Syntax: Meta-Programming Helpers

Version 8.17.0.1

April 14, 2025

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1 Parsing and Specifying Syntax

The syntax/parse library provides a framework for writing macros and processing syntax. The library provides a powerful language of syntax patterns, used by the pattern-matching form syntax-parse and the specification form define-syntax-class. Macros that use syntax-parse automatically generate error messages based on descriptions and messages embedded in the macro's syntax patterns.

```
(require syntax/parse) package: base
```

1.1 Introduction

This section provides an introduction to writing robust macros with syntax-parse and syntax classes.

As a running example we use the following task: write a macro named mylet that has the same syntax and behavior as Racket's let form. The macro should produce good error messages when used incorrectly.

Here is the specification of mylet's syntax:

```
(mylet ([var-id rhs-expr] ...) body ...+)
(mylet loop-id ([var-id rhs-expr] ...) body ...+)
```

For simplicity, we handle only the first case for now. We return to the second case later in the introduction.

The macro can be implemented very simply using define-syntax-rule:

When used correctly, the macro works, but it behaves very badly in the presence of errors. In some cases, the macro merely fails with an uninformative error message; in others, it blithely accepts illegal syntax and passes it along to lambda, with strange consequences:

```
> (mylet ([a 1] [b 2]) (+ a b))
3
> (mylet (b 2) (sub1 b))
mylet: use does not match pattern: (mylet ((var rhs) ...)
body ...)
in: (mylet (b 2) (sub1 b))
> (mylet ([1 a]) (add1 a))
```

```
lambda: not an identifier, identifier with default, or
keyword
    at: 1
    in: (lambda (1) (add1 a))
> (mylet ([#:x 1] [y 2]) (* x y))
eval:1:0: arity mismatch;
the expected number of arguments does not match the given
number
    expected: 0 plus an argument with keyword #:x
    given: 2
    arguments...:
    1
    2
```

These examples of illegal syntax are not to suggest that a typical programmer would make such mistakes attempting to use mylet. At least, not often, not after an initial learning curve. But macros are also used by inexpert programmers and as targets of other macros (or code generators), and many macros are far more complex than mylet. Macros must validate their syntax and report appropriate errors. Furthermore, the macro writer benefits from the machine-checked specification of syntax in the form of more readable, maintainable code.

We can improve the error behavior of the macro by using syntax-parse. First, we import syntax-parse into the transformer environment, since we will use it to implement a macro transformer.

```
> (require (for-syntax syntax/parse))
```

The following is the syntax specification above transliterated into a syntax-parse macro definition. It behaves no better than the version using define-syntax-rule above.

```
> (define-syntax (mylet stx)
          (syntax-parse stx
          [(_ ([var-id rhs-expr] ...) body ...+)
          #'((lambda (var-id ...) body ...) rhs-expr ...)]))
```

One minor difference is the use of \dots + in the pattern; \dots means match zero or more repetitions of the preceding pattern; \dots + means match one or more. Only \dots may be used in the template, however.

The first step toward validation and high-quality error reporting is annotating each of the macro's pattern variables with the syntax class that describes its acceptable syntax. In mylet, each variable must be an identifier (id for short) and each right-hand side must be an expr (expression). An annotated pattern variable is written by concatenating the pattern variable name, a colon character, and the syntax class name.

For an alternative to the "colon" syntax, see the "var pattern form.

```
> (define-syntax (mylet stx)
        (syntax-parse stx
        [(_ ((var:id rhs:expr) ...) body ...+)
        #'((lambda (var ...) body ...) rhs ...)]))
```

Note that the syntax class annotations do not appear in the template (i.e., var, not var:id).

The syntax class annotations are checked when we use the macro.

```
> (mylet ([a 1] [b 2]) (+ a b))
3
> (mylet (["a" 1]) (add1 a))
mylet: expected identifier
   at: "a"
   in: (mylet (("a" 1)) (add1 a))
```

The expr syntax class does not actually check that the term it matches is a valid expression—that would require calling that macro expander. Instead, expr just means not a keyword.

```
> (mylet ([a #:whoops]) 1)
mylet: expected expression
   at: #:whoops
   in: (mylet ((a #:whoops)) 1)
```

Also, syntax-parse knows how to report a few kinds of errors without any help:

```
> (mylet ([a 1 2]) (* a a))
mylet: unexpected term
    at: 2
    in: (mylet ((a 1 2)) (* a a))
```

There are other kinds of errors, however, that this macro does not handle gracefully:

```
> (mylet (a 1) (+ a 2))
mylet: bad syntax
in: (mylet (a 1) (+ a 2))
```

It's too much to ask for the macro to respond, "This expression is missing a pair of parentheses around (a 1)." The pattern matcher is not that smart. But it can pinpoint the source of the error: when it encountered a it was expecting what we might call a "binding pair," but that term is not in its vocabulary yet.

To allow syntax-parse to synthesize better errors, we must attach *descriptions* to the patterns we recognize as discrete syntactic categories. One way of doing that is by defining new syntax classes:

Another way is the ~describe pattern form.

```
> (define-syntax (mylet stx)

  (define-syntax-class binding
    #:description "binding pair"
        (pattern (var:id rhs:expr)))

  (syntax-parse stx
      [(_ (b:binding ...) body ...+)
        #'((lambda (b.var ...) body ...) b.rhs ...)]))
```

Note that we write b.var and b.rhs now. They are the nested attributes formed from the annotated pattern variable b and the attributes var and rhs of the syntax class binding.

Now the error messages can talk about "binding pairs."

```
> (mylet (a 1) (+ a 2))
mylet: expected binding pair
  at: a
  in: (mylet (a 1) (+ a 2))
```

Errors are still reported in more specific terms when possible:

```
> (mylet (["a" 1]) (+ a 2))
mylet: expected identifier
  at: "a"
  in: (mylet (("a" 1)) (+ a 2))
  parsing context:
  while parsing binding pair
  term: ("a" 1)
  location: eval:16:0
```

There is one other constraint on the legal syntax of mylet. The variables bound by the different binding pairs must be distinct. Otherwise the macro creates an illegal lambda form:

```
> (mylet ([a 1] [a 2]) (+ a a))
lambda: duplicate argument name
    at: a
    in: (lambda (a a) (+ a a))
```

Constraints such as the distinctness requirement are expressed as side conditions, thus:

```
> (define-syntax (mylet stx)
```

The #:fail-when keyword is followed by two expressions: the condition and the error message. When the condition evaluates to anything but #f, the pattern fails. Additionally, if the condition evaluates to a syntax object, that syntax object is used to pinpoint the cause of the failure.

Syntax classes can have side conditions, too. Here is the macro rewritten to include another syntax class representing a "sequence of distinct binding pairs."

Here we've introduced the #:with clause. A #:with clause matches a pattern with a computed term. Here we use it to bind var and rhs as attributes of distinct-bindings.

By default, a syntax class only exports its patterns' pattern variables as attributes, not their nested attributes.

Alas, so far the macro only implements half of the functionality offered by Racket's let. We must add the "named-let" form. That turns out to be as simple as adding a new clause:

The alternative would be to explicitly declare the attributes of distinct-bindings to include the nested attributes b.var and b.rhs, using the #:attribute option. Then the macro would refer to bs.b.var and bs.b.rhs.

```
> (define-syntax (mylet stx)
    (define-syntax-class binding
      #:description "binding pair"
      (pattern (var:id rhs:expr)))
    (define-syntax-class distinct-bindings
      #:description "sequence of distinct binding pairs"
      (pattern (b:binding ...)
               #:fail-when (check-duplicate-identifier
                            (syntax->list #'(b.var ...)))
                           "duplicate variable name"
               #:with (var ...) #'(b.var ...)
               #:with (rhs ...) #'(b.rhs ...)))
    (syntax-parse stx
      [(_ bs:distinct-bindings body ...+)
       #'((lambda (bs.var ...) body ...) bs.rhs ...)]
      [(_ loop:id bs:distinct-bindings body ...+)
       #'(letrec ([loop (lambda (bs.var ...) body ...)])
           (loop bs.rhs ...))]))
```

We are able to reuse the distinct-bindings syntax class, so the addition of the "namedlet" syntax requires only three lines.

But does adding this new case affect syntax-parse's ability to pinpoint and report errors?

```
> (mylet ([a 1] [b 2]) (+ a b))
3
> (mylet (["a" 1]) (add1 a))
mylet: expected identifier
    at: "a"
    in: (mylet (("a" 1)) (add1 a))
    parsing context:
    while parsing binding pair
    term: ("a" 1)
    location: eval:23:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: (("a" 1))
    location: eval:23:0
```

```
> (mylet ([a #:whoops]) 1)
mylet: expected expression
  at: #:whoops
  in: (mylet ((a #:whoops)) 1)
  parsing context:
    while parsing binding pair
    term: (a #:whoops)
     location: eval:24:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: ((a #:whoops))
     location: eval:24:0
> (mylet ([a 1 2]) (* a a))
mylet: unexpected term
  at: 2
  in: (mylet ((a 1 2)) (* a a))
  parsing context:
   while parsing binding pair
    term: (a 1 2)
     location: eval:25:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
     term: ((a 1 2))
     location: eval:25:0
> (mylet (a 1) (+ a 2))
mylet: expected binding pair
  at: a
  in: (mylet (a 1) (+ a 2))
  parsing context:
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: (a 1)
     location: eval:26:0
> (mylet ([a 1] [a 2]) (+ a a))
mylet: duplicate variable name
  at: a
  in: (mylet((a 1) (a 2)) (+ a a))
  parsing context:
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
     term: ((a 1) (a 2))
     location: eval:27:0
```

The error reporting for the original syntax seems intact. We should verify that the named-let syntax is working, that syntax-parse is not simply ignoring that clause.

```
> (mylet loop ([a 1] [b 2]) (+ a b))
3
> (mylet loop (["a" 1]) (add1 a))
mylet: expected identifier
```

```
at: "a"
  in: (mylet loop (("a" 1)) (add1 a))
  parsing context:
   while parsing binding pair
    term: ("a" 1)
    location: eval:29:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
     term: (("a" 1))
     location: eval:29:0
> (mylet loop ([a #:whoops]) 1)
mylet: expected expression
  at: #:whoops
  in: (mylet loop ((a #:whoops)) 1)
  parsing context:
    while parsing binding pair
     term: (a #:whoops)
     location: eval:30:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: ((a #:whoops))
     location: eval:30:0
> (mylet loop ([a 1 2]) (* a a))
mylet: unexpected term
  at: 2
  in: (mylet loop ((a 1 2)) (* a a))
  parsing context:
   while parsing binding pair
    term: (a 1 2)
     location: eval:31:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
     term: ((a 1 2))
     location: eval:31:0
> (mylet loop (a 1) (+ a 2))
mylet: expected binding pair
  at: a
  in: (mylet loop (a 1) (+ a 2))
  parsing context:
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: (a 1)
     location: eval:32:0
> (mylet loop ([a 1] [a 2]) (+ a a))
mylet: duplicate variable name
  at: a
  in: (mylet loop ((a 1) (a 2)) (+ a a))
  parsing context:
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
     term: ((a\ 1)\ (a\ 2))
```

location: eval:33:0

How does syntax-parse decide which clause the programmer was attempting, so it can use it as a basis for error reporting? After all, each of the bad uses of the named-let syntax are also bad uses of the normal syntax, and vice versa. And yet the macro does not produce errors like "mylet: expected sequence of distinct binding pairs at: loop."

The answer is that syntax-parse records a list of all the potential errors (including ones like loop not matching distinct-binding) along with the *progress* made before each error. Only the error with the most progress is reported.

For example, in this bad use of the macro,

```
> (mylet loop (["a" 1]) (add1 a))
mylet: expected identifier
    at: "a"
    in: (mylet loop (("a" 1)) (add1 a))
    parsing context:
    while parsing binding pair
    term: ("a" 1)
    location: eval:34:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: (("a" 1))
    location: eval:34:0
```

there are two potential errors: expected distinct-bindings at loop and expected identifier at "a". The second error occurs further in the term than the first, so it is reported.

For another example, consider this term:

```
> (mylet (["a" 1]) (add1 a))
mylet: expected identifier
    at: "a"
    in: (mylet (("a" 1)) (add1 a))
    parsing context:
    while parsing binding pair
    term: ("a" 1)
    location: eval:35:0
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: (("a" 1))
    location: eval:35:0
```

Again, there are two potential errors: expected identifier at (["a" 1]) and expected identifier at "a". They both occur at the second term (or first argument, if you prefer), but the second error occurs deeper in the term. Progress is based on a left-to-right traversal of the syntax.

A final example: consider the following:

```
> (mylet ([a 1] [a 2]) (+ a a))
mylet: duplicate variable name
    at: a
    in: (mylet ((a 1) (a 2)) (+ a a))
    parsing context:
    while parsing sequence of distinct binding pairs
    term: ((a 1) (a 2))
    location: eval:36:0
```

There are two errors again: duplicate variable name at ([a 1] [a 2]) and expected identifier at ([a 1] [a 2]). Note that as far as syntax-parse is concerned, the progress associated with the duplicate error message is the second term (first argument), not the second occurrence of a. That's because the check is associated with the entire distinct-bindings pattern. It would seem that both errors have the same progress, and yet only the first one is reported. The difference between the two is that the first error is from a post-traversal check, whereas the second is from a normal (i.e., pre-traversal) check. A post-traversal check is considered to have made more progress than a pre-traversal check of the same term; indeed, it also has greater progress than any failure within the term.

It is, however, possible for multiple potential errors to occur with the same progress. Here's one example:

```
> (mylet "not-even-close")
mylet: expected identifier or expected sequence of distinct
binding pairs
    at: "not-even-close"
    in: (mylet "not-even-close")
```

In this case syntax-parse reports both errors.

Even with all of the annotations we have added to our macro, there are still some misuses that defy syntax-parse's error reporting capabilities, such as this example:

```
> (mylet)
mylet: expected more terms starting with sequence of
distinct binding pairs or identifier
    at: ()
    within: (mylet)
    in: (mylet)
```

The philosophy behind syntax-parse is that in these situations, a generic error such as "bad syntax" is justified. The use of mylet here is so far off that the only informative error message would include a complete recapitulation of the syntax of mylet. That is not the role of error messages, however; it is the role of documentation.

This section has provided an introduction to syntax classes, side conditions, and progress-ordered error reporting. But syntax-parse has many more features. Continue to the §1.2 "Examples" section for samples of other features in working code, or skip to the subsequent sections for the complete reference documentation.

1.2 Examples

This section provides an extended introduction to syntax/parse as a series of worked examples.

1.2.1 Phases and Reusable Syntax Classes

As demonstrated in the §1.1 "Introduction", the simplest place to define a syntax class is within the macro definition that uses it. But that limits the scope of the syntax class to the one client macro, and it makes for very large macro definitions. Creating reusable syntax classes requires some awareness of the Racket phase level separation. A syntax class defined immediately within a module cannot be used by macros in the same module; it is defined at the wrong phase.

In the module above, the syntax class foo is defined at phase level 0. The reference to foo within macro, however, is at phase level 1, being the implementation of a macro transformer. (Needing to require syntax/parse twice, once normally and once for-syntax is a common warning sign of phase level incompatibility.)

The phase level mismatch is easily remedied by putting the syntax class definition within a begin-for-syntax block:

```
> (module phase-ok-mod racket
          (require (for-syntax syntax/parse))
          (begin-for-syntax
          (define-syntax-class foo
```

```
(pattern (a b c))))
(define-syntax (macro stx)
  (syntax-parse stx
   [(_ f:foo) #'(+ f.a f.b f.c)])))
```

In the revised module above, foo is defined at phase 1, so it can be used in the implementation of the macro.

An alternative to begin-for-syntax is to define the syntax class in a separate module and require that module for-syntax.

