Category theory for Programmers Solutions

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Contents

1 Category: The Essence of Composition **1**

2 Types and Functions **3**

3 Categories Great and Small **6**

4 Kleisli Categories **8**

5 Products and Coproducts **9**

6 Simple Algebraic Data Types **12**

7 Functors **15**

8 Functoriality **17**

Chapter One

Category: The Essence of Composition

Exercise 1.1.
Implement, as best as you can, the identity function in your favorite language (or the second favorite, if your favorite language happens to be Haskell).

Solution.

```
auto id = [](auto x){ return x; }
```

□

Exercise 1.2.
Implement the composition function in your favorite language. It takes two functions as arguments and returns a function that is their composition.

Solution.

```
auto compose = [](auto f, auto g) {
 return [=](auto&& ... x) {
    return f(g(x...));
 };
};
```

□

Exercise 1.3.
Write a program that tries to test that your composition function respects identity.

Solution.

```
bool test_compose(){
  auto f = [](int str){
    return std::to_string(str);
  };
  auto f_id = compose(f, id);
  auto id_f = compose(id, f);
  for(int i = 0; i < 1000; i++){
    auto expect = f(i);
    auto r1 = f_id(i), r2 = id_f(i);
    if(r1 != expect || r2 != expect)
       return false;
  }
    return true;
}
```

□

Exercise 1.4.
Is the world-wide web a category in any sense? Are links morphisms?

Solution. If assume $A \to B$ is a morphism iff page B is reachable from page A in 0 or more steps, the world-wide web is a category.
Links are not morphisms, because if there is a link on page A to page B, and a link on page B to page C, there not necessarily a link on page A to page C. □

Exercise 1.5.
Is the world-wide web a category in any sense? Are links morphisms?

Solution. If assume $A \to B$ is a morphism iff page B is reachable from page A in 0 or more steps, the world-wide web is a category.
Links are not morphisms, because if there is a link on page A to page B, and a link on page B to page C, there not necessarily a link on page A to page C. □

Exercise 1.6.
Is Facebook a category, with people as objects and friendships as morphisms?

Solution. It's not a category. Because if A and B are friends, and B and C are friends, A and C may not know each other. □

Chapter Two

Types and Functions

Exercise 2.1.
Define a higher-order function (or a function object) *memoize* in your favorite language. This function takes a pure function f as an argument and returns a function that behaves almost exactly like f, except that it only calls the original function once for every argument, stores the result internally, and subsequently returns this stored result every time it's called with the same argument. You can tell the memoized function from the original by watching its performance. For instance, try to memoize a function that takes a long time to evaluate. You'll have to wait for the result the first time you call it, but on subsequent calls, with the same argument, you should get the result immediately.

Solution.

```
template <typename T>
struct Memoize;

template<typename ResultType, typename... ArgTypes>
class Memoize<ResultType(ArgTypes...)>
{
private:
   using ArgsType = std::tuple<ArgTypes...>;
public:
   Memoize(std::function<ResultType(ArgTypes...)> f) : _f(f) {}

   ResultType operator()(ArgTypes... args) {
     const auto argsAsTuple = std::make_tuple(args...);
     auto memoized = _table.find(argsAsTuple);
     if(memoized == _table.end()) {
       auto const r = _f(args...);
       _table.insert({ {args...}, r});
       return r;
     } else {
       std::cout << "memoized: ->" << memoized->second << std::endl;
       return memoized->second;
     }
   }
private:
   std::map<ArgsType, ResultType> _table;
   std::function<ResultType(ArgTypes...)> _f;
};
```

□

Exercise 2.2.
Try to memoize a function from your standard library that you normally use to produce random numbers. Does it work?

Solution.

```
auto memoizedRand = Memoize<int(void)>(rand);
std :: cout << memoizedRand() << std::endl;
std :: cout << memoizedRand() << std::endl;
```

It always returns the same result. From the point of produce random numbers, it does not work. □

Exercise 2.3.
Most random number generators can be initialized with a seed. Implement a function that takes a seed, calls the random number generator with that seed, and returns the result. Memoize that function. Does it work?

