Abstract

These notes give a first introduction to the theory of universal coalgebra and coalgebraic modal logic.

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1 Introduction

Starting from concrete examples, this chapter introduces (set-based) coalgebras, together with some of the most important coalgebraic concepts, including coinduction, behavioural equivalence and bisimilarity. We then give a first discussion of the relation between coalgebra and modal logic, and we give some examples of coalgebraic modal logics.

1.1 State-based evolving systems

Example 1.1 Perhaps the simplest example of a computational process is the following black-box machine with two buttons, \( h \) and \( n \). If we press the \( h \)-button, the machine displays some value from a data set \( C \). No matter how many times we press the \( h \)-button, this value remains the same. Each time we push the \( n \)-button, however, we may observe a different value by pushing the \( h \)-button.

A natural way to formally describe this device is as a set \( S \) of internal states (that are not visible to the user), together with two maps \( h : S \rightarrow C \) and \( n : S \rightarrow S \), where \( h(s) \) indicates the observable value at state \( s \), and \( n \) is a function mapping a state \( s \in S \) to its unique next state.

All that we may observe of a state \( s \), is the stream \( h(s) \cdot h(n(s)) \cdot h(n(n(s))) \cdot h(n^3(s)) \cdots \) of data. This stream will be called the \textit{behaviour} of \( s \) in \( S = (S,h,n) \), notation: \( \text{beh}_S(s) \).

Two states \( s \) and \( s' \) in two black boxes can then be called \textit{behaviourally equivalent}, notation: \( S, s \equiv S', s' \), if they display the same behaviour, that is, if \( \text{beh}_S(s) = \text{beh}_S(s') \).

Example 1.2 A \textit{deterministic finite state automaton} or \textit{DFA} over an alphabet \( C \) is a triple \( A = (A,\delta,F) \), where \( A \) is a finite set of states, \( \delta : A \times C \rightarrow A \) is the \textit{transition map} of \( A \), and \( F \subseteq A \) is the set of \textit{accepting states} of the automaton.

Let \( C^* \) denote the set of finite words over \( C \), then we may extend \( \delta \) to a map \( \widehat{\delta} : A \times C^* \rightarrow A \) as follows:
\[
\widehat{\delta}(a,\epsilon) := a \\
\widehat{\delta}(a,cw) := \widehat{\delta}(\delta(a,c),w).
\]
We define, for a state \( a \in A \),
\[
L_\delta(a) := \{ w \in C^* \mid \widehat{\delta}(a,w) \in F \},
\]
as the \textit{language} accepted by \( A \), initialized at \( a \). Two initialized automata \( (A,a) \) and \( (A',a') \) are \textit{(language) equivalent} if they accept exactly the same words, that is, if \( L_\delta(a) = L_{\delta'}(a') \).

Example 1.3 The key structures featuring in the semantics of \textit{modal logic} are Kripke frames and Kripke models. A \textit{Kripke frame} is a pair \((S,R)\) consisting of a set \( S \) of objects called
states, points or worlds, and an accessibility relation $R \subseteq S \times S$. A Kripke model is a triple $S = (S, R, V)$ such that $(S, R)$ is a Kripke frame (the underlying Kripke frame of the model), and $V$ is a valuation, i.e., a map $Q \to PS$, where $Q$ is some fixed set of proposition letters.

A bisimulation between two Kripke models $S$ and $S'$ is a binary relation $Z \subseteq S \times S'$ such that, for all $s \in S$ and $s' \in S'$ with $Zss'$ the following conditions hold:

- (forth) for all $t \in S$ such that $Rst$ there is a $t' \in S'$ with $R's't'$ and $Ztt'$;
- (back) for all $t' \in S'$ such that $R's't'$ there is a $t \in S$ with $Rst$ and $Ztt'$.

If there is a bisimulation $Z$ linking $s$ and $s'$ we say that $s$ and $s'$ are bisimilar, notation $s, s' \equiv Z$, (or $Z : S, s \equiv S', s'$ if we want to make the bisimulation explicit).

Given a modal language $L$, we let $Th_L(s)$ denote the set of $L$-formulas that are true at $s$ in $S$; then two states are called $(L)$-equivalent (notation: $\equiv_L$) if they satisfy the same $L$-formulas. A theme in the theory of modal logic is to study the relation between equivalence and bisimilarity. A class of models $C$ is said to have the Hennessy-Milner property with respect to a language $L$ if $\equiv_L = \equiv$ on $C$.

Example 1.4 The theory of non-well-founded sets provides an alternative to the standard axiomatic set theories by allowing sets to contain themselves, or otherwise violate the rule of well-foundedness. More in detail, in non-well-founded set theories, the Foundation Axiom FA is replaced by axioms implying its negation. For instance, working with the anti-foundation axiom $AFA$ we may associate, with each so-called apg or accessible pointed graph (that is, a directed graph such that every node can be reached via a finite path from a specified root of the graph) a hyperset, that is, a set that is not necessarily well-founded. And, two apgs yield the same set iff they are bisimilar.

Example 1.5 As a final example of a state-based evolving system we mention Markov chains: transition systems that evolve probabilistically. Recall that a (discrete) probability distribution on a set $S$ is a map $\mu : S \to [0, 1]$ such that $\sum_{s \in S} \mu(s) = 1$. Formally, a Markov chain can be modelled as a pair $(S, \sigma)$, where $\sigma$ assigns a probability distribution $\sigma_s$ to each state $s$.

For a concrete example, think of a gambler wagering $\mathbb{E}1$ on a series of fair coin tosses – this series may be indefinite, or end if the gambler loses his money. This experiment can be modelled by the Markov chain $(S, \sigma)$ where $S = \{s_n \mid n \in \omega\}$, with state $s_n$ representing the state where the gambler owns $\mathbb{E}n$. For $n > 0$ we have that $\sigma_{s_n}$ assigns a 0.5 probability to both $s_{n-1}$ and $s_{n+1}$ (and a probability 0 to all other states), while $\sigma_{s_0}$ assigns a 1.0 probability to $s_0$ (and a probability 0 to all other states).

1.2 Coalgebras and their morphisms

As we will see now, the structures described in the previous section all are specimens of coalgebras. Universal Coalgebra is a theory of state-based evolving systems, formulated in the language of category theory.\footnote{See the appendix for some background definitions on category theory.}
Definition 1.6 Given an endofunctor $T: C \to C$ on some category $C$, a $T$-coalgebra is a pair $(X, \xi)$ where $X$ is an object in $C$ and $\xi: X \to TX$ is an arrow in $C$. We will sometimes refer to $T$ as the type of $(X, \xi)$. If, for an arrow $f: X' \to X$, the following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
X' & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\
\downarrow{\xi'} & & \downarrow{\xi} \\
TX' & \xrightarrow{Tf} & TX
\end{array}
$$

(1)

we call $f$ a (coalgebra) morphism from $X' = (X', \xi')$ to $X = (X, \xi)$, and write $f: X' \to X$.

We let $\text{Coalg}_C(T)$ denote the category with $T$-coalgebras as objects and $T$-coalgebra morphisms as arrows; the category $C$ will be called the base category of $\text{Coalg}_C(T)$. 

We will usually (but not always) confine our attention to systems, that is, coalgebras over the category $\text{Set}$. Intuitively, a set functor $T$ specifies the one-step dynamics that a system can engage in.

Definition 1.7 A set functor is an endofunctor $T: \text{Set} \to \text{Set}$ on the category $\text{Set}$ of sets and functions; given such a set functor $T$, we will sometimes refer to $T$-coalgebras as $T$-systems. Where $\mathbb{X} = (X, \xi)$ is a $T$-system, we refer to $X$ and $\xi$ as, respectively, the carrier or state space and the transition map or coalgebra map of $\mathbb{X}$. A pointed or initialized $T$-system is a triple $(S, \sigma, s)$ such that $(S, \sigma)$ is a $T$-system and $s \in S$.

The coalgebraic viewpoint on systems combines wide applicability and mathematical simplicity: since every set functor determines its own type of coalgebra, notions, properties and results of state-based systems can be uniformly explained just in terms of properties of their type functors. This applies to systems as diverse as streams, probabilistic transition systems, automata, Kripke structures and neighbourhood frames. In the appendix we give a list of set functors; here we give a few examples of the associated coalgebras.

Example 1.8 (a) The black boxes of Example 1.1 are systems of the functor type $K_C \times \text{Id}$, where $K_C$ is the constant functor associated with the set $C$, and $\text{Id}$ is the identity functor on $\text{Set}$.

(b) Deterministic finite automata (Example 1.2) are systems of type $2 \times \text{Id}^C$, where $2$ is the set $\{0, 1\}$. To see this, consider a coalgebra $\mathbb{X} = (X, \xi)$ of this type; then $\xi$ determines, for each state $x \in X$, two things: an element of the set $2$, specifying whether $x$ is accepting or not, and an element $\xi(x) \in X^C$, that is, a map $\xi(x): C \to X$ providing a successor of $x$ in $X$ for each letter $c \in C$.

(c) Kripke frames are coalgebras for the powerset functor $P$, whereas Kripke models are coalgebras for the functor $K_{PQ} \times P$.

(d) Markov chains are $D$-systems, where $D$ is the distribution functor (which assigns, to a set $S$, a discrete probability distribution on $S$).

(e) For every set functor $T$ we will allow the empty $T$-coalgebra $(\emptyset, \emptyset)$. 

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1.3 Final coalgebras and coinduction

For many coalgebra types $T$ one may associate with an arbitrary state $s$ in an arbitrary $T$-coalgebra $S$, a natural notion of behaviour. This can often be formalised by defining a behaviour map and proving that this map is the unique coalgebra morphism from $S$ to some final or terminal coalgebra $Z$ of type $T$.

**Definition 1.9** Let $T$ be an endofunctor on some category $C$. A $T$-coalgebra $Z = (Z, \zeta)$ is final or terminal if it is a final object in the category $\text{Coalg}_C(T)$; that is, if for every $T$-coalgebra $X = (X, \xi)$ there is a unique morphism from $X$ to $Z$; this morphism will be denoted as $\text{beh}_X : X \to Z$.

Note that final coalgebras, when they exist, are unique modulo isomorphism. For this reason we will often speak of the final $T$-coalgebra of a functor $T$.

**Example 1.10** A stream over a set $C$ is a map $\alpha : \omega \to C$ (where $\omega$ is the set of natural numbers). We may turn the set $C^\omega$ of $C$-streams into a $K_C \times \text{Id}$-coalgebra itself by endowing it with a coalgebra map $\gamma : (h, t) : C^\omega \to C \times C^\omega$. Here we define the maps $h : C^\omega \to C$ and $t : C^\omega \to C^\omega$ by putting, for an arbitrary $C$-stream $\alpha : \omega \to C$:

\[
  h(\alpha) := \alpha(0) \\
  t(\alpha) := \lambda n. \alpha(n + 1).
\]

That is, the coalgebra map $\gamma$ splits an infinite $C$-stream $c_0 c_1 c_2 \cdots$ into its head $c_0$ and its tail $c_1 c_2 c_3 \cdots$.

It is then not very hard to prove that the stream coalgebra $(C^\omega, \gamma)$ is a final coalgebra for the functor $K_C \times \text{Id}$: this boils down to showing that, for an arbitrary ‘black box machine’ $S = (S, h, n)$, the behaviour map $\text{beh} : S \to C^\omega$ is the unique coalgebra morphism from $S$ to $(C^\omega, \gamma)$.

**Example 1.11** For a second example, fix an alphabet $C$ and define a ($C$-)language to be any set of finite words. Further on we will see that we can endow the collection $P(C^\ast)$ of $C$-languages with a very natural coalgebra map for the functor $2 \times \text{Id}$ of deterministic finite $C$-automata, and prove that the resulting structure is in fact a final $2 \times \text{Id}^C$-coalgebra.

Finality is also the key categorical concept underlying the important coalgebraic principle of coinduction. Here is a first example.

**Example 1.12** Take the function $\text{zip}$ that merges two streams by taking elements from either stream in turn. For a coalgebraic definition of this map, define the transition map $\delta : (C^\omega \times C^\omega) \to C \times (C^\omega \times C^\omega)$ as follows:

\[
  \delta(\alpha, \beta) := (h(\alpha), (\beta, t(\alpha))),
\]

where $h$ and $t$ are the maps defined in Example 1.10. This defines a $K_C \times \text{Id}$-coalgebra on the set $(C^\omega \times C^\omega)$, so that by finality of the stream coalgebra $(C^\omega, \gamma)$ there is a (unique) map $\text{zip} : C^\omega \times C^\omega \to C^\omega$ which is a coalgebra morphism from $(C^\omega \times C^\omega, \delta)$ to $(C^\omega, (h, t))$. 

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One may verify that this coalgebra morphism indeed defines the map that zips two streams together.

Unfortunately, as we will see further on, final coalgebras do not exist for every functor.

**Example 1.13** In the categories of Kripke frames and Kripke models, final objects do not exist. The canonical model comes close, but to turn this structure into a final coalgebra, we have to enrich the base category $\text{Set}$ with topological structure. As a result that we will discuss later on, we may see the canonical general frame as a final coalgebra for a suitable base category and coalgebra functor.

### 1.4 Behavioural equivalence and bisimilarity

Probably the most intuitive notion of equivalence between systems is that of behavioral, or observational, equivalence. The idea here is to consider two states to be similar if we cannot distinguish them by observations, because they display the same behavior. For instance, we call two deterministic automata (pointed $2 \times \text{Id}_C$-coalgebras) equivalent if they recognize the same language. In case the functor $T$ admits a final coalgebra $Z$, this idea is easily formalized by making state $s$ in coalgebra $S$ equivalent to state $s'$ in coalgebra $S'$ if $\text{beh}_S(s) = \text{beh}_S(s')$.

In case the functor does not admit a final coalgebra, we generalize this demand as follows.

**Definition 1.14** Let $S = (S, \sigma)$ and $S' = (S', \sigma')$ be two systems for the set functor $T$. Then $s \in S$ and $s' \in S'$ are behaviorally equivalent, notation: $S, s \simeq_T S', s'$ if there is a $T$-system $X = (X, \xi)$ and homomorphisms $f : S \rightarrow X$ and $f' : S' \rightarrow X$ such that $f(s) = f'(s')$.

**Remark 1.15** It is easily checked that in case $T$ admits a final coalgebra $Z$, then indeed $S, s \simeq_T S', s'$ iff $\text{beh}_S(s) = \text{beh}_S(s')$. The direction from right to left is trivial, so assume that $s$ and $s'$ are behaviorally equivalent because of the existence of $X$, $f$ and $f'$ as in the formulation of the definition. Observe that the map $\text{beh}_X \circ f$ is a coalgebra morphism from $S$ to $Z$, and likewise for $\text{beh}_X \circ f'$ and $S'$. It then follows from the finality of $Z$ that $\text{beh}_S = \text{beh}_X \circ f$ and $\text{beh}_{S'} = \text{beh}_X \circ f'$. Hence, from $f(s) = f'(s')$ it follows that $\text{beh}_S(s) = \text{beh}_{S'}(s')$, as required.

As we will see further on, in many cases of interest, behavioral equivalence can be characterized via the equally fundamental concept of bisimilarity, which involves the notion of a coalgebraic bisimulation.
Definition 1.16 A bisimulation between two coalgebras \((S, \sigma)\) and \((S', \sigma')\) is a relation \(B \subseteq S \times S'\) for which, as in the diagram below,

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S & \overset{\pi}{\rightarrow} & B \\
\downarrow \sigma & & \downarrow \beta \\
TS & \overset{T\pi}{\rightarrow} & TB
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
& & \overset{\pi'}{\rightarrow} & \rightarrow & S' \\
& & \downarrow \sigma' & & \\
& & TS' & &
\end{array}
\]

there is a (not necessarily unique) coalgebra map \(\beta : B \rightarrow TB\) such that the two projection maps from \(B\) to \(S\) and \(S'\) are coalgebra morphisms.

That is, a bisimulation is a relation that, seen as a set, can be endowed itself with a coalgebra structure satisfying some natural conditions.

1.5 Coalgebra and modal logic

Logic comes in when we want to design specification languages for describing the behaviour of state-based evolving systems, and derivation systems for reasoning about this behaviour.

Definition 1.17 An (abstract) logic for \(T\)-coalgebras is a pair \((L, \models)\) consisting of a set \(L\) of formulas and, for each \(T\)-coalgebra \(S = (S, \sigma)\), a satisfaction relation \(\models_S \subseteq S \times L\). In case \((s, \varphi) \in \models_S\), we say that \(\varphi\) is true or holds at \(s \in S\), or that \(s\) satisfies \(\varphi\) in \(S\); we often write \(S, s \models \varphi\) instead of \(s \models_S \varphi\).

Given a state \(s\) in a coalgebra \(S\), we define \(\text{Th}_S^L(s) := \{ \varphi \in L \mid S, s \models \varphi \}\). Conversely, given a formula \(\varphi \in L\) and a coalgebra \(S\), we let \(\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^S\) denote the set of states in \(S\) where \(\varphi\) holds, that is, \(\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^S := \{ s \in S \mid S, s \models \varphi \}\). If \(\text{Th}_S^L(s) = \text{Th}_S^L(s')\), we say that \(s\) and \(s'\) are \(L\)-equivalent, and we write \(S, s \equiv_L S', s'\) (or simply \(s \equiv_L s'\) if \(S\) and \(S'\) are understood).

Finally, we will call a formula satisfiable if it is satisfied at some state in some coalgebra, and valid if it holds at every state in every coalgebra.

In the same way that universal coalgebra tries to give an account of state-based evolving systems, uniformly in the coalgebra type \(T\), research in coalgebraic logic has been directed towards a development of logical languages and derivation systems that are similarly uniform in the parameter \(T\). Apart from uniformity, here are some other desiderata for a coalgebraic logic.

Definition 1.18 Let \((L, \models)\) be a logic for a coalgebra type \(T\). We say that this logic is invariant (for behavioural equivalence) if \(S, s \models S', s'\) implies \(\text{Th}_S^L(s) = \text{Th}_S^L(s')\), and expressive if conversely, \(\text{Th}_S^L(s) = \text{Th}_S^L(s')\) implies that \(s\) and \(s'\) are behaviourally equivalent. The logic is decidable if there is an algorithm that decides, on input \(\varphi \in L\), whether there is some pointed coalgebra satisfying \(\varphi\).

In addition, for practical purposes one generally wants the logic to be finitary in the sense that formulas are finite objects. Other desirable properties of a coalgebraic logic include...
good model-theoretic behaviour, and the existence of a derivation system that is sound and complete for the collection of valid formulas.

With Kripke models as paradigmatic examples of coalgebra, and modal logic providing the bisimulation-invariant logic for Kripke models, it should come as no surprise that most coalgebraic logics can be seen as generalisations of basic modal logic in some sense. The literature on coalgebra witnesses different ways to generalise basic modal logic from Kripke structures to arbitrary systems; here we mention two approaches.

First, however, we briefly discuss the role of proposition letters in coalgebraic modal logic. Generalising the relation between Kripke models and Kripke frames, we introduce the notion of a \( T \)-model.

**Definition 1.19** Let \( T \) be a set functor, and let \( Q \) be an arbitrary but fixed set of proposition letters. A \( T \)-model is a triple \((S, \sigma, V)\) such that \((S, \sigma)\) is a \( T \)-coalgebra, and \( V : Q \to \mathcal{P}S \) is a valuation. A morphism between \( T \)-models \( S = (S, \sigma, V) \) and \( S' = (S', \sigma', V') \) is a coalgebra morphism \( f : (S, \sigma) \to (S', \sigma') \) such that \( s \in V(p) \) iff \( s' \in V'(p) \), for all \( s \in S \).

There are two natural ways to think about \( T \)-models: either as \( T \)-coalgebras extended with a \( Q \)-valuation, or as coalgebras for the functor \( T_Q := K_{PQ} \times T \). (Clearly, in the latter case it would be more natural to represent the valuation \( V \) as its associated colouring \( V^\flat : S \to P^Q \) given by \( V^\flat(s) := \{ p \in Q \mid s \in V(p) \} \).) In these notes we will generally take the first perspective, since it is more compatible with the perspective on proposition letters as variables. Nevertheless we will apply various coalgebraic definitions to \( T \)-models as if they were indeed \( K_{PQ} \times T \)-coalgebras.

Let us now take a quick look at two of the approaches towards coalgebraic modal logic.

**Example 1.20** In the first approach towards coalgebraic modal logic, which is completely parametric in the functor \( T \), the set of formulas \( L \) is closed under the following clause, which introduces a modal operator \( \nabla \):

\[
\text{if } \alpha \in TX \text{ for some finite set } X \text{ of formulas, then } \nabla \alpha \text{ is a formula.}
\]

In the case of the powerset functor \((T = P)\), we can write, for instance, \( \nabla \{ \varphi_0, \varphi_1 \} \), where \( \varphi_0 \) and \( \varphi_1 \) are formulas. The formula \( \nabla \{ \varphi_0, \varphi_1 \} \) will be equivalent to \((\Diamond \varphi_0 \land \Diamond \varphi_1) \land \Box(\varphi_0 \lor \varphi_1)\).

In general, the semantics of \( \nabla \) in a Kripke structure \( S = (S, \sigma) \) will be given as

\[
S, s \not\vdash \nabla \alpha \text{ iff } (\sigma(s), \alpha) \in \overline{P}(\models),
\]

where \( \overline{P}(\models) \subseteq \mathcal{P}S \times \mathcal{P}L \) is the (Egli-Milner) lifting of the binary satisfaction relation \( \models \).

As we will see, this approach generalises well to any set functor \( T \) that ‘preserves weak pullbacks’ — the point of this condition being that \( T \) preserves weak pullbacks iff its lifting \( \overline{T} \) preserves relation composition.

\[\text{2The Egli-Milner lifting of a relation } R \subseteq S \times S' \text{ is the relation } \overline{P}(R) \subseteq \mathcal{P}S \times \mathcal{P}S' \text{ given by } (X, X') \in \overline{P}(R) \text{ iff for all } x \in X \text{ there is an } x' \in X' \text{ such that } Rxx' \text{ and for all } x' \in X' \text{ there is an } x \in X \text{ such that } Rxx'.\]
The \(\nabla\)-logic provided by the relation-lifting approach described in Example 1.20 may provide coalgebraic logics in a completely uniform way, but its unusual syntax makes it not easy to work with.

The second approach to coalgebraic logic provides coalgebraic logics with a more standard modal syntax. Here, the modalities of the language correspond to so-called predicate liftings, where an \(n\)-ary predicate lifting is a natural transformation \(\hat{P}^n \to \hat{P}T\). Here we confine ourselves to a few examples of such coalgebraic modalities.

Example 1.21 The standard interpretation of the modalities \(\Diamond\) and \(\Box\) in Kripke structures can be formulated as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
S, s \models \Box \varphi & \quad \text{iff} \quad R(s) \subseteq \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket \\
S, s \models \Diamond \varphi & \quad \text{iff} \quad R(s) \cap \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket \neq \emptyset.
\end{align*}
\]

Example 1.22 Monotone modal logic is a variant of standard modal logic where formulas are interpreted in so-called monotone neighbourhood models. These are structures of the form \(S = (S, \sigma, V)\) where \(S\) is a set of states, \(V\) is a valuation, and \(\sigma\) is a map \(S \to \mathcal{P}(S)\) that assigns to each state \(s \in S\) a collection \(\sigma(s) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(S)\) of neighbourhoods. Here, each collection \(\sigma(s)\) is required to be upward closed in the sense that \(X \in \sigma(s)\) implies \(Y \in \sigma(s)\) for all \(Y\) with \(X \subseteq Y \subseteq S\).

In these structures we may interpret the modalities \(\Diamond\) and \(\Box\) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
S, s \models \Box \varphi & \quad \text{iff} \quad \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket \in \sigma(s) \\
S, s \models \Diamond \varphi & \quad \text{iff} \quad (S \setminus \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket) \notin \sigma(s).
\end{align*}
\]

Using the upward-closedness of \(\sigma(s) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(S)\) it is not hard to show that \(\Box \varphi\) holds at \(s\) iff \(s\) has a neighbourhood \(U \in \sigma(s)\) such that \(S, u \models \varphi\), for each \(u \in U\), whereas \(\Diamond \varphi\) holds at \(s\) iff every neighbourhood \(U \in \sigma(s)\) contains some point \(u\) where \(\varphi\) holds.

To see how monotone modal logic generalises standard modal logic, think of a Kripke model \((S, R, V)\) as the neighbourhood model \((S, \sigma, V)\), where \(\sigma(s) := \{X \in \mathcal{P}(S) | R(s) \subseteq X\}\).

Example 1.23 Let \((S, \sigma)\) be a Markov chain, that is, a coalgebra for the distribution functor \(D\). Given a rational number \(q \in [0, 1]\), we introduce a modality \(\Diamond_q\), with the following intended meaning:

\[
S, s \models \Diamond_q \varphi \quad \text{iff} \quad \sum_{t \in \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^\circ} \mu_s(t) > q.
\]

That is, the formula \(\Diamond_q \varphi\) holds at \(s\) iff the probability that \(\varphi\) holds at the next state after \(s\) is bigger than \(q\).

1.6 Literature

Here are some relevant texts on coalgebra and modal logic. First we mention some books:


Here is a list of introductory and survey articles:


2 Final Coalgebras and Coinduction

In section 1.3 we introduced final coalgebras. In this chapter we study the concept in more detail, and we see how it relates to the fundamental coalgebraic definition and proof principle of coinduction.

As a first example of a final coalgebra, it is instructive to look at a base category different from Set.

**Example 2.1** Let $\mathbb{C} = (C, \leq)$ be an arbitrary poset, that is, $\leq$ is a reflexive, transitive and antisymmetric relation on the set $C$. We may think of $\mathbb{C}$ as a category by taking $C$ as the set of objects and providing a unique arrow between any pair of elements $c, d \in C$ for which $c \leq d$. An endofunctor on $\mathbb{C}$ is then nothing but a monotone or order-preserving function $F : C \to C$. Given that arrows between objects are unique if they exist, a coalgebra $(c, \gamma : c \to Fc)$ for such a functor can be identified with its carrier $c$, and conversely, any $c \in C$ for which $c \leq Fc$ is the carrier of an $F$-coalgebra. In other words, we may identify $F$-coalgebras with the prefixpoints of $F$.

We leave it for the reader to verify that a final coalgebra for a functor $F$ on $\mathbb{C}$ is a greatest fixpoint of the map $F$.

2.1 The language coalgebra

As a key example of a final coalgebra we will show how to endow the collection of *languages* over some finite alphabet $C$ with coalgebra structure that turns it into the final coalgebra for the set functor $2 \times \text{Id}^C$ associated with deterministic automata.

Here we will represent a deterministic automaton over an alphabet $C$ as a triple $S = (S, \tau, \chi)$, where $\tau : S \to SC$ and $\chi : S \to 2$ correspond to the transition map and the acceptance condition, respectively. Note that we drop the condition that the carrier of the automaton is finite. We will also use the convention that $s \xrightarrow{a} t$ means $t = \tau(s)(a)$ and $s \downarrow$ indicates that $s$ is accepting, i.e., $\chi(s) = 1$.

As we saw in the introduction, we can identify deterministic automata with coalgebras of the functor $2 \times \text{Id}^C$. It is easy to see that a map $f : S \to S'$ is a coalgebra morphism between two automata $S = (S, \tau, \chi)$ and $S' = (S', \tau', \chi')$ if it satisfies, for all $s \in S$ and $a \in C$, the conditions $\chi(s) = \chi'(fs)$ and $f(\tau(s)(a)) = \tau'(fs)(a)$.

**Definition 2.2** Consider the following *language coalgebra* $L := (\mathcal{L}_C, \delta, \omega)$, where

- $\mathcal{L}_C := P(C^*)$ is the collection of all *languages* over $C$;
- $\omega : \mathcal{L}_C \to 2$ is given by $\omega(L) = 1$ if $\epsilon \in L$, and $\omega(L) = 0$ if $\epsilon \notin L$;
- $\delta : \mathcal{L}_C \to (\mathcal{L}_C)^C$ is the map given by $\delta(L)(a) := L_a$, the so-called *a-derivative* of $L$;

$$L_a := \{u \in C^* \mid au \in L\}.$$  

If no confusion concerning the alphabet is likely, we will usually write $L$ rather than $\mathcal{L}_C$. $<$

Recall that for an arbitrary automaton $S = (S, \tau, \chi)$, we defined the language recognized by a state $s \in S$ by putting

$$L_S(s) := \{u \in C^* \mid \chi(\tau(s)(u)) = 1\},$$

2-1
where $\tau : S \to S^{C^*}$ is inductively defined by putting $\tau(s)() := s$ and $\tau(s)(cu) := \tau(\tau(s)(c))(u)$.

We claim that, for any alphabet $C$, $L$ is the final coalgebra of type $2 \times Id^C$, with the language maps as the witnessing coalgebra morphisms.

**Proposition 2.3 (Finality of $L$)** For any $2 \times Id^C$-coalgebra $S$, the map $L_S$ is the unique coalgebra morphism $L_S : S \to L$.

**Proof.** Fix $S = (S, \tau, \chi)$. We first show that $L_S$ is a coalgebra morphism. For acceptance, we check that

\[ \chi(s) = 1 \iff \epsilon \in L_S(s), \quad \omega(L_S(s)) = 1 \]  

(definition $L_S$)  

With respect to the transition function, we need to show that $L_S(\tau(s)(c)) = \delta(L_S(s))(c)$, for all $s \in S$ and $c \in C$. But this identity holds because of the following chain of equivalences, for an arbitrary word $u \in C^*$:

\[ u \in L_S(\tau(s)(c)) \iff \chi(\tau(\tau(s)(c))(u)) = 1 \]  

(definition $L_S$)  

\[ \iff \chi(\tau(\tau(s)(cu))) = 1 \]  

(definition $\tau$)  

\[ \iff cu \in L_S(s) \]  

(definition $L_S$)  

\[ \iff u \in \delta(L_S(s))(c) \]  

(definition $\delta$)

Second, we prove uniqueness. Assuming that $f : S \to L$ is a coalgebra morphism, we need to show that $f = L_S$. It suffices to show that any word $u \in C^*$ satisfies the following:

\[ \text{for all } s \in S : \quad u \in L_S(s) \iff u \in f(s). \]  

(3)

We will prove (3) by induction on $u$. In the base case, where $u = \epsilon$, we have

\[ \epsilon \in L_S(s) \iff \omega(L_S(s)) = 1 \]  

(definition $\omega$)  

\[ \iff \chi(s) = 1 \]  

($L_S$ is a morphism)  

\[ \iff \omega(f(s)) = 1 \]  

($f$ is a morphism)  

\[ \iff \epsilon \in f(s) \]  

(definition $\omega$)

Now assume that $u = cv$, for some $c \in C$, then we find

\[ cv \in L_S(s) \iff \chi(\tau(s)(cv)) = 1 \]  

(definition $L_S$)  

\[ \iff \chi(\tau(\tau(s)(c))(u)) = 1 \]  

(definition $\tau$)  

\[ \iff v \in L_S(\tau(s)(c)) \]  

(definition $L_S$)  

\[ \iff v \in f(\tau(s)(c)) \]  

(induction hypothesis)  

\[ \iff v \in \delta(f(s))(c) \]  

($f$ is a morphism)  

\[ \iff cv \in f(s) \]  

(definition $\delta$)

This suffices to prove the induction step of (3).  

