Scala Ecosystem: Cats

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Typeclasses

The Type Class

A *type class* is an interface or API that represents some functionality we want to implement.

In Cats a type class is represented by a trait with at least one type parameter. For example, we can represent generic "serialize to JSON" behaviour as follows:

The Type Class

```
// Define a very simple JSON AST
   sealed trait Json
   final case class JsObject(get: Map[String, Json]) extends Json
   final case class JsString(get: String) extends Json
   final case class JsNumber(get: Double) extends Json
   final case object JsNull extends Json
7
   // The "serialize to JSON" behaviour is encoded in this trait
   trait JsonWriter[A] {
     def write(value: A): Json
10
11
```

Type Class Instances

The *instances* of a type class provide implementations of the type class for the types we care about, including types from the Scala standard library and types from our domain model.

In Scala we define instances by creating concrete implementations of the type class and tagging them with the implicit keyword:

Type Class Instances

```
case class Person(name: String, email: String)
2
   object JsonWriterInstances {
     implicit val personWriter: JsonWriter[Person] =
4
       new JsonWriter[Person] {
5
         def write(value: Person): Json =
6
           JsObject(Map(
             "name" -> JsString(value.name),
8
             "email" -> JsString(value.email)
9
           ))
10
11
     // etc...
12
13
```

Type Class Interfaces

A type class *interface* is any functionality we expose to users. Interfaces are generic methods that accept instances of the type class as implicit parameters.

There are two common ways of specifying an interface: *Interface Objects* and *Interface Syntax*.

- Interface Objects
 methods in objects that directly apply to some value
- Interface Syntax intoduce implicit classes to add methods to already existing types

Type Class Interfaces

Interface Objects

```
object Json {
  def toJson[A](value: A)(implicit w: JsonWriter[A]): Json =
   w.write(value)
}
Interface Syntax
object JsonSyntax {
```

Importing Cats

type classes are defined in cats package

```
1 import cats.Show
```

■ type class instances in cats.instances

```
import cats.instances.int._ // for Show
import cats.instances.string._ // for Show
val showInt: Show[Int] = Show.apply[Int]
```

■ interface syntax in cats.syntax

```
import cats.syntax.show._ // for show
val shownInt = 123.show
```

all of the standard type class instances and all of the syntax

```
import cats.implicits._
```

Example: Eq

We can use Eq to define type-safe equality between instances of any given type:

```
trait Eq[A] {
  def eqv(a: A, b: A): Boolean
  // other concrete methods based on eqv...
}
```

The interface syntax, defined in cats.syntax.eq provides two methods for performing equality checks provided there is an instance Eq[A] in scope:

- === compares two objects for equality
- =!= compares two objects for inequality

Monoids and Semigroups

Definition of a Monoid

Formally, a monoid for a type A is:

- an associative operation combine with type (A, A) => A
- an identity element empty of type A

Here is a simplified version of the definition from Cats:

```
trait Monoid[A] {
  def combine(x: A, y: A): A
  def empty: A
}
```

Definition of a Semigroup

A *semigroup* is just the combine part of a monoid. While many semigroups are also monoids, there are some data types for which we cannot define an empty element.

```
trait Semigroup[A] {
  def combine(x: A, y: A): A
}
trait Monoid[A] extends Semigroup[A] {
  def empty: A
}
```

Monoid in Cats

Monoid follows the standard Cats pattern for the user interface: the companion object has an apply method that returns the type class instance for a particular type. For example, if we want the monoid instance for String, and we have the correct implicits in scope, we can write the following:

```
import cats.Monoid
import cats.instances.string._ // for Monoid

Monoid[String].combine("Hi ", "there") // res0: String = "Hi there"
Monoid[String].empty // res1: String = ""
```

Monoid Syntax

Cats provides syntax for the combine method in the form of the |+| operator. Because combine technically comes from Semigroup, we access the syntax by importing from cats.syntax.semigroup:

```
import cats.instances.string._ // for Monoid
import cats.syntax.semigroup._ // for |+|

// stringResult: String = "Hi there"

val stringResult = "Hi " |+| "there" |+| Monoid[String].empty

import cats.instances.int._ // for Monoid

val intResult = 1 |+| 2 |+| Monoid[Int].empty // intResult: Int = 3
```

Examples

```
import cats.instances.{int, map, tuple, option}._ // not a valid syntax
2
   Option(1) |+| Option(2) // res1: Option[Int] = Some(3)
4
  val map1 = Map("a" -> 1, "b" -> 2)
  val map2 = Map("b" -> 3, "d" -> 4)
   map1 |+| map2 // res2: Map[String, Int] = Map("b" -> 5. "d" -> 4. "a" -> 1)
8
  val tuple1 = ("hello", 123)
  val tuple2 = ("world", 321)
11 tuple1 |+| tuple2 // res3: (String, Int) = ("helloworld", 444)
```

Functors

Definition of a Functor

Informally, a *functor* is anything with a map method. You probably know lots of types that have this: Option, List, and Either, to name a few.

```
1 List(1, 2, 3).map(n => n + 1) // res0: List[Int] = List(2, 3, 4)
```

