PF-transform: using Galois connections to structure relational algebra

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Why Galois connections?

We motivate this subject by placing some very general questions:

- Why is programming, or systems design "difficult"?
- Is there a generic skill, or competence, that one such acquire to become a "good programmer"?

What makes programming difficult?

- Technology (mess) don't fall in the trap: simply abstract from it!
- Requirements again abstract from these as much as possible — write formal models or specs

Specifications:

 What is it that makes the specification of a problem hard to fulfill?



Problems = Easy + Hard

Superlatives in problem statements, eg.

- "... the smallest such number"
- "... the longest such list"
- "... the best approximation"

suggest two layers in specifications:

- the easy layer broad class of solutions (eg. a prefix of a list)
- the difficult layer requires one particular such solution regarded as optimal in some sense (eg. "shortest with maximal density").

Example

Requirements for **whole division** $x \div y$:

- Write a program which computes number z which, multiplied by y, approximates x.
- Check your program with the following test data:

$$x, y, z = 7, 2, 1$$

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 Ups! Forgot to tell that I want the largest such number (sorry!):

$$x, y, z = 7, 2, 3$$

Deriving the algorithm... from what?

... where is the formal specification of $x \div y$?

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Deriving the algorithm... from what?

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Example — writing a spec

First version (literal):

$$x \div y = \langle \bigvee z :: z \times y \le x \rangle \tag{1}$$

Second version (involved):

$$z = x \div y \equiv \langle \exists \ r : \ 0 \le r < y : \ x = z \times y + r \rangle \tag{2}$$

Third version (clever!):

$$z \times y \le x \equiv z \le x \div y \qquad (y > 0)$$
 (3)

a Galois connection.

Why (3) is better than (1,2)

It captures the requirements:

• It is a solution: $x \div y$ multiplied by y approximates x

$$(x \div y) \times y \leq x$$

(let $z := x \div y$ in (3) and simplify)

 It is <u>the best</u> solution because it provides the **largest** such number:

$$z \times y \le x \implies z \le x \div y \qquad (y > 0)$$

(the \Rightarrow part of \equiv).

Main advantage:

Highly calculational! See the next example.



Proving $(n \div m) \div d = n \div (d \times m)$

$$q \leq (n \div m) \div d$$

$$\equiv \qquad \{ \quad \text{``al-djabr''} \quad (3) \quad \}$$

$$q \times d \leq n \div m$$

$$\equiv \qquad \{ \quad \text{``al-djabr''} \quad (3) \quad \}$$

$$(q \times d) \times m \leq n$$

$$\equiv \qquad \{ \quad \times \text{ is associative } \}$$

$$q \times (d \times m) \leq n$$

$$\equiv \qquad \{ \quad \text{``al-djabr''} \quad (3) \quad \}$$

$$q \leq n \div (d \times m)$$

$$\vdots \qquad \{ \quad \text{indirection } \}$$

$$(n \div m) \div d = n \div (d \times m)$$

(Generic) indirect equality

Note the use of **indirect equality** rule

$$(q \le x \equiv q \le y) \equiv (x = y)$$

valid for \leq any partial order.

Exercise 1: Derive from (3) the two *cancellation* laws

$$q \leq (q \times d) \div d \tag{4}$$

$$(n \div d) \times d \leq n \tag{5}$$

and reflexion law:

$$n \div d \ge 1 \quad \equiv \quad d \le n \tag{6}$$



Galois connections

 $n \div d$ is an example of operation involved in a **Galois** connection:

$$\underbrace{q \times d}_{f \ q} \leq n \equiv q \leq \underbrace{n \div d}_{g \ n}$$

In general, for **preorders** (A, \leq) and (B, \sqsubseteq) and

$$(A,\leq) \underbrace{\qquad \qquad}_{f} (B,\sqsubseteq) \tag{7}$$

(f,g) are Galois connected iff...

