



# Advanced Functional Programming

Week 7 – Parsing in General, Parsec

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## Last Week

- evaluation of monadic code heavily depends on underlying monad
  - example 1: difference in strictness of ;
  - example 2: in some monads consecutive ; might result in nested loops
- combining multiple `State`-monads using datatypes with record syntax
- combination of monads using the `RWS`-monad
- example application: Tseitin
- error monads, `MonadFail` and irrefutable patterns

# Parsing in General

## Towards Parsing of Context Free Languages

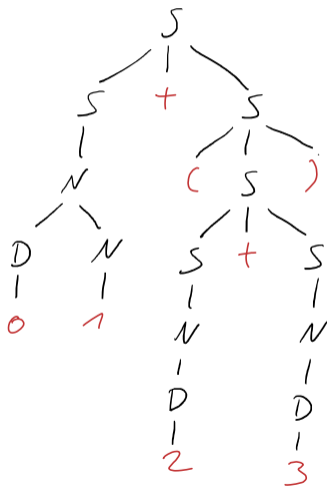
- languages can be described by formal grammars
- most basic version: **context free grammars** (CFG)
- $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$  is a CFG where
  - $V$  is a finite set of non-terminal symbols
  - $\Sigma$  is a finite set of terminal symbols
  - $R$  is a finite set of rules of the form  $A \rightarrow w$  with  $A \in V$  and  $w \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$
  - $S$  is the starting symbol
- in examples we often just indicate the rules of a grammar;  
moreover we write  $A \rightarrow w_1 \mid w_2 \mid \dots$  to indicate rules  $A \rightarrow w_1, A \rightarrow w_2, \dots$
- example:  $G = \{S \rightarrow (S) \mid S + S \mid N, \quad N \rightarrow DN \mid D, \quad D \rightarrow 0 \mid \dots \mid 9\}$ 
  - implicit  $V = \{S, N, D\}$
  - implicit  $\Sigma = \{0, \dots, 9, +, (, )\}$
  - $D$  generates digits
  - $N$  generates natural numbers
  - $S$  generates arithmetic expressions involving numbers, additions, and parenthesis

## Context Free Languages and Syntax Trees

- given a CFG  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$  a **syntax tree**  $t$  of  $G$  has all of the following properties
  - the root of  $t$  is  $S$
  - for every subtree  $u$  of  $t$  with root  $A \in V$  there is a rule  $A \rightarrow w \in R$  such that  $u$  has  $|w|$  many subtrees and the roots of these subtrees are exactly  $w$
  - every subtree  $u$  of  $t$  with root  $a \in \Sigma$  is a leaf
- a syntax tree produces the word that is obtained when traversing the terminal symbols from left to right
- $L(G) \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is the **language** of the grammar;  
it consists of those words that are produced by the set of all syntax trees of  $G$
- a **language**  $L'$  is **context free** if there is some CFG  $G$  such that  $L' = L(G)$

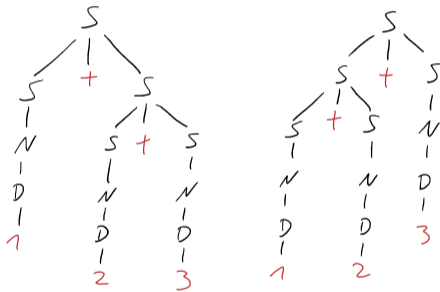
## Example: Syntax Tree

- consider  $G = \{S \rightarrow (S) \mid S + S \mid N, \quad N \rightarrow DN \mid D, \quad D \rightarrow 0 \mid \dots \mid 9\}$  from before
- the following syntax tree proves  $01 + (2 + 3) \in L(G)$



## Ambiguity

- consider  $G = \{S \rightarrow (S) \mid S + S \mid N, \quad N \rightarrow DN \mid D, \quad D \rightarrow 0 \mid \dots \mid 9\}$  from before
- there is only 1 syntax tree that produces  $01 + (2 + 3)$ , but in general there might be several syntax trees for the same word
- example: there are two syntax trees for  $1 + 2 + 3$



