A predicate transformer semantics of parser combinators

Tim Baanen Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam Wouter Swierstra
Utrecht University

1 Introduction

There is a significant body of work on parsing using combinators in functional programming languages [others?; Hut92; SD96; Wad85],. Yet how can we ensure that these parsers are correct? There is notably less work that attempts to answer this question [Dan10; Fir16].

Reasoning about such parser combinators is not at all trivial; they use a variety of effects: state to store the string being parsed; non-determinism to handle backtracking; and general recursion to deal with recursive grammars. Proof techniques, such as equational reasoning, that commonly used when reasoning about pure functional programs, are less suitable when verifying effectful programs.

In this paper, we explore a novel approach, drawing inspiration from recent work on algebraic effects [BP15; WSH14; McB15]. We demonstrate how to reason about all parsers uniformly using predicate transformers [SB19]. We extend our previous work that uses predicate transformer semantics to reason about a single effect to handle the combinations of effects used by parsers. Our semantics is modular, allowing us to introduce concepts only when they are needed, without having to rework the previous definitions. In particular, our careful treatment of general recursion lets us separate the partial correctness of the combinators from their termination cleanly. Most existing proofs require combinators to guarantee that the string being parsed decreases, conflating termination and correctness.

In particular, this paper makes the following novel contributions:

- The non-recursive fragment of regular expressions can be correctly parsed using non-determinism (Section 3); by combining non-determinism with general recursion (Section 4), support for the Kleene star can be added without compromising our previous definitions (Section 5). Although the resulting parser is not guaranteed to terminate, it is refined by another implementation using Brzozowski derivatives that does terminate (Section 6).
- Next, we show how this approach may be extended to handle context-free languages. To do so, we show how to write parsers using algebraic effects (Section 7), and map grammars to parsers (Section 8). Once again, we can cleanly separate the proofs of partial correctness (Section 9) and termination (Section 10).

All the programs and proofs in this paper are written in the dependently typed language Agda [Nor07].

2 Recap: algebraic effects and predicate transformers

Algebraic effects separate the syntax and semantics of effectful operations. In this paper, we will model the by taking the free monad over a given signature, describing certain operations. The type of such a signature is defined as follows:

```
record Sig : Set where
constructor mkSig
field
C : Set
R : C \rightarrow Set
```

Here the type C contains the 'commands', or effectful operations that a given effect supports. For each command c:C, the type Rc describes the possible responses. The structure on a signature is that of a container [AAG03]. For example, the following signature describes two operations: the non-deterministic choice between two values, Choice; and a failure operator, Fail.

```
data CNondet : Set where
Choice : CNondet
Fail : CNondet

RNondet : CNondet \rightarrow Set

RNondet Choice = Bool

RNondet Fail = \perp

Nondet = mkSig CNondet RNondet
```

We represent effectful programs that use a particular effect using the corresponding free monad:

```
data Free (e:Sig) (a:Set):Set where

Pure: a \to Free\ e\ a

Op: (c:C\ e) \to (R\ e\ c \to Free\ e\ a) \to Free\ e\ a
```

This gives a monad, with the bind operator defined as follows:

```
\_>=\_: Free\ e\ a \to (a \to Free\ e\ b) \to Free\ e\ b

Pure\ x >>= f = f\ x

Op\ c\ k >>= f = Op\ c\ (\lambda\ x \to k\ x >>= f)
```

To facilitate programming with effects, we define the following smart constructors, sometimes referred to as generic effects in the literature [PP03]:

```
fail: Free Nondet a

fail = Op Fail \lambda ()

choice: Free Nondet a \to Free Nondet a \to Free Nondet a

choice S_1 S_2 = Op Choice \lambda b \to if b then S_1 else S_2
```

In this paper, we will assign semantics to effectful programs by mapping them to predicate transformers. Each semantics will be computed by a fold over the free monad, mapping some predicate $P: a \to Set$ to a predicate on the result of the free monad to a predicate of the entire computation of type Free (eff CR) $a \to Set$.

```
\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket : ((c:C) \to (R c \to Set) \to Set) \to Free (mkSig C R) a \to (a \to Set) \to Set
```

$$[\![Pure\ x]\!]_{alg}P = Px$$

 $[\![Op\ c\ k]\!]_{alg}P = alg\ c\ \lambda\ x \to [\![k\ x]\!]_{alg}P$

The predicate transformer nature of these semantics becomes evident when we assume the type of responses R does not depend on the command c:C. The type of $alg:(c:C) \to (Rc \to Set) \to Set$ then becomes $C \to (R \to Set) \to Set$, which is isomorphic to $(R \to Set) \to (C \to Set)$. Thus, alg has the form of a predicate transformer from postconditions of type $R \to Set$ into preconditions of type $C \to Set$. Two considerations cause us to define the types $alg:(c:C) \to (Rc \to Set) \to Set$, and analogously $[\![\cdot]\!]_{alg}:Free\ (mkSig\ CR)\ a \to (a \to Set) \to Set$. By having the command as first argument to alg, we allow R to depend on C. Moreover, $[\![\cdot]\!]_{alg}$ computes semantics, so it should take a program $S:Free\ (mkSig\ CR)\ a$ as its argument and return the semantics of S, which is then of type $(a \to Set) \to Set$.

In the case of non-determinism, for example, we may want to require that a given predicate P holds for all possible results that may be returned:

```
ptAll: (c: CNondet) \rightarrow (RNondet c \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Set
ptAll \ Fail \ P = \top
ptAll \ Choice \ P = P \ True \land P \ False
\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{all}: Free \ Nondet \ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Set
\llbracket S \rrbracket_{all} = \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket. \ ptAll \ S
```

Predicate transformers provide a single semantic domain to relate programs and specifications. Throughout this paper, we will consider specifications consisting of a pre- and postcondition:

```
module Spec where

record Spec (a:Set):Set where

constructor [\_,\_]

field

pre:Set

post:a \rightarrow Set
```

Inspired by work on the refinement calculus, we can assign a predicate transformer semantics to specifications as follows:

```
\llbracket \cdot, \cdot \rrbracket_{\text{spec}} : Spec \ a \to (a \to Set) \to Set
\llbracket pre, post \rrbracket_{\text{spec}} P = pre \land (\forall o \to post \ o \to Po)
```

This computes the 'weakest precondition' necessary for a specification to imply that the desired postcondition P holds. In particular, the precondition pre should hold and any possible result satisfying the postcondition post should imply the postcondition P.

Finally, we use the refinement relation to compare programs and specifications:

Together with the predicate transformer semantics we have defined above, this refinement relation can be used to relate programs to their specifications. The refinement relation is both transitive and reflexive.

3 Regular languages without recursion

To illustrate how to reason about non-deterministic code, we begin by defining a regular expression matcher. Initially, we will restrict ourselves to non-recursive regular expressions; we will add recursion in the next section.

We begin by defining the Regex data type for regular expressions as follows: An element of this type represents the syntax of a regular

```
data Regex: Set whereEmpty: RegexEpsilon: RegexSingleton: Char \rightarrow Regex\_|\_: Regex \rightarrow Regex \rightarrow Regex.: Regex \rightarrow Regex \rightarrow Regex*: Regex \rightarrow Regex
```

Note that the *Empty* regular expression corresponds to the empty language, while the *Epsilon* expression only matches the empty string. Furthermore, our language for regular expressions is closed under choice ($_|_$), concatenation ($_\cdot_$) and linear repetition denoted by the Kleene star ($_\star$).

