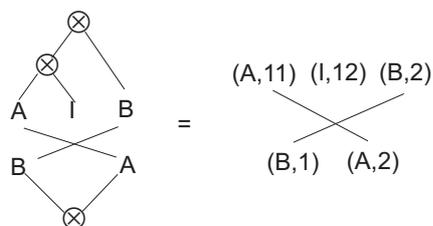


Fig. 3. Quasi-strict representation of p-symbols.

4. Indexed monoidal algebras

In this section we introduce the category **IMA** of indexed monoidal algebras along the lines of the report (Bartha and Jürgensen 1989), and establish an equivalence between the categories **IMA** and **SDCC**. From this point on, throughout the paper, by a monoidal category we mean a symmetric one.

Beyond the idea of indexing, the concept of indexed monoidal algebras is also very closely related to that of enriched categories (Kelly 1982). For an illustration we are going to recapture our example SDCC category (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) as an enriched one. An *enriched category* has a *base* monoidal category \mathcal{C} , in our case the category (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) itself, from which the morphisms are adopted. Independently, there is a class R of objects, in our example, sets. To each pair (A, B) of objects in R one must assign a so called *hom-object* $\mathcal{A}(A, B)$ of \mathcal{C} . We choose $\mathcal{A}(A, B) = A \times B$. Then one needs to specify a *composition law* $M = M_{A,B,C} : \mathcal{A}(A, B) \otimes \mathcal{A}(B, C) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(A, C)$ as a collection of morphisms in \mathcal{C} . This choice is fairly straightforward in our case as a relation $(A \times B) \times (B \times C) \rightarrow (A \times C)$. The *identity element* $j_A : I \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(A, A)$ is of course the identity relation on A . These data are subject to the conditions specified in (Kelly 1982), which conditions are trivially satisfied in our example. It follows that $\mathcal{C} = (\mathbf{Rel}, \times)$ can be recaptured as the *underlying category* of the \mathcal{C} -enriched category \mathcal{A} defined in the above way. By definition, the underlying category has R as objects, and as morphisms $A \rightarrow B$ the morphisms $f : I \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(A, B)$ in \mathcal{C} . Observe that the idea is to eventually assign a collection of morphisms with each pair

of objects (A, B) , but this is done in an implicit way through the hom-functor $Hom(I, -)$ of the category \mathcal{C} . In our example this is exactly the covariant powerset functor, which is perfectly in line with the indexing idea presented in the previous section.

Of course the above way of recapturing an SDCC category \mathcal{C} is trivial, not hiding \mathcal{C} itself at all. Therefore we only adopt the idea of assigning a class of “uni”-morphisms to each object (i.e., the set $\mathcal{P}(A)$ to object A). The base category is dropped, and the composition law is replaced by the direct algebraic operations tensor and trace on morphisms. With the help of the indexing mechanism facilitated by the permutation symbols, these two operations will accomplish the same goal as the composition law in the base category. See also (Bartha and Jürgensen 1989), where the composition law itself was captured by a general binary operation composition on morphisms.

4.1. The definition of indexed monoidal algebras

Formally, an *indexed monoidal algebra* (IMA, for short) consists of a class O of *objects* A, B, C, \dots , a class M of *morphisms* f, g, h, \dots , and an operation *rank*, which assigns to each morphism f an object A . We write $f : A$ to indicate the rank of f . There is also a distinguished unit object I and a binary operation \otimes (tensor) on objects, determining a τ -algebra $\mathcal{O} = (O, \otimes, I)$. As an early indication to the category structure in mind, by $f : A \rightarrow B$ we mean a morphism $f : A \otimes B$ for each pair A, B of objects. The symbol \otimes has become heavily overloaded by now. For this reason we shall use \circledast for \otimes in permutation symbols. Accordingly, composition of p-symbols will be denoted by \bullet . Keep in mind, however, that e.g. the symmetry O -permutation symbol $c_{A,B} : \circledast(A, B) \rightarrow \circledast(B, A)$ is an \mathcal{O} -permutation symbol $A \otimes B \Rightarrow B \otimes A$ semantically.

With respect to M , the following operations are imposed.

- For each \mathcal{O} -permutation symbol $\rho : A \Rightarrow B$ a unary operation ρ , which assigns to each morphism $f : A$ a morphism $f \cdot \rho : B$.
- A binary operation tensor, which assigns to each pair of morphisms $f : A$ and $g : B$ a morphism $f \otimes g : A \otimes B$.
- A unary operation trace, which assigns to each morphism $f : (A \otimes A) \otimes B$ a morphism $\uparrow_{A,B} f : B$.
- For each object A a constant $\mathbf{1}_A : A \otimes A$.

Let us agree that we write $\uparrow_A f$ for $\uparrow_{A,B} f$ whenever B is understood. Notice the boldface notation $\mathbf{1}_A : A \rightarrow A$ as opposed to $1_u : u \rightarrow u$ for permutation symbols.

We shall use two more “categorical” operations, which are already derived from the above basic ones.

- A binary operation composition, which assigns to each pair of morphisms $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ the morphism

$$f \circ_{A,B,C} g = \uparrow_B ((f \otimes g) \cdot (a_1 \bullet (c_{A,BB} \circledast 1_C) \bullet a_2)) : A \rightarrow C, \text{ where}$$

$$a_1 : (A \otimes B) \otimes (B \otimes C) \rightarrow (A \otimes (B \otimes B)) \otimes C,$$

$$a_2 : ((B \otimes B) \otimes A) \otimes C \rightarrow (B \otimes B) \otimes (A \otimes C)$$

are the obvious α -symbols. Observe that the prefix tree notation would actually be accurate for \otimes , but the infix one is easier to read in the present context. See Fig. 4a.

— A binary operation (general) tensor, assigning to each pair of morphisms $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : C \rightarrow D$, the morphism

$$f \otimes_{A,B,C,D} g = (f \otimes g) \cdot (a_1 \bullet ((1_A \otimes c_{B,C}) \otimes 1_D) \bullet a_2) : (A \otimes C) \otimes (B \otimes D),$$

$$\text{where}$$

$$a_1 : (A \otimes B) \otimes (C \otimes D) \rightarrow (A \otimes (B \otimes C)) \otimes D,$$

$$a_2 : (A \otimes (C \otimes B)) \otimes D \rightarrow (A \otimes C) \otimes (B \otimes D).$$

See Fig. 4b. Again, let us agree that, ambiguous as it is, we shall not indicate the indices in \circ and \otimes unless it is absolutely necessary. Clearly, the basic operation \otimes is intended to be the instance $\otimes_{I,A,I,B}$ of the general one. Observe that the above definition of composition and tensor is in line with the traced monoidal category axioms. Regarding composition, see also (Bartha 1987a, Identity X3). As we shall point out in Theorem 4.1 below, our trace operation models the canonical trace concept in SDCC categories.

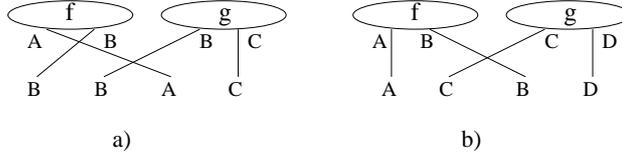


Fig. 4. Composition (a) and tensor (b) in \mathcal{M} .

The above operations are subject to the following equational axioms.

I1. *Functoriality of indexing*

$$f \cdot (\rho_1 \bullet \rho_2) = (f \cdot \rho_1) \cdot \rho_2 \text{ for } f : A \text{ and composable } \rho_1 : A \Rightarrow B, \rho_2 : B \Rightarrow C;$$

$$f \cdot 1_A = f \text{ for } f : A.$$

I2. *Naturality of indexing*

$$(f \otimes g) \cdot (\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2) = f \cdot \rho_1 \otimes g \cdot \rho_2 \text{ for } f : A, g : B, \rho_1 : A \Rightarrow C, \rho_2 : B \Rightarrow D;$$

$$(\downarrow_A f) \cdot \rho = \downarrow_A (f \cdot (1_{AA} \otimes \rho)) \text{ for } f : (A \otimes A) \otimes B, \rho : B \Rightarrow C.$$

I3. *Coherence*

$$f \cdot \rho_1 = f \cdot \rho_2 \text{ for } f : A, \text{ whenever } \rho_1 \equiv \rho_2.$$

I4. *Associativity and symmetry of tensor*

$$((f \otimes g) \otimes h) \cdot a_{A,B,C} = f \otimes (g \otimes h) \text{ for } f : A, g : B, h : C;$$

$$f \otimes g = (g \otimes f) \cdot c_{B,A} \text{ for } f : A, g : B.$$

I5. *Right identity (yanking)*

$$f \circ 1_B = f \text{ for } f : A \rightarrow B.$$

I6. *Symmetry of identity*

$$1_A \cdot c_{A,A} = 1_A.$$

I7. *Vanishing*

$$\downarrow_I f = f \cdot a \text{ for } f : (I \otimes I) \otimes A,$$

where $a : (I \otimes I) \otimes A \rightarrow A$;

$$\downarrow_{A \otimes B} (f \cdot a) = \downarrow_B (\downarrow_A f \cdot ((1_A \otimes (c_{B,A} \otimes 1_{BC})) \bullet a')) \text{ for } f : A \otimes ((B \otimes A) \otimes (B \otimes C)),$$

where $a : A \otimes ((B \otimes A) \otimes (B \otimes C)) \rightarrow ((A \otimes B) \otimes (A \otimes B)) \otimes C$,

and $a' : A \otimes ((A \otimes B) \otimes (B \otimes C)) \rightarrow (A \otimes A) \otimes ((B \otimes B) \otimes C)$.

I8. *Superposing*

$$\downarrow_A ((f \otimes g) \cdot a) = \downarrow_A f \otimes g \text{ for } f : (A \otimes A) \otimes B, g : C,$$

where $a : ((A \otimes A) \otimes B) \otimes C \rightarrow (A \otimes A) \otimes (B \otimes C)$.

I9. *Trace swapping*

$$\downarrow_B (\downarrow_A (f \cdot a)) = \downarrow_A (\downarrow_B (f \cdot ((c_{AA,BB} \otimes 1_C) \bullet a')) \text{ for } f : ((A \otimes A) \otimes (B \otimes B)) \otimes C,$$

where $a : ((A \otimes A) \otimes (B \otimes B)) \otimes C \rightarrow (A \otimes A) \otimes ((B \otimes B) \otimes C)$,

and $a' : ((B \otimes B) \otimes (A \otimes A)) \otimes C \rightarrow (B \otimes B) \otimes ((A \otimes A) \otimes C)$.

The collection of axioms I1, ..., I9 will be denoted by IM .

Let $\mathcal{M} = (O, M)$ and $\mathcal{M}' = (O', M')$ be indexed monoidal algebras. An *indexed monoidal homomorphism* $h : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}'$ maps each object A in O to an object hA in O' and each morphism $f : A$ in M to a morphism $hf : hA$ in M' , so that h defines a τ -algebra homomorphism $\mathcal{O} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}'$ between the object structures. Furthermore, the following homomorphism conditions are met by the morphisms.

- (i) $h(f \cdot \rho) = (hf) \cdot h\rho$;
- (ii) $h(f \otimes g) = hf \otimes hg$;
- (iii) $h(\downarrow_U f) = \downarrow_{hU} hf$;
- (iv) $h\mathbf{1}_A = \mathbf{1}_{hA}$.

Notice that the symbol h has three different meanings in (i)–(iv) above: hA , hf , and $h\rho$. In $h\rho$, h stands for the unique strict monoidal functor $\Pi_{\mathcal{O}} \rightarrow \Pi_{\mathcal{O}'}$ determined by h on objects. The category **IMA** consists of all indexed monoidal algebras as objects and indexed monoidal homomorphisms as morphisms.

We now introduce our second motivating example, the single-sorted indexed monoidal algebra of open undirected graphs.

Example 4.1. An *open graph* (Bartha and Kr3sz 2003) is an undirected multigraph (Lov3sz and Plummer 1986) with some of its vertices distinguished and labeled, each with a different label. In the present discussion we assume that the distinguished vertices have degree 1. We call these vertices, as well as the edges incident with them, *external*. If the number of external vertices in a concrete graph G is n , then we use the numbers in $[n]$ to label them. Graph G is then of rank n , that is, $G : n$. Two open graphs are *isomorphic* if they are such as ordinary graphs by an isomorphism that preserves the labeling of the external vertices.