- if there are multiple syntax trees for some word, then  $G$  is **ambiguous**
- another example of ambiguity: `if b then if c then x++ else y++`

## Some Facts About CFGs

- given  $w$  and CFG  $G$ , the question  $w \in L(G)$  is decidable in cubic time (CYK algorithm)
- sometimes ambiguous CFGs can be transformed into language-equivalent non-ambiguous CFGs
  - example grammar  $G$  from before is equivalent to the following non-ambiguous grammar  $G'$ 
    - $G'$  copies rules for  $N$  and  $D$  from  $G$
    - $G'$  also has rules  $\{S \rightarrow T + S \mid T, \quad T \rightarrow (S) \mid N\}$
- given CFGs  $G$  and  $G'$ , it is undecidable whether  $L(G) = L(G')$
- given CFG  $G$ , it is undecidable whether  $G$  is ambiguous
- there are inherently ambiguous context free languages where no non-ambiguous CFG exists
  - $L' = \{a^n b^n c^m d^m \mid n, m > 0\} \cup \{a^n b^m c^m d^n \mid n, m > 0\}$  is context free
  - if  $L(G) = L'$  and  $n > 0$  then the word  $a^n b^n c^n d^n$  has at least two syntax trees in  $G$
- further literature: Hopcraft, Ullman: Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages and Computation



## Equivalence of $G$ and $G'$

- $G = \{S \rightarrow (S) \mid S + S \mid N, \quad N \rightarrow DN \mid D, \quad D \rightarrow 0 \mid \dots \mid 9\}$
- $G' = \{S \rightarrow T + S \mid T, \quad T \rightarrow (S) \mid N, \quad N \rightarrow DN \mid D, \quad D \rightarrow 0 \mid \dots \mid 9\}$
- equivalence is proved in two steps
- we write  $L_G(A)$  for the language produced by CFG  $G$  where the start symbol is replaced by  $A$ 
  - $L_{G'}(S) \cup L_{G'}(T) \subseteq L_G(S)$ : by induction on the size of the syntax tree
  - $L_G(S) \subseteq L_{G'}(S)$ : by induction on the following size of the syntax tree  $t$  where  $size(S \rightarrow S_1 + S_2) = 1 + size(S_1) + 2 \cdot size(S_2)$ , and the size of all other trees is 1
    - if  $t$  uses  $S \rightarrow N \in G$  at the root, then  $S \rightarrow N \in G'$  is also possible
    - if  $t$  uses  $S \rightarrow (S_1) \in G$  at the root, then we can simulate it by  $S \rightarrow T \rightarrow (S_1) \in G'$  and then apply the IH for the tree with root  $S_1$
    - if  $t$  uses  $S \rightarrow S_1 + S_2 \in G$  at the root and  $S_1$  is continued by  $S_1 \rightarrow N \in G$ , then we simulate it by  $S \rightarrow T + S_2 \rightarrow N + S_2 \in G'$  and apply the IH for the tree with root  $S_2$
    - if  $t$  uses  $S \rightarrow S_1 + S_2 \in G$  at the root and  $S_1$  is continued by  $S_1 \rightarrow (S_3) \in G$ , then we simulate it by  $S \rightarrow T + S_2 \rightarrow (S_3) + S_2 \in G'$  and apply IHs for  $S_2$  and  $S_3$
    - if  $t$  uses  $S \rightarrow S_1 + S_2 \in G$  at the root and  $S_1$  is continued by  $S_1 \rightarrow S_3 + S_4 \in G$ , then we rotate the tree to  $S \rightarrow S_3 + S_5$  where  $S_5 \rightarrow S_4 + S_2$ , and apply the IH