If a syntax class refers to literal identifiers, or if it computes expressions via syntax templates, then the module containing the syntax class must generally require for-template the bindings referred to in the patterns and templates.

```
(pattern (times a:arith b:arith)
               #:with expr #'(* a.expr b.expr)))
    (provide arith))
> (module arith-macro-mod racket
    (require (for-syntax syntax/parse
                          'arith-stxclass-mod)
             'arith-keywords-mod)
    (define-syntax (arith-macro stx)
      (syntax-parse stx
        [(_ a:arith)
         #'(values 'a.expr a.expr)]))
    (provide arith-macro
             (all-from-out 'arith-keywords-mod)))
> (require 'arith-macro-mod)
> (arith-macro (plus 1 (times 2 3)))
'(+ 1 (* 2 3))
7
```

In 'arith-stxclass-mod, the module 'arith-keywords-mod must be required for-template because the keywords are used in phase-0 expressions. Likewise, the module racket must be required for-template because the syntax class contains syntax templates involving + and * (and, in fact, the implicit #%app syntax). All of these identifiers (the keywords plus and times; the procedures + and *; and the implicit syntax #%app) must be bound at "absolute" phase level 0. Since the module 'arith-stxclass-mod is required with a phase level offset of 1 (that is, for-syntax), it must compensate with a phase level offset of -1, or for-template.

1.2.2 Optional Keyword Arguments

This section explains how to write a macro that accepts (simple) optional keyword arguments. We use the example mycond, which is like Racket's cond except that it takes an optional keyword argument that controls what happens if none of the clauses match.

Optional keyword arguments are supported via head patterns. Unlike normal patterns, which match one term, head patterns can match a variable number of subterms in a list. Some important head-pattern forms are "seq, "or*, and "optional.

Here's one way to do it:

We cannot simply write #'who in the macro's right-hand side, because the who attribute does not receive a value if the keyword argument is omitted. Instead we must first check the attribute using (attribute who), which produces #f if matching did not assign a value to the attribute.

There's a simpler way of writing the ~or* pattern above:

```
(~optional (~seq #:error-on-fallthrough who:expr))
```

Optional Arguments with ~?

The ~? template form provides a compact alternative to explicitly testing attribute values. Here's one way to do it:

If who matched, then the ~? subtemplate splices in the two terms #t who into the enclosing template (~0 is the template splicing form). Otherwise, it splices in #f #f.

Here's an alternative definition that re-uses Racket's cond macro:

```
> (define-syntax (mycond stx)
```

In this version, we optionally insert an else clause at the end to signal the error; otherwise we use cond's fall-through behavior (that is, returning (void)).

If the second subtemplate of a ~? template is (~0)—that is, it produces no terms at all—the second subtemplate can be omitted.

Optional Arguments with define-splicing-syntax-class

Yet another way is to introduce a splicing syntax class, which is like an ordinary syntax class but for head patterns.

Defining a splicing syntax class also makes it easy to eliminate the case analysis we did before using attribute by defining error? and who as attributes within both of the syntax class's variants. This is possible to do in the inline pattern version too, using "and and "parse, but it is less convenient. Splicing syntax classes also closely parallel the style of grammars in macro documentation.

1.2.3 Variants with Uniform Meanings

Syntax classes not only validate syntax, they also extract some measure of meaning from it. From the perspective of meaning, there are essentially two kinds of syntax class. In the first, all of the syntax class's variants have the same kind of meaning. In the second, variants may have different kinds of meaning. This section discusses the first kind, syntax classes with uniform meanings. The next section discusses §1.2.4 "Variants with Varied Meanings".

In other words, some syntax classes' meanings are products and others' meanings are sums. If all of a syntax class's variants express the same kind of information, that information can be cleanly represented via attributes, and it can be concisely processed using ellipses.

One example of a syntax class with uniform meaning: the init-decl syntax of the class macro. Here is the specification of init-decl:

The init-decl syntax class has three variants, plus an auxiliary syntax class that has two variants of its own. But all forms of init-decl ultimately carry just three pieces of information: an internal name, an external name, and a default configuration of some sort. The simpler syntactic variants are just abbreviations for the full information.

The three pieces of information determine the syntax class's attributes. It is useful to declare the attributes explicitly using the #:attributes keyword; the declaration acts both as incode documentation and as a check on the variants.

```
(define-syntax-class init-decl
  #:attributes (internal external default)
  __)
```

Next we fill in the syntactic variants, deferring the computation of the attributes:

We perform a similar analysis of maybe-renamed:

Here's one straightforward way of matching syntactic structure with attributes for mayberenamed:

Given that definition of maybe-renamed, we can fill in most of the definition of init-decl:

At this point we realize we have not decided on a representation for the default configuration. In fact, it is an example of syntax with varied meanings (aka sum or disjoint union). The following section discusses representation options in greater detail; for the sake of completeness, we present one of them here.

There are two kinds of default configuration. One indicates that the initialization argument is optional, with a default value computed from the given expression. The other indicates that the initialization argument is mandatory. We represent the variants as a (syntax) list containing the default expression and as the empty (syntax) list, respectively. More precisely:

```
#:with external #'mr.external
#:with default #'(default0)))
```

Another way to look at this aspect of syntax class design is as the algebraic factoring of sums-of-products (concrete syntax variants) into products-of-sums (attributes and abstract syntax variants). The advantages of the latter form are the "dot" notation for data extraction, avoiding or reducing additional case analysis, and the ability to concisely manipulate sequences using ellipses.

1.2.4 Variants with Varied Meanings

As explained in the previous section, the meaning of a syntax class can be uniform, or it can be varied; that is, different instances of the syntax class can carry different kinds of information. This section discusses the latter kind of syntax class.

A good example of a syntax class with varied meanings is the for-clause of the for family of special forms.

The first two variants carry the same kind of information; both consist of identifiers to bind and a sequence expression. The third variant, however, means something totally different: a condition that determines whether to continue the current iteration of the loop, plus a change in scoping for subsequent seq-exprs. The information of a for-clause must be represented in a way that a client macro can do further case analysis to distinguish the "bind variables from a sequence" case from the "skip or continue this iteration and enter a new scope" case.

This section discusses two ways of representing varied kinds of information.

Syntactic Normalization

One approach is based on the observation that the syntactic variants already constitute a representation of the information they carry. So why not adapt that representation, removing redundancies and eliminating simplifying the syntax to make subsequent re-parsing trivial.

```
#:with norm #'[#:when guard]))
```

First, note that since the #:when variant consists of two separate terms, we define forclause as a splicing syntax class. Second, that kind of irregularity is just the sort of thing we'd like to remove so we don't have to deal with it again later. Thus we represent the normalized syntax as a single term beginning with either a sequence of identifiers (the first two cases) or the keyword #:when (the third case). The two normalized cases are easy to process and easy to tell apart. We have also taken the opportunity to desugar the first case into the second.

A normalized syntactic representation is most useful when the subsequent case analysis is performed by syntax-parse or a similar form.

Non-syntax-valued Attributes

When the information carried by the syntax is destined for complicated processing by Racket code, it is often better to parse it into an intermediate representation using idiomatic Racket data structures, such as lists, hashes, structs, and even objects.

Thus far we have only used syntax pattern variables and the #:with keyword to bind attributes, and the values of the attributes have always been syntax. To bind attributes to values other than syntax, use the #:attr keyword.

Be careful! If we had used #:with instead of #:attr, a value produced by the right-hand side would be coerced to a syntax object before being matched against the pattern ast.

Attributes with non-syntax values cannot be used in syntax templates. Use the attribute form to get the value of an attribute.

1.2.5 More Keyword Arguments

This section shows how to express the syntax of struct's optional keyword arguments using syntax-parse patterns.

The part of struct's syntax that is difficult to specify is the sequence of struct options. Let's get the easy part out of the way first.

Given those auxiliary syntax classes, here is a first approximation of the main pattern, including the struct options:

The fact that expr does not match keywords helps in the case where the programmer omits a keyword's argument; instead of accepting the next keyword as the argument expression, syntax-parse reports that an expression was expected.

There are two main problems with the pattern above:

• There's no way to tell whether a zero-argument keyword like #:mutable was seen.

• Some options, like #:mutable, should appear at most once.

The first problem can be remedied using "and patterns to bind a pattern variable to the keyword itself, as in this sub-pattern:

```
("seq ("and #:mutable mutable-kw))
```

The second problem can be solved using *repetition constraints*:

```
(struct name:id super:maybe-super (field:field ...)
  ("alt ("optional ("seq ("and #:mutable mutable-kw)))
        (~optional (~seq #:super super-expr:expr))
        (~optional (~seq #:inspector inspector:expr))
        (~optional (~seq #:auto-value auto:expr))
        (~optional (~seq #:guard guard:expr))
        ("seq #:property prop:expr prop-val:expr)
        ("optional ("seq ("and #:transparent transparent-kw)))
        (~optional (~seq (~and #:prefab prefab-kw)))
        (~optional (~seq #:constructor-name constructor-name:id))
        (~optional
         (~seq #:extra-constructor-name extra-constructor-
name:id))
        (~optional
         ("seq ("and #:omit-define-syntaxes omit-def-stxs-kw)))
        ("optional ("seq ("and #:omit-define-values omit-def-vals-
kw))))
  ...)
```

The ~optional repetition constraint indicates that an alternative can appear at most once. (There is a ~once form that means it must appear exactly once.) In struct's keyword options, only #:property may occur any number of times.

There are still some problems, though. Without additional help, ~optional does not report particularly good errors. We must give it the language to use, just as we had to give descriptions to sub-patterns via syntax classes. Also, some related options are mutually exclusive, such as #:inspector, #:transparent, and #:prefab.

```
(~optional (~seq #:super super-expr:expr)
                   #:name "#:super option")
        (~optional (~seq #:auto-value auto:expr)
                   #:name "#:auto-value option")
        (~optional (~seq #:guard guard:expr)
                   #:name "#:guard option")
        (~seq #:property prop:expr prop-val:expr)
        (~optional (~seq #:constructor-name constructor-name:id)
                   #:name "#:constructor-name option")
        (~optional
          (~seq #:extra-constructor-name extra-constructor-
name:id)
          #:name "#:extra-constructor-name option")
        (~optional (~seq (~and #:omit-define-syntaxes omit-def-
stxs-kw))
                   #:name "#:omit-define-syntaxes option")
        (~optional (~seq (~and #:omit-define-values omit-def-vals-
kw))
                   #:name "#:omit-define-values option"))
  ...)
```

Here we have grouped the three incompatible options together under a single ~optional constraint. That means that at most one of any of those options is allowed. We have given names to the optional clauses. See ~optional for other customization options.

Note that there are other constraints that we have not represented in the pattern. For example, #:prefab is also incompatible with both #:guard and #:property. Repetition constraints cannot express arbitrary incompatibility relations. The best way to handle such constraints is with a side condition using #:fail-when.

1.2.6 Contracts on Macro Sub-expressions

Just as procedures often expect certain kinds of values as arguments, macros often have expectations about the expressions they are given. And just as procedures express those expectations via contracts, so can macros, using the expr/c syntax class.

For example, here is a macro myparameterize that behaves like parameterize but enforces the parameter? contract on the parameter expressions.

Important: Make sure when using expr/c to use the c attribute. If the macro above had used p in the template, the expansion would have used the raw, unchecked expressions. The expr/c syntax class does not change how pattern variables are bound; it only computes an attribute that represents the checked expression.

The previous example shows a macro applying a contract on an argument, but a macro can also apply a contract to an expression that it produces. In that case, it should use #:arg? #f to indicate that the macro, not the calling context, is responsible for expression produced.

```
; BUG: rationals not closed under inversion
> (define-syntax (invert stx)
    (syntax-parse stx
       [(_ e)
       #:declare e (expr/c #'rational?)
       #:with result #'(/ 1 e.c)
       #:declare result (expr/c #'rational? #:arg? #f)
       #'result.c]))
> (invert 4)
1/4
> (invert 'abc)
invert: contract violation
  expected: rational?
  given: 'abc
  in: rational?
      macro argument contract
  contract from: 'program
  blaming: (quote program)
   (assuming the contract is correct)
  at: eval:6:0
> (invert 0.0)
```

```
invert: contract violation
expected: rational?
given: +inf.0
in: rational?
macro result contract
contract from: 'program
blaming: (quote program)
(assuming the contract is correct)
at: eval:4:0
```

The following example shows a macro that uses a contracted expression at a different phase level. The macro's ref argument is used as a "compile-time expression"—more precisely, it is used as an expression at a phase level one higher than the use of the macro itself. That is because the macro places the expression in the right-hand side of a define-syntax form. The macro uses expr/c with a #:phase argument to ensure that ref produces an identifier when used as a compile-time expression.

```
> (define-syntax (define-alias stx)
    (syntax-parse stx
      [(_ name:id ref)
       #:declare ref (expr/c #'identifier?
                                #:phase (add1 (syntax-local-phase-
level)))
        #'(define-syntax name (make-rename-transformer ref.c))]))
> (define-alias plus #'+)
> (define-alias zero 0)
define-alias: contract violation
  expected: identifier?
  given: 0
  in: identifier?
      macro argument contract
  contract from: 'program
  blaming: (quote program)
   (assuming the contract is correct)
  at: eval:10:0
```

1.3 Parsing Syntax

This section describes syntax-parse, the syntax/parse library's facility for parsing syntax. Both syntax-parse and the specification facility, syntax classes, use a common language of syntax patterns, which is described in detail in §1.5 "Syntax Patterns".

Two parsing forms are provided: syntax-parse and syntax-parser.

```
(syntax-parse stx-expr parse-option ... clause ...+)
     parse-option = #:context context-expr
                 #:literals (literal ...)
                   #:datum-literals (datum-literal ...)
                  #:literal-sets (literal-set ...)
                  #:track-literals
                  #:conventions (convention-id ...)
                 #:local-conventions (convention-rule ...)
                  #:disable-colon-notation
          literal = literal-id
                 (pattern-id literal-id)
                 (pattern-id literal-id #:phase phase-expr)
    datum-literal = literal-id
                 (pattern-id literal-id)
      literal-set = literal-set-id
                 (literal-set-id literal-set-option ...)
literal-set-option = #:at context-id
                 #:phase phase-expr
           clause = (syntax-pattern pattern-directive ... body ...+)
 stx-expr : syntax?
 phase-expr : (or/c exact-integer? #f)
```

Evaluates stx-expr, which should produce a syntax object, and matches it against the clauses in order. If some clause's pattern matches, its attributes are bound to the corresponding subterms of the syntax object and that clause's side conditions and expr is evaluated. The result is the result of expr.

Each clause consists of a syntax pattern, an optional sequence of pattern directives, and a non-empty sequence of body forms.

If the syntax object fails to match any of the patterns (or all matches fail the corresponding clauses' side conditions), a syntax error is raised.

The following options are supported:

When present, <code>context-expr</code> is used in reporting parse failures; otherwise <code>stx-expr</code> is used. If <code>context-expr</code> evaluates to (list <code>who context-stx</code>), then <code>who</code> appears in the error message as the form raising the error, and <code>context-stx</code> is used as the term. If <code>context-expr</code> evaluates to a symbol, it is used as <code>who</code> and <code>stx-expr</code> (the syntax to be destructured) is used as <code>context-stx</code>. If <code>context-expr</code> evaluates to a syntax object, it is used as <code>context-stx</code> and <code>who</code> is inferred as with <code>raise-syntax-error</code>.

The current-syntax-context parameter is also set to the syntax object context-stx.