Clearly, the algebra \mathcal{O} in this example is the monoid $(N, +, 0)$, which is isomorphic to

$\{1\}^*$. Thus, the example is single-sorted and strict. The operations are interpreted on morphisms (open graphs) in the following way.

— For a graph $G : n$ and permutation symbol $\rho : n \Rightarrow n$, $G \cdot \rho$ is the graph obtained from G by relabeling its external vertices according to the ordinary permutation $n \rightarrow n$ determined by ρ in the strict single-sorted monoidal category of permutations. This permutation is the unique maximal refinement of ρ , which exists in the single-sorted setting.

— For graphs $G : n$ and $H : m$, $G \otimes H : n + m$ is the disjoint union of G and H with the labels of H 's external vertices incremented by n .

— For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the graph $\mathbf{1}_n : n + n$ consists of n edges connecting external vertex i with $n + i$ for each $i \in [n]$.

— For a graph $G : n + n + m$, $\downarrow_n G$ is constructed from G by gluing together the pairs of external edges ending in external vertices i and $n + i$ for each $i \in [n]$, discarding the vertices i and $n + i$ themselves. As part of this procedure, whenever a number of external edges are glued together in a cycle with no intercepting internal vertices, a new isolated vertex is added to the graph. Finally, the label of each remaining external vertex is decremented by $2n$. See Fig. 5 for the implementation of \downarrow_3 on a graph $G : 3 + 3 + 1$.

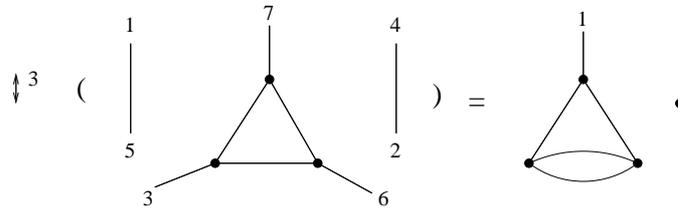


Fig. 5. Taking the trace of a graph.

The algebra of open graphs defined in this way is denoted by \mathcal{G} . The reader can easily verify that \mathcal{G} is an IMA. The algebra of relations described in Section 2 is also indexed monoidal over sets as objects and pairs of sets (A, R) as morphisms such that $R \subseteq A$. Clearly, the rank of (A, R) is A .

4.2. Equivalence of the categories IMA and SDCC

The two examples discussed in the previous subsection served as models for the definition of indexed monoidal algebras. The graph example reflects a “coproduct” philosophy regarding the tensor \otimes , whereas in the relation example tensor is clearly product-oriented. In neither of these examples will, however, tensor become coproduct or product in the corresponding SDCC category.

Theorem 4.1. The categories **IMA** and **SDCC** are equivalent.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{M} = (O, M)$ be an IMA, and define the monoidal category $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{SM}$ over the objects O as follows. Morphisms $A \rightarrow B$ and identities in \mathcal{C} are exactly those

in \mathcal{M} , while composition and tensor are adopted from \mathcal{M} as derived operations. For a morphism $f : C \rightarrow D$ and objects A, B such that $C = A \otimes B$, one may want to use the distinction $f_{A,B} : A \otimes B \rightarrow D$ to keep different hom-sets disjoint. We shall return to this foundational issue shortly. Symmetries $c_{A,B} : A \otimes B \rightarrow B \otimes A$ in \mathcal{C} are the morphisms $\mathbf{1}_{A \otimes B} \cdot (1_{AB} \otimes c_{A,B})$. In general, every permutation symbol $\rho : |u| \rightarrow |v|$ is represented in \mathcal{SM} as $\mathbf{1}_{|u|} \cdot (1_u \otimes \rho) : |u| \rightarrow |v|$. For each self-adjunction $A \dashv A$, the unit map $d_A : I \rightarrow A \otimes A$ and the counit map $e_A : A \otimes A \rightarrow I$ are $\mathbf{1}_A \cdot l^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{1}_A \cdot r^{-1}$, respectively, where l and r are the appropriate left and right unitors.

It is essentially routine to check that \mathcal{SM} is an SDCC category. Some of the details, however, require a careful organization. We start out with a few immediate consequences of the axioms *IM*.

J1. *Symmetry of trace*

$$\uparrow_A f = \uparrow_A (f \cdot (c_{A,A} \otimes 1_B)) \text{ for } f : (A \otimes A) \otimes B.$$

See Fig. 6.

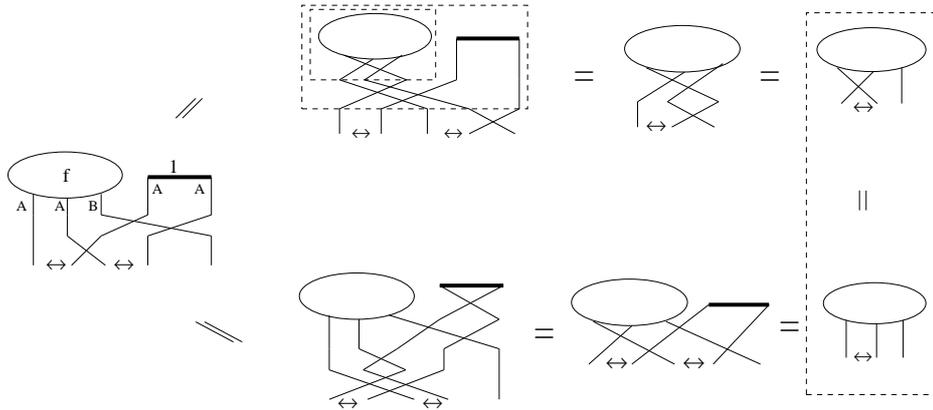


Fig. 6. Symmetry of trace.

J2. *Canonical trace*

$$\uparrow_A f = ((\mathbf{1}_A \cdot l^{-1}) \circ_{I, (A \otimes A), B} f) \cdot l' \text{ for } f : (A \otimes A) \otimes B,$$

where l and l' are appropriate left unitors.

See Fig. 7. Notice that in the diagrams of Figures 6 and 7 we rely heavily on axiom I3 (coherence), taking refinements of permutation symbols whenever this becomes necessary. For technical simplicity we work in the strict monoidal setting in these diagrams. The reader can easily fill in the parentheses and the corresponding association symbols to make these diagrams work in the non-strict case.

J3. *Left identity*

$$\mathbf{1}_A \circ f = f \text{ for } f : A \rightarrow B.$$

See Fig. 8. Note that the symmetry of trace and that of $\mathbf{1}_A$ have both been used in the

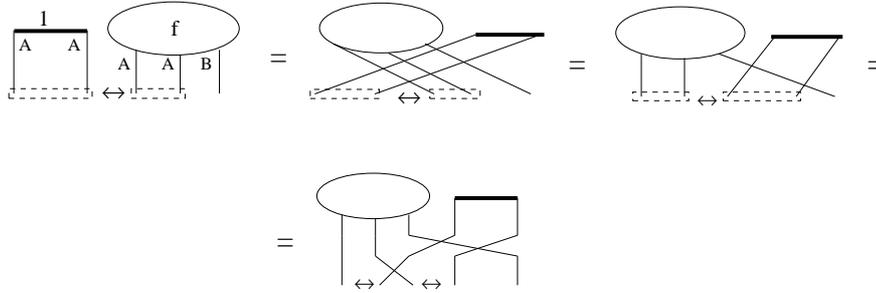


Fig. 7. Canonical trace. Continue on Fig. 6 bottom.

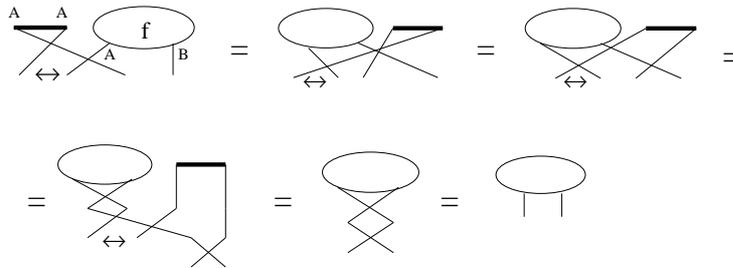


Fig. 8. Left identity.

proof.

J4. Tensor of identity

$$\mathbf{1}_{A \otimes B} = \mathbf{1}_A \otimes_{A,A,B,B} \mathbf{1}_B$$

See Fig. 9, and take $f = \mathbf{1}_{A \otimes B}$.

With regard to the category \mathcal{C} , the monoidal axioms follow trivially from I1, ..., I6, J3, and J4. Proving the unit and counit property of d_A and e_A is equally easy. See e.g. Fig. 10 for the first equation in Definition 2.2. In the understanding of this diagram, the reader should follow the guiding principle that whenever either endpoint of an instance of $\mathbf{1}_A$ is involved in the trace operation \downarrow_A , that instance can be eliminated from the diagram by “yanking”. This rule is a direct consequence of axioms I5, I6, and J3 in the light of the indexing mechanism. The definition of functor \mathcal{S} on (homo-)morphisms is evident, and left to the reader.

Conversely, let \mathcal{C} be an SDCC category having the object structure \mathcal{O} . Define the IMA

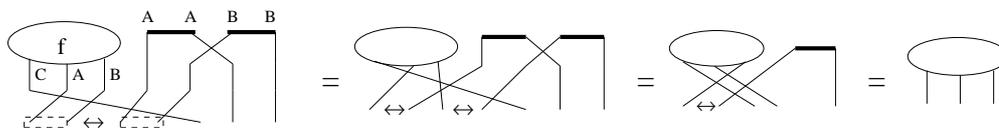


Fig. 9. Tensor of identity.

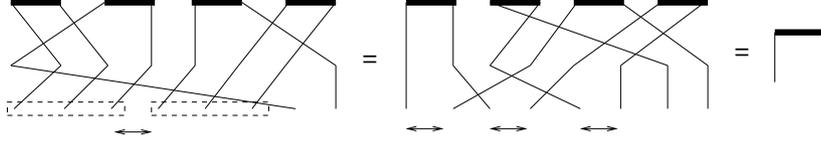


Fig. 10. Proving \mathcal{SM} compact closed.

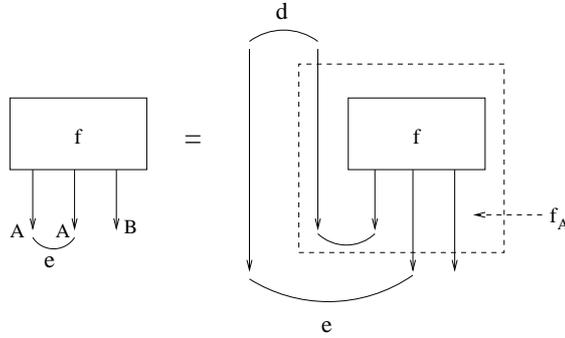


Fig. 11. Canonical trace again, cf. Fig. 2.

$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{IC}$ as follows. For each object A , the morphisms of rank A are those in $\mathcal{C}(I, A)$. Since \mathcal{C} is symmetric, every permutation symbol $\rho : A \Rightarrow B$ determines a permutation $\rho_{\mathcal{C}} : A \rightarrow B$ in \mathcal{C} . Then, for $f : A$, define $f \cdot \rho = f \circ_{\mathcal{C}} \rho_{\mathcal{C}}$. Observe that indexing indeed becomes the restriction of the covariant hom-functor to permutations, as intended. For $f : A$ and $g : B$ in \mathcal{M} , let

$$f \otimes_{\mathcal{M}} g = l^{-1} \circ (f \otimes_{\mathcal{C}} g) : I \rightarrow A \otimes B,$$

where l is the unitor $I \otimes I \rightarrow I$. As to the identities, let $\mathbf{1}_A = d_A : I \rightarrow A \otimes A$. For $f : (A \otimes A) \otimes B$, $\downarrow_A f$ is defined as the canonical trace of the morphism $f_A : A \otimes I \rightarrow A \otimes B$ in \mathcal{C} that corresponds to $f \circ a_{A,A,B}$ according to compact closure. That is, $\downarrow_A f$ is the morphism

$$f \circ (e_A \otimes 1_B) = (d_A \otimes 1_I) \circ a_1 \circ (1_A \otimes f_A) \circ a_2 \circ (e_A \otimes 1_B) : I \rightarrow B$$

in \mathcal{C} with the associators a_1 and a_2 as appropriate. See Fig. 11.

