# Applied Category Theory

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### 9/3/2025

#### Why?

Why should you care about studying the coming content and applying it to your field? Physicists:

- The particles in the standard model are irreducible representations. So rep theory is crucial to you.
- Monoidal categories give a good framework for understanding QM.

Computer scientists:

• It gives a framework for the Curry-Howard correspondence (proofs are programs).

Me:

- Began as a study of "analogies" and turned into a study of nifty algebraic gadgets.
- It's written in a wild language, and learning languages is fun.

As a great motivation, see https://arxiv.org/abs/0903.0340

#### Plan

The **first goal** is to define monoidal categories with some context. The **second goal** is to describe a "skeletal" category defined by diagrammatics. To accomplish the first goal, we will study things including:

- Algebraic objects (groups, vector spaces, ...) and maps between them
- Subobjects, images, combining objects  $(\times, \otimes, \oplus, ...)$
- Categories (Grp, Set, PoSet,  $\mathbb{N}$ , Vec, ...)

I'd like to have as little fat on this as necessary. That is, not get sidetracked studying, for instance, too much of the internal structure of these objects. I want to give many examples and try to build intuition. For the second goal we'll study things including:

- Representations and maps (T(gv) = gT(v))
- $Rep(D_3)$  in detail

Up to this point I have a strong vision of where we're going. After this we can go where the interest steers us.

This plan is incomplete and non-exhaustive.

#### Groups

This is the best onramp to categories I know of, so bear with me through some basics.

**Definition 1.** A group is a triple

$$(G, \mu, e)$$

where G is a set,  $\mu: G \times G \to G$  is a function, and  $e \in G$ , such that

$$\forall a,b,c \in G, \quad \mu(\mu(a,b),c) = \mu(a,\mu(b,c)) \tag{Associativity}$$

$$\forall a \in G, \quad \mu(a, e) = \mu(e, a) = a$$
 (Identity)

$$\forall a \in G, \exists b \in G, \quad such \ that \quad \mu(a,b) = \mu(b,a) = e$$
 (Inverse)

We often call the element b from 1 by  $a^{-1}$ . We also often use the following shorthands:

•  $\mu(a,b) = a \cdot b = a \star b = ab$ 

• 
$$\underbrace{a \cdot a \cdots a}_{n \text{ conies}} = a^n$$

Exercise 1. Translate the three axioms above into the ab notation.

**Exercise 2.** Prove the identity element in a group is unique. That is, if e and e' both satisfy Axiom 1, show that e' = e.

Now some examples. As an excercise, prove that each of the following is a group. The notation := reads as "is defined to be."

**Example 1** (General linear group).  $(G, \mu, e)$ , where

- $G = GL_2(\mathbb{C}) := \{invertible \ 2 \times 2 \ matrices \ with \ entries \ in \ \mathbb{C} \}$
- $\mu(A,B) := AB$
- $\bullet \ e = I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

**Example 2** (General linear group).  $(G, \mu, e)$ , where

- $G = \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{C}) := \{invertible \ n \times n \ matrices \ with \ entries \ in \ \mathbb{C} \}$
- $\mu(A,B) := AB$
- $e = I_n$  (the  $n \times n$  identity matrix)

**Example 3** (Integers).  $(G, \mu, e)$ , where

- $G = \mathbb{Z}$
- $\mu(a,b) \coloneqq a+b$
- e = 0

Example 4 (Not a group! Why?).  $(G, \mu, e)$ , where

- $G = \mathbb{Z}$
- $\mu(a,b) \coloneqq a \times b$
- e = 1

**Example 5** (Braid group).  $B_n := (G, \mu, e)$ , where

- ullet G=n-strand braid diagrams (up to isotopy/wiggling)
- $\mu = vertical\ concatenation$
- $\bullet$  e = n unbraided strands

Steve pointed out that when n = 2,  $B_n$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ . We'll get to that in the next lecture I hope.