Solution.

```
int randNum(int seed){
   srand(seed);
   return rand();
}
auto memoizedRand = Memoize<int(int)>(randNum);
```

this will always return the same random number for the same seed. □

Exercise 2.4.
Which of these C++ functions are pure? Try to memoize them and observe what happens when you call them multiple times: memoized and not.
(a) The factorial function from the example in the text.
(b) std::getchar()
(c)

```
bool f() {
  std::cout << "Hello!" << std::endl;
  return true;
}
```

(d)

```
int f(int x) {
   static int y = 0;
   y += x;
   return y;
}
```

Solution.
(a) It is. there are only local variables, and return the same value when argument is the same.

(b) It is not pure.
(c) This function is not pure, since it outputs "Hello"(have side effects).
(d) It is not pure, because for the same argment, the return value may different. □

Exercise 2.5. How many different functions are there from Bool to Bool? Can you implement them all?

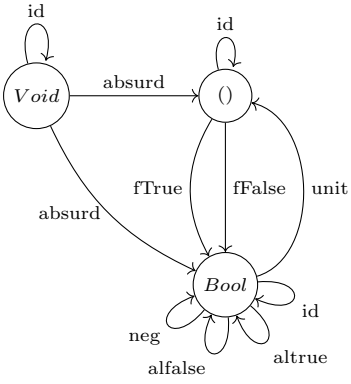
Solution.

```
bool id(bool x){
  return x;
}

bool altrue(bool x){
  return true;
}

bool alfalse(bool x){
  return false;
}

bool neg(bool x){
  return !x;
}
```

□

Exercise 2.6. Draw a picture of a category whose only objects are the types $Void, ()(unit), andBool$; with arrows corresponding to all possible functions between these types. Label the arrows with the names of the functions

Solution.



□

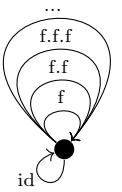
Chapter Three

Categories Great and Small

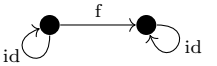
Exercise 3.1. Generate a free category from:
(a)A graph with one node and no edges
(b)A graph with one node and one (directed) edge (hint: this edge can be composed with itself)
(c)A graph with two nodes and a single arrow between them
(d)A graph with a single node and 26 arrows marked with the letters of the alphabet: $a, b, c...z$.

Solution.
(a) only one object and one morphism

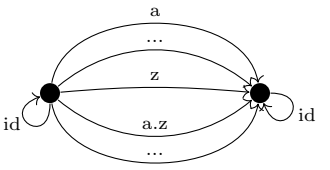
(b) one object ; since the edge can be composed with itself, we may have infinitely many composed morphisms.



(c) only one object and three morphisms.



(d) one object, similar to (b), we may have infinitely many composed morphisms.



□

Exercise 3.2. What kind of order is this?
(a) A set of sets with the inclusion relation: A is included in B if every element of A is also an element of B.
(b) C++ types with the following subtyping relation: $T1$ is a subtype of $T2$ if a pointer to $T1$ can be passed to a function that expects a pointer to $T2$ without triggering a compilation error.

Solution.
(a) Define $A \leq B$ as $A \subseteq B$. For every set A, $A \subseteq A$. $\subseteq$ is composable, $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$ implies $A \subseteq C$. This means $\subseteq$ is a preorder. If $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$ then $A = B$ which means it is a partial order. It is not a total order because $\{1\} \nsubseteq \{2\}$ and $\{2\} \nsubseteq \{1\}$.
(b) Define $A \leq B$ as A is subtype of B. Similar to (a), it is at least a preorder. □

Exercise 3.3. Considering that $Bool$ is a set of two values $True$ and $False$, show that it forms two (set-theoretical) monoids with respect to, respectively, operator && (AND) and || (OR).

Solution.
For operator &&, a && (b && c) = (a && b) && c (check eight cases), so it is associative. The special element is $True$.
For operator ||, it is also associative. The special element is $False$.
□

Exercise 3.4. Represent the $Bool$ monoid with the AND operator as a category: List the morphisms and their rules of composition.

Solution.
the morphsims are $True, False$, the compositon of f, g is $f\&\&g$. □

Exercise 3.5. Represent addition modulo 3 as a monoid category.

