Category Theory by Example

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Contents

1	Bas	e definitions	7
	1.1	Definitions	7
		1.1.1 Object	7
			8
		1.1.3 Category	0
	1.2	Examples	1
		1.2.1 Set category	1
		1.2.2 Programming languages	6
		1.2.3 Quantum mechanics	9
2	Obj	ects and morphisms 2	3
	2.1	Equality	3
	2.2	Initial and terminal objects	4
	2.3	Product and sum	6
	2.4	Exponential	6
	2.5	Programming languages and algebraic data types 2	6
	2.6	Examples	7
		2.6.1 Set category	7
		2.6.2 Programming languages	7
		2.6.3 Quantum mechanics	0
3	Fun	ctors 3	1
	3.1	Definitions	1
	3.2	Natural transformations	2
	3.3	Examples	2
		3.3.1 Set category	2
		3.3.2 Programming languages	2
		3.3.3 Quantum mechanics	3
4	Mo	nads 3	5

Index 37

Introduction

There is an introduction to Category Theory. There are a lot of examples in each chapter. The examples covers different category theory application areas. I assume that the reader is familiar with the corresponding area if not the example(s) can be passed. Anyone can choose the most suitable example(s) for (s)he.

The most important examples are related to the set theory. The set theory and category theory are very close related. Each one can be considered as an alternative view to another one.

There are a lot of examples from programming languages. There are Haskell, Scala, C++. The source files for programming languages examples (Haskell, C++, Scala) can be found on github repo [4].

The examples from physics are related to quantum mechanics that is the most known for me. For the examples I am inspired by the Bob Coecke article [1].

6 CONTENTS

Chapter 1

Base definitions

1.1 Definitions

1.1.1 Object

Definition 1.1 (Class). A class is a collection of sets (or sometimes other mathematical objects) that can be unambiguously defined by a property that all its members share.

Definition 1.2 (Object). In category theory object is considered as something that does not have internal structure (aka point) but has a property that makes different objects belong to the same Class

Remark 1.3 (Class of Objects). The Class of Objects will be marked as ob(C) (see fig. 1.1).

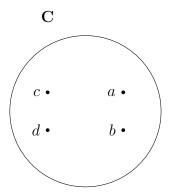


Figure 1.1: Class of objects $\operatorname{ob}(\mathbf{C}) = \{a,b,c,d\}$

1.1.2 Morphism

Morphism is a kind of relation between 2 Objects.

Definition 1.4 (Morphism). A relation between two Objects a and b

$$f_{ab}:a\rightarrow b$$

is called morphism. Morphism assumes a direction i.e. one Object (a) is called source and another one (b) target.

The Set of all morphisms between objects a and b is called as hom (a, b).

Definition 1.5 (Domain). Given a Morphism $f: a \to b$, the Object a is called domain and is denoted as dom a.

Definition 1.6 (Codomain). Given a Morphism $f: a \to b$, the Object b is called codomain and is denoted as $\operatorname{cod} a$.

Morphisms have several properties. ¹

Axiom 1.7 (Composition). If we have 3 Objects a, b and c and 2 Morphisms

$$f_{ab}: a \to b$$

and

$$f_{bc}: b \to c$$

then there exists Morphism

$$f_{ac}: a \to c$$

such that

$$f_{ac} = f_{bc} \circ f_{ab}$$

Remark 1.8 (Composition). The equation

$$f_{ac} = f_{bc} \circ f_{ab}$$

means that we apply f_{ab} first and then we apply f_{bc} to the result of the application i.e. if our objects are sets and $x \in a$ then

$$f_{ac}(x) = f_{bc}(f_{ab}(x)),$$

where $f_{ab}(x) \in b$.

¹The properties don't have any proof and postulated as axioms

1.1. DEFINITIONS

9

Axiom 1.9 (Associativity). The Morphisms Composition (Axiom 1.7) s should follow associativity property:

$$f_{ce} \circ (f_{bc} \circ f_{ab}) = (f_{ce} \circ f_{bc}) \circ f_{ab} = f_{ce} \circ f_{bc} \circ f_{ab}.$$

Definition 1.10 (Identity morphism). For every Object a we define a special Morphism $\mathbf{1}_{[a]}: a \to a$ with the following properties: $\forall f_{ab}: a \to b$

$$\mathbf{1}_{\lceil a \rceil} \circ f_{ab} = f_{ab} \tag{1.1}$$

and $\forall f_{ba}: b \to a$

$$f_{ba} \circ \mathbf{1}_{\lceil a \rceil} = f_{ba}. \tag{1.2}$$

This morphism is called *identity morphism*.

Note that Identity morphism is unique, see Identity is unique (Theorem 2.3) below.

Definition 1.11 (Commutative diagram). A commutative diagram is a diagram of Objects (also known as vertices) and Morphisms (also known as arrows or edges) such that all directed paths in the diagram with the same start and endpoints lead to the same result by composition

The following diagram commutes if $f_{ab} = f_{cb} \circ f_{ac}$.



Remark 1.12 (Class of Morphisms). The Class of Morphisms will be marked as hom(C) (see fig. 1.2)

Definition 1.13 (Monomorphism). If $\forall g_1, g_2$ the equation

$$f \circ q_1 = f \circ q_2$$

leads to

$$g_1 = g_2$$

then f is called monomorphism.