#### Things that came up

- Generators and relations presentations
- Free group/group of words
- Symmetric group/permutation groups
- The natural numbers game: https://www.ma.imperial.ac.uk/~buzzard/xena/natural\_number\_game/index2.html
- Peano arithmetic: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peano\_axioms

#### 9/10/2025

#### More groups

Recall that, loosely, a group is a set endowed with a binary operation (multiplication), with some associativity, identity, and inversion constraints. Henceforth we will refer to a group  $(G, \mu, e)$  almost exclusively as G. Usually,  $\mu$  and e will be understood from context. For some of the following examples we might also write  $\mu_G$  to refer specifically to multiplication in G.

**Example 6** (Nonzero field elements). The set  $\mathbb{C}^{\times} = \mathbb{C} - \{0\}$  is a group under multiplication. Associativity is known. Its identity element is  $1 \in \mathbb{C}$ . This is true for any field, i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^{\times}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}^{\times}$ , and  $\mathcal{F}_{p^n}^{\times}$  are all groups.

**Example 7** (Symmetric groups). Let X be a set. Then  $(G, \mu, e)$  is a group, where

- $G = \{ \sigma : X \to X \mid \sigma \text{ is bijective } \}$
- $\mu(\sigma_1, \sigma_2) := \sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2$
- $e = id_X$ , defined by  $\forall x \in X$ ,  $id_X(x) = x$

**Example 8.** If  $X = \{1, ..., n\}$ , then we denote the group  $S_X$  by  $S_n$ . If  $\sigma \in S_n$  then we often denote  $\sigma$  as

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ \sigma(1) & \sigma(2) & \cdots & \sigma(n) \end{pmatrix}$$

**Example 9** (Dihedral group). Let G consist of the following six matrices:

These matrices permute the points

$$\left\{ (1,0), (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}), (-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}) \right\}$$

So we can see that it's "the same as" a certain permutation group. There are really 3 things at play in this last example:

- Dihedral groups: 3 wasn't special. We could divide by any positive n and get a group of 2n matrices
- Generators and relations: We could equally express this group as

$$\langle r, s \mid r^3 = e, s^2 = e, rs = sr^2 \rangle.$$

In fact, that's usually how dihedral groups are presented.

• Isomorphism: That group of matrices "is" a permutation group.

#### Homomorphisms

We'll start by definine how two groups can be similar, or the same.

**Definition 2.** Let G and H be two groups. Let  $f: G \to H$  be a function.

ullet We call f a homomorphism if

$$\forall a, b \in G, f(ab) = f(a)f(b)$$

- We call f an isomorphism if it is a bijective homomorphism
- If f is a homomorphism, the **kernel** of f is the set

$$\ker(f) := \{ x \in G \mid f(x) = e_H \}$$

 $\bullet$  If f is a homomorphism, the **image** of f is the set

$$f(G) \coloneqq \{f(X) \mid x \in G\} \subseteq H$$

Here are many examples. It would be useful to prove those you don't see immediately. Well, it would probably be good to prove all of them...

**Example 10** (Modular arithmetic).  $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_n$ , given by  $f(x) := x \pmod{n}$ 

**Example 11** (Multiplication).  $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ , given by f(x) := 4x. What is special about 4 here? Anything?

**Example 12** (Trivial). Let G and H be any two groups. Define  $f: G \to H$  by f(x) = e.

**Example 13** (Identity). Let G be any group. Define  $f: G \to G$  by f(x) := x.

**Example 14** (Symmetric group inclusion). Define  $f: S_n \to S_{n+1}$  by declaring

$$f(\sigma) := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n & n+1 \\ \sigma(1) & \sigma(2) & \cdots & \sigma(n) & n+1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In particular, since this homomorphism is injective, this means we can think of  $S_n$  as "sitting inside of"  $S_{n+1}$ . This actually holds more generally. If a homomorphism  $f: G \to H$  is injective, then there is an isomorphic copy of G inside of H, in the form of the image f(G). We'll define this more precisely in the next subsection.

