

# Monads in [My Py]thon

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## Monads in [My Py]thon

### Acknowledgments

This talk is inspired and based on the following conferences:

- [Monads, in my Python?](#) by Xuanyi Chew
- [Scala Monads: Declutter Your Code With Monadic Design](#) by Dan Rosen
- [Category Theory, The essence of interface-based design](#) by Erik Meijer
- [Type-checked Python in the real world](#) by Carl Meyer
- [Learning to Love Type Systems](#) by Lauren Tan
- [New Functional Constructs in Scala 3](#) by Martin Odersky

### About MyPy

The *python-enhancement-proposal-484* ([PEP 484](#)) by [Guido van Rossum](#) and [Jukka Lehtosalo](#) introduced the concept of **type hints** inspired on function annotations ([PEP 3107](#)). This type-hints are completely ignored at runtime but can be used with an optional static type checker. [MyPy](#) is the most popular type checker for python, lead by [Guido van Rossum](#) at [Dropbox](#).

### Why types

“A type system is a tractable syntactic method for proving the absence of certain program behaviors by classifying phrases according to the kinds of values they compute.”

(Pierce and Benjamin [2002](#))

“A type system is a way to add constraints to your code. The type system is there to help you enforce logic that’s consistent within those constraints.”

(Tan [2018](#))

Constraints are desirable because they limit the number of bugs in the program. We can use a strong DSL (domain specific language) to represent the business logic of our application and let the type checker verify the consistency.

In the [Pragmatic types](#) blogpost, the author explains the difference between using a type system for type-checking the code vs using unit-tests. Consider the following illustration:

We achieve type-safety in an application with (1) a robust type system & checker, and (2) by following the functional programming principles.

Functional programming started as a practical implementation of the following mathematical theories:

- **Proof Theory:** logic and mathematical proofs.
- **Category Theory:** algebra, composition and abstractions.
- **Type Theory:** programs and the idea of prepositions as types.

**Curry-Howard-Lambek correspondence** shows that these three theories are equivalent among each others.

Consider the following python function:

```
def addition(x: int, y: int) -> int:    # proposition
    return x + y                       # proof
```

The type signature serves as a proposition; given two integers `x` and `y`, there exists a function that returns another integer.

The implementation (body) of the function is the proof of such proposition. In this sense, **types** are propositions and **programs** are proofs. Therefore, we can think of type-checking as proof-checking.

Good type signatures and a DSLs facilitate the implementation of a particular program and let's the developer rely on the type-systems to increase productivity.

## Installation

Installation it's straightforward ([Ubuntu 18.04](#)):

```
$ sudo apt install python3.7 && python3.7 -m pip install -U mypy
```

Now you can run the static type checker with your python programs:

```
$ python3.7 -m mypy app.py
```

To avoid warnings/errors related to external libraries, use:

```
$ python3.7 -m mypy --ignore-missing-imports app.py
```

## About Monads

The most popular definition of a monad is probably the one phrased by [James Iry](#) in his blog-post [A Brief, Incomplete, and Mostly Wrong History of Programming Languages](#).

“A monad is just a monoid in the category of endofunctors.”

Nonetheless, we can find the complete form of this definition in the book [Categories for the working mathematician](#).

“A monad in  $X$  is just a monoid in the category of endofunctors of  $X$ , with product  $\times$  replaced by composition of endofunctors and unit set by the identity endofunctor.”

(Mac Lane [2013](#))

And a more formal definition in this same book:

“Formally, the definition of a monad is like that of a monoid  $M$  in sets. The set  $M$  of elements of the monoid is replaced by the endofunctor  $T : X \rightarrow X$ , while the cartesian product  $\times$  of two sets is replaced by the composite of two functors, the binary operation  $\mu : M \times M \rightarrow M$  of multiplication by the transformation  $\mu : T^2 \rightarrow T$  and the unit (identity) element  $\nu : 1 \rightarrow M$  by  $\nu : I_x \rightarrow T$ .”

(Mac Lane [2013](#))

$$\mu : T^2 \rightarrow T$$

With the help of this [stackoverflow post](#), this [wolfram post](#) and the [scala cats typelevel docs](#) we can shine some light to this definition:

- A monoid is a representation of a set  $S$  closed under an [associative](#) binary operation and has an [identity element](#) or unit.