Formally, a functor is a type F[A] with an operation map with type $(A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow F[B]$.

```
package cats
trait Functor[F[_]] {
  def map[A, B](fa: F[A])(f: A => B): F[B]
}
```

Functor in Cats

```
import cats.Functor
import cats.instances.list._
val list1 = List(1, 2, 3)
val list2 = Functor[List].map(list1)(_ * 2) // list2: List[Int] = List(2, 4, 6)
```

Functor also provides the lift method, which converts a function of type $A \Rightarrow B$ to one that operates over a functor and has type $F[A] \Rightarrow F[B]$:

```
val func = (x: Int) => x + 1
val liftedFunc = Functor[Option].lift(func) // liftedFunc: Option[Int] => Option[Int]
liftedFunc(Option(1)) // res1: Option[Int] = Some(2)
```

Monads

Monad Definition

A monad's flatMap method allows us to specify what happens next, taking into account an intermediate complication. While we have only talked about flatMap above, monadic behaviour is formally captured in two operations:

- pure, of type A => F[A]
 abstracts over constructors, providing a way to create a new monadic context from
 a plain value
- flatMap, of type (F[A], A => F[B]) => F[B]
 extracting the value from a context and generating the next context in the
 sequence

Monad in Cats

Here is a simplified version of the Monad type class in Cats:

```
trait Monad[F[_]] {
  def pure[A](value: A): F[A]
  def flatMap[A, B](value: F[A])(func: A => F[B]): F[B]
}
```

Monadic Laws

pure and flatMap must obey a set of laws that allow us to sequence operations freely without unintended glitches and side-effects:

- Left identity: calling pure with func is the same as calling func:
- pure(a).flatMap(func) == func(a)
- Right identity: passing pure to flatMap is the same as doing nothing:
- 1 m.flatMap(pure) == m
- Associativity: flatMap over f and g is the same as flatMap over f and then flatMap g
- 1 m.flatMap(f).flatMap(g) == m.flatMap(x => f(x).flatMap(g))

The Monad Type Class

The monad type class is cats.Monad. Monad extends two other type classes: FlatMap, which provides the flatMap method, and Applicative, which provides pure.

Applicative also extends Functor, which gives every Monad a map method

```
import cats.Monad
import cats.instances.option._

val opt1 = Monad[Option].pure(3) // opt1: Option[Int] = Some(3)

val opt2 = Monad[Option].flatMap(opt1)(a => Some(a + 2)) // opt2: Option[Int] = Some(5)

val opt3 = Monad[Option].map(opt2)(a => 100 * a) // opt3: Option[Int] = Some(500)
```

Monad Syntax

The syntax for monads comes from three places:

- cats.syntax.flatMap provides syntax for flatMap
- cats.syntax.functor provides syntax for map
- cats.syntax.applicative provides syntax for pure

```
import cats.instances.option._ // for Monad
import cats.instances.list._ // for Monad
import cats.syntax.applicative._ // for pure

1.pure[Option] // res5: Option[Int] = Some(1)
1.pure[List] // res6: List[Int] = List(1)
```

The Identity Monad

The simplest monad is the Identity monad, which just annotates plain values and functions to satisfy the monad laws

```
def sumSquare[F[]: Monad](a: F[Int], b: F[Int]): F[Int] = ???
sumSquare(3, 4) // error: no type parameters for method sumSquare ...
```

It would be incredibly useful if we could use sumSquare with parameters that were either in a monad or not in a monad at all. Cats provides the Id type to bridge the gap:

```
import cats.Id
sumSquare(3 : Id[Int], 4 : Id[Int]) // res1: Id[Int] = 25
```

The Identity Monad

What's going on? Here is the definition of Id to explain:

```
package cats
type Id[A] = A
```

Either

Either is a monad encapsulating two values of some types with a right bias for monadic transformations.

```
import cats.syntax.either._ // for asRight

val a: Either[String, Int] = Right(10) // a: Either[String, Int] = Right(10)

val b = 4.asRight[String] // b: Either[String, Int] = Right(4)

for {
    x <- a
    y <- b
} yield x*x + y*y // res3: Either[String, Int] = Right(25)</pre>
```

Either

from other types

```
1 Either.fromTry(scala.util.Try("foo".toInt))
2  // res9: Either[Throwable, Int] = Left(
3  // java.lang.NumberFormatException: For input string: "foo"
4  // )
5  Either.fromOption[String, Int](None, "Badness")
6  // res10: Either[String, Int] = Left("Badness")
```

Transforming Eithers

- orElse and getOrElse to extract values from the right side or return a default
 | "Error".asLeft[Int].getOrElse(0) // res11: Int = 0
- ensure to check whether the right-hand value satisfies a predicate
- 1 | -1.asRight[String].ensure("Must be non-negative!")(_ > 0) // Left("Must be non-negative!")
- recover and recoverWith methods provide error handling

"error".asLeft[Int].recover { case _: String => -1 } // Right(-1)

- leftMap and bimap methods to complement map
- swap method lets us exchange left for right
- 1 | 123.asRight[String].swap // res20: Either[Int, String] = Left(123)

Memoization

memoized

Memoized computations are run once on first access, after which the results are cached.

cats. Eval is a monad that allows us to abstract over different models of evaluation.