Figure 1.2: Class of morphisms $hom(\mathbf{C}) = \{f, g, h\}$, where $h = f \circ g$

Definition 1.14 (Epimorphism). If $\forall g_1, g_2$ the equation

$$q_1 \circ f = q_2 \circ f$$

leads to

$$g_1 = g_2$$

then f is called *epimorphism*.

Definition 1.15 (Isomorphism). A Morphism $f: a \to b$ is called isomorphism if $\exists g: b \to a$ such that $f \circ g = \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} a \rceil$ and $g \circ f = \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} b \rceil$.

Remark 1.16 (Isomorphism). There are can be many different Isomorphisms between 2 Objects.

1.1.3 Category

Definition 1.17 (Category). A category C consists of

- Class of Objects ob(C)
- Class of Morphisms hom(\mathbf{C}) defined for ob(\mathbf{C}), i.e. each morphism f_{ab} from hom(\mathbf{C}) has both source a and target b from ob(\mathbf{C})

For any Object a there should be unique Identity morphism $\mathbf{1}_{[a]}$. Any morphism should satisfy Composition (Axiom 1.7) and Associativity (Axiom 1.9) properties. See fig. 1.3

The Category can be considered as a way to represent a structured data. Morphisms are the ones to form the structure.

1.2. EXAMPLES 11

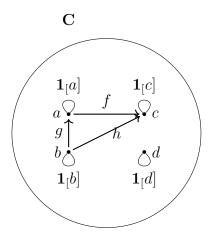


Figure 1.3: Category C. It consists of 4 objects ob(C) = $\{a, b, c, d\}$ and 7 morphisms ob(C) = $\{f, g, h = f \circ g, \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} a \rceil, \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} b \rceil, \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} c \rceil, \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} d \}$

Definition 1.18 (Opposite category). If **C** is a Category then opposite (or dual) category \mathbf{C}^{op} is constructed in the following way: Objects are the same, but the Morphisms are inverted i.e. if $f \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C})$ and dom f = a, cod f = b, then the corresponding morphism $f^{op} \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C}^{op})$ has dom $f^{op} = b, \text{cod } f^{op} = a$ (see fig. 1.4)

Remark 1.19. Composition on C^{op} As you can see from fig. 1.4 the Composition (Axiom 1.7) is reverted for Opposite category. If $f, g, h = f \circ g \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C})$ then $f \circ g$ translated into $g^{op} \circ f^{op}$ in opposite category.

Definition 1.20 (Small category). A category C is called *small* if both ob(C) and hom(C) are Sets

Definition 1.21 (Large category). A category **C** is not Small category then it is called *large*. The example of large category is **Set** category (Example 1.25)

1.2 Examples

There are several examples of categories that will also be used later

1.2.1 Set category

Definition 1.22 (Set). Set is a collection of distinct object. The objects are called the elements of the set.

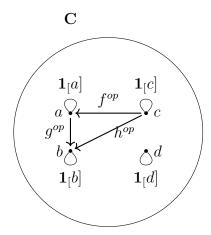


Figure 1.4: Opposite category C^{op} to the category from fig. 1.3. It consists of 4 objects $ob(\mathbf{C^{op}}) = ob(\mathbf{C}) = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and 7 morphisms $hom(\mathbf{C^{op}}) = \{f^{op}, g^{op}, h^{op} = g^{op} \circ f^{op}, \mathbf{1}_{[a]}, \mathbf{1}_{[b]}, \mathbf{1}_{[c]}, \mathbf{1}_{[d]}\}$

Definition 1.23 (Binary relation). If A and B are 2 Sets then a subset of $A \times B$ is called binary relation R between the 2 sets, i.e. $R \subset A \times B$.

Definition 1.24 (Function). Function f is a special type of Binary relation. I.e. if A and B are 2 Sets then a subset of $A \times B$ is called function f between the 2 sets if $\forall a \in A \exists ! b \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in f$. In other words function does not allowed "multi value".

Example 1.25 (Set category). In the set category we consider a Set of Sets where Objects are the Sets and Morphisms are Functions between the sets.

The Identity morphism is trivial function such that $\forall x \in X : \mathbf{1}_{[X]}(x) = x$.

In general case when we say **Set** category we assume the set of all sets. But the result is inconsistent because famous Russell's paradox [9]can be applied. To avoid such situations we assume the some kind of limitations are applied on our construction, for instance ZFC [10]. If we apply the limitation we have that set of all sets is not a set itself and as result the **Set** category is a Large category

Remark 1.26 (Set vs Category). There is an interesting relation between sets and categories. In both we consider objects(sets) and relations between them(morphisms/functions).

In the set theory we can get info about functions by looking inside the objects(sets) aka use "microscope" [3]

Contrary in the category theory we initially don't have info about object internal structure but can get it using the relation between the objects i.e. using Morphisms. In other words we can use "telescope" [3] there.



Figure 1.5: A surjective (non-injective) function from domain X to codomain Y

Definition 1.27 (Singleton). The *singleton* is a Set with only one element.

Definition 1.28 (Domain). Given a function $f: X \to Y$, the set X is the domain.