## Parsing of CFGs

- general task: given a CFG and some input word  $w$ 
  - return the unique syntax tree that generates  $w$
  - or report that this is not possible (none or more than one syntax trees)
- problems and challenges
  - efficiency: general case has at least cubic complexity, but one wants to have linear algorithm; often: traverse the input from left to right exactly once
  - more expressive forms of grammars are welcome: transforming  $G$  to  $G'$  for getting non-ambiguity is tedious and not very readable
    - Backus-Naur-Form (BNF) is more concise than CFG
    - use grammars such as  $G$  and specify priorities and left/right associativity of operators
  - full syntax tree is often too verbose
    - drop  $S \rightarrow (S)$  and  $S \rightarrow T$  in  $G'$
    - collapse  $N$  subtrees to a single number
    - in general: provide not only grammar specification, but also result specification
  - detailed and helpful error reporting

# Approaches to Getting a Parser

- use parser generators (in Haskell: happy)
  - disadvantage
    - might require to specify grammars in specific shape (LL(1), LALR(1))
    - error reporting requires technical knowledge (resolve shift-reduce conflict, ...)
    - fixed feature set
  - advantages
    - static checks on grammar
    - guaranteed linear time
    - take care of user error messages in generated parser
- use parser combinators (in Haskell: Parsec)
  - disadvantages
    - less automation
    - might become inefficient, no static checks
  - advantages
    - no formal specification of an input grammar required: the code is the spec
    - many building blocks that simplify the task of writing a parser and reading it
    - full flexibility of the programming language (arbitrary features)
    - adjustment of parsing possible on the fly, e.g., when reading new infix-operator from user
    - easy to control generated output

## Parsing in Phases: Lexical Analysis

- parsing can be performed in two phases: **lexical analysis** (lexing, **tokenization**) and parsing
- lexical analysis is often done using regular languages
- purpose of tokenization: simplify latter parsing phase
- examples
  - simplify  $G = \{G = \{S \rightarrow (S) \mid S + S \mid N, \quad N \rightarrow DN \mid D, \quad D \rightarrow 0 \mid \dots \mid 9\}$  to  $G' = \{S \rightarrow (S) \mid S + S \mid \textit{number}\}$  where tokenization converts list of digits into single **number** token (with integer stored inside)
  - tokenization can **remove all comments** and can **take care of whitespace**
  - tokenization can **identify keywords** and distinguish them from standard names
  - example: tokenizer might convert string

`"if someBool then foo else 832"`

into token list

`[KeywIf, Name "someBool", KeywThen, Name "foo", KeywElse, Number 832]`

- tool examples: flex does lexical analysis and bison does parsing

Parsec

## Parsec

- **Parsec** is a Haskell library for parsing based on parser combinators
- it can be used both to write single phase parsers, but also supports many phase parsing
- Parsec has been used in other projects, e.g., to write parsers for CSV, JSON and bibtex
- documentation: <https://hackage.haskell.org/package/parsec>
- alternatives to obtain parsers in Haskell that are not (further) discussed in this course
  - use parser generator such as Happy
  - use alternative parser combinator library such as Attoparsec
  - use advanced fork of Parsec such as Megaparsec
  - don't use any library, e.g., for parsing raw PGM files
- **parser combinators**: assemble complex parsers from simpler ones via combinators

## Important Types in Parsec

- `type Parsec s u a = ...`
  - `Parsec s u` is an instance of `MonadFail`
  - `s` is the type of input stream, e.g., `ByteString`, `String`, `[Token]`, ...
  - `u` is the user state type
    - Parsec has its own state, e.g., to keep track of position in input
    - `u` can be used as an additional state that is under user control
    - initially: choose no user state, so `u = ()`
  - `a` is return type upon successful parsing, e.g. `Int`, `String`, `Expr`, `AbstractSyntaxTree`
- `type Parser = Parsec String ()` parsing from a string without user state
- `type GenParser tok u = Parsec [tok] u` parsing from a token list with user state `u`
- `data ParseError = ...` type to encapsulate error, instance of `Show`
- `type SourceName = String`
- running a parser, where `s` needs to be stream type

```
parse :: Parsec s () a -> SourceName -> s -> Either ParseError a
```