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(a b 3)
          [(x:id ...) 'ok])
     a: expected identifier
       at: 3
        in: (a b 3)
     > (syntax-parse #'(a b 3)
          #:context #'(lambda (a b 3) (+ a b))
          [(x:id ...) 'ok])
     lambda: expected identifier
        at: 3
        in: (lambda (a b 3) (+ a b))
      > (syntax-parse #'(a b 3)
          #:context 'check-id-list
          [(x:id ...) 'ok])
     check-id-list: expected identifier
        at: 3
        in: (a b 3)
#:literals (literal ...)
literal = literal-id
          (pattern-id literal-id)
          (pattern-id literal-id #:phase phase-expr)
  phase-expr : (or/c exact-integer? #f)
```

The #:literals option specifies identifiers that should be treated as literals rather than pattern variables. An entry in the literals list has two components: the identifier used within the pattern to signify the positions to be

Unlike
syntax-case,
syntax-parse
requires all literals
to have a binding.
To match identifiers
by their symbolic
names, use
#:datum-literals
or the ~datum
pattern form
instead.

matched (pattern-id), and the identifier expected to occur in those positions (literal-id). If the entry is a single identifier, that identifier is used for both purposes.

If the #:phase option is given, then the literal is compared at phase phase-expr. Specifically, the binding of the literal-id at phase phase-expr must match the input's binding at phase phase-expr.

In other words, the *syntax-patterns* are interpreted as if each occurrence of *pattern-id* were replaced with the following pattern:

```
(~literal literal-id #:phase phase-expr)
```

Like #:literals, but the literals are matched as symbols instead of as identifiers.

In other words, the *syntax-patterns* are interpreted as if each occurrence of *pattern-id* were replaced with the following pattern:

```
(~datum literal-id)
```

Many literals can be declared at once via one or more literal sets, imported with the #:literal-sets option. See literal sets for more information.

If the #:at keyword is given, the lexical context of the *lctx* term is used to determine which identifiers in the patterns are treated as literals; this option is useful primarily for macros that generate syntax-parse expressions.

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#:track-literals

If specified, each final *body* expression is further constrained to produce a single value, which must be a syntax object, and its 'disappeared-use syntax property is automatically extended to include literals matched as part of pattern-matching. Literals are automatically tracked from uses of #:literals, #:literal-sets, or ~literal, but they can also be manually tracked using syntax-parse-state-cons!. The property is added or extended in the same way as a property added by syntax-parse-track-literals.

Due to the way the *body* forms are wrapped, specifying this option means the final *body* form will no longer be in tail position with respect to the enclosing syntax-parse form.

Added in version 6.90.0.29 of package base.

```
#:conventions (conventions-id ...)
```

Imports conventions that give default syntax classes to pattern variables that do not explicitly specify a syntax class.

```
#:local-conventions (convention-rule ...)
```

Uses the conventions specified. The advantage of #:local-conventions over #:conventions is that local conventions can be in the scope of syntax-class parameter bindings. See the section on conventions for examples.

```
#:disable-colon-notation
```

Suppresses the "colon notation" for annotated pattern variables.

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(a b c)
        [(x:y ...) 'ok])
syntax-parse: not defined as syntax class
    at: y
    in: (syntax-parse (syntax (a b c)) ((x:y ...) (quote ok)))
> (syntax-parse #'(a b c) #:disable-colon-notation
        [(x:y ...) 'ok])
    'ok

(syntax-parser parse-option ... clause ...+)
```

Like syntax-parse, but produces a matching procedure. The procedure accepts a single argument, which should be a syntax object.

```
(define/syntax-parse syntax-pattern pattern-directive ... stx-expr)
    stx-expr : syntax?
```

Definition form of syntax-parse. That is, it matches the syntax object result of stx-expr against syntax-pattern and creates pattern variable definitions for the attributes of syntax-pattern.

Examples:

```
> (define/syntax-parse ((~seq kw:keyword arg:expr) ...)
    #'(#:a 1 #:b 2 #:c 3))
> #'(kw ...)
#<syntax:eval:7:0 (#:a #:b #:c)>
```

Compare with define/with-syntax, a similar definition form that uses the simpler syntax-case patterns.

1.4 Specifying Syntax with Syntax Classes

Syntax classes provide an abstraction mechanism for syntax patterns. Built-in syntax classes are supplied that recognize basic classes such as identifier and keyword. Programmers can compose basic syntax classes to build specifications of more complex syntax, such as lists of distinct identifiers and formal arguments with keywords. Macros that manipulate the same syntactic structures can share syntax class definitions.

```
(define-syntax-class name-id stxclass-option ...
  stxclass-variant ...+)
(define-syntax-class (name-id . kw-formals) stxclass-option ...
  stxclass-variant ...+)
```

```
stxclass-option = #:attributes (attr-arity-decl ...)
                   #:auto-nested-attributes
                   #:description description-expr
                  #:opaque
                  #:commit
                   #:no-delimit-cut
                  #:literals (literal-entry ...)
                  #:datum-literals (datum-literal-entry ...)
                   #:literal-sets (literal-set ...)
                   #:conventions (convention-id ...)
                   #:local-conventions (convention-rule ...)
                   #:disable-colon-notation
attr-arity-decl = attr-name-id
                 (attr-name-id depth)
stxclass-variant = (pattern syntax-pattern pattern-directive ...)
 description-expr : (or/c string? #f)
```

Defines name-id as a syntax class, which encapsulates one or more single-term patterns.

A syntax class may have formal parameters, in which case they are bound as variables in the body. Syntax classes support optional arguments and keyword arguments using the same syntax as lambda. The body of the syntax-class definition contains a non-empty sequence of pattern variants.

The following options are supported:

Declares the attributes of the syntax class. An attribute arity declaration consists of the attribute name and optionally its ellipsis depth (zero if not explicitly specified).

If the attributes are not explicitly listed, they are inferred as the set of all pattern variables occurring in every variant of the syntax class. Pattern variables that occur at different ellipsis depths are not included, nor are nested attributes from annotated pattern variables.

#:auto-nested-attributes

Deprecated. This option cannot be combined with #:attributes.

Declares the attributes of the syntax class as the set of all pattern variables and nested attributes from annotated pattern variables occurring in every variant of the syntax class. Only syntax classes defined strictly before the enclosing syntax class are used to compute the nested attributes; pattern variables annotated with not-yet-defined syntax classes contribute no nested attributes for export. Note that with this option, reordering syntax-class definitions may change the attributes they export.

```
#:description description-expr

description-expr : (or/c string? #f)
```

The description argument is evaluated in a scope containing the syntax class's parameters. If the result is a string, it is used in error messages involving the syntax class. For example, if a term is rejected by the syntax class, an error of the form "expected description" may be synthesized. If the result is #f, the syntax class is skipped in the search for a description to report.

If the option is not given, the name of the syntax class is used instead.

#:opaque

Indicates that errors should not be reported with respect to the internal structure of the syntax class.

#:commit

Directs the syntax class to "commit" to the first successful match. When a variant succeeds, all choice points within the syntax class are discarded. See also "commit.

#:no-delimit-cut

By default, a cut (~!) within a syntax class only discards choice points within the syntax class. That is, the body of the syntax class acts as though it is wrapped in a ~delimit-cut form. If #:no-delimit-cut is specified, a cut may affect choice points of the syntax class's calling context (another syntax class's patterns or a syntax-parse form).

It is an error to use both #:commit and #:no-delimit-cut.

```
#:literals (literal-entry ...)

#:datum-literals (datum-literal-entry ...)

#:literal-sets (literal-set ...)

#:conventions (convention-id ...)
```

Declares the literals and conventions that apply to the syntax class's variant patterns and their immediate #:with clauses. Patterns occurring within subexpressions of the syntax class (for example, on the right-hand side of a #:fail-when clause) are not affected.

```
#:local-conventions (convention-rule ...)
```

```
#:disable-colon-notation
```

These options have the same meaning as in syntax-parse.

Each variant of a syntax class is specified as a separate pattern-form whose syntax pattern is a single-term pattern.

```
(define-splicing-syntax-class name-id stxclass-option ...
    stxclass-variant ...+)
(define-splicing-syntax-class (name-id . kw-formals) stxclass-option ...
    stxclass-variant ...+)
```

Defines name-id as a splicing syntax class, analogous to a syntax class but encapsulating head patterns rather than single-term patterns.

The options are the same as for define-syntax-class.

Each variant of a splicing syntax class is specified as a separate pattern-form whose syntax pattern is a head pattern.

```
(pattern syntax-pattern pattern-directive ...)
```

Used to indicate a variant of a syntax class or splicing syntax class. The variant accepts syntax matching the given syntax pattern with the accompanying pattern directives.

When used within define-syntax-class, *syntax-pattern* should be a single-term pattern; within define-splicing-syntax-class, it should be a head pattern.

The attributes of the variant are the attributes of the pattern together with all attributes bound by #:with clauses, including nested attributes produced by syntax classes associated with the pattern variables.

```
this-syntax
```

When used as an expression within a syntax-class definition or syntax-parse expression, evaluates to the syntax object or syntax pair being matched.

Examples:

```
> (define-syntax-class one (pattern _ #:attr s this-syntax))
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3) [(1 o:one _) (attribute o.s)])
#<syntax:eval:3:0 2>
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3) [(1 . o:one) (attribute o.s)])
'(#<syntax:eval:4:0 2> #<syntax:eval:4:0 3>)
> (define-splicing-syntax-class two (pattern (~seq _ _) #:attr s this-syntax))
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3) [(t:two 3) (attribute t.s)])
#<syntax:eval:6:0 (1 2 3)>
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3) [(1 t:two) (attribute t.s)])
'(#<syntax:eval:7:0 2> #<syntax:eval:7:0 3>)
```

Raises an error when used as an expression outside of a syntax-class definition or syntax-parse expression.

A structure type property to identify structure types that act as an alias for a syntax class or splicing syntax class. The property value must be an identifier or a procedure of one argument.

When a transformer is bound to an instance of a struct with this property, then it may be used as a syntax class or splicing syntax class in the same way as the bindings created by define-syntax-class or define-splicing-syntax-class. If the value of the property is an identifier, then it should be bound to a syntax class or splicing syntax class, and the binding will be treated as an alias for the referenced syntax class. If the value of the property is a

procedure, then it will be applied to the value with the prop:syntax-class property to obtain an identifier, which will then be used as in the former case.

Examples:

```
> (begin-for-syntax
    (struct expr-and-stxclass (expr-id stxclass-id)
      #:property prop:procedure
      (lambda (this stx) ((set!-transformer-procedure
                           (make-variable-like-transformer
                             (expr-and-stxclass-expr-id this)))
                          stx))
      #:property prop:syntax-class
      (lambda (this) (expr-and-stxclass-stxclass-id this))))
> (define-syntax is-id? (expr-and-stxclass #'identifier? #'id))
> (is-id? #'x)
#t
> (syntax-parse #'x
    [x:is-id? #t]
    [_ #f])
#t
```

Added in version 7.2.0.4 of package base.

1.4.1 Pattern Directives

Both the parsing forms and syntax class definition forms support *pattern directives* for annotating syntax patterns and specifying side conditions. The grammar for pattern directives follows:

#:declare pvar-id stxclass maybe-role

Associates <code>pvar-id</code> with a syntax class and possibly a role, equivalent to replacing each occurrence of <code>pvar-id</code> in the pattern with ("var <code>pvar-id</code> stx-class <code>maybe-role</code>). The second form of <code>stxclass</code> allows the use of parameterized syntax classes, which cannot be expressed using the "colon" notation. The <code>args</code> are evaluated in the scope where the <code>pvar-id</code> occurs in the pattern. Keyword arguments are supported, using the same syntax as in <code>#%app</code>.

If a #:with directive appears between the main pattern (e.g., in a syntax-parse or define-syntax-class clause) and a #:declare, then only pattern variables from the #:with pattern may be declared.

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'P
     [x]
      #:declare x id
      #'x])
#<syntax:eval:12:0 P>
> (syntax-parse #'L
     [x]
      #:with y #'x
      #:declare x id
      #'x])
syntax-parse: identifier in #:declare clause does not appear
 this #:declare clause affects only the preceding #:with
pattern
  at: x
  in: (syntax-parse (syntax L) (x #:with y (syntax x)
\#:declare\ x\ id\ (syntax\ x)))
> (syntax-parse #'T
    [x]
      #:with y #'x
      #:declare y id
      #'x])
#<syntax:eval:14:0 T>
```

#:post action-pattern

Executes the given action pattern as a "post-traversal check" after matching the main pattern. That is, the following are equivalent:

```
main-pattern #:post action-pattern
main-pattern #:and (~post action-pattern)
(~and main-pattern (~post action-pattern))
```

```
#:and action-pattern
```

Like #:post except that no ~post wrapper is added. That is, the following are equivalent:

```
main-pattern #:and action-pattern
(~and main-pattern action-pattern)
```

```
#:with syntax-pattern stx-expr
```

Evaluates the <code>stx-expr</code> in the context of all previous attribute bindings and matches it against the pattern. If the match succeeds, the pattern's attributes are added to environment for the evaluation of subsequent side conditions. If the <code>#:with</code> match fails, the matching process backtracks. Since a syntax object may match a pattern in several ways, backtracking may cause the same clause to be tried multiple times before the next clause is reached.

If the value of *stx-expr* is not a syntax object, it is implicitly converted to a syntax object. If the conversion would produce *3D syntax*—that is, syntax that contains unwritable values such as procedures, non-prefab structures, etc—then an exception is raised instead.

```
Equivalent to #:post (~parse syntax-pattern stx-expr). Examples:
```

```
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3)
        [(a b c)
        #:with rev #'(c b a)
        #'rev])
#<syntax:eval:15:0 (3 2 1)>
> (syntax-parse #'(['x "Ex."] ['y "Why?"] ['z "Zee!"])
        [([stuff ...] ...)
        #:with h #'(hash stuff ... ...)
        #'h])
#<syntax:eval:16:0 (hash (quote x) "Ex." (quote y)
"Why?" (quote z) "Zee!")>
```

```
#:attr attr-arity-decl expr
```

Evaluates the *expr* in the context of all previous attribute bindings and binds it to the given attribute. The value of *expr* need not be, or even contain, syntax—see attribute for details.

Equivalent to #:and (~bind attr-arity-decl expr).

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'("do" "mi")
     [(a b)
        #:attr rev #'(b a)
        #'rev])
#<syntax:eval:17:0 ("mi" "do")>
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2)
        [(a:number b:number)
        #:attr sum (+ (syntax-e #'a) (syntax-e #'b))
        (attribute sum)])
3
```

The #:attr directive is often used in syntax classes:

Examples:

```
> (define-syntax-class ab-sum
          (pattern (a:number b:number)
          #:attr sum (+ (syntax-e #'a) (syntax-e #'b))))
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2)
          [x:ab-sum
                (attribute x.sum)])
3
```

```
#:fail-when condition-expr message-expr
message-expr : (or/c string? #f)
```

Evaluates the *condition-expr* in the context of all previous attribute bindings. If the value is any true value (not #f), the matching process backtracks (with the given message); otherwise, it continues. If the value of the condition expression is a syntax object, it is indicated as the cause of the error.

If the message-expr produces a string it is used as the failure message; otherwise the failure is reported in terms of the enclosing descriptions.

```
Equivalent to #:post (~fail #:when condition-expr message-expr). Examples:
```

```
> (syntax-parse #'(m 4)
      [(m x:number)
```

```
#:fail-when (even? (syntax-e #'x))
            "expected an odd number"
            #'x])
      m: expected an odd number
         at: (m 4)
         in: (m 4)
       > (syntax-parse #'(m 4)
           [(m x:number)
            #:fail-when (and (even? (syntax-e #'x)) #'x)
            "expected an odd number"
            #'x])
       m: expected an odd number
         at: 4
         in: (m 4)
 #:fail-unless condition-expr message-expr
   message-expr : (or/c string? #f)
     Like #:fail-when with the condition negated.
     Equivalent to #:post (~fail #:unless condition-expr message-
     expr).
     Example:
       > (syntax-parse #'(m 5)
           [(m x:number)
            #:fail-unless (even? (syntax-e #'x))
            "expected an even number"
            #'x])
       m: expected an even number
         at: (m 5)
         in: (m 5)
#:when condition-expr
     Evaluates the condition-expr in the context of all previous attribute bindings.
     If the value is #f, the matching process backtracks. In other words, #:when is
     like #:fail-unless without the message argument.
     Equivalent to #:post (~fail #:unless condition-expr #f).
     Example:
       > (syntax-parse #'(m 5)
```

```
[(m x:number)

#:when (even? (syntax-e #'x))

#'x])

m: bad syntax

in: (m 5)
```

```
#:do [defn-or-expr ...]
```

Takes a sequence of definitions and expressions, which may be intermixed, and evaluates them in the scope of all previous attribute bindings. The names bound by the definitions are in scope in the expressions of subsequent patterns and clauses.