In the light of this translation, each of the equations in IM is either a standard monoidal category axiom or has been observed in (Joyal *et al.* 1996; Kelly and Laplaza 1980) for traced monoidal or compact closed categories. Thus, \mathcal{M} is an IMA. The definition of functor \mathcal{I} on morphisms (strict monoidal functors) is again straightforward.

By definition, $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{SM}) \cong \mathcal{M}$ via indexing by an appropriate unitor. On the other hand, the only difference between the SDCC categories \mathcal{C} and $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{IC})$ is that the hom-sets $A \rightarrow B$ in the latter are identified with the ones $I \rightarrow A \otimes B$ of the former, using the natural isomorphisms given by the self-adjunctions $A \dashv A$. In other words, morphisms $A \rightarrow B$ in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{IC})$ – as provided for by compact closure – are simply renamed as they appear in

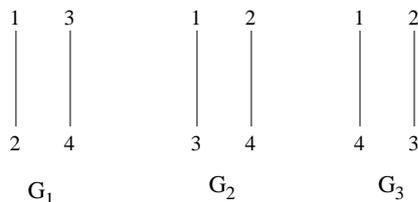


Fig. 12. Three simple graphs.

$\mathcal{C}(I, A \otimes B)$. Thus, there exists a natural isomorphism between the functors $1_{\mathbf{SDCC}}$ and \mathcal{SI} , so that the categories \mathbf{IMA} and \mathbf{SDCC} are equivalent as stated. \square

Example 4.2. There are exactly three non-isomorphic open graphs: G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 of rank 4 in \mathcal{G} which consist of external vertices only. These graphs are given in Fig. 12. Clearly, $G_1 = \mathbf{1}_1 \oplus \mathbf{1}_1$ and $G_2 = \mathbf{1}_1 \otimes \mathbf{1}_1 = \mathbf{1}_2$. Graph G_3 is simplest to put as $c_{1,1} : 2 \rightarrow 2$ in the SDCC category \mathcal{SG} . Along these lines it is instructive to find simple terms for each graph as morphisms $i \rightarrow j$ ($i + j = 4$) in \mathcal{SG} . For example, $G_1 = e_1 \otimes d_1 : 2 \rightarrow 2$, $G_2 = (1_1 \otimes d_1) \circ (c_{1,1} \otimes 1_1) : 1 \rightarrow 3$, and $G_3 = 1_1 \otimes e_1 : 3 \rightarrow 1$.

Example 4.2 illustrates the difficulty in interpreting SDCC-terms as open graphs and vice versa. The graphical language (Joyal and Street 1991; Selinger 2009) for CC categories clarifies this translation procedure to some extent, but the root of the problem is that the monoidal category language assumes (explicitly or implicitly) that hom-sets are pairwise disjoint. According to Mac Lane (Mac Lane 1971), however, this is not a necessary requirement if one uses the hom-set-based definition of categories. The domain and codomain of a concrete morphism f are only fixed by the standard definition of categories. Consider, for example, the CC category $\mathit{Int}(\mathcal{C})$ freely generated by a traced monoidal category \mathcal{C} as described in (Joyal *et al.* 1996). This category has as objects pairs (A, B) of objects in \mathcal{C} . Morphisms $(A, B) \rightarrow (C, D)$ in $\mathit{Int}(\mathcal{C})$ are the ones $A \otimes D \rightarrow C \otimes B$ in \mathcal{C} . Clearly, hom-sets will overlap in $\mathit{Int}(\mathcal{C})$, unless one separates them by force. The very same idea manifests itself in indexed monoidal algebras, reflecting the philosophy that morphisms are fixed, while their domain and codomain may vary, depending on what hom-sets we want to put them in. It is only the rank of a morphism that is uniquely determined. This is the major difference between our graphical language, which is universal for IMA's, and the one described in (Joyal and Street 1991; Selinger 2009) for CC categories as symmetric autonomous categories.

A further remark on traced monoidal categories is also in order at this point, which will explain the Int construction, too, through an intuitive argument. Consider the traced monoidal category $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$ of open *directed* graphs (flowcharts) as described in (Bartha 1987a). In this category, a morphism $n \rightarrow m$ is an open graph G with $n + m$ external vertices such that each edge is directed in G . Accordingly, the external vertices are labeled by either b_i , $i \in [n]$ (begin vertices) if their out-degree is 1, or by ex_j , $j \in [m]$ (exit vertices) if their in-degree is one. As it was proved in (Bartha 1987a), $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$ is freely generated by the directed star graphs (boxes) $n \rightarrow m$ as a traced monoidal category. Since \mathcal{SG} is also traced with the canonical trace, the mapping that takes each directed star graph

$\vec{K}_{n,m} : n \rightarrow m$ to the undirected star graph $K_{n+m} : n + m$ (as a morphism $n \rightarrow m$ in \mathcal{SG}) can be extended in a unique way to a traced monoidal functor U . Clearly, $G_2 = U1_2$ and $G_3 = Uc_{1,1}$. There is, however, no morphism in $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$ that is mapped to G_1 by U . It is therefore misleading to say, at least in the categorical context, that \mathcal{G} is obtained from $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$ by “forgetting” the direction of the edges in graphs.

Let us revise the above argument in the context of the *Int* construction. For each star graph $\vec{K}_{n,m} : n \rightarrow m$, divide the n in-degrees of the center vertex into n_1 “real” in-degrees and m_2 “dual” out-degrees, so that $n_1 + m_2 = n$. Symmetrically, divide the m out-degrees into m_1 real out-degrees and n_2 dual in-degrees. Correspondingly, distinguish between real and dual begin/exit vertices as appropriate, and say that $\vec{K}_{n,m}$ is a morphism $(n_1, n_2) \rightarrow (m_1, m_2)$ in the arising category $Int(\vec{\mathcal{G}})$ is just a morphism $n_1 + m_2 \rightarrow m_1 + n_2$ in $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$. When composing graphs in $Int(\vec{\mathcal{G}})$, one will always connect real out-degrees with real in-degrees and dual in-degrees with dual out-degrees simultaneously. Observe that this philosophy requires composition in $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$ on the real side and trace (feedback) on the dual side. See (Joyal *et al.* 1996) for the details.

It follows from the general result in (Joyal *et al.* 1996) that $Int(\vec{\mathcal{G}})$ is a CC category, in which the dual of each object (n, m) is (m, n) . Moreover, $Int(\vec{\mathcal{G}})$ is freely generated by $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$. Regarding our SDCC category \mathcal{SG} , it can be recaptured from $Int(\vec{\mathcal{G}})$ by taking the sub- (symmetric) monoidal category generated by the star graphs $\vec{K}_{k,k}$ ($k \geq 1$) considered as morphisms $(n, n) \rightarrow (m, m)$ with $k = n + m$. Clearly, this subcategory stays within the scope of self-dual objects (n, n) , $n \in N$, and it is isomorphic to \mathcal{SG} . Heuristically speaking, the *Int* construction suggests that \mathcal{G} is obtained from $\vec{\mathcal{G}}$ by making the edges in directed graphs *bidirectional*. This seemingly trivial observation has far-reaching consequences in computer science with respect to the reversibility of computations. For example, the bus connection between the processor and the memory in a von Neumann computer is bidirectional. The interconnections between tape cells in a Turing machine are bidirectional. We shall elaborate further on this point in Sections 6 and 7.

5. Coherence in indexed monoidal algebras

In general, a coherence result for some type μ of monoidal categories is about establishing a left adjoint for a forgetful functor F from the category of μ -monoidal categories into an appropriate syntactical category, and providing a graphical characterization of the free monoidal μ -categories so obtained. For some typical examples, see (Mac Lane 1971; Kelly and Laplaza 1980; Selinger 2009; Bartha 1987a; Bartha 1987b). We have also presented two such results in Section 3 by constructing the monoidal categories Λ_O and Π_O . In this section we present a more substantial coherence theorem for SDCC categories, but phrase it in terms of indexed monoidal algebras. The graphical language arising from this result will justify our efforts in the previous section to reconsider SDCC categories in the given algebraic context.

Our way of choosing the forgetful functor F differs from the method followed in (Kelly and Laplaza 1980), where the category structure was still preserved. We go one step further in forgetting, and preserve only the alphabet structure of morphisms. For a class

O of object variables, a *ranked alphabet* (signature) $\Sigma = (O, M)$ consists of a class M of *morphism variables* and a mapping $M \rightarrow T_\tau(O)$ called *rank*. Again, by writing $f : u$ we indicate the rank of f . Recall that $T_\tau(O)$ is the class of object terms over O . An *alphabet mapping* between ranked alphabets $\Sigma = (O, M)$ and $\Delta = (O', M')$ is a mapping ϕ , which assigns to each object variable A in O an object variable ϕA and to each morphism variable $f : u$ in M a morphism variable $\phi f : \phi u$ in M' . Remember that ϕ also stands for the unique strict monoidal functor $\Pi_O \rightarrow \Pi_{O'}$ determined by ϕ . We say that an alphabet mapping *preserves the rank* of morphism variables.

Observe that our perception of a ranked alphabet is completely in line with the concept of monoidal signatures found in (Joyal and Street 1991). By definition, a *monoidal signature* consists of a set Σ_0 of *object variables*, a set Σ_1 of *morphism variables*, and a pair of functions $dom, cod : \Sigma_1 \rightarrow Mon(\Sigma_0)$, where $Mon(\Sigma_0)$ is the set of *object terms* over Σ_0 . Object terms in our sense are exactly the same as those in Σ_0 , and our morphism variables are “one half” of the morphism variables in Σ_1 .

Every IMA $\mathcal{M} = (O, M)$ can trivially be considered as a ranked alphabet $\Sigma = \mathcal{AM}$ in which the object variables are O and the morphism variables with rank u are simply the morphisms in M of rank $|u|$. We use a subscript to distinguish between instances of morphism f belonging to different ranks as morphism variables. If $h : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}'$ is a homomorphism, then $\mathcal{A}h : \mathcal{AM} \rightarrow \mathcal{AM}'$ is the alphabet mapping ϕ by which $\phi A = hA$ and $\phi f_u = (hf)_{hu}$ for every morphism $f : |u|$ in \mathcal{M} . Our aim is to provide a left adjoint for the functor \mathcal{A} . In algebraic terms this amounts to constructing the IMA freely generated by Σ .

Let $\Sigma = (O, M)$ be a ranked alphabet, fixed for the rest of this section. First we augment Σ by the following morphism variables.

- For each object term u , a symbol $H_u : u$.
- For each object variable A , a symbol $\perp_A : I$.

These symbols must not originally be present in Σ . Let Σ_H denote the augmented alphabet. The IMA $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ freely generated by Σ has as objects $T_\tau(O)$ (i.e., object terms over O), and as morphisms Σ -graphs defined below. The τ -algebraic structure on objects is the free one.

By a Σ -*graph* we mean a finite undirected and labeled multigraph $G = (V, E, \ell)$ with vertices V , edges E , and vertex labeling ℓ . For each vertex v , the label $\ell(v)$ of v is a morphism variable in Σ_H . Exactly one vertex, called the *host*, is labeled by the symbol H_u for some object term u , which term identifies the rank of G as a morphism in the prospective IMA $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$.