QED
2.2 Properties of final coalgebras

Final coalgebras have various interesting properties. We first show that, if existing, final coalgebras are unique modulo isomorphism\(^3\). Because of this fact we will often speak of ‘the’ final T-coalgebra if T admits final coalgebras.

**Proposition 2.4** Let \(Z = (Z, \zeta)\) and \(Z' = (Z', \zeta')\) be final T-coalgebras for some functor \(T : C \to C\). Then \(Z\) and \(Z'\) are isomorphic.

**Proof.** By finality of \(Z\) there is a coalgebra morphism \(g : Z' \to Z\), and by finality of \(Z'\) there is a coalgebra morphism \(f : Z \to Z'\). But then the composition \(g \circ f : Z \to Z\) is a coalgebra morphism as well, and by unicity it must be identical to the identity arrow \(id_Z\). Similarly, we find that \(g \circ f = id_{Z'}\). Thus \(Z\) and \(Z'\) are isomorphic indeed.

The following proposition states a key fact about final coalgebras.

**Proposition 2.5 (Lambek’s Lemma)** Let \(Z\) be a final T-coalgebra for some functor \(T : C \to C\). Then the coalgebra map \(\zeta : Z \to TZ\) of \(Z\) is an isomorphism in \(C\).

**Proof.** Applying the functor \(T\) to the coalgebra map \(\zeta\) of \(Z\), we obtain the map \(T\zeta : TZ \to TTZ\), and hence, a coalgebra \(Z_2 := (TZ, T\zeta)\). By finality of \(Z\) we obtain a coalgebra morphism \(!\) from \(Z_2\) to \(Z\), given by a C-arrow \(! : TZ \to Z\). But then the composition \(! \circ \zeta\) is a coalgebra morphism from \(Z\) to itself, just like the identity arrow \(id_Z\). In a diagram:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
Z & \xrightarrow{\zeta} & TZ \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \zeta \\
TZ & \xrightarrow{T\zeta} & TTZ \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow T!
\end{array}
\]

(4)

It follows by unicity that \(! \circ \zeta = id_Z\).

For the reverse composition \(\zeta \circ !\) we have that \(\zeta \circ ! = T! \circ T\zeta\) since \(!\) is a morphism, cf. the right rectangle in the diagram above. But then we easily derive that \(\zeta \circ ! = T(! \circ \zeta) = Tid_Z = id_{TZ}\). In other words, \(\zeta \circ !\) is the identity arrow on \(TZ\).

Finally, since \(! \circ \zeta = id_Z\) and \(\zeta \circ ! = id_{TZ}\) we see that \(\zeta\) is an isomorphism indeed, with \(!\) as its inverse.

As an immediate corollary of this, we see that set functors involving the full powerset functor in a nontrivial way, will generally not admit a final coalgebra.

**Corollary 2.6** The categories of Kripke frames and of Kripke models do not admit final coalgebras.

\(^3\)See the appendix for the categorical definition of an isomorphism. In the case of coalgebras, two coalgebras \(S\) and \(S'\) are isomorphic if there are coalgebra morphisms \(f : S \to S'\) and \(g : S' \to S\) such that \(g \circ f\) and \(f \circ g\) are the identity arrows on \(S\) and \(S'\), respectively.
**Proof.** Recall that Kripke frames are coalgebras for the powerset functor $P$. Now suppose for contradiction that $P$ admits a final coalgebra $Z = (Z, \zeta)$. It would follow by Lambek’s Lemma that $\zeta$ is a bijection between $Z$ and its powerset; but this is impossible by Cantor’s theorem. The case of Kripke models can be proved similarly. \[QED\]

The following proposition is one way to formalise the proof principle of coinduction — we shall come back to this.

**Proposition 2.7** Let $Z$ be a final $T$-coalgebra for some set functor $T$. Then the relation $z \sim_z \Delta_Z$ of behavioural equivalence on $Z$ is the identity relation $\Delta_Z$ on $Z$:

$$z \sim_z = \Delta_Z.$$ (5)

**Proof.** Suppose that $z$ and $z'$ are two states in $Z$ that are behaviourally equivalent. In Remark 1.15 we saw that this implies that $\text{beh}_Z(z) = \text{beh}_Z(z')$, and since $\text{beh}_Z$ is the identity map on $Z$, it follows that $z = \text{beh}_Z(z) = \text{beh}_Z(z') = z'$. \[QED\]

### 2.3 Existence of final coalgebras

If not all set functors admit final coalgebras, which ones do? Some good sufficient conditions are known.

**Definition 2.8** Let $T$ be some set functor, and $\kappa$ some cardinal. Call $T$ $\kappa$-small if

$$T(S) = \bigcup\{(Ti^A_S)[T(A)] : i^A_S : A \to S, |A| < \kappa\},$$

for all sets $S \neq \emptyset$, where for an arbitrary subset $A$ of $S$, the arrow $i^A_S$ denotes the inclusion map of $A$ into $S$. $T$ is small if it is small for some cardinal $\kappa$. An $\omega$-small functor is usually called finitary.

In words, the definition requires every element of $T(S)$ to be in the range of $Ti$ for an appropriate inclusion map $i : A \to S$, where $A$ is of size smaller than $\kappa$. In case $T$ preserves inclusions (meaning that $T$ maps any inclusion $i : A \to B$ to an inclusion $Ti : TA \to TB$), the definition boils down to the requirement that

$$T(S) = \bigcup\{|A| < \kappa\}.$$ $T(S) = \bigcup\{|A| < \kappa\}.$

**Fact 2.9** Every small set functor admits a final coalgebra.

Examples of small functors abound; for instance, whenever we replace, in a Kripke polynomial functor, the power set functor by a bounded variant such as the finite power set functor, the result is a small functor.

In particular, the finite power set functor $P_\omega$ itself is $\omega$-small. As an immediate corollary of this fact, the categories of image-finite frames and models, which can be represented as coalgebras for, respectively, the functors $P_\omega$ and $PQ \times P_\omega$, both have final objects. More in general we can prove the following.
Corollary 2.10 Every finitary Kripke polynomial functor admits a final coalgebra.

For Set-based functors that do not admit a final coalgebra, there are various ‘second-best’ ways to proceed. For instance, one may show that $T$ does have a final coalgebra in an extended category or modified category.

Example 2.11 If one is willing to allow coalgebras taking a class rather than a set as their carrier, one may create a final coalgebra, outside the category Set, as follows. Let $T$ be a set functor for which final coalgebras do not exist; for convenience we assume that all functors preserve inclusions.

Let SET be the category that has classes as objects, and class functions as arrows, that is, functions mapping sets to sets that may have a class rather than a set as their (co-)domain. Call an endofunctor $T$ on SET set-based if for each class $C$ and each $X \in TC$ there is a set $S \subseteq C$ such that $X \in TS$. Now Aczel & Mendler proved that every set-based endofunctor on SET admits a final coalgebra – the similarity to Fact 2.9 is no coincidence.

This fact can be used as follows. Given an endofunctor $T$ on Set, there is a unique way to extend $T$ to a set-based endofunctor $T^+$ on SET. (On objects, simply put $T^+(C) := \bigcup\{T(S) | S \subseteq C \text{ a set}\}$.)

The theorem of Aczel & Mendler then guarantees the existence of a final object $Z$ in $\text{Coalg}(T^+)$. This coalgebra will be class-based if $T$ does not admit a final coalgebra, but it will be final, not only with respect to the set-based coalgebras in $\text{Coalg}(T^+)$, but also with respect to the class-based ones. As an important manifestation of this idea, Aczel showed that the class of non-well-founded sets provides the final coalgebra for (the SET-based extension of) the power set functor.

Example 2.12 One way to look at Lambek’s Lemma is that final $T$-coalgebras provide solutions to the ‘equation’ $S \cong TS$. In the case of the powerset functor, Cantor’s theorem states that this equation does not have a solution in the category Set. This situation is reminiscent of that in domain theory, which provides solutions to the equation $X \cong X^X$ by imposing topological structure on sets.

Something similar can be done here. Define a Stone space to be a pair $X = (X, \tau)$, where $\tau$ is a zero-dimensional compact Hausdorff space, and let Stone denote the category of Stone spaces as objects with continuous maps as arrows. As an analog to the powerset functor on Set, we can define the Vietoris functor $V$ on the category Stone; on objects, the Vietoris space $VX$ is based on the collection of compact subsets of $X$. We may then show that, indeed, the final coalgebra for this functor exists.

Further on we will see that, whereas the canonical model (over a finite set $Q$ of proposition letters) is not final in the category of coalgebras for the Kripke model functor $KPQ \times P$, we may identify the canonical general model over $Q$ with the final $KPQ \times V$-coalgebra. Thus we can solve the equation $S \cong TS$ by modifying the base category of our coalgebras.

2.4 The terminal sequence

Whether the functor admits a final coalgebra or not, one may always (try to) approximate it by considering the so-called final or terminal sequence.
Example 2.13 Let us first consider an example outside the category \( \text{Set} \). Suppose that the poset \( C = (C, \leq) \) is in fact a complete lattice, that is, with each subset \( X \subseteq C \) we may associate a meet or greatest lower bound \( \land X \); this means in particular that \( C \) is bounded: it has a largest element \( \top := \land \emptyset \), and a smallest element \( \bot := \lor \emptyset \).

The Knaster-Tarski theorem states that in this setting, every monotone map \( F : C \to C \) has both a least and a greatest fixpoint. That is, every endofunctor \( F \) on the category \( C \) admits both an initial and a final coalgebra (see Example 2.1).

It is instructive for our purposes to prove this theorem, and in particular, to see how to find the greatest fixpoint by approximating it from above. We define an ordinal-indexed sequence \( \langle z_\alpha \rangle \) using transfinite induction:

\[
z_\alpha := \begin{cases} 
\top & \text{if } \alpha = 0 \\
Fz_\beta & \text{if } \alpha = \beta + 1 \text{ is a successor ordinal} \\
\land\{z_\beta \mid \beta < \alpha\} & \text{if } \alpha \text{ is a limit ordinal}
\end{cases}
\]

Note that in fact, if we take 0 to be a limit ordinal, we can reduce the first clause of the definition to the third.

It is not hard to prove, for a monotone map \( F : C \to C \), the existence of an ordinal \( \alpha \) for which \( z_\alpha = z_{\alpha + 1} \), and to show that the object \( z_\alpha \) is in fact the greatest fixpoint of \( F \).

In the case of set functors, we may take inspiration from this example to define the terminal sequence associated with \( T \).

Definition 2.14 The final or terminal sequence associated with a given set functor \( T \), is an ordinal indexed sequence of objects \( \langle Z_\alpha \rangle \) with maps \( p_\alpha^\beta : Z_\alpha \to Z_\beta \) for \( \beta \leq \alpha \), such that

(i) \( Z_{\alpha + 1} = TZ_\alpha \) and \( p_\beta^{\alpha + 1} = Tp_\beta^\alpha \);
(ii) \( p_\alpha^\alpha = \text{id}_{Z_\alpha} \) and \( p_\beta^\alpha \circ p_\beta^\alpha = p_\beta^\alpha \);
(iii) If \( \lambda \) is a limit ordinal, then \( Z_\lambda \) with \( \{p_\lambda^\alpha \mid \alpha < \lambda\} \) is a limit of the diagram with objects \( \{Z_\alpha \mid \alpha < \lambda\} \) and arrows \( \{p_\beta^\alpha \mid \alpha, \beta < \lambda\} \). (In particular, taking 0 to be a limit ordinal, we find that \( Z_0 = 1 \) is some final object of the category \( \text{Set} \), i.e., a singleton set.)

In the diagram below we depict an initial part of this construction:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
Z_0 = 1 \xleftarrow{p_0^1} Z_1 = T1 \xrightarrow{p_1^2} Z_2 = T^21 \xleftarrow{p_2^\omega} \ldots \xrightarrow{p_\omega^{\omega+1}} Z_\omega\xleftarrow{TZ_\omega} \xrightarrow{p_\omega^{\omega+1}} Z_{\omega+1} = TZ_\omega \xleftarrow{\ldots}
\end{array}
\]

It is not hard to prove that, modulo isomorphism, the terminal sequence is uniquely determined by these conditions. Intuitively, it can be seen as an approximation of the final coalgebra for \( T \). That is, where elements of the final coalgebra represent ‘complete’ behavior, elements of \( Z_\alpha \) represent behavior that can be ‘performed in \( \alpha \) many steps’.

---

\(^4\)See the appendix for the categorical definition of a limit.
To make this precise and formal, observe that for any \( T \)-coalgebra \( S \) there is a unique ordinal-indexed class of functions \( \text{beh}_\alpha : S \to Z_\alpha \) such that \( \text{beh}_0 \) is fixed by the finality of \( Z_0 \) in \( \text{Set} \), \( \text{beh}_{\alpha+1} := (T \text{beh}_\alpha) \circ \sigma \):

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\cdots & Z_\alpha & \xrightarrow{p^{\alpha+1}_\alpha} & Z_{\alpha+1} & \cdots \\
\text{beh}_\alpha \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \text{beh}_{\alpha+1} \\
S & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & TS
\end{array}
\]

while for a limit ordinal \( \lambda \), \( \text{beh}_\lambda \) is given as the unique map \( \text{beh}_\lambda : S \to Z_\lambda \) such that \( \text{beh}_\alpha = p^{\alpha}_\lambda \circ \text{beh}_\lambda \) for all \( \alpha < \lambda \). It is not hard to prove that, for instance, \( S, s \xrightarrow{\text{uni}} S', s' \) implies that \( \text{beh}_\alpha(s) = \text{beh}_\alpha(s') \) for all \( \alpha \).

The relation with final coalgebras can be made precise, as follows. On the one hand, if the terminal sequence converges, in the sense that some arrow \( p^{\alpha+1}_\alpha \) is a bijection, then the coalgebra \((Z_\alpha, (p^{\alpha+1}_\alpha)^{-1})\) is a final coalgebra for \( T \). And conversely, under some mild constraints on \( T \), Adámek & Koubek proved that if \( T \) admits a final coalgebra, then the terminal sequence converges to it.

### 2.5 Coinduction as a definition principle

Coinduction is an important coalgebraic principle, and just like its algebraic counterpart of induction, it can be used as a tool to define various operations, but also as a coalgebraic proof principle.

To see how coinductive definitions work, suppose that \( Z = (Z, \zeta) \) is the final coalgebra for some set functor \( T \). Coinduction is based on the observation that, in order to define a map from some set \( S \) to \( Z \), it suffices to turn \( S \) into a coalgebra by endowing it with coalgebra structure: any coalgebra map \( \sigma : S \to TS \) canonically induces a map from \( S \) to \( Z \), namely the unique coalgebra morphism \( !_\sigma : (S, \sigma) \to Z \). (In fact, we saw this principle already at work in the proof of Lambek’s Lemma, where we defined a map from \( TZ \) to \( Z \) by considering the coalgebra map \( T\zeta \) on \( TZ \).)

**Example 2.15** Let \( Z = (C^\omega, h, t) \) be the stream coalgebra of Example 1.10 — here we write \( h \) and \( t \) rather than head and tail. We already saw that \( Z \) is the final \( K_C \times \text{Id} \)-coalgebra, we can now use the finality to define operations on streams.

To start with, consider the coalgebra map \((h, t \circ t) : C^\omega \to C \times C^\omega\) defined as \( \gamma_c(\alpha) := (h(\alpha), t(t(\alpha))) \). By finality of \( Z \) there is a unique map \( e : C^\omega \to C^\omega \) making the following diagram commute:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
C^\omega & \xrightarrow{e} & C^\omega \\
\downarrow (h, t) & & \downarrow (h, t) \\
C \times C^\omega & \xrightarrow{id \times e} & C \times C^\omega
\end{array}
\]

Another way of looking at this definition is that, in order to define \( e(\alpha) \), we specify

\[
\begin{align*}
h(e(\alpha)) & := h(\alpha) \\
t(e(\alpha)) & := t(t(\alpha)).
\end{align*}
\]
In fact, the map $e: C^\omega \to C^\omega$ is the operation on streams that creates a new stream out of all items at an even position in the input stream. To prove this, it suffices to show that the map $\lambda \alpha. (\lambda n. \alpha(2n))$ makes the diagram (8) commute.

Similarly, we can define a map $q: C^\omega \to C^\omega$ selecting the odd items of an input stream, by means of the following diagram:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
C^\omega & \rightarrow & C^\omega \\
\downarrow \langle \text{hot,tot} \rangle & & \downarrow \langle h,t \rangle \\
C \times C^\omega & \rightarrow & C \times C^\omega
\end{array}
\]  

\[\tag{9}\]

**Example 2.16** Fix an alphabet $C$. Recall from Proposition 2.3 that the language coalgebra $L = (L, \delta, \omega)$ is the final coalgebra for the ‘automaton’ functor $2 \times \text{Id}^C$. We can use this fact to define operations on languages.

For instance, given a word $u = c_1::c_k$ (with $k \geq 0$), we let $\otimes u$ denote its converse, $\otimes u := c_k::c_1$, and we set $\otimes L := \{ \otimes u \mid u \in L \}$. Coinductively, we can define this language by imposing the following structure on $L$. As the acceptance condition we simply take the same map $\omega$ as for $L$, while for the transition map $\tau$ we put

$$\tau(L)(c) := \{ u \in C^* \mid uc \in L \}. $$

We leave it as an exercise for the reader to verify that the following diagram commutes:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
L & \rightarrow & L \\
\downarrow \langle \omega, \tau \rangle & & \downarrow \langle \omega, \delta \rangle \\
2 \times \mathcal{L}^C & \rightarrow & 2 \times \mathcal{L}^C
\end{array}
\]  

\[\tag{10}\]

so that by finality, $\otimes: L \rightarrow L$ is the unique coalgebra morphism $\otimes: (L, \tau, \omega) \rightarrow L$. That means that (10) can be seen as a coinductive definition of $\otimes$.

**Example 2.17** As a slightly different example, we give a coinductive definition of the shuffle $K \mid \parallel L$ of two languages $K$ and $L$, leaving the inductive definition as an exercise. Recall that, for a language $L \in \mathcal{L}$, we let $L_a$ denote its $a$-derivative, $L_a := \{ u \in C^* \mid au \in L \}$.

We let the set $E$ of expressions be defined by the following grammar:

$$E := L \mid E_0 + E_1 \mid E_0 \parallel E_1$$

where $L \in \mathcal{L}$, i.e., we associate a formal symbol $L$ with every language $L$.

\[\text{5}\] Alternatively, the language $K \parallel L$ can be defined as follows. Define the relation $\prec$ on finite words by putting $c_1::c_k \prec d_1::d_n$ if there is an order-preserving map on the indices $f: \{1, \ldots, k\} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $c_i = d_{f(i)}$ for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$. Say that $w$ merges $u$ and $v$ if $|w| = |u| + |v|$ and both $u \prec w$ and $v \prec w$. We can then define $K \parallel L$ as the collection of all words that merge words from $K$ and $L$. 

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To turn the set $\mathcal{E}$ into an automaton $\mathcal{E} := (\mathcal{E}, \tau, \chi)$, consider the following axioms and rules (where we use the notation introduced in the beginning of section 2.1):

\[
\begin{align*}
L \downarrow & \text{ iff } e \in L \\
(E + F) \downarrow & \text{ iff } E \downarrow \text{ or } F \downarrow \\
(E \parallel F) \downarrow & \text{ iff } E \downarrow \text{ and } F \downarrow \\
E \subseteq L & \Rightarrow E' \subseteq L' \\
E + F & \subseteq E' + F' \\
E \parallel F & \subseteq E' \parallel F'
\end{align*}
\]

It is not hard to see that this deductive system uniquely determines two operations $\tau : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{E}^C$ and $\chi : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow 2$. Hence by finality of $\mathbb{L}$ there is a unique coalgebra morphism $f : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathbb{L}$. Think of $f(E)$ as the interpretation of the term $E$.

We can then define $K \parallel L := f(K \parallel L)$.

To get a feeling for this operation we compute the derivative $(K \parallel L)_c$:

\[
(K \parallel L)_c = f(K \parallel L)_c \\
= \delta(f(K \parallel L))(c) \\
= f(\tau(K \parallel L))(c) \\
= f(K_c \parallel L + K \parallel L_c) \\
= f(K_c \parallel L) \cup f(K \parallel L_c) \\
= K_c || L \cup K_c || L_c
\]

(definition $||$)

Here we use in (*) the observation that $f(E + F) = f(E) \cup f(F)$, which is easily proved by coinduction, see Example 2.20.

### 2.6 Coinduction as a proof principle

As a proof principle, coinduction has two manifestations. In its most direct form, proofs by coinduction use the uniqueness of coalgebra morphisms to a final coalgebra.

**Example 2.18** Consider the maps $e$ and $q$ of Example 2.15. We claim that

\[q = e \circ t,\]

(11)
as should be clear intuitively. To prove (11) coinductively, it suffices to prove that the map $e \circ t$, just like $q$, is a coalgebra morphism $e \circ t : (C^\omega, \{h \circ t, t \circ t\}) \rightarrow (C^\omega, \{h, t\})$; that is, the diagram below commutes:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
C^\omega \xrightarrow{\text{e} \circ t} C^\omega \\
\downarrow \text{(h \circ t, t \circ t)} \quad \downarrow \text{(h, t)} \\
C \times C^\omega \xrightarrow{\text{id}_C \times \text{e} \circ t} C \times C^\omega
\end{array}
\]

(12)

But for this purpose it suffices to show that the following two equations hold:

\[h \circ (e \circ t) = h \circ t\]

(13)

\[t \circ (e \circ t) = (e \circ t) \circ (t \circ t)\]

(14)
This is not so hard. For (13), we may calculate

\[ h \circ (e \circ t) = (h \circ e) \circ t \]  
\[ = (id_C \circ h) \circ t \]  
\[ = h \circ t, \]  
\hspace{1cm} \text{(associativity)} 
\hspace{1cm} \text{(diagram (8))} 
\hspace{1cm} \text{(id}_C \circ h = h) 

while we prove (14) as follows:

\[ t \circ (e \circ t) = (t \circ e) \circ t \]  
\[ = (e \circ (t \circ t)) \circ t \]  
\[ = (e \circ t) \circ (t \circ t) \]  
\hspace{1cm} \text{(associativity)} 
\hspace{1cm} \text{(diagram (8))} 
\hspace{1cm} \text{(associativity)}

**Example 2.19** In a similar way we can prove that

\[ \text{zip} \circ (e, q) = \text{id}_{C^\omega}, \]  
\hspace{1cm} \text{(15)}

where \( \text{zip} \) is the map defined in Example 1.12.

By finality it suffices to show that \( \text{zip} \circ (e, q) \) is a coalgebra morphism on the stream coalgebra, and since we know that \( \text{zip} \) is a coalgebra morphism (i.e., the right rectangle below commutes), we can confine ourselves to proving that the left rectangle in the diagram below commutes:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathcal{C}^\omega & \xrightarrow{(e,q)} & \mathcal{C}^\omega \times \mathcal{C}^\omega \\
\downarrow{(h,t)} & & \downarrow{\delta} \\
\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}^\omega & \xrightarrow{T(e,q)} & \mathcal{C} \times (\mathcal{C}^\omega \times \mathcal{C}^\omega) \\
\downarrow{Tzip} & & \downarrow{Tzip} \\
\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}^\omega & \xrightarrow{T(e,q)} & \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}^\omega
\end{array}
\]

Here \( T(e,q) = \text{id}_C \times (e,q) \), \( Tzip = \text{id}_C \times \text{zip} \), and \( \delta \) is as given in Example 1.12: \( \delta(\alpha, \beta) := (h(\alpha), (\beta, t(\alpha)) \).

To verify that the left rectangle above commutes we need to check that \( \delta \circ (e, q) = T(e, q) \circ (h, t) \), which boils down to proving

(a) \( h \circ e = h \),  
(b) \( q = e \circ t \),  
(c) \( t \circ e = q \circ t \).

But we obtain (a) because \( h \circ e = \text{id}_C \circ h \) (definition of \( e \)), and (b) was shown in the previous example, cf. (11). Finally, for (c), observe that \( t \circ e = e \circ (t \circ t) \) by definition of \( e \) (diagram (8)), and \( e \circ (t \circ t) = q \circ t \) by associativity and (11).

Often, coinduction is referred to as the proof principle that uses the fact that behavioural equivalence is the identity relation on a final coalgebra (Proposition 2.7). More specifically, given the fact that bisimilarity implies behavioural equivalence (as we will see further on), one may prove two states in a final coalgebra to be identical if we can link them by a bisimulation.

**Example 2.20** In the case of \( C \)-automata (coalgebras of type \( 2 \times \text{Id}_C \)), a bisimulation on a coalgebra \( (S, \tau, \chi) \) is a relation \( B \subseteq S \times S \) such that, whenever \( (s_0, s_1) \in B \), we have...
\[(\text{acc}) \\; \chi(s_0) = \chi(s_1) \; (\text{that is: } s_0 \downarrow \text{ iff } s_1 \downarrow), \text{ and} \]

\[(\text{nxt}) \; \left(\tau(s_0)(c), \tau(s_1)(c)\right) \in B, \text{ for all } c \in C. \]

Let us now prove the statement that (cf. Example 2.17)

\[f(L) = L, \quad (16)\]

for every language \(L \in \mathcal{L}\). By coinduction, it suffices to show that the relation

\[B := \{ (f(L), L) \mid L \in \mathcal{L} \} \quad (17)\]

is a bisimulation. We check the two conditions.

For (acc), we observe that \(f(L) \downarrow \) (in \(\mathcal{L}\)) iff \(L \downarrow \) (in \(\mathcal{E}\)) since \(f\) is a coalgebra morphism. But we have \(L \downarrow \) in \(\mathcal{E}\) iff \(\epsilon \in L\) by definition of acceptance in \(\mathcal{E}\), and we have \(L \downarrow \) (in \(\mathcal{L}\)) iff \(\epsilon \in L\) by definition of acceptance in \(\mathcal{L}\). This suffices to prove (acc).

For (nxt) we need to show, for an arbitrary language \(L \in \mathcal{L}\) and an arbitrary letter \(c \in C\), that the pair \(\left(\delta(f(L), c), \delta(L, c)\right) \in B.\) To that aim, observe that \(\delta(f(L), c) = f(\tau(L)(c)) = f(L_c)\), respectively since \(f\) is a morphism and by definition of \(\tau\). But since we have \(\delta(L)(c) = L_c\) (by definition of \(\delta\)), it is immediate that \(\left(\delta(f(L), c), \delta(L, c)\right) = (f(L_c), L_c) \in B.\) This finishes the proofs of (17) and (16).

Similarly, we can prove that

\[f(E_0 + E_1) = f(E_0) \cup f(E_1), \quad (18)\]

for all expressions \(E_0\) and \(E_1\), by showing that the relation

\[R := \left\{ (f(E_0 + E_1), f(E_0) \cup f(E_1)) \mid E_0, E_1 \in \mathcal{E} \right\} \]

is a bisimulation on \(\mathcal{L}\).

Finally, we can use coinduction to establish, in a relatively straightforward way, various useful properties of the operation \(\parallel\), such as commutativity, associativity, or distribution with respect to \(+/\cup\).
3 Bisimilarity and Behavioural Equivalence

In section 1.4 of the Introduction we defined two coalgebraic notions of equivalence: behavioral equivalence and bisimilarity. In this chapter we discuss these notions in more detail.

3.1 Basic observations

Obviously, the first question is how the notions of behavioral equivalence and bisimilarity relate to each other. One direction is clear: bisimilarity is a sufficient condition for behavioral equivalence.

**Proposition 3.1** Let \( T : \text{Set} \to \text{Set} \) be some functor, and let \( s_0 \) and \( s_1 \) be states of the \( T \)-coalgebras \( S_0 \) and \( S_1 \), respectively. Then \( S_0, s_0 \sim S_1, s_1 \) implies \( S_0, s_0 \sim S_1, s_1 \).

**Proof.** In the special case that \( T \) admits a final coalgebra, a very simple proof obtains. Assume that \( S_0, s_0 \sim S_1, s_1 \), and let \( B \subseteq S_0 \times S_1 \) with \( \beta : B \to TB \) be a coalgebra witnessing this. It follows from the definitions that both \( \text{beh}_{S_0} \circ \pi_0 \) and \( \text{beh}_{S_1} \circ \pi_1 \) are coalgebraic morphisms from \( (B, \beta) \) to the final coalgebra, so from finality it follows that \( \text{beh}_{S_0} \circ \pi_0 = \text{beh}_{S_1} \circ \pi_1 \). From this it is immediate that \( B \subseteq \varepsilon \); and so from \( (s_0, s_1) \in B \) it follows that \( S_0, s_0 \sim S_1, s_1 \).

In the general case the proof of this proposition is similar to the one of Theorem 3.12 below (with an application of pushouts instead of pullbacks), so we omit details. QED

The converse statement of Proposition 3.1 does not hold: in general, bisimilarity is a strictly stronger notion than behavioral equivalence.

**Example 3.2** Consider the so-called ‘3-2-functor’ \( T^3_2 : \text{Set} \to \text{Set} \) given on objects by

\[
T^3_2(S) := \{(s_0, s_1, s_2) \in S^3 | ||\{s_0, s_1, s_2\}| \leq 2\},
\]

while for an arrow \( f : S \to S' \) we define \( (T^3_2 f)(s_0, s_1, s_2) := (fs_0, fs_1, fs_2) \). We leave it as an exercise to the reader to verify that this indeed defines a set functor.

