Lec 21: Monadic Parser

CS220: Programming Principles

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Metalinguistic Abstraction

A form of language for describing another language. This allows us to better understand a computation problem by using a new language.

Can we leverage F# (or any other language) to describe and evaluate another language?

Writing an Interpreter

An evaluator (or interpreter) for a programming language is a procedure that, when applied to an expression of the language, performs the actions required to evaluate that expression $^{\rm 1}.$

An interpreter is just another program.

¹ Excerpt from the Wizard book Ch. 4.

Why?

We have been simply *using* programming languages to develop a program. However, most powerful programmers should be able to design their own languages for their needs: we should become a *designer* of programming languages, but not merely a user.

Interpretation

Interpreter.

```
module Interpreter =
 let grammar = // embedded grammar
  let context = // initial context
  let interpret (source: string) =
    parse grammar source // Grammar -> string -> AST
    | > evaluate context // AST -> Context -> Context
```
Interpretation runs in two major steps: parse and evaluate. We will discuss the details one by one.

Attendance Check

Note:

- 1. This slide appears at random time during the class.
- 2. This link is only valid for a few minutes.
- 3. We don't accept late responses.

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Parsing is the process of transforming a string into an Abstract Syntax Tree (AST) based on a grammar.

val parse: Grammar -> string -> AST

AST is a tree representing the syntactic structure of a program (or written words in a language).

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AST is Not Ambiguous

A language usually has some ambiguity, but an AST does not. For example, $1+2\times 3$ may mean either $(1+2)\times 3$ or $1+(2\times 3)$ depending on the precedence of the $+$ and \times operator. However, the AST in the previous page is not ambiguous.

AST is Abstract

Both "1+2" and "1 $+2$ " correspond to the same AST, although the two strings are different if we look at their *concrete* syntax. Therefore, they are *abstract*.

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AST is a Tree

AST for a "language of integer addition and subtraction" (*AddSubLang*).

```
type Expr =
  | Number of int
  | Add of Expr * Expr // This line effectively creates a tree
  | Sub of Expr * Expr // This line effectively creates a tree
```


AST Example (1 + 2 - 3)

Add (Number 1, Sub (Number 2, Number 3))

Sub (Add (Number 1, Number 2), Number 3)

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How Do We Describe a Grammar?

Backus-Naur Form (BNF) *recursively* describes a grammar² of a language.

```
\langle \text{digit} \rangle ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
<number> ::= <digit> | <number> <digit>
```
- 1. A \cdot : = B means A is defined as B.
- 2. Symbols without angle brackets mean a *terminal*, which is an elementary symbol that cannot be replaced with another.
- 3. Symbols with angle brackets mean a *nonterminal*, which can be replaced by terminals.
- 4. A | B means "A or B".

²Context-Free Grammar

Our AddSubLang Grammar

```
<digit> ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
<number> ::= <digit> | <number> <digit>
\langleexpr> ::= \langlenumber> + \langleexpr>
           | \langlenumber> - \langleexpr>
           | <number>
```
Our goal: writing a parser that "looks like" this grammar!

Parser Computation Expression

- 1. Generic type constructor: Parser<'a>.
- 2. Bind operator: given a Parser \langle 'a> and a function ('a -> Parser \langle 'b>), return a new parser Parser<'b>.
- 3. Return operator: given a value ('a), return a new parser (Parser<'a>).
- 4. And many more operations possible!

Example Scenarios

- Consider a parser P that can parse a character '1'. We can "bind" the parsing result of P to a parameter of a function (i.e., continuation) in order to create a new parser that makes use of the result.
- Imagine two parsers P_1 and P_2 that can parse a string "abc" and "def", respectively. We can "combine" the two parsers to create a new parser that can parse "abcdef".

We call this type of computation expression as a "monadic parser", or a "parser combinator".

Parser Type

```
type Parser <'a > = {
  Parse: string -> Result<'a * string, string>
}
```
Given a string, the Parse function returns a Result type. The success case of the Result returns a parsed value of type 'a and the next string to parse, and the failure case returns an error message of type string.

Simple Character Parser

```
/// Helper function to run Parser computation expression
let runOnInput parser str =
  parser . Parse str
module Parser =
  let char =\{ Parse = fun s \rightarrowif System. String. IsNullOrEmpty (s) then
          Error "No more input ."
        else
          0k (s[0], s[1..]) }
```


Make It a Monad

```
type ParserBuilder () =
  member . Bind (p, f) =
    \{ \text{Parse} = (\text{fun } s \rightarrow)match runOnInput p s with
          | Ok (v, rest) \rightarrow runOnInput (f v) rest
          | Error e \rightarrow Error e) }
  member . Return (v) =
    { Parse = (fun s \rightarrow 0k (v, s)) }
let parser = ParserBuilder ()
```


Combining Parsers

Parser for two consecutive (any) characters.

```
let twoChars =
  parser {
    let! a = charlet! b = charreturn (a, b)} // what is the type of twoChars ?
```
This way of combining two parsers is so common, so we even create a function (and an operator) that does this: andThen function.