Galois adjoints

that is

$$f^{\circ} \cdot \leq = \sqsubseteq \cdot g$$

Remarks:

- Galois (connected) adjoints enjoy a number of interesting generic properties
- *Very elegant* **calculational** way of performing *equational* reasoning (including *logical* deduction)

Basic properties

Cancellation:

$$(f \cdot g)a \leq a$$
 and $b \sqsubseteq (g \cdot f)b$

Distribution (in case of lattice structures):

$$f(a \sqcup a') = (f \ a) \lor (f \ a')$$

$$g(b \land b') = (g \ b) \sqcap (g \ b')$$

Conversely,

- If f distributes over \sqcup then it has an upper adjoint g (f[#])
- If g distributes over \wedge then it has a lower adjoint $f(g^{\flat})$

Other properties

If (f, g) are Galois connected,

- f(g) uniquely determines g(f) thus the $_{-}^{\flat}$, $_{-}^{\sharp}$ notations
- f and g are monotonic
- (g, f) are also Galois connected just **reverse** the orderings
- $f = f \cdot g \cdot f$ and $g = g \cdot f \cdot g$

etc

Summary

$(f\ b) \le a \equiv b \sqsubseteq (g\ a)$			
Description	$f=g^{lat}$	$g=f^{\sharp}$	
Definition	$f b = \bigwedge \{a : b \sqsubseteq g a\}$	$g \ a = \bigsqcup \{b : f \ b \le a\}$	
Cancellation	$f(g \ a) \leq a$	$b \sqsubseteq g(f \ b)$	
Distribution	$f(b \sqcup b') = (f \ b) \lor (f \ b')$	$g(a'\sqcap a)=(g\ a')\sqcap (g\ a)$	
Monotonicity	$b \sqsubseteq b' \Rightarrow f \ b \leq f \ b'$	$a \leq a' \Rightarrow g \ a \sqsubseteq g \ a'$	

In the sequel we will re-interpret the relational operators we've seen so far as Galois adjoints.

Examples

Not only

$$\underbrace{(d\times)q}_{f\ q} \leq n \equiv q \leq \underbrace{n(\div d)}_{g\ n}$$

but also the two shunting rules,

$$\underbrace{\frac{(h \cdot)X}{f \times}}_{f \times} \subseteq Y \equiv X \subseteq \underbrace{\frac{(h^{\circ})Y}{g \times Y}}_{g \times Y}$$

$$\underbrace{X(\cdot h^{\circ})}_{f \times} \subseteq Y \equiv X \subseteq \underbrace{Y(\cdot h)}_{g \times Y}$$

as well as converse,

$$X \subseteq Y \equiv X \subseteq Y \subseteq Y$$

and so and so forth — see the next two slides.



Converse

$(f\ X)\subseteq Y\equiv X\subseteq (g\ Y)$			
Description	$f=g^{\flat}$	$g=f^{\sharp}$	Obs.
converse	(_)°	(_)°	$bR^{\circ}a\equiv aRb$

Thus:

Cancellation
$$(R^{\circ})^{\circ} = R$$

Monotonicity
$$R \subseteq S \equiv R^{\circ} \subseteq S^{\circ}$$

Distributions
$$(R \cap S)^{\circ} = R^{\circ} \cap S^{\circ}, (R \cup S)^{\circ} = R^{\circ} \cup S^{\circ}$$

Example of calculation from the GC

Converse involution:

$$(R^{\circ})^{\circ} = R \tag{8}$$

Indirect proof of (8):

```
(R^{\circ})^{\circ} \subseteq Y
\equiv \qquad \{ \circ \text{-universal} \ X^{\circ} \subseteq Y \ \equiv \ X \subseteq Y^{\circ} \ \text{for } X := R^{\circ} \}
R^{\circ} \subseteq Y^{\circ}
\equiv \qquad \{ \circ \text{-monotonicity} \}
R \subseteq Y
\vdots \qquad \{ \text{indirection} \}
(R^{\circ})^{\circ} = R
```

Functions

$(f\ X)\subseteq Y\equiv X\subseteq (g\ Y)$			
Description	$f=g^{\flat}$	$g=f^{\sharp}$	Obs.
shunting rule	(h·)	$(h^{\circ}\cdot)$	NB: h is a function
"converse" shunting rule	$(\cdot h^{\circ})$	(·h)	NB: h is a function

Consequences:

Functional equality: $h \subseteq g \equiv h = k \equiv h \supseteq k$

Functional division: $h^{\circ} \cdot R = h \setminus R$

Question: what does $h \setminus R$ mean?