What should our regular expression matcher return? A Boolean value is not particularly informative; yet we also choose not to provide an intrinsically correct definition, instead performing extrinsic verification using our predicate transformer semantics. The Tree data type below, captures a potential parse tree associated with a given regular expression:

```
Tree: Regex \rightarrow Set

Tree Empty = \bot

Tree Epsilon = \top

Tree (Singleton \_) = Char

Tree (l \mid r) = Either (Tree \ l) (Tree \ r)

Tree (l \cdot r) = Pair (Tree \ l) (Tree \ r)

Tree (r \star) = List (Tree \ r)
```

In the remainder of this section, we will develop a regular expression matcher with the following type:

```
match: (r: Regex) (xs: String) \rightarrow Free Nondet (Tree r)
```

Before we do so, however, we will complete our specification. Although the type above guarantees that we return a parse tree matching the regular expression r, there is no relation between the tree and the input string. To capture this relation, we define the following Match data type. A value of type $Match \ r \ xs \ t$ states that the string xs is in the language given by the regular expression r as witnessed by the parse tree t:

```
data Match: (r: Regex) \rightarrow String \rightarrow Tree r \rightarrow Set where Epsilon: Match Epsilon Nil tt Singleton: Match (Singleton x) (x:: Nil) x OrLeft: Match l xs x \rightarrow Match (l | r) xs (Inl x)
```

```
OrRight : Match r xs x \to Match (l \mid r) xs (Inr x)

Concat : Match l ys y \to Match r zs z \to Match (l \cdot r) (ys ++ zs) (y, z)

StarNil : Match (r \star) Nil Nil

StarConcat : Match (r \cdot (r \star)) xs (y, ys) \to Match (r \star) xs (y :: ys)
```

Note that there is no constructor for $Match\ Empty\ xs\ ms$ for any xs or ms, as there is no way to match the Empty language with a string xs. Similarly, the only constructor for $Match\ Epsilon\ xs\ ms$ is where xs is the empty string Nil. There are two constructors that produce a Match for a regular expression of the form $l\mid r$, corresponding to the choice of matching either l or r.

The cases for concatenation and iteration are more interesting. Crucially the *Concat* constructor constructs a match on the concatenation of the strings xs and zs – although there may be many possible ways to decompose a string into two substrings. Finally, the two constructors for the Kleene star, r match zero (StarNil) or many (StarConcat) repetitions of r.

We will now turn our attention to the *match* function. The complete definition, by induction on the argument regular expression, can be found in Figure 1. Most of the cases are straightforward—the most difficult case is that for concatenation, where we non-deterministically consider all possible splittings of the input string xs into a pair of strings ys and zs. The *allSplits* function, defined below, computes all possible splittings:

```
allSplits: (xs: List a) \rightarrow Free Nondet (List a \times List a)
allSplits Nil = Pure (Nil, Nil)
allSplits (x:: xs) = choice
(Pure (Nil, (x:: xs)))
(allSplits xs \gg \lambda \{(ys, zs) \rightarrow Pure ((x:: ys), zs)\})
```

Finally, we cannot yet handle the case for the Kleene star. We could attempt to mimic the case for concatenation, attempting to match $r \cdot (r)$. This definition, however, is rejected by Agda as it is not structurally recursive. For now, however, we choose to simply fail on all such regular expressions.

Still, we can prove that the match function behaves correctly on all regular expressions that do not contain iteration. The hasNo* predicate holds of all such iteration-free regular expressions:

```
hasNo*: Regex \rightarrow Set
```

To verify our matcher is correct, we need to prove that it satisfies the specification consisting of the following pre- and postcondition:

```
pre: (r: Regex) (xs: String) \rightarrow Set
pre \ r \ xs = hasNo* \ r
post: (r: Regex) (xs: String) \rightarrow Tree \ r \rightarrow Set
post = Match
```

The main correctness result can now be formulated as follows:

```
matchSound : \forall rxs \rightarrow \llbracket (pre \, rxs), (post \, rxs) \rrbracket_{spec} \sqsubseteq \llbracket match \, rxs \rrbracket_{all}
```

This lemma guarantees that all the parse trees computed by the *match* function satisfy the *Match* relation, provided the input regular expression does not contain iteration. Although we have

```
match: (r: Regex) (xs: String) \rightarrow Free Nondet (Tree r)
                                        = fail
match Empty
                       xs
match Epsilon
                       Nil
                                        = Pure tt
match Epsilon
                       (- :: -)
                                        = fail
match (Singleton c) Nil
                                        = fail
                                        with c \stackrel{?}{=} x
match (Singleton c) (x :: Nil)
match (Singleton c) (.c :: Nil)
                                        | yes refl = Pure c
match (Singleton c) (x :: Nil)
                                        \mid no \neg p = fail
match (Singleton c) (\_ :: \_ :: \_) = fail
match(l \mid r)
                                        = choice (Inl \langle \$ \rangle match l xs) (Inr \langle \$ \rangle match r xs)
                       xs
match(l \cdot r)
                       XS
   (ys, zs) \leftarrow allSplits xs
  y \leftarrow match \, l \, ys
  z \leftarrow match \ r \ zs
  Pure (y, z)
match(r \star) xs = fail
```

Figure 1: The definition of the *match* function

omitted the proof, we will sketch the key lemmas and definitions that are necessary to complete it.

First of all, we quickly run into problems as soon as we need to reason about programs composed using the monadic bind operator. In particular, when verifying the case for $l \cdot r$, we would like to use our induction hypotheses on two recursive calls. To do, we prove the following lemma that allows us to replace the semantics of a composite program built using the monadic bind operation with the composition of the underlying predicate transformers:

```
consequence: \forall pt (mx : Free \ es \ a) \ (f : a \rightarrow Free \ es \ b) \rightarrow [\![mx]\!]_{pt} \ (\lambda \ x \rightarrow [\![f \ x]\!]_{pt} \ P) \equiv [\![mx \gg f]\!]_{pt} \ P
```

Substituting along this equality gives us the lemmas we need to deal with the _>=_ operator:

The correctness proof for *match* closely matches the structure of *match* (and by extension *allSplits*). It uses the same recursion on *Regex* as in the definition of *match*. Since we make use of *allSplits* in the definition, we first give its correctness proof.

```
allSplitsPost: String \rightarrow String \times String \rightarrow Set

allSplitsPost xs (ys, zs) = xs \equiv ys + zs

allSplitsSound: \forall xs \rightarrow [\![\top, (allSplitsPost xs)]\!]_{spec} \sqsubseteq [\![allSplits xs]\!]_{all}
```

We refer to the accompanying code for the complete details of these proofs.

4 General recursion and non-determinism

The matcher we have defined in the previous section is incomplete, since it fails to handle regular expressions that use the Kleene star. The fundamental issue is that the Kleene star allows for arbitrarily many matches in certain cases, that in turn, leads to problems with Agda's termination checker. For example, matching $Epsilon \star$ with the empty string "" may unfold the Kleene star infinitely often without ever terminating. As a result, we cannot implement match for the Kleene star using recursion directly.

Instead, we will deal with this (possibly unbounded) recursion by introducing a new effect. We will represent a recursively defined (dependent) function of type $(i:I) \to Oi$ as an element of the type $(i:I) \to Free\ (Rec\ I\ O)\ (O\ i)$. Here $Rec\ I\ O$ is a synonym of the the signature type we saw previously [McB15]:

```
Rec: (I:Set) (O:I \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Sig

Rec \ I \ O = mkSig \ I \ O
```

Intuitively, you may want to think of values of type $(i:I) \to Free\ (Rec\ I\ O)\ (O\ i)$ as computing a (finite) call graph for every input i:I. Instead of recursing directly, the 'effects' that this signature support require an input i:I—corresponding to the argument of the recursive call; the continuation abstracts over a value of type $O\ i$, corresponding to the result of a recursive call. Note that the functions defined in this style are not recursive; instead we will need to write handlers to unfold the function definition or prove termination separately.

We cannot, however, define a *match* function of the form $Free\ (Rec\ _\ _)$ directly, as our previous definition also used non-determinism. To account for both non-determinism and unbounded recursion, we need a way to combine effects. Fortunately, free monads are known to be closed under coproducts; there is a substantial body of work that exploits this to (syntactically) compose separate effects [WSH14; Swi08].