Solution.
the morphsims are $[0], [1], [2]$, the compositon of $[a]$ and $[b]$ is $[(a + b)\ mod\ 3]$. □

Chapter Four

Kleisli Categories

Exercise 4.1. Construct the Kleisli category for partial functions (define composition and identity).

Solution.

```
template<class A, class B, class C>
std::function<optional<C>(A)> compose(std::function<optional<C>(B)> m2,
    std::function<optional<B>(A)> m1) {
    return [m1, m2](A x) {
      auto p1 = m1(x);
      if (!p1.isValid()) return optional<C>{};
      auto p2 = m2(p1.value());
      return p2;
    };
}
template<class A> optional<A> identity(A x) {
   return optional<A>{x};
}
```

□

Exercise 4.2. Implement the embellished function **safe_reciprocal** that returns a valid reciprocal of its argument, if it's different from zero.

Solution.

```
optional<double> safe_reciprocal(double x) {
  if (x != 0) return optional<double>{1 / x};
  else return optional<double>{};
}
```

□

Exercise 4.3. Compose the functions **safe_root** and **safe_reciprocal** to implement **safe_root_reciprocal** that calculates $sqrt(1/x)$ whenever possible.

Solution.

```
optional<double> safe_root_reciprocal(double x) {
   return compose(safe_root, safe_reciprocal)(x);
}
```

□

Chapter Five

Products and Coproducts

Exercise 5.1. Show that the terminal object is unique up to unique isomorphism

Solution. Suppose A and B are terminal objects, then there is exactly one morphism $f : A \to B$ and exactly one morphism $g : B \to A$(By definition of terminal object), So $fg : B \to B$ and $gf : A \to A$, while $id_B : B \to B$ and $id_A : A \to A$, we get $fg = id_B \; and \; gf = id_A$ (By definition of terminal object), thus any two terminal objects are isomorphic. □

Exercise 5.2. What is a product of two objects in a poset? Hint: Use the universal construction

Solution. Suppose the product of two objecs a, b is c , we must have two projections:

$$c \leq a \; and \; c \leq b$$

and for any other object c' equipped with two projections:

$$c' \leq a \; and \; c' \leq b$$

then $c' \leq c$, so the product of two objects in a poset is their greatest lower bound. □

Exercise 5.3. What is a coproduct of two objects in a poset?

Solution. Suppose the product of two objecs a, b is c , we must have two injections:

$$a \leq c \; and \; b \leq c$$

and for any other object c' equipped with two projections:

$$a \leq c' \; and \; b \leq c'$$

then $c \leq c'$, so the coproduct of two objects in a poset is their least upper bound. □

Exercise 5.4. Implement the equivalent of Haskell *Either* as a generic type in your favorite language (other than Haskell).

Solution.

□

Exercise 5.5. Show that *Either* is a "better" coproduct than int equipped with two injections:

```
int i(int n) { return n; }
int j(bool b) { return b ? 0: 1; }
```

Hint: Define a function

```
int m(Either const & e);
```

that factorizes i and j.

Solution.

```
int m(Either const & e) {
 if (e.isLeft()) {
    return e.left;
 }
 return e.right?: 0; 1;
}
```

□

Exercise 5.6. Continuing the previous problem: How would you argue that *int* with the two injections i and j cannot be "better" than *Either*?

Solution. Suppose function

```
Either m(int e);
```

factorizes function Left and Right. then

```
Left = m.i
Right = m.j
```

So

```
Left(0) = m(0);
Right(true) = m(0);
```

it means m(0) have different values which is impossible. □

Exercise 5.7. Still continuing: What about these injections?

```
int i(int n) {
   if (n < 0) return n;
   return n + 2;
}
int j(bool b) { return b ? 0: 1; }
```

Solution. Define function

```
Either m(int e) {
  if(e == 0){
     return Right(True);
```

```
  }
  if(e == 1){
     return Right(False);
  }
  if(e < 0){
     return Left(e);
  }
  else {
     return Left(e-2);
  }
}
```

we can check $m.i = Left$ and $m.j = Right$. □

Exercise 5.8. Come up with an inferior candidate for a coproduct of *int* and *bool* that cannot be better than *Either* because it allows multiple acceptable morphisms from it to *Either*.

