

<pre>Kleisli Composition (fish operator) Bind lifts a to m a (lifts A to F[A])</pre>	>=> >>= return	compose flatMap unit/pure



Let's start by reminding ourselves of a few aspects of Monads and Kleisli composition.



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### Defining a Monad in terms of Kleisli composition and Kleisli identity function

```
Kleisli composition + unit
trait Monad[F[_]] {
  def compose[A,B,C](f: A => F[B], g: B => F[C]): A => F[C]
  def unit[A](a: => A): F[A]
```

### Kleisli composition + return

```
class Monad m where
  (>=>) :: (a -> m b) -> (b -> m c) -> (a -> m c)
  return :: a -> m a
```

### Defining Kleisli composition in terms of flatMap (bind)

```
def compose[A,B,C](f: A => F[B], g: B => F[C]): A => F[C]
a => flatMap(f(a))(g)
```

### Defining a Monad in terms of flatmap (bind) and unit (return)

### flatMap + unit

```
trait Monad[F[_]] {
    def flatMap[A,B](ma: F[A])(f: A => F[B]): F[B]
    def unit[A](a: => A): F[A]
```

```
// can then implement Kleisli composition using flatMap
def compose[A,B,C](f: A => F[B], g: B => F[C]): A => F[C] =
    a => flatMap(f(a))(g)
```

bind + return (Kleisli composition can then be implemented with bind)
<pre>class Monad m where  (&gt;&gt;=) :: m a -&gt; (a -&gt; m b) -&gt; m b  return :: a -&gt; m a</pre>
<pre> can then implement Kleisli composition using bind (&gt;=&gt;) :: (a -&gt; m b) -&gt; (b -&gt; m c) -&gt; (a -&gt; m c) (&gt;=&gt;) = \a -&gt; (f a) &gt;&gt;= g</pre>

### **Function Composition**

def and Then [A, B, C](f: A  $\Rightarrow$  B, g: B  $\Rightarrow$  C): A  $\Rightarrow$  C = a  $\Rightarrow$  g(f(a))



When we see an operation like this [function composition: **andThen**]...it is interesting to look for **algebraic properties** that operators like this have, and we might ask, for instance, is this an associative operation? So let's find out.



Rob Norris @tpolecat

### Rules (laws) for function composition

```
def andThen[A, B, C](f: A ⇒ B, g: B ⇒ C): A ⇒ C =
    a ⇒ g(f(a))

def id[A]: A ⇒ A =
    a ⇒ a

// right identity
f andThen id = f

// left identity
id andThen f = f

// associativity
(f andThen g) andThen h = f andThen (g andThen h)
```

So we have mappings between types, we have an associative operator with an identity, at each type, and we proved it is true by the definition of function composition, and because there is really only one way to define function composition, this actually follows naturally from the type of function composition, which I think is really interesting.



### Rules (laws) for Kleisli composition

// left identity
pure  $\Rightarrow$  f = f
// right identity
f  $\Rightarrow$  pure = f
// associativity
f  $\Rightarrow$  (g  $\Rightarrow$  h) = (f  $\Rightarrow$  g)  $\Rightarrow$  h
So what we want to
do is figure out what
this means in terms
of flatMap.

Monad Rules (laws)

So we have two operations, pure and flatMap, and laws telling us how they relate to each other, and this isn't something arbitrary, that's what I am trying to get across. These are things that come naturally from the category laws, just by analogy with pure function composition.

### Monad

// Monad typeclass
trait Monad[F[\_]] {
 def pure[A](a: A): F[A]
 def flatMap[A, B](fa: F[A])(f: A ⇒ F[B]): F[B]
}
// Monad laws
pure(a).flatMap(f) ≡ f(a)
m.flatMap(pure) ≡ m

 $m.flatMap(g).flatMap(h) \equiv m$ 

 $\equiv m$  $\equiv m.flatMap(b \Rightarrow g(b).flatMap(h))$  Everything you can say about monads is on this slide, but notice that unlike the rules for function composition, which we proved were true and are necessarily true from the types, this is not the case for a monad, you can satisfy this [Monad] type and break the laws, so when we define instances we have to verify that they meet the laws, and Cats and Scalaz both provide some machinery to make this very easy for you to do, so if you define [monad] instances you have to check them [the laws].

Someone should do a conference talk on that, because it is really important and I have never seen a talk about it.

Rob Norris @tpolecat

Let's talk about **Option** again. This is a monad instance for **Option**. I went ahead and wrote out how **flatMap** works here.

Notice, this [flatMap] method could return None all the time and it would type check, but it would break the right indentity law.  $\$ 

So this is why we check our laws when we implement typeclasses, it is very very important to do so.

Scala is not quite expressive enough to prove that stuff in the types, you have to do this with a second pass.