## First Example: Parsing CSV Files

- CSV = comma separated values
- heavily used for importing and exporting data of spread sheets
- CSV file is ASCII file
  - each line represents one row in table, and must be terminated by end-of-line
  - each line consists of cells that are separated by commas (,)
  - special treatment for cells whose content contains comma

- example content of CSV file

```
name,matrikel number,skz,email
max m.,123456,521,max@uibk.at
nina n.,654321,921,nina@uibk.at
junior,,junior@school.at
```

- we will develop several versions of parsers for CSV, first ignoring cells with comma
- note: input to `parse` is `String`, getting file content must be done separately



## First Version (Demo07\_Parser\_CSV\_V1)

```
csv :: Parser [[String]]
```

```
csv = do
```

```
  result <- many line
  eof >> return result
```

```
line :: Parser [String]
```

```
line = do
```

```
  result <- cells
  eol >> return result
```

```
cells :: Parser [String]
```

```
cells = do
```

```
  firstC <- cellContent
  nextC <- remainingCells
  return $ firstC : nextC
```

```
remainingCells :: Parser [String]
```

```
remainingCells =
```

```
  (char ',' >> cells)
  <|> return []
```

```
cellContent :: Parser String
```

```
cellContent = many (noneOf ",\n")
```

```
eol :: Parser ()
```

```
eol = char '\n' >> return ()
```

```
parseCSV :: String ->
```

```
  Either ParseError [[String]]
```

```
parseCSV input =
```

```
  parse csv "(unknown)" input
```

## Explanations

- `many :: GenParser tok u a -> GenParser tok u [a]`
  - `many p` applies `p` iteratively, until it fails
  - `many p` always succeeds, results are stored and returned as list
- `eof :: Show tok => GenParser tok u ()`
  - successful, if and only if the input stream has been fully consumed
- `noneOf :: [Char] -> GenParser Char u Char`
  - `noneOf f` reads the next character from the input
  - successful, if and only if this character is not among the forbidden characters `f`
  - on failure, no character is consumed
- `char :: Char -> GenParser Char u Char`
  - similar to `noneOf`, except that one provides exactly the character that is expected
- `(<|>) :: Parsec s u a -> Parsec s u a -> Parsec s u a`
  - `p1 <|> p2` first tries `p1`
  - if `p1` is successful, then the result of `p1` is returned
  - otherwise, `p2` is executed and that result is returned
  - `p1` should not consume input if it fails (will be discussed later); hint:  
`parse ((many (noneOf "ab")) >> char 'a') <|> char 'c') "file" "ceeeb" fails`

## Example Invocations

- `parseCSV "Hello,Parsec\n"`  
Right `[["Hello","Parsec"]]`
- `parseCSV "a,,b\n\nc,d\n"`  
Right `[["a","","b"],[""],["c","d"]]`
- `parseCSV "Hello,Parsec"`  
Left `"(unknown)" (line 1, column 13):`  
`unexpected end of input`  
`expecting ",", " or "\n"`
- first examples illustrate correct behavior on sample CSV strings
- last example shows that we get useful error messages by using existing framework