Now consider the following coalgebra \( S = (S, \sigma) \), where \( S = \{0, 1\} \) and \( \sigma \) is given by \( \sigma(0) = (0, 0, 1) \) and \( \sigma(1) = (1, 0, 0) \). Then it is not hard to see that \( S, 0 \sim S, 1 \), but at the same time we claim that there is no \( T^3_2 \)-bisimulation on \( S \) linking 0 and 1. To see this, suppose for contradiction that \( R \subseteq S \times S \) would be such a bisimulation, witnessed by the coalgebra map \( \rho : R \to T^3_2 R \). If the projection maps \( \pi_0, \pi_1 : R \to S \) are to be coalgebra morphisms, \( \rho \) has to map the pair \( (0, 1) \) to some triple \( \rho(0, 1) = ((s_0, s_1), (t_0, t_1), (u_0, u_1)) \) such that

\[
(s_0, t_0, u_0) = ((T^3_2 \pi_0) \circ \rho)(0, 1) = (\sigma \circ \pi_0)(0, 1) = \sigma(0) = (0, 0, 1),
\]

\[
(s_1, t_1, u_1) = ((T^3_2 \pi_1) \circ \rho)(0, 1) = (\sigma \circ \pi_1)(0, 1) = \sigma(1) = (1, 0, 0).
\]

Clearly then we find \( \rho(0, 1) = ((s_0, s_1), (t_0, t_1), (u_0, u_1)) = ((0, 1), (0, 0), (1, 0)) \). But this object does not belong to the set \( T^3_2 R \), since \( (s_0, s_1), (t_0, t_1) \) and \( (u_0, u_1) \) are all distinct.
Example 3.3 A more natural example of a set functor for which behavioural equivalence and bisimilarity are properly distinct notions, is the monotone neighbourhood functor $M$. We will come back to this example later.

In section 3.3 below we will discuss an important class of set functors for which we do have $= \leftrightarrow$. First, however, we make some basic observations on bisimulations and, in the next section, we give an alternative characterization of bisimulations.

Example 3.4 For an arbitrary set functor $T$, it is easy to see that for any coalgebra $S$, the diagonal relation $\Delta_S$ is a bisimulation equivalence on $S$. Furthermore, the converse of a bisimulation is again a bisimulation.

As another general example, coalgebra morphisms can be seen as functional bisimulations. To be more precise, let $f : S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ be a function between the carriers of two $T$-coalgebras $S_0$ and $S_1$. Recall that the graph of $f$ is the relation $\text{Gr}_f = \{(s, f(s)) | s \in S_0\}$. Then it holds that

$$f \text{ is a coalgebra morphism iff its graph } \text{Gr}_f \text{ is a bisimulation.} \quad (19)$$

In order to see why this is so, first suppose that $\text{Gr}_f : S_0 \leftrightarrow S_1$. Since the projection map $\pi_0 : \text{Gr}_f \rightarrow S_0$ is a bijective morphism, its inverse $\pi_0^{-1}$ is also a morphism. But then $f = \pi_1 \circ \pi_0^{-1}$, as the composition of two morphisms, is also a morphism. For the other direction, suppose that $f$ is a morphism; then it is straightforward to verify that the map $(T\pi_0)^{-1} \circ \sigma \circ \pi_0$ equips the set $\text{Gr}_f$ with the required coalgebraic structure.

However, the collection of bisimulations is not in general closed under taking relational composition, and the relation $\leftrightarrow$ of bisimilarity on a given coalgebra is generally not an equivalence relation.

3.2 Bisimulations and relation lifting

Bisimulations admit an elegant alternative characterization which involves the notion of relation lifting.

Example 3.5 As an example, consider the power set functor $P$. Recall that a relation $B \subseteq S_0 \times S_1$ is a bisimulation between two $P$-coalgebras (Kripke frames) $S_0 = (S_0, R_0[\cdot])$ and $S_1 = (S_1, R_1[\cdot])$ iff $B$ satisfies the conditions (back) and (forth) of Example 1.3. Now suppose that we define, for an arbitrary relation $R \subseteq S_0 \times S_1$, the relation $P(R) \subseteq P(S_0) \times P(S_1)$ by putting

$$P(R) := \{(Q_0, Q_1) | \forall q_0 \in Q_0 \exists q_1 \in Q_1. (q_0, q_1) \in R \text{ and } \forall q_1 \in Q_1 \exists q_0 \in Q_0. (q_0, q_1) \in R\}. \quad (20)$$

In other words, we lift the relation $R$ to the level of the power sets of $S_0$ and $S_1$. The definition of a bisimulation between $P$-coalgebras can now be characterized as follows:

$$B : S_0 \leftrightarrow S_1 \text{ iff } (R_0[s_0], R_1[s_1]) \in P(R) \text{ for all } (s_0, s_1) \in B.$$

This nice way of characterizing bisimulation via relation lifting is not limited to the power set functor — it applies in fact to every set functor.
**Definition 3.6** Let $T$ be some set functor. Given a relation $R \subseteq S_0 \times S_1$, consider $R$ as a span

$$S_0 \xlongleftarrow{\pi_0} R \xrightarrow{\pi_1} S_1,$$

where $\pi_i : R \to S_i$ and $p_i : TS_0 \times TS_1 \to TS_i$ denote the respective projection maps. We define the relation lifting of $R$ as the relation $\overline{TR} \subseteq TS_0 \times TS_1$ given by

$$\overline{TR} := \{((T\pi_0)(u), (T\pi_1)(u)) \mid u \in TR\},$$

that is, $\overline{TR}$ is the image of $TR$ under the map $\tau_R := (T\pi_0, T\pi_1)$.

In other words, we apply the functor $T$ to the relation $R$, seen as a span. It follows from the category-theoretic properties of the product $TS_0 \times TS_1$ that there is a unique map $\tau_R := (T\pi_0, T\pi_1)$ from $TR$ to $TS_0 \times TS_1$ such that $p_i \circ \tau_R = T\pi_i$ for $i = 0, 1$. Now we define $TR$ as the image of $TR$ under the map $\tau$ obtained from the lifted projection maps $T\pi_0$ and $T\pi_1$. In a diagram:

```
T\pi_0 \downarrow \overline{TR} \uparrow T\pi_1
\downarrow \begin{array}{c}
p_0 \\
\tau_R
\end{array}
\downarrow \\
\downarrow \begin{array}{c}
p_1 \\
TS_0 \times TS_1
\end{array}
```

The results listed in the following theorem summarize the most important properties of bisimulations.

**Theorem 3.7** Let $S_0$ and $S_1$ be two coalgebras for some set functor $T$.

1. $B : S_0 \ncongs S_1$ iff $(\sigma_0(s_0), \sigma_1(s_1)) \in \overline{T}(B)$ for all $(s_0, s_1) \in B$.

2. The collection of bisimulations between $S_0$ and $S_1$ forms a complete lattice under the inclusion order, with joins given by unions.

3. The bisimilarity relation $\ncongs$ is the largest bisimulation between $S_0$ and $S_1$.

**Proof.** The first part of the theorem is an almost immediate consequence of the definitions. To see this, recall that $B : S_0 \ncongs S_1$ iff we can find a coalgebra map $\beta : B \to TB$ such that $(T\pi_i) \circ \beta = \sigma \circ \pi_i$ for $i = 0, 1$, and that the latter requirement is equivalent to stating that $(T\pi_i)(\beta(s_0, s_1)) = s_i$. From this it easily follows that $B : S_0 \ncongs S_1$ iff for every $(s_0, s_1) \in B$ there is a $u \in TB$ such that $(\sigma s_0, \sigma s_1) = ((T\pi_0)(u), (T\pi_1)(u))$. This suffices by (21).

The crucial observation in the proof of the other two parts is that

$$\overline{T} : P(S_0 \times S_1) \to P(TS_0 \times TS_1)$$

is a monotone operation.

For a proof, let $R \subseteq R'$ be two relations between $S_0$ and $S_1$, with $\iota : R \to R'$ denoting the inclusion map. By definition of $\overline{T}$, we may without loss of generality represent an arbitrary
element of $\mathcal{T}(R)$ as a pair $\tau_R(u) = ((T\pi_0)(u), (T\pi_1)(u))$ for some $u \in TR$. Define $u' := (T_\iota)(u)$, then $u'$ belongs to $TR'$, and for each $i$ we find that $(T\pi'_i)(u') = (T\pi'_i \circ T_\iota)(u) = (T(\pi'_i \circ \iota))(u) = (T\pi_i)(u)$. That is, $\tau_R(u) = \tau_R(u')$, which shows that $\tau_R(u)$ belongs to $\mathcal{T}R'$. This proves (22).

Now for the proof of part 2, recall that a partial order is a complete lattice if it is closed under arbitrary joins. Hence, it suffices to prove that the union $B$ of a collection $\{B_j \mid j \in J\}$ of bisimulations is again a bisimulation. Take an arbitrary pair $(s_0, s_1) \in B$. Then $(s_0, s_1)$ belongs to $B_j$ for some $j \in J$. Hence, by part 1, we find $(s_0, s_1)$ in $\mathcal{T}(B_j)$, so $(\sigma(s_0), \sigma(s_1)) \in \mathcal{T}(B)$ by the monotonicity of $\mathcal{T}$. But then $B$ is a bisimulation by part 1.

Finally, for part 3, note that it is an immediate consequence of part 2 that $\equiv$, being the union of all bisimulations between $S_0$ and $S_1$, is a bisimulation itself. Hence, by definition, it is the greatest bisimulation between $S_0$ and $S_1$. In fact, it follows by the Knaster-Tarski theorem (on fixed points of monotone operations on complete lattices), that $\equiv$ is in fact the greatest fixed point of the map $\Lambda : R \mapsto \{(s_0, s_1) \mid (\sigma_0(s_0), \sigma_1(s_1)) \in \mathcal{T}(R)\}$. QED

In the case of Kripke polynomial functors, relation lifting can be characterized using induction on the construction of the functor.

**Proposition 3.8** Let $S$ and $S'$ be two sets, and let $R \subseteq S \times S'$ be a binary relation between $S$ and $S'$. Then the following induction defines the relation lifting $\overline{K}(R) \subseteq KS \times KS'$, for each Kripke polynomial functor $K$:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{T}\overline{d}(R) & := R, \\
\mathcal{T}\overline{c}(R) & := \Delta, \\
\mathcal{T}\overline{0} \times \mathcal{T}\overline{1}(R) & := \{(x_0, x_1), (x'_0, x'_1) \mid (x_0, x'_0) \in \overline{K}_0(R) \text{ and } (x_1, x'_1) \in \overline{K}_1(R)\}, \\
\mathcal{T}\overline{0} + \mathcal{T}\overline{1}(R) & := \{(\kappa_0 x_0, \kappa_0 x'_0) \mid (x_0, x'_0) \in \overline{K}_0(R)\} \cup \{(\kappa_1 x_1, \kappa_1 x'_1) \mid (x_1, x'_1) \in \overline{K}_1(R)\}, \\
\mathcal{T}\overline{d}(R) & := \{(f, f') \mid (f(d), f'(d)) \in \overline{K}(R) \text{ for all } d \in D\}, \\
\mathcal{T}\overline{p}(R) & := \{(Q, Q') \mid \forall q \in Q \exists q' \in Q'. (q, q') \in \overline{K}(R) \text{ and } \forall q' \in Q' \exists q \in Q. (q, q') \in \overline{K}(R)\}.
\end{align*}
\]

Here $\kappa_0$ and $\kappa_1$ are the co-projection maps associated with the coproduct, cf. Definition A.13.

### 3.3 Bisimilarity and behavioural equivalence: smooth functors

In Example 3.2 we saw that bisimilarity is a strictly weaker notion than behavioural equivalence. Here is a constraint on the functor that guarantees the two notions to coincide.
**Definition 3.9** A *weak pullback* of two arrows \( f_0 : A_0 \to B \), \( f_1 : A_1 \to B \) in a category \( \mathcal{C} \) is a pair of arrows \( p_0 : W \to A_0 \), \( p_1 : W \to A_1 \) such that (i) \( f_0 \circ p_0 = f_1 \circ p_1 \), while (ii) for every pair \( (p'_0 : W' \to A_0, p'_1 : W' \to A_1) \) that also satisfies \( f_0 \circ p'_0 = f_1 \circ p'_1 \), there is a mediating arrow \( w' : W' \to W \) such that \( p_0 \circ w' = p'_0 \) and \( p_1 \circ w' = p'_1 \).

We will call a functor \( T : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{C}' \) smooth if it preserves weak pullbacks; that is, if for any weak pullback \((p_0, p_1)\) of any \((f_0, f_1)\) in \(C\), the pair \((Tp_0, Tp_1)\) is a weak pullback of \((Tf_0, Tf_1)\) in \(C'\).

Note that the mediating arrow \( w' \) need not be unique: adding this requirement to the definition would give the more familiar, and stronger, notion of a pullback. The category \( \text{Set} \) has pullbacks: for \( f_0 : A_0 \to B \) and \( f_1 : A_1 \to B \), we can take the projections to \( A_0 \) and \( A_1 \) from the set \( \text{pb}(f_0, f_1) := \{ (a_0, a_1) \in A_0 \times A_1 \mid f_0(a_0) = f_1(a_1) \} \).

Many but not all endofunctors on \( \text{Set} \) in fact preserve weak pullbacks.

**Proposition 3.10** All polynomial functors preserve pullbacks, and all Kripke polynomial functors preserve weak pullbacks.

The main reason that this prima facie rather exotic property is in fact of great importance in the theory of universal coalgebra, is the following fact.

**Fact 3.11** For any set functor \( T \) the following are equivalent:

1. \( T \) is smooth;
2. \( \overline{T}(R; Q) = \overline{T}R; \overline{T}Q \), for all pairs of relations \( R \subseteq X \times Y \) and \( Q \subseteq Y \times Z \);
3. \( T \) is an endofunctor on the category \( \text{Rel} \) of sets and binary relations.

**Theorem 3.12** If \( T \) is a smooth set functor, the following hold on the class of \( T \)-coalgebras:

1. the relational composition of two bisimulations is again a bisimulation;
2. the notions of bisimilarity and behavioral equivalence coincide.

**Proof.** We leave the proof of the first statement as an exercise for the reader, and concentrate on the second statement. Let \( s_0 \) and \( s_1 \) be states of the \( T \)-coalgebras \( S_0 \) and \( S_1 \), respectively. We need to prove that \( S_0, s_0 \preceq S_1, s_1 \) iff \( S_0, s_0 \simeq S_1, s_1 \). Because of Proposition 3.1 it suffices to prove the direction from right to left.

Let \( f_0 : S_0 \to X \) and \( f_1 : S_1 \to X \) be two coalgebra morphisms such that \( f_0(s_0) = f_1(s_1) \). Then in \( \text{Set} \), the set \( B := \{ (s_0, s_1) \in S_0 \times S_1 \mid f_0(s_0) = f_1(s_1) \} \), together with the projection functions \( \pi_0 : B \to S_0 \) and \( \pi_1 : B \to S_1 \) constitutes a pullback of \( f_0 \) and \( f_1 \), cf. the square in the foreground of the picture. Because \( T \) preserves weak pullbacks, the square in the background of the picture is a weak pullback diagram in \( \text{Set} \).
Now consider the two arrows $\sigma_i \circ \pi_i : B \to T(S_i)$. First observe that $T f_i \circ \sigma_i = \xi \circ f_i$ for each $i$, because each $f_i$ is a coalgebra morphism. Hence, chasing the diagram we find that

$$T f_0 \circ \sigma_0 \circ \pi_0 = \xi \circ f_0 \circ \pi_0$$

$$= \xi \circ f_1 \circ \pi_1 = T f_1 \circ \sigma_1 \circ \pi_1.$$

Since $T \pi_0$ and $T \pi_1$ form a weak pullback of $T f_0$ and $T f_1$, this implies the existence of a mediating function $\beta : B \to TB$ such that $T \pi_i \circ \beta = \sigma_i \circ \pi_1$. In other words, $\mathbb{B} := (B, \beta)$ is an $T$-coalgebra, and the projection maps $\pi_0$ and $\pi_1$ are morphisms from $\mathbb{B}$ to $S_0$ and $S_1$, respectively.

QED
4 Covarieties

In universal algebra an important part is played by varieties: classes of algebras that are closed under the operations of taking homomorphic images, subalgebras and products of algebras. In this chapter, we introduce the notion of a covariety as a natural coalgebraic analog of a variety, and we consider some natural closure operations on classes of coalgebras.

4.1 Homomorphic images

**Definition 4.1** Let $T$ be some endofunctor on $\text{Set}$. If $f : S \to S'$ is a surjective coalgebra morphism between the $T$-coalgebras $S$ and $S'$, then we say that $S'$ is a homomorphic image of $S$.

In universal algebra, one finds a one-one correspondence between homomorphic images and congruences. Something similar applies here, but the analogy is perfect only in the case of functors that preserve weak pullbacks.

**Proposition 4.2** Let $S = (S, \sigma)$ be a $T$-coalgebra for some set functor $T$.

1. Given a bisimulation equivalence\(^6\) $E$ on $S$, there is a unique coalgebra structure $\overline{\sigma}$ on $S/E$ such that the quotient map $q : S \to S/E$ is a coalgebra morphism.

2. If $T$ preserves weak pullbacks, then the relation $\ker(f) := \{(s, t) \in S^2 \mid fs = ft\}$ is a bisimulation equivalence for any coalgebra morphism $f : S \to S'$.

**Proof.** For part (1), we leave it as an exercise for the reader to show that the set $S/E$ of $E$-cells, together with the quotient map $q$, is a coequalizer of the projection maps $\pi_0, \pi_1 : E \to S$:

$$E \xrightarrow{\pi_0} S \xrightarrow{q} S$$

Now assume that, next to being an equivalence relation, $E$ is also a bisimulation on $S$. Then by definition there is a coalgebra map $\eta : E \to TE$ such that both $\pi_i$ are coalgebra morphisms $\pi_i : (E, \eta) \to S$. It follows that

$$Tq \circ \sigma \circ \pi_0 = Tq \circ T\pi_0 \circ \eta \quad (\pi_0 \text{ is a morphism})$$

$$= T(q \circ \pi_0) \circ \eta \quad \text{(functorality)}$$

$$= T(q \circ \pi_1) \circ \eta \quad (q \text{ is a coequalizer})$$

$$= Tq \circ T\pi_1 \circ \eta \quad \text{(functorality)}$$

$$= Tq \circ \sigma \circ \pi_1 \quad (\pi_1 \text{ is a morphism})$$

In other words, the map $Tq \circ \sigma : S \to T\overline{S}$ is a competitor for the coequalizer map $q$, so there is a unique map $\overline{\sigma} : S \to T\overline{S}$ such that $\overline{\sigma} \circ q = Tq \circ \sigma$, in a diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
E & \xrightarrow{\pi_0} & S \\
\downarrow{\eta} & & \downarrow{q} \\
TE & \xrightarrow{T\pi_0} & TS \\
\downarrow{T\pi_1} & & \downarrow{Tq} \\
\overline{T\overline{S}}
\end{array}$$

\(^6\)A bisimulation equivalence is a bisimulation that is also an equivalence relation.
Clearly then \( \sigma \) is the required coalgebra map on \( S \).

For the second part of the proposition, observe that \( \ker(f) \) is the relational composition of the graph of \( f \) with its converse. The result then follows from Theorem 3.12.  

\[ \text{QED} \]

### 4.2 Subcoalgebras

The next class operation that we consider is that of taking subcoalgebras.

**Definition 4.3** Let \( X = (X, \xi) \) and \( S = (S, \sigma) \) be two \( T \)-coalgebras, such that \( S \) is a subset of \( X \). If the inclusion map \( \iota : S \to X \) is a coalgebra morphism from \((S, \sigma)\) to \((X, \xi)\), then we say that \( S \) is open with respect to \( X \), and we call the structure \((S, \sigma)\) a subcoalgebra of \( X \).

Interestingly enough, the transition map of a subcoalgebra is completely determined by the underlying open set.

**Proposition 4.4** Let \( S_0 = (S, \sigma_0) \) and \( S_1 = (S, \sigma_1) \) be two subcoalgebras of the coalgebra \( X \). Then \( \sigma_0 = \sigma_1 \).

**Proof.** The case of \( S \) being empty is trivial, so suppose otherwise. Then from the assumption that \( S_0 \) and \( S_1 \) are subcoalgebras of \( A \), we may infer that \((T\iota) \circ \sigma_0 = \xi \circ \iota = (T\iota) \circ \sigma_1\), where \( \iota \) is the inclusion map of \( S \) into \( X \). It follows from the functoriality of \( T \) that \( T\iota \) is an injection, so that we may conclude that \( \sigma_0 = \sigma_1 \).  

\[ \text{QED} \]

Some further observations concerning subcoalgebras are in order. First of all, the topological terminology is justified by the following proposition.

**Proposition 4.5** Given a coalgebra \( X \) for some set functor \( T \), the collection \( \tau_X \) of \( X \)-open sets forms a topology.

**Proof.** Closure of \( \tau_X \) under taking (arbitrary) unions follows from Theorem 3.7, together with the observation that

\[ S \subseteq X \text{ is open with respect to } X \text{ iff } \Delta_S \text{ is a bisimulation on } X, \]  

which in its turn is an immediate consequence of (19).

To prove that \( \tau_X \) is closed under taking finite intersections, assume that \( A = (A, \alpha) \) and \( B = (B, \beta) \) are two subcoalgebras of \( S \). The case where \( A \cap B = \emptyset \) is trivial, so assume otherwise. Define \( C := A \cap B \), fix some element \( c \in C \), and consider the maps \( f_c : A \to C \) and \( g_c : S \to B \), given by

\[ f_c(a) := \begin{cases} a & \text{if } a \in C \\ c & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad g_c(s) := \begin{cases} s & \text{if } s \in B \\ c & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]

Define the map \( \gamma : C \to TC \) by putting

\[ \gamma := Tf_c \circ \alpha \circ \iota_A^C. \]

We leave it for the reader to verify that \((C, \gamma)\) is a subcoalgebra of \( S \), using equalities such as \( \iota_B^C \circ f_c = g_c \circ \iota_S^A \) and \( g_c \circ \iota_S^B = \text{id}_B \).  

\[ \text{QED} \]
It follows from the Proposition above that, given a subset $S$ of (the carrier of) a coalgebra $X$, there is a largest subcoalgebra of $X$ (of which the carrier is) contained in $S$: Its universe is given as the union of all open subsets of $S$. It also follows from Proposition 4.5 that the collection $\tau_X$ of open subsets of $X$ forms a complete lattice under set inclusion. Hence, given a subset $S$ of $X$, there is an open set $U \subseteq X$ which is the meet of the collection $\{Q \in \tau_X \mid S \subseteq Q\}$. However, there is no guarantee that $U$ is also the intersection of this collection, or, indeed, that $S$ is actually a subset of $U$. Thus we may not in general speak of the smallest subcoalgebra containing a given subset, as the following example witnesses.

Example 4.6 Consider the standard Euclidean topology on the real numbers, seen as a coalgebra for the filter functor $F$. This functor is a subfunctor of the (monotone) neighborhood functor which maps a set $S$ to the collection of all filters $F_S$ on $S$ and a function $f : S \rightarrow S'$ simply to the function $Mf = \bar{P} \hat{P} f$. Prime examples of $F$-coalgebras are the topological spaces.

To see this, represent a topology $\sigma$ on the set $S$ by the function mapping a point $s \in S$ to the collection $\{U \in \sigma \mid s \in U\}$ of its neighborhoods.

One can show that a set $S$ of reals is open in the topological sense iff it is open in the sense of Definition 4.3 — in fact, this holds for any topology. Now take an arbitrary point $r$ in $\mathbb{R}$. Obviously, we have that the meet of all open neighborhoods containing $r$ is the empty set.

Before we turn to further coalgebraic constructions, consider the following natural link between homomorphic images and subcoalgebras.

Proposition 4.7 Given a coalgebra morphism $f : S \rightarrow S'$, there is a (unique) subcoalgebra $f[S]$ of $S'$ such that $f : S \rightarrow f[S]$ is a surjective morphism.

Proof. For a proof of this proposition, let $X := f[S]$ be the (set-theoretic) image of $S$ under $f$, and let $g : X \rightarrow S$ be a right inverse of $f$, that is, $f(g(x)) = x$ for all $x \in X$. Now define $\xi : X \rightarrow TX$ by $\xi := T\sigma \circ g$. It can be shown that the resulting structure $X$ is always a subcoalgebra of $S'$, and that $f : S \rightarrow X$ is a surjective morphism; further details are left for the reader. QED

4.3 Sums

Our last example of a coalgebraic construction concerns the straightforward generalization of the disjoint union of Kripke models and frames. The idea is embodied in the following Proposition.

Proposition 4.8 Let $S_0 = (S_0, \sigma_0)$ and $S_1 = (S_1, \sigma_1)$ be two $T$-coalgebras, and let $S := S_0 \uplus S_1$ be the disjoint union of $S_0$ and $S_1$. Then there is a unique arrow $\sigma : S \rightarrow TS$ making the embeddings $\kappa_i$ into coalgebra morphisms.

\footnote{Recall that a filter on $S$ is a collection $\mathcal{F}$ of subsets of $S$ which is not only upward closed (with respect to the inclusion relation), but also closed under taking (finite) intersections, that is, $X \cap Y \in \mathcal{F}$ if $X, Y \in \mathcal{F}$.}
Proof. Consider the diagram below, where $S$, together with the embedding maps $\kappa_0$ and $\kappa_1$, is the coproduct of $S_0$ and $S_1$. Since the maps $T\kappa_0 \circ \sigma_0$ and $T\kappa_1 \circ \sigma_1$ provide an alternative co-cone, there must be a (unique) mediating arrow $\sigma : S \rightarrow TS$, making the two rectangles in the diagram commute.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S_0 \xrightarrow{\kappa_0} S \leftarrow S_1 \\
\sigma_0 \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \sigma_1 \\
TS_0 \xrightarrow{T\kappa_0} TS \xleftarrow{T\kappa_1} TS_1
\end{array}
\] (24)

Clearly then this $\sigma$ meets the requirements stated in the Proposition. 

For an arbitrary collection $\{S_i : i \in I\}$, the sum or coproduct is defined as follows.

**Definition 4.9** The sum $\biguplus_i S_i$ of a family $\{S_i : i \in I\}$ of coalgebras for some set functor $T$, is defined by endowing the disjoint union $S := \biguplus_i S_i$ with the unique map $\sigma : S \rightarrow TS$ which turns all embeddings $\kappa_i : S_i \rightarrow S$ into coalgebra morphisms. \hfill \triangleleft

### 4.4 Covarieties

We have now gathered all the basic class operations needed to define the notion of a covariety.

**Definition 4.10** Let $T$ be some endofunctor on $\text{Set}$. A class of $T$-coalgebras is a covariety if it is closed under taking homomorphic images, subcoalgebras and sums. The smallest covariety containing a class $K$ of $T$-coalgebras is called the covariety generated by $K$, notation: $\text{Covar}(K)$. \hfill \triangleleft

As in the case of universal algebra, in order to obtain a more succinct characterization of the covariety generated by a class of coalgebras, one may develop a calculus of class operations.

**Definition 4.11** Let $H$, $S$ and $\Sigma$ denote the class operations of taking (isomorphic copies of) homomorphic images, subcoalgebras, and sums, respectively. \hfill \triangleleft

On the basis of these (and other) operations one may investigate the validity of ‘inequalities’ like $HS \leq SH$ (meaning that $HS(K) \subseteq SH(K)$ for all classes $K$ of coalgebras). Results of these kind lead to the following coalgebraic analog of Tarski’s HSP-theorem in universal algebra.

**Theorem 4.12** Let $K$ be a class of $T$-coalgebras for some set functor $T$. Then $\text{Covar}(K) = SH\Sigma(K)$. 

**Proof.** It is straightforward to prove the theorem on the basis of the idempotency of the class operations $H$, $S$ and $\Sigma$, together with the following three ‘inequalities’: $HS \leq SH$, $\Sigma S \leq S\Sigma$, and $\Sigma H \leq H\Sigma$. The proofs of these (and more) inequalities will be supplied later. \hfill \text{QED}
5 Coalgebraic modalities via relation lifting

In this chapter we take an approach to coalgebraic logic which is completely uniform in the type functor $T$. We introduce a coalgebraic modality $\nabla$ of which the ‘arity’ is the finitary version $T_\omega$ of the functor itself. That is, the set $L$ of formulas will be closed under the following clause:

$$\text{if } \alpha \in TX \text{ for some finite set } X \text{ of formulas, then } \nabla \alpha \text{ is a formula.}$$

whereas the semantics of $\nabla$ will be defined by lifting the satisfaction relation $\models$ between states and formulas to the relation $T(\models)$.

In the special case where $T$ is the powerset functor $P$, the nabla operator $\nabla$ is known under the name of the cover modality; we discuss this case in some detail before moving on to the more general case.

**Convention 5.1** Throughout this chapter we will assume that $T$ is a smooth and standard set functor; that is, $T$ preserves both weak pullbacks and inclusions. The first restriction is to ensure optimal behaviour of the relation lifting $T$, while the second one is mainly for convenience. In Fact A.31 we list a number of properties of the operation $T$ (all of which will be used throughout this chapter).

Furthermore, we will assume that $Q$ is an arbitrary but fixed set of proposition letters.

### 5.1 The cover modality

As we will see now, there is an interesting coalgebraic alternative for the standard formulation of basic modal logic in terms of boxes and diamonds. This alternative set-up is based on a connective $\nabla$, sometimes referred to as the cover modality, which turns a (finite) set $\alpha$ of formulas into a formula $\nabla \alpha$.

**Definition 5.2** Formulas of the language $ML_\nabla(Q)$ are given by the following recursive definition:

$$a ::= p \mid \bot \mid \neg a \mid a_0 \lor a_1 \mid \nabla \alpha$$

where $p \in Q$, and $\alpha$ denotes a finite set of formulas.

Observe that formulas will be denoted by lower case letters $a, b, \ldots$. For the semantics of the cover modality, observe that we may think of the forcing or satisfaction relation $\models$ simply as a binary relation between states and formulas. This relation can thus be lifted to a relation $\overline{T}(\models)$ between sets of formulas and $sets$ of states.

**Definition 5.3** The semantics of this modality in a Kripke model $S = (S, R, V)$ is given by

$$S, s \models \nabla \alpha \iff (R(s), \alpha) \in \overline{T}(\models),$$

where $\overline{T}(\models)$ denotes the Egli-Milner relation lifting of the relation $\models$. 

5-1
In words: $\nabla \alpha$ holds at $s$ iff every successor of $s$ satisfies some formula in $\alpha$, and every formula in $\alpha$ holds at some successor of $s$. The modality $\nabla$ is sometimes called the cover modality: it holds at a state $s$ if the set $\{\llbracket a \rrbracket | a \in \alpha\}$ covers the collection $R(s)$ of successors of $s$, in the sense that $R(s) \subseteq \bigcup\{\llbracket a \rrbracket | a \in \alpha\}$, while at the same time $R(s) \cap \llbracket a \rrbracket \neq \emptyset$, for every $a \in \alpha$.

