CSCI 490 problem set 11 Due Tuesday, April 12 Revision 1: compiled Wednesday 6<sup>th</sup> April, 2016 at 10:39

• Files you should submit: AParser.hs and SExpr.hs. You should take the versions that I have provided and add your solutions to them. You do not have to turn in a PDF this week.

# Introduction

A *parser* is an algorithm which takes unstructured data as input (often a String) and produces structured data as output. For example, when you load a Haskell file into ghci, the first thing it does is *parse* your file in order to turn it from a long String into an *abstract syntax tree* representing your code in a more structured form.

Concretely, we will represent a parser for a value of type a as a function which takes a String representing the input to be parsed, and succeeds or fails; if it succeeds, it returns the parsed value along with whatever part of the input it did not use.

```
newtype Parser a
= Parser { runParser :: String -> Maybe (a, String) }
```

For example, satisfy takes a Char predicate and constructs a parser which succeeds only if it sees a Char that satisfies the predicate (which it then returns). If it encounters a Char that does not satisfy the predicate (or an empty input), it fails.

Using satisfy, we can also define the parser char, which expects to see exactly a given character and fails otherwise.

```
char :: Char -> Parser Char
char c = satisfy (== c)
```

For example:



A Parser for Things is a function from Strings to Maybe a Pair of a Thing and a String. http://www.willamette.edu/ ~fruehr/haskell/seuss.html

```
*Parser> runParser (satisfy isUpper) "ABC"
Just ('A', "BC")
*Parser> runParser (satisfy isUpper) "abc"
Nothing
*Parser> runParser (char 'x') "xyz"
Just ('x', "yz")
```

For convenience, I've also provided you with a parser for positive integers:

# Tools for building parsers

However, implementing parsers explicitly like this is tedious and error-prone for anything beyond the most basic primitive parsers. The real power of this approach comes from the ability to create complex parsers by *combining* simpler ones. And this power of combining will be given to us by...you guessed it, Applicative.

# Exercise 1

First, you'll need to implement a Functor instance for Parser.

## Exercise 2

Now implement an Applicative instance for Parser:

- pure a represents the parser which consumes no input and successfully returns a result of a.
- p1 <\*> p2 represents the parser which first runs p1 (which will consume some input and produce a function), then passes the *remaining* input to p2 (which consumes more input and produces some value), then returns the result of applying the function to the value. However, if either p1 or p2 fails then the whole thing should also fail (put another way, p1 <\*> p2 only succeeds if both p1 and p2 succeed).

So what is this good for? Suppose we have a type Employee defined as follows:

*Hint*: You may find it useful to implement a function

first ::  $(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (a,c) \rightarrow (b,c)$ 

or to note that such a function is already available (with an even more general type) in the Control.Arrow module.

*Hint*: You should be able to make good use of the Applicative instance for Maybe.



```
type Name = String
data Employee = Emp { name :: Name, phone :: String }
```

If we have a Name and a String, we can apply the Emp constructor to them to create an Employee value. But what if we have not a Name and a String, but a way to *parse* a Name and a String? Well, we can use the Applicative instance for Parser to make an employee parser from name and phone parsers. That is, if

parseName :: Parser Name parsePhone :: Parser String

then

Emp <\$> parseName <\*> parsePhone :: Parser Employee

is a parser which first reads a name from the input, then a phone number, and returns them combined into an Employee record. Of course, this assumes that the name and phone number are right next to each other in the input, with no intervening separators. We'll see later how to make parsers that can throw away extra stuff that doesn't directly correspond to information we want to parse.

### Exercise 3

You can also test your Applicative instance using other simple applications of functions to multiple parsers. You should implement each of the following exercises using the Applicative interface to put together simpler parsers into more complex ones. **Do** *not* **implement them using the low-level definition of a** Parser! In other words, for these exercises you should think of the Parser type as a black box you should *not* pattern-match on Parser. Pretend that you do not have access to the Parser constructor or even know how the Parser type is defined.

Note that you should add these functions to the module's export list (the list of things in parentheses right after module AParser at the top of the file.

Create a parser

abParser :: Parser (Char, Char)

which expects to see the characters 'a' and 'b' and returns them as a pair. That is,

```
*AParser> runParser abParser "abcdef"
Just (('a','b'),"cdef")
*AParser> runParser abParser "aebcdf"
Nothing
```

# **C**

Now create a parser

abParser\_ :: Parser ()

which acts in the same way as abParser but returns () instead of the characters 'a' and 'b'.

```
*AParser> runParser abParser_ "abcdef"
Just ((),"cdef")
*AParser> runParser abParser_ "aebcdf"
Nothing
```

• Create a parser intPair which reads two integer values separated by a space and returns the integer values in a list. You should use the provided posInt to parse the integer values.

```
*Parser> runParser intPair "12 34"
Just ([12,34],"")
```

### **Exercise** 4

Applicative by itself can be used to make parsers for simple, fixed formats. But for any format involving *choice* (*e.g.* "... after the colon there can be a number **or** a word **or** parentheses...") Applicative is not quite enough. To handle choice we turn to the Alternative class, defined (essentially) as follows:

```
class Applicative f => Alternative f where
empty :: f a
 (<|>) :: f a -> f a -> f a
```

 $(\langle \rangle)$  is intended to represent *choice*: that is, f1  $\langle \rangle$  f2 represents a choice between f1 and f2. empty should be the identity element for  $(\langle \rangle)$ , and often represents *failure*.

Write an Alternative instance for Parser:

- empty represents the parser which always fails.
- p1 <|> p2 represents the parser which first tries running p1. If p1 succeeds then p2 is ignored and the result of p1 is returned. Otherwise, if p1 fails, then p2 is tried instead.