We typically hear of two such models: eager and lazy. Eval throws in a further distinction of whether or not a result is *memoized*.

- defs are lazy and not memoized
- vals are eager and memoized
- lazy vals are lazy and memoized

Eval

Eval has three subtypes: Now, Later, and Always. We construct these with three constructor methods, which create instances of the three classes and return them typed as Eval

```
import cats.Eval

val now = Eval.now(math.random + 1000)

// now: Eval[Double] = Now(1000.5540132858998)

val later = Eval.later(math.random + 2000)

// later: Eval[Double] = cats.Later@143718d9

val always = Eval.always(math.random + 3000)

// always: Eval[Double] = cats.Always@628dba99
```

Chaining Evals

Like all monads, Eval's map and flatMap methods add computations to a chain. In this case, however, the chain is stored explicitly as a list of functions. The functions aren't run until we call Eval's value method to request a result

```
val greeting = Eval.
always { println("Step 1"); "Hello" }.
map { str => println("Step 2"); s"$str world" }
greeting.value
// Step 1
// Step 2
// res16: String = "Hello world"
```

Memoizing Evals

Eval has a memoize method that allows us to memoize a chain of computations. The result of the chain up to the call to memoize is cached, whereas calculations after the call retain their original semantics:

```
val saying = Eval.
always { println("Step 1"); "The cat" }.
map { str => println("Step 2"); s"$str sat on" }.
memoize.
map { str => println("Step 3"); s"$str the mat" }
saying.value // first access // Step 1 // Step 2 // Step 3
// res19: String = "The cat sat on the mat" // first access
saying.value // second access // Step 3
// res20: String = "The cat sat on the mat"
```

Deferred computations

One useful property of Eval is that its map and flatMap methods are trampolined.

This means we can nest calls to map and flatMap arbitrarily without consuming stack frames. We call this property "stack safety".

```
def factorial(n: BigInt): Eval[BigInt] =
   if(n == 1) {
       Eval.now(n)
   } else {
       Eval.defer(factorial(n - 1).map(_ * n))
   }
   factorial(50000).value // res: A very big value
```

Writer

cats.data.Writer is a monad that lets us carry a log along with a computation. We can use it to record messages, errors, or additional data about a computation, and extract the log alongside the final result.

```
val writer1 = for {
    a <- 10.pure[Logged]
    _ <- Vector("a", "b", "c").tell
    b <- 32.writer(Vector("x", "y", "z"))
} yield a + b

writer1.run // res3: (Vector[String], Int) = (Vector("a", "b", "c", "x", "y", "z"), 42)</pre>
```

Reader

cats.data.Reader is a monad that allows us to sequence operations that depend on some input. Instances of Reader wrap up functions of one argument, providing us with useful methods for composing them.

One common use for Readers is dependency injection. If we have a number of operations that all depend on some external configuration, we can chain them together using a Reader to produce one large operation that accepts the configuration as a parameter and runs our program in the order specified.

Reader

example

```
import cats.data.Reader
   case class Cat(name: String, favoriteFood: String)
   val catName: Reader[Cat, String] = Reader(cat => cat.name)
   val greetKitty: Reader[Cat, String] = catName.map(name => s"Hello ${name}")
   val feedKitty: Reader[Cat, String] = Reader(cat => s"Have a ${cat.favoriteFood}")
   val greetAndFeed: Reader[Cat, String] = for {
       greet <- greetKitty</pre>
       feed <- feedKittv</pre>
8
     } yield s"$greet. $feed."
9
10
     greetAndFeed(Cat("Garfield", "lasagne")) // "Hello Garfield. Have a lasagne."
11
```

State

cats.data.State allows us to pass additional state around as part of a computation. We define State instances representing atomic state operations and thread them together using map and flatMap. In this way we can model mutable state in a purely functional way, without using mutation. Boiled down to their simplest form, instances of State[S, A] represent functions of type S => (S, A). S is the type of the state and A is the type of the result.

```
import cats.data.State
val a = State[Int, String] { state => (state, s"The state is $state") }
// a: State[Int, String] = cats.data.IndexedStateT@13a45d18
```

State

example

```
import cats.data.State
   import State._
   val program: State[Int, (Int, Int, Int)] = for {
     a <- get[Int]
4
     <- set[Int](a + 1)
5
     b <- get[Int]
6
     _ <- modify[Int](_ + 1)
     c <- inspect[Int, Int](_ * 1000)</pre>
8
   } yield (a, b, c) // program: State[Int, (Int, Int, Int)]
10
   val (state, result) = program.run(1).value
   // state: Int = 3
   // \text{ result: (Int, Int, Int) = (1, 2, 3000)}
```

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