**Remark 5.4** It is not so hard to see that the cover modality can be defined in the standard modal language:

$$\nabla \alpha \equiv \Box \lor \alpha \land \Diamond \alpha,$$

where $\Diamond \alpha$ denotes the set $\{\Diamond a | a \in \alpha\}$. Things start to get interesting once we realize that both the ordinary diamond $\Diamond$ and the ordinary box $\Box$ can be expressed in terms of the cover modality (and the disjunction):

$$\Diamond a \equiv \nabla \{a, \top\},$$
$$\Box a \equiv \nabla \emptyset \lor \nabla \{a\}.$$

(26)

Here, as always, we use the convention that $\lor \emptyset = \bot$ and $\land \emptyset = \top$.

Given that $\nabla$ and $\{\Diamond, \Box\}$ are mutually expressible, we arrive at the following proposition. Here we say that two languages are effectively equi-expressive if there are effectively definable truth-preserving translations from one language to the other, and vice versa. Recall that ML is the language of standard modal logic.

**Proposition 5.5** The languages ML and $\text{ML}_\nabla$ are effectively equi-expressive.

A remarkable observation about the cover modality is that we can do far better than this: based on the following modal distributive law, we can almost completely eliminate the Boolean connective of conjunction from the language $\text{ML}_\nabla$.

**Proposition 5.6** Let $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$ be two sets of formulas. Then the following two formulas are equivalent:

$$\nabla \alpha \land \nabla \alpha' \equiv \bigvee_{Z \in \text{ena}_\alpha} \nabla \{a \land a' | (a, a') \in Z\},$$

(27)

where $\alpha \equiv \alpha'$ is the set of all binary relations $Z \subseteq \alpha \times \alpha'$ such that $(\alpha, \alpha') \in \overline{P}(Z)$.

**Proof.** For the direction from left to right, suppose that $S, s \models \nabla \alpha \land \nabla \alpha'$. Let $Z \subseteq \alpha \times \alpha'$ consist of those pairs $(a, a')$ such that the conjunction $a \land a'$ is true at some successor $t$ of $s$. It is then straightforward to verify that $Z$ is full on $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$, that is: $(\alpha, \alpha') \in \overline{P}(Z)$, and that $S, s \models \nabla \{a \land a' | (a, a') \in Z\}$.

The converse direction is a fairly direct consequence of the definitions. QED

As a corollary of Proposition 5.6 we can restrict the use of conjunction in modal logic to that of a special conjunction connective $\bullet$ which may only be applied to a propositional formula and a $\nabla$-formula.
Definition 5.7 We first define the set \( \text{CL}(Q) \) of literal conjunctions by the following grammar:

\[
\pi ::= p | \neg p | \top | \pi \land \pi,
\]

and then let the following grammar define the set \( \text{DML}_\varphi(Q) \) of disjunctive modal formulas in \( Q \):

\[
a ::= p | \neg p | \top | a_0 \lor a_1 | \pi \bullet \nabla \alpha.
\]

Here \( p \in Q, \pi \in \text{CL}(Q) \) and \( \alpha \in P_\omega \text{DML}_\varphi(Q) \).

As mentioned, the bullet connective is semantically equivalent to conjunction:

\[
\mathcal{S}, s \vDash \pi \bullet \nabla \alpha \text{ iff } \mathcal{S}, s \vDash \pi \text{ and } \mathcal{S}, s \vDash \nabla \alpha.
\]

Note however, that this conjunction is special in the sense that it combines ‘local’ information about \( s \) itself with information about the unfolding of \( s \).

Theorem 5.8 The languages \( \text{ML} \) and \( \text{DML}_\varphi \) are effectively equi-expressive.

Proof. We will show how to rewrite a formula \( a \in \text{ML} \) into an equivalent formula in \( \text{DML}_\varphi \). Start by rewriting \( a \) into negation normal form:

\[
a ::= p | \neg p | \top | a_0 \lor a_1 | a_0 \land a_1 | \Diamond a | \Box a,
\]

then by (26) we can find an equivalent formula \( a' \) in the language given by

\[
a ::= p | \neg p | \top | a_0 \lor a_1 | a_0 \land a_1 | \nabla \alpha.
\]

Finally, the modal distributive law (27) allows us to push down nabla’s to the propositional level, and so using the propositional distributive law \( (a \land (b_0 \lor b_1)) \equiv (a \land b_0) \lor (a \land b_1)) \), we can rewrite \( a' \) into an equivalent disjunctive modal formula.

QED

Theorem 5.8 can be used to prove various interesting results about modal logic, such as the finite model property, or the decidability of the satisfiability problem — in linear time, once the formula is in disjunctive normal form. Rather than proving these corollaries here, we will prove these results in the far more general setting of the coalgebraic cover modality.

5.2 Moss’ coalgebraic cover modality

We will now generalise the cover modality from the case where \( T = P \) to the setting where \( T \) is an arbitrary smooth and standard functor. We are eager to keep our language finitary, in the sense that formulas will be finitary objects, with for instance finitely many subformulas. For this reason we will work with the finitary version of the functor \( T \).

Recall that since \( T \) preserves inclusions, we may define its finitary version \( T_\omega : \text{Set} \to \text{Set} \) by putting

\[
T_\omega(S) ::= \bigcup \{ TX \mid X \in_\omega S \},
T_\omega(f : S \to S') ::= (T f) \upharpoonright_{T_\omega S}.
\]

It is easy to verify that \( T_\omega \) also preserves inclusions; given the definition of \( T_\omega \) on functions, we may write \( T f \) instead of \( T_\omega f \) without causing confusion.
Definition 5.9 Formulas of the language $ML_T(Q)$ are given by the following recursive definition:

$$a := p | \bot | \neg a | a_0 \lor a_1 | \nabla \alpha$$

where $p \in Q$, and $\alpha \in T_\omega(ML_T)(Q)$. We will often write $ML_T$ instead of $ML_T(Q)$ if the set $Q$ of proposition letters is either understood or irrelevant. $\triangleright$

The semantics of $ML_T$ is defined as follows. Recall that a $T$-model is a triple $(S, \sigma, V)$, where $(S, \sigma)$ is a $T$-coalgebra and $V : Q \to PS$ is a valuation.

Definition 5.10 Let $S = (S, \sigma, V)$ be a $T$-model. Then by induction on the complexity of $ML_T$-formulas we define the satisfaction relation $\models$:

$$S, s \models p \quad \text{iff} \quad s \in V(p)$$

$$S, s \models \bot \quad : \quad \text{never}$$

$$S, s \models \neg a \quad \text{iff} \quad S, s \not\models a$$

$$S, s \models a_0 \lor a_1 \quad \text{iff} \quad S, s \models a_0 \text{ or } S, s \models a_1$$

$$S, s \models \nabla \alpha \quad \text{iff} \quad (\sigma(s), \alpha) \in T(\models).$$

A formula $a \in ML_T$ is satisfiable iff $a$ is satisfiable in some state of some $T$-model, and valid if its negation is not satisfiable.

Furthermore, we say that two pointed $T$-models are $ML_T$-equivalent or (modally) equivalent if they satisfy the same $ML_T$-formulas, notation: $S, s \equiv_T S', s'$. $\triangleright$

Remark 5.11 Before we consider the instantiations of this logic for some set functor $T$, we argue that the semantics of $ML_T$ is well defined. The reader might have some worries about the inductive clause for the $\nabla$ modality, since the definition refers to the lifting of the full satisfaction relation.

The point is that because of our assumptions on $T$, its associated relation lifting $T$ commutes with restrictions, cf. Fact A.31. This means that

$$(\sigma(s), \alpha) \in T(\models) \quad \text{iff} \quad (\sigma(s), \alpha) \in T(\models_{S \times X}),$$

where $X$ is any finite set of formulas such that $\alpha \in T_\omega X$. Thus, in order to determine whether $\nabla \alpha$ holds at $s$ or not, we only have to know the interpretation of the formulas used in the justification that $\nabla \alpha$ is a formula. Below we shall see that in fact there is a unique set $Base(\alpha)$ which is the smallest (finite) set $X$ such that $\alpha \in TX$. In other words, we may replace the ‘quasi-inductive’ clause for $\nabla$ in Definition 5.10 with the following, properly inductive one:

$$S, s \models \nabla \alpha \quad \text{iff} \quad (\sigma(s), \alpha) \in T(\models_{S \times Base(\alpha)}).$$

Example 5.12 In this example we look at the interpretation of the coalgebraic cover modality instantiated for various coalgebra types $T$. That is, let $S = (S, \sigma, V)$ be a $T$-model and consider an element $\alpha \in T_\omega(ML_T)$; below we will explain what it means for the formula $\nabla \alpha$ to hold at $s$.

(a) In case $T = K_C$ is a constant functor, $\alpha \in T(ML_T) = C$ is just a colour $\alpha \in C$. In this case we find $S, s \models \nabla \alpha$ iff $\sigma(s) = \alpha$. 

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Given a finitary functor \( T \). We write \( \text{Base}_\alpha \) for every many subformulas. The key property of finitary functors that will make this possible is that start with showing that ML

In this section we prove some of the basic properties of the coalgebraic cover modality. We

Example 5.13 In this example we study the \( \_\_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_
Example 5.15 The following examples are easy to check: $\text{Base}^{\text{id}}_X : X \to P_\omega X$ is the singleton map, $\text{Base}^P_X : P_\omega X \to P_\omega X$ is the identity map on $P_\omega X$, $\text{Base}^{\text{id}^2}_X : X \times X \to P_\omega X$ maps the pair $(x_1, x_2)$ to the set $\{x_1, x_2\}$, and $\text{Base}^D$ maps a finitary distribution $\mu$ to its support $\{s \in S \mid \mu(s) > 0\}$.

Fact 5.16 Let $T : \text{Set} \to \text{Set}$ preserve inclusions.

1. For any $\alpha \in T_\omega X$, $\text{Base}^T_X(\alpha)$ is the smallest set $Y$ such that $\alpha \in TY$.
2. If $T$ is smooth as well, then $\text{Base}^T$ provides a natural transformation $\text{Base} : T_\omega \to P_\omega$.

Recall that $\text{Base}^T$ being a natural transformation means that the following diagram commutes.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
X & \xrightarrow{T_\omega} & P_\omega X \\
\downarrow f & & \downarrow P_\omega f \\
Y & \xrightarrow{T_\omega} & P_\omega Y
\end{array}
\] (30)

for any map $f : X \to Y$.

By Fact 5.16(1) we may find for any formula $\nabla \alpha$ a smallest (and finite) collection $X$ of formulas such that $\alpha \in T_\omega X$, namely, the set $X = \text{Base}(\alpha)$. This means that we can define a natural notion of subformula.

Definition 5.17 We define the set $\text{Sfor}(a)$ of subformulas of a formula $a \in \text{ML}_T$ by the following induction:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Sfor}(a) & := \{a\} & \text{if } a \in \{p, \bot\} \\
\text{Sfor}(\neg a) & := \{-a\} \cup \text{Sfor}(a) \\
\text{Sfor}(a_0 \lor a_1) & := \{a_0 \lor a_1\} \cup \text{Sfor}(a_0) \cup \text{Sfor}(a_1) \\
\text{Sfor}(\nabla \alpha) & := \{\nabla \alpha\} \cup \{\text{Sfor}(a) \mid a \in \text{Base}(\alpha)\}
\end{align*}
\]

The elements of $\text{Base}(\alpha)$ will be called the immediate subformulas of $\nabla \alpha$.

The next properties that we consider are invariance and expressivity.

Theorem 5.18 For any smooth and standard functor $T$, the language $\text{ML}_T$ is invariant: Given any two pointed $T$-models $(S, s)$ and $(S', s')$ we have

\[(S, s) \equiv_T (S', s') \implies (S, s) \equiv_T (S', s').\] (31)

Proof. Given the smoothness of $T$, it suffices to prove that bisimilarity implies modal equivalence. Assuming that $Z : S \leftrightarrow S'$, we will prove by induction on the complexity of $\text{ML}_T$-formulas that, for every $\text{ML}_T$-formula $a$:

\[(S, s) \models a \text{ iff } (S', s') \models a,\] (32)

for every pair of states $(s, s') \in Z$. Clearly this suffices to prove the proposition.
Skipping the routine parts of the proof (i.e., the base step and boolean cases of the inductive step), we focus on the case where \( a = \triangledown \alpha \). We only prove the direction from right to left of (32).

So, assume that \((s, s') \in Z \) and \( S', s' \models \triangledown \alpha \), and let \( \models \in S \times ML_T \) and \( \models' \subseteq S' \times ML_T \) denote the satisfaction relations on \( S \) and \( S' \), respectively. It follows from \((s, s') \in Z \) that \((\sigma(s), \sigma'(s')) \in T Z \), and from \( S', s' \models \triangledown \alpha \) that \((\sigma'(s'), \alpha) \in T(\models')\); but from the latter fact, together with the observation that \( \alpha \in T Base(\alpha) \), we may derive that \((\sigma'(s'), \alpha) \in T(\models_{S \times Base(\alpha)})\) (cf. Fact A.31). Putting these observations together with the fact that \( T \) preserves relation composition, we find that

\[
(\sigma(s), \alpha) \in T(Z; \models_{S \times Base(\alpha)}),
\]

But by the inductive hypothesis we obtain that \( Z; \models_{S \times Base(\alpha)} \subseteq \models \), so that it follows by the monotonicity of relation lifting that \( \sigma(s), \alpha \in T(\models) \). From this it is immediate by the semantics of \( \triangledown \) that \( S, s \models \triangledown \alpha \), as required.

As could be expected, the converse of this proposition only holds if we restrict attention to image-finite coalgebras.

**Definition 5.19** A \( T \)-coalgebra \( \mathcal{S} = (S, \sigma) \) is image-finite if \( \sigma(s) \in T_w S \), for all \( s \in S \).

**Theorem 5.20** For any smooth and standard functor \( T \), the language \( ML_T \) is expressive on the class of image-finite \( T \)-models: Given any two pointed \( T_w \)-models \((S, s) \) and \((S', s') \) we have

\[
(S, s) \models_T (S', s') \text{ implies } (S, s) \bisim (S', s').
\]

**Proof.** It suffices to show that the relation of modal equivalence is itself a bisimulation, when restricted to the class of image-finite coalgebra models.

Fix two \( T \)-models \( S = (S, \sigma, V) \) and \( S' = (S', \sigma', V') \), and let \( \equiv \subseteq S \times S' \) denote the relation of modal equivalence between \( S \) and \( S' \). (That is, we avoid notational clutter and write \( \equiv \) instead of \( \equiv_T \).) We will use Theorem 3.7 in order to prove that \( \equiv \) is a bisimulation, and suppose for contradiction that \( s \equiv s' \), while \((\sigma(s), \sigma'(s')) \notin T(\equiv) \).

It follows by image-finiteness that we may consider the (finite) sets \( B := Base(\sigma s) \) and \( B' := Base(\sigma' s') \). This implies that for every \( t \in B \) there is a formula \( c_t \) such that, for all \( t' \in B' \),

\[
S', t' \models_{c_t} \text{ iff } t \equiv t',
\]
as the reader can easily verify. In other words, with \( H := \{c_t \mid t \in B\} \), we may think of \( c \) as a surjection \( c : B \to H \) satisfying \( \text{Gr}(c) \subseteq \models \) and

\[
\equiv \upharpoonright_{B \times B'} = \text{Gr}(c); (\models_{B \times H})^{-}
\]

From this we may derive, using the properties of relation lifting (Fact A.31), that

\[
\overline{T}(\equiv) \upharpoonright_{TB \times TB'} = \text{Gr}(Tc); (\overline{T}\models_{B \times H})^{-}
\]

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But since \((\sigma s, \sigma' s') \notin T(\varepsilon)\) this can only mean that the object \(\gamma := (Tc)(\sigma s)\) is such that 
\((\gamma, \sigma' s') \notin (T|-B\times H)^-\). Because \(\text{Gr}(Tc) \subseteq T(\varepsilon)\) this means that \((\sigma s, \gamma) \in T(\varepsilon)\), while 
\((\gamma, \sigma' s') \notin (T|-B\times H)^-\) implies \((\sigma' s', \gamma) \notin T\vDash\), or, in other words: \(s \vDash \neg \gamma\) but \(s' \not\vDash \neg \gamma\). We have arrived at the desired contradiction.

The last basic property that we mention is that of satisfiability reduction.

**Proposition 5.21** Let \(\nabla \alpha\) be a formula in \(\text{ML}_T\). Then \(\nabla \alpha\) is satisfiable iff every \(a \in \text{Base}(\alpha)\) is satisfiable.

**Proof.** For the direction from right to left, assume that every \(a \in \text{Base}(\alpha)\) is satisfiable. That is, assume that for every \(a \in \text{Base}(\alpha)\) there is a pointed model \((S_a, s_a)\), with \(S_a = (S_a, \sigma_a, V_a)\) and such that \(S, s_a \vDash a\), for each \(a\). We define a new model \(S = (S, \sigma, V)\), where 
\(S := \{s\} \cup \{S_a \mid a \in \text{Base}(\alpha)\}\). For the valuation \(V\) we simply define \(V(p) := \bigcup_a V_a(p)\), while

on an element \(s \in S_a\) the coalgebra map \(\sigma : S \to TS\) is defined by putting \(\sigma(s) := \sigma_a(s)\). For the definition of the unfolding \(\sigma(r)\) of the ‘root’ \(r\), consider the map \(f : \text{Base}(\alpha) \to S\) given by \(a \mapsto s_a\), and simply put \(\sigma(r) := (Tf)(\alpha)\). It is then immediate by the definition of \(f\) that 
\((\text{Gr} f)^- \subseteq \vDash\), so that we find, using various properties of relation lifting (cf. Fact A.31):

\[(\sigma r, \alpha) \in (\text{Gr}(Tf)^-)\subseteq T((\text{Gr} f)^-) \subseteq T(\vDash),\]

from which it follows that \(S, r \vDash \nabla \alpha\) indeed.

For the opposite direction, we need the following little fact about the functor \(T\):

for any \(f : A \to B\) and any \(\alpha \in TA\) we have \((Tf)(\alpha) \in T(f[A])\). \hspace{1cm} (35)

To see why (35) holds, factorize \(f\) as the unique composition \(f = \iota \circ f'\) of a surjection \(f' : A \to f[A]\) and an inclusion \(\iota : f[A] \to B\). From this factorization it follows that \(Tf = (T\iota) \circ (Tf')\), where \(f' : TA \to Tf[A]\) is surjective since every set functor preserves surjections, and \(T\iota : Tf[A] \to TB\) is an inclusions by assumption on \(T\). From these observations (35) is easy to derive.

Now assume that \(\nabla \alpha\) is satisfiable, then there is a \(T\)-model \(S = (S, \sigma, V)\) such that \(S, s \vDash \nabla \alpha\) for some state \(s \in S\). Then by definition of the semantics of \(\nabla\) we have that 
\((\sigma s, \alpha) \in T(\vDash)\), and so by definition of \(T\) there is an object \(\rho \in T(\vDash)\) such that \(T\pi_0(\rho) = \sigma(s)\) and \(T\pi_1(\rho) = \alpha\), where \(\pi_0 : \vDash \to S\) and \(\pi_1 : \vDash \to \text{ML}_T\) are the projection functions on the relation \(\vDash\). But then it follows by (35) that \(\alpha \in T(\pi_1(\vDash)) = T(\text{Ran}(\vDash))\), so that \(\text{Base}(\alpha) \subseteq \text{Ran}(\vDash)\). In other words, for every \(a \in \text{Base}(\alpha)\) there is an \(s \in S\) where \(a\) holds. In particular, this means that every \(a \in \text{Base}(\alpha)\) is satisfiable.

QED

### 5.4 Coalgebraic modal distributive laws

In this section we will formulate three coalgebraic modal distributive laws (CMDLs) describing the interaction between the coalgebraic modality \(\nabla\) on the one hand, and the boolean operations on the other. For a concise formulation of these principles it will be convenient to slightly rearrange the coalgebraic modal language, working with the finitary versions \(\land\) and \(\lor\) of the binary connectives for conjunction and disjunction. That is, in this section we will be working with the following variant of the language.
Definition 5.22 The language $L_T$ is given by the following grammar:

$$a ::= p \mid \bot \mid \neg a \mid \bigwedge A \mid \bigvee A \mid \nabla \alpha$$

where $p \in Q$, $A \in P\omega L_T$ and $\alpha \in T\omega L_T$.

The semantics of $\bigwedge$ and $\bigvee$ is as expected:

$$S, s \Vdash \bigwedge A \iff S, s \Vdash a \text{ for all } a \in A$$

$$S, s \Vdash \bigvee A \iff S, s \Vdash a \text{ for some } a \in A$$

In particular, we have $\bigwedge \emptyset \equiv \top$ and $\bigvee \emptyset \equiv \bot$.

A key aspect of the formulation of the CMDLs is the observation that we may think of the connectives $\bigwedge, \bigvee$ and $\neg$ as maps of the respective types $\bigwedge, \bigvee : P\omega L_T \rightarrow L_T$ and $\neg : L_T \rightarrow L_T$. In particular, this perspective allows us to apply the functor $T$ to these connectives, obtaining maps $T\bigwedge, T\bigvee : T\omega P\omega L_T \rightarrow T\omega L_T$, and $T\neg : T\omega L_T \rightarrow T\omega L_T$. Thus, for any object $\Phi \in T\omega P\omega L_T$ we find $(T \bigvee)\Phi \in T\omega L_T$, which means that $\nabla (T \bigvee)\Phi$ is a well-formed formula.

Convention 5.23 Since we will be dealing here with formulas and similar objects in various, closely related sets, including $Q, L_T, T\omega L_T, P\omega L_T, P\omega T\omega L_T$ and $T\omega P\omega L_T$, it will be convenient to use some kind of naming convention, see Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Set</th>
<th>Elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$Q$</td>
<td>$p, q, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_T$</td>
<td>$a, b, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T\omega L_T$</td>
<td>$\alpha, \beta, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P\omega L_T$</td>
<td>$A, B, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P\omega T\omega L_T$</td>
<td>$\Gamma, \Delta, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T\omega P\omega L_T$</td>
<td>$\Phi, \Psi, \ldots$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Naming convention

In order to formulate the modal distributive laws we need some auxiliary definitions.

Definition 5.24 Given a smooth and standard set functor $T$, we define, for every set $X$, a function $\lambda_X^T : TPX \rightarrow PTX$ by putting

$$\lambda_X^T(\Phi) := \{ \alpha \in TX \mid (\alpha, \Phi) \in \overline{T}(\in_X) \}$$

where $\in_X$ denotes the membership relation $\in$, restricted to $X \times PX$. Elements of $\lambda_X^T(\Phi)$ will be referred to as lifted members of $\Phi$. The family $\lambda^T = \{ \lambda_X^T \} \in \text{Set}$ will be called the $T$-transformation.

A set $\Phi \in TPX$ is a redistribution of a set $\Gamma \in PTX$ if $\Gamma \subseteq \lambda_X^T(\Phi)$, that is, every element of $\Gamma$ is a lifted member of $\Phi$. In case $\Gamma \in P\omega T\omega X$, we call a redistribution $\Phi$ slim if $\Phi \in T\omega P\omega (\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \text{Base}(\gamma))$. The set of slim redistributions of $\Gamma$ is denoted as $\text{SRD}(\Gamma)$. 

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**Definition 5.25** Let $T$ be a smooth and standard set functor which restricts to finite sets. Consider the following coalgebraic modal distributive laws:

$$(DL_{\vee}) \quad \nabla(T \vee)(\Phi) \equiv \bigvee \{ \nabla \alpha \mid (\alpha, \Phi) \in T(\varepsilon) \}$$

$$(DL_{\land}) \quad \bigwedge \{ \nabla \gamma \mid \gamma \in \Gamma \} \equiv \bigvee \{ \nabla(T \land)(\Phi) \mid \Phi \in \text{SRD}(\Gamma) \}$$

$$(DL_{\neg}) \quad \neg \nabla \alpha \equiv \bigvee \{ \nabla(T \land \neg \beta) \mid \beta \in T_\omega P_\omega \text{Base}(\alpha) \text{ and } (\alpha, \Psi) \notin T(\varepsilon) \}$$

**Proposition 5.26** Let $T$ be a smooth and standard set functor which restricts to finite sets. All three coalgebraic modal distributive laws are valid.

**Proof.** In order to understand the validity of these laws, fix some $T$-model $\mathcal{S} = (S, \sigma, V)$.

We first consider $(DL_{\vee})$, proving the direction from left to right. First observe that for any $A \subseteq L_T$ we have $S, s \models \neg A$ iff $S, s \not\models a$, for some $a \in A$. Putting it differently, the relations $\models ; \varepsilon$ and $\models ; \nabla^*$ coincide. From this it follows that

$$T(\models ; \varepsilon) = T(\models ; \nabla^*). \quad (36)$$

Now fix some object $\Phi \in T_\omega P_\omega L$, and suppose that $s$ is a state in $S$ such that $s \models \nabla(T \vee) \Phi$. By the truth definition, the pair $(\sigma(s), (T \vee)(\Phi))$ belongs to the relation $T(\models ; \varepsilon)$, and so $(\sigma(s), \Phi)$ belongs to $(T(\models ; \varepsilon)) (\models(T \vee) = T(\models ; \nabla^*)$. But then by (36), we find $(\sigma(s), \Phi) \in T(\models ; \varepsilon) = T(\models ; T(\varepsilon))$. In other words, there is some object $\beta$ such that $(\sigma(s), \beta) \in T(\models ; \varepsilon)$ and $(\beta, \Phi) \in T(\varepsilon)$. Clearly then $s \models \nabla \beta$, and so we have $s \models \nabla^* \setminus \{ \nabla \beta \mid \beta \in \Phi \}$, as required.

For the validity of $(DL_{\land})$, we also confine attention to the direction from left to right. Assume that $\mathcal{S}, s \models \nabla^* \gamma$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$. We need to come up with some slim redistribution $\Phi$ of $\Gamma$ such that $\mathcal{S}, s \models \nabla(T \land) \Phi$. For this purpose we associate, with any state $t \in S$, the finite set

$$A_t := \{ a \in \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \text{Base}(\gamma) \mid S, t \not\models a \}.$$

Taking $A$ to be the map $A : S \to P_\omega L_T$, we may define $\Phi := (TA)(\sigma(s)) \in T_\omega P_\omega L_T$.

First we show that $\mathcal{S}, s \models \nabla(T \land) \Phi$. Observe that by definition of the map $A : S \to P_\omega L_T$, the function $\land \circ A : S \to L_T$ is such that

$$\text{Gr}(\land \circ A) \subseteq \models ; \varepsilon.$$

From this we obtain

$$\text{Gr}((T \land) \circ (TA)) \subseteq T(\models ; \varepsilon)$$

by the properties of the operation $T$. But that means that for every element $\tau \in TS$, we have that $\tau, ((T \land) \circ (TA))(\tau) \in T(\varepsilon)$. In particular, we find that $(\sigma s, (T \land) \Phi) = (\sigma s, (T \land)(TA)(\sigma(s))) \in T(\varepsilon)$, showing that $\mathcal{S}, s \models \nabla(T \land) \Phi$ as required.

It is left to prove that $\Phi$ is a slim redistribution of $\Gamma$. Observe that by definition of the map $A$, we have that

$$\text{Gr}(A) ; \varepsilon \models S \times B,$$

---

8Here we write $\vee$ instead of $\text{Gr}(\vee)$
where $B := \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} Base(\gamma)$. From this it follows by the properties of relation lifting that

$$\text{Gr}(TA) ; (T\varepsilon)^{-} = T(\varepsilon^{-}) |_{T S \times TB}.$$ 

But then for each $\gamma \in \Gamma$ we may derive from the fact that $(s, \gamma) \in T(\varepsilon^{-}) |_{T S \times TB}$ that there is some object $\Psi$ such that $(s, \Psi) \in \text{Gr}(TA)$ and $(\Psi, \gamma) \in (T\varepsilon)^{-}$. It then easily follows that $\Psi = (TA)(s) = \Phi$ and so $(\gamma, \Phi) = (\gamma, \Psi) \in T(\varepsilon)$. In other words, each $\gamma \in \Gamma$ is a lifted member of $\Phi$, and so $\Phi$ is a redistribution of $\Gamma$; but then by its definition it is slim.

Finally, the validity of $(DL_{\neg})$ is left as an exercise to the reader. 

**5.5 Coalgebraic Logic**

We will now see that the coalgebraic modal distributive laws that we proved in the previous section are in fact quite strong principles, with important applications.

We start with the coalgebraic generalisation of the disjunctive normal form result on the cover modality, Theorem 5.8.

**Definition 5.27** We let the following grammar:

$$a := p \mid \neg p \mid \top \mid a_{0} \lor a_{1} \mid \pi \bullet \nabla \alpha.$$ 

define the set $\text{DML}_{T}(Q)$ of disjunctive $T$-modal formulas in $Q$.

The proof of the following theorem is completely analogous to that of Theorem 5.8.

**Theorem 5.28** Let $T$ be a smooth and standard set functor which restricts to finite sets. The languages $\text{ML}_{T}$ and $\text{DML}_{T}$ are effectively equi-expressive.

For the following result recall that a modal logic $(L, \vDash)$ has the finite model property if every satisfiable $L$-formula is satisfiable in a finite model.

**Theorem 5.29** Let $T$ be a smooth and standard set functor which restricts to finite sets. Then $\text{ML}_{T}$ has the finite model property.

**Proof.** By Theorem 5.28 it suffices to prove the finite model property for disjunctive formulas. We leave it as an exercise for the reader to establish this result — this goes by a straightforward proof by induction on the complexity of $\text{DML}_{T}$-formulas, of which the inductive case for the $\nabla$ modality uses the observation underlying the proof of our satisfiability reduction result, Proposition 5.21. 

**Remark 5.30** Theorem 5.28 can also be used to obtain decidability results for logics $\text{ML}_{T}$. For instance, it can be proved that the satisfiability problem for the language $\text{ML}_{\nabla}$ can be solved in linear time. However, since these results depend on the functor, or more specifically: on the representation of formulas of the form $\nabla \alpha$, we refrain from going into detail here.
Remark 5.31 As another corollary of Theorem 5.28 we can show that for any smooth and standard set functor \( T \) which restricts to finite sets, the logic ML has uniform interpolation, a strong version of Craig’s interpolation property.

Finally, we briefly mention a sound and complete derivation system for the set of valid ML-formulas.