Solution.

```
data Tup = IntPair Int Int | BoolPair Bool Bool

-- two injection
intToTup :: Int -> Tup;
intToTup x = IntPair x x

boolToTup :: Bool -> Tup;
boolToTup x = BoolPair x x
```

Obviously there have many morphisms from it to Either

```
m :: Tup -> Either Int Bool;
m (IntPair x y) = if x == y then (Left x) else (Left 0)
m (BoolPair x y) = if x == y then (Right x) else (Right False)

m1 :: Tup -> Either Int Bool;
m1 (IntPair x y) = if x == y then (Left x) else (Left 1)
m1 (BoolPair x y) = if x == y then (Right x) else (Right False)

m2 :: Tup -> Either Int Bool;
m2 (IntPair x y) = if x == y then (Left x) else (Left 3)
m2 (BoolPair x y) = if x == y then (Right x) else (Right True)
```

□

Chapter Six

Simple Algebraic Data Types

Exercise 6.1. Show the isomorphism between $Maybe\ a$ and $Either\ ()\ a$.

Solution.

```
maybeToEither :: Maybe a -> Either () a
maybeToEither (Just a) = Right a
maybeToEither Nothing = Left ()

eitherToMaybe :: Either () a -> Maybe a
eitherToMaybe (Right a) = Just a
eitherToMaybe (Left ()) = Nothing
```

□

Exercise 6.2. Here's a sum type defined in Haskell:

```
data Shape = Circle Float | Rect Float Float
```

When we want to define a function like area that acts on a Shape, we do it by pattern matching on the two constructors

```
area :: Shape -> Float
area (Circle r) = pi * r * r
area (Rect d h) = d * h
```

Implement Shape in C++ or Java as an interface and create two classes: Circle and Rect. Implement area as a virtual function.

Solution.

```
class Shape {
public:
  virtual double area() const = 0;
};
class Circle : public Shape {
  double r;
public:
  Circle(double _r): r(_r){}
  virtual double area() const override{
     return M_PI*r*r;
  }
};
class React : public Shape {
  double d,h;
```

```
public:
  React(double _d, double _h): d(_d), h(_h){}
  virtual double area() const override{
    return h*d;
  }
};
```

□

Exercise 6.3. Continuing with the previous example: We can easily add a new function *circ* that calculates the circumference of a *Shape*. We can do it without touching the definition of *Shape*:

```
circ :: Shape -> Float
circ (Circle r) = 2.0 * pi * r
circ (Rect d h) = 2.0 * (d + h)
```

Add *circ* to your C++ or Java implementation. What parts of the original code did you have to touch?

Solution.

```
class Shape {
public:
   virtual double area() const = 0;
   virtual double circ() const = 0;
};

class Circle : public Shape {
   double r;
public:
   Circle(double _r): r(_r){}
   virtual double area() const override{
     return M_PI*r*r;
   }
   virtual double circ() const override{
     return 2.0*M_PI*r;
   }
};

class React : public Shape {
   double d,h;
public:
   React(double _d, double _h): d(_d), h(_h){}
   virtual double area() const override{
    return h*d;
   }
   virtual double circ() const override{
     return 2.0*(d+h);
   }
};
```

□

Exercise 6.4. Continuing further: Add a new shape, *Square*, to *Shape* and make all the necessary updates. What code did you have to touch in Haskell vs. C++ or Java? (Even if you're not a Haskell programmer, the modifications should be pretty obvious.)

Solution. Haskell:

```
data Shape = Circle Float | Rect Float Float | Square Float

area :: Shape -> Float
area (Circle r) = pi * r * r
area (Rect d h) = d * h
area (Square h) = h * h

circ :: Shape -> Float
circ (Circle r) = 2.0 * pi * r
circ (Rect d h) = 2.0 * (d + h)
circ (Square h) = 4.0 * h
```

C++:

```
//Add Square class
class Square : public Shape {
double h;
public:
  Square(double _h): h(_h){}
  virtual double area() const override{
    return h*h;
  }
  virtual double circ() const override{
    return 4.0*h;
  }
};
```

□

Exercise 6.5. Show that $a + a = 2 \times a$ holds for types (up to isomorphism). Remember that 2 corresponds to Bool, according to our translation table