### Let's talk about Option Again

// Abbreviated Definition
sealed trait Option[+A]

case object None extends Option[Nothing]
case class Some[+A](a: A) extends Option[A]

```
// Monad instance
```

implicit val OptionMonad: Monad[Option] =
 new Monad[Option] {
 def pure[A](a: A) = Some(a)
 def flatMap[A, B](fa: Option[A])(f: A ⇒ Option[B]) =
 fa match {
 case Some(a) ⇒ f(a)
 case None
 }
}

### **Function Composition**

def andThen[A, B, C](f: A  $\Rightarrow$  B, g: B  $\Rightarrow$  C): A  $\Rightarrow$  C = a  $\Rightarrow$  g(f(a))

def id[A]:  $A \Rightarrow A =$ 

a ⇒ a

// right identity
f andThen id = f

// left identity
id andThen f = f

// associativity
(f andThen g) andThen h = f andThen (g andThen h)



### Verifying that the **Option Monad** satisfies the **Monad Laws**

## Checking Monad Laws Let's check the monad laws for Option. Here's flatMap for Option: abstract class Option[+T] { def flatMap[U](f: T => Option[U]): Option[U] = this match { case Some(x) => f(x) case None => None } }

### Checking the Left Unit Law

Need to show: Some(x) flatMap f == f(x)

Some(x) flatMap f

== Some(x) match {
 case Some(x) => f(x)
 case None => None
 }
== f(x)

### Checking the Right Unit Law

Need to show: opt flatMap Some == opt
 opt flatMap Some
 == opt match {
 case Some(x) => Some(x)
 case None => None
 }
 == opt

### Checking the Associative Law

Need to show: opt flatMap f flatMap g == opt flatMap (x => f(x) flatMap g)



```
== opt match { case Some(x) => f(x), case None => None }
match { case Some(y) => g(y) case None => None }
== opt match {
    case Some(x) =>
    f(x) match { case Some(y) => g(y) case None => None }
    case None =>
    None match { case Some(y) => g(y) case None => None }
}
```



@odersky

Checking the Associative Law (2)			
	<pre>opt match {   case Some(x) =&gt;     f(x) match { case Some(y) =&gt; g(y) case None =&gt; None }   case None =&gt; None }</pre>		
==	<pre>opt match {   case Some(x) =&gt; f(x) flatMap g   case None =&gt; None }</pre>		
==	opt flatMap (x => $f(x)$ flatMap g)		

### Try

### Another type: Try

In the later parts of this course we will need a type named Try.

Try resembles Option, but instead of Some/None there is a Success case with a value and a Failure case that contains an exception:

abstract class Try[+T]
case class Success[T](x: T) extends Try[T]
case class Failure(ex: Exception) extends Try[Nothing]

Try is used to pass results of computations that can fail with an exception between threads and computers.

### It looks like **Try** might be a **Monad** with **unit = Try**

### Composing Try

Just like with Option, Try-valued computations can be composed in for expresssions.

- for {
   x <- computeX
   y <- computeY</pre>
- } yield f(x, y)

If computeX and computeY succeed with results Success(x) and Success(y), this will return Success(f(x, y)).

If either computation fails with an exception ex, this will return Failure(ex).



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### Creating a Try

You can wrap up an arbitrary computation in a Try.

Try(expr) // gives Success(someValue) or Failure(someException)

Here's an implementation of Try:

object Try {	
<pre>def apply[T](expr: =&gt;</pre>	T): $Try[T] =$
try Success(expr)	
catch {	
<pre>case NonFatal(ex)</pre>	=> Failure(ex)
}	

**NonFatal** is a fairly technical thing, essentially, an exception is **fatal** if it does not make sense to export this beyond a single thread, there are a couple of exceptions that are, but the vast majority of them, both runtime exceptions and normal exceptions are **NonFatal** 

# Definition of flatMap and map on Try abstract class Try[T] { def flatMap[U](f: T => Try[U]): Try[U] = this match { case Success(x) => try f(x) catch { case NonFatal(ex) => Failure(ex) } case fail: Failure => fail } def map[U](f: T => U): Try[U] = this match { case Success(x) => Try(f(x)) case fail: Failure => fail }} So, for a Try value t, t map f == t flatMap (x => Try(f(x))) == t flatMap (f andThen Try)

### Is Try a Monad?

### Exercise

It looks like Try might be a monad, with unit = Try.

ls it?

### Ves No, the associative law fails No, the left unit law fails No, the right unit law fails No, two or more monad laws fail.

### Monad Laws

To qualify as a monad, a type has to satisfy three laws: Associativity:

```
m flatMap f flatMap g == m flatMap (x => f(x) flatMap g)
```

### Left unit

unit(x) flatMap f == f(x)

Right unit

m flatMap unit == m



### Is Try a Monad?

In fact it turns out that the left unit law fails.

Try in a sense trades one monad law for another law which in this context is more useful.

I call that other law the **bullet-proof principle**.

Solution	Exercise	
It turns out the left unit law fails.	It looks like Try might be a monad, with unit = Try. Is it? 0 Yes	
Try(expr) flatMap f != f(expr)	<ul> <li>No, the associative law fails</li> <li>No, the left unit law fails</li> <li>No, the right unit law fails</li> <li>No, two or more monad laws fail.</li> </ul>	

Indeed the left-hand side will never raise a non-fatal exception whereas the right-hand side will raise any exception thrown by expr or f.

Hence, Try trades one monad law for another law which is more useful in this context:

An expression composed from 'Try', 'map', 'flatMap' will never throw a non-fatal exception.

Call this the "bullet-proof" principle.