F# Training M

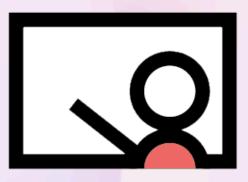
Functional patterns for computation expressions

2025 July



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Preliminary note

The word **"pattern"** is used here rather than *concept* or *abstraction*, with a broader meaning than the design patterns from OOP.



Languages hidden patterns



F♯ uses functional patterns under the hood:

- Option and Result are monadic types
- Async is monadic
- Collection types Array, List and Seq are monadic types too!
- Computation expressions can be monadic or applicative or monoidal

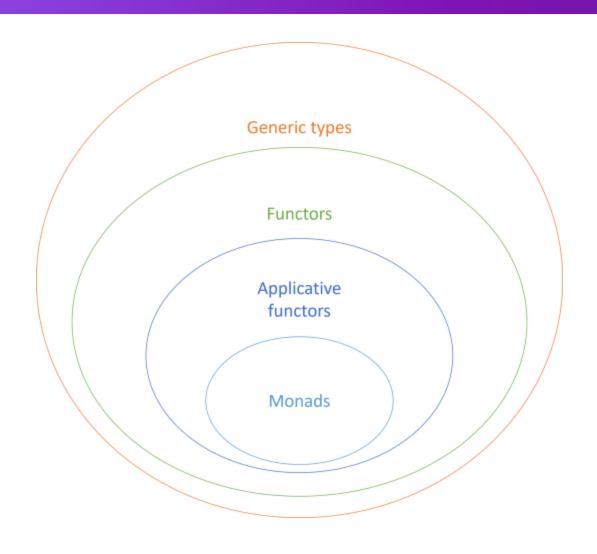
C# uses functor and monad under the hood too, via the LINQ query syntax.

Functional patterns overview 🔯

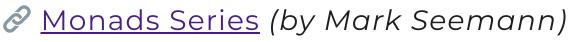


- Come from the category theory, a branch of mathematics
- Are useful to understand how to write computation expressions in F#
- Consist of
 - A type, mainly a generic type X<'a> containing elements of type 'a
 - 1 or 2 operations on this type
 - An eventual special instance of this type
 - Some laws constraining/shaping the whole

Monad big picture







Monoid Office

Monoid definition

Etymology (Greek): monos (single, unique) · eidos (form, appearance)

- ≃ Type T defined with:
 - Binary operation +: T → T → T
 → To combine 2 elements into 1
 - Neutral element e (a.k.a. *identity*)



Monoid laws

1. Associativity

- + is associative
- $\rightarrow a + (b + c) \equiv (a + b) + c$

2. - Identity Element

e is combinable with any instance a of T without effects

$$\rightarrow$$
 a + e \equiv e + a \equiv a

Monoid examples

Type		Identity e	Law 2			
int	+ (add)	0	i + 0 = 0 + i = i			
int	* (multiply)	1	i * 1 = 1 * i = i			
string	+ (concat)	"" (empty string)	s + "" = "" + s = s			
'a list	a (List.append)	[] (empty list)	l a [] = [] a l = l			
Functions	>> (compose)	id (fun $x \rightarrow x$)	f >> id = id >> f = f			

The monoid is a generalization of the **Composite** OO design pattern Composite as a monoid (by Mark Seemann)

5 • Functor



Functor definition

- ≃ Any generic type, noted F<'T>, with a map operation:
 - Signature: map: $(f: 'T \rightarrow 'U) \rightarrow F<'T> \rightarrow F<'U>$

map preserves the structure: e.g. mapping a List returns another List.

Functor laws

Law 1 - Identity law

Mapping the id function over a Functor F should not change F.

$$\rightarrow$$
 map id F \equiv F

Law 2 - Composition law

Mapping the composition of 2 functions f and g is the same as mapping f and then mapping g over the result.

```
\rightarrow map (f >> g) \equiv map f >> map g
```

Functor examples

Type	Мар			
Option<'T>	Option.map			
<pre>Result<'T, _></pre>	Result.map			
List<'T>	List.map			
Array<'T>	Array.map			
Seq<'T>	Seq.map			

Async<'T> too, but through the async CE ?