Definition 5.32 Let \( T \) be a smooth and standard set functor which restricts to finite sets. For the derivation system \( \mathbf{M} \), we start with fixing an arbitrary sound and complete set of axioms and rules for classical propositional logic; we extend this with the following derivation rule:

\[
\frac{\{a \rightarrow b \mid (a, b) \in Z\}}{\nabla \alpha \rightarrow \nabla \beta} (\alpha, \beta) \in TZ,
\]

together with the one-sided versions of the coalgebraic modal distributive laws:

\[
\begin{align*}
(A_V) & \quad \nabla (T \nabla) (\Phi) \rightarrow \bigvee \{ \nabla \alpha \mid (\alpha, \Phi) \in T(\varepsilon_X)\} \\
(A_A) & \quad \bigwedge \{ \nabla \gamma \mid \gamma \in \Gamma \} \rightarrow \bigvee \{ \nabla (T \land) (\Phi) \mid \Phi \in SRD(\Gamma)\} \\
(A_\neg) & \quad \neg \nabla \alpha \rightarrow \bigvee \{ \nabla T(\land \circ P \neg) \Psi \mid \Psi \in T_\omega P_\omega Base(\alpha) \text{ and } (\alpha, \Psi) \notin T(\xi)\}
\end{align*}
\]
6 Coalgebraic modalities via predicate liftings

In this chapter we take an approach to coalgebraic modal logic where the modalities are in 1-1 correspondence with so-called predicate liftings for the functor \( T \). That is, with each set \( \Lambda \) of such predicate liftings we will associate a modal formalism \( \text{ML}_\Lambda \) for \( T \)-coalgebras. As a result this set-up is not completely uniform in the coalgebra type \( T \), but it has some advantages over the approach based on relation lifting. First of all, the language of \( \text{ML}_\Lambda \) is completely standard, with a syntax that adds to the language of propositional logic an \( n \)-ary modality \( \Box_\lambda \) for each \( n \)-ary predicate lifting \( \lambda \in \Lambda \). Second, there is no reason to restrict attention to functors that are smooth (preserve weak pullbacks). And finally, predicate liftings provide a uniform framework to many well-known variants of standard modal logic (including monotone and probabilistic modal logic, which were already mentioned in section 1.5).

Before we introduce the approach in full generality, we briefly discuss a few other concrete variants of standard modal logic that are covered by the approach.

6.1 Variants of modal logic

Example 6.1

(1) The next-time operator \( \Box \) of linear time logic is perhaps the most simple example. For its definition, consider models of the form \((\omega, V)\), where \( V : Q \to P(\omega) \) is a valuation on the set \( \omega \) of natural numbers; the modality \( \Box \) is interpreted as follows:

\[
\omega, V, n \Vdash \Box \varphi \text{ iff } \omega, V, n + 1 \Vdash \varphi.
\]

Clearly the semantics of this operator can be generalised to arbitrary \( T \)-models for the identity functor \( T = \text{Id} \).

(2) Similarly, on the binary tree \( 2^\omega \) we can interpret two modalities \( \Box_0 \) and \( \Box_1 \), with the following interpretation:

\[
2^\omega, V, u \Vdash \Box_i \varphi \text{ iff } 2^\omega, V, u \cdot i \Vdash \varphi,
\]

where \( i \in \{0, 1\} \) and \( V : Q \to P(2^\omega) \) is a valuation on the set of finite words over the alphabet \( 2 = \{0, 1\} \).

The semantics of these operators can be generalised to arbitrary models for the binary tree functor \( T = \text{Id} \times \text{Id} \).

(3) Graded modal logic is a version of modal logic that allows statements about the number of successors that satisfy a certain formula. Formally, interpreted in Kripke models, the modality \( \Diamond_{\geq k} \) has the following semantics:

\[
S, n \Vdash \Diamond_{\geq k} \varphi \text{ iff } s \text{ has at least } k \varphi\text{-successors},
\]

where a \( \varphi \)-successor of \( s \) is a state \( t \in R(s) \) where \( \varphi \) holds. If we restrict attention to image-finite Kripke models, it also makes sense to introduce the following ‘majority modality’ \( M \):

\[
S, n \Vdash M(\varphi, \psi) \text{ iff } s \text{ has more } \varphi\text{-successors than } \psi\text{-successors}.
\]

Note that these modalities are not bisimulation invariant if we consider Kripke frames as coalgebras for the powerset functor. However, as we will see below, we may also see Kripke
frames as coalgebras for the \( B \) functor (see the appendix for its definition), and for that functor both modalities will turn out to be invariant.

As we will see in this section, the common semantic pattern in many of these formalisms can be captured rather nicely in a coalgebraic framework by the notion of a predicate lifting.

### 6.2 Modalities via predicate liftings

To introduce the notion of a predicate lifting, we consider the example of probabilistic modal logic. In Example 1.8 we defined the semantics of the modality \( \Diamond_q \) (with \( q \) a rational number in \( [0, 1] \)) in a model \( S = (S, \sigma, V) \) for the distribution functor \( D \), as follows:

\[
S, s \models \Diamond_q \varphi \text{ iff } \sum_{u \in [[\varphi]]} \sigma(s)(u) > q,
\]

where we recall that \( [[\varphi]] \) denotes the extension of \( \varphi \), i.e., the set \( \{ t \in S \mid S, t \models \varphi \} \) of states in \( S \) where \( \varphi \) is true. The way that we will be thinking of this definition now is as

\[
S, s \models \Diamond_q \varphi \text{ iff } \sigma(s) \in \bigcup_{\mu \in D(S)} \{ \mu \mid \sum_{u \in [[\varphi]]} \mu(u) > q \},
\]

or, in fact, as

\[
S, s \models \Diamond_q \varphi \text{ iff } \sigma(s) \in \theta_S^q([[\varphi]]),
\]

where \( \theta_S^q : PS \to PDS \) is defined by

\[
\theta_S^q : U \mapsto \{ \mu \in D(S) \mid \sum_{u \in U} \mu(u) > q \}.
\]

In other words, we may think of the semantics of the modality \( \Diamond_q \) as being indexed by a family \( \theta^q \) of maps \( \theta_S^q : PS \to PDS \), where each \( \theta_S^q \) lifts a predicate on \( S \) (i.e., a subset of \( S \)) to a predicate on \( DS \).

Now in principle we may associate a modality with each such family \( \theta \). However, as we will see below, it will make a lot of sense to impose the following uniformity condition on the family of maps: We will require that, for each map \( f : S' \to S \), the following diagram commutes:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S' & \xrightarrow{\theta_{S'}} & PDS' \\
\downarrow{f} & \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \downarrow{\bar{P}f} & \\
S & \xrightarrow{\theta_S} & PDS
\end{array}
\]

That is, we will require a 'proper' predicate lifting for the distribution functor to be a natural transformation \( \theta : \bar{P} \Rightarrow \bar{PD} \), where \( \bar{P} \) is the contravariant powerset functor. In general, for an arbitrary set functor \( T \) we introduce the concept of a predicate lifting of some arbitrary but fixed finite arity, as follows.

**Definition 6.2** A predicate lifting is a natural transformation of the form \( \lambda : \bar{P}^n \Rightarrow \bar{PT} \), for some number \( n \in \omega \) which we shall refer to as the arity of \( \lambda \), notation: \( n = \text{ar} \lambda \).
Recall that the naturality condition on predicate liftings means that the following diagram commutes, for every function \( f : S' \rightarrow S \):

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S' & \xrightarrow{(PS)^n} & PT S' \\
\downarrow{f} & & \downarrow{PT f} \\
S & \xrightarrow{(PS)^n} & PT S
\end{array}
\]  

(40)

**Definition 6.3** Let \( \Lambda \) be a set of predicate liftings for the set functor \( T \). The formulas of the modal logic \( ML_\Lambda(Q) \) are given by the following grammar:

\[
\varphi ::= p \mid \bot \mid \neg \varphi \mid \varphi_0 \lor \varphi_1 \mid \odot \lambda(\varphi_0, \ldots, \varphi_{n-1}),
\]

where \( p \in Q \), and \( \lambda \) is an \( n \)-ary predicate lifting for \( T \). We will sometimes refer to \( \Lambda \) as the signature of the language \( ML_\Lambda(Q) \).

The notions of satisfiability, validity, and \( ML_\Lambda \)-equivalence are all defined in the obvious way; the latter relation will usually be denoted as \( \equiv \) rather than as \( \equiv_{ML_\Lambda} \).

**Definition 6.4** Let \( S = (S, \sigma, V) \) be a \( T \)-model for some set functor \( T \). We define the satisfaction relation \( \models_S \in S \times ML_\Lambda(Q) \) by induction on the complexity of \( ML_\Lambda(Q) \)-formulas. With all other clauses of this definition being standard, we only mention the clause for the coalgebraic modalities:

\[
S, s \models \odot \lambda(\varphi_0, \ldots, \varphi_{n-1}) \text{ iff } \sigma(s) \in \lambda([[[\varphi_0]]^S, \ldots, [[[\varphi_{n-1}]]^S]).
\]

(41)

The notions of satisfiability, validity, and \( ML_\Lambda \)-equivalence are all defined in the obvious way; the latter relation will usually be denoted as \( \equiv \) rather than as \( \equiv_{ML_\Lambda} \).

**Remark 6.5** A succinct way of defining the semantics of the modality \( \odot \lambda \) (41) is as follows:

\[
[[\odot \lambda(\varphi_0, \ldots, \varphi_{n-1})]]^S := (\dot{P}\sigma)(\lambda([[\varphi_0]]^S, \ldots, [[[\varphi_{n-1}]]^S]).
\]

(42)

**Example 6.6** (1) The box and diamond modalities of standard modal logic can be seen as the coalgebraic modalities associated with the unary predicate liftings \( \lambda^\Box, \lambda^\Diamond : P \rightarrow PP \) given by

\[
\lambda^\Box : U \mapsto \{X \in PS \mid X \subseteq U\},
\]

\[
\lambda^\Diamond : U \mapsto \{X \in PS \mid X \cap U \neq \emptyset\}.
\]

We quickly verify that \( \lambda^\Box \) satisfies the naturality condition (40). In order to show that \( \lambda^\Box_S \circ \dot{P}f = (\dot{P} Pf) \circ \lambda^\Box_S \), it suffices to show that the following identities hold, for every \( U \in PS \):

\[
\lambda^\Box_S(\dot{P}f(U)) = \{X' \in PS' \mid X' \in \dot{P}f(U)\} \quad \text{(definition \( \lambda^\Box_S \))}
\]
\[
= \{X' \in PS' \mid x' \in U \text{, all } x' \in X'\} \quad \text{(obvious)}
\]
\[
= \{X' \in PS' \mid Pf(X') \subseteq U\} \quad \text{(obvious)}
\]
\[
= \{X' \in PS' \mid Pf(X') \in \lambda^\Box_S(U)\} \quad \text{(definition \( \lambda^\Box_S \))}
\]
\[
= (\dot{P} Pf)(\lambda^\Box_S(U)). \quad \text{(definition \( \dot{P} Pf \))}
\]
(2) In the case of monotone modal logic, the box and diamond modalities are induced by the following predicate liftings $\mu^2, \mu^3 : \hat{P} \to \hat{P} M$:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mu^2 & : U \mapsto \{ \sigma \in MS \mid U \in \sigma \}, \\
\mu^3 & : U \mapsto \{ \sigma \in MS \mid (S \setminus U) \notin \sigma \}.
\end{align*}
\]

(3) The next-time operator $\odot$ of linear temporal logic is obtained from the identity lifting $\lambda^\odot : \hat{P} \to \hat{P}$:

\[
\lambda^\odot : U \mapsto U.
\]

**Example 6.7** Similarly to the case of probabilistic modal logic, for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$ we can define a predicate lifting $\lambda^≥_k : \hat{P} \to \hat{P} B$ for the bag functor $B$:

\[
\lambda^≥_k : U \mapsto \{ \mu : S \to \mathbb{N}^\infty \mid \sum_{u \in U} \mu(u) ≥ k \}.
\]

Now consider a Kripke model $S = (S, \sigma, V)$, with $\sigma : S \to PS$. We may think of $\sigma$ as a coalgebra map $\sigma^\circ : S \to BS$ for the functor $B$, by putting

\[
\sigma^\circ(s)(t) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \in \sigma(s), \\ 0 & \text{if } t \notin \sigma(s). \end{cases}
\]

It is then straightforward to verify that for any Kripke model $S$ we have

\[
S, n \models \odot \lambda^≥_k \varphi \iff \sigma has at least $k \varphi$-successors,
\]

so that we can indeed think of graded modal logic as a coalgebraic logic.

Similarly, the ‘majority modality’ $M$ can be seen as the coalgebraic modality that is induced by the binary predicate lifting $\lambda^M : \hat{P}^2 \to \hat{P} B_\omega$ given by

\[
\lambda^M : (U_0, U_1) \mapsto \{ \mu : S \to \mathbb{N} \mid \sum_{u \in U_0} \mu(u) > \sum_{u \in U_1} \mu(u) \}.
\]

**Remark 6.8** Nullary predicate liftings exist. To unravel their meaning, note that we may think of any set of the form $(PS)^0$ as a singleton (more precisely, as the singleton consisting of the unique map $!_S : 0 \to PS$, where $0 = \emptyset$ is the empty set). Hence, we may identify a map $\lambda_S : (\hat{P}S)^0 \to \hat{P} TS$ with a distinguished element $\lambda_S(!_S)$ of the set $\hat{P} TS$, i.e., a subset of $TS$, and the naturality condition states that

\[
(PTf)(\lambda_{S'}(!_{S'})) = \lambda_S(!_S),
\]

for any map $f : S \to S'$.

Now suppose that $\lambda$ is such a nullary predicate lifting, then the nullary modality $\odot_\lambda$ associated with $\lambda$ can be seen as a modal constant:

\[
S, \sigma, s \models \odot_\lambda \varphi \iff \sigma(s) \in \lambda_S(!_S).
\]

Below we give two natural examples of this phenomenon.
Example 6.9 A natural example of a nullary modality is the constant $\sqrt{\_}$ that is sometimes used to indicate that a state in a finite deterministic automaton is accepting. Recall that these devices are coalgebra for the functor $2 \times I^{d_C}$, and consider the nullary predicate lifting $\lambda^\sqrt{\_} : \hat{P}^0 \rightarrow \hat{P}(2 \times I^{d_C})$ given by

$$\lambda^\sqrt{\_}(!_{S'}) := \{(i, f) \in 2 \times S^{d_C} \mid i = 1\}.$$ 

We obtain, for any state $s$ in a deterministic automaton $S = (S, \sigma)$, that $s$ is accepting iff $\sigma(s) \in \lambda^\sqrt{\_}(!_{S'})$, so that we may think of the predicate lifting $\lambda^\sqrt{\_}$ as inducing the modality $\sqrt{\_}$.

Example 6.10 Let $T$ be a functor, and $Q$ a set of proposition letters. Recall that we may see a $T$-model $(S, \sigma, V)$ over $Q$ as a coalgebra $(S, \sigma_V)$ for the functor $T_Q = K_{PQ} \times T$, where $\sigma_V : S \rightarrow PQ \times TS$ is defined by putting

$$\sigma_V(s) := (\sqrt{\_}(s), \sigma(s)).$$

Now fix a proposition letter $q \in Q$, and consider the following nullary predicate lifting $\lambda^q : \hat{P}^0 \rightarrow \hat{P}T_Q$ for this functor:

$$\lambda^q(\_S) := \{(c, \tau) \in PQ \times TS \mid q \in c\}.$$ 

Furthermore, observe that the modality associated with this predicate lifting is also nullary, that is, a constant; its semantics in a $T_Q$-coalgebra $(X, \xi)$ is given by

$$X, \xi, x \vdash \circ \lambda^q \text{ iff } q \in \pi_0(\lambda^q(\_X)).$$ 

In particular, this means that if $(X, \xi)$ is of the form $(S, \sigma_V)$ for some $T$-model $(S, \sigma, V)$, we obtain that

$$(S, \sigma, V), s \vdash q \text{ iff } (S, \sigma_V), s \vdash \circ \lambda^q. \tag{43}$$

Based on this equivalence, we may think of proposition letters as modalities associated with nullary predicate liftings.

Remark 6.11 Given a set functor $T$ and a set $Q$ of proposition letters, we can now make the connection explicit between modal languages for $T$-models over $Q$ on the one hand, and for $T_Q$-coalgebras on the other.

Based on Example 6.10, we see that there is a 1-1 connection between proposition letters in $Q$ and nullary predicate liftings for $T_Q$ that dissect the $\langle PQ \text{-part} \rangle c$ of an arbitrary object $(c, \tau) \in T_Q S$.

To finish the picture, we now associate with an arbitrary $n$-ary predicate lifting $\lambda : P^n \rightarrow PT$ for $T$, an $n$-ary predicate lifting $\lambda' : \hat{P}^n \rightarrow \hat{P}T_Q$ for $T_Q$ as follows:

$$\lambda'_q(X_0, \ldots, X_{n-1}) := \{(c, \tau) \in T_Q \mid \tau \in \lambda_S(X_0, \ldots, X_{n-1})\}.$$ 

Then, given a modal signature $\Lambda$ for $T$ and a set $Q$ of proposition letters, we define the signature $\Lambda + Q$ for the functor $T_Q$ by putting

$$\Lambda + Q := \{\lambda' \mid \Lambda\} \cup \{\lambda^q \mid q \in Q\},$$ 

and we leave it for the reader to verify that with this definition, we can see the language $\text{ML}_A(Q)$ (for $T$-models over $Q$) and $\text{ML}_{A+Q}(\emptyset)$ (for $T_Q$-coalgebras) as notational variants of one another. In the sequel we will use this observation and use the language $\text{ML}_A(Q)$ for $T_Q$-coalgebras; in particular, we will always simply write $q$ instead of $\circ \lambda^q$. 

6-5
6.3 Predicate liftings as coalgebra type changers

This short section presents a slightly different perspective in which predicate liftings provide natural ways to transform $T$-coalgebras to neighbourhood frames. We first consider a simplified version.

Example 6.12 Define a natural relation for $T$ to be a natural transformation $\mu : T \to P$.

Given such a natural relation $\mu : T \to P$, we can transform a $T$-coalgebra $S = (S, \sigma)$ into a Kripke frame $S_{\mu} = (S, \mu \circ \sigma)$. By naturality of $\mu$, any $T$-homomorphism $f : S \to S'$ is also a bounded morphism $f : S_{\mu} \to (S')_{\mu}$. To check this, one may easily verify that $Pf \circ (\mu \circ \sigma) = (\mu \circ \sigma') \circ f$ by chasing the diagram below:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S & \xrightarrow{a} & TS \\
\downarrow{f} & & \downarrow{Tf} \\
S' & \xrightarrow{\sigma'} & TS' \\
\end{array}
\]

Connecting this to logic, with any natural relation $\mu$ we may associate a modality $\langle \mu \rangle$ for $T$-coalgebras, with the following interpretation:

$S, s \models \langle \mu \rangle \varphi$ iff $[[\varphi]]^S \cap \mu_S \sigma(s) \neq \emptyset$.

As an example, recall from Fact 5.16(2) that for smooth and standard functors $T$, we have a natural transformation $Base_T : T_\omega \to P_\omega$. Hence, we may take the Base operation as a way to transform $T_\omega$-coalgebras into $P_\omega$-coalgebras, that is, image-finite Kripke frames. Naturality ensures that every morphism between $T$-coalgebras is also a bounded morphism between the underlying Kripke frames.

As we will see now, predicate liftings can be seen as generalisations of this phenomenon, where we move from Kripke frames to the more general setting of neighbourhood frames. For this general setting we introduce the transpose of a predicate lifting. This notion is based on the correspondence between maps $A \to PB$ and maps $B \to PA$ — we have seen this correspondence already in the coalgebraic presentation of a valuation $V : Q \to PS$ as a colouring $V^b : S \to PQ$.

Definition 6.13 Given a map $\alpha : A \to PB$ we define its transposed map $\alpha^b : B \to PA$ by putting $\alpha^b(b) := \{ a \in A \mid b \in \alpha(a) \}$.

Extending this definition, given an $n$-ary predicate lifting for the set functor $T$, we define its transpose $\lambda^b$ as the set-indexed family of maps

$\lambda^b_S : TS \to P(P^n(S))$

given by $\lambda^b_S(\sigma) := (\lambda_S)^b(\sigma)$.

By the naturality of predicate liftings we obtain the following proposition, which shows that predicate liftings indeed generalise the natural relations of Example 6.12.
Proposition 6.14 If \( \lambda : P^n \to PT \) then \( \lambda^T \) is a natural transformation

\[
\lambda^T : T \to \hat{P} \circ \hat{P}^n.
\]

It follows from this proposition that any predicate lifting \( \lambda \) induces a transformation of \( T \)-coalgebras to \( n \)-ary neighbourhood frames. We confine attention to the unary case.

Definition 6.15 Let \( \lambda : \hat{P} \to \hat{PT} \) be a unary predicate lifting for the set functor \( T \). Given a \( T \)-coalgebra \( S = (S, \sigma) \), we let \( S^\lambda \) denote the neighbourhood frame \( S^\lambda := (S, \lambda^T \circ \sigma) \); given a function \( f : S \to S' \) we define \( f^\lambda := f \).

The following proposition is easy to verify.

Proposition 6.16 Let \( \lambda : \hat{P} \to \hat{PT} \) be a unary predicate lifting for the set functor \( T \). Then the construction \((\cdot)^\lambda \) is a functor from the category of \( T \)-coalgebras to the category of neighbourhood frames (\( N \)-coalgebras).

6.4 Basic properties of \( \text{ML}_\Lambda \)

In this subsection we make some first observations about the modal logic of predicate liftings. First we show how the naturality condition (40) implies bisimulation invariance.

Theorem 6.17 Let \( \Lambda \) be a set of predicate liftings for the set functor \( T \). Then the language \( \text{ML}_\Lambda \) is invariant: Given any two pointed \( T \)-models \((S, s)\) and \((S', s')\) we have

\[
(S, s) \sim_T (S', s') \text{ implies } (S, s) \equiv_\Lambda (S', s').
\]

Proof. Given the definition of behavioural equivalence, it suffices to prove that for any coalgebra morphism \( f : S \to S' \), and any state \( s \in S \), we have \((S, s) \equiv_\Lambda (S', fs)\). So fix \( f : S \to S' \); we will show that every formula \( \varphi \in \text{ML}_\Lambda(Q) \) satisfies the following:

\[
S, s \models \varphi \text{ iff } S', fs \models \varphi, \text{ for all states } s \in S,
\]

or equivalently,

\[
\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^S = (\hat{P}f)(\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket)^{S'}.
\]

We will prove (45) by a straightforward formula induction. Leaving the routine cases as an exercise to the reader, we focus on the case where \( \varphi = \circ_\Lambda(\psi_0, ..., \psi_{n-1}) \). Our proof makes use of the fact that the diagram below commutes. This should be obvious for the left rectangle, witnessing the naturality of \( \lambda \); observe that the right rectangle is obtained by applying the (contravariant!) functor \( \hat{P} \) to the diagram indicating that \( f : S \to S' \) is a coalgebra morphism.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\xymatrix{
(PS)^n 
\ar[r]^\lambda_S & PTS 
\ar[r]^{P\sigma} & PS \\
(PS')^n 
\ar[r]_{\lambda_{S'}} & PTS' 
\ar[r]^{P\sigma'} & PS' \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\xymatrix{
(PS)^n 
\ar[r]^\lambda_S & PTS 
\ar[r]^{P\sigma} & PS \\
(PS')^n 
\ar[r]_{\lambda_{S'}} & PTS' 
\ar[r]^{P\sigma'} & PS' \\
\end{array}
\]
Now consider the following calculation:

\[
\begin{align*}
\llbracket \circ\lambda(\ldots, \psi_i, \ldots) \rrbracket_S^S &= (\mathring{P}\sigma)\lambda_S(\ldots, [\llbracket \psi_i \rrbracket_S^S], \ldots) \quad \text{(semantics } \circ\lambda \text{ in } S, \text{ as in (42))} \\
&= (P\sigma)\lambda_S(\ldots, (\mathring{P}f)[\llbracket \psi_i \rrbracket_S^S]^S, \ldots) \quad \text{(induction hypothesis)} \\
&= (\mathring{P}\sigma)(\mathring{P}Tf)\lambda_S(\ldots, [\llbracket \psi_i \rrbracket_S^S], \ldots) \quad \text{(naturality of } \lambda, \text{ (46) left)} \\
&= (\mathring{P}f)(\mathring{P}\sigma)\lambda_S(\ldots, [\llbracket \psi_i \rrbracket_S^S], \ldots) \quad \text{(} f \text{ is a morphism, (46) right)} \\
&= (\mathring{P}f)[\llbracket \circ\lambda(\ldots, \psi_i, \ldots) \rrbracket_S^S] \quad \text{(semantics } \circ\lambda \text{ in } S', \text{ as in (42))}
\end{align*}
\]

showing that (45) holds for \( \phi = \circ\lambda(\psi_0, \ldots, \psi_{n-1}) \) indeed. 

Concerning the property of expressiveness, we find that a general result can be obtained if we put some constraints on the signature \( \Lambda \).

**Definition 6.18** Let \( \Lambda \) be a set of predicate liftings for a set functor \( T \). We say that \( \Lambda \) is **separating** for \( T \), if for all sets \( S \) and all pairs of distinct objects \( \sigma_0, \sigma_1 \in TS \) there is a \( \lambda \in \Lambda \) and a tuple \( (A_0, \ldots, A_{n-1}) \) such that exactly one of the two objects \( \sigma_i \) belongs to the set \( \lambda_S(A_0, \ldots, A_{n-1}) \).

**Example 6.19** (1) The box relation lifting \( \Box \) is separating on its own, for the powerset functor \( P \). To see this, consider two subsets \( X, Y \in PS \). If \( X \) and \( Y \) are distinct, suppose without loss of generality that \( Y \not\subseteq X \), so that \( Y \not\subseteq \Box(X) = \{U \in PS \mid U \subseteq X\} \).

(2) The predicate liftings associated with the graded modalities are jointly separating. To see this, consider two subsets \( X, Y \in PS \). If \( X \) and \( Y \) are distinct, suppose without loss of generality that \( Y \not\subseteq X \), so that \( Y \not\subseteq \Box(X) = \{U \in PS \mid U \subseteq X\} \).

The following proposition, which is easy to verify, provides a slightly different perspective on the concept of separation.

**Proposition 6.20** Let \( \Lambda \) be a set of predicate liftings for a set functor \( T \). Then \( \Lambda \) is separating iff, for every set \( S \), the collection \( (\lambda_S^k)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \) of transposed functions is jointly injective (i.e., for any pair of distinct objects \( \tau_0, \tau_1 \in TS \) there is a \( \lambda \in \Lambda \) such that \( \lambda_S^k(\tau_0) \neq \lambda_S^k(\tau_1) \)).

**Theorem 6.21** Let \( \Lambda \) be a separating set of predicate liftings for the set functor \( T \). Then the language \( ML_\Lambda \) is expressive on the class of image-finite \( T \)-coalgebras: Given any two pointed \( T_\omega \)-models \( (S, s) \) and \( (S', s') \) we have

\[
(S, s) \equiv_\Lambda (S', s') \implies (S, s) \equiv_T (S', s').
\]

**Proof.** For notational simplicity we will confine ourselves to a setting where all predicate liftings in \( \Lambda \) are unary, leaving the (routine) generalisation to an arbitrary signature as an exercise. It will also convenient to assume that \( T \) preserves inclusions. Furthermore, we will only treat the special case where the coalgebras \( S \) and \( S' \) coincide (i.e., \( S = S' \)); the general
case, where the two coalgebras are distinct, can easily be reduced to this by considering their disjoint union.

So let \( \Lambda \) be a separating set of unary predicate liftings for some set functor \( T \), and let \( S = (s, \sigma, V) \) be an image-finite \( T \)-model, that is, \( \sigma : S \to T_\omega S \). To avoid notational clutter we will simply write \( \equiv \) for the equivalence relation \( \equiv_\Lambda \).

Our aim is prove that \( s_0 \equiv s_1 \) implies \( s_0 \equiv s_1 \), for all \( s_0, s_1 \in S \). Clearly then it suffices to show that the relation \( \equiv \) is contained in the kernel of some coalgebra morphism. We will show that in fact we may define coalgebra structure \( \sigma : S \to T S \) on the set \( S \) of \( \equiv \)-cells in such a way that the quotient map \( q : S \to \overline{S} \) becomes a coalgebra morphism:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S \xrightarrow{q} \overline{S} \\
\sigma \downarrow \downarrow \sigma \\
TS \xrightarrow{Tq} T\overline{S}
\end{array}
\]

Now suppose that we can show that

\[ q(s_0) = q(s_1) \implies (Tq)(\sigma s_0) = (Tq)(\sigma s_1), \]  

then putting

\[ \overline{\sigma}(\overline{s}) := (Tq)(\sigma s) \]

would give a correctly defined map, for which the quotient map \( q \) is trivially a coalgebra morphism.

That is, we have reduced our problem to finding a proof for (48), and to this aim we reason by contraposition: Assuming that

\[ (Tq)(\sigma s_0) \neq (Tq)(\sigma s_1), \]  

we will show that \( q(s_0) \neq q(s_1) \). It follows by separation from (49) that there is some \( \lambda \in \Lambda \) and some \( A \subseteq S \) such that (without loss of generality) we have

\[ (Tq)(\sigma s_0) \in \lambda_{\overline{S}}(A), \text{ but } (Tq)(\sigma s_1) \notin \lambda_{\overline{S}}(A). \]  

Our purpose is now is find a formula witnessing this, in the sense that this formula holds at \( s_0 \) but not at \( s_1 \): this would show indeed that \( s_0 \neq s_1 \), and so \( q(s_0) \neq q(s_1) \). Note that \( A \subseteq \overline{S} \) simply means that \( A \) is a collection of equivalence classes.

But since \( S \) is a \( T_\omega \)-coalgebra, and \( T \) preserves inclusions, there is a finite subset \( X \subseteq S \) such that both \( \sigma s_0 \) and \( \sigma s_1 \) belong to the set \( TX \). We leave it for the reader to verify that there is a formula \( \varphi \in \text{ML}_\Lambda \) that characterizes, within \( X \), the union \( \bigcup A \), in the sense that

for all \( x \in X : \quad S, x \models \varphi \text{ iff } x \in \bigcup A, \)

or equivalently, since \( x \in \bigcup A \) is another way of saying that \( q(x) \in A \):

\[ X \cap \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket = X \cap (\check{P} q) A. \]  

(51)
We now claim that, for this formula $\varphi$, we have

$$S, s_0 \models \Box \varphi \text{ but } S, s_1 \not\models \Box \varphi.$$  \hspace{1cm} (52)

To prove this, we first observe that by the semantics of $\Box$ we have that $S, s_i \models \Box \varphi$ iff $\sigma(s_i) \in \lambda_S([\varphi])$, while it follows from (50) that $\sigma(s_0) \in (\bar{\Phi}Tq)\lambda_S(A)$ but $\sigma(s_1) \notin (\bar{\Phi}Tq)\lambda_S(A)$. Hence, because both $\sigma(s_0)$ and $\sigma(s_1)$ belong to $TX$, it suffices to show that

$$TX \cap (\bar{\Phi}Tq)\lambda_S(A) = TX \cap \lambda_S[\varphi].$$ \hspace{1cm} (53)

We will establish this by chasing the diagram below, where we use a trick to interpret the intersection with $X$ in (51) and with $TX$ in (53) using the inclusion map $\iota : X \to S$. That is, we observe that $\bar{\Phi}\iota : PS \to PX$ is given by $U \mapsto X \cap U$; as a consequence another way of formulating (51) is:

$$(\bar{\Phi}\iota)([\varphi]) = (\bar{\Phi}\iota)(\bar{\Phi}q)(A).$$ \hspace{1cm} (54)

Similarly, since $T$ preserves inclusions we have that $T\iota : TX \to TS$ is the inclusion map witnessing that $TX \subseteq TS$, and so $\bar{\Phi}T\iota : PTS \to PTX$ is given by $\Sigma \mapsto (TX) \cap \Sigma$.

