# My Notes on the Category Theory Lecture by Dr. Bartosz Milewski on YouTube\*

Shou Ya

 $March\ 2,\ 2018$ 

<sup>\*</sup>https://www.youtube.com/user/DrBartosz/videos

## Contents

6.1	Functo	ors	3
	6.1.1	Functor properties	3
		Interesting functors	
7.1		tors	
7.2	Monoi	dal Categories, Functoriality of ADTs, Profunctors	7
		Monoidal Categories	
		Functoriality of ADTs	
		Profunctors	
8.2	Function objects, Exponentials		11
	8.2.1	Function objects	11
	8.2.2	Exponential	12

#### 6.1 Functors

Universal contruction is about to pick the "best" embodiment of an idea. *e.g.* there is a lot of product in the universe, so we pick the "best" one, the one that every product gets factorized into. Thus comes the "universal" construction.

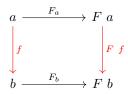
Functors are just mapping between categories.

Why so important? We look for structures/patterns in categories and try to emphasize/extract the pattern from them. Functor is used to find these patterns and map them into a category when we can recognize these patterns.

"Category is the definition of structure". In orther words, "to recognize a certain structure in a category" is the same as defining the pattern as a category. Being able to recognize a category inside another category is just doing pattern recognition.

The mappings we are interested in are those which preserve structures. A function is a mapping from set to set, which does not have a structure. A single set represented in a category is just a category of bunches of objects and with no arrows except the identities. No structure. (Discrete category)

**Definition 6.1.1.** Functor F is a map between categories that preserves the structure. *i.e.* it maps arrow to arrow. For categories C, D, a functor is that for every  $f \in C(a,b)$ , F maps it into F  $f \in D(F$  a,F b) that preserves the structure.



Since a hom-set is a set, a functor just defines this "huge" function.

Preserving the structure means for  $g \circ f \in C$ ,  $F(g \circ f) = (Fg) \circ (Ff) \in D$ .

Naturally one have to also make sure  $\forall a \in C, F(id_a) = id_{Fa} \in D$ .

#### 6.1.1 Functor properties

**Definition 6.1.2.** faithful/full Functors that don't collapse structure is called "faithful". A faithful functor is injective on *hom-sets*. Correspondingly, A functor is "full" when it is surjective. Functors that are "full" or "faithful" are only about injective/surjective on the arrows, not about objects. Functor could map two distinct objects  $a, b \in C$  into some  $c \in D$ , as long as the arrows

between a and b doesn't map to the same arrow in D, this functor could still be faithful.

### 6.1.2 Interesting functors

**Definition 6.1.3.** Selecting functor The possible functor mapping from category 1 (singleton category) to another category C is unique (up to iso), that is, to map  $id \in Arr(1)$  arrow to the id arrow on some object in D. This process is like "selecting" an element in D.

**Definition 6.1.4.** Constant functor Another important functor mapping from C to D is called constant functor, which maps all arrows in C into the id arrow of an object  $c \in D$ . Constant functor on object c is denoted as  $\Delta_c$ .

**Definition 6.1.5.** Endofunctor An endofunctor is a functor that maps from C to itself,  $F: C \to C$ . Haskell functors are all endofunctors mapping from and to the Hask category. Haskell functors consists of two parts:

- 1. Mapping between types (types are objects in Hask), *i.e.* Type constructors.
- 2. Mapping between functions, i.e. fmap.

Remark. Take this example,

```
fmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (Maybe \ a \rightarrow Maybe \ b)
fmap f Nothing = Nothing
fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
```

To haskell, which uses parametrically polymorphism, line 2 is the only possible implementation for fmap f Nothing. However, it's not true to math. For languages which doesn't use parametrically polymorphism, it might be possible to return other values. e.g. Return Just 0 for if type a is Int. Haskell is imposing a stronger condition to be a functor.

Let's check if **Maybe** really is a functor. Questions to ask:

- 1. Does fmap preserves identity?
- 2. Does fmap preserves composition?

Surely it does.

#### 7.1 Bifunctors

We start by studying if ADTs form functors. Product type in haskell is actually a type constructor of two argument. *i.e.* (a,b) can be written as (,) a b.

It's not hard to see that (,) a, *i.e.* fix on one parameter a, is a functor from b to (a, b).

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
(e,x) & \xrightarrow{\text{fmap } f} & (e,y) \\
(e,) & & & (e,) \\
x & \xrightarrow{f} & & y
\end{array}$$

Now think, why don't we make a functor type that has two arguments, so we can make (,) a functor on both arguments. In math, we could try to define a category that formalize product of two categories instead of inventing a something new, like a new kind of functor, for that purpose. But what will this category look like? Well it's basically just product of the hom sets. For categories C and D, we define  $C \times D$  as follows:

- For each pair of objects  $c \in C$  and  $d \in D$ , there is an object  $(c, d) \in C \times D$ ;
- For each pair of arrows  $f = c \mapsto c'$  in C and  $g = d \mapsto d'$  in D, there is an arrow  $(f, g) = (c, d) \mapsto (c', d')$  in  $C \times D$ ;
- Composition:  $(f', g') \circ (f, g) = (f' \circ f, g' \circ g);$
- Identity:  $id_{(a,b)} = (id_a, id_b)$ .