Rather than restrict ourselves to the binary composition using coproducts, we modify the *Free* monad to take a list of signatures as its argument, taking the coproduct of the elements of the list as its signature functor. The *Pure* constructor remains as unchanged; while the *Op* constructor additionally takes an index into the list to specify the effect that is invoked.

```
data Free (es: List Sig) (a: Set) : Set where

Pure: a \rightarrow Free es a

Op: (i: e \in es) (c: Ce) (k: Rec \rightarrow Free es a) \rightarrow Free es a
```

By using a list of effects instead of allowing arbitrary disjoint unions, we have effectively chosen that the disjoint unions canonically associate to the right. We choose to use the same names and (almost) the same syntax for this new definition of *Free*, since all the definitions that we have seen previously can be readily adapted to work with this data type instead.

Most of this bookkeeping involved with different effects can be inferred using Agda's instance arguments. Instance arguments, marked using the double curly braces {{}}, are automatically filled in by Agda, provided a unique value of the required type can be found. For example, we can define the generic effects that we saw previously as follows:

```
fail: \{\{iND: Nondet \in es\}\} \rightarrow Free\ es\ a
fail \{\{iND\}\} = Op\ iND\ Fail\ \lambda\ ()
```

```
choice: \{\{iND : Nondet \in es\}\}\ \rightarrow Free es a \rightarrow Free es a \rightarrow Free es a \rightarrow Choice \{\{iND\}\}\ S_1 S_2 = Op \ iND \ Choice \ \lambda \ b \rightarrow if \ b \ then \ S_1 \ else \ S_2
call: \{\{iRec : Rec \ I \ O \in es\}\}\ \rightarrow (i : I) \rightarrow Free es (Oi)
call \{\{iRec\}\}\ i = Op \ iRec \ i \ Pure
```

These now operate over any free monad with effects given by es, provided we can show that the list es contains the NonDet and Rec effects respectively. For convenience of notation, we introduce the $\stackrel{es}{\rightarrow}$ notation for general recursion, i.e. Kleisli arrows into Free ($Rec _ _ :: es$).

```
\_ \xrightarrow{es} \_ : (C : Set) (es : List Sig) (R : C \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Set
C \xrightarrow{es} R = (c : C) \rightarrow Free (mkSig C R :: es) (R c)
```

With the syntax for combinations of effects defined, let us turn to semantics. Since the weakest precondition predicate transformer for a single effect is given as a fold over the effect's signature, the semantics for a combination of effects can be given by a list of such semantics.

```
record PT (e:Sig):Set where

constructor mkPT

field

pt:(c:Ce) \rightarrow (Rec \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Set

mono: \forall c P P' \rightarrow P \subseteq P' \rightarrow pt c P \rightarrow pt c P'

data PTs:List Sig \rightarrow Set where

Nil:PTs Nil

\_::\_:PTe \rightarrow PTs es \rightarrow PTs (e::es)
```

The record type PT not only contains a predicate transformer pt, but also a proof that this predicate transformer is monotone. Several lemmas throughout this paper, such as the terminates-fmap lemma below, rely on the monotonicity of the underlying predicate transformers.

Given a such a list of predicate transformers, defining the semantics of an effectful program is a straightforward generalization of the previously defined semantics. The Pure case is identical, and in the Op case we can apply the predicate transformer returned by the lookupPT helper function.

```
lookupPT: (pts: PTs \ es) \ (i: mkSig \ C \ R \in es) \rightarrow (c: C) \rightarrow (R \ c \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Set \ lookupPT \ (pt:: pts) \in Head = PT.pt \ pt \ lookupPT \ (pt:: pts) \ (\in Tail \ i) = lookupPT \ pts \ i
```

This results in the following definition of the semantics for combinations of effects.

```
[\![\cdot]\!].: (pts: PTs \, es) \rightarrow Free \, es \, a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Set
[\![Pure \, x]\!]_{pts} P = P \, x
[\![Op \, i \, c \, k]\!]_{pts} P = lookupPT \, pts \, i \, c \, \lambda \, x \rightarrow [\![k \, x]\!]_{pts} P
```

The effects we are planning to use for our *match* function are a combination of nondeterminism and general recursion. Although we can reuse the *ptAll* semantics of nondeterminism, we have not yet given the semantics for recursion. However, it is not as easy to give a predicate transformer semantics for recursion in general, since the intended semantics of a recursive call depend on

the function that is being defined. Instead, to give semantics to a recursive function, we assume that we have been provided with a relation of the type $(i:I) \to Oi \to Set$, reminiscent of a loop invariant in an imperative program. The semantics then establishes whether or not the recursive function adheres to this invariant or not:

```
ptRec: ((i:I) \rightarrow Oi \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow PT (Rec\ I\ O)

PT.pt \quad (ptRec\ R)\ i\ P \qquad = \forall\ o \rightarrow R\ i\ o \rightarrow P\ o

PT.mono\ (ptRec\ R)\ c\ P\ P'\ imp\ asm\ o\ h = imp\ \_(asm\ \_h)
```

As we shall see shortly, when revisiting the *match* function, the *Match* relation defined previously will fulfill the role of this 'invariant.'

5 Recursively parsing every regular expression

To deal with the Kleene star, we rewrite *match* as a generally recursive function using a combination of effects. Since *match* makes use of *allSplits*, we also rewrite that function to use a combination of effects. The types become:

```
allSplits: \{\{iND: Nondet \in es\}\} \rightarrow List \ a \rightarrow Free \ es \ (List \ a \times List \ a)
match: \{\{iND: Nondet \in es\}\} \rightarrow Regex \times String \stackrel{es}{\hookrightarrow} Tree \circ Pair.fst
```

Since the index argument to the smart constructor is inferred by Agda, the only change in the definition of *match* and *allSplits* will be that *match* now implements the Kleene star:

```
match ((r \star), Nil) = Pure Nil
match ((r \star), xs@ (\_ :: \_)) = do
(y, ys) \leftarrow call ((r \cdot (r \star)), xs)
Pure (y :: ys)
```

The effects we need to use for running *match* are a combination of nondeterminism and general recursion. As discussed, we first need to give the specification for *match* before we can verify a program that performs a recursive *call* to *match*.

```
matchSpec: (r,xs: Pair Regex String) \rightarrow Tree (Pair.fst r,xs) \rightarrow Set
matchSpec (r,xs) ms = Match r xs ms
\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{match}: Free (Rec (Pair Regex String) (Tree \circ Pair.fst) :: Nondet :: Nil) a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow Set
\llbracket S \rrbracket_{match} = \llbracket S \rrbracket_{ptRec matchSpec :: ptAll :: Nil}
```

We can reuse exactly the same proof to show *allSplits* is correct, since we use the same semantics for the effects in *allSplits*. Similarly, the correctness proof of *match* will be the same on all cases except the Kleene star. Now we are able to prove correctness of *match* on a Kleene star.

```
matchSound((r \star), Nil)   P(preH, postH) = postH \_StarNil   matchSound((r \star), (x :: xs)) P(preH, postH) o H = postH \_(StarConcat H)
```

At this point, we have defined a parser for regular languages and formally proved that its output is always correct. However, *match* does not necessarily terminate: if r is a regular expression that accepts the empty string, then calling *match* on $r \star$ and a string xs results in the first nondeterministic alternative being an infinitely deep recursion.

The next step is then to write a parser that always terminates and show that *match* is refined by it. Our approach is to do recursion on the input string instead of on the regular expression.

6 Termination, using derivatives

Since recursion on the structure of a regular expression does not guarantee termination of the parser, we can instead perform recursion on the string to be parsed. To do this, we make use of an operation on languages called the Brzozowski derivative.

Definition 1 ([Brz64]) The Brzozowski derivative of a formal language L with respect to a character x consists of all strings xs such that $x :: xs \in L$.

Importantly, if L is regular, so are all its derivatives. Thus, let r be a regular expression, and dr/dx an expression for the derivative with respect to x, then r matches a string x :: xs if and only if dr/dx matches xs. This suggests the following implementation of matching an expression r with a string xs: if xs is empty, check whether r matches the empty string; otherwise let x be the head of the string and xs' the tail and go in recursion on matching dr/dx with xs'.