This proves (53), and therefore (52). That is, we have shown that $s_0 \neq s_1$, on the assumption that $(Tq)(\sigma s_0) \neq (Tq)(\sigma s_1)$. This means that (48) holds, and as we argued already, this suffices to prove the Theorem. \hspace{1cm} QED

### 6.5 Finite model property

In this subsection we will show that the coalgebraic modal logic $\text{ML}_A$ has the (strong) finite model property. That is, we will show that any satisfiable $\text{ML}_A$-formula $\varphi$ can in fact be satisfied in a *finite* coalgebra of which the size (number of states) is exponentially bounded by the size of $\varphi$. We will prove this result by adapting the method of filtration, which is well known in the theory of standard modal logic, to the more general coalgebraic setting.

First we need some preliminary definitions.

**Definition 6.22** The collection $S\text{for}(\varphi)$ of *subformulas* of a $\text{ML}_A$-formula $\varphi$ is defined in the standard way. The *size* $|\varphi|$ of a $\varphi$ is defined as its number of subformulas: $|\varphi| := |S\text{for}(\varphi)|$.

A set of formulas $\Sigma$ is called *subformula-closed* if it is closed under taking subformulas, that is, if $S\text{for}(\varphi) \subseteq \Sigma$ for all $\varphi \in \Sigma$. 

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The idea behind the method of filtration is fairly simple: given a subformula-closed set Σ and a T-model S = (S,σ,V), define on S a suitable equivalence relation ≡_Σ of finite index, build a new T-model S̃ on the finite set of ≡_Σ-cells, and show that any state s ∈ S satisfies the same formulas in S as its cell s̃ does in the filtrated model S̃.

Definition 6.23 Let Σ be a finite, subformula closed set of formulas in ML_Λ(Q), and let S = (S,σ,V) be a T-model. We define ≡_Σ ⊆ S × S as the equivalence relation given by

\[ s ≡_Σ t \iff \text{for all } ϕ ∈ Σ : S, s ⊩ ϕ ↔ S, t ⊩ ϕ, \]

and denote the ≡_Σ-cell of a state s as s̃. We also let S̃ := {s̃ | s ∈ S} denote the set of cells, and let q : s ↦ s̃ denote the quotient map q : S → S̃.

In order to define a coalgebra map σ : S → TS, we may pick any choice function c : S → S, and define σ := Tq ◦ σ ◦ c, cf. the diagram below:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S \xrightarrow{c} S̃ \\
\downarrow \quad \downarrow q \\
S \xrightarrow{σ} TS
\end{array}
\]

Here we call c : S → S a choice function if c picks an element from each ≡_Σ-cell; in other words, we require that q ◦ c = id_S and ker(c ◦ q) ⊆ ≡_Σ.

Note that while the ‘outer’ rectangle of the above diagram commutes by definition, the ‘inner’ one need not commute: it will generally not be possible to define a coalgebra map on S̃ for which the quotient map q is a coalgebra morphism. Fortunately, for our purposes we don’t need such a coalgebra map.

Definition 6.24 Let Σ be a finite, subformula closed set of formulas in ML_Λ(Q), and let S = (S,σ,V) be a T-model. A Σ-filtration of S is any T-model S̃ = (S̃,σ̃,Ṽ) such that

1. S̃ = S/≡_Σ is the class of ≡_Σ-cells,
2. σ̃ = Tq ◦ σ ◦ c for some choice function c : S̃ → S, and
3. Ṽ(q) = {s̃ | s ∈ V(q)} for q ∈ Σ ∩ Q.

Observe that filtrations are not unique, they depend in particular on the choice of the choice function c.

We can now prove the following Filtration Lemma.

Theorem 6.25 (Filtration Lemma) Let Λ be a modal signature for a set functor T, and let Σ ⊆ ML_Λ(Q) be a finite subformula-closed set of formulas. Furthermore, let S = (S,σ,V) be a T-model, and let S̃ = (S̃,σ̃,Ṽ) be a Σ-filtration of S. Then

\[ S, s ⊩ ϕ \iff S̃, s̃ ⊩ ϕ, \] (55)

for all formulas ϕ ∈ Σ and all states s ∈ S.
**Proof.** The proof of the filtration lemma proceeds via a straightforward formula induction, where we will use the fact that (55) is equivalent to

\[
\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^S = (\bar{P}q)\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^\bar{S}
\]

for all formulas, and to

\[
\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^{\bar{S}} = (\bar{P}c)\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket^S
\]

for formulas \( \varphi \in \Sigma \).

We only consider the inductive step where \( \varphi = \circ_\lambda (\psi_0, \ldots, \psi_{n-1}) \), and for notational simplicity we confine ourselves to the case where \( \lambda \) is unary, i.e., \( \varphi = \circ_\lambda \psi \) for some formula \( \psi \) to which the inductive hypothesis applies. Now consider the following diagram:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
P^S \xrightarrow{\lambda_S} P^S \\
\downarrow_{\bar{P}q} & \searrow_{\bar{P}Tq} & \swarrow_{\bar{P}c} \\
PS \xrightarrow{\lambda_S} P^S & S & \xrightarrow{\bar{P}S} PS
\end{array}
\]

\[
\llbracket \circ_\lambda \psi \rrbracket^S = (\bar{P}\sigma)(\bar{P}\sigma)\llbracket \psi \rrbracket^\bar{S}
\]

(definition \( \bar{P} \))

\[
= (\bar{P}\sigma)(\bar{P}\sigma)\llbracket \psi \rrbracket^\bar{S}
\]

(naturality of \( \lambda \))

\[
= (\bar{P}\sigma)(\bar{P}\sigma)\llbracket \psi \rrbracket^\bar{S}
\]

(induction hypothesis (56))

\[
= (\bar{P}\sigma)(\llbracket \circ_\lambda \psi \rrbracket^S)
\]

(definition \( \circ_\lambda \))

In other words, we have established (57) for \( \varphi = \circ_\lambda \psi \), as required.

QED

**Corollary 6.26 (Strong Finite Model Property)** Let \( \varphi \) be a formula in \( \text{ML}_\Lambda \), where \( \Lambda \) is a modal signature for a set functor \( T \). If \( \varphi \) is satisfiable in some \( T \)-model, then it is satisfiable in a finite \( T \)-model \( (S, \sigma, V) \) such that \(|S| \leq 2^{|\varphi|}\).

**Proof.** Fix an \( \text{ML}_\Lambda \)-formula \( \varphi \), and let \( \Sigma := \text{Sfor}(\varphi) \). Then it follows by the filtration lemma that \( \varphi \), if satisfiable in some pointed \( T \)-model \( (S, s) \), also holds at the state \( \bar{s} \), in any filtration \( \bar{S} \) of \( S \). This proves the theorem, since it easily follows from the definition of the relation \( \equiv_S \) that \(|S| \leq |P\Sigma| = 2^{|\varphi|}\).

QED

### 6.6 Predicate liftings and the Yoneda lemma

In the final subsection of this chapter we take a slightly different perspective on the modalities that are given by predicate liftings, seeing them as describing certain admissible patterns. This perspective will also reveal how many predicate liftings of each different arity there are.

The key observation here is that there is a natural bijection between \( P^S \) (subsets of \( S \)) and \( 2^S \) (characteristic functions on \( S \)).
**Definition 6.27** Given a subset $X \subseteq S$, we define the *characteristic function of $X$* as the map $\chi_X^S : S \to 2$ given by $\chi_X^S(s) = 1$ iff $s \in X$; in case $S$ is understood, we may drop the superscript ‘$S$’. Conversely, given a map $\chi : S \to 2$, we shall call $\chi^{-1}(1) \in PS$ the *subset determined by $\chi$*. □

**Remark 6.28** This correspondence reaches far enough for us to think of the contravariant power set functor as the functor $2^-$ that associates with a set $S$ the collection $2^S$ of functions from $S$ to $2 = \{0, 1\}$, and with an arrow $f : S' \to S$ the ‘precomposition map’ that assigns to an arbitrary characteristic function $\chi : S \to 2$ the function $\chi \circ f : S' \to 2$.

From this point of view, a unary predicate lifting is a way of transforming arrows $S \to 2$ into arrows $TS \to 2$. In particular, any arrow $\gamma : T2 \to 2$ (that is, any characteristic function $\chi_T$ corresponding to a subset $\Gamma \subseteq T2$), induces a unary predicate lifting: Given an arrow $\chi : S \to 2$, simply consider the arrow $\gamma \circ T\chi$, as in the diagram below:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
S & \xrightarrow{\chi} & 2 \\
&T S & \xrightarrow{T\chi} & T2 & \xrightarrow{\gamma} & 2
\end{array}
$$

Formulated in terms of subsets rather than characteristic functions, we arrive at the following definition.

**Definition 6.29** Given an object $\Gamma \subseteq T2$, let $\hat{\Gamma}$ be the following set-indexed family of operations. For a set $S$, we define

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_S : PS \to PTS,
$$

by putting

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_S(X) := \{\sigma \in TS \mid (T\chi_X^S)(\sigma) \in \Gamma\},
$$

where $\chi_X^S : S \to 2$ is the characteristics map associated with $X$. Where $\hat{\Gamma}$ is a predicate lifting, we shall denote its associated modality as $\hat{\mathcal{O}}_\Gamma$ rather than as $\mathcal{O}_\Gamma$. □

**Remark 6.30** Taking a glance at the modalities that are induced by subsets of the set $T2$, we consider the interpretation of the formula $\mathcal{O}_\Gamma \varphi$ in the $T$-model $S = (S, \sigma, V)$. If we represent the set $[[\varphi]]$ with its characteristic function $\chi_{[[\varphi]]}^S$, applying the functor $T$ to this arrow we obtain

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
TS & \xrightarrow{T\chi_{[[\varphi]]}^S} & T2
\end{array}
$$

Now think of the elements of $T2$ as ‘$T$-patterns’, then the above arrow associates a $T$-pattern with each object $\tau \in TS$. We can say that the formula $\mathcal{O}_\Gamma \varphi$ holds at $s$ if the pattern $(T\chi_{[[\varphi]]}^S)(\sigma(s))$ associated with $\sigma(s) \in TS$ is *admissible*, i.e., belongs to the set $\Gamma$, or, equivalently, that $(\chi_{T2}^T \circ T\chi_{[[\varphi]]}^S)(\sigma(s)) = 1$.

**Example 6.31** As an example, consider the binary tree functor $Id \times Id$. The set $T2$ consists of four patterns: $T2 = \{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$. As an example, take the set $\Gamma = \hat{\Gamma}}$
{(0,0), (1,1)}; it is not hard to see that it induces the predicate lifting \( \tilde{\Gamma} : P \to P \circ (\text{Id} \times \text{Id}) \) given by

\[
\tilde{\Gamma}_S(X) := X \times X \cup (S \setminus X) \times (S \setminus X).
\]

The associated modality \( \Diamond \Gamma \) has the following semantics:

\[ S, s \models \Diamond \Gamma \varphi \text{ iff the two successors of } s \text{ either both satisfy or both falsify } \varphi. \]

**Proposition 6.32** For any \( \Gamma \subseteq T2 \), the collection \( \tilde{\Gamma} \) of maps constitutes a predicate lifting \( \tilde{\Gamma} : \hat{P} \to \hat{PT} \).

**Proof.** Given a map \( f : S' \to S \), we need to check that the following diagram commutes:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S' & \xrightarrow{\tilde{\Gamma}_{S'}} & \hat{P}S' \\
\downarrow{f} & & \downarrow{\hat{P}f} \\
S & \xrightarrow{\tilde{\Gamma}_S} & \hat{P}S
\end{array}
\]

This follows by the following chain of identities, for an arbitrary subset \( X \subseteq S \):

\[
(\tilde{\Gamma}_{S'} \circ \hat{P}f)(X) = \tilde{\Gamma}_{S'}(\hat{P}f(X)) = \{ \sigma' \in TS' \mid (T\chi^S_{\hat{P}f(X)})(\sigma') \in \Gamma \} = \{ \sigma' \in TS' \mid (T(\chi^S_X \circ f))(\sigma') \in \Gamma \} = \{ \sigma' \in TS' \mid (T(\chi^S_X \circ f))(\sigma') \in \tilde{\Gamma}_S(X) \} = (\hat{P}f)(\tilde{\Gamma}_S(X)) = (\hat{P}f \circ \tilde{\Gamma}_S)(X)
\]

Here the identity (*) is immediate by the observation that

\[
\chi^S_X \circ f = \chi^S_{\hat{P}f(X)}
\]

as is revealed by a straightforward verification, for an arbitrary element \( s' \in S' \):

\[
\chi^S_X \circ f(s') = 1 \text{ iff } f(s') \in X \text{ iff } s' \in f^{-1}(X) = (\hat{P}f)(X) \text{ iff } \chi^S_{\hat{P}f(X)}(s') = 1.
\]

Interestingly, we may prove that all unary predicate liftings are of this form, and this result generalises to predicate liftings of arbitrary arity. This is the main content of the following theorem, which is in fact the instantiation of the well-known *Yoneda Lemma* to the setting of predicate liftings.

**Theorem 6.33** For any set functor \( T \) there is a natural bijection between the set of \( n \)-ary predicate liftings for \( T \) and the power set of \( T(Pn) \).
The key observations underlying the proof of this theorem are the natural correspondences
\[(PS)^n \sim (2^n)^S \sim (2^n)^{(Pn)}\]
between \(n\)-tuples of subsets of \(S\), \(n\)-tuples of characteristic functions, maps from \(S\) to \(2^n\), and maps from \(S\) to \(Pn\).

**Proof.** We confine the proof of this result to providing an \(n\)-ary predicate lifting for each subset of \(TPn\), and vice versa.

So let \(\Gamma \subseteq T(\mathcal{P}n)\) be a set of admissible \(n\)-ary \(T\)-patterns. The associated predicate lifting \(\widehat{\Gamma} : P \to PT\) is obtained by a straightforward generalisation of Definition 6.29. For the details, take an arbitrary tuple \(X = (X_0, \ldots, X_{n-1}) \in (PS)^n\) of subsets of \(S\), and represent this tuple as the map \(\chi_X : S \to 2^n\), and so \(T\chi_X : TS \to T(2^n)\). Now put
\[\widehat{\Gamma}_S(X_0, \ldots, X_{n-1}) := \{\tau \in TS \mid (T\chi_X)(\tau) \in \Gamma\}.\]
We leave it for the reader to verify that this collection of maps indeed provides a natural transformation \(\widehat{\Gamma} : \mathcal{P}n \to \mathcal{P}T\).

For the opposite direction, let \(\lambda : \mathcal{P}n \to \mathcal{P}T\) be an \(n\)-ary predicate lifting. Our aim is to find a subset \(\Theta_\lambda \subseteq T(2^n)\) such that \(\lambda = \overline{\Theta_\lambda}\).

The easiest way to proceed is by thinking of \(\lambda_S\) as a way to transform arrows \(S \to 2^n\) into arrows \(TS \to 2\), that is, \(\lambda_S : (2^n)^S \to 2^{TS}\). To find the object \(\Theta_\lambda\), we take a special set \(S\), viz., the set \(2^n\) itself, and, as input for \(\lambda\), a special arrow, viz., the identity arrow \(\text{id}_{2^n} : 2^n \to 2^n\). Then we let \(\Theta_\lambda \subseteq T(2^n)\) be the subset of \(T(2^n)\) that is determined by the image of this arrow \(\text{id}_{2^n}\) under \(\lambda\).

If we think of \(\lambda\) as a set-indexed family of maps \(\lambda_S : (PS)^n \to PTS\), we may define
\[\Theta_\lambda := \lambda(\mathcal{U}),\]
where \(\mathcal{U}\) is the distinguished element of the set \(P^n(Pn)\) corresponding to the identity map \(\text{id}_{2^n}\), that is, \(\mathcal{U} = (\mathcal{U}_0, \ldots, \mathcal{U}_{n-1})\) with
\[\mathcal{U}_i := \{U \subseteq n \mid i \in U\}.\]

As mentioned, we leave it for the reader to verify that the maps just defined are each other’s inverse, i.e., that \(\lambda = \overline{\Theta_\lambda}\) for all predicate liftings \(\lambda\), and that \(\Gamma = \overline{\Theta_\Gamma}\) for all \(\Gamma \in PTn\), some \(n \in \omega\). QED
7 One-step logic

In this chapter we will zoom in on a micro-version of coalgebraic modal logic that we call one-step logic. For this purpose we introduce one-step frames; intuitively, these are windows over a $T$-coalgebra, only allowing access to the coalgebraic unfolding of one single state. Formally, however, one-step frames are simply defined as pairs $(S, \sigma)$ with $\sigma \in TS$; that is, no coalgebra map is assumed, and one-step frames should be seen rather as ‘potential’ one-step unfoldings.

Then, given a modal signature $\Lambda$, we will introduce a very simple modal language $1ML_\Lambda$ for describing properties of one-step frames; we will refer to $1ML_\Lambda$ as the one-step language associated with $\Lambda$, and to formulas of $1ML_\Lambda$ as one-step formulas. Characteristic of one-step formulas is the syntactic restriction that all occurrences of variables are in the scope of exactly one modality; thus the one-step formalism can be seen as a very simple fragment of the full modal language.

The point of focussing on this ‘local’, one-step version of coalgebraic modal logic is that, while we do not even need coalgebras to interpret this one-step language, many properties of coalgebraic modal logic are in fact already determined at this one-step level.

Before turning to the details, we need to discuss the role of the propositional letters of the language. The one-step language $1ML_\Lambda$ will use propositional variables, but these should be seen as place-holders for proper $ML_\Lambda(Q)$-formulas rather than as proposition letters. In particular, they will be different from the familiar proposition letters of the languages. For this reason it will be convenient to ‘hide’ these ‘proper’ proposition letters, by encoding them as constants. In other words, here we will take a perspective on $T$-models as coalgebras for the functor $T_Q = KPQ \times T$, and of proposition letters as modalities associated with nullary predicate liftings as in Example 6.10.

7.1 One-step syntax and semantics

We can now turn to the formal definitions of one-step logic. We start with syntax.

**Definition 7.1** Fix a set $\Lambda$ of predicate liftings, and a set $V$ of propositional variables. We define the set $PL(V)$ of propositional or rank-0 formulas over $V$ as follows:

$$\pi := a \mid \bot \mid \pi_0 \lor \pi_1 \mid \pi_0 \land \pi_1 \mid \neg \pi,$$

where $a \in V$. We will denote the negation-free fragment of $PL(V)$ as $PL^+(V)$ and refer to its elements as lattice formulas over $V$.

Given any set $\Phi$ of formulas, we define

$$\Lambda(\Phi) := \{ \alpha_\lambda(\varphi_0, \ldots, \varphi_{n-1} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda, \ar(\lambda) = n, \varphi_0, \ldots, \varphi_{n-1} \in \Phi \},$$

and

$$1ML_\Lambda(V) := PL(\Lambda(PL(V))).$$

We shall call $1ML_\Lambda$ the one-step language for $\Lambda$ over $V$, and refer to formulas $\alpha, \beta \in 1ML_\Lambda$ as one-step or rank-1 $\Lambda$-formulas. For both $PL(V)$ and $1ML_\Lambda(V)$ we will use standard propositional abbreviations such as the connectives $\to$ and $\leftrightarrow$. 

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In case all predicate liftings in \( \Lambda \) are monotone, we define the positive fragment of \( 1ML_\Lambda(V) \), denoted \( 1ML^+_\Lambda(V) \), as the set of those formulas in \( 1ML_\Lambda(V) \) in which no \( a \in V \) appears in the scope of a negation, i.e., \( 1ML^+_\Lambda(V) := PL^+(\Lambda(PL^+(V))) \).

A more direct characterisation of the language \( 1ML_\Lambda(V) \) is that it consists of those \( ML_\Lambda(V) \)-formulas in which every variable \( a \in V \) occurs in the scope of exactly one modality. As yet another alternative, the set \( 1ML_\Lambda(V) \) can be characterised by the following grammar:

\[
\alpha ::= \bigcirc_\lambda(p_0, \ldots, p_{n-1}) \mid \bot \mid \top \mid \alpha_0 \lor \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_0 \land \alpha_1 \mid \neg \alpha
\]

where \( \lambda \in \Lambda \) and \( \pi_i \in PL(V) \).

**Example 7.2** (1) With \( V = \{a, b, c\} \) and \( \Lambda = \{\square, \Diamond\} \), examples of one-step formulas are \( \Diamond(a \land b) \), \( \Box((a \lor a) \land \bot) \lor \top \). The formulas \( \Diamond \Diamond a \) and \( a \lor \Box \bot \) are not one-step formulas.

One-step formulas are naturally interpreted in one-step models, which consist of a one-step frame together with a marking. As mentioned, a one-step \( T \)-frame can be seen as a window over a \( T \)-coalgebra, or as a potential unfolding of a state in a \( T \)-coalgebra.

**Definition 7.3** A one-step \( T \)-frame is a pair \((S, \sigma)\) with \( \sigma \in TS \). A one-step \( T \)-model over a set \( V \) of variables is a triple \((S, \sigma, m)\) such that \((S, \sigma)\) is a one-step \( T \)-frame and \( m : S \rightarrow PV \) is a \( V \)-marking on \( S \).

**Definition 7.4** Given a marking \( m : S \rightarrow PA \), we define the 0-step interpretation \( [\pi]_m^0 \subseteq S \) of \( \pi \in PL(A) \) by the obvious induction:

\[
[ [a] ]_m^0 := m^h(a) = \{ s \in S \mid a \in m(s) \} \\
[ [\top] ]_m^0 := S \\
[ [\bot] ]_m^0 := \emptyset \\
[ [\neg \pi] ]_m^0 := S \setminus [ [\pi] ]_m^0 \\
[ [\pi_0 \land \pi_1] ]_m^0 := [ [\pi_0] ]_m^0 \cap [ [\pi_1] ]_m^0 \\
[ [\pi_0 \lor \pi_1] ]_m^0 := [ [\pi_0] ]_m^0 \cup [ [\pi_1] ]_m^0
\]

If \( s \in [ [\pi] ]_m^0 \), we will say that \( \pi \) is true or satisfied at \( s \) under \( m \), and sometimes write \( S, m, s \models [ [\pi] ]_m^0 \).

Similarly, the 1-step interpretation \( [ [\alpha] ]_m^1 \) of \( \alpha \in 1ML_\Lambda(V) \) is defined as a subset of \( TS \), with

\[
[ [\bigcirc_\lambda(p_0, \ldots, p_{n-1})] ]_m^1 := \lambda S( [ [\pi_0] ]_m^0, \ldots, [ [\pi_{n-1}] ]_m^0 )
\]

and standard clauses applying for \( \bot, \land, \lor \) and \( \neg \). Given a one-step model \((S, \sigma, m)\), we write \( S, \sigma, m \models [ [\alpha] ]_m^1 \) for \( \sigma \in [ [\alpha] ]_m^1 \).

**Remark 7.5** The semantics of the one-step formulas defined above show that, indeed, one-step logic is a way of ‘doing coalgebraic logic without coalgebras’. The link with the interpretation of coalgebraic modal logic in coalgebras should be clear — nevertheless we spell out the details.
Suppose that $S = (S, \sigma, U)$ is a $T$-model over the set $V$ of variables/proposition letters, then we can interpret one-step formulas $\alpha \in 1ML_\Lambda(V) \subseteq ML_\Lambda(V)$ in $S$ in the usual way of coalgebraic modal logic. On the other hand, recall that with the valuation $U : V \to PS$ we may associate its transpose marking $U^\flat : S \to PV$ given by $U^\flat(s) := \{ a \in V \mid s \in U(a) \}$, and so for every $s \in S$, the triple $(S, \sigma(s), U^\flat)$ forms a one-step model over $V$ in the sense of Definition 7.3. Then the link between coalgebraic modal logic and one-step logic is given by the following equivalence (which is mathematically trivial):

$$(S, \sigma, U), s \models 1 \alpha \text{ iff } (S, \sigma(s)), U^\flat \models 1^{-1} \alpha.$$  

Notions like one-step satisfiability, validity and equivalence are defined in the usual way.

**Definition 7.6** Let $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$ be one-step formulas. The formula $\alpha$ is one-step satisfiable if there is a one-step model $(S, \sigma, m)$ such that $S, \sigma, m \models 1 \alpha$, and one-step valid if $S, \sigma, m \models 1 \alpha$ for all one-step models $(S, \sigma, m)$. We say that $\alpha'$ is a one-step consequence of $\alpha$ (written $\alpha \models 1 \alpha'$) if $S, \sigma, m \models 1 \alpha$ implies $S, \sigma, m \models 1 \alpha'$, for all one-step models $(S, \sigma, m)$, and that $\alpha$ and $\alpha'$ are one-step equivalent, notation: $\alpha \equiv 1 \alpha'$, if $\alpha \models 1 \alpha'$ and $\alpha' \models 1 \alpha$.  

We also need morphisms between one-step frames and models.

**Definition 7.7** A one-step frame morphism between two one-step frames $(S', \sigma')$ and $(S, \sigma)$ is a map $f : S' \to S$ such that $(Tf)\sigma' = \sigma$. In case such a map satisfies $m' = m \circ f$, for some markings $m$ and $m'$ on $S$ and $S'$, respectively, viz.,

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
S' & \xrightarrow{f} & S \\
\downarrow{m'} & & \downarrow{m} \\
PV & & PV
\end{array}
$$

then we say that $f$ is a one-step model morphism from $(S', \sigma', m')$ to $(S, \sigma, m)$.  

The following proposition, stating that the truth of one-step formulas is invariant under one-step morphisms, is fundamental. We will occasionally refer to this proposition as naturality, since this invariance essentially boils down to the naturality of the predicate liftings in $\Lambda$.

**Proposition 7.8** Let $f : (S', \sigma', m') \to (S, \sigma, m)$ be a morphism of one-step models over $V$. Then for every formula $\alpha \in 1ML_\Lambda(V)$ we have

$$(S', \sigma', m') \models 1 \alpha \text{ iff } S, \sigma, m \models 1 \alpha.$$  

Formulating it differently, for any one-step frame $(S', \sigma')$, any marking $m : S \to PV$, and any map $f : S' \to S$, we have

$$(S', \sigma', m \circ f) \models 1 \alpha \iff S, (Tf)\sigma', m \models 1 \alpha.$$  

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As a specific instance of this invariance result we obtain the following corollary which we mention explicitly for future reference.

**Corollary 7.9** Assume that the functor $T$ preserves inclusions. Let $(S, \sigma, m)$ be a one-step $A$-model, and let $X \subseteq S$ be a subset of $S$ such that $\sigma \in TX$. Then for every formula $\alpha \in 1ML_A(V)$ we have

$$S, \sigma, m \models \alpha \iff X, \sigma, m|_X \models \alpha.$$

**Proof.** Immediate from Proposition 7.8 by the observation that the inclusion map $\iota: X \to S$ is a one-step model morphism. QED

The following proposition states that the meaning of a one-step formula only depends on the variables occurring in it.

**Proposition 7.10** Let $(S, \sigma, m)$ be a one-step model over $V$, and let $\alpha \in 1ML_A(V)$ be a one-step formula which belongs to the set $1ML_A(W)$, for some subset $W \subseteq V$. Then we have

$$S, \sigma, m \models \alpha \iff S, \sigma, m^W \models \alpha,$$

where $m^W$ is the $W$-marking given by $m^W(s) := m(s) \cap W$.

For positive one-step formulas we have the following monotonicity property.

**Proposition 7.11** Assume that all predicate liftings in $\Lambda$ are monotone, let $(S, \sigma)$ be a one-step frame, and let $m, m' : S \to PV$ be two markings such that $m(s) \subseteq m'(s)$, for all $s \in S$. Then for any formula $\alpha \in 1ML^+_A(V)$ we have that

$$S, \sigma, m \models \alpha \implies S, \sigma, m' \models \alpha.$$

Finally, an important role in one-step logic is played by the following rather special one-step models.

**Definition 7.12** Given a variable set $V$, we define the canonical marking for $V$ as the $V$-marking $n_V := \id_{PV} : PV \to PV$. We say that a one-step model is $V$-canonical if it is of the form $(PV, \Gamma, n_V)$, for some $\Gamma \in TPV$.

The term ‘canonical’ model is justified by the following proposition.

**Proposition 7.13** Let $\alpha \in 1ML_A(V)$ be a one-step formula. Then $\alpha$ is one-step valid iff $\alpha$ holds at every $V$-canonical one-step model.

**Proof.** The direction from left to right is obvious. For the opposite direction, suppose for contradiction that the one-step model $(S, \sigma, m)$ falsifies $\alpha$, i.e., $S, \sigma, m \not\models \alpha$. The point is that we may consider the map $m$ as a one-step morphism

$$m: (S, \sigma, m) \to (PV, (Tm)(\sigma), \id_{PV}).$$

Then by Proposition 7.8 we find that

$$S, \sigma, m \models \beta \iff PV, (Tm)(\sigma), \id_{PV} \models \beta,$$

for every one-step formula $\beta \in 1ML_A(V)$. In particular, it follows that $\alpha$ is falsified at the canonical one-step modal $(PV, (Tm)(\sigma), \id_{PV})$, which gives the desired contradiction. QED

7-4
### 7.2 One-step derivation systems

In this subsection we will develop some natural logic at the level of one-step formulas; that is, we will introduce one-step derivation systems and discuss the notions of one-step soundness and completeness pertaining to such systems. Before turning to the one-step setting, however, we develop a general framework for derivation systems in coalgebraic modal logic, starting with the notion of a derivation rule. Throughout this section we fix a countably infinite set \( V \) of propositional variables.