Intuitively, G is a network of satellite machines of some sort, which are interconnected with each other and the host as indicated by the edges in E . It is required that the label of each vertex v be consistent with its degree $d(v)$, so that $d(v) = l(\ell(v))$. If $\ell(v) = u$, then v has a so called *port* associated with each path $p \in path(u)$. (Recall the definition of paths from Section 3.3.) Port p is variable/constant if p is such as a path. Each variable port of vertex v identifies the point at which a unique edge impinges on v . To be meticulously precise about the term “impinges on”, v is in fact a coherent group of port vertices, each of which is labeled by a port identifier (i.e., path p). In addition, the whole group of ports

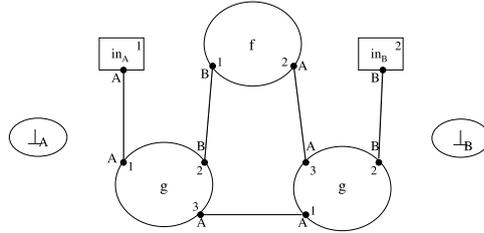


Fig. 13. A Σ -graph.

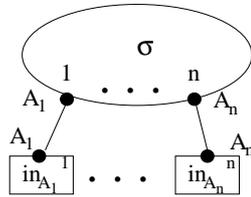


Fig. 14. An atomic Σ -graph

is labeled by $\ell(v)$. Edges, too, must be consistent with the labeling in the sense that, for each edge connecting two different ports p_1 and p_2 belonging to vertices labeled by morphism variables of rank u_1 and u_2 , respectively, $obj_{u_1}(p_1) = obj_{u_2}(p_2)$.

See Fig. 13 for an example Σ -graph $G : AB$ in the strict setting, where the morphism variables f and g have ranks BA and ABA , respectively. The host itself is invisible in the figure, only its ports are indicated as separate boxes, which we call channels or *interfaces*. All other vertices, as well as the edges connecting them, are called *internal*. Vertices labeled \perp_A are the *loop* vertices in G . Note that the idea of using a host vertex originates from (Leiserson 1983).

Morphism variables in Σ are represented as *atomic* Σ -graphs (star graphs) in the way depicted by Fig. 14. An *isomorphism* between Σ -graphs $G, G' : u$ is a graph isomorphism that preserves the labeling information of the vertices. We shall not distinguish between isomorphic graphs. The indexed monoidal algebra operations are defined on Σ -graphs as follows.

— For a graph $G : u$, each $T_\tau(O)$ -permutation symbol $\rho : u \Rightarrow u'$ is interpreted as the relabeling of the interfaces (i.e., ports of the host) according to the O -permutation symbol $\Pi_O\rho$. Technically, this amounts to changing the label of the host together with the paths associated with the variable ports of the host, and the possible deletion/introduction of

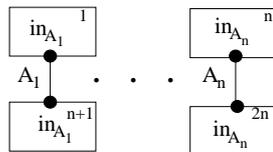


Fig. 15. The identity graph

constant ports within that vertex. See again Fig. 3.

— For graphs $G_1 : u_1$ and $G_2 : u_2$, $G_1 \otimes G_2$ is obtained by taking the disjoint union of the subgraphs of G_1 and G_2 induced by their internal vertices, joining the two hosts into one labeled by $H_{u_1 \otimes u_2}$, adjusting the port labels of the new host in the obvious way, and connecting these ports to the respective ports in the internal copies of G_1 and G_2 in the way these edges exist in G_1 and G_2 separately.

— The identity graph $\mathbf{1}_u : u \otimes u$ is shown in Fig. 15 in the strict setting, whereby u is the string $A_1 \dots A_n$. For a non-strict example, the graph $\mathbf{1}_I$ has the host as its sole vertex, which has two constant ports. In general, port $1w$ is connected to port $2w$ within the host, whenever these ports are variable.

— For a graph $G : (u \otimes u) \otimes v$ with $l(u) = n$, the trace operation \uparrow_u is defined by gluing together each edge ending at interface labeled $11w$ with the edge ending at interface labeled $12w$ for all existing variable paths w in the tree u , after detaching these edges from the host. (The first 1 in $11w$ and $12w$ points to the left at the root of the tree $\otimes(\otimes(u, u), v)$.) Whenever this procedure results in a loop of an even number of edges (but no intercepting internal vertices) glued together, a new loop vertex labeled by \perp_A is created and added to the graph, where A is the common object variable associated with the interfaces involved in the loop. (That is, $A = \text{obj}_{(u \otimes u) \otimes v}(p_i)$, where p_i is any of the ports/paths involved.) Finally, the label of the host is changed to H_v and the port labels are adjusted accordingly.

See again Fig. 5 and (Bartha and Jürgensen 1989) for single-sorted examples. See also (Elgot 1975; Bloom and Ésik 1985; Bartha 1987a; Bartha 1987b) for the corresponding standard definition of feedback/iteration in (directed) flowcharts. Interestingly, in all of these works, graphs (flowcharts) are equipped with a single loop vertex, so that loops do not multiply when taking the feedback. On the other hand, the loop vertex is present in the graph $\mathbf{1}_I$ as well. Regarding the single-sorted case this amounts to imposing the additional axiom $\uparrow \mathbf{1}_1 = \mathbf{1}_0$ (rather, its directed version, e.g. (Bartha 1987a, Axiom S5: $\uparrow 1 = 0$)), which is not a standard traced monoidal category axiom. From the point of view of axiomatization this is a minor issue. Another issue, namely the assignment of an *individual monoid* to each object A is, however, extremely important and interesting. In terms of flowcharts, this allows one to erase begin vertices and join two incoming edges at any given port. See e.g. the constants $0_1 : 0 \rightarrow 1$ and $\epsilon : 2 \rightarrow 1$ in (Bartha 1987a; Bartha 1987b). In (Joyal and Street 1991), these morphisms are called the *co-unit* and the *diagonal*, respectively. MacLane (Mac Lane 1971) calls them η and μ . According to (Selinger 2009) these are the erase and copy maps. These constants (morphisms) were naturally incorporated in the axiomatization of schemes, both flowchart and synchronous. Concerning undirected graphs, the presence of such morphisms with a “circularly symmetric” interface (e.g., a fan into three equivalent directions for the diagonal $2 \rightarrow 1$) allows for an upgrade of ordinary edges to hyperedges, exactly the way it is described in (Milner 2009) for bigraphs. The axiomatization of undirected hypergraphs as indexed monoidal algebras will be presented in a forthcoming paper.

It is easy to check that the above interpretation of the indexed monoidal operations

on $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ satisfies the axioms IM . Technically, $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ is the multi-sorted, non-strict, and labeled counterpart of the trivial IMA \mathcal{G} . Thus, $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ is an IMA. It is also clear that $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ is generated by Σ , that is, by the collection of the atomic Σ -graphs. (See again Fig. 14.) Indeed, every undirected graph can be reconstructed from its vertices as star graphs by adding internal edges one by one using the trace operation. Our goal is to show that $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ is freely generated by Σ . In the proof we are going to follow the standard algebraic technique of working in the totally free algebra of well-formed Σ -terms in order to take the quotient of this algebra determined by the given set IM of identities. Observe that the axioms IM are indeed identities, for each permutation symbol is an individual unary operation in our framework.

Compared to the simple-looking graphical language for CC categories described in (Selinger 2009), our concept of Σ -graph appears to be unduly meticulous. We believe it is not. The distinction of ports and their labeling is necessary in order to clearly indicate the flow of information in the graph, even in the strict case. Yet, a graph must remain a graph in the standard combinatorial sense. Consider, for example, the two diagrams in Fig. 16, both representing the identity morphism 1_{A^*} in Selinger’s graphical language. Note that Selinger labels the edges by object variables, rather than distinguishing ports and labeling those. The graphical language itself originates from (Joyal and Street 1991), where the geometric aspects of such graphs are better explained. Selinger’s coherence statement (Selinger 2009, Theorem 4.33) for CC categories says:

“A well-formed equation between morphisms in the language of CC categories follows from the axioms of CC categories iff it holds, up to isomorphism of diagrams, in the graphical language.”

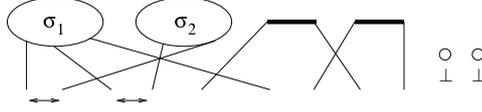
The isomorphism of the diagrams of Fig. 16 as “graphs” is far from being obvious. This



Fig. 16. Two diagrams for 1_{A^*} .

leads to an ambiguity in the understanding of the coherence statement regarding the direction and labeling of the arrows in diagrams, which is not easy to clarify. For this reason we do not rely on Selinger’s graphical language for CC categories in our coherence statement. Another reason is that our concern is with indexed monoidal algebras and not with SDCC categories in the first instance.

The structure $T(\Sigma) = (T(\Sigma)_u | u \in T_\tau(O))$ of *well-formed indexed monoidal Σ -terms* (Σ -terms, for short) is the algebra (not IMA) freely generated from the morphism variables in Σ using the indexed monoidal operations and constants. Thus, $T(\Sigma)$ is a totally syntactical many-sorted term algebra in which the operations remain uninterpreted. Interpreting a Σ -term t in the algebra $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ results in a Σ -graph $|t|$. Our goal is to show that an equation $t = t'$ in $T(\Sigma)$ is provable from the axioms IM iff $|t| = |t'|$. The proof of this statement will revisit the normal form construction in (Bartha 1987a) by adjusting it to the present undirected environment in a straightforward manner. Part of this work has already been done in (Bartha and Jürgensen 1989). Without essential loss of generality we restrict the proof to the strict single-sorted case. Working under this assumption, the

Fig. 17. Normal form of Σ -terms.

subscript 1 in $\mathbf{1}_1$, \uparrow_1 , and $\perp_1 = \uparrow_1 \mathbf{1}_1$ will be understood and omitted. The notation \uparrow^l stands for the l -fold application of \uparrow . The alphabet Σ collapses into an ordinary ranked alphabet $(\Sigma_n \mid n \in N)$.

Definition 5.1. (See (Bartha 1987a, Definition 5)) A Σ -term $t : n$ (that is, $t \in T(\Sigma)_n$) is in *normal form* (n.f., for short) if

$$t = \uparrow^l (((\otimes_{i=1}^p \sigma_i) \otimes (\otimes_{j=1}^q \mathbf{1})) \cdot \rho) \otimes (\otimes_{k=1}^r \perp)$$

for some $l, p, q, r \in N$, $\sigma_i \in \Sigma_{m_i}$, and permutation (symbol) ρ such that:

- 1 $n = m + 2q - 2l$, where $m = \sum_i m_i$, and
- 2 $\rho : m + 2q \rightarrow m + 2q$ is *l -straight* in the sense that:
 - (a) for each $j \in [q]$, $2l < \rho(m + 2j - 1) < \rho(m + 2j)$; furthermore $\rho(m + 2j - 1) < \rho(m + 2j + 1)$, provided that $j < q$, and
 - (b) for each $i \in [l]$, $\rho^{-1}(2i - 1) < \rho^{-1}(2i)$; furthermore $\rho^{-1}(2i - 1) < \rho^{-1}(2i + 1)$, provided that $i < l$.

See Fig. 17 in the case $l = p = q = r = 2$, $\sigma_1 : 3$, and $\sigma_2 : 2$.

The intuitive meaning of Definition 5.1 should be clear. The only “ugly” technical issue is the l -straight property of ρ , which is intended to resolve the ambiguity caused by the symmetry of $\mathbf{1}$ (condition 2(a)) and that of trace (condition 2(b)). Obviously, no occurrence of $\mathbf{1}$ is allowed to be involved in the trace operation, which condition is also ensured by the first inequality of 2(a).

Now we prove the undirected counterpart of (Bartha 1987a, Lemma 6).

Lemma 5.1. For every Σ -term $t : n$ there exists a Σ -term t' in n.f. such that $t = t'$ is provable from *IM*.

Proof. First we show that t can be transformed into a term t'' of the form

$$t'' = \uparrow^l (((\otimes_{i=1}^m a_i) \cdot \rho),$$

where for each $i \in [m]$, $a_i \in \Sigma$ or $a_i = \mathbf{1}$. Such a term is said to be in *weak normal form*. The proof of this statement uses a simple induction on the structure of t . The reader can find the details of this argument in (Bartha 1987a, Lemma 5). Obtaining a n.f. t' from a weak n.f. t'' then reduces to an easy exercise. One must rearrange the terms a_i in a proper order using the symmetry of \otimes , eliminate occurrences of $\mathbf{1}$ that are involved in the trace operation by yanking, and adjust ρ to be l -straight relying on the symmetry of $\mathbf{1}$ and that of trace. \square

Theorem 5.2. (See (Bartha 1987a, Theorem 1)) Let t and t' be Σ -terms such that $|t| = |t'|$. Then the equation $t = t'$ is provable from *IM*.