Solution. $a + a$ is equivalent to $Either\ a\ a$ and $2 \times a$ is equivalent to $(Bool, a)$. We can define the following isomorphism between them.

```
f :: Either a a -> (Bool, a)
f (Left a) = (True, a)
f (Right a) = (False, a)

g :: (Bool, a) -> Either a a
g (True, a) = Left a
g (False, a) = Right a
```

□

Chapter Seven

Functors

Exercise 7.1. Can we turn the *Maybe* type constructor into a functor by defining:

```
fmap _ _ = Nothing
```

which ignores both of its arguments? (Hint: Check the functor laws.)

Solution. No, because it does not preserve the identity.

```
fmap id (Just a) = Nothing
id (Just a) = Just a
```

□

Exercise 7.2. Prove functor laws for the reader functor. Hint: it's really simple.

Solution.

```
--Identity
-- r :: a -> b
fmap id r = (.) id r = id r

--Composition
-- f :: a -> b, g :: b -> c
fmap (g.f) r
            = (.) (g.f) r
            = (g.f).r
            = g.(f.r)
            = g . (fmap f r)
            = fmap g (fmap f r) = ((fmap g) . (fmap f)) r
```

□

Exercise 7.3. Implement the reader functor in your second favorite language (the first being Haskell, of course).

Solution.

```
template<class A, class B, class R>
B fmap(const std::function<B(A)>& funcA,
       const std::function<A(R)>& funcR, R value) {
        return funcA(funcR(value));
}
```

□

Exercise 7.4. Prove the functor laws for the list functor. Assume that the laws are true for the tail part of the list you're applying it to (in other words, use *induction*).

Solution. using IH to represent Induction Hypothesis
Base case:

$$fmap\ id\ Nil\ =\ Nil\ =\ id\ Nil$$
$$fmap\ (f.g)\ Nil\ =\ Nil\ = fmap\ f\ (fmap\ g\ Nil)$$

Induction:

$$\begin{aligned} fmap\ id\ (Cons\ x\ tail) &= Cons\ (id\ x)\ (fmap\ id\ tail) \\ &= Cons\ (id\ x)\ (id\ tail)\ \ (by\ IH) \\ &= Cons\ x\ tail \\ &= id\ (Cons\ x\ tail) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} fmap\ (f\ .\ g)\ (Cons\ x\ tail) &= Cons\ ((f\ .\ g)x)\ (fmap\ (f\ .\ g)\ tail) \\ &= Cons\ ((f\ .\ g)x)\ ((fmap\ f\ .\ fmap\ g)\ tail)\ \ (by\ IH) \\ &= Cons\ (f\ (g\ x))\ (fmap\ f\ ((fmap\ g)\ tail)) \\ &= fmap\ f\ (Cons\ (g\ x)\ (fmap\ g\ tail)) \\ &= fmap\ f\ (fmap\ g\ (Cons\ x\ tail)) \\ &= (fmap\ f\ .\ fmap\ g)\ (Cons\ x\ tail) \end{aligned}$$

□

Chapter Eight

Functoriality

Exercise 8.1. Show that the data type:

```
data Pair a b = Pair a b
```

is a bifunctor. For additional credit implement all three methods of $Bifunctor$ and use equational reasoning to show that these definitions are compatible with the default implementations whenever they can be applied.

Solution.

```
data Pair a b = Pair a b

bimapPair f g (Pair a b) = Pair (f a) (g b)
firstPair f (Pair a b) = Pair (f a) b
secondPair g (Pair a b) = Pair a (g b)

--Proof
bimapPair f g (Pair a b)
                = Pair (f a) (g b)
                = firstPair f (Pair a (g b))
                = (firstPair f . Second g) (Pair a b)

firstPair f (Pair a b)
                = Pair (f a) b
                = Pair (f a) (id b)
                = (bimapPair g id) (Pair a b)

secondPair g (Pair a b)
                = Pair a (g b)
                = Pair (id a) (g b)
                = bimapPair id g (Pair a b)
```

□

Exercise 8.2. Show the isomorphism between the standard definition of Maybe and this desugaring:

```
type Maybe' a = Either (Const () a) (Identity a)
```