Relational division

$(f\ X)\subseteq Y\equiv X\subseteq (g\ Y)$			
Description	$f=g^{\flat}$	$g=f^{\sharp}$	Obs.
left-division	(<i>R</i> ⋅)	(R\)	left-factor
right-division	(·R)	(/ R)	right-factor

that is,

$$R \cdot X \subseteq Y \equiv X \subseteq R \setminus Y \tag{9}$$

$$X \cdot R \subseteq Y \equiv X \subseteq Y / R \tag{10}$$

Immediate: $(R \cdot)$ and $(\cdot R)$ distribute over union:

$$R \cdot (S \cup T) = (R \cdot S) \cup (R \cdot T)$$

 $(S \cup T) \cdot R = (S \cdot R) \cup (T \cdot R)$

Some intuition about relational division operators follows.



Relational (left) division

Left division abstracts a (pointwise) universal quantification

$$A \stackrel{R \setminus S}{\longleftarrow} C \qquad a(R \setminus S)c \equiv \langle \forall b : b R a : b S c \rangle \quad (11)$$

Example:

b R a = flight b carries passenger a b S c = flight b belongs to air-company c $a (R \setminus S) c = \text{passenger } a \text{ is faithful to company } c, \text{ that is, } (s) \text{he only flies company } c.$

Relational (right) division

By taking converses we arrive at $S / R = (R^{\circ} \setminus S^{\circ})^{\circ}$:

```
X \subseteq S / R
               { Galois connection ((\cdot R), (/R)) }
      X \cdot R \subseteq S
\equiv { converses }
       R^{\circ} \cdot X^{\circ} \subset S^{\circ}
              { Galois connection ((R \cdot), (R \setminus)) }
      X^{\circ} \subseteq R^{\circ} \setminus S^{\circ}
≡ { converses }
      X \subset (R^{\circ} \setminus S^{\circ})^{\circ}
              { indirection }
      S/R = (R^{\circ} \setminus S^{\circ})^{\circ}
```

Relational (right) division

Therefore:

```
c(S/R)a
\equiv { above }
     a(R^{\circ} \setminus S^{\circ})c
\equiv { (11) }
      \langle \forall b : b R^{\circ}a : b S^{\circ}c \rangle
\equiv { converses }
        \langle \forall b : a R b : c S b \rangle
```

Domain and range

$(f\ X)\subseteq Y\equiv X\subseteq (g\ Y)$			
Description	$f=g^{\flat}$	$g=f^{\sharp}$	Obs.
domain	δ	$(\top \cdot)$	$lower \subseteq restricted to coreflexives$
range	ρ	$(\cdot \top)$	$lower \subseteq restricted \ to\ coreflexives$

Thus

$$\delta R \subseteq \Phi \equiv R \subseteq \top \cdot \Phi \tag{12}$$

$$\rho R \subseteq \Phi \equiv R \subseteq \Phi \cdot \top \tag{13}$$

etc.

Domain and split

The following fact holds:

$$\langle R, S \rangle^{\circ} \cdot \langle X, Y \rangle = (R^{\circ} \cdot X) \cap (S^{\circ} \cdot Y)$$

Corollary:

$$\delta R = \ker \langle id, R \rangle$$

Another consequence of the fact above:

$$\ker R \subseteq \ker (S \cdot R) \iff S \text{ entire}$$

Corollary:

$$\ker R \subset \ker (f \cdot R)$$

Appendix I

Handling Hoare triples in relation algebra

We finally show to handle Hoare triples such as

$$\{p\}P\{q\}\tag{14}$$

in pointfree, relation algebra. First we spell out the meaning of (14):

$$\langle \forall \ s : \ p \ s : \ \langle \forall \ s' : \ s \xrightarrow{P} s' : \ q \ s' \rangle \rangle$$
 (15)

Then (recording the meaning of program P as relation $[\![P]\!]$ on program states) we PF-transform (15) into

$$\Phi_p \subseteq \llbracket P \rrbracket \setminus (\Phi_q \cdot \top) \tag{16}$$

thanks to (11) and then to...