**Example 15** (Linear maps). Let V and W be vector spaces over  $\mathbb{C}$ . The definition of vector spaces says that (V, +) and (W, +) are, in particular, abelian groups. Let  $T: V \to W$  be a linear map. The condition

$$T(x+y) = T(x) + T(y)$$

implies that T is a homomorphism of (abelian) groups.

**Example 16** (All linear maps).  $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_n$ , given by  $f(x) := x \pmod{n}$ 

Here's a fact that we'll have uses for.

**Exercise 3.** Let  $f: G \to H$  be a homomorphim of groups. For every  $a \in G$ , the inverse of f(a) is  $f(a^{-1})$ . In equation form, that's

$$[f(a)]^{-1} = f(a^{-1}).$$

#### Subgroups

As we saw above,  $S_n$  "sits inside of"  $S_{n+1}$ . Here's how we say that precisely.

**Definition 3.** Let G be a group. A nonempty subset  $A \subseteq G$  is called a subgroup of G if

$$\forall a, b \in A, \quad ab \in A$$
 (Closure)

$$\forall a \in A, \quad a^{-1} \in A$$
 (Inversion)

The first consequence of this definition is that if A is a subgroup of G, then  $e \in A$ . Why? Well, take any element  $a \in A$ . Its inverse,  $a^{-1}$  also is in A by definition. Their product also must be in A. But their product is e.

Here's a fact that will be of use.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $f: G \to H$  be a homomorphism. Then

- 1. The kernel  $\ker(f)$  is a subgroup of G.
- 2. The image f(G) is a subgroup of H.

Let's see some examples of subgroups in action.

**Example 17** (Dihedral groups). Let  $n \geq 1$  be a positive integer. The set of 2n matrices of the forms

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos 2\pi \frac{k}{3} & -\sin 2\pi \frac{k}{3} \\ \sin 2\pi \frac{k}{3} & \cos 2\pi \frac{k}{3} \end{bmatrix} \quad and \quad \begin{bmatrix} \cos 2\pi \frac{k}{3} & \sin 2\pi \frac{k}{3} \\ \sin 2\pi \frac{k}{3} & -\cos 2\pi \frac{k}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

for k = 0, 1, ..., n - 1 is a subgroup of  $GL_2(\mathbb{C})$ .

**Example 18** (Special linear group). The set  $SL_N(\mathbb{C}) := \{M \in GL_N(\mathbb{C}) \mid \det(M) = 1\}$  is a subgroup of the general linear group  $GL_N(\mathbb{C})$ .

#### 9/17/2025

I'd like to define a representaiton today, since we have all the prerequisite knowledge. The crux of the problem is this: group multiplication is hard. It's generally undecidable whether a given group element is even the identity. But if we can translate a group's multiplication into something more concrete (like matrices!), then we can learn a lot more about the group.

We'll begin by recalling that a homomorphism between groups G and H is a function  $f:G\to H$  satisfying

$$f(\underbrace{ab}_{\in G}) = \underbrace{f(a)f(b)}_{\in H}.$$

It's important to remember which group the multiplication is happening in.

There's a cool way to visualize this property that I'll draw on the board. I won't include it here becasue it's time-consuming to create...

#### Representations

Groups are meant to *act* on things, that is, to encode structure-preserving permutations. We've seen examples of this already:

- Permutation groups: all permutations of an abstract set X. The structure being preserved here is cardinality.
- Matrix groups: an invertible (bijective!) matrix is a permutation of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

A representation of a group is a sort of middle ground between these two. That is, it translates some (maybe not all) of the structure of a group into a matrix group, which permutes a vector space.

**Definition 4.** Let G be a group. A (linear) representation of G is a homomorphism  $\rho: G \to \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{C})$ .

**Remark 1.** Soemtimes we will write  $\rho(g)$  as  $\rho_g$  and  $[\rho(g)](v)$  as any one of  $\rho_g v$ , g.v, or even just gv.

Every group has at least one representation.