Hint: Define two mappings between the two implementations. For additional credit, show that they are the inverse of each other using equational reasoning

Solution.

```
eitherToMaybe :: Maybe' a -> Maybe a
eitherToMaybe (Left (Const ())) = Nothing
eitherToMaybe (Right (Identity a)) = Just a

maybeToEither :: Maybe a -> Maybe' a
maybeToEither Nothing = Left (Const ())
maybeToEither (Just a) = Right (Identity a)

-- show that they are the inverse of each other using equational reasoning
(maybeToEither . eitherToMaybe) (Left (Const ()))
                  = maybeToEither Nothing
                  = Left (Const ())

(maybeToEither . eitherToMaybe) (Right (Identity a))
                  = maybeToEither (Just a)
                  = Right (Identity a)

(eitherToMaybe . maybeToEither) Nothing
                  = eitherToMaybe (Left (Const ()))
                  = Nothing

(eitherToMaybe . maybeToEither) Just a
                  = eitherToMaybe (Right (Identity a))
                  = Just a
```

□

Exercise 8.3. Let's try another data structure. I call it a *PreList* because it's a precursor to a *List*. It replaces recursion with a type parameter b.

```
data PreList a b = Nil | Cons a b
```

You could recover our earlier definition of a *List* by recursively applying *PreList* to itself (we'll see how it's done when we talk about fixed points).
Show that *PreList* is an instance of $Bifunctor$.

Solution. define the *bimap* for *PreList*

```
bimap:: (a -> c) -> (b -> d) -> (PreList a b) -> (PreList c d)
bimap f g Nil = Nil
bimap f g (Cons a b) = Cons (f a) (g b)
```

then we prove It satisfy the bifunctor laws.

$$bimap\ id\ id\ =\ id$$
$$bimap\ (f\ .\ g)(h\ .\ i) = (bimap\ f\ h\ .\ bimap\ g\ i)$$

```
-- equational reasoning
bimap id id = id (it's obvious)

bimap (f . g) (h . i) Nil = Nil = (bimap f h . bimap g i) Nil
bimap (f . g) (h . i) (Cons a b)
```

```
                          = Cons ((f . g) a) ((h . i) b)
                          = bimap f h (Cons (g a) (i b))
                          = bimap f h (bimap g i (Cons a b))
                          = (bimap f h . bimap g i) (Cons a b)
```

□

Exercise 8.4. Show that the following data types define bifunctors in a and b:

```
data K2 c a b = K2 c
data Fst a b = Fst a
data Snd a b = Snd b
```

For additional credit, check your solutions against Conor McBride's paper Clowns to the Left of me, Jokers to the Right.

Solution. define the bimap as follow:

```
instance Bifunctor (K2 c) where
  bimap _ _ (K2 c) = K2 c
instance Bifunctor Fst where
  bimap f _ (Fst x) = Fst (f x)
instance Bifunctor Snd where
  bimap _ g (Snd y) = Snd (g y)
```

it's easy to check that they all satisfy bifunctor laws:

$$bimap\ id\ id\ =\ id$$
$$bimap\ (f\ .\ g)(h\ .\ i) = (bimap\ f\ h\ .\ bimap\ g\ i)$$

□

Exercise 8.5. Define a bifunctor in a language other than Haskell. Implement *bimap* for a generic pair in that language

Solution.

```
template<template<typename, typename> class F,
         class A, class B, class C, class D>
F<C,D> bimap(std::function<C(A)>, std::function<D(B)>, F<A,B>);

//function Overload
template<class A, class B, class C, class D>
std::pair<C, D> bimap(std::function<C(A)> f,
                      std::function<D(B)> g,
                      std::pair<A,B> p){
          return std::pair<C,D>(f(p.first), g(p.second));
}
```

□

Exercise 8.6. Should *std* :: *map* be considered a bifunctor or a profunctor in the two template arguments Key and T? How would you redesign this data type to make it so?

Solution. It should be considered a profunctor.

```haskell
-- we can define the map in Haskell
data Map k t = Val {get :: k -> Maybe t}

instance Profunctor Map where
  dimap f g (Val ktoT) = Val (\a -> fmap g (ktoT (f a)))
```

□