A type `A` can form a semigroup if it has an associative binary operation `combine` that satisfies `combine(x, combine(y, z)) = combine(combine(x, y), z)` for any choice of `x`, `y`, and `z` in `A`.

```

trait Semigroup[A] {
  def combine(x: A, y: A): A
}

object Semigroup {
  def combine[A](x: A, y: A)(implicit sg: Semigroup[A]): A =
    sg.combine(x, y)
}

```

We can create a simple example for `Int`:

```

implicit val integerAdditionSemigroup: Semigroup[Int] =
  new Semigroup[Int] {
    def combine(x: Int, y: Int): Int = x + y
  }

```

Example:

```

Semigroup.combine[Int](1, 2)
// res0: Int = 3

Semigroup.combine[Int](1, Semigroup.combine[Int](2, 3))
// res1: Int = 6

```

To define a monoid we need to extend the `Semigroup` with an empty value such that the following holds true:  
 $\text{combine}(x, \text{empty}) = \text{combine}(\text{empty}, x) = x$

```

trait Monoid[A] extends Semigroup[A] {
  def empty: A
}

object Monoid {
  def empty[A](implicit m: Monoid[A]): A = m.empty
  def combine[A](x: A, y: A)(implicit m: Monoid[A]): A =
    m.combine(x, y)
}

// Int monoid
implicit val integerAdditionMonoid: Monoid[Int] = new Monoid[Int] {
  def empty: Int = 0
  def combine(x: Int, y: Int): Int = x + y
}

```

We can verify the `combine` operation with our empty element:

```

Monoid.combine[Int](1, Monoid.empty[Int])
// res3: Int = 1

```

- A **functor** is a mathematical structure-preserving transformation between categories. And **endofunctor** is a functor from one category back to the same category.

```

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

```

- A **category** is a collection of (1) objects, (2) morphisms or arrows for each pair of objects, and a (3) binary operation for composition between arrows. See [more about categories](#).

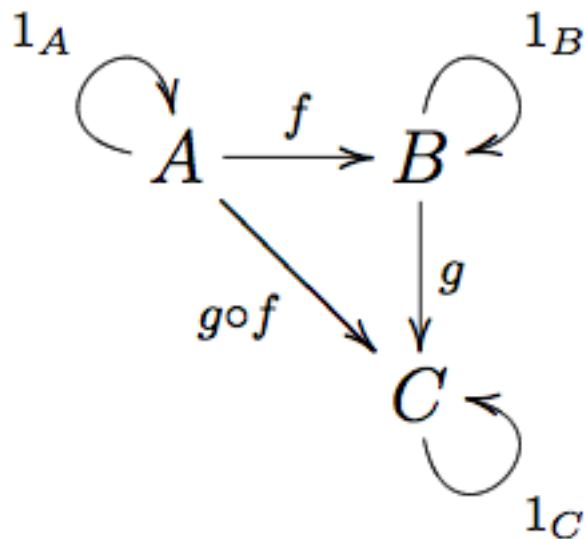


Figure 1: Categories

According to Erik Meijer in this talk “Category Theory, The essence of interface-based design” we can use the following following equivalences as a practical guide:

- **Category** = Programming Language
- **Objects** = Types
- **Morphism** = functions, static methods, properties :  $f(a: A): B$  or  $f: B \text{ an } A$

(Meijer 2015)

## Monads in Scala

The Scala language provides a rich set of functional programming constructs. Consider the following code-snippet shown at the conference “Scale by the Bay - 2018” by Martin Odersky to define an abstract monad in Scala:

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

trait Monad[F[_]] extends Functor[F] {
  def pure[A](x: A): F[A]
  def flatMap[A, B](this x: F[A])(f: A => F[B]): F[B]
  def map[A, B](this x: F[A])(f: A => B): F[B] =
    x.flatMap(f `andThen` pure)
}
```

Now we can use extension methods (Scala 3) to create a particular implementation:

```
implicit object ListMonad extends Monad[List] {
  def flatMap[A, B](this xs: List[A])(f: A => List[B]): List[B] =
    xs.flatMap(f)
  def pure[A](x: A): List[A] = List(x)
}
```

(Odersky 2018)

## Monads in python

Without higher-kinded types. For now.

Consider the following python functions:

```
def div(num: int, den: int) -> int:
    return num / den

def factorial(n: int) -> int:
    if n < 0:
        raise Exception("Factorial is defined over non-negative numbers")
    return 1 if n == 0 else n * factorial(n-1)
```

If we would like to compose both functions we would likely have to implement several safe guards to avoid runtime errors and invalid inputs. What if we use python's `None` naively instead of error-handling for the `div` function?

```
def div(num: int, den: int) -> int:
    if den == 0:
        return None
    return num / den
```

We still have composability problems (see [this diagram](#)). Moreover, our types are incorrect!

- Q: Is there a way we can generalize this?
- A: Monads!

Let's create an `Option` monad.

For simplicity, let's use a higher-order function that allows us to compose two functions:

```
from typing import Callable, TypeVar
A = TypeVar('A')
B = TypeVar('B')
C = TypeVar('C')

def compose(this: Callable[[A], B], and_then: Callable[[B], C]) -> Callable[[A], C]:
    return lambda x: and_then(this(x))
```

Now let's define our option:

```
from abc import ABC, abstractmethod
from typing import Union, Generic, TypeVar, Callable
A = TypeVar("A", covariant=True)
B = TypeVar("B")
T = TypeVar("T")

class Option(Generic[A], ABC):
    @abstractmethod
    def __str__(self) -> str:
        pass
    @abstractmethod
    def get(self, or_else: B) -> Union[A, B]:
        pass
    @abstractmethod
```

```

def flat_map(self, f: Callable[[A], 'Option[B]']) -> 'Option[B]':
    pass
@staticmethod
def pure(x: T) -> 'Option[T]':
    return Some(x)
def map(self, f: Callable[[A], B]) -> 'Option[B]':
    return self.flat_map(compose(this=f, and_then=self.pure))
@abstractmethod
def foreach(self, f: Callable[[A], None]) -> None:
    pass
@abstractmethod
def flatten(self) -> 'Option':
    pass

```

An Option[A] can take Some[A] value or be Empty. We can define the Some type:

```

class Some(Option[A]):
    def __init__(self, value: A) -> None:
        self._value = value
    def __str__(self) -> str:
        return f"Some({self._value})"
    def get(self, or_else: B) -> Union[A, B]:
        return self._value
    def flat_map(self, f: Callable[[A], Option[B]]) -> Option[B]:
        return f(self._value)
    def foreach(self, f: Callable[[A], None]) -> None:
        f(self._value)
    def flatten(self) -> Option:
        if isinstance(self._value, Option):
            return self._value.flatten()
        return self

```

The Empty class is defined as:

```

class Empty(Option[A]):
    def __init__(self) -> None:
        pass
    def __str__(self) -> str:
        return "Empty"
    def get(self, or_else: B) -> Union[A, B]:
        if isinstance(or_else, Exception):
            raise or_else
        return or_else
    def flat_map(self, f: Callable[[A], Option[B]]) -> Option[B]:
        return Empty[B]()
    def foreach(self, f: Callable[[A], None]) -> None:
        return None
    def flatten(self) -> Option:
        return self

```

Now we can use our option type!

```

# Two options
opt_a: Option[int] = Some(2)
opt_b: Option[int] = Some(5)
# Sum a+b

```

```

opt_c = opt_a.flat_map(lambda a: opt_b.map(lambda b: a + b))
# Sum c+d
opt_d: Option[int] = Empty()
opt_e = opt_c.flat_map(lambda c: opt_d.map(lambda d: c + d))
# Print results
print(f"opt_c = {opt_c}\nopt_e = {opt_e}")

```

```

## opt_c = Some(7)
## opt_e = Empty

```

Let's define some decorators:

```

from typing import Callable, TypeVar
T = TypeVar("T")
A = TypeVar("A")

```

Decorate a function to output Option type:

```

def to_option(fn: Callable[..., T]) -> Callable[..., Option[T]]:
    def inner(*args, **kwargs) -> Option[T]:
        try:
            value = fn(*args, **kwargs)
            if value is None:
                return Empty[T]()
            return Some(value)
        except Exception:
            return Empty[T]()
    return inner

```

Decorate a function facilitate Option composability;

```

def composable(fn: Callable[..., Option[T]]) -> Callable[..., Option[T]]:
    def inner(*args, **kwargs) -> Option[T]:
        new_args = []
        new_kwargs = {}
        for arg in args:
            new_arg = arg if isinstance(arg, Option) else Some(arg)
            new_arg.foreach(lambda value: new_args.append(value))
        for k in kwargs:
            v = kwargs[k]
            new_val = v if isinstance(v, Option) else Some(v)
            new_val.foreach(lambda value: new_kwargs.update({k: value}))
        return fn(*new_args, **new_kwargs)
    return inner

```

Now we are ready to define our functions:

```

@composable
@to_option
def div(num: int, den: int) -> int:
    return num / den

```

```

@composable
@to_option
def factorial(n: int) -> int:
    if n < 0:
        raise Exception("Factorial is defined over non-negative numbers")
    return 1 if n == 0 else n * factorial(n-1)

```

Our monadic values allows us to easily compose between `Objects` (see [this](#)).

```
a = 5
b = 0
res = div(a, b)
print(f"div(a,b) = {res}")

## div(a,b) = Empty

a = 15
b = 0
c = 3
d = 5
res_1 = div(d, div(a, b))
res_2 = div(d, div(a, c))
print(f"div(d, div(a, b) = {res_1}\ndiv(d, div(a, c)) = {res_2}")

## div(d, div(a, b) = Empty
## div(d, div(a, c)) = Some(1.0)

a = 10
b = -2
res_1 = div(a, b)
res_2 = factorial(res_1)
print(f"div(a, b) = {res_1}\nfactorial(res_1)= {res_2}")

## div(a, b) = Some(-5.0)
## factorial(res_1)= Empty

Great!
```

## Example

add a more complex example.

## References

- Mac Lane, Saunders. 2013. *Categories for the Working Mathematician*. Vol. 5. Springer Science & Business Media.
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