The first step in implementing a parser using the Brzozowski derivative is to compute the derivative for a given regular expression. Following Brzozowski [Brz64], we use a helper function ε ? that decides whether an expression matches the empty string.

```
\varepsilon?: (r : Regex) \rightarrow Dec (\sum (Tree r) (Match r Nil))
```

The definitions of ε ? is given by structural recursion on the regular expression, just as the derivative operator is:

```
d\_/d\_: Regex \rightarrow Char \rightarrow Regex

d Empty / d c = Empty

d Epsilon / d c = Empty

d Singleton x / d c  with c \stackrel{?}{=} x

... | yes p = Epsilon

... | no \neg p = Empty

d l \cdot r / d c  with \varepsilon ? l

... | yes p = ((d l / d c) \cdot r) | (d r / d c)

... | no \neg p = (d l / d c) \cdot r

d l | r / d c = (d l / d c) | (d r / d c)

d r \star / d c = (d r / d c) \cdot (r \star)
```

In order to use the derivative of r to compute a parse tree for r, we need to be able to convert a tree for dr/dx to a tree for r. We do this with the function *integralTree*:

```
integralTree: (r:Regex) \rightarrow Tree (d r / d x) \rightarrow Tree r
```

We can also define it with exactly the same case distinction as we used to define d_{-}/d_{-} .

The code for the parser, *dmatch*, itself is very short. As we sketched, for an empty string we check that the expression matches the empty string, while for a non-empty string we use the derivative to perform a recursive call.

```
dmatch: \{\{iND: Nondet \in es\}\} \rightarrow Regex \times String \stackrel{es}{\hookrightarrow} Tree \circ Pair.fst

dmatch\ (r\ ,Nil)\ with \varepsilon? r

... |\ yes\ (ms\ ,\_) = Pure\ ms

... |\ no\ \neg p = fail

dmatch\ (r\ ,(x::xs)) = integralTree\ r\ \langle\$\rangle\ call\ ((d\ r\ /d\ x)\ ,xs)
```

Since *dmatch* always consumes a character before going in recursion, we can easily prove that each recursive call only leads to finitely many other calls. This means that for each input value we can unfold the recursive step in the definition a bounded number of times and get a computation with no recursion. Intuitively, this means that *dmatch* terminates on all input. If we are going to give a formal proof of termination, we should first determine the correct formalization of this notion. For that, we need to consider what it means to have no recursion in the unfolded computation. A definition for the *while* loop using general recursion looks as follows:

```
while: \{\{iRec : Rec \ a \ (K \ a) \in es \}\} \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Free \ es \ a)
while cond body i = if \ cond \ i \ then \ Pure \ i \ else \ (call \ (body \ i))
```

We would like to say that some *while* loops terminate, yet the definition of *while* always contains a *call* in it. Thus, the requirement should not be that there are no more calls left, but that these calls are irrelevant.

Intuitively, we could say that a definition S calling f terminates if we make the unfolded definition into a Partial computation by replacing call with fail, the definition terminates if the Partial computation still works the same, i.e. it refines S. However, this mixes the concepts of correctness and termination. We want to see that the Partial computation gives some output, without caring about which output this is. Thus, we should only have a trivial postcondition. We formalize this idea in the terminates-in predicate.

```
terminates-in: (pts: PTs \ es)
(f: C \overset{es}{\hookrightarrow} R) \ (S: Free \ (mkSig \ C \ R :: \ es) \ a) \to \mathbb{N} \to Set
terminates-in ptsf \ (Pure \ x) \ n = \top
terminates-in ptsf \ (Op \in \operatorname{Head} c \ k) \ (Succ \ n) =
terminates-in ptsf \ (Op \in \operatorname{Head} c \ k) \ (Succ \ n) =
terminates-in ptsf \ (Op \ (\in \operatorname{Tail} \ i) \ c \ k) \ n
terminates-in ptsf \ (Op \ (\in \operatorname{Tail} \ i) \ c \ k) \ n =
lookupPT \ ptsic \ (\lambda \ x \to \operatorname{terminates-in} ptsf \ (k \ x) \ n)
```

Since *dmatch* always consumes a character before going in recursion, we can bound the number of recursive calls with the length of the input string. The proof goes by induction on this string. Unfolding the recursive *call* gives *integralTree* $\langle \$ \rangle$ *dmatch* $(d \ r \ / d \ x \ , xs)$, which we rewrite using the associativity monad law in a lemma called terminates-fmap.

```
dmatchTerminates: (r:Regex) (xs:String) \rightarrow \\ terminates-in (ptAll::Nil) (dmatch) (dmatch (r,xs)) (length xs) \\ dmatchTerminates r Nil with <math>\varepsilon? r dmatchTerminates r Nil \mid yes p = tt \\ dmatchTerminates r Nil \mid no \neg p = tt \\ dmatchTerminates r (x::xs) = terminates-fmap (length xs) \\ (dmatch ((dr/dx),xs)) \\ (dmatchTerminates (dr/dx)xs)
```

To show partial correctness of *dmatch*, we can use the transitivity of the refinement relation. If we apply transitivity, it suffices to show that *dmatch* is a refinement of *match*. Our first step is to show that the derivative operator is correct, i.e. dr/dx matches those strings xs such that r matches x:xs.

```
derivativeCorrect: \forall r \rightarrow Match \ (d \ r \ / d \ x) \ xs \ y \rightarrow Match \ r \ (x :: xs) \ (integralTree \ r \ y)
```

The proof mirrors the definitions of these functions, being structured as a case distinction on the regular expression.

Before we can prove the correctness of *dmatch* in terms of *match*, it turns out that we also need to describe *match* itself better. The meaning of our goal, to show that *match* is refined by *dmatch*, is to prove that the output of *dmatch* is a subset of that of *match*. Since *match* makes use of *allSplits*, we first prove that all splittings of a string xs are in the output of *allSplits xs*. This following lemma and *allSplitsSound* together show that calling *allSplits xs* is equivalent, under the semantics $[\cdot]_{match}$, to its specification $[\top, allSplitsPost xs]$.

```
\mathit{allSplitsComplete}: (\mathit{xs}:\mathit{String}) \rightarrow [\![\mathit{allSplits}\,\mathit{xs}]\!]_{\mathrm{match}} \sqsubseteq [\![\top,\mathit{allSplitsPost}]\!]_{\mathrm{spec}}]
```

The proof mirrors *allSplits*, performing induction on *xs*.

Using the preceding lemmas, we can prove the partial correctness of *dmatch* by showing it refines *match*:

```
dmatchSound: \forall rxs \rightarrow [match(r,xs)]_{match} \sqsubseteq [dmatch(r,xs)]_{match}
```

Since we need to perform the case distinctions of *match* and of *dmatch*, the proof is longer than that of *matchSoundness*. Despite the length, most of it consists of performing the case distinction, then giving a simple argument for each case. Therefore, we omit the proof.

With the proof of *dmatchSound* finished, we can conclude that *dmatch* always returns a correct parse tree, i.e. that *dmatch* is sound. However, *dmatch* is not complete with respect to the *Match* relation: since *dmatch* never makes a nondeterministic choice, it will not return all possible parse trees as specified by *Match*, only the first tree that it encounters. Still, we can express the property that *dmatch* finds a parse tree if it exists. In other words, we will show that if there is a valid parse tree, *dmatch* returns any parse tree (and this is a valid tree by *dmatchSound*). To express that *dmatch* returns something, we use a trivially true postcondition, and replace the demonic choice of the *ptAll* semantics with the angelic choice of *ptAny*:

The proof is short, since *dmatch* can only *fail* when it encounters an empty string and a regex that does not match the empty string, contradicting the assumption immediately:

```
dmatchComplete r Nil y H with \varepsilon? r ... | yes p = tt ... | no \neg p = \neg p (\_, H) dmatchComplete r (x :: xs) y H y' H' = tt
```

Note that dmatch Complete does not show that dmatch terminates: the semantics for the recursive case assume that dmatch always returns some value y'.

