# Lecture C-10: Parser Combinators - Introduction

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## 1. Domain Specific Languages



A DSL is a programming language tailored for a particular application domain, which captures precisely the semantics of the application domain:

- Lex / Yacc (lexing and parsing)
- LATEX(for document mark-up)
- ► Tcl/Tk (GUI scripting)
- MatLab (numerical computations)

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#### Advantages of using a DSL are that programs:

- are easier to understand
- are easier to write
- are easier to maintain
- can be written by non-programmers

#### Disadvantages:

- High start-up cost
  - design and implementation of a new language is hard
- ► Lack of "general purpose" features (e.g. abstraction)
- Little tool support



#### Embed a DSL as a library in a general purpose host language:

- ▶ inherit general purpose features from host language
  - abstraction mechanism
  - type system
- ▶ inherit compilers and tools
- good integration with host language
- many DSL's can easily be used together!



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#### There are however also disadvantages:

- Constrained by host language
  - Syntax
  - Type system
- ▶ Implementation shines through

#### Haskell is a very suitable host for DSEL's:

- Polymorphism
- ► Higher-order functions: results can be functions decribing the *denotational semantics* of an expression.
- ► Lazy evaluation:
  - allows for writing programs that analyse and transform themselves
  - gives you partial evaluation for free
- ▶ Infix syntax allows you to make programs look nice
- ► List and monad comprehensions
- ▶ Type classes for passing extra arguments in an implicit way

## **Examples**

- Parser combinators
- Pretty printing libraries
- HaskelIDB for implicitly generating SQL
- QuickCheck
- ► GUI libraries
- ► WASH/CGI for describing HTML pages
- Haskore for describing music
- Agent based systems
- ► Financial combinators for describing financial products

#### Old idea:

A general purpose programming language should make it easy to write any kind of program.

#### New idea:

A general purpose programming language should make it possible to write very powerful libraries; even if this is a substantial effort.

## 2. Elementary Parser Combinators



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## 2.1 What are parser combinators



- a collection basic parsing functions that recognise a piece of input
- a collection of combinators that build new parsers out of existing ones

For the time being parsers are just Haskell functions, but we will extend on that later.

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## 2.2 Elementary Combinators



All libraries are based on at least the following four basic combinators:

|              | Haskell                |
|--------------|------------------------|
| alternative  | $p\langle   \rangle q$ |
| composition  | p                      |
| terminals    | <i>pSym</i> 's'        |
| empty string | pSucceed               |

Other operators, e.g. from EBNF:

|            |    | Haskell              |
|------------|----|----------------------|
| repetition | a* | pList a              |
| option     | a? | ʻoptʻ <mark>a</mark> |
| grouping   | () | ()                   |

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► A parser takes a string and returns, as a proof of its success not an abstract syntax tree, but a result of type *a* 

- *String→a*
- ► A parser may not consume the whole input, so we return the unused part of the input:
  - $String \rightarrow (a, String)$
- ▶ There may be many possible ways of recognizing a value of type a at the beginning of the input:
  - $String \rightarrow [(a, String)]$
- Why should we only accept character strings? Everything goes:

$$[s] \rightarrow [(a,[s])]$$

```
type Parser s \ a = [s] \rightarrow [(a, [s])]
```

### **Types**

Try to remember these types. Knowing the types is half the work when programming in Haskell.

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# 2.3 The "List of Successes" Implementation