There is currently no way to bind attributes using a #:do block. It is an error to shadow an attribute binding with a definition in a #:do block.

```
Equivalent to #:and (~do defn-or-expr ...).
```

```
#:undo [defn-or-expr ...]
```

Has no effect when initially matched, but if backtracking returns to a point *before* the #:undo directive, the *defn-or-exprs* are executed. See ~undo for an example.

```
Equivalent to #: and (~undo defn-or-expr ...).
```

#:cut

Eliminates backtracking choice points and commits parsing to the current branch at the current point.

```
Equivalent to #: and ~!.
```

1.4.2 Pattern Variables and Attributes

An *attribute* is a name bound by a syntax pattern. An attribute can be a pattern variable itself, or it can be a nested attribute bound by an annotated pattern variable. The name of a nested attribute is computed by concatenating the pattern variable name with the syntax class's exported attribute's name, separated by a dot (see the example below).

Attributes can be used in three ways: with the attribute form; inside syntax templates via syntax, quasisyntax, etc; and inside datum templates. Attribute names cannot be used directly as expressions; that is, attributes are not variables.

A syntax-valued attribute is an attribute whose value is a syntax object or list of the appropriate ellipsis depth. That is, an attribute with ellipsis depth 0 is syntax-valued if its value is syntax?; an attribute with ellipsis depth 1 is syntax-valued if its value is (listof syntax?); an attribute with ellipsis depth 2 is syntax-valued if its value is (listof syntax?)); and so on. The value is considered syntax-valued if it contains promises that when completely forced produces a suitable syntax object or list. Syntax-valued attributes can be used within syntax, quasisyntax, etc as part of a syntax template. If an attribute is used inside a syntax template but it is not syntax-valued, an error is signaled.

There are uses for non-syntax-valued attributes. A non-syntax-valued attribute can be used to return a parsed representation of a subterm or the results of an analysis on the subterm. A non-syntax-valued attribute must be bound using the #:attr directive or a ~bind pattern; #:with and ~parse will convert the right-hand side to a (possibly 3D) syntax object.

Example:

The table syntax class provides four attributes: key, value, hashtable, and sorted-kv. The hashtable attribute has ellipsis depth 0 and the rest have depth 1; key, value, and sorted-kv are syntax-valued, but hashtable is not. The sorted-kv attribute's value is a promise; it will be automatically forced if used in a template.

Syntax-valued attributes can be used in syntax templates:

```
> (syntax-parse #'((a 3) (b 2) (c 1))
    [t:table
      #'(t.key ...)])
#<syntax:eval:26:0 (a b c)>
> (syntax-parse #'((a 3) (b 2) (c 1))
    [t:table
      #'(t.sorted-kv ...)])
sorting!
#<syntax:eval:27:0 ((c 1) (b 2) (a 3))>
```

But non-syntax-valued attributes cannot:

```
> (syntax-parse #'((a 3) (b 2) (c 1))
    [t:table
      #'t.hashtable])
t.hashtable: attribute contains non-syntax value
    value: '#hash((a . 3) (b . 2) (c . 1))
    in: t.hashtable
```

The attribute form gets the value of an attribute, whether it is syntax-valued or not.

```
> (syntax-parse #'((a 1) (b 2) (c 3))
     [t:table
         (attribute t.hashtable)])
'#hash((a . 1) (b . 2) (c . 3))
> (syntax-parse #'((a 3) (b 2) (c 1))
     [t:table
         (attribute t.sorted-kv)])
#promise:sorted-kv326>
```

Every attribute has an associated *ellipsis depth* that determines how it can be used in a syntax template (see the discussion of ellipses in syntax). For a pattern variable, the ellipsis depth is the number of ellipses the pattern variable "occurs under" in the pattern. An attribute bound by #:attr has depth 0 unless declared otherwise. For a nested attribute the depth is the sum of the annotated pattern variable's depth and the depth of the attribute exported by the syntax class.

Consider the following code:

```
(define-syntax-class quark
  (pattern (a b ...)))
(syntax-parse some-term
  [(x (y:quark ...) ... z:quark)
   some-code])
```

The syntax class quark exports two attributes: a at depth 0 and b at depth 1. The syntax-parse pattern has three pattern variables: x at depth 0, y at depth 2, and z at depth 0. Since y and z are annotated with the quark syntax class, the pattern also binds the following nested attributes: y a at depth 2, y b at depth 3, z a at depth 0, and z b at depth 1.

An attribute's ellipsis nesting depth is *not* a guarantee that it is syntax-valued or has any list structure. In particular, ~or* and ~optional patterns may result in attributes with fewer than expected levels of list nesting, and #:attr and ~bind can be used to bind attributes to arbitrary values.

```
> (syntax-parse #'(a b 3)
        [(~or* (x:id ...) _)
             (attribute x)])
#f

(attribute attr-id)
```

Returns the value associated with the attribute named attr-id. If attr-id is not bound as an attribute, a syntax error is raised.

Attributes and datum

The datum form is another way, in addition to syntax and attribute, of using syntax pattern variables and attributes. Unlike syntax, datum does not require attributes to be syntax-valued. Wherever the syntax form would create syntax objects based on its template (as opposed to reusing syntax objects bound by pattern variables), the datum form creates plain S-expressions.

Continuing the table example from above, we can use datum with the key attribute as follows:

```
> (syntax-parse #'((a 1) (b 2) (c 3))
    [t:table (datum (t.key ...))])
'(#<syntax:eval:32:0 a> #<syntax:eval:32:0 b> #<syntax:eval:32:0
c>)
```

A datum template may contain multiple pattern variables combined within some S-expression structure:

```
> (syntax-parse #'((a 1) (b 2) (c 3))
    [t:table (datum ([t.key t.value] ...))])
'((#<syntax:eval:33:0 a> #<syntax:eval:33:0 1>)
    (#<syntax:eval:33:0 b> #<syntax:eval:33:0 2>)
    (#<syntax:eval:33:0 c> #<syntax:eval:33:0 3>))
```

A datum template can use the ~0 and ~? template forms:

```
> (syntax-parse #'((a 1) (b 2) (c 3))
    [t:table (datum ((~@ t.key t.value) ...))])
'(#<syntax:eval:34:0 a>
    #<syntax:eval:34:0 b>
    #<syntax:eval:34:0 2>
    #<syntax:eval:34:0 c>
    #<syntax:eval:34:0 3>)
```

```
> (syntax-parse #'((a 56) (b 71) (c 13))
    [t:table (datum ((~@ . t.sorted-kv) ...))])
sorting!
'(#<syntax:eval:35:0 c>
  #<syntax:eval:35:0 13>
  #<syntax:eval:35:0 a>
  #<syntax:eval:35:0 56>
  #<syntax:eval:35:0 b>
  #<syntax:eval:35:0 71>)
> (syntax-parse #'( ((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)) ((d 4) (e 5)))
    [(t1:table (~or* t2:table #:nothing))
     (datum (t1.key ... (~? (~@ t2.key ...))))])
'(#<syntax:eval:36:0 a>
  #<syntax:eval:36:0 b>
  #<syntax:eval:36:0 c>
  #<syntax:eval:36:0 d>
  #<syntax:eval:36:0 e>)
> (syntax-parse #'( ((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)) #:nothing)
    [(t1:table (~or* t2:table #:nothing))
     (datum (t1.key ... (~? (~0 t2.key ...))))])
'(#<syntax:eval:37:0 a> #<syntax:eval:37:0 b> #<syntax:eval:37:0
c>)
```

However, unlike for syntax, a value of #f only signals a template failure to ~? if a list is needed for ellipsis iteration, as in the previous example; it does not cause a failure when it occurs as a leaf. Contrast the following:

```
> (syntax-parse #'( ((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)) #:nothing)
      [(t1:table (~or* t2:table #:nothing))
      #'(~? t2 skipped)])
#<syntax:eval:38:0 skipped>
> (syntax-parse #'( ((a 1) (b 2) (c 3)) #:nothing)
      [(t1:table (~or* t2:table #:nothing))
          (datum (~? t2 skipped))])
#f
```

The datum form is also useful for accessing non-syntax-valued attributes. Compared to attribute, datum has the following advantage: The use of ellipses in datum templates provides a visual reminder of the list structure of their results. For example, if the pattern is (t:table ...), then both (attribute t.hashtable) and (datum (t.hashtable ...)) produce a (listof hash?), but the ellipses make it more apparent.

Changed in version 7.8.0.9 of package base: Added support for syntax pattern variables and attributes to datum.

1.5 Syntax Patterns

The grammar of *syntax patterns* used by syntax/parse facilities is given in the following table. There are four main kinds of syntax pattern:

- single-term patterns, abbreviated S-pattern
- head patterns, abbreviated *H-pattern*
- ellipsis-head patterns, abbreviated EH-pattern
- ullet action patterns, abbreviated A-pattern

A fifth kind, list patterns (abbreviated *L-pattern*), is just a syntactically restricted subset of single-term patterns.

When a special form in this manual refers to *syntax-pattern* (eg, the description of the syntax-parse special form), it means specifically single-term pattern.

```
S-pattern = pvar-id
           | pvar-id:syntax-class-id
            pvar-id:literal-id
            literal-id
            (~var<sup>s-</sup> id)
             (~var<sup>s+</sup> id syntax-class-id maybe-role)
             (~var<sup>s+</sup> id (syntax-class-id arg ...) maybe-role)
             (~literal literal-id maybe-phase)
             atomic-datum
            (~datum datum)
            (H-pattern . S-pattern)
            (A-pattern . S-pattern)
             (EH-pattern ... S-pattern)
             (H-pattern ...+ . S-pattern)
             (~and<sup>s</sup> proper-S/A-pattern ...+)
             (~or*<sup>S</sup> S-pattern ...+)
             (~not S-pattern)
             #(pattern-part ...)
             #s(prefab-struct-key pattern-part ...)
             #&S-pattern
             (~rest S-pattern)
             (~describe<sup>s</sup> maybe-opaque maybe-role expr S-pattern)
             (~commit<sup>s</sup> S-pattern)
             (~delimit-cut<sup>s</sup> S-pattern)
             (~post<sup>s</sup> S-pattern)
             A-pattern
```

```
L-pattern = ()
                 (A-pattern . L-pattern)
                 (H-pattern . L-pattern)
                 (EH-pattern ... L-pattern)
                  (H-pattern ...+ . L-pattern)
                 (~rest L-pattern)
       H-pattern = pvar-id:splicing-syntax-class-id
                   (~varh id splicing-syntax-class-id maybe-role)
                   (~varh id (splicing-syntax-class-id arg ...)
                          maybe-role)
                  (~seq . L-pattern)
                  (~andh proper-H/A-pattern ...+)
                  (~or*h H-pattern ...+)
                  (~optional H-pattern maybe-optional-option)
                   (~describeh maybe-opaque maybe-role expr H-pattern)
                   (~commith H-pattern)
                   (~delimit-cuth H-pattern)
                   (~posth H-patter)
                   (~peek H-pattern)
                   (~peek-not H-pattern)
                   proper-S-pattern
      EH-pattern = (~alt EH-pattern ...)
                 (~once H-pattern once-option ...)
                 (~optional<sup>eh</sup> H-pattern optional-option ...)
                  (~between H min-number max-number between-option)
                 H-pattern
       A-pattern = ~!
                  (~bind [attr-arity-decl expr] ...)
                   (~fail maybe-fail-condition maybe-message-expr)
                  (~parse S-pattern stx-expr)
                   (~anda A-pattern ...+)
                   (~post<sup>a</sup> A-pattern)
                   (~do defn-or-expr ...)
                   (~undo defn-or-expr ...)
proper-S-pattern = a S-pattern that is not a A-pattern
proper-H-pattern = a H-pattern that is not a S-pattern
```

~var

One of "vars-, "vars+, or "varh.

~and

One of "ands, "andh, or "anda:

- ~anda if all of the conjuncts are action patterns
- ~andh if any of the conjuncts is a proper head pattern
- ~and^s otherwise

~or*

One of ~or*s or ~or*h:

- ~or*h if any of the disjuncts is a proper head pattern
- ~or*^s otherwise

~or

Behaves like ~or*⁸, ~or*^h, or ~alt:

- like ~alt if the pattern occurs directly before ellipses (...) or immediately within another ~alt pattern
- like ~or*h if any of the disjuncts is a proper head pattern
- like ~or*s otherwise

The context-sensitive interpretation of ~or is a design mistake and a common source of confusion. Use ~alt and ~or* instead.

~describe

One of ~describe⁸ or ~describe^h:

- \bullet ~describe^h if the subpattern is a proper head pattern
- ~describe^s otherwise

~commit

One of $\mbox{-commit}^s$ or $\mbox{-commit}^h$:

- ~commit^h if the subpattern is a proper head pattern
- ~commit^s otherwise

~delimit-cut

One of "delimit-cut" or "delimit-cut":

- \bullet ~delimit-cut h if the subpattern is a proper head pattern
- ~delimit-cut^s otherwise

~post

One of "posts, "posth, or "posta:

- ~post^a if the subpattern is an action pattern
- ~posth if the subpattern is a proper head pattern
- ~post^s otherwise

~optional

One of $\ \$ optional h or $\ \ \ \ \ \$ optional eh :

- ullet ~ optional eh if it is an immediate disjunct of an ~alt pattern
- ~optionalh otherwise

1.5.1 Single-term Patterns

A *single-term pattern* (abbreviated *S-pattern*) is a pattern that describes a single term. These are like the traditional patterns used in syntax-rules and syntax-case, but with additional variants that make them more expressive.

"Single-term" does not mean "atomic"; a single-term pattern can have complex structure, and it can match terms that have many parts. For example, (17 ...) is a single-term pattern that matches any term that is a proper list of repeated 17 numerals.

A proper single-term pattern is one that is not an action pattern.

The *list patterns* (for "list pattern") are single-term patterns having a restricted structure that guarantees that they match only terms that are proper lists.

Here are the variants of single-term pattern:

id

An identifier can be either a pattern variable, an annotated pattern variable, or a literal:

• If *id* is the "pattern" name of an entry in the literals list, it is a literal pattern that behaves like ("literal *id*).

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(define x 12)
    #:literals (define)
    [(define var:id body:expr) 'ok])
'ok
> (syntax-parse #'(lambda x 12)
    #:literals (define)
    [(define var:id body:expr) 'ok])
lambda: expected the identifier `define'
  at: lambda
  in: (lambda x 12)
> (syntax-parse #'(define x 12)
    #:literals ([def define])
    [(def var:id body:expr) 'ok])
'ok
> (syntax-parse #'(lambda x 12)
    #:literals ([def define])
    [(def var:id body:expr) 'ok])
lambda: expected the identifier `define'
  at: lambda
  in: (lambda x 12)
```

• If id is of the form pvar-id:syntax-class-id (that is, two names joined by a colon character), it is an annotated pattern variable, and the pattern is equivalent to (~var pvar-id syntax-class-id).

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'a
    [var:id (syntax-e #'var)])
'a
```

```
> (syntax-parse #'12
    [var:id (syntax-e #'var)])
?: expected identifier
  at: 12
  in: 12
> (define-syntax-class two
    #:attributes (x y)
    (pattern (x y)))
> (syntax-parse #'(a b)
    [t:two (syntax->datum #'(t t.x t.y))])
'((a b) a b)
> (syntax-parse #'(a b)
    Γt
     #:declare t two
     (syntax->datum #'(t t.x t.y))])
'((a b) a b)
```

Note that an id of the form :syntax-class-id is legal; see the discussion of a ~var^{s+} form with a zero-length pvar-id.

• If id is of the form pvar-id:literal-id, where literal-id is in the literals list, then it is equivalent to (~and (~var pvar-id) literal-id).