In the proofs of *dmatchSound* and *dmatchComplete*, we demonstrate the power of predicate transformer semantics for effects: by separating syntax and semantics, we can easily describe different aspects (soundness and completeness) of the one definition of *dmatch*. Since the soundness and completeness result we have proved imply partial correctness, and partial correctness and termination imply total correctness, we can conclude that *dmatch* is a totally correct parser for regular languages.

Note the correspondences of this section with a Functional Pearl by Harper [Har99], which also uses the parsing of regular languages as an example of principles of functional software development. Starting out with defining regular expressions as a data type and the language associated with each expression as an inductive relation, both use the relation to implement essentially the same *match* function, which does not terminate. In both, the partial correctness proof of match uses a specification expressed as a postcondition, based on the inductive relation representing the language of a given regular expression. Where we use nondeterminism to handle the concatenation operator, Harper uses a continuation-passing parser for control flow. Since the continuations take the unparsed remainder of the string, they correspond almost directly to the Parser effect of the following section. Another main difference between our implementation and Harper's is in the way the non-termination of match is resolved. Harper uses the derivative operator to rewrite the expression in a standard form which ensures that the *match* function terminates. We use the derivative operator to implement a different matcher dmatch which is easily proved to be terminating, then show that *match*, which we have already proven partially correct, is refined by dmatch. The final major difference is that Harper uses manual verification of the program and our work is formally computer-verified. Although our development takes more work, the correctness proofs give more certainty than the informal arguments made by Harper. In general, choosing between informal reasoning and formal verification will always be a trade-off between speed and accuracy.

7 Parsing as effect

In the previous sections, we wrote parsers as nondeterministic functions. For more complicated classes of languages than regular expressions, explicitly passing around the string to be parsed becomes cumbersome quickly. The traditional solution is to switch from nondeterminism to stateful nondeterminism, where the state contains the unparsed portion of the string [Hut92]. The combination of nondeterminism and state can be represented by the *ListOfSuccesses* monad:

```
ListOfSuccesses: Set \rightarrow Set
ListOfSuccesses a = String \rightarrow List(a \times String)
```

Since our development makes use of algebraic effects, we can introduce the effect of mutable state without having to change existing definitions. We introduce this using the *Parser* effect, which has one command *Symbol*. Calling *Symbol* will return the current symbol in the state (advancing the state by one) or fail if all symbols have been consumed.

```
data CParser: Set where
Symbol: CParser

RParser: CParser → Set

RParser Symbol = Char

Parser = mkSig CParser RParser

symbol: {{iP: Parser ∈ es}} → Free es Char

symbol {{iP}} = Op iP Symbol Pure
```

We could add more commands such as *EOF* for detecting the end of the input, but we do not need them in the current development. In the semantics we will define that parsing was successful if the input string has been completely consumed.

Note that *Parser* is not sufficient by itself to implement even simple parsers such as *dmatch*: we need to be able to choose between parsing the next character or returning a value for the empty string. This is why we usually combine *Parser* with nondeterminism and general recursion.

The denotational semantics of a parser in the *Free* monad take the form of a fold, handling each command in the *Parser* monad.

```
runParser: Free (Nondet:: Parser:: Nil) a \to ListOfSuccesses a runParser (Pure x) Nil = (x, Nil):: Nil runParser (Pure x) (\_::\_) = Nil runParser (Op \in Head Fail k) xs = Nil runParser (Op \in Head Choice k) xs = LinParser (Cop \in Head Choice k) Cop \in Head Symbol k) Symbol k)
```

In this article, we are more interested in the predicate transformer semantics of *Parser*. Since the semantics of *Parser* refer to a state, the predicates depend on this state. We can incorporate a mutable state of type s in predicate transformer semantics by replacing the propositions in *Set* with predicates over the state in $s \to Set$. We define the resulting type of stateful predicate transformers for an effect with signature e to be PT^{s} s e, as follows:

```
record PT<sup>S</sup> (s:Set) (e:Sig):Set where constructor mkPTS field pt:(c:Ce) \rightarrow (Re\ c \rightarrow s \rightarrow Set) \rightarrow s \rightarrow Set \\ mono: \forall c\ P\ P' \rightarrow (\forall x\ t \rightarrow P\ x\ t \rightarrow P'\ x\ t) \rightarrow pt\ c\ P \subseteq pt\ c\ P'
```

If we define PTs^S and lookupPTS analogously to PTs and lookupPT, we have fond a predicate transformer semantics that incorporates the current state:

```
[\![\cdot]\!]^S: (pts: \mathrm{PTs}^S s \, es) \to Free \, es \, a \to (a \to s \to Set) \to s \to Set

[\![Pure \, x]\!]^S_{pts} \, P = P \, x

[\![Op \, ic \, k]\!]^S_{pts} \, P = lookupPTS \, pts \, ic \, \lambda \, x \to [\![k \, x]\!]^S_{pts} \, P
```

In this definition for $[\cdot]^S$, we assume that all effects share access to one mutable variable of type s. We can allow for more variables by setting s to be a product type over the effects. With a suitable modification of the predicate transformers, we could set it up so that each effect can only modify its own associated variable. Thus, the previous definition is not limited in generality by writing it only for one variable.

To give the predicate transformer semantics of the *Parser* effect, we need to choose the meaning of failure, for the case where the next character is needed and all characters have already been consumed. Since we want all results returned by the parser to be correct, we use demonic choice and the *ptAll* predicate transformer as the semantics for *Nondet*. Using *ptAll*'s semantics for the *Fail* command gives the following semantics for the *Parser* effect.

```
ptParse: PT^{S} String Parser

PTS.pt ptParse Symbol P Nil = \top

PTS.pt ptParse Symbol P (x :: xs) = P x xs
```

With the predicate transformer semantics of *Parser*, we can define the language accepted by a parser in the *Free* monad as a predicate over strings: a string xs is in the language of a parser S if the postcondition "all characters have been consumed" is satisfied.

```
empty? : List a \to Set

empty? Nil = \top

empty? (\_ :: \_) = \bot

\_ \in [\_] : String \to Free (Nondet :: Parser :: Nil) <math>a \to Set

xs \in [S] = [S]_{ptAll :: ptParse :: Nil)}^{S} (\lambda \_ \to empty?) xs
```

8 Parsing context-free languages

In Section 6, we developed and formally verified a parser for regular languages. The class of regular languages is small, and does not include most programming languages. A class of languages that is more expressive than the regular languages, while remaining tractable in parsing is that of the context-free language. The expressiveness of context-free languages is enough to cover most programming languages used in practice [AU77]. We will represent context-free languages in Agda by giving a grammar in the style of Brink, Holdermans, and Löh [BHL10], in a similar way as we represent a regular language using an element of the *Regex* type. Following their development, we parametrize our definitions over a collection of non-terminal symbols.

```
record GrammarSymbols : Set where field

Nonterm : Set

[ ] : Nonterm \rightarrow Set

_{\stackrel{?}{=}} : Decidable \{A = Nonterm\} \_ == \_
```

The elements of the type *Char* are the terminal symbols. The elements of the type *Nonterm* are the non-terminal symbols, representing the language constructs. As for *Char*, we also need to

be able to decide the equality of non-terminals. The (disjoint) union of *Char* and *Nonterm* gives all the symbols that we can use in defining the grammar.

```
Symbol = Either Char Nonterm
Symbols = List Symbol
```

For each non-terminal A, our goal is to parse a string into a value of type $[\![A]\!]$, based on a set of production rules. A production rule $A \to xs$ gives a way to expand the non-terminal A into a list of symbols xs, such that successfully matching each symbol of xs with parts of a string gives a match of the string with A. Since matching a non-terminal symbol B with a (part of a) string results in a value of type $[\![B]\!]$, a production rule for A is associated with a semantic function that takes all values arising from submatches and returns a value of type $[\![A]\!]$, as expressed by the following type:

Now we can define the type of production rules. A rule of the form $A \to BcD$ is represented as $prod\ A\ (Inr\ B\ ::\ Inl\ c\ ::\ Inr\ D\ ::\ Nil)\ f$ for some f.

```
record Prod : Set where
constructor prod
field
lhs : Nonterm
rhs : Symbols
sem : || rhs || lhs ||
```

We use the abbreviation *Prods* to represent a list of productions, and a grammar will consist of the list of all relevant productions.