**Definition 7.14** A **derivation rule** is a pair \( R = (\Pi_R, \gamma_R) \) (often denoted as \( R = \Pi_R / \gamma_R \)), where \( \Pi_R \) is a set of formulas, the **premises** of \( R \), and \( \gamma_R \) is a formula, the **conclusion** of \( R \). If \( \Pi_R = \emptyset \) we say that \( \gamma_R \) is an **axiom**.

A derivation rule \( R \) is called **propositional** if \( \Pi_R \cup \{ \gamma_R \} \subseteq PL(V) \), and a **one-step rule** (relative to a modal signature \( \Lambda \)) if \( \Pi_R \subseteq PL(V) \) and \( \gamma_R \in 1ML_\Lambda(V) \).

Thus a derivation rule is propositional if all of its premises and its conclusion are propositional formulas, whereas a one-step rule is given by a set of propositional premises and a conclusion which is a one-step formula. In particular, one-step axioms are one-step formulas.

**Example 7.15** Examples of propositional rules are Modus Ponens \( (\{ a, a \rightarrow b \}, b) \) and Ex Falso Quodlibet \( (\{ \bot \}, a) \).

Examples of one-step rules are the congruence rule \( C_\lambda : a_0 \leftrightarrow b_0 \cdots a_{n-1} \leftrightarrow b_{n-1} \) and the monotonicity rule \( M_\lambda : a_0 \rightarrow b_0 \cdots a_{n-1} \rightarrow b_{n-1} \) that we will associate with an \( n \)-ary modality \( \circ_\lambda \).

To introduce **derivations**, we need to say how we can use substitutions to define instances of derivation rules.

**Definition 7.16** A **substitution** is a map \( \rho : V \rightarrow ML_\Lambda(V) \). We will use the notation \( \varphi/a \) for the substitution that maps the variable \( a \) to the formula \( \varphi \) (and is the identity on the set of remaining variables). A substitution \( \rho \) naturally induces a translation \( [\rho] \) mapping \( ML_\Lambda(V) \)-formulas to \( ML_\Lambda(V) \)-formulas. For this translation we shall use postfix notation, \( \varphi[\rho] \) denoting the result of applying the substitution \( \rho \) to the formula \( \varphi \). For a set of formulas \( \Phi \) we will write \( \Phi[\rho] := \{ \varphi[\rho] \mid \varphi \in \Phi \} \).

A substitution \( \rho \) is **propositional** or **rank-0** if \( \rho : V \rightarrow PL(V) \), and **rank-1** if \( \rho : V \rightarrow 1ML_\Lambda(V) \).

**Remark 7.17** It is easy to see that if \( \rho \) is a propositional substitution, we obtain \( [\rho] : PL(V) \rightarrow PL(V) \) and \( [\rho] : 1ML_\Lambda(V) \rightarrow 1ML_\Lambda(V) \). On the other hand, if \( \rho \) is rank-1, then it is easy to see that \( [\rho] \) maps rank-0 formulas to rank-1 formulas, \( [\rho] : PL(V) \rightarrow 1ML_\Lambda(V) \). In the sequel we will use these observations without explicit notice.
Definition 7.18 An instance of a derivation rule \( R = (\Pi, \gamma) \) is a pair \((\Pi[\rho], \gamma[\rho])\), where \( \rho \) is some substitution. More specifically, we say that \((\Pi[\rho], \gamma[\rho])\) is a propositional instance of \( R \) if \( \rho \) is a propositional substitution, and a rank-1 instance if \( R \) is a propositional rule and \( \rho \) is a rank-1 substitution.

Definition 7.19 Let \( H \) be a derivation system. A derivation in \( H \) is a structure \((W, C, L, r)\), where \((W, C, r)\) is a well-founded tree\(^9\) with root \( r \), and \( L : W \to (\text{PL}(\Sigma) \cup 1\text{ML}_\Lambda(\Sigma)) \) is a labelling such that for every inner node \( t \in W \), the pair \( \{L(u) \mid u \in C(t)\} \), \( L(t) \) is an instance of a derivation rule in \( H \).

Given an \( H \)-derivation \( D = (W, C, L, r) \), we call a formula \( \varphi \) an assumption of \( D \) if \( \varphi = L(t) \) for some leaf \( t \), but \( \varphi \) is not an instance of an axiom; we denote the set of assumptions of \( D \) by \( \text{Ass}(D) \). We refer to the formula \( L(r) \) labelling the root of the tree as the result of \( D \).

A formula \( \alpha \in 1\text{ML}_\Lambda(\Sigma) \) is derivable from a set \( \Phi \) in a derivation system \( H \), notation: \( \Phi \vdash_H \alpha \) if \( \alpha \) is the result of an \( H \)-derivation \( D \) with \( \text{Ass}(D) \subseteq \Phi \). If \( \varnothing \vdash_H \alpha \) we simply write \( \vdash_H \alpha \) and we say that \( \alpha \) is derivable; \( \alpha \) is called consistent if its negation is not derivable.

We now turn to the specific kind of derivation systems that is tailored towards one-step logic.

Convention 7.20 Throughout this text we will assume an arbitrary but fixed derivation system \( C \) (consisting of propositional axioms and rules) which is sound and complete for classical propositional logic.

Definition 7.21 A one-step derivation system for a modal signature \( \Lambda \) is a set \( H \) of one-step derivation rules. A one-step axiomatization is a derivation system of which all derivation rules have an empty set of premises; we will identify an axiomatisation \( H \) with the set \( \{\gamma_R \mid R \in H\} \) of its axioms.

Given a derivation system \( H \), we let \( H^+ \) denote the extension of \( H \) with (1) all axioms and rules from \( C \) and (2) the congruence rule \((C_\Lambda)\), for every \( \lambda \in \Lambda \).

Remark 7.22 Derivations of one-step formulas in one-step derivation systems have a rather specific shape. The tree of such a derivation can be partitioned into an ‘upper’ and a ‘lower’ part, where the nodes of the upper (lower) part are all labelled with rank-0 (respectively, rank-1) formulas. Formulated differently, on every branch \( t_0t_1\cdots t_k \) from the root \( r = t_0 \) to a leaf \( l = t_k \) of the tree, we either have \( L(t_i) \in 1\text{ML}_\Lambda(\Sigma) \), for every \( i \), or else there is a (necessarily unique) index \( k \geq 0 \) such that \( L(t_i) \in 1\text{ML}_\Lambda(\Sigma) \) for all \( i \) with \( 0 \leq i \leq k \), while \( L(t_i) \in \text{PL}(\Sigma) \) for all \( i \) with \( k < i \leq n \). In the latter case, the formula \( L(t_k) \) is the only formula on the mentioned branch that is obtained by the application of a one-step rule — all other formulas are the conclusion of an application of a (rank-0 or rank-1) application of a propositional rule.

Definition 7.23 Let \( \Lambda \) be a set of predicate liftings for a set functor \( T \). A one-step rule \( R = \Pi/\gamma \) for \( \Lambda \) is one-step sound if

\[
\bigcap_{\pi \in \Pi} \llbracket \pi \rrbracket^0_m = S \text{ implies } \llbracket \gamma_R \rrbracket^1_m = TS,
\]

\(^9\)Trees and related notions are defined in Definition B.3.
for all sets $S$ and all markings $m : S \to PV$. A derivation system $H$ is one-step sound if all of its derivation rules are one-step sound.

**Remark 7.24** It is not difficult to verify that if a one-step rule is sound, then so are all of its propositional instances.

**Definition 7.25** Let $\Lambda$ be a set of predicate liftings for a set functor $T$. We say that $\pi \in \text{PL}(V)$ is a true (propositional) fact of a marking $m : S \to PV$ if $\llbracket \pi \rrbracket^0_m = S$; we let $\text{TPF}(m)$ denote the collection of all these facts.

A one-step derivation system $H$ for $\Lambda$ is one-step complete if for every marking $m : S \to PV$, and every $\alpha \in \text{1ML}_{\Lambda}(V)$ we have that

\[
\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^1_m = TS \implies TPF(m) \vdash^1_H \alpha,
\]

i.e., all formulas that are one-step true with respect to $m$ are derivable from the true propositional facts of $m$ in the extended derivation system $H^+$.  

**Convention 7.26** We will sometimes be sloppy and write $\vdash^1_H \alpha$ instead of $\vdash^1_{H^+} \alpha$.

**Remark 7.27** A simpler definition of one-step completeness would require that every valid one-step formula is derivable.

(59)

It is not hard to see that (59) follows from the definition that we will use.

To see this, let $\alpha \in \text{1ML}_{\Lambda}(V)$ be valid. It follows from Proposition 7.13 that $\alpha$ holds in every canonical one-step model for $V$. Hence, by one-step completeness, we obtain that $\text{TPF}(n_V) \vdash^1_H \alpha$. Now observe that the canonical marking $n_V$ admits only classical tautologies as true propositional facts. Thus it follows that $\alpha$ is derivable from the empty set of assumptions, that is: derivable simpliciter.

**Example 7.28** As an example of a one-step complete derivation system, consider the modal signature $\{\Box\}$ for the powerset functor $P$ (i.e., we look at standard modal logic where we take the $\Box$ modality as primitive). In the sequel we will continue writing $T$ instead of $P$, however, in order to clarify the role of the functor in the argument. We claim that the axiomatisation

\[
K := \{ \Box T, \Box(a \land b) \leftrightarrow \Box a \land \Box b \}
\]

is one-step sound and complete. Leaving soundness as an exercise for the reader, we prove one-step completeness here.

Let $m$ be a $V$-marking on some set $S$, and let $\alpha$ be a one-step formula such that $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket^1_m = TS$. We will show that $\alpha$ is derivable from the true propositional facts of $m$:

\[
\text{TPF}(m) \vdash^1_K \alpha.
\]

Since we have the full power of classical propositional logic at our disposal, we may without loss of generality assume that $\alpha$ is in conjunctive normal form, i.e., $\alpha = \bigwedge_{\beta \in B} \beta$ for some finite set $B$, where each $\beta$ is of the form

\[
\beta = \bigvee_{i \in I} \Box \pi_i \lor \bigvee_{j \in J} \neg \Box \rho_j
\]
for some finite index sets $I$ and $J$, and where all $\pi_i, \rho_j \in \text{PL}(V)$. Clearly it suffices to prove
that we can derive each conjunct of $\alpha$ from the true propositional facts of $m$, so fix such a
conjunct $\beta \in B$. Obviously it follows from $[[\alpha]]_m = TS$ that $[[\beta]]_m = TS$.

We first claim that

$$I \neq \emptyset. \tag{60}$$

To see this, assume for contradiction that $I = \emptyset$, so that $\beta = \bigvee_{j \in J} \neg \rho_j$. Consider the empty
set $\emptyset \in TS$, and observe that $S, m, S, m, \emptyset \vDash \pi_i$, while
$S, m, S, m, \emptyset \vDash \rho_j$ for all $j \in J$. But this means $S, m, \emptyset \vDash 1$, which clearly contradicts the earlier
observation that $[[\beta]]_m = TS$. This finishes the proof of (60).

Our second claim is that

at least one of the formulas $\xi_i$ is a true propositional fact of $m$, \tag{61}

where we define

$$\xi_i = \pi_i \lor \bigvee_{j \in J} \neg \rho_j.$$  

To prove (61), assume for contradiction that none of formulas $\xi_i$ belongs to the set $\text{TPF}(m)$. Then there are states $(s_i)_{i \in I}$ such that $s_i \notin [[\xi_i]]_m$ for each $i \in I$. So $S, m, s_i \not\vDash 0$ $\pi_i$, while
$S, m, S, m, S, m, \emptyset \vDash \rho_j$ for all $j \in J$. Now consider the set $\sigma := \{s_i \mid i \in I\} \in PS$. It is immediate by the
semantics of $\Box$ that $S, m, \sigma \vDash 1 \Box \pi_i$ for any $i \in I$, while at the same time $S, m, \sigma \vDash 1 \Box \rho_j$ for all $j \in J$. Clearly then we find that $S, m, \sigma \vDash 1 \beta$, which provides the desired contradiction with
our assumption that $S, m, \sigma \vDash 1 \alpha$. This proves (61).

To finish the one-step completeness proof, assume $\xi_i = \pi_i \lor \bigvee_{j \in J} \neg \rho_j \in \text{TPF}(m)$, then so is
the (propositionally equivalent) formula

$$\bigwedge_{j \in J} \rho_j \rightarrow \pi_i.$$  

Our third claim is that from the above formula we can derive its ‘boxed version’

$$\bigwedge_{j \in J} \Box \rho_j \rightarrow \Box \pi_i,$$

by some propositional reasoning, applications of the congruence rule and of the axioms $\Box(a \land b) \leftrightarrow \Box a \land \Box b$ and $\Box \top$, followed by further propositional reasoning. We leave the details for
the reader.

Finally, we can use propositional reasoning to show that the formula $\bigwedge_{j \in J} \Box \rho_j \rightarrow \Box \pi_i$ is equivalent to

$$\Box \pi_i \lor \bigvee_{j \in J} \neg \Box \rho_j,$$

and therefore implies

$$\beta = \bigvee_{i \in I} \Box \pi_i \lor \bigvee_{j \in J} \neg \Box \rho_j.$$  

In other words, we have established that

$$\text{TPF}(m) \vdash_{\text{K}} \beta.$$  

And since $\beta \in B$ was an arbitrary conjunct of $\alpha$, this means that we can also derive $\alpha = \bigwedge_{j \in B} \beta$
from the true propositional facts of $m$, as required.
Example 7.29 Similar axiomatizations can be given to monotone and graded one-step logic.

(1) The derivation system $M$, consisting of the monotonicity rule for the modality $\Box$ of monotone modal logic:

$$M := \{a \rightarrow b/ \Box a \rightarrow \Box b\}$$

is one-step and complete.

(2) We write $\Diamond^k$ for the counting modality $\Diamond^k\lambda$ associated with the predicate lifting $\lambda^{2^k}$ for the bag functor, cf. Example 6.7. One may show that the following provides a one-step sound and complete axiomatisation for the signature consisting of all these modalities:

a. $\Diamond^{n+1}a \rightarrow \Diamond^na$

b. $\Box^1(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (\Diamond^na \rightarrow \Diamond^nb)$

c. $\neg\Diamond^1(a \land b) \land \Diamond^{k_1}a \land \Diamond^{k_2}b \rightarrow \Diamond^{(k_1+k_2)^1}(a \lor b)$

d. $\Box^1\top$

Here we abbreviate $\Box^k\pi := \neg\Diamond^k\neg\pi$ and $\Diamond^{k!}\pi \equiv \Diamond^k\pi \land \neg\Diamond^{k+1}\pi$.

Finally, the following result, of which we omit the proof, states that there always exists some one-step complete derivation system.

Theorem 7.30 Let $\Lambda$ be a modal signature for a set functor $T$. Then the set of all one-step sound one-step derivation rules is in fact a one-step sound and complete derivation system for $\Lambda$ and $T$. 

7-9
8 Soundness and completeness

In this chapter we will see how to find sound and complete derivation systems for the formulas in $ML_\Lambda$ that are \textit{valid} in the class of all coalgebras (of the appropriate type). In a slogan, what we want to show here is

completeness of coalgebraic logic is determined at the one-step level.

To make proper sense of this slogan, we need to introduce some terminology and notation. Throughout this chapter we fix a set functor $T$, a modal signature $\Lambda$, and a countably infinite set $V$ of variables. We think of the elements of $V$ as variables indeed, and assume that proposition letters, if any, have been encoded as modal constants, cf. the discussion in Remark 6.11.

**Definition 8.1** A modal derivation system for $ML_\Lambda$ is nothing but a set $H$ of modal axioms and modal derivation rules for $ML_\Lambda$, where a modal derivation rule is any pair $R = (\Pi_R, \gamma_R)$ such that $\Pi_R \in ML_\Lambda(V)$ and $\gamma_R \in ML_\Lambda(V)$. $\Pi_R$ and $\gamma_R$ are called the set of \textit{premises} and the \textit{conclusion} of the rule, respectively. A modal \textit{axiom} is a modal derivation rule with an empty set of premises.

An \textit{instance} of a modal derivation rule $(\Pi, \gamma)$ is a pair $(\Pi[\rho], \gamma[\rho])$, where $\rho : V \rightarrow ML_\Lambda(V)$ is some substitution.

**Convention 8.2** As in section 7.2 we will base our modal derivation systems on an arbitrary but fixed propositional derivation system $C$ that is sound and complete with respect to the set of classical tautologies.

The notion of a \textit{derivation} in a modal derivation system $H$ is defined as in section 7.2, while we explicitly note that in such a derivation, besides the modal derivation rules from $H$, we may always use the propositional rules from $C$ and the congruence rule\footnote{Note that in many Hilbert-style derivation systems for standard modal logic and some of its variants, the congruence rule for the modalities is not mentioned explicitly since it is \textit{derivable} from the other axioms. For instance, this is particularly easy to see in the case of the monotonicity rule $(M_\lambda)$.} $(C_\lambda)$ for each of the modalities. Formally, we need the following definition (again, analogous to the previous chapter).

**Definition 8.3** Given a modal derivation system $H$, we let $H^+$ denote the extension of $H$ with (1) all axioms and rules from $C$ and (2) the congruence rule $(C_\lambda)$, for every $\lambda \in \Lambda$.

We can now define the notions of \textit{derivation}, \textit{assumptions}, \textit{derivability} and \textit{consistency} exactly as in Definition 7.19. Note that in an $H$-derivation we may use all derivation rules in $H^+$. Recall that a formula $\varphi \in ML_\Lambda$ is \textit{valid} if it holds at every state of every $T$-coalgebra.

**Definition 8.4** Let $H$ be a modal derivation system. We say that $H$ is \textit{sound} if all $H$-derivable formulas are valid, and \textit{complete} if, conversely, all valid formulas are $H$-derivable.
In these notes we shall be exclusively interested in so-called rank-1 derivation systems.

**Definition 8.5** A modal derivation system $H$ is a rank-1 system if each of its derivation rules is of the form $R = (\Pi, \gamma)$ where $\Pi \in PL(V)$ and $\gamma \in 1ML_\Lambda(V)$ (and so, in particular, all of its axioms are formulas in $1ML_\Lambda(V)$).

As a result of this definition, a rank-1 modal derivation system, which is designed to derive validities in the full language $ML_\Lambda$, can also be seen and used as a derivation system for the one-step language, in the sense of Definition 7.21. This also means that concepts that we defined for one-step derivation systems apply to rank-1 derivation systems for the full language as well. It is in this sense that we may understand the slogan formulated at the beginning of this Chapter. In fact, we can now make the slogan precise in the formulation of the following Theorem, which is the main result of this chapter.

**Theorem 8.6** Let $\Lambda$ be a modal signature for the set functor $T$, and let $H$ be a rank-1 derivation system for $\Lambda$ which is one-step sound and complete for $T$. Then $H$ provides a sound and complete derivation system for the set of $ML_\Lambda$-validities on $Coalg(T)$.

We will prove Theorem 8.6 by showing, as usual, that any $H$-consistent formula is satisfiable in a $T$-coalgebra. Before we can give some further intuitions about our proof strategy, we need some auxiliary definitions.

**Definition 8.7** Given a formula $\varphi \in ML_\Lambda$, we define the single negation of $\varphi$ as the formula $\sim \varphi$ given by

$$
\sim \varphi := \begin{cases}
\top & \text{if } \varphi = \bot \\
\bot & \text{if } \varphi = \top \\
\psi & \text{if } \varphi = \neg \psi \text{ for some formula } \psi \\
\neg \varphi & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
$$

The collection $Sfor(\varphi)$ of subformulas of $\varphi$ is defined in the standard way.

A set of formulas $\Sigma$ is called closed if it contains the formulas $\bot$ and $\top$, and it is closed under taking subformulas and single negations, that is, if $Sfor(\varphi) \cup \{\sim \varphi\} \subseteq \Sigma$ for all $\varphi \in \Sigma$. The closure $Cl(\varphi)$ of a formula $\varphi \in ML_\Lambda$ is defined as the smallest closed set that contains $\varphi$.

As before, one may think of $Cl(\varphi)$ as the set of formulas that are relevant for $\varphi$. It is easy to see that for any formula $\varphi$, this set will be finite (and closed).

**Definition 8.8** Let $\Sigma$ be a finite, closed set of $ML_\Lambda$-formulas. A $(\Sigma)$-atom is a maximally consistent subset of $\Sigma$, that is, $s \subseteq \Sigma$ is a $\Sigma$-atom if it is consistent, but every $t$ such that $s \subset t \subseteq \Sigma$ is inconsistent. We let $S_\Sigma$ denote the set of $\Sigma$-atoms.

Given a formula $\varphi \in \Sigma$, we define $[\varphi]_\Sigma := \{s \in S_\Sigma | \varphi \in s\}$, and write $[\varphi]$ if no confusion is likely.

We leave it as an exercise for the reader to verify the following basic properties of atoms.
Proposition 8.9 Let \( s \in S_\Sigma \) be an atom relative to some finite, closed set \( \Sigma \). Then

1. \( \top \in s \) and \( \bot \notin s \);
2. if \( \varphi \in \Sigma \), then \( \varphi \in s \) iff \( \sim \varphi \notin s \);
3. if \( \varphi_0 \land \varphi_1 \in \Sigma \), then \( \varphi_0 \land \varphi_1 \in s \) iff \( \varphi_0 \in s \) and \( \varphi_1 \in s \);
4. if \( \varphi_0 \lor \varphi_1 \in \Sigma \), then \( \varphi_0 \lor \varphi_1 \in s \) iff \( \varphi_0 \in s \) or \( \varphi_1 \in s \).

Proposition 8.10 Let \( \Sigma \) be some finite, closed set. Then

1. \( \bigvee_{s \in S_\Sigma} \bigwedge \varphi \in s \);
2. \( \vdash_\Sigma \neg \left( \bigwedge_{\varphi \in s} \varphi \land \bigwedge_{\varphi \in s'} \varphi \right) \), if \( s \) and \( s' \) are distinct atoms.

Proof. For part (1), we obviously have \( \vdash \varphi \lor \sim \varphi \), for every formula \( \varphi \), and so we easily find \( \vdash \bigwedge_{\varphi \in \Sigma} \left( \varphi \lor \sim \varphi \right) \). Using propositional reasoning (in particular, the distributive law), from this we obtain the derivability of \( \bigvee_{s \in S_\Sigma} \left( \bigwedge_{\varphi \in s} \varphi \right) \). By the definition of atoms as maximal consistent subsets of \( \Sigma \), part (1) then follows with some further propositional reasoning.

Part (2) is immediate by the observation that if \( s \) and \( s' \) are distinct atoms, there must be a formula \( \varphi \in s \) such that \( \sim \varphi \in s' \).

QED

The following lemma can be seen as the appropriate (finitary) version of the Lindenbaum Lemma in this setting. It states that every consistent formula \( \varphi \) can be extended to an atom in its closure. We omit the proof, which is a routine exercise.

Proposition 8.11 (Lindenbaum Lemma) Let \( \varphi \) be an \( H \)-consistent formula, and let \( \text{Cl}(\varphi) \) be the closure of \( \varphi \). Then there is a \( \text{Cl}(\varphi) \)-atom \( s \) such that \( \varphi \in s \).

Our strategy to prove Theorem 8.6 will be to define, for a given finite, closed set \( \Sigma \), a coalgebra structure \( \sigma : S_\Sigma \to T S_\Sigma \) on the set of \( \Sigma \)-atoms, in such a way that

\[
[[\varphi]]^{(S_\Sigma, \sigma)} = [\varphi]^{\Sigma},
\]

for all \( \varphi \in \Sigma \). It is not difficult to see why this suffices to prove the theorem — we will spell out the details below.

To find a coalgebra map \( \sigma \) for which (62) holds, we will use the one-step completeness of the derivation system \( H \). More in detail, we will introduce a one-step language

\[
V_\Sigma := \{ a_\varphi \mid \varphi \in \Sigma \}
\]

that is in 1-1 correspondence with \( \Sigma \); that is, we introduce a new propositional variable \( a_\varphi \) for every formula \( \varphi \in \Sigma \). We shall then be interested in the following \( V_\Sigma \)-marking on \( S_\Sigma \):

\[
m : s \mapsto \{ a_\varphi \in V_\Sigma \mid \varphi \in s \}.
\]

Observe that for this marking we find that

\[
[[a_\varphi]]^0_m = [\varphi],
\]

for every \( \varphi \in \Sigma \).
Definition 8.12 Where \( V_\Sigma := \{ a_\varphi \mid \varphi \in \Sigma \} \), we let \([\varphi/a_\varphi] \mid \varphi \in \Sigma\) denote the natural substitution replacing any variable \( a_\varphi \) with the ‘real’ formula \( \varphi \). As abbreviations we will use, for \( \pi \in \text{PL}(V_\Sigma) \), and \( \alpha \in \text{ML}_\Lambda(V_\Sigma) \), the formulas \( \overline{\pi}, \overline{\alpha} \in \text{ML}_\Lambda \) respectively, to denote \( \overline{\pi} := \pi[\varphi/a_\varphi \mid \varphi \in \Sigma] \), and \( \overline{\alpha} := \alpha[\varphi/a_\varphi \mid \varphi \in \Sigma] \).

The following lemma provides the main link between the one-step logic and the full system.

Proposition 8.13 (Stratification Lemma) (1) For any formula \( \pi \in \text{PL}(V_\Sigma) \):

\[ \vdash_{\text{H}} \overline{\pi} \iff (S_\Sigma, m) \Vdash^0 \pi. \]  

(2) For any formula \( \alpha \in \text{ML}_\Lambda(V_\Sigma) \):

\[ \vdash_{\text{H}} \overline{\alpha} \iff (S_\Sigma, m) \Vdash^{-1} \alpha. \]

Proof. For part (1), without loss of generality we may assume that \( \pi \) is in conjunctive normal form (why?). That is, we may assume that \( \pi \in \text{PL}(V_\Sigma) \) is of the form \( \pi = \land_i \pi_i \), where each \( \pi_i \) is a disjunction \( \pi_i = \lor \Pi_i \) for some set

\( \Pi_i = \{ a_\varphi \mid \varphi \in \Phi_i \} \cup \{ \neg a_\psi \mid \psi \in \Psi_i \} \)

for some collections \( \Phi_i, \Psi_i \in \Sigma \).

For the implication ‘\( \Rightarrow \)' , suppose that \( \vdash_{\text{H}} \overline{\pi} \), then obviously \( \vdash_{\text{H}} \overline{\pi}_i \) for all \( i \). Fix an arbitrary \( i \), and take an arbitrary state \( s \in S_\Sigma \), then \( \overline{\pi}_i \) is propositionally equivalent to the formula \( \lor \{ \Phi_i \cup \neg \Psi_i \} \) (where we write \( \neg \Psi := \{ \neg \psi \mid \psi \in \Psi \} \). It follows from the consistency of \( s \) and the fact that \( \vdash_{\text{H}} \lor \{ \Phi_i \cup \neg \Psi_i \} \) that there is a formula \( \chi \in \Phi_i \cup \neg \Psi_i \) such that \( s \cup \{ \chi \} \) is consistent, and since this formula \( \chi \) must be an element of \( \Sigma \), we find that, in fact, \( \chi \in s \).

That is, we have established that every atom \( s \in S_\Sigma \) contains a formula \( \chi_s \in \Phi_i \cup \neg \Psi_i \), and from this we easily derive that \( s \in \{ \chi_s \} = [\{ a_\chi_s \}]^0_s \subseteq [\{ \pi_i \}]^0_s \), so that \( (S_\Sigma, m), s \Vdash^0 \pi_i \). But since this applies to all \( s \) and \( i \), we find that \( (S_\Sigma, m) \Vdash^0 \pi \).

For the opposite implication ‘\( \Leftarrow \)' , suppose that \( \not\vdash_{\text{H}} \overline{\pi} \), then there is some \( i \) with \( \not\vdash_{\text{H}} \overline{\pi}_i \). That is, the formula \( \neg \overline{\pi}_i \equiv \neg (\lor \Phi_i \lor \lor \neg \Psi_i) \) is consistent. From this it easily follows by propositional reasoning that the formula \( \land \neg \Phi_i \land \land \Psi_i \) is consistent, and so by Proposition 8.10(1) there must be an atom \( s_i \) such that the formula

\[ \land_{\chi \in s_i} \chi \land \land \Phi_i \land \land \Psi_i \]

is consistent. Since \( \neg \Phi_i \cup \Psi_i \subseteq \Sigma \), it is not difficult to see that this can only be case if \( \neg \Phi_i \cup \Psi_i \subseteq s_i \). In other words, we have \( s_i \notin [\varphi] \) for any \( \varphi \in \Phi_i \), while \( s_i \in [\psi] \) for each \( \psi \in \Psi_i \). From this it is immediate by the definition of the marking \( m \) that \( S_\Sigma, m, s_i \Vdash^0 a_\varphi \) for all \( \varphi \in \Phi_i \), \( S_\Sigma, m, s_i \Vdash^0 a_{\neg \psi} \) for all \( \psi \in \Psi_i \). Thus we see that \( S_\Sigma, m, s_i \Vdash^0 \pi_i \), which implies \( S_\Sigma, m, s_i \Vdash^0 \pi \), and so \( S_\Sigma, m \Vdash^0 \pi \), as required.

Turning to part (2) of the Stratification Lemma, we only consider the direction from right to left. (The other direction is not needed in the remainder of the completeness proof.)
Proposition 8.15 (Truth Lemma) Let $S_\Sigma, m \models^\perp \alpha$. Then by one-step completeness, there is a one-step derivation of $\alpha$ from the true facts of $(S_\Sigma, m)$. We will show by a routine induction on the complexity of derivations in the system $H$, that this implies $\vdash_H \bar{\alpha}$.

In fact, the only thing to worry about in this inductive proof is the base case, where we are considering a rank-0 formula $\pi \in PL(V_\Sigma)$ which is a true propositional fact about $S$. But here we can use the first part of this Stratification Lemma, which guarantees that $\vdash_H \bar{\pi}$.  

**Proposition 8.14 (Existence Lemma)** There is a map $\sigma : S_\Sigma \to TS_\Sigma$ such that for all atoms $s \in S_\Sigma$ and all formulas of the form $\otimes_\lambda([\psi_0], \ldots, [\psi_{n-1}]) \in \Sigma$ we have

$$\otimes_\lambda([\psi_0], \ldots, [\psi_{n-1}]) \in s \iff \sigma(s) \in \lambda_S([\psi_0], \ldots, [\psi_{n-1}]).$$

**Proof.** In order to keep our notation simple we confine attention to the setting where all predicate liftings are unary — it is easy to generalise this proof to an arbitrary modal signature. We will write $S$ instead of $S_\Sigma$ to avoid clutter.