Examples:

```
> (require (only-in racket/base [define def]))
> (syntax-parse #'(def x 7)
    #:literals (define)
    [(d:define var:id body:expr) #'d])
#<syntax:eval:11:0 def>
```

Otherwise, id is a pattern variable, and the pattern is equivalent to (~var id).

```
(~var pvar-id)
```

A pattern variable. If pvar-id has no syntax class (by #:convention), the pattern variable matches anything. The pattern variable is bound to the matched subterm, unless the pattern variable is the wildcard (_), in which case no binding occurs.

If *pvar-id* does have an associated syntax class, it behaves like an annotated pattern variable with the implicit syntax class inserted.

```
(~var pvar-id syntax-class-use maybe-role)
```

An *annotated pattern variable*. The pattern matches only terms accepted by syntax-class-id (parameterized by the args, if present).

In addition to binding *pvar-id*, an annotated pattern variable also binds *nested attributes* from the syntax class. The names of the nested attributes are formed by prefixing *pvar-id*. (that is, *pvar-id* followed by a "dot" character) to the name of the syntax class's attribute.

If pvar-id is _, no attributes are bound. If pvar-id is the zero-length identifier (||), then pvar-id is not bound, but the nested attributes of syntax-class-use are bound without prefixes.

If *role-expr* is given and evaluates to a string, it is combined with the syntax class's description in error messages.

```
> (syntax-parse #'a
    [(~var var id) (syntax-e #'var)])
> (syntax-parse #'12
    [(~var var id) (syntax-e #'var)])
?: expected identifier
 at: 12
  in: 12
> (define-syntax-class two
    #:attributes (x y)
    (pattern (x y)))
> (syntax-parse #'(a b)
    [(~var t two) (syntax->datum #'(t t.x t.y))])
'((a b) a b)
> (define-syntax-class (nat-less-than n)
    (pattern x:nat #:when (< (syntax-e #'x) n)))</pre>
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3 4 5)
    [((~var small (nat-less-than 4)) ... large:nat ...)
     (list #'(small ...) #'(large ...))])
'(#<syntax:eval:17:0 (1 2 3)> #<syntax:eval:17:0 (4 5)>)
> (syntax-parse #'(m a b 3)
    [(_ (~var x id #:role "variable") ...) 'ok])
```

```
m: expected identifier for variable
         at: 3
         in: (m a b 3)
 ("literal literal-id maybe-phase)
 maybe-phase =
               #:phase phase-expr
     A literal identifier pattern. Matches any identifier free-identifier=? to
     literal-id.
     Examples:
       > (syntax-parse #'(define x 12)
            [((~literal define) var:id body:expr) 'ok])
       > (syntax-parse #'(lambda x 12)
            [((~literal define) var:id body:expr) 'ok])
       lambda: expected the identifier `define'
         at: lambda
         in: (lambda x 12)
     The identifiers are compared at the phase given by phase-expr, if it is given,
     or (syntax-local-phase-level) otherwise.
atomic-datum
     Numbers, strings, booleans, keywords, and the empty list match as literals.
     Examples:
       > (syntax-parse #'(a #:foo bar)
            [(x #:foo y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
       'bar
       > (syntax-parse #'(a foo bar)
            [(x #:foo y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
       a: expected the literal #:foo
         at: foo
         in: (a foo bar)
```

Matches syntax whose S-expression contents (obtained by syntax->datum) is

(~datum datum)

Examples:

equal? to the given datum.

```
> (syntax-parse #'(a #:foo bar)
    [(x (~datum #:foo) y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
'bar
> (syntax-parse #'(a foo bar)
    [(x (~datum #:foo) y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
a: expected the literal #:foo
    at: foo
    in: (a foo bar)
```

The "datum form is useful for recognizing identifiers symbolically, in contrast to the "literal form, which recognizes them by binding.

Examples:

(H-pattern . S-pattern)

Matches any term that can be decomposed into a list prefix matching *H*-pattern and a suffix matching *S*-pattern.

Note that the pattern may match terms that are not even improper lists; if the head pattern can match a zero-length head, then the whole pattern matches whatever the tail pattern accepts.

The first pattern can be a single-term pattern, in which case the whole pattern matches any pair whose first element matches the first pattern and whose rest matches the second.

See head patterns for more information.

(A-pattern . S-pattern)

Performs the actions specified by A-pattern, then matches any term that matches S-pattern.

Pragmatically, one can throw an action pattern into any list pattern. Thus, (x y z) is a pattern matching a list of three terms, and (x y ~! z) is a pattern matching a list of three terms, with a cut performed after the second one. In other words, action patterns "don't take up space."

See action patterns for more information.

```
(EH-pattern ... S-pattern)
```

Matches any term that can be decomposed into a list head matching some number of repetitions of the *EH-pattern* alternatives (subject to its repetition constraints) followed by a list tail matching *S-pattern*.

In other words, the whole pattern matches either the second pattern (which need not be a list) or a term whose head matches one of the alternatives of the first pattern and whose tail recursively matches the whole sequence pattern.

See ellipsis-head patterns for more information.

```
(H-pattern ...+ . S-pattern)
```

Like an ellipses (...) pattern, but requires at least one occurrence of the head pattern to be present.

That is, the following patterns are equivalent:

```
• (H ...+ . S)
• ((~between H 1 +inf.0) ... . S)
```

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3)
       [(n:nat ...+) 'ok])
'ok
> (syntax-parse #'()
       [(n:nat ...+) 'ok]
       [_ 'none])
'none
```

```
(~and S/A-pattern ...)
```

Matches any term that matches all of the subpatterns.

The subpatterns can contain a mixture of single-term patterns and action patterns, but must contain at least one single-term pattern.

Attributes bound in subpatterns are available to subsequent subpatterns. The whole pattern binds all of the subpatterns' attributes.

One use for ~and-patterns is preserving a whole term (including its lexical context, source location, etc) while also examining its structure. Syntax classes are useful for the same purpose, but ~and can be lighter weight.

Examples:

Matches any term that matches one of the included patterns. The alternatives are tried in order.

The whole pattern binds *all* of the subpatterns' attributes. An attribute that is not bound by the "chosen" subpattern has a value of #f. The same attribute may be bound by multiple subpatterns, and if it is bound by all of the subpatterns, it is sure to have a value if the whole pattern matches.

```
> (syntax-parse #'a
       [(~or* x:id y:nat) (values (attribute x) (attribute y))])
#<syntax:eval:34:0 a>
#f
> (syntax-parse #'(a 1)
       [(~or* (x:id y:nat) (x:id)) (values #'x (attribute y))])
#<syntax:eval:35:0 a>
#<syntax:eval:35:0 1>
> (syntax-parse #'(b)
       [(~or* (x:id y:nat) (x:id)) (values #'x (attribute y))])
#<syntax:eval:36:0 b>
#f
```

```
(~not S-pattern)
```

Matches any term that does not match the subpattern. None of the subpattern's attributes are bound outside of the "not-pattern.

Example:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(x y z => u v)
    #:literals (=>)
    [((~and before (~not =>)) ... => after ...)
    (list #'(before ...) #'(after ...))])
'(#<syntax:eval:37:0 (x y z)> #<syntax:eval:37:0 (u v)>)
```

```
#(pattern-part ...)
```

Matches a term that is a vector whose elements, when considered as a list, match the single-term pattern corresponding to (pattern-part ...).

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'#(1 2 3)
      [#(x y z) (syntax->datum #'z)])
3
> (syntax-parse #'#(1 2 3)
      [#(x y ...) (syntax->datum #'(y ...))])
'(2 3)
> (syntax-parse #'#(1 2 3)
      [#(x ~rest y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
'(2 3)
```

```
#s(prefab-struct-key pattern-part ...)
```

Matches a term that is a prefab struct whose key is exactly the given key and whose sequence of fields, when considered as a list, match the single-term pattern corresponding to (pattern-part ...).

```
> (syntax-parse #'#s(point 1 2 3)
        [#s(point x y z) 'ok])
'ok
> (syntax-parse #'#s(point 1 2 3)
        [#s(point x y ...) (syntax->datum #'(y ...))])
'(2 3)
> (syntax-parse #'#s(point 1 2 3)
        [#s(point x ~rest y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
```

```
'(2 3)
```

#&S-pattern

Matches a term that is a box whose contents matches the inner single-term pattern.

Example:

```
> (syntax-parse #'#&5
    [#&n:nat 'ok])
'ok
```

(~rest S-pattern)

Matches just like *S*-pattern. The "rest pattern form is useful in positions where improper ("dotted") lists are not allowed by the reader, such as vector and structure patterns (see above).

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3)
       [(x ~rest y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
'(2 3)
> (syntax-parse #'#(1 2 3)
      [#(x ~rest y) (syntax->datum #'y)])
'(2 3)
```

The ~describe pattern form annotates a pattern with a description, a string expression that is evaluated in the scope of all prior attribute bindings. If parsing the inner pattern fails, then the description is used to synthesize the error message. A ~describe pattern does not influence backtracking.

If #: opaque is given, failure information from within *S*-pattern is discarded and the error is reported solely in terms of the description given.

If *role-expr* is given and produces a string, its value is combined with the description in error messages.

Examples:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(m 1)
     [(_ (~describe "id pair" (x:id y:id))) 'ok])
m: expected id pair
  at: 1
  in: (m 1)
> (syntax-parse #'(m (a 2))
    [(_ (~describe "id pair" (x:id y:id))) 'ok])
m: expected identifier
  at: 2
  in: (m (a 2))
  parsing context:
   while parsing id pair
    term: (a 2)
    location: eval:48:0
> (syntax-parse #'(m (a 2))
     [(_ (~describe #:opaque "id pair" (x:id y:id))) 'ok])
m: expected id pair
  at: (a 2)
  in: (m (a 2))
> (syntax-parse #'(m 1)
     [(_ (~describe #:role "formals" "id
pair" (x y))) 'ok])
m: expected id pair for formals
  at: 1
  in: (m 1)
```

The ~commit pattern form affects backtracking in two ways:

- If the pattern succeeds, then all choice points created within the subpattern are discarded, and a failure *after* the ~commit pattern backtracks only to choice points *before* the ~commit pattern, never one *within* it.
- A cut (~!) within a ~commit pattern only eliminates choice-points created within the ~commit pattern. In this sense, it acts just like ~delimit-cut.

```
(~delimit-cut S-pattern)
```

(~commit S-pattern)

The "delimit-cut pattern form affects backtracking in the following way:

• A cut (~!) within a ~delimit-cut pattern only eliminates choice-points created within the ~delimit-cut pattern.

```
(~post S-pattern)
```

Marks failures within the subpattern as occurring in a "post-order check"; that is, they are considered to have made greater progress than a normal failure.

A-pattern

An action pattern is considered a single-term pattern when there is no ambiguity; it matches any term.

1.5.2 Head Patterns

A *head pattern* (abbreviated *H-pattern*) is a pattern that describes some number of terms that occur at the head of some list (possibly an improper list). A head pattern's usefulness comes from being able to match heads of different lengths, such as optional forms like keyword arguments.

A proper head pattern is a head pattern that is not a single-term pattern.

Here are the variants of head pattern:

Pattern variable annotated with a splicing syntax class. Similar to a normal annotated pattern variable, except matches a head pattern.

```
(~seq . L-pattern)
```

Matches a sequence of terms whose elements, if put in a list, would match *L*-pattern.

Example:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3 4)
      [((~seq 1 2 3) 4) 'ok])
'ok
```

See also the section on ellipsis-head patterns for more interesting examples of ~seq.

```
(~and H-pattern ...)
```

Like the single-term pattern version, ~ands, but matches a sequence of terms instead.

Example:

The head pattern variant of "and requires that all of the subpatterns be proper head patterns (not single-term patterns). This is to prevent typos like the following, a variant of the previous example with the second "seq omitted:

```
positional-stuff...) (syntax->datum (syntax ((k ...) (e
      ...) (keyword-stuff ...)))))
       ; If the example above were allowed, it would be equiva-
      lent to this:
       > (syntax-parse #'(#:a 1 #:b 2 3 4 5)
           [((~and (~seq (~seq k:keyword e:expr) ...)
                    ("seq (keyword-stuff ...)))
             positional-stuff ...)
            (syntax->datum #'((k ...) (e ...) (keyword-
       stuff ...)))])
       ?: bad syntax
         in: (#:a 1 #:b 2 3 4 5)
(~or* H-pattern ...)
     Like the single-term pattern version, ~or*s, but matches a sequence of terms
     instead.
     Examples:
       > (syntax-parse #'(m #:foo 2 a b c)
           [(_ (~or* (~seq #:foo x) (~seq)) y:id ...)
            (attribute x)])
       #<syntax:eval:55:0 2>
       > (syntax-parse #'(m a b c)
           [(_ (~or* (~seq #:foo x) (~seq)) y:id ...)
            (attribute x)])
      #f
 (~optional H-pattern maybe-optional-option)
 maybe-optional-option =
                         | #:defaults ([attr-arity-decl expr] ...)
       attr-arity-decl = attr-id
                         (attr-id depth)
```

Matches either the given head subpattern or an empty sequence of terms. If the #:defaults option is given, the subsequent attribute bindings are used if the subpattern does not match. The default attributes must be a subset of the subpattern's attributes.

```
> (syntax-parse #'(m #:foo 2 a b c)
```

```
[(_ (~optional (~seq #:foo x) #:defaults ([x #'#f])) y:id ...)
             (attribute x)])
       #<syntax:eval:57:0 2>
       > (syntax-parse #'(m a b c)
            [(_ (~optional (~seq #:foo x) #:defaults ([x #'#f])) y:id ...)
             (attribute x)])
       #<syntax:eval:58:0 #f>
       > (syntax-parse #'(m a b c)
            [(_ (~optional (~seq #:foo x)) y:id ...)
             (attribute x)])
       > (syntax-parse #'(m #:syms a b c)
            [(_ (~optional (~seq #:nums n:nat ...) #:defaults ([(n 1) null]))
                ("optional ("seq #:syms s:id ...) #:defaults ([(s 1) null])))
             #'((n ...) (s ...))])
       #<syntax:eval:60:0 (() (a b c))>
(~describe expr H-pattern)
     Like the single-term pattern version, "describes, but matches a head pattern
     instead.
(~commit H-pattern)
     Like the single-term pattern version, ~commit<sup>s</sup>, but matches a head pattern in-
     stead.
(~delimit-cut H-pattern)
     Like the single-term pattern version, ~delimit-cut<sup>s</sup>, but matches a head pat-
     tern instead.
(~post H-pattern)
     Like the single-term pattern version, ~post<sup>s</sup>, but matches a head pattern instead.
(~peek H-pattern)
     Matches the H-pattern but then resets the matching position, so the ~peek
     pattern consumes no input. Used to look ahead in a sequence.
```

(~peek-not *H-pattern*)

Like ~peek, but succeeds if the subpattern fails and fails if the subpattern succeeds. On success, the ~peek-not resets the matching position, so the pattern consumes no input. Used to look ahead in a sequence. None of the subpattern's attributes are bound outside of the ~peek-not-pattern.

Examples:

S-pattern

Matches a sequence of one element, which must be a term matching *S*-pattern.

1.5.3 Ellipsis-head Patterns

An *ellipsis-head pattern* (abbreviated *EH-pattern*) is pattern that describes some number of terms, like a head pattern, but also places constraints on the number of times it occurs in a repetition. They are useful for matching, for example, keyword arguments where the keywords may come in any order. Multiple alternatives are grouped together via ~alt.

The pattern requires exactly one occurrence of the #:a keyword and argument, at most one occurrence of the #:b keyword and argument, and any number of #:c keywords and arguments. The "pieces" can occur in any order.

Here are the variants of ellipsis-head pattern:

```
(~alt EH-pattern ...)
```

Matches if any of the inner *EH-pattern* alternatives match.

Matches if the inner *H*-*pattern* matches. This pattern must be matched exactly once in the match of the entire repetition sequence.

If the pattern is not matched in the repetition sequence, then the ellipsis pattern fails with the message either too-few-message-expr or "missing required occurrence of name-expr".