We want to show that a generally recursive function making use of the effects *Parser* and *Nondet* can parse any context-free grammar. To show this claim, we implement a function *fromProds* that constructs a parser for any context-free grammar given as a list of *Prods*, then formally verify the correctness of *fromProds*. Our implementation mirrors the definition of the *generateParser* function by Brink, Holdermans, and Löh, differing in the naming and in the system that the parser is written in: our implementation uses the *Free* monad and algebraic effects, while Brink, Holdermans, and Löh use a monad *Parser* that is based on parser combinators.

We start by defining two auxiliary types, used as abbreviations in our code.

```
FreeParser = Free (mkSig Nonterm [_] :: Nondet :: Parser :: Nil)

record ProdRHS (A : Nonterm) : Set where
constructor prodrhs
field
    rhs : Symbols
    sem : [ rhs || A ]]
```

The core algorithm for parsing a context-free grammar consists of the following functions, calling each other in mutual recursion:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \textit{fromProds} & : (A : Nonterm) \rightarrow \textit{FreeParser} \, \llbracket A \, \rrbracket \\ \textit{filterLHS} & : (A : Nonterm) \rightarrow \textit{Prods} \rightarrow \textit{List} \, (\textit{ProdRHS} \, A) \\ \textit{fromProd} & : \textit{ProdRHS} \, A \rightarrow \textit{FreeParser} \, \llbracket \, A \, \rrbracket \\ \textit{buildParser} & : (xs : \textit{Symbols}) \rightarrow \textit{FreeParser} \, (\llbracket \, xs \, \Vert \, A \, \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket \, A \, \rrbracket) \\ \textit{exact} & : a \rightarrow \textit{Char} \rightarrow \textit{FreeParser} \, a \end{array}
```

The main function is *fromProds*: given a non-terminal, it selects the productions with this non-terminal on the left hand side using *filterLHS*, and makes a nondeterministic choice between them.

```
filterLHS A Nil = Nil

filterLHS A (prod lhs rhs sem :: ps) with A \stackrel{?}{=} lhs

... | yes refl = prodrhs rhs sem :: filterLHS A ps

... | no _ = filterLHS A ps

fromProds A = choices (map fromProd (filterLHS A prods))
```

The *choices* operator takes a list of computations and nondeterministically chooses one of them to execute.

The function *fromProd* takes a single production and tries to parse the input string using this production. It then uses the semantic function of the production to give the resulting value.

```
from Prod (prod rhs rhs sem) = build Parser rhs \gg \lambda f \rightarrow Pure (f sem)
```

The function *buildParser* iterates over the *Symbols*, calling *exact* for each literal character symbol, and making a recursive *call* to *fromProds* for each non-terminal symbol.

```
buildParser Nil = Pure id

buildParser (Inl x :: xs) = exact tt x \gg \lambda \rightarrow b buildParser xs

buildParser (Inr B :: xs) = do

x \leftarrow call B

o \leftarrow buildParser xs

absolute{A} Pure \lambda f \rightarrow o (f x)
```

Finally, *exact* uses the *symbol* command to check that the next character in the string is as expected, and *fails* if this is not the case.

```
exact \ x \ t = symbol \gg \lambda \ t' \rightarrow \text{if } t \stackrel{?}{=} t' \text{ then } Pure \ x \text{ else } fail
```

9 Partial correctness of the parser

Partial correctness of the parser is relatively simple to show, as soon as we have a specification. Since we want to prove that *fromProds* correctly parses any given context free grammar given as an element of *Prods*, the specification consists of a relation between many sets: the production rules, an input string, a non-terminal, the output of the parser, and the remaining unparsed string. Due to the many arguments, the notation is unfortunately somewhat unwieldy. To make it a bit easier to read, we define two relations in mutual recursion, one for all productions of a non-terminal, and for matching a string with a single production rule.

```
data \_\vdash\_\in \llbracket\_\rrbracket\Rightarrow\_\_\_prods where

Produce: prod\ lhs\ rhs\ sem\in prods\to
prods\vdash xs\sim rhs\Rightarrow f\ ,ys\to
prods\vdash xs\in \llbracket\ lhs\ \rrbracket\Rightarrow f\ sem\ ,ys
data \_\vdash\_\sim\_\Rightarrow\_\_\_prods where

Done: prods\vdash xs\sim Nil\Rightarrow id\ ,xs
Next: prods\vdash xs\sim ps\Rightarrow o\ ,ys\to
prods\vdash (x::xs)\sim (Inl\ x::ps)\Rightarrow o\ ,ys
Call: prods\vdash xs\in \llbracket\ A\ \rrbracket\Rightarrow o\ ,ys\to
prods\vdash ys\sim ps\Rightarrow f\ ,zs\to
prods\vdash xs\sim (Inr\ A::ps)\Rightarrow (\lambda\ g\to f\ (g\ o))\ ,zs
```

With these relations, we can define the specification *parserSpec* to be equal to $_\vdash_\in \llbracket_\rrbracket \Rightarrow _$, (up to reordering some arguments), and show that *fromProds* refines this specification. To state that the refinement relation holds, we first need to determine the semantics of the effects. We choose *ptAll* as the semantics of nondeterminism, since we want to ensure all output of the parser is correct.

```
pts\ prods = ptRec\ (parserSpec\ prods) :: ptAll :: ptParse :: Nil 
[S]_{fromProd}\ prods = [S]_{pts\ prods}^{S}
partialCorrectness : (prods : Prods)\ (A : Nonterm) \rightarrow
[T, (parserSpec\ prods\ A)]_{spec} \sqsubseteq [fromProds\ prods\ A]_{fromProd}\ prods
```

Let us fix the production rules *prods*. How do we prove the partial correctness of a parser for *prods*? Since the structure of *fromProds* is of a nondeterministic choice between productions to be parsed, and we want to show that all alternatives for a choice result in success, we will first give a lemma expressing the correctness of each alternative. Correctness in this case is expressed by the semantics of a single production rule, i.e. the $_\vdash_\sim_\Rightarrow_,_$ relation. Thus, we want to prove the following lemma:

```
parseStep: \forall A \ xs \ P \ str \rightarrow \\ (\forall o \ str' \rightarrow prods \vdash str \sim xs \Rightarrow o \ , str' \rightarrow P \ o \ str') \rightarrow \\ \llbracket buildParser \ prods \ xs \rrbracket_{fromProd} \ prods \ P \ str \\ \end{cases}
```

The lemma can be proved by reproducing the case distinctions used to define *buildParser*; there is no complication apart from having to use the *wpToBind* lemma to deal with the _>=_ operator in a few places.

```
parseStep A Nil P t H = H id t Done

parseStep A (Inl x :: xs) P Nil H = tt

parseStep A (Inl x :: xs) P (x' :: t) H with x \stackrel{?}{=} x'

... | yes refl = parseStep A xs P t \lambda o t' H' \rightarrow H o t' (Next H')

... | no \neg p = tt

parseStep A (Inr B :: xs) P t H o t' Ho =

wpToBind (buildParser prods xs) _ _ _

(parseStep A xs _ t' \lambda o' str' Ho' \rightarrow H _ _ (Call Ho Ho'))
```

To combine the *parseStep* for each of the productions that the nondeterministic choice is made between, it is tempting to define another lemma *filterStep* by induction on the list of productions. But we must be careful that the productions that are used in the *parseStep* are the full list *prods*, not the sublist *prods'* used in the induction step. Additionally, we must also make sure that *prods'* is indeed a sublist, since using an incorrect production rule in the *parseStep* will result in an invalid result. Thus, we parametrize *filterStep* by a list *prods'* and a proof that it is a sublist of *prods*. Again, the proof uses the same distinction as *fromProds* does, and uses the *wpToBind* lemma to deal with the _>=_ operator.