Definition 1.29 (Codomain). Given a function $f: X \to Y$, the set Y is the codomain.

Definition 1.30 (Surjection). The function $f: X \to Y$ is surjective (or onto) if $\forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X$ such that f(x) = y (see figs. 1.5 and 1.9).

Remark 1.31 (Surjection vs Epimorphism). Surjection and Epimorphism are related each other. Consider a non-surjective function $f: X \to Y' \subset Y$ (see fig. 1.6). One can conclude that there is not an Epimorphism because $\exists g_1: Y' \to Y'$ and $g_2: Y \to Y$ such that $g_1 \neq g_2$ because they operates on different Domains but from other hand $g_1(Y') = g_2(Y')$. For instance we can choose $g_1 = \mathbf{1}_{[Y']}, g_2 = \mathbf{1}_{[Y]}$. As soon as Y' is Codomain of f we always have $g_1(f(X)) = g_2(F(X))$.

As result we can say that an Surjection is a Epimorphism in **Set** category. Moreover there is a proof [7] of that fact.

Definition 1.32 (Injection). The function $f: X \to Y$ is injective (or one-to-one function) if $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X$, such that $x_1 \neq x_2$ then $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ (see figs. 1.7 and 1.9).

Remark 1.33 (Injection vs Monomorphism). Injection and Monomorphism are related each other. Consider a non-injective function $f: X \to Y$ (see fig. 1.8). One can conclude that it is not monomorphism because $\exists g_1, g_2$ such that $g_1 \neq g_2$ and $f(g_1(a_1)) = g_3 = f(g_2(b_1))$.



Figure 1.6: A non-surjective function f from domain X to codomain $Y' \subset Y$. $\exists g_1 : Y' \to Y', g_2 : Y \to Y$ such that $g_1(Y') = g_2(Y')$, but as soon as $Y' \neq Y$ we have $g_1 \neq g_2$. Using the fact that Y' is codomain of f we got $g_1 \circ f = g_2 \circ f$. I.e. the function f is not epimorphism.



Figure 1.7: A injective (non-surjective) function from domain X to codomain Y

1.2. EXAMPLES 15

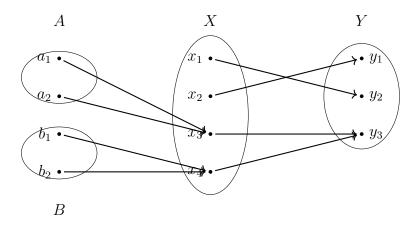


Figure 1.8: A non-injective function f from domain X to codomain Y. $\exists g_1 : A \to X, g_2 : B \to X$ such that $g_1 \neq g_2$ but $f \circ g_1 = f \circ g_2$. I.e. the function f is not monomorphism.



Figure 1.9: An injective and surjective function (bijection)

As result we can say that an Injection is a Monomorphism in **Set** category. Moreover there is a proof [6] of that fact.

Definition 1.34 (Bijection). The function $f: X \to Y$ is bijective (or one-to-one correspondence) if it is an Injection and a Surjection (see fig. 1.9).

There is a question what's analog of a single Set. Main characteristic of a category is a structure but the set by definition does not have a structure. Which category does not have any structure? The answer is Discrete category.

Definition 1.35 (Discrete category). Discrete category is a Category where Morphisms are only Identity morphisms.

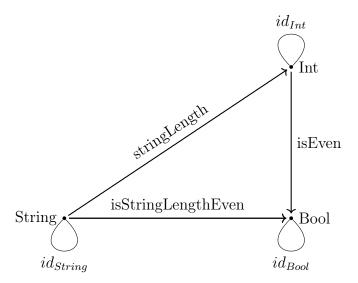


Figure 1.10: Programming language category example. Objects are types: Int, Bool, String. Morphisms are several functions

1.2.2 Programming languages

In the programming languages we consider types as Objects and functions as Morphisms. The critical requirements for such consideration is that the functions have to be pure function (without side effects). This requirement mainly is satisfied by functional languages such as Haskell and Scala. From other side the functional languages use lazy evaluation to improve the performance. The laziness can also make category theory axiom invalid (see Haskell lazy evaluation (Remark 1.37)).

Strictly speaking neither Haskell (pure functional language) nor C++ can be considered as a category in general. As a first approximation the functional language (Haskell, Scala) can be considered as a category if we avoid to use functions with side effects (mainly for Scala) and use strict (for both Haskell and Scala) evaluations.

In any case we can construct a simple toy category that can be easy implemented in any language. Particularly we will look into category with 3 objects that are types: Int, Bool, String. There are also several functions between them (see fig. 1.10).

Hask category

Example 1.36 (Hask category). Types in Haskell are considered as Objects. Functions are considered as Morphisms. We are going to implement Category

1.2. EXAMPLES 17

from fig. 1.10.