Monad definition

- ≃ Any generic type, noted M<'T>, with:
 - Construction function return
 - Signature: (value: 'T) → M<'T>
 - ≃ Wrap (lift/elevate) a value
 - Chaining function bind
 - Noted >= (> > =) as an infix operator
 - \circ Signature: (f: 'T \rightarrow M<'U>) \rightarrow M<'T> \rightarrow M<'U>
 - Take a monadic function f
 - Call it with the eventual wrapped value(s)
 - Get back a new monadic instance of this type

Monad laws (1-2/3)

1. Left Identity

```
return then bind are neutral.
```

```
\rightarrow return \gg bind f \equiv f
```

2. Right Identity

bind return is neutral, equivalent to the id function:

```
\rightarrow m \triangleright bind return \equiv m \triangleright id \equiv m
```

b It's possible because return has the signature of a monadic function.

Monad laws (3/3)

3. Associativity

bind is associative.

```
Given 2 monadic functions f: 'a \rightarrow M<'b> and g: 'b \rightarrow M<'c> \rightarrow (m \triangleright bind f) \triangleright bind <math>g \equiv m \triangleright bind (fun x \rightarrow f x \triangleright bind g)
```

bind allows us to chain monadic functions, like the p for regular functions

Monad examples

Туре	Bind	Return			
Option<'T>	Option.bind	Some			
<pre>Result<'T, _></pre>	Result.bind	Ok			
List<'T>	List.collect	List.singleton			
Array<'T>	Array.collect	Array.singleton			
Seq<'T>	Seq.collect	Seq.singleton			

Async<'T> too, but through the async CE ?



Monad vs Functor

- A monad is also a functor
- map can be expressed in terms of bind and return:
 map f = bind (f >> return)

Note: Contrary to the monad with its return operation, the functor concept does not need a "constructor" operation.

Monad alternative definition

A monad can be defined with the flatten operation instead of the bind

→ Signature: M<M<'T>> → M<'T>

Then, the bind function can be expressed in terms of map and flatten:

- → bind = map >> flatten
- This is why bind is also called flatMap.

Regular functions vs monadic functions

Function	Op	Signature		
Pipeline				
Regular	> pipe	$(f: 'a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow (x: 'a) \rightarrow 'b$		
Monadic	» bind	$(f: 'a \rightarrow M<'b>) \rightarrow (x: M<'a>) \rightarrow M<'b>$		
Composition				
Regular	>> comp.	$(f: 'a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow (g: 'b \rightarrow 'c) \rightarrow ('a \rightarrow 'c)$		
Monadic	⇒ fish	(f: 'a \rightarrow M<'b>) \rightarrow (g: 'b \rightarrow M<'c>) \rightarrow ('a \rightarrow M<'c>)		

- Fish operator definition: let (\Longrightarrow) f g = fun x \rightarrow f x \triangleright bind g \equiv f \gg (bind g)
- Composition of monadic functions is called Kleisli composition

Monads vs Effects

Effect (a.k.a. "side effect"):

- → change somewhere, inside the program (state) or outside
- → examples:
- I/O (Input/Output): file read, console write, logging, network requests
- State Management: global variable update, database/table/row delete
- Exceptions/Errors: program crash
- Non-determinism: same input → ≠ value: random number, current time
- Concurrency/Parallelism: thread spawn, shared memory

Pure function causes no side effects → deterministic, predictable

→ FP challenge: separate pure/impure code (separation of concerns)

Monads vs Effects (2)

Monads purposes:

- Encapsulate and sequence computations that involve effects,
- Maintain purity of the surrounding functional code,
- Provide a controlled environment in which effects can happen.