```
filterStep: \forall prods' A \rightarrow (p \in prods' \rightarrow p \in prods) \rightarrow [T, (parserSpec prods A)]_{spec} \sqsubseteq [choices (map (fromProd prods) (filterLHS prods A prods'))]_{fromProd} prods filterStep Nil A subset P xs H = tt filterStep (prod lhs rhs sem :: prods') A subset P xs H with A <math>\stackrel{?}{=} lhs filterStep (prod .A rhs sem :: prods') A subset P xs (_, H) | yes refl = wpToBind (buildParser prods rhs) _ _ (parseStep A rhs _ xs \lambda o t' H' \rightarrow H _ _ (Produce (subset \in Head) H')) , filterStep prods' A (subset \circ \in Tail) P xs (_, H) ... | no ¬p = filterStep prods' A (subset \circ \in Tail) P xs H
```

With these lemmas, *partialCorrectness* just consists of applying *filterStep* to the subset of *prods* consisting of *prods* itself.

10 Termination of the parser

To show termination we need a somewhat more subtle argument: since we are able to call the same non-terminal repeatedly, termination cannot be shown simply by inspecting each alternative in the definition. Consider the grammar given by $E \to aE; E \to b$, where we see that the string that matches E in the recursive case is shorter than the original string, but the definition itself can be expanded to unbounded length. By taking into account the current state, i.e. the string to be parsed, in the variant, we can show that a decreasing string length leads to termination.

But not all grammars feature this decreasing string length in the recursive case, with the most pathological case being those of the form $E \to E$. The issues do not only occur in edge cases: the grammar $E \to E + E; E \to 1$ representing very simple expressions will already result in non-termination for fromProds as it will go in recursion on the first non-terminal without advancing the input string. Since the position in the string and current non-terminal together fully determine the state of fromParsers, it will not terminate. We need to ensure that the grammars passed to the parser do not allow for such loops.

Intuitively, the condition on the grammars should be that they are not left-recursive, since in that case, the parser should always advance its position in the string before it encounters the same non-terminal. This means that the number of recursive calls to *fromProds* is bounded by the length of the string times the number of different non-terminals occurring in the production rules. The type we will use to describe the predicate "there is no left recursion" is constructively somewhat stronger: we define a left-recursion chain from A to B to be a sequence of non-terminals $A, \ldots, A_i, A_{i+1}, \ldots, B$, such that for each adjacent pair A_i, A_{i+1} in the chain, there is a production of the form $A_{i+1} \to B_1B_2 \ldots B_nA_i \ldots$, where $B_1 \ldots B_n$ are all non-terminals. In other words, we can

advance the parser to A starting in B without consuming a character. Disallowing (unbounded) left recursion is not a limitation for our parsers: Brink, Holdermans, and Löh [BHL10] have shown that the left-corner transform can transform left-recursive grammars into an equivalent grammar without left recursion. Moreover, they have implemented this transform, including formal verification, in Agda. In this work, we assume that the left-corner transform has already been applied if needed, so that there is an upper bound on the length of left-recursive chains in the grammar.

We formalize one link of this left-recursive chain in the type *LRec*, while a list of such links forms the *Chain* data type.

```
record LRec\ (prods: Prods)\ (A\ B: Nonterm): Set\ where field rec: <math>prod\ A\ (map\ Inr\ xs\ ++\ (Inr\ B\ ::\ ys))\ sem\ \in\ prods
```

(We leave xs, ys and sem as implicit fields of LRec, since they are fixed by the type of rec.)

```
data Chain (prods : Prods) : Nonterm \rightarrow Nonterm \rightarrow Set where
Nil : Chain prods A A
\_::\_: LRec prods B A \rightarrow Chain prods A C \rightarrow Chain prods B C
```

Now we say that a set of productions has no left recursion if all such chains have an upper bound on their length.

```
chainLength: Chain prods A B \to \mathbb{N}

chainLength Nil = 0

chainLength (c :: cs) = Succ (chainLength cs)

leftRecBound: Prods \to \mathbb{N} \to Set

leftRecBound prods n = (cs : Chain prods A B) \to chainLength cs < n
```

If we have this bound on left recursion, we are able to prove termination, since each call to *fromProds* will be made either after we have consumed an extra character, or it is a left-recursive step, of which there is an upper bound on the sequence.

This informal proof fits better with a different notion of termination than in the petrol-driven semantics. The petrol-driven semantics are based on a syntactic argument: we know a computation terminates because expanding the call tree will eventually result in no more *calls*. Here, we want to capture the notion that a recursive definition terminates if all recursive calls are made to a smaller argument, according to a well-founded relation.

Definition 2 ([Acz77]) In intuitionistic type theory, we say that a relation $_ \prec _$ on a type a is well-founded if all elements x:a are accessible, which is defined by (well-founded) recursion to be the case if all elements in the downset of x are accessible.

```
data Acc (\_ \prec \_ : a \rightarrow a \rightarrow Set) : a \rightarrow Set where acc : (\forall y \rightarrow y \prec x \rightarrow Acc \_ \prec \_ y) \rightarrow Acc \_ \prec \_ x
```

To see that this is equivalent to the definition of well-foundedness in set theory, recall that a relation $_ \prec _$ on a set a is well-founded if and only if there is a monotone function from a to a well-founded order. Since all inductive data types are well-founded, and the termination

checker ensures that the argument to acc is a monotone function, there is a function from x:a to $Acc \prec x$ if and only if $x \prec x$ is a well-founded relation in the set-theoretic sense.

The condition that all calls are made to a smaller argument is related to the notion of a loop variant in imperative languages. While an invariant is a predicate that is true at the start and end of each looping step, the variant is a relation that holds between successive looping steps.

Definition 3 Given a recursive definition $f: I \overset{es}{\hookrightarrow} O$, a relation $_ \prec _$ on C is a recursive variant if for each argument c, and each recursive call made to c' in the evaluation of f c, we have $c' \prec c$. Formally:

```
variant': (pts: \operatorname{PTs}^S s \ (mkSig \ C \ R :: es)) \ (f: C \overset{es}{\hookrightarrow} R)
(\_ \prec\_: (C \times s) \to (C \times s) \to Set)
(c: C) \ (t: s) \ (S: Free \ (mkSig \ C \ R :: es) \ a) \to s \to Set
variant' \ pts \ f \ \_ \prec\_ c \ t \ (Pure \ x) \ t' = \top
variant' \ pts \ f \ \_ \prec\_ c \ t \ (Op \in \operatorname{Head} c' \ k) \ t'
= ((c', t') \prec (c, t)) \times lookupPTS \ pts \in \operatorname{Head} c'
(\lambda \ x \to variant' \ pts \ f \ \_ \prec\_ c \ t \ (k \ x)) \ t'
variant' \ pts \ f \ \_ \prec\_ c \ t \ (Op \ (\in \operatorname{Tail} i) \ c' \ k) \ t'
= lookupPTS \ pts \ (\in \operatorname{Tail} i) \ c' \ (\lambda \ x \to variant' \ pts \ f \ \_ \prec\_ c \ t \ (k \ x)) \ t'
variant: \ (pts: \operatorname{PTs}^S \ s \ (mkSig \ C \ R :: es)) \ (f: C \overset{es}{\hookrightarrow} R) \to
(\_ \prec\_ : \ (C \times s) \to (C \times s) \to Set) \to Set
variant \ pts \ f \ \_ \prec\_ c \ t \ (fc) \ t
```

Note that *variant* depends on the semantics *pts* we give to the recursive function f. We cannot derive the semantics in *variant* from the structure of f as we do for the petrol-driven semantics, since we do not yet know whether f terminates. Using *variant*, we can define another termination condition on f: there is a well-founded variant for f.