The function is Even that converts Int type into Bool.

```
isEven :: Int -> Bool
isEven x = x `mod` 2 == 0
```

There is also Identity morphism that is defined as follows

```
id :: a \rightarrow a
id x = x
```

If we have an additional function

```
stringLength :: String -> Int
stringLength x = length x
```

then we can create a Composition (Axiom 1.7)

```
isStringLengthEven :: String -> Bool
isStringLengthEven = isEven . stringLength
```

Remark 1.37 (Haskell lazy evaluation). Each Haskell type has a special value \perp . The value presents and lazy evaluations make several category law invalid, for instance Identity morphism behaviour become invalid in specific cases:

The following code

```
seq undefined True
```

produces undefined But the following

```
seq (id.undefined) True
seq (undefined.id) True
```

produces *True* in both cases. As result we have (we cannot compare functions in Haskell, but if we could we can get the following)

```
id . undefined /= undefined
undefined . id /= undefined,
```

i.e. (1.1) and (1.2) are not satisfied.

C++ category

Example 1.38 (C++ category). We will use the same trick as in **Hask** category (Example 1.36) and will assume types in C++ as Objects, functions as Morphisms. We also are going to implement Category from fig. 1.10.

We also define 2 functions:

```
auto isEven = [](int x) {
   return x \% 2 == 0;
 };
 auto stringLength = [](std::string s) {
   return static_cast<int>(s.size());
 };
Composition can be defined as follows:
 //h = q \cdot f
 template <typename A, typename B>
 auto compose(A g, B f) {
   auto h = [f, g] (auto a) {
     auto b = f(a);
     auto c = g(b);
     return c;
   };
   return h;
 };
The Identity morphism:
 auto id = [](auto x) { return x; };
The usage examples are the following:
 auto isStringLengthEven = compose<>(isEven, stringLength);
 auto isStringLengthEvenL = compose<>(id, isStringLengthEven);
 auto isStringLengthEvenR = compose<>(isStringLengthEven, id);
```

Such construction will always provides us the category as soon as we use pure function (functions without effects).

1.2. EXAMPLES 19

Scala category

Example 1.39 (Scala category). We will use the same trick as in Hask category (Example 1.36) and will assume types in Scala as Objects, functions as Morphisms. We also are going to implement Category from fig. 1.10.

```
object Category {
   def id[A]: A \Rightarrow A = a \Rightarrow a
   def compose[A, B, C](g: B \Rightarrow C, f: A \Rightarrow B):
       A \Rightarrow C = g \text{ compose } f
   val isEven = (i: Int) => i % 2 == 0
   val stringLength = (s: String) => s.length
   val isStringLengthEven = (s: String) =>
       compose(isEven, stringLength)(s)
 }
The usage example is below
 class CategorySpec extends Properties("Category") {
   import Category._
   import Prop.forAll
   property("composition") = forAll { (s: String) =>
     isStringLengthEven(s) == isEven(stringLength(s))
   property("right id") = forAll { (i: Int) =>
     isEven(i) == compose(isEven, id[Int])(i)
   }
   property("left id") = forAll { (i: Int) =>
     isEven(i) == compose(id[Boolean], isEven)(i)
   }
 }
```

1.2.3 Quantum mechanics

The most critical property of quantum system is superposition principle. The **Set** category (Example 1.25) cannot be used for it because it does not satisfied the principle.

A simple modification of the **Set** category can satisfy the principle.

Example 1.40 (Rel category). We will consider a set of sets (same as Set category (Example 1.25)) i.e. Sets as Objects. Instead of Functions we will use Binary relations as Morphisms.

The **Rel** category is similar to the finite dimensional Hilber space especially because it assumes some kind of superposition. Really consider C_R - the **Rel** category. $X,Y\in \text{ob}(C_R)$ - 2 sets which consists of different elements. Let $f:X\to X$ - Morphism. Each element $x\in X$ is mapped to a subset $Y'\subset Y$. The Y' can be Singleton (in this case no differences with Set category (Example 1.25)) but there can be a situation when Y' consists of several elements. In the case we will get some kind of superposition that is analogiest to quantum mechanics.

In the quantum mechanics we say about Hilber spaces.

Definition 1.41 (Hilbert space). The Hilbert space a complex vector space with an inner product as a complex number (\mathbb{C}) .

Later we will consider only finite dimensional Hilber spaces. We will denote a Hilber space of dimensional n as \mathcal{H}_n . Obviously $\mathcal{H}_1 = \mathbb{C}$.

The transformation between 2 ??s that preserves the structure is called linear map or linear transformations.

Definition 1.42 (Linear map). The linear map between Hilbert spaces \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} is a mapping $f: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$ that preserves additions

$$f(a_1 + a_2) = f(a_1) + f(a_2),$$

and scalar multiplications:

$$f(c \cdot a) = c \cdot f(a)$$

where $a, a_{1,2} \in \mathcal{A}$ and $f(a), f(a_{1,2}) \in \mathcal{B}$.

Example 1.43 (**FdHilb** category). Most common case in quantum mechanics is the case of quantum states in the finite dimensional Hilbert space. We can consider the set of all finite dimensional Hilbert spaces as a category. The Objects in the category are finite dimensional Hilbert spaces and Morphisms are Linear maps. The category is denoted as **FdHilb**. It is very similar to **Rel** category (Example 1.40). The brief relation is described in the table 1.1.

Example 1.44 (Rabi oscillations). For our example we consider a 2 level atom with states $|a\rangle$ - excited and $|b\rangle$. As soon as we consider a 2-level system we are in the 2 dimensional Hilbert space i.e. have only one Object. Lets call it as $|\psi\rangle$. The category will be called as **R**. I.e. $ob(\mathbf{R}) = \mathcal{H}_2\{|\psi\rangle\}$.