Proof. By Lemma 5.1 we can assume that t and t' are in n.f. The normal form of Σ -terms was defined in such a way that the only difference between t and t' may appear in the order of the atomic Σ -terms occurring in $\otimes_{i=1}^m \sigma_i$. Discrepancies of this nature can, however, be eliminated by the symmetry of \otimes and the indexing mechanism. \square

Corollary 5.3. The algebra $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ is freely generated by Σ .

Proof. Immediate by Theorem 5.2. \square

Let us return to the discussion following Example 4.2 to extend the remark made there in connection with the *Int* construction. On the basis of that discussion one can characterize the algebra $\mathcal{G}(\Sigma)$ as the IMA corresponding to an appropriate subcategory \mathcal{C} of the CC category $\text{Int}(\text{Sch}(\bar{\Sigma}))$, where $\text{Sch}(\bar{\Sigma})$ is the traced monoidal category of $\bar{\Sigma}$ -flowchart schemes described in (Bartha 1987a) over the doubly ranked alphabet $\bar{\Sigma}$ in which $\bar{\sigma} \in \bar{\Sigma}_{n,n}$ iff $\sigma \in \Sigma_n$. Unfortunately, one cannot use this characterization directly to prove Corollary 5.3. Indeed, let \mathcal{M} be an arbitrary (single-sorted) IMA. Then, due to the universality of the *Int* construction and that of $\text{Sch}(\bar{\Sigma})$ as a traced monoidal category, there is a unique strict monoidal functor from the CC category $\text{Int}(\text{Sch}(\bar{\Sigma}))$ to \mathcal{M} extending any given rank-preserving mapping of $\bar{\Sigma}$ into \mathcal{M} . The problem is, however, that the ports of the atomic Σ -graphs have been duplicated, so that the image of a morphism (bidirectional flowchart) \vec{G} from the subcategory \mathcal{C} will also be a \otimes -duplicated version of the morphism f_G in \mathcal{M} that we intend to produce as the image of the corresponding undirected graph G . Since there is no way to retrieve f_G from $f_G \otimes f_G$, the method will eventually fail. This fallacy indicates that the construction of the SDCC category freely generated by an arbitrary traced monoidal category is not a simple matter, even with the *Int* construction in hand.

Definition 5.2. Let \mathcal{M} be an arbitrary indexed monoidal algebra. An *interpretation* of Σ in \mathcal{M} is an alphabet mapping $\Omega : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathcal{AM}$.

By Corollary 5.3, every interpretation Ω can be extended in a unique way to a homomorphism $\Omega : \mathcal{G}(\Sigma) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$. Thus, \mathcal{G} is indeed a left adjoint for the functor \mathcal{A} .

6. Turing automata and Turing graph machines

As an important example of indexed monoidal algebras, in this section we introduce the algebra of Turing automata and Turing graph machines. We shall use the monoidal category $(\mathbf{Bset}, +)$ (sets and bijections with disjoint union as tensor) as the hypothetical index category. For a set A , let $A_\star = A + \{\star\}$, where \star is a fixed symbol, called the *anchor*.

Definition 6.1. A *Turing automaton* (TA, for short) $T : A$ is a triple (A, Q, δ) , where A is a set of *interfaces*, Q is a nonempty set of *states*, and $\delta \subseteq (Q \times A_\star)^2$ is the *transition relation*.

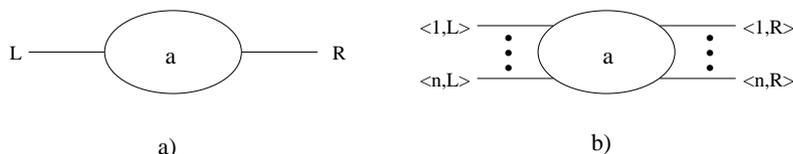


Fig. 18. One tape cell in a Turing machine.

Two automata (A, Q, δ) and (A, Q', δ') are called *isomorphic* if there exists a bijection $\chi : Q \rightarrow Q'$ such that

$$(\chi \times id_{A_\star}) \circ \delta' = \delta \circ (\chi \times id_{A_\star}).$$

Following (Katis *et al.* 2002), we shall be dealing with isomorphism classes of Turing automata, while working practically with representatives.

Due to the discrete nature of the semantics involved we shall assume that the cardinality of the sets A and Q is at most countably infinite. The role of the anchor as a distinguished interface will be explained later. The transition relation δ can either be considered as a function $Q \times A_\star \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times A_\star)$ or as a function $Q \times (A_\star \times A_\star) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$, giving rise to a Mealy or Medvedev type automaton, respectively. We shall favor the latter interpretation, and call $\Theta_A = A_\star \times A_\star$ the *input alphabet* for T . Then, as it is customary in automata theory, the extension of δ to input strings in Θ_A will be denoted by δ , too.

By the standard definition, T is *deterministic* if δ is a partial function in the chosen Medvedev sense. In contrast, T is *strongly deterministic* if δ is a partial function in the Mealy way. Despite the Medvedev style formalism we still say that T has a transition from a to b in state q , resulting in state r , if $((q, a), (r, b)) \in \delta$ (that is, $r \in \delta(q, (a, b))$). According to this philosophy, if A is finite and $|A| = n$, then δ is an $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$ matrix, where each entry is a relation over Q . By way of duality, one can also consider T as an automaton with states A_\star and inputs $Q \times Q$. We shall reflect on this duality shortly.

Example 6.1. In Fig. 18a, consider the primitive model of one tape cell in a Turing machine (TM, for short) M holding a symbol a . If M has tape alphabet Γ and states $\{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$, then we represent this cell by the TA $C = (A + A, Q, \delta)$, where $A = [n]$, $Q = \Gamma$, and δ is essentially the transition relation of M . See Fig. 18b. Recall that the transition relation of M specifies one move of M as a 5-tuple (s_i, a, s_j, b, D) , where $a, b \in \Gamma$ and D is a direction, i.e., L or R . Spelling this out, if M is in state s_i and its tape head is scanning a cell that holds symbol a , then M changes its state to s_j , rewrites the symbol a to b , and its tape head moves into direction D . Our interpretation δ of one move also takes into account the direction where the tape head is coming from, but this is a trivial issue not affecting the computational power of Turing machines. (Indeed, one might consider states (s_i, L) and (s_i, R) in a variant of M .) The main point of this analogy is the duality that states of M are viewed as interfaces (inputs) of C , whereas tape symbols (inputs) of M are in fact states of C . To avoid confusion, we shall sometimes refer to states of M as *global states* and to tape symbols as *local states*.

According to the automaton C there are no transitions to or from the anchor \star . In order to start the computation from somewhere, however, one must also consider an extension C_0 of C in which there are such transitions as well. The cell C_0 will have a unique instance in the middle of the two-way infinite array of cells representing M .

We now turn to defining the indexed monoidal algebra \mathcal{T} of Turing automata. In this algebra, morphisms are Turing automata $T : A$. A set-permutation symbol $\rho : A \Rightarrow B$ is interpreted as the relabeling of the interfaces according to the unique bijection $A \rightarrow B$ determined by ρ in **Bset**. (Elaboration of details regarding the transition relation is left to the reader.) Clearly, every bijection $\chi : A \rightarrow B$ can be interpreted as a relabeling of any TA $T : A$. It is therefore natural and inviting to write $T \cdot \chi : B$ for the automaton so obtained. Even though not all bijections χ in **Bset** are permutations, χ is still a trivial one-state TA $A \rightarrow B$ (i.e., $\chi : A + B$). Thus, $T \circ \chi$ is going to be meaningful in the algebra \mathcal{T} , and its meaning will be identical to $T \cdot \chi$ whenever χ is a permutation.

The tensor of $T : A$ and $T' : B$ having states Q and Q' , respectively, is the automaton $T \otimes T' = (A + B, Q \times Q', \delta \otimes \delta')$, where $\delta \otimes \delta' \subseteq ((Q \times Q') \times (A + B)_\star)^2$ is defined by

$$((q, q'), x), ((r, r'), y) \in \delta \otimes \delta'$$

iff either $q' = r'$ and $((q, x), (r, y)) \in \delta$, or $q = r$ and $((q', x), (r', y)) \in \delta'$. Notice the ambiguity in writing just x, y rather than $\langle x, A \rangle, \langle y, A \rangle$ or $\langle x, B \rangle, \langle y, B \rangle$. The definition, however, applies to the case $x = \star$ and/or $y = \star$, too, so that taking the tensor of T and T' amounts to a selective performance of δ or δ' on $Q \times Q'$. By the same token, self-transitions of \star according to $T \otimes T'$ are the “union” of such transitions in T and T' (i.e., either one by T or one by T' nondeterministically on the product state space, always leaving the other component unchanged).

The operation \otimes can be naturally generalized to an infinite number of operands, provided that we lift the declared requirement on the cardinality of the set of states, or make the additional requirement that only a finite number of operand automata have more than a single state. Let $\{T_i : A_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a family of Turing automata for some finite or countably infinite set I . Then $\otimes_{i \in I} T_i : \sum_{i \in I} A_i$ is the automaton having states $\times_{i \in I} Q_i$ such that its transition function $\otimes_{i \in I} \delta_i$ is the selective performance of one of the δ_i 's on $\times_{i \in I} Q_i$ in the above sense.

The identity Turing automaton $\mathbf{1}_A : A + A$ has a single state in which there is a transition from $\langle a, 1 \rangle$ to $\langle a, 2 \rangle$ and back for every $a \in A$. There are no transitions to or from the anchor.

The definition of $\uparrow_A T$ for a TA $T : (A + A) + B$ is complicated but natural, and it holds the key to understanding the TM-like behavior of this automaton. Intuitively, the definition models the behavior of loops in flowchart algorithms (Elgot 1975) when implemented in an undirected environment. That is, control enters $\uparrow_A T$ at an interface $b \in B$, then, after alternating between corresponding interfaces in $A + A$ any number of times, it leaves at another (or the same) interface $b' \in B$. State changes are traced interactively during this process.

Formally, let $u = p_1 \dots p_n \in \Theta_{(A+A)+B}^*$ be a non-empty input string for T , where $p_i = (x_i, y_i)$, $n \geq 1$. The string u is called *A-alternating* from x_1 to y_n ($u : x_1 \rightarrow y_n$, for

short) if for every $i \in [n - 1]$ there exist $a_i \in A$ and $j \in \{1, 2\}$ such that

$$y_i = \langle a_i, j \rangle \text{ and } x_{i+1} = \langle a_i, 2 - j \rangle.$$

Then, for every state $q \in Q$ and input $p = (b_1, b_2)$, the transition function $\hat{\delta}$ of $\downarrow_A T$ is defined by

$$\hat{\delta}(q, p) = \cup(\delta(q, u) | u : b_1 \rightarrow b_2 \text{ is } A\text{-alternating}).$$

The specification of $\hat{\delta}$ in terms of matrices is yet more elegant. Let us assume that A and B are both finite, containing n and m elements, respectively. Write the square matrix $\delta : 2n + m + 1 \times 2n + m + 1$ in the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & L_{12} \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{pmatrix},$$

where $L_{11} : 2n \times 2n$, $L_{12} : 2n \times m + 1$, $L_{21} : m + 1 \times 2n$, and $L_{22} : m + 1 \times m + 1$. Then

$$\hat{\delta} = L_{22} + L_{21} \odot L_{11}^{\otimes} \odot L_{12}. \quad (1)$$

In the underlying semiring $R = \mathcal{P}(Q \times Q)$, addition (+) is \cup and multiplication (\cdot) is composition of relations. The symbol \odot denotes alternating matrix product, so that for any two matrices $V_1, V_2 : n \times -$

$$U \odot \begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{pmatrix} = U \cdot \begin{pmatrix} V_2 \\ V_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The operation \otimes is alternating Kleene star in the following sense. For a $2n \times 2n$ square matrix U :

$$U^{\otimes} = \sum_{n \geq 0} U^n,$$

where U^0 is the alternate identity matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_n \\ I_n & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

and $U^{i+1} = U^i \odot U$.