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```
\begin{array}{lll} \textit{pFail} & \textit{inp} & = []\\ \textit{pSucceed } \textit{v} \; \textit{inp} & = [(\textit{v},\textit{inp})]\\ (\textit{p} \langle | \rangle \; \textit{q}) & \textit{inp} & = \textit{p} \; \textit{inp} \; + \textit{q} \; \textit{inp}\\ \textit{pSym } \textit{a} & (s:ss) \mid \textit{a} \equiv \textit{s} = [(\textit{s},\textit{ss})] - -! \; !\textit{Eq} \; \textit{s}\\ \textit{pSym } \textit{a} & & = []\\ (\textit{p} \langle * \rangle \; \textit{q}) & \textit{inp} = [(\textit{b2a} \; \textit{b},\textit{rr}) \mid (\textit{b2a},\textit{r}) \; \leftarrow \textit{p} \; \textit{inp}\\ & & & , \; (\textit{b}, \; \; \textit{rr}) \leftarrow \textit{q} \; \textit{r}\\ \end{bmatrix}
```

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$$pAB = ((pSucceed (,) \langle * \rangle pSym 'A') \langle * \rangle pSym 'B')$$

We recognize a character 'B':

Preceded by the recognition of a character 'A'

We now insert a "dummy" parser that returns the function (, ):

Combine the result using sequential composition of parsers:

$$pAB = pSucceed(,) \langle * \rangle pSym'A' \langle * \rangle pSym'B'$$

# Capturing the essence of $\langle * \rangle$

Suppose we want to deal with possibly failing computations and stay as closely as possible to the original notation; how to we deal with functions applications like  $e_1$   $e_2$ .

- ▶ both the function part  $e_1$  and the argument part  $e_2$  can fail to compute something
- ▶ we model this with a Maybe
- ▶ so we want to "apply" a  $Maybe\ (b \rightarrow a)$  to a  $Maybe\ b$ , and produce a  $Maybe\ a$

```
func 'applyTo' arg = \mathbf{case} func of

Just b2a \rightarrow \mathbf{case} arg of

Just b \rightarrow \mathbf{Just} (b2a b)

Nothing\rightarrow \mathbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \mathbf{Nothing}

Nothing\rightarrow \mathbf{Nothing}
```





#### We capture this pattern as follows:

```
class Applicative p where
    (\langle * \rangle) :: p(b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow pb \rightarrow pa
   pure :: a \rightarrow p a
   (\langle \$ \rangle) :: (b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow p b \rightarrow p a
   f \langle \$ \rangle p = pure f \langle * \rangle p
```

## instance Applicative Maybe where

```
Just f \langle * \rangle Just v = Just (f v)
_{-} \langle * \rangle _{-} = Nothing
pure v = Iust v
```

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$$f \langle * \rangle a_1 \langle * \rangle a_2 \langle * \rangle a_3$$

we have "overloaded" the original implicit function applications in f  $a_1$   $a_2$   $a_3$ .

#### **Conclusion:**

Instead applying a value of type  $b \rightarrow a$  to a value of type b to result in a value of type a the operator  $\langle * \rangle$  applies a p-value labelled with type  $b \rightarrow a$  to a p-value labelled with type b to build a p-value labelled with type a.

Using the Haskell class system and its extensions we can denote the application also as:

$$iIf a_1 a_2 a_3 Ii$$

The symbosls iI and Ii are so-called Idiom brackets.

Every type constructor which is in the class *Monad* can be trivially made an instance of the class *Applicative*:

```
instance Monad m \Rightarrow Applicative \ m where f \ \langle * \rangle \ v = \mathbf{do} \ ff \leftarrow f vv \leftarrow v -- no reference to fv in rhs return (ff \ vv) pure = return
```

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The essential difference is that when using the class *Applicative* we abstain from the possibility to refer to the f-value in the second binding of the **do**-construct.

*Applicative* is to be preferred over *Monad*, since it allows optimisations; the second part is independent of the first part and can thus be evaluated "more statically", or even analysed independent of the run of the program!

The companion class for *Applicative* is *Alternative*:

```
class Alternative m where
(\langle | \rangle) :: m \ a \rightarrow m \ a \rightarrow m \ a
empty :: m \ a
instance Alternative Maybe where
[Just \ l \ \langle | \rangle \ \_ = Just \ l
\_ \ \ \langle | \rangle \ r = r
empty = Nothing
```

Attention: For the **instance** *Alternative* (*Parser s*) the value *empty* is not the parser which recognises the empty string, but the parser that always fails!

# 2.4 Developing an Embedded Domain Specific Language

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Because the pattern:

$$pSucceed f \langle * \rangle p$$

occurs so often we define

 $\langle \$ \rangle$ 

$$f \langle \$ \rangle p = pSucceed f \langle * \rangle p$$

so we can write the previous function as:

$$pAB = (,) \langle \$ \rangle pSym$$
 'A'  $\langle * \rangle pSym$  'B'

Often we are not interested in parts of what we have recognized:

$$semIfStat\ cond\ ifpart\ thenpart = \dots$$

$$pIfStat = (\lambda\_c\_t\_e\_ \to semIfStat\ c\ t\ e)$$

$$\langle \$ \rangle\ pIfToken \quad \langle * \rangle\ pExpr$$

$$\langle * \rangle\ pThenToken \ \langle * \rangle\ pExpr$$

$$\langle * \rangle\ pElseToken \quad \langle * \rangle\ pExpr$$

$$\langle * \rangle\ pFiToken$$

We define

$$p \langle * q = (\lambda x \_ \rightarrow x) \langle \$ \rangle p \langle * \rangle q$$

$$p * \rangle q = (\lambda_- y \rightarrow y) \langle \$ \rangle p \langle * \rangle q$$

$$f \langle \$ q = pSucceed f \langle * q$$

So we can now write:

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```
infixl 2 opt

opt :: Parser s a \rightarrow a \rightarrow Parser s a

p 'opt' v = p \langle | \rangle pSucceed v
```

```
pList :: Parser s a \rightarrow Parser s [a]
pList p = (:) \langle \$ \rangle p \langle * \rangle pList p 'opt' []
```

In the library we have special greedy versions which chooses the longest alternative.

Write a function that recognises a sequence of balanced parentheses, (i.e. (),(()),(())(),..., and computes the maximal nesting depth (here 1,2,2,... The grammar describing this language is:

$$S \rightarrow (S) S \mid \cdot$$

$$pP = (max \cdot (+1)) \langle \$ pSym ' (' \langle * \rangle pP \langle * pSym ')' \langle * \rangle pP$$
 'opt'

```
pChainl :: Parser s (c \rightarrow c \rightarrow c) \rightarrow Parser s c \rightarrow Parser s c
pChainl op x = (f \langle \$ \rangle x \langle * \rangle pList (flip \langle \$ \rangle op \langle * \rangle x))
                           where
                         f x [] = x
                         f x (func : rest) = f (func x) rest
```

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It is not a good idea to have parsers that have alternatives starting with the same element:

$$p = f \langle \$ \rangle q \langle * \rangle r1$$
$$\langle | \rangle g \langle \$ \rangle q \langle * \rangle r2$$

So we define:

$$p \langle ** \rangle q :: Parser s b \rightarrow Parser s (b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow Parser s a$$
  
 $p \langle ** \rangle q = (\lambda pv qv \rightarrow qv pv) \langle \$ \rangle p \langle * \rangle q$ 

So we can replace the above code by:

$$p = q \langle ** \rangle (flip f \langle \$ \rangle r1 \langle | \rangle flip g \langle \$ \rangle r2)$$
  $flip f x y = f y x$ 



**(??)** 

```
p \ensuremath{\langle} ?? \ensuremath{\rangle} q :: Parser s \ a \rightarrow Parser s \ (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow Parser s \ a

p \ensuremath{\langle} ?? \ensuremath{\rangle} q = p \ensuremath{\langle} ** \ensuremath{\rangle} (q \ 'opt' \ id)
```

### pChainr

```
pChainr sep p = p \langle ?? \rangle (flip \langle \$ \rangle sep \langle * \rangle pChainr sep p)
```

## *pParens*

```
pParens :: s \rightarrow s \rightarrow Parser \ s \ a \rightarrow Parser \ s \ a
pParens l \ r \ p = pSym \ l \ * \rangle \ p \ (* pSym \ r
```

We want to recognise expressions with as result a value of the type:

```
\begin{array}{c|cccc} \textbf{data } \textit{Expr} & \textit{Lambda} & \textit{Id} & \textit{Expr} \\ & | \textit{App} & \textit{Expr} & \textit{Expr} \\ & | \textit{TypedExpr TypeDescr Expr} \\ & | \textit{Ident} & \textit{Id} \end{array}
```

```
pFactor = Lambda \langle \$ pSym ' \setminus ' \langle * \rangle pIdent \\ \langle * pSym ' . ' \langle * \rangle pExpr \\ \langle | \rangle pParens ' (' ' ') ' pExpr \\ \langle | \rangle Ident \langle \$ \rangle pIdent \\ pExpr = pChainl (pSucceed App) \\ (pFactor \langle ?? \rangle (TypedExpr \langle \$ pTok "::" \\ \langle * \rangle pTypeDescr))
```

#### 2.5 Monadic Parsers





#### The Chomsky hierarchy:

- Regular
- ► Context-free
- ► Context-sensitive
- Recursively enumerable

It is well known that context free grammars have limited expressibility.