1.2. EXAMPLES 21

Table 1.1. Relations between Set, Rel and Pullin Categories					
	Set	Rel	FdHilb		
Object	Set	Set	finite dimensional Hilbert space		
Morphism	Function	Binary relation	Linear map		
Initial object	empty set	empty set	trivial Hilbert space of dimensional 0		
Terminal object	Singleton	Singleton	\mathbb{C}		
Product	Cartesian product	Cartesian product	tensor product		
Sum	Sum (Example 2.13)	Sum (Example 2.13)	TBD		

Table 1.1: Relations between Set, Rel and FdHilb categories

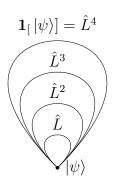


Figure 1.11: Rabi oscillations as a category \mathbf{R}

The atom interacts with light beam of frequency $\omega = \omega_{ab}$. The state of the system is described by the following equation [11]:

$$\left|\psi\right\rangle = \cos\frac{\omega_{R}t}{2}\left|a\right\rangle - i\sin\frac{\omega_{R}t}{2}\left|b\right\rangle,$$

where ω_R - Rabi frequency [11].

The interaction time t is fixed and corresponds to $\omega_R t = \pi$ i.e. the interaction can be described a linear operator \hat{L} .

There are 4 different states and as result 4 Morphisms:

$$\begin{split} |\psi\rangle_0 &= |a\rangle\,,\\ |\psi\rangle_1 &= \hat{L}\,|\psi\rangle_0 = -i\,|b\rangle\,,\\ |\psi\rangle_2 &= \hat{L}^2\,|\psi\rangle_0 = -\,|a\rangle\,,\\ |\psi\rangle_3 &= \hat{L}^3\,|\psi\rangle_0 = i\,|b\rangle\,, \end{split}$$

Chapter 2

Objects and morphisms

2.1 Equality

The important question is how can we decide whenever an object/morphism is equal to another object/morphism? The trivial answer is possible for if an Object is a Set. In this case we can say that 2 objects are equal if they contains the same elements. Unfortunately we cannot do the same for default objects as soon as they don't have any internal structure. We can use the same trick as in Set vs Category (Remark 1.26): if we cannot use "microscope" lets use "telescope" and define the equality of objects and morphisms of a category $\bf C$ in the terms of whole hom($\bf C$).

Definition 2.1 (Objects equality). Two Objects a and b in Category C are equal if there exists an unique Isomorphism $f: a \to b$. This also means that also exist unique isomorphism $g: b \to a$. These two Morphisms are related each other via the following equations: $f \circ g = \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} a \rceil$ and $g \circ f = \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} b \rceil$.

Unlike Functions between Sets we don't have any additional info ¹ about Morphisms except category theory axioms which the morphisms satisfied [2]. This leads us to the following definition for morphims equality:

Definition 2.2 (Morphisms equality). Two Morphisms f and g in Category C are equal if the equality can be derived from the base axioms:

- Composition (Axiom 1.7)
- Associativity (Axiom 1.9)
- Identity morphism: (1.1), (1.2)

¹ for instance info about sets internals. i.e. which elements of the sets are connected by the considered functions

or Commutative diagrams which postulate the equality.

As an example lets proof the following theorem

Theorem 2.3 (Identity is unique). The Identity morphism is unique.

Proof. Consider an Object a and it's Identity morphism $\mathbf{1}_{[a]}$. Let $\exists f : a \to a$ such that f is also identity. In the case (1.1) for f as identity gives

$$f \circ \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} a] = \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} a].$$

From other side (1.2) for $\mathbf{1}_{\lceil}a\rceil$ satisfied

$$f \circ \mathbf{1}_{\lceil} a] = f$$

i.e.
$$f = \mathbf{1}_{[a]}$$
.

2.2 Initial and terminal objects

Definition 2.4 (Initial object). Let \mathbf{C} is a Category, the Object $i \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{C})$ is called *initial object* if $\forall x \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{C}) \exists ! f_x : i \to x \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C})$.

Definition 2.5 (Terminal object). Let **C** is a Category, the Object $t \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{C})$ is called *terminal object* if $\forall x \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{C}) \exists ! g_x : x \to t \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C})$.

As you can see the initial and terminal objects are opposite each other. I.e. if i is an Initial object in \mathbf{C} then it will be Terminal object in the Opposite category \mathbf{C}^{op} .

Theorem 2.6 (Initial object is unique). Let \mathbf{C} is a category and $i, i' \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{C})$ two Initial objects then there exists an unique Isomorphism $u: i \to i'$ (see Objects equality)

Proof. Consider the following Commutative diagram (see fig. 2.1) \Box

Theorem 2.7 (Terminal object is unique). Let C is a category and $t, t' \in ob(C)$ two Terminal objects then there exists an unique Isomorphism $v: t' \to t$ (see Objects equality)

Proof. Just got to the Opposite category and revert arrows in fig. 2.1. The result shown on fig. 2.2 and it proofs the theorem statement. \Box

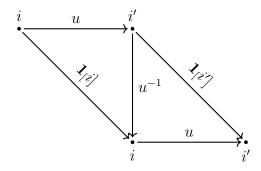


Figure 2.1: Commutative diagram for initial object unique proof



Figure 2.2: Commutative diagram for terminal object unique proof



Figure 2.3: Product $c = c_1 \times c_2$. $\forall c, \exists ! h \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C}) : \pi'_1 = \pi_1 \circ h, \pi'_2 = \pi_2 \circ h$.