It is easy to see that the two definitions of $\hat{\delta}$ coincide. The matrix L_{11}^{\otimes} captures sequences of transitions alternating between corresponding interfaces in $A + A$. The Kleene formula (1) for $\hat{\delta}$ is then self-explanatory.

The classical Kleene formula is one of the earliest findings in automata theory. In its original form it was introduced by Kleene (Kleene 1956) in the construction to convert a finite automaton to a regular expression. The emergence of this formula in the present context is quite natural. We are dealing with graph semantics as purely sequential computations, and Kleene derived exactly the same kind of semantics from the transition graph (directed, though) of a finite automaton in the form of a regular language (expression).

The reader familiar with iteration theories (Bloom and Ésik 1993) will immediately notice that our \otimes is the undirected counterpart of the star operation in matrix iteration theories. See also the example (**Rel**, +) in Section 6 of (Joyal *et al.* 1996), which originates from (Bloom and Ésik 1993), too. The star operation is also used in Girard's (Girard 1989) original formulation of the Geometry of Interaction; the execution formula, in particular.

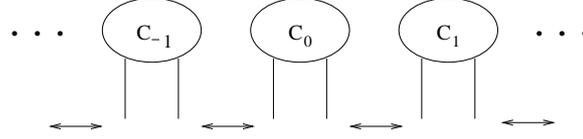


Fig. 19. A TM as a TA.

On the one hand, the connection between matrix iteration theories and Turing automata is not surprising, since the model of the star operation was also Kleene star for regular sets. On the other hand, even if we define Turing automata as directed computational devices by distinguishing between input and output interfaces and requiring that control follows a strict input-output direction, the resulting traced monoidal category will not be an algebraic theory, and therefore not a matrix iteration theory. The reason is the different tensor, which complements the cascade product of automata as composition. We shall return to this argument in Section 7.

Example 6.2. Consider the TA $C = ([n] + [n], \Gamma, \delta)$ described in Example 6.1 as one tape cell of a TM M . Construct the TA

$$C^\infty = \otimes_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} C_k : \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} ([n] + [n]),$$

where \mathbb{Z} is the set of integers and $C_k = C$ whenever $k \neq 0$. The automaton C_0 is an extension of C by appropriate transitions involving the anchor. Finally, define

$$T = \uparrow_{\mathbb{Z}} (C^\infty \cdot \rho) : \emptyset, \quad (2)$$

where ρ is the composite of the restructuring bijection

$$\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} ([n] + [n]) \rightarrow \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} [n] + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} [n]$$

and the left L -shift $\langle \langle i, j \rangle, L \rangle \mapsto \langle \langle i, j - 1 \rangle, L \rangle$, $\langle \langle i, j \rangle, R \rangle \mapsto \langle \langle i, j \rangle, R \rangle$. See Fig. 19.

The automaton T could be viewed as a model of the whole TM M as a TA. In T , the anchor has taken over the role of an initial global state, and final states in M have been replaced by the requirement that all meaningful computations must return to the anchor. The presence of final states in the definition of Turing machines is specific to these machines being used as language acceptors. With this exclusive goal in mind, every TA derived from a TM can trivially be made deterministic by our Medvedev-style definition. Indeed, whenever the automaton wants to accept (or reject), it will simply erase (blank out) each tape cell before exiting, so rendering the computation automatically deterministic. This will always be feasible, since there were only a finite number of non-blank tape cells (the string to be processed) at the beginning of the computation. Non-halting computations do not matter, for they are not transitions of the TA. A classical deterministic TM, in our language, is derived from a single-tape-cell TA C that is *strongly* deterministic. Obviously, only the strong deterministic property is closed under the indexed monoidal operations, which explains this anomaly.

There is one caveat, however, in the description of the automaton T in Example 6.2. It has a continuum number of states. Therefore T cannot be a faithful representation of the TM M . In order to overcome this problem one must adopt a denotational semantics philosophy and consider a sequence T_l , $l \geq 1$ of *approximations* of T in which, for every $|m| \geq l$, $C_m : [n] \rightarrow [n]$ is the trivial one-state TA having no transitions at all. Intuitively, the single state of this empty automaton is the blank, and whenever control reaches C_m , the machine will crash. Then the “good” TA that we have in mind is the colimit of the TA T_l according to the following vertical structure in \mathcal{T} . For automata $T = (A, Q, \delta)$, $T' = (A, Q', \delta')$, and relation $\phi : Q \rightarrow Q'$, we write $\phi : T \rightarrow T'$ if ϕ is a *homomorphism* of monoidal automata (Bartha 2009), that is,

$$(\phi \times id_{A_*}) \circ \delta' = \delta \circ (\phi \times id_{A_*}).$$

Observe that, by definition, isomorphism of automata follows exactly this vertical structure as a category. Clearly, there are straightforward injective homomorphisms $\phi_l : T_l \rightarrow T_{l+1}$ (remember that the blank is present in Γ), and the colimit of the sequence ϕ_l exists as a TA T_∞ having a countably infinite number of states. It is this automaton T_∞ that models the TM M in a faithful manner.

On the analogy of our example SDCC category (\mathbf{Rel}, \times) , the vertical categories \mathcal{T}_A of Turing automata of rank A , too, are SDCC categories. Hence they are indexed monoidal algebras. We have thus “discovered” the concept of 2-indexed monoidal algebras, which are the algebraic counterparts of 2-SDCC categories. We shall elaborate on this issue in a separate paper. For now we only observe that the algebra \mathcal{T} has much more structure than what we could exhibit in this introductory paper.

The formula (2) above suggests that it is often convenient to express the operation trace in terms of a one-to-one correspondence between two arbitrary disjoint subsets of interfaces. Let $T : D$ be a TA, A, A' be disjoint equivalent subsets of D with a specified bijection $\chi : A \rightarrow A'$, and $B = D \setminus (A \cup A')$. Then $\downarrow_\chi T$ is the TA $\uparrow_A T \cdot \rho_\chi$, where $\rho_\chi : D \rightarrow A + A + B$ is the bijection determined by χ in the obvious way. The reader can easily verify that \downarrow_χ is compatible with relabeling, that is, if $\omega : A \rightarrow C$, $\omega' : A' \rightarrow C'$, and $\psi : C \rightarrow C'$ are bijections for some disjoint sets C, C' also disjoint from B such that $\omega \circ \psi = \chi \circ \omega'$, then

$$\downarrow_\chi T = \downarrow_\psi T \cdot (\omega \cup \omega' \cup id_B).$$

In particular, $\downarrow_\chi T = \downarrow_{\chi^{-1}} T$. In this manner, the concept χ -alternating input string for T is the obvious generalization of the original A -alternating one.

Lemma 6.1. Let $T = (A \cup A' \cup B, Q, \delta)$ be a TA, and $\chi : A \rightarrow A'$ be a one-to-one correspondence as above. For every $b_1, b_2 \in B$ and $q_1, q_2 \in Q$,

$$((q_1, b_1), (q_2, b_2)) \in \delta_\chi \quad \text{iff} \quad ((q_1, b_1), (q_2, b_2)) \in \delta_{\bar{\chi}},$$

for a restriction $\bar{\chi}$ of χ to a finite subset of A , where δ_χ and $\delta_{\bar{\chi}}$ are the transition relations of $\downarrow_\chi T$ and $\downarrow_{\bar{\chi}} T$, respectively.

Proof. Evident by the definition of trace in \mathcal{T} , which describes a finite process. \square

In terms of Turing machines, Lemma 6.1 expresses the trivial fact that each concrete halting run of a TM affects a finite number of tape cells only.

Lemma 6.2. Let $T = (A \cup A' \cup B, Q, \delta)$ be a TA and $\chi : A \rightarrow A'$ be a one-to-one correspondence as in Lemma 6.1. Furthermore, assume that $A = A_1 \cup A_2$, $A' = A'_1 \cup A'_2$ such that $A_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$ and $\chi(A_i) = A'_i$. Then

$$\downarrow_{\chi} T = \downarrow_{\chi_2} (\downarrow_{\chi_1} T)$$

for the restrictions $\chi_i : A_i \rightarrow A'_i$ of χ to A_i .

Proof. Let δ_{χ} , δ_{χ_1} , and δ_{χ_2/χ_1} denote the transition functions of $\downarrow_{\chi} T$, $\downarrow_{\chi_1} T$, and $\downarrow_{\chi_2} (\downarrow_{\chi_1} T)$, respectively. By definition,

$$\delta_{\chi_2/\chi_1} \subseteq \delta_{\chi},$$

therefore we need only prove that for every state $q \in Q$ and input $(b_1, b_2) \in \Theta_B$,

$$\delta_{\chi}(q, (b_1, b_2)) \subseteq \delta_{\chi_2/\chi_1}(q, (b_1, b_2)).$$

By Lemma 6.1 we can assume that A is finite. Then, using an appropriate induction argument, we can also assume that $A_2 = \{a\}$ is a singleton.

Denote $a' = \chi(a)$, and let $u = p_1 \dots p_n$ be a χ -alternating input string for T from b_1 to b_2 with $p_i = (x_i, y_i)$. Isolate those indices $i_j \in [n]$, $j \in [m]$ for which $y_{i_j} = a$ or $y_{i_j} = a'$, and concentrate on the substrings $u_j = p_{i_{j+1}} \dots p_{i_j}$, $j \in [m-1]$, together with the prefix $u_0 = p_0 \dots p_{i_1}$ and the suffix $u_m = p_{i_{m+1}} \dots p_n$. Clearly, each $u_j : \bar{x}_j \rightarrow \bar{y}_j$, $0 \leq j \leq m$ is a χ_1 -alternating input string for T , where

$$\bar{x}_j = \begin{cases} b_1 & \text{if } j = 0 \\ x_{i_{j+1}} & \text{if } j \geq 1, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{y}_j = \begin{cases} b_2 & \text{if } j = m \\ y_{i_{j+1}} & \text{if } j < m. \end{cases}$$

Similarly, the string $\bar{u} = (\bar{x}_0, \bar{y}_0) \dots (\bar{x}_m, \bar{y}_m)$ is χ_2 -alternating for $\downarrow_{\chi_1} T$ from b_1 to b_2 .

Now let $q' \in \delta_{\chi}(q, (b_1, b_2))$. By definition there exists a χ -alternating input string $u = p_1 \dots p_n$ for T from b_1 to b_2 such that $q' \in \delta(q, u)$. Let u be as above. Breaking this string down to the substrings u_0, \dots, u_m , there exist states $q = q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{m+1} = q'$ for which $q_j \in \delta(q_{j-1}, u_{j-1})$, $j \in [m+1]$. Again by definition, this implies

$$q_j \in \delta_{\chi_1}(q_{j-1}, (\bar{x}_{i-1}, \bar{y}_{i-1}))$$

for each $j \in [m+1]$, therefore $q' \in \delta_{\chi_2/\chi_1}(q, (b_1, b_2))$. \square

Theorem 6.3. The algebra \mathcal{T} of Turing automata is indexed monoidal.

Proof. At this point we can capitalize to a great extent on the simplicity of the axioms in IM . Indeed, each of these axioms, except for vanishing (I7) and trace swapping (I9), holds naturally true in \mathcal{T} . These two axioms, however, follow immediately from Lemma 6.2. Observe that, analogously to the circuit model in (Katis *et al.* 2002), superposing (I8) holds up to isomorphism of automata only, which is why we had to work with isomorphism classes of automata in the algebra \mathcal{T} . \square

Finally, we explain the role of the anchor \star . We did not want all Turing automata of rank $I = \emptyset$ to have no transitions at all, like the automata $\perp_A = \downarrow_A \mathbf{1}_A$, which all

coincide, having a unique state. (Consequently, the canonically traced monoidal category \mathcal{ST} of Turing automata also satisfies the additional “scheme” axiom $\uparrow_A 1_A = 1_I$, which is quite natural.) The anchor is a fixed interface that is not supposed to be interconnected with any other, so that automata of rank I might still have transitions from \star to \star .