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```
times :: Int \rightarrow Parser s a \rightarrow Parser s [a] 0 'times' p = pSucceed [] n 'times' p = (:) \langle \$ \rangle p \langle * \rangle (n-1) 'times' p abc n = n \langle \$ (n \text{ 'times' a}) \langle * (n \text{ 'times' c}) \rangle \langle * (n \text{ 'times' c}) \rangle

ABC = foldr(\langle | \rangle) pFail [abc n | n \leftarrow 0...]
```

We admit that this is not very efficient, but left factorisation is not so easy since the corresponding context free grammar is infinite.

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Wouldn't it be nice if we could start by just recognising a sequence of a's, and then use the result to enforce the right number of b's and c's?

```
instance Monad (Parser s) where
p (\gg) q = \lambda inp \rightarrow [(qv,rr) \mid (pv,r) \leftarrow p \quad inp \\ , (qv,rr) \leftarrow q pv r
return v = \lambda inp \rightarrow [(v,inp)]
as :: Parser Char Int
as = length \langle \$ pList (pSym `a`)
bc n = n \langle \$ (n 'times' b) \langle * (n 'times' c)
ABC = do n \leftarrow as
bc n
```

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Can we achieve the same effect by using :

$${a^nb^nc^n} = {a^ib^jc^j} \cap {a^jb^jc^i}?$$

We redefine the type *Parser* to keep track of the length of the recognized part:

```
type Parser s \ a = [s] \rightarrow [(a, [s], Int)]]

(p \langle * \rangle \ q) \ inp = [(pv \ qv, rr, pc + qc) \mid (pv, r, pc) \leftarrow p \ inp

, (qv, rr, qc) \leftarrow q \ r
```

. . .



```
(<\&\&>):: Parser s a \rightarrow Parser s b \rightarrow Parser s (a,b) (p < \&\& > q) inp = [((pv,qv),r,pc) \mid (pv,r,pc) \leftarrow p inp , (qv,\_,qc) \leftarrow q inp , pc \equiv qc
```

$$jj \ x \ y = let \ xy = (2+) \ \langle \$ \ pSym \ x \ \langle * \rangle \ xy \ \langle * \ pSym \ y \ 'opt' \ 0$$

$$in \ xy$$
 $i \ x = (1+) \ \langle \$ \ pSym \ x \ \langle * \rangle \ i \ x \ 'opt' \ 0$ 
 $ABC = (+) \ \langle \$ \ i \ "a" \ \langle * \rangle \ jj \ "b" \ "c" \ \langle \&\& > (+) \ \langle \$ \rangle \ jj \ "a" \ "b" \ \langle * \rangle \ i \ "c"$ 

## 2.6 Problems



- ▶ If your input does not conform to the language recognised by the parser all you get as a result is: [].
- ▶ It may take quite a while before you get this negative result, since the backtracking may try all other alternatives at all positions.
- ▶ There is no indication of where things went wrong.

These problem have been cured in both Parsec and the UUParsing-library. The latter does this:

- without much overhead
- without need for help from the programmer
- without stopping, so many errors can be found in a single run



As with any top-down parsing method, having left-recursive parsers is no good

- ► You get non-terminating parsers
- ► You get no error messages

This problem can be partially been cured by using chaining combinators.

Our naïve "List of successes" implementation has further drawbacks:

- The complete input has to be parsed before any result is returned
- ► The complete input is present in memory as long as no parse has been found
- ► Efficiency may depend critically on the ordering of the alternatives, and thus on how the grammar was written

For all of these problems we have found solutions in the uu-parsinglib package.