So the functor that takes two arguments is just a functor  $C \times D \to E$ . This kind of functors is called a bifunctor.

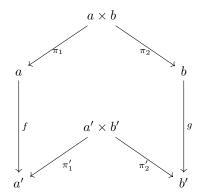
In Haskell, bifunctor is defined as:

And this is how (,) (product) and **Either** (sum) implemented as bifunctors:

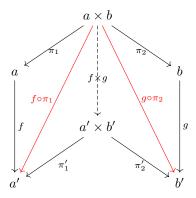
```
instance Bifunctor (,) where
bimap f g (a,b) = (f a, g b)

instance Bifunctor Either where
bimap f g (Left a) = Left (f a)
bimap f g (Right a) = Right (g a)
```

In a cartesian category C, in which there are products for every pair of objects, then this "product" is a bifunctor  $C \times C \to C$ . This also applies to "co-product" categories. Here's how it works:



So we have this diagram. For each  $a,b \in C$ , by definition, we have its product  $a \times b$  which projects  $(\pi_1, \pi_2)$  to a and b. And for the morphisms, we have  $a \xrightarrow{f} a'$  and  $b \xrightarrow{g} b'$ . In order for the product  $(\times : C \times C \to C)$ , to be a bifunctor, we need to show it is possible to lift the pair f, g into something that  $a \times b \xrightarrow{f \times g} a' \times b'$ . *i.e*there exists a morphism from  $a \times b$  to  $a' \times b'$  on the diagram above.



Here's how we show that. Since we have  $\pi_1$  and f, they will compose into  $f \circ \pi_1$ , same for  $\pi_2$  and g. By definition of the univeral construction of products, we can see that  $a' \times b'$  is the product on a' and b'. Therefore, there must exist a unique factorialization from any pair  $a \times b$  to  $a' \times b'$  (shown as the dashed arrow). This morphism is what we are looking for and therefore we have shown the existence of  $\times$  bifunctor.

In haskell, this is not an issue. As the implementation above, we just apply f to a and g to b, then we will form  $(f \ a, g \ b)$ . But this is not enough general for Math, we need to think out of just the Hask category. So the above diagram shows how it work generally in any category.

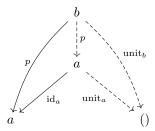
## 7.2 Monoidal Categories, Functoriality of ADTs, Profunctors

#### 7.2.1 Monoidal Categories

We start out by seeing how we can generalize monoid in a category. We know pretty well how monoid based on set theory, we got a unit  $1 \in \mathbf{Set}$ , a binary function  $f : \mathbf{Set} \times \mathbf{Set} \to \mathbf{Set}$ , few rules and so on.

In monoid categories, we need to think about what it means to multiply two object. This gives rise to product category. The monoidal unit in this category is the unit object, the singleton set in **Set**, or the terminal object to be more general.

Here's a how we the terminal object is a good candidate for the unit. This is to say, in a product category,  $(a, ()) \cong a$ .



As we can see, the projections  $\pi_1 = \operatorname{id}$  and  $\pi_2 = \operatorname{unit}$ . Given any  $b \xrightarrow{p} a$ , we have unit<sub>b</sub> which maps b to (), we always have a unique factorization  $b \xrightarrow{p} a$ . This means the projections just worked and we indeed have  $(a, ()) \cong a$ .

So in a monoidal category (at least product category), monoid unit is the terminal object. This also apply to other categories. Say the coproduct category. In this case the terminal object is the empty set (initial object of the coproduct category). And they both are specialized bifunctor category. All these things as product, coproduct, any bifunctors are called *tensor product* (denoted  $C \otimes C \to C$ ).

What we really need is to have a bifuntor, and a unit for the bifunctor. Then we can get a monoidal category, assuming monoidal properties hold.

#### 7.2.2 Functoriality of ADTs

Dr. Milewski has mentioned that ADTs has functoriality by their nature many times in his lecture.

From the previous section, we see how these monoidal categories are related to their corresponding bifunctors. We see, product types are functorial, sum types are functorial, what about other types, **Bool**, **Int**?