If the pattern is chosen more than once in the repetition sequence, then the ellipsis pattern fails with the message either too-many-message-expr or "too many occurrences of name-expr".

Matches if the inner *H*-pattern matches. This pattern may be used at most once in the match of the entire repetition.

If the pattern is matched more than once in the repetition sequence, then the ellipsis pattern fails with the message either too-many-message-expr or "too many occurrences of name-expr".

If the #:defaults option is given, the following attribute bindings are used if the subpattern does not match at all in the sequence. The default attributes must be a subset of the subpattern's attributes.

Matches if the inner *H*-pattern matches. This pattern must be matched at least *min-number* and at most *max-number* times in the entire repetition.

If the pattern is matched too few times, then the ellipsis pattern fails with the message either too-few-message-expr or "too few occurrences of name-expr", when name-expr is provided.

If the pattern is chosen too many times, then the ellipsis pattern fails with the message either too-many-message-expr or "too many occurrences of name-expr", when name-expr is provided.

1.5.4 Action Patterns

An *action pattern* (abbreviated *A-pattern*) does not describe any syntax; rather, it has an effect such as the binding of attributes or the modification of the matching process.

The *cut* operator, written ~!, eliminates backtracking choice points and commits parsing to the current branch of the pattern it is exploring.

Common opportunities for cut-patterns come from recognizing special forms based on keywords. Consider the following expression:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(define-values a 123)
    #:literals (define-values define-syntaxes)
    [(define-values (x:id ...) e) 'define-values]
    [(define-syntaxes (x:id ...) e) 'define-syntaxes]
    [e 'expression])
'expression
```

Given the ill-formed term (define-values a 123), syntax-parse tries the first clause, fails to match a against the pattern (x:id ...), and then backtracks to the second clause and ultimately the third clause, producing the value 'expression. But the term is not an expression; it is an ill-formed use of define-values. The proper way to write the syntax-parse expression follows:

```
> (syntax-parse #'(define-values a 123)
    #:literals (define-values define-syntaxes)
    [(define-values ~! (x:id ...) e) 'define-values]
    [(define-syntaxes ~! (x:id ...) e) 'define-syntaxes]
    [e 'expression])

define-values: bad syntax
in: (define-values a 123)
```

Now, given the same term, syntax-parse tries the first clause, and since the keyword define-values matches, the cut-pattern commits to the current pattern, eliminating the choice points for the second and third clauses. So when the clause fails to match, the syntax-parse expression raises an error.

The effect of a ~! pattern is delimited by the nearest enclosing ~delimitcut or ~commit pattern. If there is no enclosing ~describe pattern but the cut occurs within a syntax class definition, then only choice points within the syntax class definition are discarded. A ~! pattern is not allowed within a ~not pattern unless there is an intervening ~delimit-cut or ~commit pattern.

Evaluates the exprs and binds them to the given attr-ids as attributes.

If the condition is absent, or if the #:when condition evaluates to a true value, or if the #:unless condition evaluates to #f, then the pattern fails with the given message. If the message is omitted, the default value #f is used, representing "no message."

Fail patterns can be used together with cut patterns to recognize specific illformed terms and address them with custom failure messages.

```
(~parse S-pattern stx-expr)
```

Evaluates stx-expr and matches it against S-pattern. If stx-expr does not produce a syntax object, the value is implicitly converted to a syntax object, unless the conversion would produce 3D syntax, in which case an exception is raised instead.

```
(~and A-pattern ...+)
```

Performs the actions of each A-pattern.

```
(~do defn-or-expr ...)
```

Takes a sequence of definitions and expressions, which may be intermixed, and evaluates them in the scope of all previous attribute bindings. The names bound by the definitions are in scope in the expressions of subsequent patterns and clauses.

There is currently no way to bind attributes using a ~do pattern. It is an error to shadow an attribute binding with a definition in a ~do block.

Has no effect when initially matched, but if backtracking returns to a point *before* the ~undo pattern, the *defn-or-exprs* are executed. They are evaluated in the scope of all previous attribute bindings.

Use "do paired with "undo to perform side effects and then unwind them if the enclosing pattern is later discarded.

```
> (define total 0)
> (define-syntax-class nat/add
    (pattern (~and n:nat
                    (~do (printf "adding ~s\n" (syntax-
e #'n))
                         (set! total (+ total (syntax-
e #'n))))
                    (~undo (printf "subtracting
~s\n" (syntax-e #'n))
                           (set! total (- total (syntax-
e #'n))))))
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3)
    [(x:nat/add ...) 'ok])
adding 1
adding 2
adding 3
'ok
> total
6
> (set! total 0)
> (syntax-parse #'(1 2 3 bad)
    [(x:nat/add ...) 'ok]
    [_ 'something-else])
adding 1
adding 2
adding 3
subtracting 3
subtracting 2
subtracting 1
```

```
'something-else
> total
0

(~post A-pattern)
```

Like the single-term pattern version, ~post^s, but contains only action patterns.

1.5.5 Pattern Expanders

The grammar of syntax patterns is extensible through the use of *pattern expanders*, which allow the definition of new pattern forms by rewriting them into existing pattern forms.

```
(pattern-expander proc) → pattern-expander?
proc : (-> syntax? syntax?)
```

As a convention to avoid ambiguity, pattern expander names normally begin with a ~ character.

Returns a pattern expander that uses *proc* to transform the pattern.

Example:

A structure type property to identify structure types that act as pattern expanders like the ones created by pattern-expander.

```
(begin-for-syntax
  (struct thing (proc pattern-expander)
    #:property prop:procedure (struct-field-index proc)
    #:property prop:pattern-expander (λ (this) (thing-pattern-expander this))))
(define-syntax ~maybe
  (thing
    (lambda (stx) .... macro behavior ....)
    (lambda (stx) .... pattern-expander behavior ....)))
```

```
(pattern-expander? v) → boolean?
v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v is a pattern expander, #f otherwise.

```
(syntax-local-syntax-parse-pattern-introduce stx) \rightarrow syntax? stx : syntax?
```

For backward compatibility only; equivalent to syntax-local-introduce.

Changed in version 6.90.0.29 of package base: Made equivalent to syntax-local-introduce.

1.6 Defining Simple Macros

```
(require syntax/parse/define) package: base
```

The syntax/parse/define library provides for-syntax all of syntax/parse, as well as providing some new forms.

```
(define-syntax-parse-rule (macro-id . pattern) pattern-directive ...
  template)
```

Defines a macro named macro-id; equivalent to the following:

```
(define-syntax (macro-id stx)
  (syntax-parse stx
    #:track-literals
    [((~var macro-id id) . pattern) pattern-
directive ... #'template]))
```

```
> (define-syntax-parse-rule (fn x:id rhs:expr) (lambda (x) rhs))
> ((fn x x) 17)
17
> (fn 1 2)
fn: expected identifier
    at: 1
    in: (fn 1 2)
> (define-syntax-parse-rule (fn2 x y rhs)
    #:declare x id
    #:declare y id
    #:declare rhs expr
    (lambda (x y) rhs))
```

```
> ((fn2 a b (+ a b)) 3 4)
 > (fn2 a #:b 'c)
 fn2: expected identifier
    at: #:b
   in: (fn2 a #:b (quote c))
Added in version 7.9.0.22 of package base.
(define-syntax-parser macro-id parse-option ... clause ...+)
Defines a macro named macro-id; equivalent to:
  (define-syntax macro-id
    (syntax-parser parse-option ... clause ...))
Examples:
 > (define-syntax-parser fn3
      [(fn3 x:id rhs:expr)
       #'(lambda (x) rhs)]
      [(fn3 x:id y:id rhs:expr)
       #'(lambda (x y) rhs)])
 > ((fn3 x x) 17)
 17
 > ((fn3 a b (+ a b)) 3 4)
 > (fn3 1 2)
 fn3: expected identifier
    at: 1
   in: (fn3 1 2)
 > (fn3 a #:b 'c)
 fn3: expected expression or expected identifier
    at: #:b
    in: (fn3 a #:b (quote c))
 (define-simple-macro (macro-id . pattern) pattern-directive ...
   template)
```

NOTE: This macro is deprecated; use define-syntax-parse-rule, instead.

Re-exports define-syntax-parse-rule for backward-compatibility.

Changed in version 6.12.0.3 of package base: Changed pattern head to ("var macro-id id) from macro-id, allowing tilde-prefixed identifiers or identifiers containing colons to be used as macro-id without producing a syntax error.

Changed in version 6.90.0.29: Changed to always use the #:track-literals syntax-parse option.

1.7 Literal Sets and Conventions

Sometimes the same literals are recognized in a number of different places. The most common example is the literals for fully expanded programs, which are used in many analysis and transformation tools. Specifying literals individually is burdensome and error-prone. As a remedy, syntax/parse offers *literal sets*. A literal set is defined via define-literal-set and used via the #:literal-set option of syntax-parse.

Defines id as a literal set. Each literal can have a separate pattern-id and literal-id. The pattern-id determines what identifiers in the pattern are treated as literals. The literal-id determines what identifiers the literal matches. If the #:literal-sets option is present, the contents of the given imported-litset-ids are included.

```
> (define-literal-set def-litset
     (define-values define-syntaxes))
> (syntax-parse #'(define-syntaxes (x) 12)
    #:literal-sets (def-litset)
     [(define-values (x:id ...) e:expr) 'v]
     [(define-syntaxes (x:id ...) e:expr) 's])
```

¹s

The literals in a literal set always refer to the bindings at phase <code>phase-level</code> relative to the enclosing module. If the <code>#:for-template</code> option is given, <code>phase-level</code> is <code>-1; #:for-syntax</code> means 1, and <code>#:for-label</code> means <code>#f</code>. If no phase keyword option is given, then <code>phase-level</code> is 0.

For example:

```
> (module common racket/base
    (define x 'something)
    (provide x))
> (module lits racket/base
    (require syntax/parse 'common)
    (define-literal-set common-lits (x))
    (provide common-lits))
```

In the literal set common-lits, the literal x always recognizes identifiers bound to the variable x defined in module 'common.

The following module defines an equivalent literal set, but imports the 'common module for-template instead:

```
> (module lits racket/base
    (require syntax/parse (for-template 'common))
    (define-literal-set common-lits #:for-template (x))
    (provide common-lits))
```

When a literal set is *used* with the #:phase phase-expr option, the literals' fixed bindings are compared against the binding of the input literal at the specified phase. Continuing the example:

```
> (require syntax/parse 'lits (for-syntax 'common))
> (syntax-parse #'x #:literal-sets ([common-lits #:phase 1])
        [x 'yes]
        [_ 'no])
'yes
```

The occurrence of x in the pattern matches any identifier whose binding at phase 1 is the x from module 'common.

```
(literal-set->predicate litset-id)
```

Given the name of a literal set, produces a predicate that recognizes identifiers in the literal set. The predicate takes one required argument, an identifier *id*, and one optional argument,

the phase phase at which to examine the binding of id; the phase argument defaults to (syntax-local-phase-level).

Examples:

Defines *conventions* that supply default syntax classes for pattern variables. A pattern variable that has no explicit syntax class is checked against each *name-pattern*, and the first one that matches determines the syntax class for the pattern. If no *name-pattern* matches, then the pattern variable has no syntax class.

```
> (define-conventions xyz-as-ids
        [x id] [y id] [z id])
> (syntax-parse #'(a b c 1 2 3)
        #:conventions (xyz-as-ids)
        [(x ... n ...) (syntax->datum #'(x ...))])
'(a b c)
> (define-conventions xn-prefixes
        [#rx"^x" id]
        [#rx"^n" nat])
> (syntax-parse #'(a b c 1 2 3)
        #:conventions (xn-prefixes)
        [(x0 x ... n0 n ...)
        (syntax->datum #'(x0 (x ...) n0 (n ...)))])
'(a (b c) 1 (2 3))
```

Local conventions, introduced with the #:local-conventions keyword argument of syntax-parse and syntax class definitions, may refer to local bindings:

Examples:

```
> (define-syntax-class (nat> bound)
    (pattern n:nat
              #:fail-unless (> (syntax-e #'n) bound)
                             (format "expected number > ~s" bound)))
> (define-syntax-class (natlist> bound)
    #:local-conventions ([N (nat> bound)])
    (pattern (N ...)))
> (define (parse-natlist> bound x)
    (syntax-parse x
      #:local-conventions ([NS (natlist> bound)])
      [NS 'ok]))
> (parse-natlist> 0 #'(1 2 3))
'ok
> (parse-natlist> 5 #'(8 6 4 2))
?: expected number > 5
  at: 4
  in: (8 6 4 2)
  parsing context:
   while parsing nat>
    term: 4
    location: eval:21:0
   while parsing natlist>
    term: (8 6 4 2)
    location: eval:21:0
```

1.8 Library Syntax Classes and Literal Sets

1.8.1 Syntax Classes

```
expr
```

Matches anything except a keyword literal (to distinguish expressions from the start of a keyword argument sequence). The term is not otherwise inspected, since it is not feasible to check if it is actually a valid expression.

```
identifier
boolean
char
keyword
```

```
number
integer
exact-integer
exact-nonnegative-integer
exact-positive-integer
regexp
byte-regexp
```

Match syntax satisfying the corresponding predicates.

```
string
bytes
```

As special cases, Racket's string and bytes bindings are also interpreted as syntax classes that recognize literal strings and bytes, respectively.

Added in version 6.9.0.4 of package base.

id

Alias for identifier.

nat

Alias for exact-nonnegative-integer.

str

Alias for string.

character

Alias for char.

```
(static predicate description) → syntax class
  predicate : (-> any/c any/c)
  description : (or/c string? #f)
```

The static syntax class matches an identifier that is bound in the syntactic environment to static information (see syntax-local-value) satisfying the given predicate. If the term does not match, the description argument is used to describe the expected syntax.

When used outside of the dynamic extent of a macro transformer (see syntax-transforming?), matching fails.

The attribute value contains the value the name is bound to.

If matching succeeds, static additionally adds the matched identifier to the current syntax-parse state under the key 'literals using syntax-parse-state-cons!, in the same way as identifiers matched using #:literals or ~literal.

Changed in version 6.90.0.29 of package base: Changed to add matched identifiers to the syntax-parse state under the key 'literals.

```
(expr/c contract-expr
       [#:arg? arg?
        #:positive pos-blame
        #:negative neg-blame
        #:name expr-name
        #:macro macro-name
        #:context context
        #:phase phase])
                            → syntax class
 contract-expr : syntax?
 arg? : any/c = #t
 pos-blame : (or/c syntax? string? module-path-index? 'from-macro 'use-site 'unknown)
            = 'from-macro
 neg-blame : (or/c syntax? string? module-path-index? 'from-macro 'use-site 'unknown)
          = 'use-site
 expr-name : (or/c identifier? string? symbol?) = #f
 macro-name : (or/c identifier? string? symbol?) = #f
 context : (or/c syntax? #f) = determined automatically
 phase : exact-integer? = (syntax-local-phase-level)
```

Accepts an expression (expr) and computes an attribute c that represents the expression wrapped with the contract represented by <code>contract-expr</code>. Note that <code>contract-expr</code> is potentially evaluated each time the code generated by the macro is run; for the best performance, <code>contract-expr</code> should be a variable reference.

The positive blame represents the obligations of the macro imposing the contract—the ultimate user of expr/c. The contract's negative blame represents the obligations of the expression being wrapped. By default, the positive blame is inferred from the definition site of the macro (itself inferred from the context argument), and the negative blame is taken as the module currently being expanded, but both blame locations can be overridden. When arg? is #t, the term being matched is interpreted as an argument (that is, coming from the negative party); when arg? is #f, the term being matched is interpreted as a result of the macro (that is, coming from the positive party).

The pos-blame and neg-blame arguments are turned into blame locations as follows:

- If the argument is a string, it is used directly as the blame label.
- If the argument is syntax, its source location is used to produce the blame label.
- If the argument is a module path index, its resolved module path is used.
- If the argument is 'from-macro, the macro is inferred from either the macro-name argument (if macro-name is an identifier) or the context argument, and the module where it is defined is used as the blame location. If neither an identifier macro-name nor a context argument is given, the location is "unknown".
- If the argument is 'use-site, the module being expanded is used.
- If the argument is 'unknown, the blame label is "unknown".