Now let us return to the traced monoidal category $\mathcal{B} = (\mathbf{Rel}, +)$ analyzed in Section 6 of (Joyal *et al.* 1996). Observe that the Kleene formula (1) in its non-alternating form defines trace in that category, too. This is evident, because the restriction of \mathcal{B} to finite sets is equivalent to the matrix iteration theory of bit matrices. The CC category $Int(\mathcal{B})$ has been characterized in technical terms in (Joyal *et al.* 1996). Now we can show the intuitive meaning of that structure, too. Indeed, it is not difficult to see that the restriction of $Int(\mathcal{B})$ to its self-dual objects (A, A) is isomorphic to the subcategory of \mathcal{ST} consisting of single-state Turing automata with no transitions to or from the anchor. We shall be yet more explicit about this observation in Section 7.

The idea of working with a multiplicative and an additive tensor (i.e., \times and $+$) at the same time leads directly to the model of quantum Turing automata. The underlying category in this model is changed from sets and relations to finite dimensional Hilbert spaces with linear maps between them. The additive tensor is orthogonal sum, while the multiplicative one is tensor product of Hilbert spaces. Linear maps, however, must be confined to *unitary* ones in order to make the additive style trace operation work. Quantum Turing automata have been introduced along these lines in (Bartha 2011). In this paper we present a simpler, but still interesting model, which targets electronic switching at the molecular level. This model has been studied for over a decade now on the grounds of matching theory by the name soliton automaton, cf. (Bartha and Kréz 2010).

Example 6.3. The n -ary atomic switch is the Turing automaton $\mathcal{A}_n : [n]$ ($n \geq 1$) having states $[n]$, so that

$$\delta = \{((\mathbf{i}, j), (\mathbf{j}, i)) \mid 1 \leq i \neq j \leq n\} \cup \{((\mathbf{i}, i), (\mathbf{j}, j)) \mid 1 \leq i \neq j \leq n\} \\ \cup \{((\mathbf{i}, *), (\mathbf{i}, j)), ((\mathbf{i}, j), (\mathbf{i}, *)), ((\mathbf{i}, *), (\mathbf{i}, *)) \mid i, j \in [n]\}.$$

For better readability, states, indicating a selected edge in an n -star graph, are written in boldface. In addition, if $n = 1$, then $((\mathbf{1}, 1), (\mathbf{1}, 1)) \in \delta$.

Heuristically, the n -ary atomic switch captures the behavior of an atom in a molecule having n chemical bonds to neighboring atoms. Among these bonds exactly one is double, and referred to as the *positive* edge in the underlying star graph. The mechanism of switching is then clear by the definition above. The active ingredient (control) in this process is called the *soliton*, which is a form of energy traveling in small packets through chains of alternating single and double bonds within the molecule, causing the affected bonds to be flipped from single to double and vice versa. See (Davidov 1985) for the physico-chemical details, and (Dassow and Jürgensen 1990; Bartha and Kréz 2003; Bartha and Kréz 2006) for the corresponding mathematical model. Note that, by our definition above, whenever the soliton enters an atom with a unique chemical bond (which must be double since $n = 1$), it bounces back immediately, producing no state change.

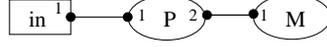


Fig. 20. The von Neumann machine.

Let D be a non-empty set of data such that $|D|$ is at most countably infinite. The indexed monoidal algebra $D\text{-dil}\mathcal{T}$ of $D\text{-flow}$ Turing automata is defined in the following way.

- Morphisms of rank A are Turing automata $T : D \times A$.
- Each permutation symbol $\rho : A \Rightarrow B$ is interpreted as a bijection (relabeling) $D \times A \rightarrow D \times B$, which is basically $\rho_{\mathcal{T}}$ performed on blocks of size D in parallel.
- Tensor is adopted from \mathcal{T} (assuming the identification of $D \times (A + B)$ with $D \times A + D \times B$), $(\downarrow_A T)_{D\text{-dil}\mathcal{T}} = \downarrow_{D \times A} T$, and the identities $\mathbf{1}_A$ are the identities $\mathbf{1}_{D \times A}$ in \mathcal{T} .

The notation $D\text{-dil}$ originates from (Arnold and Dauchet 1978), where the magmoid (single-sorted monoidal category) $k\text{-dil}\mathcal{M}$ was introduced for integer k and magmoid \mathcal{M} along these lines. Intuitively, a $D\text{-flow}$ Turing automaton is a data-flow machine in which data in D are passed along with each transition. Data appear disguised, however, as “cloned” interfaces. In other words, computation remains unary, since technically the control still does not carry information. Notice that the anchor does not emit or receive any data. By virtue of Lemma 6.2 and Theorem 6.3, the structure $D\text{-dil}\mathcal{T}$ of $D\text{-flow}$ Turing automata is an indexed monoidal algebra.

Consider, for example, the scheme N of the classical von Neumann computer in Fig. 20 as a data-flow architecture. It consists of two interconnected single-sorted $D\text{-flow}$ Turing automata: the processor $P : 2$, and the memory $M : 1$. The processor is a real finite state automaton, having state components like registers, the instruction counter, the PSW, etc. The transitions of P are very complex. On the other hand, M has (practically) infinite states, but its transitions are straightforward. The set D consists of all pieces of information (data, control, and/or address) that can be transmitted along the bus line between P and M in either direction. The operation of N need not be explained, and it is clearly that of a $D\text{-flow}$ Turing automaton. It is a very important point, however, that the machine as a TA can do as much as we want in one step, that is, from the time control enters port 1 of P until it leaves at the same port. For example, it can execute one machine instruction stored in the memory, or even a whole program stored there. In other words, semantics is delay-free. In present-day digital computers the desired semantics is achieved by limiting the scope of what the machine can do in one step through introducing clock cycles and delay. Theoretically speaking, undirected trace is turned into directed feedback with delay (or, using an everyday language, recursion is transformed into a loop), and computations become inevitably directed in a rigid way. According to the original scheme N , however, they need not be, yet they could remain universal.

The problem is that we are not able to build up either the processor or the memory as a deterministic Turing graph machine from concrete physical atomic TA. The logical gates and flip-flops used in sequential circuits to build up the processor and the memory

are not Turing automata. According to the resulting common digital architecture, the computer itself is a pair of interconnected Mealy automata, that is, a synchronous system in the sense of (Leiserson 1983). In the characterization of synchronous systems as monoidal automata (Bartha 1987b; Bartha 1992), the underlying monoidal category is (a subcategory of) (\mathbf{Set}, \times) . Tensor of such automata is therefore related to the cartesian product of sets and functions, as opposed to disjoint union of sets and relations according to the Turing automaton model. Composition of automata is cascade product, and feedback is delayed. The monoidal structure of synchronous systems obeys exactly the traced monoidal (alias scheme) axioms, except for yanking, which does not hold in these categories. The trace (feedback) of the symmetry $c_{U,U}$ is the unit delay, or register ∇_U . See Section 7 for further explanation.

Regarding the speed of computation, the impact of introducing a fixed delay is significant. It is well-known in complexity theory that the time complexity of a TM is comparable to that of an equivalent RAM (random access machine, i.e., von Neumann machine) program. The reason is that, even though the processor and the memory are not TA-like, control will only stay for a constant number of clock cycles in these components every time it enters either of them during the execution of a program. In other words, complexity can be measured in the number n of times control passes through the bus, which is a TA-like bidirectional interconnection. We must, however, multiply n by at least the fixed length t of one clock cycle. No matter how small t is nowadays, it is still very large in contrast to the speed by which particles could ideally travel in a delay-free TA-like quantum computer as described in (Bartha 2011).

The soliton automaton model, introduced in Example 6.3 through several continuations, makes an attempt to at least partially solve the problem of implementing electronic switching by Turing automata built up from atomic components.

Example 6.3 (Continued) The n -ary atomic *alternating* switch \mathcal{A}_n^2 augments the ordinary n -ary atomic switch by the passing of a digital information in the following way. Control from a negative interface (i.e., one not covered by the unique positive edge) can only take 0 for input and emits 1 for output. (Remember that in the meantime the positive edge is switched from the output side to the input side.) Conversely, control from a positive interface can only take 1 for input and emits 0 for output. Transitions to and from the anchor are as in the corresponding $2n$ -ary switch.

For the rest of the paper, the alphabet Σ will be single-sorted, that is, $\Sigma = (\Sigma_n \mid n \geq 0)$.

Definition 6.2. A D -flow Turing graph machine over Σ is a triple $M = (G, D, \Omega)$, where G is a Σ -graph, D is a nonempty set (at most countably infinite), and Ω is an interpretation of Σ in \mathcal{T} under which the single sort of Σ is mapped into D . Equivalently, Ω is an interpretation in D -dil \mathcal{T} that maps sort “1” to object $\{1\}$.

Intuitively, machine M comes with an underlying graph G that has a D -flow Turing automaton sitting in each of its internal vertices. The operation of M as a complex Turing automaton is uniquely determined by the given interpretation according to the homomorphism Ω . The classical (bounded) Turing machine concept can again be recaptured by taking $\Sigma = \Sigma_2 = \{c\}$, where c stands for “tape cell”. A Turing machine TM is trans-

formed into a D -flow Turing graph machine M whose underlying graph is a linear array of cell vertices with the following interpretation $T_c : 2$ of c . The states of T_c are the tape symbols (local states) of TM , and, by way of duality, elements of D are the global states of TM . The transition relation of TM translates directly and naturally into that of M , using duality. The only shortcoming of this analogy is the finiteness of the underlying graph G . Notice that it is not possible to specify the TA $\downarrow_Z C^\infty$ in equation (2) as a Turing graph machine, since the graph structure as generated from the ranked alphabet Σ is necessarily finite. To extend the syntax to infinite graphs, one may consider the standard subgraph relationship as a partial order and make it closed for taking limits. Then the well-known denotational technique can be adopted to extend the semantics Ω to infinite graphs. Of course, one is normally interested in infinite graphs of a certain “regular” pattern, which graphs could be generated by appropriate grammars. See e.g. (Bauderon and Courcelle 1987; Engelfriet and Vereijken 1997). Semantics could then be carried over to such grammars in the algebraic way.

Example 6.3 (Continued) Let Σ be the ranked alphabet consisting of a single symbol c_n for each rank $n \geq 1$. A *pre-soliton automaton* is a Turing graph machine

$$S = (G, \{0, 1\}, \Omega),$$

where Ω is the fixed interpretation that sends each symbol c_n into the n -ary atomic alternating switch \mathcal{A}_n^2 . Since the interpretation is fixed, we shall identify each pre-soliton automaton with its underlying graph. Moreover, since \mathcal{A}_n^2 is circularly symmetric, we do not need to order the ports (degrees) of the internal vertices. Thus, G is an ordinary open undirected graph as described in Example 4.1.

Let q be a state of graph G . By definition, each internal edge $e \in E$ is either *consistent* with respect to q , meaning that e has the same sign (positive or negative) viewed from its two internal endpoints, or *inconsistent* if this is not the case. (Notice that a looping edge is always negative if consistent.) A *soliton walk* from interface i to interface j ($i, j \in [n] + \{*\}$) is a transition of G from i to j in state q according to the standard behavior of G as a Turing automaton. The reader can now easily verify that this definition of soliton walks coincides with the original one given in (Dassow and Jürgensen 1990), provided that q is a *perfect internal matching* (Lovász and Plummer 1986; Bartha and Krész 2003) of G . In our language, a perfect internal matching is a state q of G such that every edge of G is consistent with respect to q , and the positive edges determine a matching by which the internal vertices are all covered. Indeed, the definition of \mathcal{A}_n^2 implies that the soliton can only traverse consistent edges in an alternating positive-negative fashion. A new feature of this model is a soliton walk from the anchor, which must return to the anchor if q is a perfect internal matching, and in that case it defines a closed alternating walk (e.g. an alternating cycle).

At this point we stop elaborating on soliton automata, referring the reader to the recent study (Bartha and Krész 2011). The key observation enabling the restriction of the states of pre-soliton automata to perfect internal matchings is the Gallai-Edmonds Structure Theorem (Lovász and Plummer 1986), well-known in matching theory. On the basis of this theorem, the Gallai-Edmonds algebra of graphs having a perfect internal

matching has been worked out in (Bartha and Gombás 1991) as the homomorphic image of the indexed monoidal algebra \mathcal{G} . The IMA of soliton automata then turns out to be an appropriate quotient of the Gallai-Edmonds algebra. The reader can find yet more information on soliton automata in (Krész 2007; Krész 2008).