```
record Termination (pts : PTs<sup>S</sup> s (mkSig C R :: es)) (f : C \stackrel{es}{\hookrightarrow} R) : Set where field
 \_ \prec \_ : (C \times s) \to (C \times s) \to Set 
 w - f : \forall c \ t \to Acc \_ \prec \_ (c, t) 
 var : variant \ pts \ f \_ \prec \_
```

A generally recursive function that terminates in the petrol-driven semantics also has a well-founded variant, given by the well-order $_<_$ on the amount of fuel consumed by each call. The converse also holds: if we have a descending chain of calls cs after calling f with argument c, we can use induction on the type $Acc _ \prec _ c$ to bound the length of cs. This bound gives the amount of fuel consumed by evaluating a call to f on c.

In our case, the relation *RecOrder* will work as a recursive variant for *fromProds*:

```
data RecOrder (prods : Prods) : (x \ y : Nonterm \times String) \rightarrow Set where
Left : length str < length str' \rightarrow
RecOrder prods (A, str) (B, str')
Right : length str \leq length str' \rightarrow
LRec prods (A, str) (B, str')
```

With the definition of RecOrder, we can complete the correctness proof of fromProds, by giving an element of the corresponding Termination type. We assume that the length of recursion is bounded by bound: \mathbb{N} .

```
from Prods Terminates: \forall prods bound \rightarrow left Rec Bound prods bound \rightarrow Termination (pts prods) (from Prods prods)
Termination.\_ \prec\_ (from Prods Terminates prods bound H) = Rec Order prods
```

To show that the relation RecOrder is well-founded, we need to show that there is no infinite descending chain starting from some non-terminal A and string str. The proof is based on iteration on two natural numbers n and k, which form an upper bound on the number of allowed left-recursive calls in sequence and unconsumed characters in the string respectively. Note that the number bound is an upper bound for n and the length of the input string is an upper bound for k. Since each non-terminal in the production will decrease n and each terminal will decrease k, we eventually reach the base case n0 for either. If n is zero, we have made more than n0 left-recursive calls, contradicting the assumption that we have bounded left recursion. If n1 is zero, we have consumed more than n1 length n2 characters of n3 a contradiction.

```
Termination.w – f (fromProdsTerminates prods bound H) A str = acc (go A str (length str) \leq-refl bound Nil \leq-refl) where go: \forall A str \rightarrow (k: \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow length str \leq k \rightarrow (n: \mathbb{N}) (cs: Chain\ prods\ A\ B) \rightarrow bound \leq chain\ Length\ cs + n \rightarrow \forall\ y \rightarrow RecOrder\ prods\ y\ (A, str) \rightarrow Acc\ (RecOrder\ prods)\ y
```

Our next goal is that RecOrder is a variant for fromProds, as abbreviated by the prodsVariant type. We cannot follow the definitions of fromProds as closely as we did for the partial correctness proof; instead we need a complicated case distinction to keep track of the left-recursive chain we have followed in the proof. For this reason, we split the parseStep apart into two lemmas parseStepAdv and parseStepRec, both showing that buildParser maintains the variant. We also use a filterStep lemma that calls the correct parseStep for each production in the nondeterministic choice.

```
prodsVariant = variant' (pts prods) (fromProds prods) (RecOrder prods) \\ parseStepAdv : \forall A xs str str' \rightarrow length str' < length str \rightarrow \\ prodsVariant A str (buildParser xs) str' \\ parseStepRec : \forall A xs str str' \rightarrow length str' \leq length str \rightarrow \\ \forall ys \rightarrow prod A (map Inr ys ++ xs) sem \in prods \rightarrow \\ prodsVariant A str (buildParser xs) str' \\ filterStep : \forall prods' \rightarrow (x \in prods' \rightarrow x \in prods) \rightarrow \\ \forall A str str' \rightarrow length str' \leq length str \rightarrow \\ prodsVariant A str \\ (foldr (choice) (fail) (map fromProd (filterLHS A prods'))) \\ str' \\ \end{cases}
```

In the *parseStepAdv*, we deal with the situation that the parser has already consumed at least one character since it was called. This means we can repeatedly use the *Left* constructor of *RecOrder* to show the variant holds.

In the *parseStepRec*, we deal with the situation that the parser has only encountered non-terminals in the current production. This means that we can use the *Right* constructor of *RecOrder* to show the variant holds until we consume a character, after which we call *parseStepAdv* to finish the proof.

The lemma *filterStep* shows that the variant holds on all subsets of the production rules, analogously to the *filterStep* of the partial correctness proof. It calls *parseStepRec* since the parser only starts consuming characters after it selects a production rule.

```
filterStep Nil A str str' lt subset = tt

filterStep (prod lhs rhs sem :: prods') subset A str str' lt with A \stackrel{?}{=} lhs

... | yes refl

= variant - fmap (pts prods) (fromProds prods) (buildParser rhs)

(parseStepRec A rhs str str' lt Nil (subset \in Head))

, filterStep prods' (subset \circ \in Tail) A str str' lt

... | no \neg p = filterStep prods' (subset \circ \in Tail) A str str' lt
```

As for partial correctness, we obtain the proof of termination by applying *filterStep* to the subset of *prods* consisting of *prods* itself.

11 Discussion

11.1 Related work

In this paper, we have described a representation of parsers and shown how to perform verification of parsers in this representation. We will discuss how our work relates to other parser verifications. Our sections on regular expressions have a similar structure to a Functional Pearl by Harper [Har99]. The main difference is that our work is based on formal verification using Agda, while Harper uses manual and informal reasoning. The sections on context-free grammars could be compared to work by Danielsson [Dan10] and Firsov [Fir16]. Here the difference, apart from a different parsing algorithm, can be found in how (non)termination is dealt with. We opt for a strong separation of syntax and semantics, using the *Rec* effect to give the syntax of programs regardless of termination, later proving the semantic property of termination. In contrast, Danielsson; Firsov deal with termination syntactically, either by incorporating delay and force operators in the grammar, or explicitly passing around a proof of termination in the definition of the parser.

A different representation of languages used in verification is the coinductive trie [Abe16]. The approach of Abel is in the opposite direction to ours: in order to verify constructions on automata, the language they accept is mapped to a trie, then this trie is compared to the trie that we get by applying the corresponding constructions on tries. Similarly, Abel, Adelsberger, and Setzer [AAS17] use a coinductive type to represent effectful programs with arbitrarily large input. These two coinductive constructions carry proofs of productivity, in the form of sized types, in their definitions, again mixing syntax and semantics.

11.2 Open issues

In the process of this verification, we have solved some open issues in the area of predicate transformer semantics and leave others open. Swierstra and Baanen [SB19] mention two avenues

of further work that our work makes advances on: the semantics for combinations of effects and the verification of non-trivial programs using algebraic effects. Still, we chose to verify parsers with applying predicate transformers to them in the back of our mind, so the goal of verifying a practical program remains a step further.

We have described how coproducts allow for combinations of effect syntax and semantics, but not how these combinations interact with effect handlers. The interaction between different effects means applying handlers in a different order can result in different semantics. We assign predicate transformer semantics to a combination of effects all at once, specifying their interaction explicitly. Can we assign semantics to effects such that they interact in a similar way as handlers do?

Another issue that remains is dealing with other representations of the free monad. The *Free* datatype could be replaced with more efficient versions to run practical computations [KSS13; KI15]. We expect that predicate transformer semantics, although arising from a fold on the *Free* monad, will generalize without problems to these more advanced representations.

11.3 Conclusions

In conclusion, the two distinguishing features of our work are formality and modularity. We could introduce the combination of effects, petrol-driven termination, semantics for state and variant-based termination without impacting existing definitions. We strictly separate the syntax and semantics of the programs, and partial correctness from termination. This results in verification proofs that do not need to carry around many goals, allowing most of them to consist of unfolding the definition and filling in the obvious terms.

We should also note that the engineering effort expected by Swierstra and Baanen has not been needed for our paper. The optimist can conclude that the elegance of our framework caused it to prevent the feared level of complication; the pessimist can conclude that the real hard work will be required as soon as we encounter a real-world application.

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