2.3 Product and sum

The pair of 2 objects is defined via so called universal property in the following way:

Definition 2.8 (Product). Let we have a category \mathbf{C} and $c_1, c_2 \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{C})$ -two Objects the product of the objects c_1, c_2 is another object in \mathbf{C} $c = c_1 \times c_2$ with 2 Morphisms π_1, π_2 such that $a = g_a c, b = g_b c$ and the following universal property is satisfied: $\forall c' \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{C})$ and morphisms $\pi'_1 : \pi'_2 c' = c_1, \pi'_2 : \pi'_2 c' = c_2$, exists unique morphism h such that the following diagram (see fig. 2.3) commutes, i.e. $\pi'_1 = \pi_1 \circ h, \pi'_2 = \pi_2 \circ h$. In other words h factorizes $\pi'_{1,2}$.

If we invert arrows in Product we will got another object definition that is called sum

Definition 2.9 (Sum). Let we have a category \mathbb{C} and $c_1, c_2 \in \text{ob}(\mathbb{C})$ -two Objects the sum of the objects c_1, c_2 is another object in \mathbb{C} $c = c_1 \oplus c_2$ with 2 Morphisms i_1, i_2 such that $c = i_1c_1, c = i_2c_2$ and the following universal property is satisfied: $\forall c' \in \text{ob}(\mathbb{C})$ and morphisms $i'_1 : i'_1x_1 = c', i'_2 : i'_2x_2 = c'$, exists unique morphism h such that the following diagram (see fig. 2.4) commutes, i.e. $i'_1 = h \circ i_1, i'_2 = h \circ i_2$. In other words h factorizes $i'_{1,2}$.

2.4 Exponential

TBD

2.5 Programming languages and algebraic data types

TBD

2.6. EXAMPLES 27

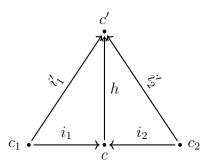


Figure 2.4: Sum $c = c_1 \oplus c_2$. $\forall c, \exists ! h \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C}) : i'_1 = h \circ i_1, i'_2 = h \circ i_2$.

2.6 Examples

2.6.1 Set category

Example 2.10 (Initial object). [Set] Note that there is only one function from empty set to any other sets [5] that makes the empty set as the Initial object in Set category (Example 1.25).

Example 2.11 (Terminal object). [Set] Terminal object in Set category (Example 1.25) is a set with one element i.e Singleton.

Example 2.12 (Product). [Set] The Product of two sets A and B in Set category (Example 1.25) is defined as a Cartesian product: $A \times B = \{(a,b)|a \in A, b \in B\}$.

Example 2.13 (Sum). [Set] The Sum of two sets A and B in Set category (Example 1.25) is defined as disjoint union [8]. Let $\{A_i : i \in I\}$ be a family of sets indexed by I. The disjoint union of this family is the set

$$\sqcup_{i\in I} A_i = \cup_{i\in I} \left\{ (x,i) : x \in A_i \right\}.$$

The elements of the disjoint union are ordered pairs (x, i). Here i serves as an auxiliary index that indicates which Ai the element x came from.

2.6.2 Programming languages

In our toy example fig. 1.10 the type String is Initial object and type Bool is the Terminal object. From other side there are types in different programming languages that satisfies the definitions of initial and terminal objects.

Hask category

Example 2.14 (Initial object). [Hask] If we avoid lazy evaluations in Haskell (see Haskell lazy evaluation (Remark 1.37)) then we can found

the following types as candidates for initial and terminal object in haskell. Initial object in **Hask** category (Example 1.36) is a type without values

```
data Empty
```

i.e. you cannot construct a object of the type.

There is only one function from the initial object:

```
absurd :: Empty -> a
```

The function is called absurd because it does absurd action. Nobody can proof that it does not exist. For the existence proof can be used the following absurd argument: "Just provide me an object type Empty and I will provide you the result of evaluation".

There is no function in opposite direction because it would had been used for the Empty object creation.

Example 2.15 (Terminal object). [Hask] Terminal object (unit) in Hask category (Example 1.36) keeps only one element

```
data() = ()
```

i.e. you can create only one element of the type. You can use the following function for the creation:

```
unit :: a -> ()
unit _ = ()
```

Example 2.16 (Product). [Hask] The Product in Hask category (Example 1.36) keeps a pair and the constructor defined as follows

```
(,) :: a \rightarrow b \rightarrow (a, b)
(,) x y = (x, y)
```

There are 2 projectors:

```
fst :: (a, b) -> a
fst (x, _) = x
snd :: (a, b) -> b
snd (_, y) = y
```

Example 2.17 (Sum). [Hask] The Sum in Hask category (Example 1.36) defined as follows

```
data Either a b = Left a | Right b
```

The typical usage is via pattern matching for instance

```
factor :: (a -> c) -> (b -> c) -> Either a b -> c
factor f _ (Left x) = f x
factor _ g (Right y) = g y
```

2.6. EXAMPLES 29

```
C++ category
```

TBD

Example 2.18 (Initial object). [C++] In C++ exists a special type that does not hold any values and as result that cannot be created: **void**. You cannot create an object of that type: you will get a compiler error if you try.