andThen Function

andThen takes in two parsers and return a new parser.

```
let andThen p1 p2 =parser {
    let! a = p1let! b = p2return (a, b)}
let (.>>.) = andThen // infix operator for andThen
let twoChars = char .>>. char // much concise now!
```


Parsing a Specific Character

```
let char ch =
  \{ Parse = fun s \rightarrowif System. String. IsNullOrEmpty (s) then
        Error "No more input ."
      else
        if s[0] = ch then 0k (s[0], s[1..])else Error " Invalid character ." }
```


Parsing a Specific String

```
let strABC1 = char 'A'. >>. char 'B'. >>. char 'C'
let rec sequence parsers =
  match parsers with
  | [] -> parser { return [] }
  | hd \cdot tl \rightarrowparser {
      let! h = hdlet! t = sequence tl
      return (h :: t)}
let \nstrable\n 3.5[char 'A';char 'B'; char 'C' ] > sequence
```


Map from a Parser to Another

```
let map f parser =
  \{ \text{Parse} = \text{fun} \text{ s } -\}match runOnInput parser s with
       | Ok (v, rest) \rightarrow Ok (f v, rest)
       | Error e -> Error e }
let (| \rangle) p f = map f p
let \nstrabla ABC =sequence [ char 'A'; char 'B'; char 'C' ]
  |>> (List.toArray >> System.String)
```


Parse A or B

Given two parsers P_A and P_B , create a parser that runs either one of them.

```
let orElse p1 p2 =\{ Parse = fun s \rightarrowmatch runOnInput p1 s with
       | Ok (v, rest) \rightarrow Ok (v, rest)
       | Error _ -> runOnInput p2 s }
let (<|> \rangle = orElse
```


Parser for Numbers

 $\langle \text{digit} \rangle$::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9

let digit = char '0' <|> char '1' <|> ... <|> char '9'

<number> ::= <digit> | <number> <digit>

```
let rec number =
  (number .>). digit) < |> digit // type mismatch
```


Recursive Definition of a Number

```
let number =
  let rec num() =parser {
      let! d = digitlet! n = num()return d :: n
   \} < | > parser { return [] }
 num ()
  | > > ( List . toArray >> System . String >> int >> Number )
```
But this is dirty!

Extended BNF (Use Repetition)

We can use curly braces to represent zero or more occurrences of a term.

```
<number> ::= digit { <digit> } // repeatition
```

```
let rec zeroOrMore p s =
  match runOnInput p s with
  | Error \rightarrow ([], s)
  | Ok (v, s) ->
    let v', s' = zeroOrMore p sV : : V', S'let many p = \{ Parse = fun s \rightarrow Ok (zeroOrMore p s) }
```


Redefining Number with many

<number> ::= digit { <digit> }

```
let number =
 parser {
   let! d = digitlet! ds = many digit // zero or more
   return List.toArray (d :: ds) |> System.String |> int |>
       Number
  }
```


Parsing Expressions

 $\langle \text{expr} \rangle$::= $\langle \text{number} \rangle$ + $\langle \text{expr} \rangle$ | <number> - <expr> | <number>

```
let rec expr =
 parser {
    let! n = number
    let! = char '+'let! e = expr
   return Add (n, e)
  } < | > number // Subtraction case omitted
```


Warning

warning FS0040: This and other recursive references to the object(s) being defined will be checked for initialization-soundness at runtime through the use of a delayed reference. This is because you are defining one or more recursive objects, rather than recursive functions.

Can we avoid this warning?

Tying the Knot

Resolve circular dependencies by making the expression parser (expr) reference a mutable parser internally.

```
let mutable exprRef = { Parse = fun} \rightarrow failwith "XXX" }let expr = { Parse = fun s \rightarrow runOnInput exprRef s }
exprRef <-
  parser {
    let! n = numberlet! = char '+'let! e = expr
    return Add (n, e)
  } <|> number // Subtraction case omitted
```


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Preparation

We are going to use the same git repository as before. Just in case you don't have it. clone the repository using the following command.

- 1. Clone the repository to your machine.
	- git clone https://github.com/KAIST-CS220/CS220-Main.git
- 2. Move in to the directory CS220-Main/Activities
	- cd CS220-Main
	- cd Activities

Problem: Finish the Parser Implementation

Finalize the parser rules so that we can parse AddSubLang expressions with space chars. For example, the parser should be able to parse the following string: $1 + 2 -$ 3.

[Conclusion](#page-37-0)

- Monads are a powerful abstraction mechanism.
- We have observed its power by building our own parser combinator.
- Writing and evaluating your own language is essential to be competent in programming.

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Further Readings

• [https://fsharpforfunandprofit.com/posts/](https://fsharpforfunandprofit.com/posts/understanding-parser-combinators/) [understanding-parser-combinators/](https://fsharpforfunandprofit.com/posts/understanding-parser-combinators/).

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