Suppose for contradiction that for some $s \in S$ there is no unfolding $\sigma(s)$ satisfying (66). In other words, we have

$$\bigcap \{ \lambda_S([\psi]) \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \in s \} \cap \bigcap \{ \lambda_S([\psi]) \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \notin s \} = \emptyset.$$

Define the following formula $\alpha \in 1ML_\Lambda(V_\Sigma)$

$$\alpha := \bigwedge \{ \otimes_\lambda a_\psi \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \in s \} \wedge \bigwedge \{ \neg \otimes_\lambda a_\psi \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \notin s \}$$

For this formula we may derive, with $m$ the marking given by (63), that

$$[[\alpha]]_m = [[[\bigwedge \{ \otimes_\lambda a_\psi \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \in s \} \wedge \bigwedge \{ \neg \otimes_\lambda a_\psi \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \notin s \}]]_m \quad \text{(definition } \alpha)$$

$$= \bigcap \{ \{ \otimes_\lambda a_\psi \}_m \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi_0] \in s \} \cap \{ S \setminus \{ \otimes_\lambda a_\psi \}_m \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi_0] \notin s \} \quad \text{(semantics } \bigwedge, \neg)$$

$$= \bigcap \{ \lambda_S([a_\psi])_m \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \in s \} \cap \{ S \setminus \lambda_S([a_\psi])_m \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \notin s \} \quad \text{(semantics } \otimes_\lambda)$$

$$= \bigcap \{ \lambda_S([\psi]) \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \in s \} \cap \{ S \setminus \lambda_S([\psi]) \mid \otimes_\lambda [\psi] \notin s \} \quad \text{(definition } m)$$

$$= \emptyset \quad \text{(assumption)}$$

From this it is immediate by the Stratification Lemma that the formula $\bar{\alpha}$ is $H$-inconsistent. But this is absurd, since all conjuncts of $\bar{\alpha}$ belong to the atom $s$.  

**Proposition 8.15 (Truth Lemma)** Let $\Sigma$ be a finite, closed set of formulas, let $S_\Sigma$ be the collection of $\Sigma$-atoms, and let $\sigma : S_\Sigma \to TS_\Sigma$ be any map satisfying (66). Then we have

$$(S_\Sigma, \sigma), s \models \varphi \iff \varphi \in s,$$

for all $s \in S$ and $\varphi \in \Sigma$.

**Proof.** Clearly it suffices to show that (62) holds for all $\varphi \in \Sigma$. We will prove this by a straightforward formula induction, abbreviating $S = S_\Sigma$, $[[\varphi]] = [[\varphi]]_{S_\Sigma, \sigma}$ and $[\varphi] = [\varphi]^{S_\Sigma}$.
The base case of the proof, where the formulas under consideration are of the form $\varphi = \top$ and $\varphi = \bot$, is taken care of by a straightforward application of Proposition 8.9. For the inductive step of the proof, the cases where $\varphi = \neg \psi$, $\varphi = \psi_0 \land \psi_1$ or $\varphi = \psi_0 \lor \psi_1$, are also easily dealt with on the basis of the properties of atoms given in Proposition 8.9. This leaves the inductive case where $\varphi$ is a modal formula of the form $\varphi = \Box \lambda (\psi_0, \ldots, \psi_{n-1})$; but in this case we reason as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
[[\Box \lambda (\psi_0, \ldots, \psi_{n-1})]] &= (\hat{P}\sigma)\lambda_S([[\psi_0]], \ldots, [[\psi_{n-1}]]) \\
&= (\hat{P}\sigma)\lambda_S([\psi_0], \ldots, [\psi_{n-1}]) \\
&= [\Box \lambda (\psi_0, \ldots, \psi_{n-1})] \\
&= (\text{induction hypothesis}) \\
&= (\text{assumption (66) on } \sigma)
\end{align*}
$$

qed

Finally, on the basis of the preceding lemmas, the proof of the completeness theorem is now straightforward.

**Proof of Theorem 8.6.** We leave the soundness proof as an exercise for the reader.

For completeness, it suffices to prove that every $H$-consistent formula $\varphi$ is satisfiable. So let $\varphi$ be an $H$-consistent formula. It follows by the Lindenbaum Lemma that $\varphi$ belongs to some $\Sigma$-atom $s_\varphi$, where $\Sigma := Cl(\varphi)$ is the closure of $\varphi$. Now by the Extension Lemma there is some map $\sigma : S_\Sigma \to TS_\Sigma$ satisfying (66); but then it follows by the Truth Lemma that $S_\Sigma, \sigma, s_\varphi \models \varphi$. In other words, $\varphi$ is satisfiable indeed. QED

---

\footnote{Recall that proposition letters are treated as nullary modalities, and thus covered by the modal case of the inductive step.}
A Appendix: The Category Set and its Functors

The theory of coalgebra is categorical in nature. In this appendix we summarize the background knowledge on category theory that is required for understanding the notes; we place a special emphasis on the category \( \text{Set} \) of sets and functions, since this is the base category of most of the coalgebras that we consider.

For a proper introduction to category theory, the reader is referred to standard textbooks such as Mac Lane’s *Categories for the Working Mathematician*, or Awodey’s *Category Theory*\(^\text{12}\) on which we based parts of this appendix.

A.1 Categories, functors and natural transformations

**Definition A.1** A category \( C \) consists of a class \( \text{Ob}(C) \) of objects, and for each pair of objects \( A, B \), a family \( C(A, B) \) of arrows. If \( f \) belongs to the latter set, we write \( f : A \to B \), and call \( A \) the domain and \( B \) the codomain of the arrow. The collection of arrows is endowed with some algebraic structure: for every object \( A \) of \( C \) there is an identity arrow \( \text{id}_A : A \to A \), and every pair \( f : A \to B, g : B \to C \) can be uniquely composed to an arrow \( g \circ f : A \to C \). These operations are supposed to satisfy the associative law for composition, while the appropriate identity arrows are left- and right neutral elements.

An arrow \( f : A \to B \) is an iso if it has an inverse, that is, an arrow \( g : B \to A \) such that \( f \circ g = \text{id}_B \) and \( g \circ f = \text{id}_A \).

**Example A.2** (a) We let \( \text{Set} \) denote the category with sets as objects and functions as arrows, with identity arrows and the composition of two arrows defined in the familiar way.

(b) The category \( \text{Rel} \) has the same objects as \( \text{Set} \), but for the set of arrows \( \text{Rel}(S', S) \) we take the collections of all binary relations between \( S' \) and \( S \), with the identity arrows and the composition of two arrows defined in the obvious way.

(c) The opposite category \( C^{\text{op}} \) of a given category \( C \) has the same objects as \( C \), while \( C^{\text{op}}(A, B) = C(B, A) \) for all objects \( A, B \) from \( C \), and the operations on arrows are defined in the obvious way.

**Definition A.3** A functor \( F : C \to D \) from a category \( C \) to a category \( D \) consists of an operation mapping objects and arrows of \( C \) to objects and arrows of \( D \), respectively, in such a way that \( Ff : FA \to FB \) if \( f : A \to B \), \( F(\text{id}_A) = \text{id}_{FA} \) and \( F(g \circ f) = (Fg) \circ (Ff) \) for all objects and arrows involved. A functor \( F : C \to D^{\text{op}} \) is sometimes called a contravariant functor from \( C \) to \( D \). An endofunctor on \( C \) is a functor \( F : C \to C \).

**Definition A.4** Let \( F, G : C \to D \) be two functors. A natural transformation \( \alpha : F \Rightarrow G \) consists of a family of maps \( \alpha_A : FA \to GA \), indexed by the collection of objects of \( C \), such that \( Gf \circ \alpha_A = \alpha_B \circ Ff \), for every arrow \( f : A \to B \) in \( C \). In a diagram:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
A & & FA & \xrightarrow{\alpha_A} & GA & \\
\downarrow f & & \downarrow Ff & & \downarrow Gf & \\
B & & FB & \xrightarrow{\alpha_B} & GB & \\
\end{array}
\]

\(\text{A1}\)

### A.2 Set functors

**Definition A.5** A set functor is a (covariant) endofunctor $T$ on the category $\text{Set}$.  

Below we give some examples of set functors and of operations on set functors.

**Example A.6** (a) Given a set $C$, we let $K_C$ denote the constant functor which maps every set $S$ to the set $C$, and every map $f : S \to S'$ to the identity map on $C$. The functor $K_C$ is often simply denoted as $C$.

(b) The identity functor $\text{Id}$ is the set functor that maps every object to itself, and similarly maps every arrow to itself.

(c) The powerset functor $P$ maps any set $S$ to its power set $PS$, and any function $f : S \to S'$ to the direct image map $Pf : PS \to PS'$ given by $Pf : X \mapsto \{fx | x \in X\}$. The finitary power set functor $P_\omega$ is defined similarly, with the difference that $P_\omega S$ only takes the finite subsets of $S$.

(d) The contravariant power set functor $\hat{P}$ also maps a set $S$ to its power set $\hat{P}S = PS$, but it maps a function $f : S \to S'$ to the inverse image map $\hat{P}f : PS' \to PS$ given by $\hat{P}f : X' \mapsto \{x \in S | fx \in X'\}$.

(e) Define the covariant set functor $N : \text{Set} \to \text{Set}$ as the composition of the contravariant power set with itself, $N := \hat{P} \circ \hat{P}$. Restricting this example somewhat, we may obtain various interesting functors. For instance, take the functor $M$ given by $MS := \{U \in NS | U$ is upward closed with respect to $\subseteq \}$ and, for $f : S \to S'$, $Mf = (Nf) \upharpoonright MS$ (it requires a short argument to prove that this defines a functor indeed). $N$ and $M$ are called the neighbourhood and the monotone neighbourhood functor, respectively.

(f) The distribution functor $D$ assigns to a set $S$ the collection $D(S)$ of (discrete) probability distributions over $S$, i.e., the set of all maps $\mu : S \to [0,1]$ such that $\sum_{s \in S} \mu(s) = 1$. On arrows, $D$ acts as follows: given a map $f : S \to S'$ and a probability distribution $\mu \in D(S)$, we define the map $(Df)\mu$ on $S'$ by putting

$$(Df)(\mu)(s') := \sum \{\mu(s) | s \in S, fs = s'\}.$$  

We leave it for the reader to verify that $D$ is indeed a set functor. The main points to check are (i) that $(Df)(\mu)$ is indeed a probability distribution on $S'$, for any $\mu \in D(S)$, and that (ii) $D(g \circ f) = (Dg) \circ (Df)$.

The finitary distribution functor $D_\omega$ is defined as the restriction of $D$ to probability distributions that have finite support, that is, $D_\omega(S) := \{\mu \in DS | |S \setminus \mu^{-1}(0)| < \omega\}$. On functions, $D_\omega$ is defined as $D$.

(g) The bag functor $B$ is defined analogously. Let $\mathbb{N}^\infty$ be the set $\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$ of natural numbers extended with the ‘number’ $\infty$. We extend the standard addition operation on $\mathbb{N}$ to $\mathbb{N}^\infty$ by putting $n + \infty = \infty + n = \infty + \infty = \infty$ and defining the sum of infinitely many non-zero numbers to be $\infty$ as well.

Then we define $BS := (\mathbb{N}^\infty)^S$ as the set of weight functions $\mu : S \to \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$. On arrows, $B$ acts similarly as $D$: given a map $f : S \to S'$ and a weight function $\mu$ on $S$, we define $(Bf)(\mu)$
as the weight function on $S'$ defined by putting

$$(B f)(\mu)(s') := \sum_{s \in S} \{\mu(s) \mid s = s'\}.$$ 

Similarly to the finitary distribution functor, the finitary bag functor $B_\omega$ is the restriction of $B$ to bags with finite support, i.e., $B_\omega S := \{\mu : S \to \mathbb{N} \mid \sum_{s \in S} \mu(s) < \omega\}$.

(h) The binary tree functor is the functor $Id^2 := Id \times Id$.

There are various ways to obtain new functors from old.

**Example A.7** Let $F$, $F_0$ and $F_1$ be set functors.

(a) The composition of $F_0$ and $F_1$, denoted as $F_1 \circ F_0$, is defined in the obvious way, e.g. on objects we put $(F_1 \circ F_0)(S) := F_1(F_0(S))$.

(b) The product $F_0 \times F_1$ of $F_0$ and $F_1$ is given (on objects) by $(F_0 \times F_1)S := F_0 S \times F_1 S$, while for $f : S \to S'$, the map $(F_0 \times F_1)f$ is given as $((F_0 \times F_1)f)_{\sigma_0, \sigma_1} := ((F_0 f)_{\sigma_0}, (F_1 f)_{\sigma_1})$.

(c) The co-product $F_0 + F_1$ of $F_0$ and $F_1$ is defined in a similarly straightforward way (note that on $Set$ we may think of co-product as disjoint union).

(d) Given a set $D$, we let the $D$-exponent functor $F^D$ be defined as follows. Given a set $S$, we put $F^D(S) := (F(S))^D$, that is, the set of maps from $D$ to $FS$. Given an arrow $f : S \to S'$ and a function $h : D \to FS$, we simply define the arrow $F^Df$ as the function $(Ff) \circ h$.

Of specific interest in the context of coalgebra and modal logic is the following operation on set functors, which generalises the relation between Kripke frames and Kripke models to the level of arbitrary coalgebras over $Set$. Think of $Q$ as an arbitrary but fixed set of proposition letters.

**Definition A.8** Given a set functor $T$ and a set $Q$ of proposition letters, we define $T_Q$ as the functor $T_Q := K_{Q \times T}$. We may refer to $T_Q$ as the $T$-model functor associated with $Q$.

**Definition A.9** The collection of Kripke polynomial set functors or $KPF$ is defined by the following ‘grammar’:

$$K ::= K_C \mid Id \mid K_0 \times K_1 \mid K_0 + K_1 \mid K^D \mid P \circ K,$$

where $C$ and $D$ are sets. The polynomial set functors are the ones obtained by the same grammar without the powerset functor, and the finitary KPFs are obtained by the version of (69) where $P$ is replaced with $P_\omega$.

Apart from the operations described in Example A.7, in the context of coalgebras there is (at least) one other way of interest to obtain new set functors from old, namely, to take the finitary version of a functor. For this we need to introduce some notation and terminology concerning inclusions.

**Definition A.10** Given two sets $A, B$ with $A \subseteq B$, we let $\iota_B^A : A \to B$ denote the associated inclusion map, i.e., $\iota_B^A : a \mapsto a$; we will also write $f : A \to B$ to denote that $f = \iota_B^A$ (and so, in particular, this means that $A \subseteq B$). We say that a set functor $T$ preserves inclusions if, for every pair of sets $A, B$ with $A \subseteq B$, we have that $TA \subseteq TB$ and $T\iota_B^A = T\iota_B^A$. 

A3
**Definition A.11** Given a set functor $T$, we define the following operation $T_\omega$ on an arbitrary set $S$ and an arbitrary function $f : S \to S'$:

$$
T_\omega(S) := \{(Ti_X)(\xi) \mid \xi \in TX \text{ for some } X \subseteq S\},
$$

$$
T_\omega(f) := (Tf)!_{T_\omega S}.
$$

Here we let, for $X \subseteq S$, the arrow $i_X^S : X \hookrightarrow S$ denote the inclusion map from $X$ to $S$, that is: $i_X^S : x \mapsto x$, for all $x \in X$.

Given the definition of $T_\omega$ on functions, we may write $Tf$ instead of $T_\omega f$ without causing confusion. Observe that we obtain $T_\omega S \subseteq TS$, and that, in case $T$ preserves inclusions, the definition of $T_\omega S$ simplifies to $T_\omega S = \bigcup\{TX \mid X \subseteq S\}$. Whether this is the case or not, we always have that $T_\omega$ is a functor.

**Proposition A.12**

1. If $T$ is a set functor, then so is $T_\omega$.

2. If $T$ preserves inclusions, then so does $T_\omega$.

**Proof.** We only prove part (1) of the proposition, where the key property to establish is that for any map $f : S \to S'$, the arrow $Tf$ is well-typed; that is, $\sigma \in T_\omega S$ implies $(Tf)\sigma \in T_\omega S'$. To see why this is the case, take an arbitrary object $\sigma \in T_\omega S$, and let $X \subseteq S$ and $\xi \in TX$ be such that $\sigma = (Ti)(\xi)$, where we write $i = i_X^S$ to simplify notation.

Now consider the following two diagrams, where we let $i'$ denote the inclusion arrow $i' : f[X] \hookrightarrow S'$:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
X & \xrightarrow{i} & S \\
\downarrow{f[X]} & f & \downarrow{f} \\
S' & \xrightarrow{i'} & S'
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
TX & \xrightarrow{T_i} & TS \\
\downarrow{T(f[X])} & Tf & \downarrow{Tf} \\
Tf[X] & \xrightarrow{T_i'} & TS'
\end{array}
$$

Since the left diagram commutes, so does the right one. From this it follows that $(T_\omega f)(\sigma) = (Tf)(\sigma) = (Tf)(Ti)(\xi) = (Ti')(Tf[X])(\xi)$ and since $f[X]$ is a finite subset of $S'$, with inclusion map $i'$, this suffices to show that $(Tf)(\sigma) \in T_\omega S'$ indeed. $\notag_{\Box}$
A.3 Limits and colimits in $\text{Set}$

**Definition A.13** The *product* of two objects $A_0$ and $A_1$ in a category $\mathcal{C}$ is an object $A_0 \times A_1$, together with two *projection arrows* $\pi_i : A_0 \times A_1 \to A_i$, such that for any pair of arrows $f_i : X \to A_i$ there is a *unique* arrow $X \to A_0 \to A_1$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{array}{c}
A_0 \\
\downarrow \pi_0 \quad \downarrow \pi_1 \\
A_0 \times A_1 \\
\downarrow u \\
X \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
A_1 \\
\downarrow f_0 \\
X \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
A_0 \times A_1 \\
\downarrow f_1 \\
A_1 \\
\end{array}
$$

We will often denote the arrow $u$ as $(f_0, f_1)$.

Dually, the *co-product* of two objects $A_0$ and $A_1$ in a category $\mathcal{C}$ is an object $A_0 + A_1$, together with two *insertion arrows* $\kappa_i : A_i \to A_0 \times A_1$, such that for any pair of arrows $f_i : A_i \to X$ there is a *unique* arrow $V : A_0 \to A_1 \to X$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{array}{c}
A_0 \\
\downarrow \kappa_0 \quad \downarrow \kappa_1 \\
A_0 + A_1 \\
\downarrow v \\
X \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
A_0 \times A_1 \\
\downarrow f_0 \\
X \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
A_1 \\
\downarrow f_1 \\
X \\
\end{array}
$$

The mediating arrow $v$ will usually be denoted as $[f_0, f_1]$.

**Example A.14** In the category $\text{Set}$, we take for the product of two sets $S_0$ and $S_1$ their *cartesian product* $S_0 \times S_1 := \{(s_0, s_1) \mid s_i \in S_i\}$, with the obvious projection maps $\pi_i : (s_0, s_1) \mapsto s_i$. For a concrete representation of the co-product of $S_0$ and $S_1$ we take the sum or *disjoint union* $S_0 + S_1 := (\{0\} \times S_0) \cup (\{1\} \times S_1)$, with the insertion maps $\kappa_i : s \mapsto (i, s)$.

**Definition A.15** The binary (co-)product of Definition A.13 is easily generalised to (co-)products over an arbitrary index set $I$; we omit the details, but introduce the notation $\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ and $\bigsqcup_{i \in I} A_i$ for the product and co-product of the family $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$. Products and co-products of the empty family are called *final* respectively *initial* objects of the category.

**Definition A.16** Given two ‘parallel’ arrows $f_i : A \to B$ in a category $\mathcal{C}$, we define an *equalizer* of $f_0$ and $f_1$ as an arrow $g : X \to A$ that satisfies the equality $f_0 \circ g = f_1 \circ g$, and the following condition. For every arrow $g' : X' \to A$ such that $f_0 \circ g' = f_1 \circ g'$, there is a *unique* arrow $u : X' \to X$ such that $g' = g \circ u$, cf. the diagram on the left:

$$
\begin{array}{c}
X \\
\downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \\
A \\
\downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \\
B \\
\end{array}
\quad \begin{array}{c}
A \\
\downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \quad \quad \downarrow \\
B \\
\end{array}
$$

Dually, a *co-equalizer* of $f_0$ and $f_1$ is an arrow $h : B \to Y$ satisfying $h \circ f_0 = h \circ f_1$ and the universal property as indicated in the diagram to the right.

$\triangleright$

A5
Example A.17 In the category Set, as the equalizer of two functions $f_i : S \to S'$, we can take the set $\text{eq}(f_0, f_1) := \{ s \in S \mid f_0 s = f_1 s \}$, together with the inclusion map $\iota : \text{eq}(f_0, f_1) \to S$.

Definition A.18 Given two arrows $f_i : A_i \to B$ in a category C, a pullback of $f_0$ and $f_1$ is an object $P$, together with two arrows $p_i : P \to A_i$ which satisfy $f_0 \circ p_0 = f_1 \circ p_1$, together with the following condition. Given any 'competitor' $P'$, with arrows $p'_i : P' \to A_i$ such that $f_0 \circ p'_0 = f_1 \circ p'_1$, there is a unique arrow $u : P' \to P$ such that $p'_i = p_i \circ u$, in a diagram:

![Pullback Diagram](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

Dually we define the notion of a pushout of two arrows $f_i : B \to A_i$.

Example A.19 In the category Set we can define, given two functions $f_i : S_i \to S$, the set $\text{pb}(f_0, f_1) := \{(s_0, s_1) \in S_0 \times S_1 \mid f_0(s_0) = f_1(s_1)\}$, and show that this set, together with the projection maps $\pi_i : \text{pb}(f_0, f_1) \to S_i$, is the pullback of $f_0$ and $f_1$.

The concepts of product, equalizer and pullback are not independent.

Fact A.20 The following are equivalent, for any category C:
1. C has finite products and equalizers;
2. C has pullbacks and a final object.

More in general we can define the notion of a limit or colimit of a diagram.

Definition A.21 Let J and C be categories, and assume that J is small, that is, its collection of objects forms a set (rather than a proper class). A diagram of type J in C is a functor $D : J \to C$. We refer to J as the index of D, and write $D_i$ rather than $D(i)$, where $i$ is an arbitrary object or index in J.

Example A.22 Here are three examples of diagrams (where we do not draw identity arrows):

\[ A_0 \quad \quad A_1 \quad \quad A \xrightarrow{f_0} B \quad \quad A \xrightarrow{f_0} B \quad \quad A_0 \xrightarrow{f_0} B \]

\[ f_1 \]

\[ A_1 \]
**Definition A.23** A cone to a diagram $D : J \to C$ consists of an object $C$ in $C$, together with an arrow $c_j : C \to D_j$ for each object $i$ in $J$, such that for each arrow $e : i \to j$ in $J$, the following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
C & \rightarrow & D_j \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
D_i & \rightarrow & D_j
\end{array}
$$

(72)

A morphism of cones $\gamma : (C, c_i)_{i \in J} \to (C', c'_i)_{i \in J}$ is an arrow $\gamma : C \to C'$ in $C$ such that $c_i = c'_i \circ \gamma$ for each index $i$:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
C & \overset{\gamma}{\rightarrow} & C' \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
D_i & \rightarrow & C'
\end{array}
$$

The notion of a cone dualizes to that of a co-cone in the obvious way. We let $\text{Cone}(D)$ and $\text{CoCone}(D)$ denote the emerging categories of cones and co-cones, respectively.

**Definition A.24** Let $D : J \to C$ be a diagram. A limit for $D$ is a terminal object in the category $\text{Cone}(D)$, and a colimit for $D$ is an initial object in the category $\text{CoCone}(D)$. A (co-)limit is called finite if the index category $J$ is finite.

Spelled out, the limit of a diagram $D : J \to C$ is a cone to $D$, that is, an object $C$ in $C$, together with a family $p_i : C \to D_i$ of arrows in $C$ for which the cone condition (72) is satisfied, and such that for any $D$-cone $(C', c'_i)_{i \in J}$ there is a unique cone morphism $u : (C', c'_i)_{i \in J} \to (C, c_i)_{i \in J}$.

**Example A.25** Limits for the three diagrams in Example A.22 may easily be identified with respectively products, equalizers and pullbacks of the objects and morphisms displayed. The respective colimits are co-products, co-equalizers and pushouts.

Limits and colimits do not always exist; if limits (for a certain type of diagram) always exist in a category $C$, we say that $C$ has limits (of that type).

**Fact A.26** For any category $C$ the following are equivalent.

1. $C$ has all (finite) limits;
2. $C$ has all (finite) equalizers and products.

**Fact A.27** The category $\text{Set}$ has all limits and colimits.
A.4 Properties of set functors

A.4.1 Properties of set functors

In this section we gather some properties that all set functors have, and we define some important properties that set functor may or may not have, and that are of interest in the setting of coalgebra.

Proposition A.28 Let $T$ be a set functor. Then $T$ preserves injections and surjections. That is, $Tf : TX \to TY$ is injective (surjective) if $f : X \to Y$ is injective.

The following proposition states that all set functors preserve intersections.

Proposition A.29 Let $T$ be a set functor that preserves inclusions. Then $T$ preserves non-empty intersections, i.e., for any pair of sets $X,Y$ with $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$, we have

$$T(X \cap Y) = TX \cap TY. \quad (73)$$

Definition A.30 Let $T$ be a set functor.

1. $T$ restricts to finite sets if $TS$ is finite whenever $S$ is finite.
2. $T$ is smooth if its preserves weak pullbacks.
3. $T$ is standard if it is smooth and preserves inclusions.

A.4.2 Properties of relation lifting

Recall that a set functor is called smooth if it preserves weak pullbacks, and standard if in addition it preserves inclusions. Recall also that the concept of relation lifting was introduced in Definition 3.6.

Fact A.31 Let $T$ be a set functor that preserves inclusions. Then the relation lifting $\overline{T}$ satisfies the following properties:

1. $\overline{T}$ extends $T$: $\overline{T}(\text{Gr} f) = \text{Gr}(Tf)$ for all functions $f : X_0 \to X_1$,
2. $\overline{T}$ preserves the diagonal: $\overline{T}\Delta_X = \Delta_{TX}$ for any set $X$;
3. $\overline{T}$ is monotone: $R \subseteq Q$ implies $\overline{T}R \subseteq \overline{T}Q$ for all relations $R,Q \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$;
4. $\overline{T}$ preserves converse: $\overline{T}R^\circ = (\overline{T}R)^\circ$ for all relations $R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$;
5. $\overline{T}$ preserves domain: $\text{Dom}(\overline{T}R) = T(\text{Dom}R)$, for all relations $R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$;
6. $\overline{T}$ preserves range: $\text{Ran}(\overline{T}R) = T(\text{Ran}R)$, for all relations $R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$;
7. $\overline{T}$ is semi-functorial: $\overline{T}R;\overline{T}Q \subseteq \overline{T}(R;Q)$, for all relations $R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$, $Q \subseteq X_1 \times X_2$.

If in addition $T$ is smooth, then

8. $\overline{T}$ preserves composition: $\overline{T}(R;Q) = \overline{T}R;\overline{T}Q$, for all relations $R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$, $Q \subseteq X_1 \times X_2$;
9. $\overline{T}$ preserves restrictions:

$$\overline{T}(R\upharpoonright_{Y_0 \times X_1}) = (\overline{T}R)\upharpoonright_{Y_0 \times Y_1}$$

for all relations $R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$, and all sets $Y_0 \subseteq X_0$ and $Y_1 \subseteq X_1$;
10. $\overline{T}_\omega R = \overline{T}R \cap (T_\omega X_0 \times T_\omega X_1)$, for all relations $R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1$. 

A8
B Appendix: Basic mathematical definitions

In this second appendix we fix notation and terminology for some basic mathematical concepts.

Definition B.1 Let \( f: X \to Y \) be a function. We let \( \text{Gr} f := \{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid y = fx\} \) denote the graph of \( f \), and define \( f[X] := \{fx \mid x \in X\} \).

Definition B.2 Given a relation \( R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1 \), we denote the domain \( \text{Dom}(R) \subseteq X_0 \) and range \( \text{Ran}(R) \subseteq X_1 \) of \( R \) by the followings sets:

\[
\text{Dom}(R) := \{x_0 \in X_0 \mid (x_0, x_1) \in R \text{ for some } x_1 \in X_1\}
\]

\[
\text{Ran}(R) := \{x_1 \in X_1 \mid (x_0, x_1) \in R \text{ for some } x_0 \in X_0\},
\]

respectively, and we denote by \( \pi_0^R: R \to X_0 \) and \( \pi_1^R: R \to X_1 \) the projection maps associated with \( R \). Given subsets \( Y_0 \subseteq X_0, Y_1 \subseteq X_1 \), the restriction of \( R \) to \( Y_0 \) and \( Y_1 \) is given as

\[
R \upharpoonright_{Y_0 \times Y_1} := R \cap (Y_0 \times Y_1).
\]

The converse of \( R \) is defined as the relation \( R^\prime \subseteq X_1 \times X_0 \) given by

\[
R^\prime := \{(x_1, x_0) \in X_1 \times X_0 \mid (x_0, x_1) \in R\}.
\]

The composition of two relations \( R \subseteq X_0 \times X_1 \) and \( R' \subseteq X_1 \times X_2 \) is denoted by \( R \circ R' \) and defined as

\[
R \circ R' := \{(x_0, x_2) \in X_0 \times X_2 \mid (x_0, x_1) \in R \text{ and } (x_1, x_2) \in R', \text{ for some } x_2 \in X_2\}.
\]

Finally, we let

\[
\Delta_X := \{(x, x) \in X \times X \mid x \in X\}
\]

denote the diagonal relation on a set \( X \).

Definition B.3 A tree is a structure \( \mathbb{W} = (W, C, r) \) such that \( W \) is a set of nodes; \( C: W \to PW \) is a map assigning a (possibly empty) collection \( C(t) \) of children to each node \( t \in W \); and \( r \) is the root of the tree, that is, \( r \) is an element of \( W \), such that for every node \( t \in W \) there is exactly one path from the root \( r \) to \( t \).

Here a path from \( s \) to \( t \) is a sequence \( t_0 \ldots t_k \) (with \( k \geq 0 \)) such that \( s = t_0, t = t_k \) and \( t_{i+1} \in C(t_i) \) for all \( i, 0 \leq i < k \). Similarly, an infinite path from \( s \) is a sequence \( (t_i)_{0 \leq i < \omega} \) such that \( s = t_0 \) and \( t_{i+1} \in C(t_i) \) for all \( i, 0 \leq i < \kappa \).

A leaf of \( \mathbb{W} \) is a node \( t \in W \) such that \( C(t) = \emptyset \); nodes that are not leaves are called inner nodes. A tree is well founded if it has no infinite paths.