Dealing with a computation has an effect using monads means:

- 1. **Wrapping:** we don't get a value directly, we get a monadic value that represents the computation and its associated effect.
- 2. **Sequencing:** bind (or let! in a monadic CE) allows you to chain together effectful computations in a sequential order.
- 3. **Returning:** return wraps a **pure** value → computation w/o effects.
 - The same monadic sequence can mix pure and effectful computations.

Monads vs Effects (3)

From the caller perspective, a function returning a monadic value is pure.

→ Encapsulated effects only "happen" when monadic value is evaluated.

Examples in F#:

- Async: by calling Async.RunSynchronously / Start
- Option / Result: by pattern matching and handle all cases
- Seq: by iterating the delayed sequence of elements
- Monads effectively bridge the gap between:
- mathematical elegance of pure functional programming
- practical necessity of interacting with an impure, stateful world

Other common monads

- ⊌ Rarely used in F♯, but common in Haskell
- **Reader**: to access a read-only environment (like configuration) throughout a computation without explicitly passing it around
- Writer: accumulates monoidal values (like logs) alongside a computation's primary result
- State: manages a state that can be read and updated during a computation
- IO: handles I/O effects (disk, network calls...)
- Free: to build series of instructions, separated from their execution (interpretation phase)

Applicative (Functor)



Applicative definition

- ≃ Any generic type, noted F<'T>, with:
 - Construction function pure (≡ monad's return)
 - Signature: (value: 'T) → F<'T>
 - Application function apply
 - Noted (same * than in tuple types)
 - \circ Signature: (f: F<'T \rightarrow 'U>) \rightarrow F<'T> \rightarrow F<'U>
 - \circ Similar to functor's map, but where the mapping function 'T \to 'U is wrapped in the applicative object

Applicative laws (1/4)

There are 4 laws:

- Identity and Homomorphism relatively easy to grasp
- Interchange and Composition more tricky

Law 1 - Identity

Same as the functor identity law applied to applicative:

Pattern	Equation					
Functor	map	id		F	≡	F
Applicative	apply	(pure	id)	F	=	F

Applicative laws (2/4)

Law 2 - Homomorphism

- Phomomorphism means a transformation that preserves the structure.
- → pure does not change the nature of values and functions so that we can apply the function to the value(s) either before or after being wrapped.

```
(pure f) \ll (pure x) \equiv pure (f x) apply (pure f) (pure x) \equiv pure (f x)
```

Applicative laws (3/4)

Law 3 - Interchange

We can provide first the wrapped function ff or the value x, wrapped directly or captured in $(\triangleright) x$ (partial application of the \triangleright operator used as function)

```
Ff \ll (pure x) \equiv pure ((\triangleright) x) \ll Ff
```

When Ff = pure f, we can verify this law with the homomorphism law:

Applicative laws (4/4)

Law 4 - Composition

- Cornerstone law: ensures that function composition works as expected within the applicative context.
- Hardest law, involving to wrap the << operator (right-to-left compose)!

```
Ff \iff (Fg \iff Fx) \equiv (pure (\ll) \iff Ff \iff Fg) \iff Fx
```

Same verification:

Applicative vs Functor

Every applicative is a functor

→ We can define map with pure and apply:

```
map f x \equiv apply (pure f) x
```

It was implied by the 2 identity laws.



Applicative vs Monad

Every monad is also an applicative

- pure and return are just synonym
- apply can be defined using bind
 - o given mx a wrapped value M<'a>
 - \circ and mf a wrapped function M<'a \rightarrow 'b>
 - o apply mf mx \equiv mf \triangleright bind (fun f \rightarrow mx \triangleright bind (fun x \rightarrow return (f x)))

```
apply VS bind 💡
```

- Where apply unwraps both f and x, 2 nested binds are required.
- bind extra power comes from its ability to let its 2nd parameter the function $a \rightarrow M < b >$ create a whole new computational path.