The macro-name argument is used to determine the macro's binding, if it is an identifier. If expr-name is given, macro-name is also included in the contract error message. If macro-name is omitted or #f, but context is a syntax object, then macro-name is determined from context.

If expr-name is not #f, it is used in the contract's error message to describe the expression the contract is applied to.

The *context* argument is used, when necessary, to infer the macro name for the negative blame party and the contract error message. The *context* should be either an identifier or a syntax pair with an identifier in operator position; in either case, that identifier is taken as the macro ultimately requesting the contract wrapping.

The *phase* argument must indicate the phase level at which the contracted expression will be evaluated. Using the contracted expression at a different phase level will cause a syntax error because it will contain introduced references bound in the wrong phase. In particular:

- Use the default value, (syntax-local-phase-level), when the contracted expression will be evaluated at the same phase as the form currently being expanded. This is usually the case.
- Use (add1 (syntax-local-phase-level)) in cases such as the following: the contracted expression will be placed inside a begin-for-syntax form, used in the right-hand side of a define-syntax or let-syntax form, or passed to syntax-local-bind-syntaxes or syntax-local-eval.

Any phase level other than #f (the label phase level) is allowed, but phases other than (syntax-local-phase-level) and (add1 (syntax-local-phase-level)) may only be used when in the dynamic extent of a syntax transformer or while a module is being visited (see syntax-transforming?), otherwise exn:fail:contract? is raised.

See §1.2.6 "Contracts on Macro Sub-expressions" for examples.

Important: Make sure when using expr/c to use the c attribute. The expr/c syntax class does not change how pattern variables are bound; it only computes an attribute that represents the checked expression.

Changed in version 7.2.0.3 of package base: Added the #:arg? keyword argument and changed the default values and interpretation of the #:positive and #:negative arguments.

Changed in version 7.3.0.3: Added the #:phase keyword argument.

1.8.2 Literal Sets

```
kernel-literals
```

Literal set containing the identifiers for fully-expanded code (§1.2.3.1 "Fully Expanded Programs"). The set contains all of the forms listed by kernel-form-identifier-list, plus module, #%plain-module-begin, #%require, and #%provide.

Note that the literal-set uses the names #%plain-lambda and #%plain-app, not lambda and #%app.

1.8.3 Function Headers

```
(require syntax/parse/lib/function-header) package: base
```

Matches a name and formals found in function header. It also supports the curried function shorthand.

```
name : syntax?
```

function-header

The name part in the function header.

```
params : syntax?
```

The list of parameters in the function header.

formal

Matches a single formal that can be used in a function header.

```
name : syntax?
```

The name part in the formal.

```
kw : (or/c syntax? #f)
```

The keyword part in the formal, if it exists.

```
default : (or/c syntax? #f)
```

The default expression part in the formal, if it exists.

formals

Matches a list of formals that would be used in a function header.

```
params : syntax?
```

The list of parameters in the formals.

```
> (syntax-parse #'(define ((foo x) y) 1)
    [(_ header:function-header body ...+) #'(header header.name header.params)])
\#<syntax:eval:2:0 (((foo x) y) foo (x y))>
> (syntax-parse #'(lambda xs xs)
    [(_ fmls:formals body ...+) #'(fmls fmls.params)])
#<syntax:eval:3:0 (xs (xs))>
> (syntax-parse #'(lambda (x y #:kw [kw 42] . xs) xs)
    [(_ fmls:formals body ...+) #'(fmls fmls.params)])
#<syntax:eval:4:0 ((x y #:kw (kw 42) . xs) (x y kw xs))>
> (syntax-parse #'(lambda (x) x)
    [(_ (fml:formal) body ...+) #'(fml
                                   fml.name
                                    (~? fml.kw #f)
                                    (~? fml.default #f))])
#<syntax:eval:5:0 ((x) x #f #f)>
> (syntax-parse #'(lambda (#:kw [kw 42]) kw)
    [(_ (fml:formal) body ...+) #'(fml fml.name fml.kw fml.default)])
#<syntax:eval:6:0 ((#:kw (kw 42)) kw #:kw 42)>
```

```
formals-no-rest
```

Like formals but without dotted-tail identifier.

```
params : syntax?
```

The list of parameters.

1.9 Unwindable State

```
(syntax-parse-state-ref key [default]) → any/c
 key : any/c
  default : default/c = (lambda () (error ....))
(syntax-parse-state-set! key value) → void?
 key: any/c
  value : any/c
(syntax-parse-state-update! key
                             update
                            [default]) \rightarrow void?
 key : any/c
 update : (-> any/c any/c)
  default : default/c = (lambda () (error ....))
(syntax-parse-state-cons! key value [default]) → void?
 key: any/c
  value : any/c
  default : default/c = null
```

Get or update the current syntax-parse state. Updates to the state are unwound when syntax-parse backtracks. Keys are compared using eq?.

The state can be updated only within ~do patterns (or #:do blocks). In addition, syntax-parse automatically adds identifiers that match literals (from ~literal patterns and literals declared with #:literals, but not from ~datum or #:datum-literals) under the key 'literals.

```
> (define-syntax-class cond-clause
    #:literals (=> else)
    (pattern [test:expr => ~! answer:expr ...])
    (pattern [else answer:expr ...])
    (pattern [test:expr answer:expr ...]))
```

```
> (syntax-parse #'(cond [A => B] [else C])
      [(_ c:cond-clause ...) (syntax-parse-state-
ref 'literals null)])
'(#<syntax:eval:2:0 else> #<syntax:eval:2:0 =>>)
```

Added in version 6.11.0.4 of package base.

Add a 'disappeared-use syntax property to stx containing the information stored in the current syntax-parse state under the key 'literals. If stx already has a 'disappeared-use property, the added information is consed onto the property's current value.

Due to the way syntax-parse automatically adds identifiers that match literals to the state under the key 'literals, as described in the documentation for syntax-parse-state-ref, syntax-parse-track-literals can be used to automatically add any identifiers used as literals to the 'disappeared-use property.

If syntax-parse-track-literals is called within the dynamic extent of a syntax transformer (see syntax-transforming?), introduce? is not #f, and the value in the current syntax-parse state under the key 'literals is a list, then syntax-local-introduce is applied to any identifiers in the list before they are added to stx's 'disappeared-use property.

Most of the time, it is unnecessary to call this function directly. Instead, the #:track-literals option should be provided to syntax-parse, which will automatically call syntax-parse-track-literals on syntax-valued results.

Examples:

```
> (define-syntax-class cond-clause
    #:literals (=> else)
    (pattern [test:expr => ~! answer:expr ...])
    (pattern [else answer:expr ...])
    (pattern [test:expr answer:expr ...]))
> (syntax-property
    (syntax-parse #'(cond [A => B] [else C])
        [(_ c:cond-clause ...) (syntax-parse-track-literals #'#f)])
    'disappeared-use)
'(#<syntax:eval:4:0 else> #<syntax:eval:4:0 =>>)
```

Added in version 6.90.0.29 of package base.

1.10 Configuring Error Reporting

```
(require syntax/parse/report-config) package: base
Added in version 8.9.0.5 of package base.

(current-report-configuration) → report-configuration?
(current-report-configuration config) → void?
    config : report-configuration?
```

A parameter that determines parts error messages that are generated by syntax-parse for failed matches. When syntax-parse needs to report that a particular datum or literal identifier was expected, it consults the configuration in this parameter. This parameter is cross-phase persistent, which means that the parameter and its value are shared across phases.

A configuration is a hash table with the following keys:

• 'datum-to-what — a procedure of one argument used to get a noun describing an expected datum, which appears in a pattern either with ~datum, as "self-quoting," or so on. The procedure's argument is the datum value. The result must be either a string or a list containing two strings; if two strings are provided, the first is used when a singular noun is needed, and the second is used as a plural noun.

The default configuration returns '("literal symbol" "literal symbols") for a symbol and '("literal" "literals") for any other datum value.

• 'datum-to-string — a procedure of one argument, used to convert the datum value to a string that is included in the error message. The procedure's argument is the datum value, and the result must be a string.

The default configuration formats a symbol value using (format "`s'" v) any other datum value using (format "`s" v).

• 'literal-to-what — a procedure of one argument used to get a noun describing an expected literal identifier, which appears in a pattern with ~literal, as declared with #:literals, or so on. The procedure's argument is an identifier when available, or a symbol when only simplified information has been preserved. The result must be either a string or a list containing two strings, like the result for a 'datum-to-what procedure.

The default configuration returns '("identifier" "identifiers").

• 'literal-to-string — a procedure of one argument, used to convert a literal identifier or symbol to a string that is included in the error message.

The default configuration formats a symbol value using (format "`~s'" v), and it formats an identifier the same after extracting its symbol with syntax-e.

Changed in version 8.15.0.4 of package base: Changed parameter to cross-phase persistent.

```
(report-configuration? v) → boolean?
v : any/c
```

Checks whether v is an immutable hash table that maps each of the keys 'datum-to-what, 'datum-to-string 'identifier-to-what and 'identifier-to-string to a procedure that accepts one argument.

1.11 Debugging and Inspection Tools

```
(require syntax/parse/debug) package: base
```

The following special forms are for debugging syntax classes.

```
(syntax-class-attributes syntax-class-id)
```

Returns a list of the syntax class's attributes. Each attribute entry consists of the attribute's name and ellipsis depth.

```
(syntax-class-arity syntax-class-id)
(syntax-class-keywords syntax-class-id)
```

Returns the syntax class's arity and keywords, respectively. Compare with procedure-arity and procedure-keywords.

```
(syntax-class-parse syntax-class-id stx-expr arg ...)
stx-expr : syntax?
```

Runs the parser for the syntax class (parameterized by the arg-exprs) on the syntax object produced by stx-expr. On success, the result is a list of vectors representing the attribute bindings of the syntax class. Each vector contains the attribute name, depth, and associated value. On failure, the result is some internal representation of the failure.

```
(debug-parse stx-expr S-pattern ...+)
stx-expr : syntax?
```

Tries to match stx-expr against the S-patterns. If matching succeeds, the symbol 'success is returned. Otherwise, an S-expression describing the failure is returned.

The failure S-expression shows both the raw set of failures (unsorted) and the failures with maximal progress. The maximal failures are divided into equivalence classes based on their

progress (progress is a partial order); that is, failures within an equivalence class have the same progress and, in principle, pinpoint the same term as the problematic term. Multiple equivalence classes only arise from "parse patterns (or equivalently, #:with clauses) that match computed terms or "fail (#:fail-when, etc) clauses that allow a computed term to be pinpointed.

```
(debug-syntax-parse!) → void?
```

Installs a syntax-parse reporting handler that prints debugging information to the current error port when a syntax-parse error occurs.

Added in version 6.5.0.3 of package base.

1.12 Experimental

The following facilities are experimental.

1.12.1 Contracts for Macro Sub-expressions

```
(require syntax/parse/experimental/contract) package: base
```

This module is deprecated; it reprovides expr/c for backward compatibility.

1.12.2 Contracts for Syntax Classes

Provides the syntax class (or splicing syntax class) <code>syntax-class-id</code> with the given contracts imposed on its formal parameters.

```
syntax-class/c
```

Keyword recognized by provide-syntax-class/contract.

1.12.3 Reflection

```
(require syntax/parse/experimental/reflect) package: base
```

A syntax class can be reified into a run-time value, and a reified syntax class can be used in a pattern via the "reflect and "splicing-reflect pattern forms.

```
(reify-syntax-class syntax-class-id)
```

Reifies the syntax class named syntax-class-id as a run-time value. The same form also handles splicing syntax classes. Syntax classes with the #:no-delimit-cut option cannot be reified.

```
(reified-syntax-class? x) → boolean?
  x : any/c
(reified-splicing-syntax-class? x) → boolean?
  x : any/c
```

Returns #t if x is a reified (normal) syntax class or a reified splicing syntax class, respectively.

```
(reified-syntax-class-attributes r)
  → (listof (list/c symbol? exact-nonnegative-integer?))
  r : (or/c reified-syntax-class? reified-splicing-syntax-class?)
```

Returns the reified syntax class's attributes.

```
(reified-syntax-class-arity r) → procedure-arity?
  r : (or/c reified-syntax-class? reified-splicing-syntax-class?)
(reified-syntax-class-keywords r)
  → (listof keyword?) (listof keyword?)
  r : (or/c reified-syntax-class? reified-splicing-syntax-class?)
```

Returns the reified syntax class's arity and keywords, respectively. Compare with procedure-arity and procedure-keywords.

```
→ (or/c reified-syntax-class? reified-splicing-syntax-class?)
r : (or/c reified-syntax-class? reified-splicing-syntax-class?)
arg : any/c
kw-arg : any/c
```

Partially applies the reified syntax class to the given arguments. If more arguments are given than the reified syntax class accepts, an error is raised.

```
S-pattern = ....

| (~reflect var-id (reified-expr arg-expr ...) maybe-attrs)

H-pattern = ....

| (~splicing-reflect var-id (reified-expr arg-expr ...) maybe-attrs)

(~reflect var-id (reified-expr arg-expr ...) maybe-attrs)

maybe-attrs = | #:attributes (attr-arity-decl ...)
```

Like ~var, except that the syntax class position is an expression evaluating to a reified syntax object, not a syntax class name, and the attributes bound by the reified syntax class (if any) must be specified explicitly.

```
(~splicing-reflect var-id (reified-expr arg-expr ...) maybe-attrs)
```

Like ~reflect but for reified splicing syntax classes.

```
> (define r-nat> (reify-syntax-class nat>))
> (define r-nat/mult (reify-syntax-class nat/mult))
> (define (partition/r stx r n)
    (syntax-parse stx
      [((~alt (~reflect yes (r n)) no) ...)
       #'((yes ...) (no ...))]))
> (partition/r #'(1 2 3 4 5) r-nat> 3)
#<syntax:eval:5:0 ((4 5) (1 2 3))>
> (partition/r #'(1 2 3 4 5) r-nat/mult 2)
#<syntax:eval:5:0 ((2 4) (1 3 5))>
> (define (bad-attrs r)
    (syntax-parse #'6
      [(~reflect x (r 3) #:attributes (diff))
       #'x.diff]))
> (bad-attrs r-nat>)
#<syntax 3>
> (bad-attrs r-nat/mult)
reflect-syntax-class: reified syntax-class is missing
declared attribute `diff'
```

1.12.4 Procedural Splicing Syntax Classes

Defines a splicing syntax via a procedural parser.

The parser procedure is given two arguments, the syntax to parse and a failure procedure. To signal a successful parse, the parser procedure returns a list of N+1 elements, where N is the number of attributes declared by the splicing syntax class. The first element is the size of the prefix consumed. The rest of the list contains the values of the attributes.

To indicate failure, the parser calls the failure procedure with an optional message argument.

1.12.5 Ellipsis-head Alternative Sets

```
(require syntax/parse/experimental/eh) package: base
```

Unlike single-term patterns and head patterns, ellipsis-head patterns cannot be encapsulated by syntax classes, since they describe not only sets of terms but also repetition constraints.

This module provides *ellipsis-head alternative sets*, reusable encapsulations of ellipsis-head patterns.

```
(define-eh-alternative-set name eh-alternative ...)
alternative = (pattern EH-pattern)
```

Defines name as an ellipsis-head alternative set. Using name (via ~eh-var) in an ellipsis-head pattern is equivalent to including each of the alternatives in the pattern via ~alt, except that the attributes bound by the alternatives are prefixed with the name given to ~eh-var.

Unlike syntax classes, ellipsis-head alternative sets must be defined before they are referenced, and they do not delimit cuts (use ~delimit-cut instead).

Includes the alternatives of eh-alternative-set-id, prefixing their attributes with name.