## Towards Tuning the Parser: `sepBy`

- upcoming: write more concise parsers by using further combinators
- `sepBy :: Parsec s u a -> Parsec s u sep -> Parsec s u [a]`
  - `sepBy p1 p2` takes a parser `p1` for elements of type `a` and a parser `p2` for separators `sep`
  - first `p1` is invoked to parse the first element
    - if this first invocation fails, then `[]` is returned
  - otherwise, alternating, a separator and a next element is parsed until no separator is occurring any more, and the gathered elements are returned
  - if during this process `p1` fails, then also `sepBy p1 p2` fails
- examples for `pSep = parse (sepBy (noneOf ",c") (char ',')) "unk"`
  - `pSep "b"` succeeds and returns `"b"`
  - `pSep "ba"` succeeds and returns `"b"`
  - `pSep "c"` succeeds and returns `""`
  - `pSep "b,a,d,e"` succeeds and returns `"bade"`
  - `pSep "b,a,"` fails
  - `pSep "b,a,c"` fails

## Towards Tuning the Parser: `endBy`

- `endBy` is similar to `sepBy`
  - same type, takes element parser and separator parser
  - iteratively parses `p1` and `p2` in sequence, until `p1` fails
  - all gathered elements will be returned
  - if during this process `p2` fails, then also `endBy p1 p2` fails
- examples for `pEnd = parse (sepBy (noneOf ".c") (char '.')) "unk"`
  - `pEnd "b"` fails
  - `pEnd "bb"` fails
  - `pEnd "b."` succeeds and returns `"b"`
  - `pEnd "b.."` succeeds and returns `"b"`
  - `pEnd "b.b"` fails
  - `pEnd "c"` succeeds and returns `""`
  - `pEnd "b.a.d.e."` succeeds and returns `"bade"`

## A More Concise Parser

```
csv = endBy line eol
eol = char '\n'
line = sepBy cell (char ',')
cell = many (noneOf ",\n")
```

```
parseCSV :: String -> Either ParseError [[String]]
parseCSV input = parse csv "(unknown)" input
```

- parser definition can be read as specification of CSV
- no formal grammar required

## Extending the Parsing of EOL

- currently: `eol = char 'n'`
- problem: depending on OS, end-of-line might also be `"\n\r"`
- extended primitive of `char`: `string :: String -> GenParser Char u String`
- try 1: `eol = string "\n" <|> string "\n\r"`
  - problem: `parse (eol >> eof) "(unknown)" "\n\r"` fails
  - reason: only `"\n"` is consumed
- try 2: `eol = string "\n\r" <|> string "\n"`
  - problem: `parse (eol >> eof) "(unknown)" "\n"` fails
  - reason: `"\n"` is consumed while trying parser `string "\n\r"`
- **lookahead task**: peek at the upcoming symbol(s) without consuming them
- Parsec's mechanism for lookahead will be explained on next slides
- solution without this mechanism  
`eol = char '\n' >> (char '\r' <|> return '\n') >> return ()`

# Try

- situation: parser might fail, but still consume some input
  - running `string "Hello"` on input `"Hellas is a name for Greece"`  
will lead to failing state with the remaining input `"as is a name for Greece"`
- solution: `try :: GenParser tok u a -> GenParser tok u a`
  - if `p` succeeds, then `try p` succeeds
  - if `p` fails, then `try p` fails, but the parsing state is modified in such a way as if `p` did not consume any input at all
- consequence: `try (string "Hello")` either succeeds or does not modify the input
- usually `try` is used on left-hand sides of `<|>`
  - there are exceptions, since some functions might use `<|>` internally
- improved parser for end of line

```
eol = (try (string "\n\r")
  <|> try (string "\r\n")
  <|> string "\n"      -- for single char parsers, try has no effect
  <|> string "\r") >> return ()
```



## Error Handling: fail

- situation: parser can accept multiple line endings
  - `parseCSV "line1\r\nline2\nline3\n\rline4\rline5\n"`  
`Right [["line1"],["line2"],["line3"],["line4"],["line5"]]`
- error message are not optimal: too low level
  - `parseCSV "line1"`  
`Left "(unknown)" (line 1, column 6):`  
`unexpected end of input`  
`expecting ",", "\n\r", "\r\n", "\n" or "\r"`
- since `Parsec s u` is an instance of `MonadFail` we may use `fail "message"`

```
eol = (try (string "\n\r")
  <|> try (string "\r\n")
  <|> string "\n"
  <|> string "\r"
  <|> fail "Couldn't find EOL") >> return ()
```
- problem: error message is just added when using `fail`