Finally, we return to our original dilemma of reversible vs. irreversible computations and explicitly define the “reverse” of a Turing automaton $T = (A, Q, \delta)$ simply as $T^R = (A, Q, \delta^{-1})$. This definition makes T actually reversible only if $\delta : A \times Q \rightarrow A \times Q$ is a partial injection. It is known, cf. (Abramsky *et al.* 2002; Lutz and Derby 1982; Bennett 1973) that Turing machines with such a restricted capability still have sufficient power to remain universal. Yet, the effective construction of a reversible universal Turing graph machine poses an enormous challenge. The soliton automaton model described above is an interesting try, but unfortunately it falls short of being universal even in terms of designing individual ad-hoc machines.

7. Related work

The model of Turing automata has grown out of the study of general monoidal automata (Bartha 1992; Bartha 2008; Bartha 2009), also known as circuits (Katis *et al.* 2002). The category structure of circuits comes very close to that of Turing automata, but it is not a traced monoidal category.

According to (Katis *et al.* 2002), a *category with feedback* is a monoidal category \mathcal{C} equipped with a feedback operation $\uparrow_{A,B}^U : \mathcal{C}(U \otimes A, U \otimes B) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(A, B)$, which satisfies all the requirements for $Tr_{A,B}^U$ in Definition 2.1, except for the yanking axiom. Furthermore, sliding holds in a weaker form only, when the morphism $g : U \rightarrow V$ is an isomorphism.

For an arbitrary monoidal category \mathcal{C} a \mathcal{C} -*automaton* $A \rightarrow B$ is a pair (U, α) , where U is an object and $\alpha : U \otimes A \rightarrow U \otimes B$ is a morphism in \mathcal{C} . The pair (U, α) typically models a Mealy automaton, e.g., a sequential circuit. Reflecting this interpretation, the object U is called the *state component*, while α is the *combinational logic* of (U, α) . The collection of \mathcal{C} -automata can be given the structure of a category $Aut_{\mathcal{C}}$ equipped with a tensor as follows. Objects, and tensor of them are as in \mathcal{C} . Furthermore:

$$1_A = (I, 1_A);$$

$$(U, \alpha) \circ (V, \beta) = (U \otimes V, (c_{U,V} \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_V \otimes \alpha) \circ (c_{V,U} \otimes 1_B) \circ (1_U \otimes \beta));$$

$$(U, \alpha) \otimes (V, \beta) = (U \otimes V, (1_U \otimes c_{V,A} + 1_C) \circ (\alpha \otimes \beta) \circ (1_U + c_{B,V} + 1_D)).$$

See Fig. 21. The type of composition depicted in Fig. 21 is commonly known as the *cascade product* of automata. The category \mathcal{C} is embedded into $Aut_{\mathcal{C}}$ by the functor $A \mapsto A, \alpha \mapsto (I, \alpha)$. Feedback is defined in $Aut_{\mathcal{C}}$ as follows:

$$\uparrow_{A,B}^V (U, \alpha) = (U \otimes V, \alpha), \quad \text{where } \alpha : U \otimes (V \otimes A) \rightarrow U \otimes (V \otimes B).$$

Two \mathcal{C} -automata $(U, \alpha), (V, \beta) : A \rightarrow B$ are *isomorphic* if there exists an isomorphism $\gamma : U \rightarrow V$ in \mathcal{C} such that

$$(\gamma \otimes 1_A) \circ \beta = \alpha \circ (\gamma \otimes 1_B).$$

Isomorphism classes of \mathcal{C} -automata are called *circuits*, and $Circ(\mathcal{C})$ is the quotient of

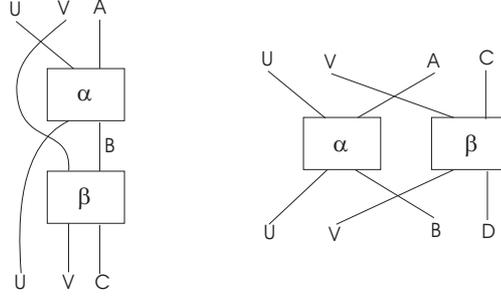


Fig. 21. Composition and tensor in $Aut_{\mathcal{C}}$

$Aut_{\mathcal{C}}$ by this isomorphism. As it was proved in (Katis *et al.* 2002), tensor (of isomorphism classes of \mathcal{C} -automata) makes $Circ(\mathcal{C})$ a monoidal category with the symmetry adopted from M . Moreover, $Circ(\mathcal{C})$ is a category with feedback, freely generated by \mathcal{C} . In our intuitive interpretation, feedback in $Circ(\mathcal{C})$ turns interfaces (input/output channels) into registers (state components). Note that, by the Mealy automaton interpretation of (U, α) , the duality principle with respect to input vs. state is not in effect. Inputs and outputs are signals 0,1, and states are flip-flops/registers. It is also important to see that the Int construction does not work for monoidal categories with a delayed feedback. One cannot reverse the unit delay into a “negative” one. Designing a reversible computation model strictly on the principle of Mealy automata as input-output devices is therefore not possible.

As a comparison, we now build up the indexed monoidal algebra of Turing automata from appropriate monoidal ones, which we call *directed* Turing automata. Feedback (trace), as well as tensor, follows an entirely different philosophy in directed Turing automata, even though composition between them is still the old cascade product. Trace only cuts interfaces in a Turing automaton without creating registers from them. The state component of the resulting automaton remains the same object (set), but the transition relation (combinational logic) becomes a lot more complicated. Most importantly, though, trace complements an additional additive tensor, rather than \otimes .

Formally, let \mathcal{C} have a further *additive tensor* \oplus such that \otimes distributes over \oplus . In our example category of sets and relations, $\otimes = \times$ and $\oplus = +$. Then, using the simplified strict formalism, the Turing tensor of automata $(U, \alpha) : A \rightarrow B$ and $(V, \beta) : C \rightarrow D$ is

$$(U, \alpha) \boxtimes (V, \beta) = (U \otimes V, \gamma) : A \oplus C \rightarrow B \oplus D,$$

where $\gamma \simeq \gamma_1 \oplus \gamma_2$ is as follows:

$$\gamma_1 = (c_{U,V} \otimes 1_A) \circ (1_V \otimes \alpha) \circ (c_{V,U} \otimes 1_B) : (U \otimes V) \otimes A \rightarrow (U \otimes V) \otimes B,$$

$$\gamma_2 = 1_U \otimes \beta : (U \otimes V) \otimes C \rightarrow (U \otimes V) \otimes D.$$

The natural isomorphism \simeq above is left-distributivity. The reader will recognize the intuitive idea behind the Turing tensor \boxtimes : it is the selective performance of either α or β over $U \otimes V$. The duality principle with respect to input and state does apply, therefore the whole automaton concept requires an intuitive understanding that is completely different

from that of Mealy automata. The anchor as a distinguished interface is specific to the relational Turing automaton model, and is missing from the present general discussion.

It is not difficult to show that the Turing tensor, too, turns the category of (isomorphism classes of) \mathcal{C} -automata into a monoidal one $Tur(\mathcal{C})$. Keep in mind, however, that the object structure in $Tur(\mathcal{C})$ has \oplus for tensor, rather than \otimes as in $Circ(\mathcal{C})$. Now let us assume that \mathcal{C} admits an additive trace, too, by which (\mathcal{C}, \oplus) is a traced monoidal category. Then, under certain natural conditions, this trace can be carried over to the category $(Tur(\mathcal{C}), \boxtimes)$, so that it becomes traced monoidal as well. This is definitely the case with our example category $\mathcal{C} = (\mathbf{Rel}, \times, +)$, so that the traced monoidal category $\vec{\mathcal{T}}$ of directed Turing automata is well-established. As another example, directed quantum Turing automata have been built up in (Bartha 2011) along these lines, using the base category of finite dimensional Hilbert spaces and isometries between them with the two tensors being tensor product and orthogonal sum. In the quantum example, the additive trace relies on the Moore-Penrose generalized inverse of linear operators, cf. (Roman 2005).

Given the traced monoidal category $(Tur(\mathcal{C}), \boxtimes)$, one can transform it into the CC category $Int(Tur(\mathcal{C}))$, restrict the scope of this category to self-dual objects (A, A) , and convert the resulting SDCC category to an IMA. It is exactly in this way that the IMA \mathcal{T} of (undirected) Turing automata can be derived from the traced monoidal category $\vec{\mathcal{T}}$ of directed Turing automata. In Section 6 we have deliberately chosen an accelerated and more intuitive direct way of introducing the algebra \mathcal{T} .

There has been a prior attempt by Hines (Hines 2003) to use the Int construction for the purpose of deriving two-way finite state automata from ordinary ones and bounded Turing machines from finite state Mealy automata. Regarding finite state automata, the starting point is that the transition function of such a machine can be modeled as a homomorphism $\Sigma^* \rightarrow End(Q)$, where Σ is the input alphabet, Q is the set of states, and $End(Q)$ is the endomorphism monoid of the object Q in the monoidal category $(\mathbf{Rel}, +)$. Actually this was not a new idea, since finite state automata (deterministic or not) had been described before by the concept of presentations in matrix iteration theories (Bloom and Ésik 1993) in a more general way. The basic observation made by Hines is that the transition function of a two-way automaton can be modeled by a homomorphism $\Sigma^* \rightarrow End(Q_l, Q_r)$ with respect to the CC category $Int(\mathbf{Rel}, +)$, where Q_l and Q_r are the left-moving and right-moving states, respectively. This idea is indeed somewhat reminiscent of our construction of undirected Turing automata from directed ones as outlined above, in the trivial special case when all automata have a single state. Remember the duality by which (global) states of machines are interfaces, and inputs (local states) are “the” states in Turing automata. In our language, literally, Hines’ observation constructs an individual Turing graph machine for each input string $w \in \Sigma^*$, which consists of a linear array of cell vertices. Each cell is labeled by a letter of w in a left-to-right way. The interpretation of any such a cell is then a single-state Turing automaton, since the machine does not overwrite the symbol stored in the cell.

Moving on to Mealy automata and Turing machines, Hines did not observe the category of monoidal automata with the cascade product as composition. Rather, he introduced his own $Comp$ construction, which produces a *graded* monoidal category from a monoidal

category \mathcal{V} ; that is, $Comp(\mathcal{V})$ is a functor from a monoidal category to the monoid $(N, +, 0)$, considered as a one-object category. See (Hines 2003) for the details. Intuitively, the $Comp$ construction aims at reconstructing the behavior of a Mealy/Turing machine on an $(n + m)$ -long tape from its behavior on an n -long and an m -long tape. Again, the idea is similar to what we have accomplished with the algebra \mathcal{T} , but the structure involved is much less sophisticated. In his summary Hines himself admits: “In particular, we would like to be able to say that $Int(Comp(\mathcal{V}))$ is isomorphic to $Comp(Int(\mathcal{V}))$, but giving this a precise meaning (or indeed, any meaning) appears to require substantial algebraic input.” Indeed, $Comp(V)$ is not even a category, let alone monoidal or traced, therefore $Int(Comp(\mathcal{V}))$ is not meaningful.

8. Conclusion

We have provided a theoretical foundation for the study of Turing machines. In the first half of the paper we established the categorical framework for this foundation. The basic underlying structure, called indexed monoidal algebra, was introduced through a small number of equational axioms, and it was shown that the category of such algebras is equivalent to that of self-dual compact closed categories. A graphical language for indexed monoidal algebras was worked out and a coherence theorem was proved to justify this graphical language.

In the second half of the paper we defined the indexed monoidal algebra of Turing automata, and showed how the classical Turing machine concept can be recaptured by this definition. Turing graph machines were defined as interpretations of graphs in the algebra of Turing automata. These machines have been generalized to D -flow Turing graph machines, in which data from a set D are passed along with each transition. We have pointed out that, at least at the high level of design, a von Neumann computer architecture is a simple D -flow Turing graph machine. Finally we have presented the soliton automaton example for switching at the molecular level by fully reversible binary Turing graph machines.

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