So we still have some types that do not depend on type variables, how can we make them instance of **Functor**? We can say they dependent on type indeed, but in a *trivial* way. So here's the place for the constant functor trick.

```
data Const c a = Const c

instance Functor (Const c) where

fmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow Const c a \rightarrow Const c b

fmap f (Const c) = Const c
```

In category theory, constant functor  $\Delta_c$  maps every object in a category to the object c and every morphisms to  $\mathrm{id}_c$ . Taking it to the Haskell world where every thing is in Hask, the constant functor is used to map everything into the given value. Think of functors working as containers, then the constant functor is like an empty container. It eats up all information and collapse into something that does not contain any inforantion.

Another trivial functor is the identity functor:

```
data Identity a = Identity a

s instance Functor (Identity a) where
fmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow Identity a \rightarrow Identity a
fmap f (Identity a) = Identity (f a)
```

This functor maps everything back to itself. So this functor is like a container with one thing in it. So this is how we convert any ADTs into our standard notion

Now we have a Const () functor and an Identity functor; and Either is just a bifunctor. Thus overall Maybe is a bifunctor. Since we have the same parameter a for Const () and Identity, we can add a diagonal functor before the bifunctor of the Either/Maybe, reducing it into a regular endofunctor.

This process of functorizing any ADT type can be automated, and it's built-in to Haskell as an extension: DeriveFunctor. Could there be more than one fmap defined for an ADT functor? No, Because of parametricity of polymorphism in Haskell, the canonical one is the only possible one!

**Remark.** A diagonal functor maps  $C \to C \times C$  by replicating everything including objects and morphisms  $a \mapsto (a, a)$ .

#### 7.2.3 Profunctors

Other than product (()) and sum types (**Either**). Another type constructor that takes two types is the function type ( $\rightarrow$ ). We can write ( $\rightarrow$ ) a b to represent a  $\rightarrow$  b. The question is, is  $\rightarrow$  a bifunctor?

We already knew that  $(\rightarrow c)$  is a functor, called the *Reader functor*.

```
instance Functor (\rightarrow c) where
fmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (c \rightarrow b)
fmap f g = f \circ g
```

What about we fix on the returning type and see if that's a functor. The fmap would have type fmap ::  $(a \to b) \to (a \to c) \to (b \to c)$ . If we name  $f: a \to b$  and  $g: a \to c$ , we have this diagram:  $a \to b \to c$ . We need to find the red arrow and obviously it cannot be constructed using f and g, so it is not a functor.

Or is it? Why not saying it a functor mapping from the opposite category? This kind of functors is called a *contravariant functor*. Using the container analogy, a contravariant functor is like a container that store negative things: instead of containing something we need to give it something.

**Remark.** The *opposite category*  $C^{op}$  of category C is a category where for every objects in C there is an object in  $C^{op}$  and for every morphisms  $f: a \to b$  in C there is a morphism  $f^{op}: b \to a$  in  $C^{op}$ .

```
class Contravariant f where
contramap::(b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow f a \rightarrow f b

data Op c a = Op (a \rightarrow c)

instance Contravariant (Co c) where
contramap::(b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (Op c a) \rightarrow (Op c b)
-contramap::(b <math>\rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow c)
contramap f (Op g) = Op (f \circ g)
```

So a profunctor is just a bifunctor that is contravariant in the first argument and covariant in the second. What's the problem?  $^1$ 

```
class Profunctor p where
\begin{array}{ll} -1 & class & Profunctor & p & where \\ 2 & -- & define & dimap \\ 3 & dimap :: (a' \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow b') \rightarrow p & a & b \rightarrow p & a' & b' \\ 4 & dimap & f & g & h & = lmap & f & (rmap & g & h) \end{array}
```

<sup>1</sup>https://www.schoolofhaskell.com/school/to-infinity-and-beyond/ pick-of-the-week/profunctors#profunctors

```
6 -- or both lmap and rmap
7 lmap :: (a' \rightarrow a) \rightarrow p \ a \ b \rightarrow p \ a' \ b
8 lmap = (\text{`dimap` id})
9 rmap :: (b \rightarrow b') \rightarrow p \ a \ b \rightarrow p \ a \ b'
10 rmap = (\text{id `dimap`})
```

To function type, let's see how it is implemented.  $f: a' \to a, g: b \to b'$ , and  $h: a \to b$ . So the diagram is just  $a' \xrightarrow{f} a \xrightarrow{h} b \xrightarrow{g} b'$ . Bravo, finally we have this

approachable red arrow.

The functions lmap and rmap correspond to contramap and fmap, which is a implication of the fact that a profunctor is a bifunctor over a contravariant functor and a covariant functor.

## 8.2 Function objects, Exponentials

#### 8.2.1 Function objects

Functions are separated from types so far: we learned in Hask that types are objects and functions are morphisms. For category **Set**, objects are all the sets, and functions are mapping between the objects. Functions from object a to object b forms a set, called hom-set, denoted as  $\operatorname{Hom}(a,b)$ . And because **Set** contains all sets, this morphisms representing hom-set  $\operatorname{Hom}(a,b)$  is also an object in **Set**.