Example 2.19 (Terminal object). [C++] C++ 17 introduced a special type that keeps only one value - std::monostate:

```
namespace std {
  struct monostate {};
}
Example 2.20 (Product). [C++] The Product in C++ category (Ex-
ample 1.38) keeps a pair and the constructor defined as follows
namespace std {
  template < class A, class B > struct pair {
    T1 first;
    T2 second;
  };
}
   There is a simple usage example
#include <utility>
#include <iostream>
int main()
{
  std::pair<int, bool> p(0, false);
  std::cout << "First projector: " << p.first << std::endl;</pre>
  std::cout << "Second projector: " << p.second << std::endl;</pre>
  return 0;
}
   Really any struct or class can be considered as the product.
Example 2.21 (Sum). [C++] The modern C++ suggest TBD
```

Scala category

Example 2.22 (Initial object). [Scala] We used a same trick as for Initial object (Example 2.14) and define Initial object in Scala category (Example 1.39) as a type without values

```
sealed trait Empty
```

i.e. you cannot construct a object of the type.

Example 2.23 (Terminal object). [Scala] We used a same trick as for Terminal object (Example 2.15) and define Terminal object in Scala category (Example 1.39) as a type with only one value

abstract final class Unit extends AnyVal

TBD i.e. you can create only one element of the type.

TBD

2.6.3 Quantum mechanics

Example 2.24 (Initial object). [FdHilb] We will use a Hilber space of dimensional 0 as the Initial object. I.e. the set that does not have any states in it.

Example 2.25 (Terminal object). [FdHilb] We will use a Hilber space of dimensional 1 as the Terminal object. I.e. the set of complex numbers \mathbb{C} .

Example 2.26 (Product). [FdHilb] The Product in FdHilb category (Example 1.43) is a tensor product of 2 ??s i.e. if \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are two Hilber spaces then the product is the tensor product of the spaces: $\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{B}$.

Note that the tensor product in quantum mechanics is used for representing a system that consists of multiple systems. For instance if we have an interaction between an 2 level atom (a is excited state b as a ground state) and one mode light then the atom has its own Hilber space \mathcal{H}_{at} with $|a\rangle$ and $|b\rangle$ as basis vectors. Light also has its own Hilber space \mathcal{H}_f with Fock state $\{|n\rangle\}$ as the basis. ² The result system that describes both atom and light is represented as the tensor product $\mathcal{H}_{at} \otimes \mathcal{H}_f$.

Example 2.27 (Sum). [FdHilb] TBD

² Really the \mathcal{H}_f is infinite dimensional Hilber space and seems to be out of our assumption about **FdHilb** category as a collection of finite dimensional Hilber spaces only.

Chapter 3

Functors

3.1 Definitions

Definition 3.1 (Functor). Let C and D are 2 categories. A mapping $F: C \to D$ between the categories is called *functor* is it preserves the internal structure (see fig. 3.1):

- $\forall a_C \in ob(\mathbf{C}), \exists a_D \in ob(\mathbf{D}) \text{ such that } a_d = F(a_C)$
- $\forall f_C \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{C}), \exists f_D \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{D}) \text{ such that dom } f_D = F(\text{dom } f_C), \text{cod } f_D = F(\text{cod } f_C).$ We will use the following notation later: $f_D = F(f_C)$.
- $\forall f_C, g_C$ the following equation holds:

$$F(f_C \circ f_D) = F(f_C) \circ F(g_C) = f_D \circ g_D.$$

• $\forall x \in ob(\mathbf{C}) : F(\mathbf{1}_x) = \mathbf{1}_{F(x)}.$

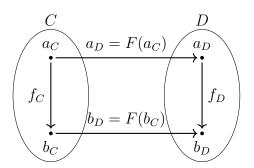


Figure 3.1: Functor $F: \mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{D}$ definition

Remark 3.2 (Functor). When we say that functor preserve internal structure means that functor is not just mapping between Objects but also between Morphisms.

Definition 3.3 (Category Composition). TBD

Definition 3.4 (Category Identity). TBD

Definition 3.5 (Cat category). TBD

Definition 3.6 (Category Product). TBD

Definition 3.7 (Bifunctor). TBD

Definition 3.8 (Terminal object in **Cat** category). Let consider Δ_c is a trivial functor from Category **A** to category **C** such that $\forall a \in \text{ob}(\mathbf{A})$: $\Delta_c a = c$ -fixed object in **C** and $\forall f \in \text{hom}(\mathbf{A}) : \Delta_c f = \mathbf{1}_c$.

Definition 3.9 (Contravariant functor). If we have a categories C and D then the Functor $C^{op} \to D$ is called *contravariant functor*.

Definition 3.10 (Profunctor). If we have a category C then the Bifunctor $C^{op} \times C \to C$ is called *profunctor*.