## Error Handling: <?> (Demo07\_Parser\_CSV\_V2)

- error message are still not optimal
  - `parseCSV "line1"`  
Left "(unknown)" (line 1, column 6):  
unexpected end of input  
expecting ",", "\n\r", "\r\n", "\n" or "\r"  
Could not find EOL
- solution: (<?>) :: `Parsec s u a -> String -> Parsec s u a`
  - `p <?> msg` is similar to `p <|> fail msg`
  - difference: if `p` fails and does not consume input, then `msg` is used as high-level error message

```
eol = (try (string "\n\r") <|> try (string "\r\n")  
      <|> string "\n" <|> string "\r"  
      <?> "end of line") >> return ()
```

- `parseCSV "line1"`  
Left "(unknown)" (line 1, column 6):  
unexpected end of input  
expecting "," or end of line

## Extended Example: Full CSV

- CSV cells might also contain commas
- standard solution: put double quotation marks around cells
- next problem: how to handle double quotation marks
- standard solution: use double double quotation marks

- example CSV file

```
Ralph,"chess, reading and swimming",18
John Michael "Ozzy" Osbourne,music,??
some,"""easy""", nice exercise","hello
world"
```

- expected output of `parseCSV` on this input

```
Right [
  ["Ralph","chess, reading and swimming","18"],
  ["John Michael \"Ozzy\" Osbourne","music","??"],
  ["some","\"easy\"", " nice exercise","hello\nworld"]
]
```

## Extended Parser (Demo07\_Parser\_CSV\_V3)

- only one change required in parser: the `cell` parser
- previous solution: `cell = many (noneOf ",\n")`
- new, extended cell parser  
`cell = quotedCell <|> many (noneOf ",\n")`

```
quotedCell =  
  do _ <- char '"'  
      content <- many quotedChar  
      _ <- char '"' <?> "missing closing quote at end of cell"  
      return content
```

```
quotedChar =  
  noneOf "\""  
  <|> try (string "\"\"") >> return ''
```

- note: `try` on rhs of `<|>`; usage required, since `quotedChar` is used inside `many`

## Overview of Primitives and Combinators

- `space` (or `spaces`): parse a (or many) white space
- `char c`: parse the single character `c`
- `noneOf bad`: parse any character that is not forbidden
- `oneOf good`: parse any allowed character
- `string s`: parse the given string `s` (beware of partial consumption)
- `many p`: apply `p` as often as possible
- `many1 p`: apply `p` as often as possible, but at least once
- `between pOpen p pClose`: applies all three parsers in sequence, returns result of `p`
- `p1 <|> p2`: apply `p1` first; if that fails, apply `p2`
- `p1 <?> msg`: drop potential error of `p1` in `p1 <|> fail msg`
- `choice [p1, ..., pn]`: same as `p1 <|> ... <|> pn`
- `eof`: check whether input has completely been consumed
- `try p`: if `p` fails, restore the consumed input of `p`
- <https://hackage.haskell.org/package/parsec/docs/Text-Parsec-Char.html>
- <https://hackage.haskell.org/package/parsec/docs/Text-Parsec-Combinator.html>

## Exercises

- develop a parser for the ARI format
- see `Exercise07.hs` for further details
- see <https://project-coco.uibk.ac.at/ARI/> and <https://project-coco.uibk.ac.at/ARI/trs.php> for the format
- example

```
; @author some one
; @author another one
; @origin some location
; just a comment
(format TRS)
(fun + 2)
(fun 0 0)
(fun s 1)
(rule (+ x 0) x)
(rule (+ x (s y)) (s (+ x y)))
```

## Literature

- Real World Haskell, Chapter 16