Relationship with Hoare Logic

$$\llbracket P \rrbracket \cdot \Phi_p \subseteq \Phi_q \cdot \top \tag{17}$$

thanks to (9). By putting (17) and the meaning of $\Phi_q \leftarrow \Phi_p$,

$$f \cdot \Phi_p \subseteq \Phi_p \cdot \top \tag{18}$$

we realize both share the same scheme.

$$R \cdot \Phi \subseteq \Psi \cdot \top \tag{19}$$

which is equivalent to

$$R \cdot \Phi \subseteq \Psi \cdot R \tag{20}$$

(tell why) and which one can condense into notation

$$\Phi \xrightarrow{R} \Psi \tag{21}$$

Relationship with Hoare Logic

All in all

- Notation (21) can be regarded as the **type assertion** that, if fed with values (or starting on states) "of type Φ " computation P yields results (changes to states) "of type Ψ " (if it terminates).
- We see that functional predicative types and Hoare Logic are one and the same device: a way to type computations, be them specified as (allways terminating, deterministic) functions or encoded into (possibly non-terminating, non-deterministic) programs.

Appendix II

"Al-djabr" calculation of algorithms

The next slides show how the well-known algorithm implementing whole division,

$$n \div d = if \quad n < d \quad then \quad 0 \quad else \quad (n-d) \div d + 1$$

can be inferred from "al-djabr" rule (3) via indirect equality, in two parts:

- 1. case $n \ge d$
- 2. case n < d

.

Calculation of $n \div d$ case n > d

```
q < n \div d
\equiv { rule (3) assuming d > 0 }
    a \times d \leq n
≡ { cancellation }
    a \times d - d \leq n - d
≡ { distribution law }
    (q-1) \times d \leq n-d
         { (3) again, assuming n \ge d }
    q-1 \leq (n-d) \div d
         \{ \text{ trading } -1 \text{ to the right } \}
    q < (n - d) \div d + 1
```

Calculation of $n \div d$ case n < d

That is, every natural number q which is at most $n \div d$ (for $n \ge d$) is also at most $(n-d) \div d + 1$ and vice versa. We conclude that the two expressions are the same

$$n \div d = (n-d) \div d + 1 \tag{22}$$

for $n \ge d$. For n < d, we reason in the same style:

$$q \le n \div d$$

$$\equiv \left\{ (3) \text{ and transitivity, since } n < d \right. \right\}$$

$$q \times d \le n \wedge q \times d < d$$

$$\equiv \left\{ \text{ since } d \ne 0 \right. \right\}$$

$$q \times d \le n \wedge q \le 0$$

$$\equiv \left\{ q \le 0 \text{ entails } q \times d \le n, \text{ since } 0 \le n \right. \right\}$$

$$q < 0$$

If-then-else's — eventually!

So, in case n < d, we have

$$q \le n \div d \equiv q \le 0$$

By indirect equality, we get, for this case

$$n \div d \equiv 0$$

In other words, we have calculated the **then** and **else**-parts of the algorithm:

$$n \div d = if \quad n < d \quad then \quad 0 \quad else \quad (n-d) \div d + 1$$

Appendix III

Modular law

Dedekind's rule, also known as the modular law:

$$R \cdot S \cap T \subseteq R \cdot (S \cap R^{\circ} \cdot T)$$
 (23)

cf. analogy with $ab+c \le a(b+a^{-1}c)$. Dually (apply converses and rename):

$$(R \cdot S) \cap T \subseteq (R \cap (T \cdot S^{\circ})) \cdot S \tag{24}$$

Symmetrical equivalent statement:

$$(R \cdot S) \cap T \subseteq (R \cap (T \cdot S^{\circ})) \cdot (S \cap (R^{\circ} \cdot T)) \tag{25}$$

= "weak right-distribution of meet over composition".