3.2 Natural transformations

TBD

3.3 Examples

3.3.1 Set category

TBD

3.3.2 Programming languages

Hask category

TBD

Example 3.11 (Terminal object in Cat category). [Hask]

```
data Const c a = Const c
fmap :: (a -> b) -> Const c a -> Const c b
fmap f (Const c a) = Const c
```

3.3. EXAMPLES 33

Example 3.12 (Maybe as a functor). [Hask] Lets show how the Maybe a type can be constructed from different Functors and as result show that the Maybe a is also Functor.

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
-- This is equivalent to
data Maybe a = Either () (Identity a)
-- Either is a bifunctor and () == Const () a
-- Thus Maybe is a composition of 2 functors
Example 3.13 (Contravariant functor). [Hask] TBD
class Contravariant f where
      contramap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f b \rightarrow f a
Example 3.14 (Profunctor). [Hask] TBD
class Profunctor p where
      dimap :: (a' -> a) -> (b -> b') -> p a b -> p a' b'
      --pab = a ->b
      dimap f g h = g . h . f
C++ category
TBD
Scala category
TBD
```

3.3.3 Quantum mechanics

TBD

Chapter 4

Monads

TBD

Index

C++ category	definition, 12	
example, 18	-	
C++ category example, 29	Category, 10, 11, 15, 16, 18, 19,	
Cat category	23, 24, 32	
definition, 32	definition, 10	
FdHilb category	dual, 11	
example, 20	large, 11, 12	
FdHilb category example, 30	opposite, 11	
Hask category	small, 11	
example, 16	Category Composition	
Hask category example, 18, 19,	definition, 32	
28	Category Identity	
Rel category	definition, 32	
example, 20	Category Product	
Rel category example, 20	definition, 32	
Scala category	Class, 7, 9, 10	
example, 19	definition, 7	
Scala category example, 30	Class of Morphisms	
Set category	remark, 9	
example, 12	Class of Objects	
Set category example, 11, 19, 20,	remark, 7	
27	Codomain, 13	
	definition, 8, 13	
Associativity axiom, 10, 23	Commutative diagram, 24	
declaration, 9	definition, 9	
	Composition	
Bifunctor, 32	opposite category, 11	
definition, 32	remark, 8	
Bijection	Composition axiom, 9–11, 17, 23	
definition, 15	declaration, 8	
Binary relation, 12, 20, 21	Contravariant functor	

38 INDEX

Hask example, 33	Injection vs Monomorphism
definition, 32	remark, 13
	Isomorphism, 10, 23, 24
Discrete category, 15	definition, 10
definition, 15	remark, 10
Disjoint union, 27	_
Domain, 13	Large category, 12
definition, $8, 13$	definition, 11
D : 1: 19	Linear map, 20 , 21
Epimorphism, 13	definition, 20
definition, 10	Mayba ag a functor
Function, 12, 20, 21, 23	Maybe as a functor
definition, 12	Hask example, 33
Functor, 32, 33	Monomorphism, 13, 15
definition, 31	definition, 9
remark, 32	Morphism, 8–12, 15, 16, 18–21,
remark, 52	23, 26, 32 C + 1 example 18
Haskell lazy evaluation	C++ example, 18
remark, 17	FdHilb example, 20
Haskell lazy evaluation remark,	Hask example, 16
16, 27	Rel example, 20
Hilbert space, 20, 21	Scala example, 19
definition, 20	Set example, 12
,	definition, 8
Identity is unique theorem, 9	Morphisms equality
declaration, 24	definition, 23
Identity morphism, 9, 10, 12, 15,	Object, 7–12, 16, 18–21, 23, 24,
17, 18, 23, 24	26, 32
definition, 9	C++ example, 18
Initial object, 21, 24, 27, 28, 30	FdHilb example, 20
C++ example, 29	Hask example, 16
FdHilb example, 30	Rel example, 20
Hask example, 27	Scala example, 19
Scala example, 30	Set example, 12
Set example, 27	definition, 7
definition, 24	Objects equality, 24
Initial object example, 30	definition, 23
Initial object is unique theorem	Opposite category, 11, 24
declaration, 24	definition, 11
Injection, 13, 15	,
definition, 13	Product, 21, 26–30

INDEX 39

C++ example, 29	Hask example, 28
FdHilb example, 30	Set example, 27
Hask example, 28	definition, 26
Set example, 27	Sum example, 21
definition, 26	Surjection, 13, 15
Profunctor	definition, 13
Hask example, 33	Surjection vs Epimorphism
definition, 32	remark, 13
Rabi oscillations	Terminal object, 21, 24, 27, 30
example, 20	C++ example, 29
Set, 8, 12, 13, 15, 20, 21, 23	FdHilb example, 30
definition, 11	Hask example, 28
Set vs Category	Scala example, 30
remark, 12	Set example, 27
Set vs Category remark, 23	Cat category, 32
Singleton, 20, 21, 27	definition, 24
definition, 13	Terminal object example, 30
Small category, 11	Terminal object in Cat category
definition, 11	Hask example, 32
Sum, 21, 27, 28	definition, 32
C++ example, 29	Terminal object is unique theorem
FdHilb example, 30	declaration, 24

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