Applicative: multi-param curried function

Applicative helps to apply to a function its arguments (e.g. $f: 'x \rightarrow 'y \rightarrow 'res$) when they are each wrapped (e.g. in an Option).

Let's try by hand:

- We can recognize the Option.map2 function.
- Is there a way to handle any number of parameters?

Applicative: multi-param function (2)

The solution is to use apply N times, for each of the N arguments, first wrapping the function using pure:

```
// apply and pure for the Option type
let apply optionalF optionalX =
   match (optionalF, optionalX) with
     Some f, Some x \rightarrow Some(f x)
     → None
let pure x = Some x
let f x y z = x + y - z
let optionalX = Some 1
let optionalY = Some 2
let optionalZ = Some 3
let res = pure f ▷ apply optionalX ▷ apply optionalY ▷ apply optionalZ
```

Applicative: multi-param function (3)

We can "simplify" the syntax by:

- Replacing the 1st combination of pure and apply with map
- Using the operators for map <!> and apply <*>

```
// ...
let res = pure f D apply optionalX D apply optionalY D apply optionalZ
let res' = f <!> optionalX <*> optionalY <>> optionalZ
```

Still, it's not ideal!

Applicative - 3 styles

The previous syntax is called **"Style A"** and is not recommended in modern F# by Don Syme - see its <u>Nov. 2020 design note</u>.

When we use the mapN functions, it's called "Style B".

The "Style C" relies on F#5 let! ... and! ... in a CE like option from FsToolkit:

```
let res'' =
    option {
        let! x = optionalX
        and! y = optionalY
        and! z = optionalZ
        return f x y z
    }
```

Avoid style A, prefer style C when a CE is available, otherwise style B.

Applicative vs Monadic behaviour

The monadic behaviour is **sequential**:

→ The computation #n+1 is done only after the computation #n.

The applicatives behave in **parallel**:

- → All the computations for the arguments are done before applying them to the wrapped function.
- Even if monads can do more things, applicatives can be more performant on what they can do.

Applicative parallel behaviour

The corollary is about the Result type and its bind function:

- → As soon as the current result is an Error case, f is ignored.
- → On the 1st error, we "unplug".

Applicative parallel behaviour (2)

Given the Result<'ok, 'error list> type, the apply below can accumulate errors:

Notes:

- Errors are either accumulated (L6) or propagated (L4, L5).
- At lines L4, L6, rf is no longer a wrapped function but an Error. It happens after a first apply when there is an Error instead of a wrapped value (L5, L6).
- Handy for validating inputs and reporting all errors to the user.
- Validation with F# 5 and FsToolkit, Compositional IT



Functional patterns key points

Pattern	Key words
Monoid	+ (combine), composite design pattern ++
Functor	map, preserve structure
Monad	bind, functor, flatten, effects, sequential composition
Applicative	apply, functor, multi-params function, parallel composition

Functional patterns in F#

In F#, these functional patterns are applied under the hood:

- Monoids with int, string, list and functions
- Monads with Async, List, Option, Result...
- All patterns when using computation expressions
- After the beginner level, it's best to know the principles of these patterns, in case we need to write computation expressions.

Functional patterns in F# (2)

Make these patterns more explicit in F♯ codebases

Meaning: what about F# codebases full of monad, Reader, State ...?

- Generally not recommended, at least by Don Syme
 - Indeed, the F# language is not designed that way.
 - Albeit, libraries such as *FSharpPlus* offer such extensions to F#.
- To be evaluated for each team: idiomatic vs consistency
 - → Examples:
 - □ Idiomatic F# in .NET teams: using both C# and F# code
 - Functional F♯ in FP team: using F♯, Haskell and/or OCaml

Additional resources 🔗

- The "Map and Bind and Apply, Oh my!" series, F# for Fun and Profit
- <u>Applicatives IRL</u>, Jeremie Chassaing
- Functional patterns | F# training GitBook, Romain Deneau

Thanks 🙏