Unlike the previous exercise, to implement the Alternative Parser instance you will have to actually dig into the definition of Parser.

*Hint*: there is already an Alternative instance for Maybe which you may find useful.



#### Exercise 5

Now implement a parser

intOrUppercase :: Parser ()

which parses either an integer value or an uppercase character, and fails otherwise. Again, here you should just rely on the Applicative and Alternative interfaces; your implementation should not rely on the definition of Parser.

```
*Parser> runParser intOrUppercase "342abcd"
Just ((), "abcd")
*Parser> runParser intOrUppercase "XYZ"
Just ((), "YZ")
*Parser> runParser intOrUppercase "foo"
Nothing
```

### Parsing S-expressions

All told, we now have the following:

- the definition of a basic Parser type
- a few primitive parsers such as satisfy, char, and posInt
- Functor, Applicative, and Alternative instances for Parser

So, what can we do with this? It may not seem like we have much to go on, but it turns out we can actually do quite a lot.

Again, from this point on you should only need to write code that uses interfaces provided by the Functor, Applicative, and Alternative instances, and does not depend on the details of the Parser implementation. In fact, AParser.hs does not export the Parser constructor, so when using it in another module it is literally impossible to depend on the details of its implementation.

### **Exercise 6**

First, let's see how to take a parser for (say) widgets and turn it into a parser for *lists* of widgets. In particular, there are two functions you should implement: zeroOrMore takes a parser as input and runs it consecutively as many times as possible (which could be none, if it fails right away), returning a list of the results. zeroOrMore always succeeds. oneOrMore is similar, except that it requires the input parser to succeed at least once. If the input parser fails right away then oneOrMore also fails.

For example, below we use zeroOrMore and oneOrMore to parse a sequence of uppercase characters. The longest possible sequence of

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Your solutions to this section should go in SExpr.hs.

uppercase characters is returned as a list. In this case, zeroOrMore and oneOrMore behave identically:

```
*AParser> runParser (zeroOrMore (satisfy isUpper)) "ABCdEfgH"
Just ("ABC","dEfgH")
*AParser> runParser (oneOrMore (satisfy isUpper)) "ABCdEfgH"
Just ("ABC","dEfgH")
```

The difference between them can be seen when there is not an uppercase character at the beginning of the input. zeroOrMore succeeds and returns the empty list without consuming any input; oneOrMore fails.

```
*AParser> runParser (zeroOrMore (satisfy isUpper)) "abcdeFGh"
Just ("","abcdeFGh")
*AParser> runParser (oneOrMore (satisfy isUpper)) "abcdeFGh"
Nothing
```

Implement zeroOrMore and oneOrMore with the following type signatures:

```
zeroOrMore :: Parser a -> Parser [a]
oneOrMore :: Parser a -> Parser [a]
```

#### Exercise 7

There are a few more utility parsers needed before we can accomplish the final parsing task. First, spaces should parse a consecutive list of zero or more whitespace characters (use the isSpace function from the standard Data.Char module).

```
spaces :: Parser String
```

Next, ident should parse an *identifier*, which for our purposes will be an alphabetic character (use isAlpha) followed by zero or more alphanumeric characters (use isAlphaNum). In other words, an identifier can be any nonempty sequence of letters and digits, except that it may not start with a digit.

```
ident :: Parser String
```

For example:

```
*AParser> runParser ident "foobar baz"
Just ("foobar"," baz")
*AParser> runParser ident "foo33fA"
Just ("foo33fA","")
```



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*Hint*: To parse one or more occurrences of p, run p once and then parse zero or more occurrences of p. To parse zero or more occurrences of p, try parsing one or more; if that fails, return the empty list.

```
*AParser> runParser ident "2bad"
Nothing
*AParser> runParser ident ""
Nothing
```

## **Exercise 8**

*S-expressions* are a simple syntactic format for tree-structured data, originally developed as a syntax for Lisp programs. We'll close out our demonstration of parser combinators by writing a simple S-expression parser.

An *identifier* is represented as just a String; the format for valid identifiers is represented by the ident parser you wrote in the previous exercise.

```
type Ident = String
```

An "atom" is either an integer value (which can be parsed with posInt) or an identifier.

```
data Atom = N Integer | I Ident
    deriving Show
```

Finally, an S-expression is either an atom, or a list of S-expressions.<sup>1</sup>

Textually, S-expressions can optionally begin and end with any number of spaces; after *throwing away leading and trailing spaces* they consist of either an atom, *or* an open parenthesis followed by one or more S-expressions followed by a close parenthesis.

For example, the following are all valid S-expressions:

```
5
foo3
(bar (foo) 3 5 874)
(((lambda x (lambda y (plus x y))) 3) 5)
( lots of ( spaces in ) this ( one ) )
```

<sup>1</sup> Actually, this is slightly different than the usual definition of S-expressions in Lisp, which also includes binary "cons" cells; but it's good enough for our purposes.

**(c)** 

I have provided Haskell data types representing S-expressions in SExpr.hs. Write a parser for S-expressions, that is, something of type

parseSExpr :: Parser SExpr

*Hints*: To parse something but ignore its output, you can use the (\*>) and (<\*) operators, which have the types

(\*>) :: Applicative f => f a -> f b -> f b (<\*) :: Applicative f => f a -> f b -> f a

p1 \*> p2 runs p1 and p2 in sequence, but ignores the result of p1 and just returns the result of p2. p1 <\* p2 also runs p1 and p2 in sequence, but returns the result of p1 (ignoring p2's result) instead.

For example:

```
*AParser> runParser (spaces *> posInt) " 345"
Just (345,"")
```