**Example 19.** Let G be any group. Define  $\rho: G \to \mathrm{GL}_1(\mathbb{C})$  by  $\rho(g) := [1]$  for every  $g \in G$ . Then  $\rho$  defines a representation, since it's a homomorphism:

$$\rho(gh) = [1]$$

$$= [1][1]$$

$$\rho(g)\rho(h)$$

A similar construction gives a representation of G on  $GL_n(\mathbb{C})$  by sending  $g \mapsto I_n$ .

Here's an example that translates modular arithmetic into matrix multiplication.

**Example 20.** Let  $G = \mathbb{Z}_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$  with addition modulo 4 as the operation. Define  $\rho : G \to \mathrm{GL}_1(\mathbb{C})$  by  $\rho(k) := [e^{2\pi i \frac{k}{4}}]$ . Then  $\rho$  defines a representation, since it's a homomorphism:

$$\begin{split} \rho(j+k) &= [e^{2\pi i \frac{j+k}{4}}] \\ &= [e^{2\pi i \frac{j}{4}} e^{2\pi i \frac{k}{4}}] \\ &= [e^{2\pi i \frac{j}{4}}] [e^{2\pi i \frac{k}{4}}] \\ \rho(j) \rho(k) \end{split}$$

#### Inner automorphisms

I planned to end this lecture talking about the geometric representation of  $D_3$ . Instead, due to a question from Marek, we ended up talking about *inner automorphisms*. The goal here is to morally prove that groups are made to act on things. We'll do that by constructing, for *any* group G, a homomorphism  $G \to S_G$  into the set of permutations of the group's elements. This homomorphism won't be surjective; not every permutation of the set G can be viewed as a group element itself. We'll actually be mapping into a subgroup of  $S_G$  known as the automorphisms. More specifically, inner automorphisms.

**Definition 5** (Automorphism group). Let G be any group, and define the set Aut(G) by

$$\operatorname{Aut}(G) \coloneqq \{\varphi: G \to G \mid \varphi \text{ is an isomorphism}\}.$$

A self-isomorphism  $G \to G$  is called an **automorphism**.

**Proposition 2.** Fix a group G. The set Aut(G) of automorphisms of G forms a group, with the operation being function composition and the identity element being the identity homomorphism  $id_G$ .

*Proof.* We have three things to check: closure under the group operation, existsence of an identity element, and invertibility.  $\Box$ 

### 9/24/2025

#### UNSTABLE

#### Geometric example

These examples are both one-dimensional, so they don't really show the true flavor of representation theory. Here's an example that is more complicated, which we'll linger on for a while. It's similar to the matrix group example, up to a change of basis.

Let  $D_3$  be the group with the following six elements:

$$\{e, r, r^2, s, sr, sr^2\}$$

where we can freely multiply any elements using the reduction rules

$$r^3 = e, \quad s^2 = e, \quad rs = sr^2.$$

We could alternatively phrase this by saying  $D_3 = \langle r, s \mid r^3 = e, s^2 = e, rs = sr^2 \rangle$ . We'll define a representation  $\rho: D_3 \to \operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{C})$  by declaring

$$\rho(s) \coloneqq \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(r) \coloneqq \begin{bmatrix} e^{2\pi i/3} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-2\pi i/3} \end{bmatrix}$$

and claiming that with these assignments, the images of the rest of the elements of  $D_3$  are fully determined. To understand this claim, we should do an example or two. We'll be as loose as you're comfortable with, and try to argue convincingly, albeit informally, that  $\rho$  translates the multiplication of  $D_3$  into the multiplication in  $GL_2(\mathbb{C})$ .

First consider the properties  $s^2 = e$  and  $r^3 = e$  separately in  $D_3$ . The image of s under  $\rho$  shares a corresponding property:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

as does the image of r under  $\rho$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{2\pi i/3} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-2\pi i/3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{2\pi i/3} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-2\pi i/3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{2\pi i/3} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-2\pi i/3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$