In an arbitrary category, we don't have the hom-sets as internal objects; but we can view them as external things being in other categories. What we want is something we can represent these hom-sets inside the category. It is indeed possible to define these objects in many categories, although not in arbitrary category. Just like we define product and coproduct, the same way we can apply to define this function object. We can use univeral construction to define function object.

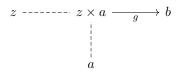
**Remark.** The 3 steps towards universal construction:

- 1. Define a pattern.
- 2. Define ranking between matches.
- 3. Find the best one.

It's clear to see that the pattern will involve three objects, the function z, the argument type a and the return type b. In a category, we can't directly say z takes argument a returns b, so we think how can we work on this. For example, in category **Set**, we can say take z and a to form a pair (z,a) such that  $(z,a) \cong b$ . This pairing in **Set** represent a cartesian product of z and a. This perfectly captures the idea of function application, and this pattern can be generalize to any category.

This pattern implies that in order to define this construction in a category, the category must contain products. This makes more sense when later we discuss function objects as exponentials.

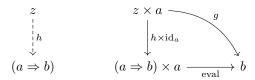
The pattern, drawn in communitive diagram, looks like:



Note that the morphism g is called a eval morphism. Next we need to define a ranking to select the best function z from a to b.

With the pattern above, we say  $(a \Rightarrow b)$  is the function object from a to b if for other patterns defined on z and a, we have a unique morphism  $h: z \dashrightarrow (a \Rightarrow b)$ ,

that means we have to be able to factorize  $g: z \times a \longrightarrow b$  into eval arrow and a unique arrow  $z \times a \dashrightarrow (a \Rightarrow b) \times a$ . eval arrow is given by the pattern, so we need to find the other arrow. By previously learned functoriality of ADTs, we know that product is a bifunctor, thus it not only maps objects, it also maps morphisms. By which we can say the unique arrow we are looking for is  $h \times \mathrm{id}_a$ . The whole construct can be shown as the diagram below:



a

(arrows representing  $\pi$  maps in products are omitted for clarity)

In short, the function object  $(a \Rightarrow b)$  only exists if for every possible z and g in that pattern, there is a unique h from z to  $(a \Rightarrow b)$  such that:

$$g = \text{eval} \circ (h \times \text{id})$$

In most languages, functions with two arguments are basically functions with one argument which is a pair. Think of g as such a function, that takes z and a as arguments. Our definition of function objects implies given z and g we actually have a unique arrow h, that takes a z and returns a function object  $(a \Rightarrow b)$ .

This captures the idea of partially applying function is equivalent to the applying function with its arguments given in a pair; the idea can be generalized to functions with multiple arguments. This gives rise to the concept of currying.

```
1 h :: z \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b)

2 g :: (z, a) \rightarrow b

4 curry :: ((a,b) \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c)

5 curry f = \lambda a \rightarrow (\lambda b \rightarrow f (a,b))

7 uncurry ::(a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow ((a,b) \rightarrow c)

8 uncurry f = \lambda(a,b) \rightarrow (f a) b
```

## 8.2.2 Exponential

Function objects in category theory are actually called exponential. A function object  $(a \Rightarrow b)$  will be called  $b^a$ . This makes sense if you think of the cardinality

of function types. In Haskell,  $Bool \to Int$  is basically (Int, Int), or Int × Int in category notation, or simpler Int<sup>2</sup>. Remember we learned the correspondence between nature numbers and Hask types: 1 corresponds to unit (), 2 corresponds to Bool, etc. Then Int<sup>2</sup> is basically Int<sup>Bool</sup>.

The idea shows the connection between products and exponentials (*i.e.* functions). A special kind of categories called **Cartesian Closed Category** (CCC) is useful in programming. Cartesian means there is a product for every pair of objects. Closed means the products are *inside* the category, which means it has all the exponentials objects as well. Also, it must have the terminal object. Why? Terminal object is like the 0-th power of any objects. Sometimes we also want co-products in the category, this kind of categories is called Bi-Cartesian Closed Categories (BCCC), which also has the initial object.

With products and co-products both being monoidal, we can combine them together to form a semi-ring, and do algebra on them. Now we add exponential to the system. With exponentials we can do more algebra, for example,  $a^0 = 1$ .

We can interpret  $a^0 = 1$  as  $Void \rightarrow a \sim ()$ , *i.e.* a function from void type to a is equivalent to the unit type. We need to show the function on the left hand side exists and is unique. Turns out there is this function, called **absurd**.

What about  $1^a = 1$ ? It is a function takes a and returns unit (); we say it is equivalent to just (). There is only one such function indeed, called const ().

Let's try another one,  $a^1 = a$ , This is saying a function from () to a is equivalent to a. These functions are just the selecting functions; there are as many as the number of elements in a.