1.12.6 Syntax Class Specialization

Defines *id* as a syntax class with the same attributes, options (eg, #:commit, #:no-delimit-cut), and patterns as *target-stxclass-id* but with the given *args* supplied.

```
> (define-syntax-class/specialize nat>10 (nat> 10))
> (syntax-parse #'(11 12) [(n:nat>10 ...) 'ok])
'ok
> (syntax-parse #'(8 9) [(n:nat>10 ...) 'ok])
?: expected natural number greater than 10
    at: 8
    in: (8 9)
```

1.12.7 Syntax Templates

```
(require syntax/parse/experimental/template) package: base

(template tmpl)
(template/loc loc-expr tmpl)
(quasitemplate tmpl)
(quasitemplate/loc loc-expr tmpl)
```

Equivalent to syntax, syntax/loc, quasisyntax, and quasisyntax/loc, respectively.

```
(datum-template tmpl)
```

Equivalent to datum.

```
??
?@
```

Equivalent to ~? and ~0, respectively.

```
(define-template-metafunction metafunction-id expr)
(define-template-metafunction (metafunction-id . formals) body ...+)
```

Defines metafunction—id as a template metafunction. A metafunction application in a syntax or template expression is evaluated by applying the metafunction to the result of processing the "argument" part of the template.

Examples:

Metafunctions are useful for performing transformations in contexts where macro expansion does not occur, such as binding occurrences. For example:

If join were defined as a macro, it would not be usable in the context above; instead, letvalues would report an invalid binding list.

1.13 Minimal Library

```
(require syntax/parse/pre) package: base
```

The syntax/parse/pre library is useful for accessing most syntax-parsing functionality while minimizing library dependencies. It provides most of syntax/parse, but omits these bindings:

```
expr/c
pattern-expander?
prop:syntax-class
pattern-expander
prop:pattern-expander
syntax-local-syntax-parse-pattern-introduce
```

In addition, the provided variant of static is a different binding that lacks explicit contract checks.

2 Syntax Object Helpers

2.1 Deconstructing Syntax Objects

```
(require syntax/stx) package: base
(stx-null? v) → boolean?
v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v is either the empty list or a syntax object representing the empty list (i.e., syntax-e on the syntax object returns the empty list).

Examples:

```
> (stx-null? null)
#t
> (stx-null? #'())
#t
> (stx-null? #'(a))
#f

(stx-pair? v) → boolean?
v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v is either a pair or a syntax object representing a pair (see syntax pair).

Examples:

```
> (stx-pair? (cons #'a #'b))
#t
> (stx-pair? #'(a . b))
#t
> (stx-pair? #'())
#f
> (stx-pair? #'a)
#f

(stx-list? v) → boolean?
v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v is a list, or if it is a sequence of pairs leading to a syntax object such that syntax->list would produce a list.

```
> (stx-list? #'(a b c d))
#t
> (stx-list? #'((a b) (c d)))
#t
> (stx-list? #'(a b (c d)))
#t
> (stx-list? (list #'a #'b))
#t
> (stx-list? #'a)
#f

(stx->list stx-list) → (or/c list? #f)
stx-list : stx-list?
```

Produces a list by flatting out a trailing syntax object using syntax->list.

Examples:

```
> (stx->list #'(a b c d))
'(#<syntax:eval:14:0 a>
  #<syntax:eval:14:0 b>
  #<syntax:eval:14:0 c>
  #<syntax:eval:14:0 d>)
> (stx->list #'((a b) (c d)))
'(#<syntax:eval:15:0 (a b)> #<syntax:eval:15:0 (c d)>)
> (stx->list #'(a b (c d)))
'(#<syntax:eval:16:0 a> #<syntax:eval:16:0 b> #<syntax:eval:16:0
(c d)>)
> (stx->list (list #'a #'b))
'(#<syntax:eval:17:0 a> #<syntax:eval:17:0 b>)
> (stx->list #'a)
#f
(stx-car v) \rightarrow any
 v : stx-pair?
```

Takes the car of a syntax pair.

```
> (stx-car #'(a b))
#<syntax:eval:19:0 a>
> (stx-car (list #'a #'b))
#<syntax:eval:20:0 a>
```

```
(stx-cdr\ v) \rightarrow any
 v: stx-pair?
```

Takes the cdr of a syntax pair.

Examples:

```
> (stx-cdr #'(a b))
'(#<syntax:eval:21:0 b>)
> (stx-cdr (list #'a #'b))
'(#<syntax:eval:22:0 b>)

(stx-map proc stxl ...) → list?
  proc : procedure?
  stxl : stx-list?

Equivalent to (map proc (stx->list stxl) ...).

Example:
> (stx-map (λ (id) (free-identifier=? id #'a)) #'(a b c d))
'(#t #f #f #f)

(module-or-top-identifier=? a-id b-id) → boolean?
  a-id : identifier?
  b-id : identifier?
```

Returns #t if a-id and b-id are free-identifier=?, or if a-id and b-id have the same name (as extracted by syntax-e) and a-id has no binding other than at the top level.

This procedure is useful in conjunction with syntax-case* to match procedure names that are normally bound by Racket. For example, the include macro uses this procedure to recognize build-path; using free-identifier=? would not work well outside of module, since the top-level build-path is a distinct variable from the racket/base export (though it's bound to the same procedure, initially).

2.2 Matching Fully-Expanded Expressions

```
(require syntax/kerncase) package: base

(kernel-syntax-case stx-expr trans?-expr clause ...)
```

A syntactic form like syntax-case*, except that the literals are built-in as the names of the primitive Racket forms as exported by racket/base, including letrecsyntaxes+values; see §1.2.3.1 "Fully Expanded Programs".

The *trans?-expr* boolean expression replaces the comparison procedure, and instead selects simply between normal-phase comparisons or transformer-phase comparisons. The *clauses* are the same as in syntax-case*.

The primitive syntactic forms must have their normal bindings in the context of the kernel-syntax-case expression. Beware that kernel-syntax-case does not work in a module whose language provides different bindings for these primitive syntactic forms, such as mzscheme which does not provide the primitive if and typed/racket which does not provide the primitive let-values among others.

```
(kernel-syntax-case* stx-expr trans?-expr (extra-id ...) clause ...)
```

A syntactic form like kernel-syntax-case, except that it takes an additional list of extra literals that are in addition to the primitive Racket forms.

```
(kernel-syntax-case/phase stx-expr phase-expr clause ...)
```

Generalizes kernel-syntax-case to work at an arbitrary phase level, as indicated by phase-expr.

```
(kernel-syntax-case*/phase stx-expr phase-expr (extra-id ..)
  clause ...)
```

Generalizes kernel-syntax-case* to work at an arbitrary phase level, as indicated by phase-expr.

```
(\text{kernel-form-identifier-list}) \rightarrow (\text{listof identifier?})
```

Returns a list of identifiers that are bound normally, for-syntax, and for-template to the primitive Racket forms for expressions, internal-definition positions, and module-level and top-level positions. This function is useful for generating a list of stopping points to provide to local-expand.

In addition to the identifiers listed in §1.2.3.1 "Fully Expanded Programs", the list includes letrec-syntaxes+values, which is the core form for local expand-time binding and can appear in the result of local-expand.

Changed in version 6.90.0.27 of package base: Added quote-syntax and #%plain-module-begin to the list, which had previously been unintentionally missing.

2.3 Dictionaries with Identifier Keys

```
(require syntax/id-table) package: base
```

This module provides two implementations of *identifier tables*: dictionaries with identifier keys that use identifier-specific comparisons instead of eq? or equal?. Identifier tables implement the racket/dict interface, and they are available in both mutable and immutable variants.

2.3.1 Dictionaries for free-identifier=?

A free-identifier table is a dictionary whose keys are compared using free-identifier=?. Free-identifier tables implement the dictionary interface of racket/dict, so all of the appropriate generic functions (dict-ref, dict-map, etc) can be used on free-identifier tables.

A caveat for using these tables is that a lookup can fail with unexpected results if the binding of an identifier changes between key-value insertion and the lookup.

For example, consider the following use:

The macro m expands to code that initializes an identifier table at compile-time and inserts a key-value pair for #'x and #t. The #'x identifier has no binding, however, until the definition (define x 'defined-now) is evaluated.

As a result, the lookup at the end of m will return #f instead of #t because the binding symbol for #'x changes after the initial key-value pair is put into the table. If the definition is evaluated *before* the initial insertion, both expressions will print #t.

Produces a mutable free-identifier table or immutable free-identifier table, respectively. The dictionary uses **free-identifier=?** to compare keys, but also uses a hash table based on symbol equality to make the dictionary efficient in the common case.

The identifiers are compared at phase level *phase*. The default phase, (syntax-local-phase-level), is generally appropriate for identifier tables used by macros, but code that analyzes fully-expanded programs may need to create separate identifier tables for each phase of the module.

The optional <code>init-dict</code> argument provides the initial mappings. It must be a dictionary, and its keys must all be identifiers. If the <code>init-dict</code> dictionary has multiple distinct entries whose keys are <code>free-identifier=?</code>, only one of the entries appears in the new id-table, and it is not specified which entry is picked.

```
(free-id-table? v) → boolean?
 v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v was produced by make-free-id-table or make-immutable-free-id-table, #f otherwise.

```
(mutable-free-id-table? v) \rightarrow boolean? v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v was produced by make-free-id-table, #f otherwise.

```
(immutable-free-id-table? v) \rightarrow boolean? v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v was produced by make-immutable-free-id-table, #f otherwise.

```
(free-id-table-ref table id [failure]) → any
  table : free-id-table?
  id : identifier?
  failure : any/c = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
```

Like hash-ref. In particular, if *id* is not found, the *failure* argument is applied if it is a procedure, or simply returned otherwise.

```
(free-id-table-ref! table id failure) → any
  table : mutable-free-id-table?
  id : identifier?
  failure : any/c
```

```
Like hash-ref!.
Added in version 6.3.0.6 of package base.
 (free-id-table-set! table id v) \rightarrow void?
   table : mutable-free-id-table?
   id : identifier?
   v : any/c
Like hash-set!.
 (free-id-table-set\ table\ id\ v) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-table?
   table : immutable-free-id-table?
   id : identifier?
   v : any/c
Like hash-set.
 (free-id-table-set*! table id v \ldots \rightarrow void?
   table : mutable-free-id-table?
   id : identifier?
   v : any/c
Like hash-set*!.
Added in version 6.3.0.6 of package base.
 (free-id-table-set* table id v ... ...) → immutable-free-id-table?
   table : immutable-free-id-table?
   id : identifier?
   v : any/c
Like hash-set*.
Added in version 6.3.0.6 of package base.
(free-id-table-remove! table id) \rightarrow void?
   table : mutable-free-id-table?
   id : identifier?
Like hash-remove!.
 (free-id-table-remove table id) → immutable-free-id-table?
   table : immutable-free-id-table?
```

id : identifier?

```
Like hash-remove.
```

```
(free-id-table-update! table
                          updater
                         [failure]) \rightarrow void?
   table : mutable-free-id-table?
   id : identifier?
   updater : (any/c . -> . any/c)
   failure : any/c = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
Like hash-update!.
```

Added in version 6.3.0.6 of package base.

```
(free-id-table-update table
                      id
                      updater
                      [failure]) → immutable-free-id-table?
 table : immutable-free-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 updater : (any/c . -> . any/c)
  failure : any/c = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
```

Like hash-update.

Added in version 6.3.0.6 of package base.

```
(free-id-table-map table proc) → list?
  table : free-id-table?
 proc : (-> identifier? any/c any)
```

Like hash-map.

```
(free-id-table-keys table) → (listof identifier?)
 table : free-id-table?
```

Like hash-keys.

Added in version 6.3.0.3 of package base.

```
(free-id-table-values table) \rightarrow (listof any/c)
  table : free-id-table?
```

Like hash-values.

Added in version 6.3.0.3 of package base.

```
(in-free-id-table\ table) \rightarrow sequence?
   table : free-id-table?
Like in-hash.
Added in version 6.3.0.3 of package base.
 (free-id-table-for-each table proc) → void?
   table : free-id-table?
   proc : (-> identifier? any/c any)
Like hash-for-each.
 (free-id-table-count table) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
   table : free-id-table?
Like hash-count.
 (free-id-table-iterate-first table) → id-table-iter?
   table : free-id-table?
 (free-id-table-iterate-next\ table\ position) \rightarrow id-table-iter?
   table : free-id-table?
   position : id-table-iter?
 (free-id-table-iterate-key table position) → identifier?
  table : free-id-table?
   position : id-table-iter?
```

Like hash-iterate-first, hash-iterate-next, hash-iterate-key, and hash-iterate-value, respectively.

 $position) \rightarrow identifier?$

```
(id-table-iter? v) → boolean?
v : any/c
```

table : bound-it-table?
position : id-table-iter?

(free-id-table-iterate-value table

Returns #t if v represents a position in an identifier table (free or bound, mutable or immutable), #f otherwise.

Like hash/c, but for free-identifier tables. If immutable? is #t, the contract accepts only immutable identifier tables; if immutable? is #f, the contract accepts only mutable identifier tables.

2.3.2 Dictionaries for bound-identifier=?

A bound-identifier table is a dictionary whose keys are compared using bound-identifier=?. Bound-identifier tables implement the dictionary interface of racket/dict, so all of the appropriate generic functions (dict-ref, dict-map, etc) can be used on bound-identifier tables.

```
(make-bound-id-table [init-dict
                      #:phase phase]) → mutable-bound-id-table?
 init-dict : dict? = null
 phase : (or/c exact-integer? #f) = (syntax-local-phase-level)
(make-immutable-bound-id-table [init-dict
                                 #:phase phase])
→ immutable-bound-id-table?
 init-dict : dict? = null
 phase : (or/c exact-integer? #f) = (syntax-local-phase-level)
(bound-id-table? v) \rightarrow boolean?
 v : any/c
(mutable-bound-id-table? v) \rightarrow boolean?
 v : any/c
(immutable-bound-id-table? v) \rightarrow boolean?
 v : any/c
(bound-id-table-ref table id [failure]) → any
 table : bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 failure : any/c = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
(bound-id-table-ref! table id failure) → any
 table : mutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 failure : any/c
(bound-id-table-set! table id v) \rightarrow void?
 table : mutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 v : any/c
(bound-id-table-set table id v) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-table?
 table : immutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 v : any/c
```

```
(bound-id-table-set*! table id v \ldots \ldots) \rightarrow void?
 table : mutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 v: any/c
(bound-id-table-set* table id v ... ...)
 → immutable-bound-id-table?
 table : immutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 v : any/c
(bound-id-table-remove! table id) → void?
 table : mutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
(bound-id-table-remove table id) → immutable-bound-id-table?
 table : immutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
(bound-id-table-update! table
                         updater
                         [failure]) \rightarrow void?
 table : mutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 updater : (any/c . -> . any/c)
 failure : any/c = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
(bound-id-table-update table
                        updater
                       [failure]) → immutable-bound-id-table?
 table : immutable-bound-id-table?
 id : identifier?
 updater : (any/c . -> . any/c)
 failure : any/c = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail .....)))
(bound-id-table-map table proc) \rightarrow list?
 table : bound-id-table?
 proc : (-> identifier? any/c any)
(bound-id-table-keys table) \rightarrow (listof identifier?)
 table : bound-id-table?
(bound-id-table-values table) \rightarrow (listof any/c)
 table : bound-id-table?
(in-bound-id-table table) → sequence?
 table : bound-id-table?
(bound-id-table-for-each table proc) → void?
 table : bound-id-table?
 proc : (-> identifier? any/c any)
(bound-id-table-count table) → exact-nonnegative-integer?
 table : bound-id-table?
```

```
(bound-id-table-iterate-first table) \rightarrow id-table-position?
 table : bound-id-table?
(bound-id-table-iterate-next table
                              position) \rightarrow id-table-position?
 table : bound-id-table?
 position : id-table-position?
(bound-id-table-iterate-key table position) → identifier?
 table : bound-id-table?
 position : id-table-position?
(bound-id-table-iterate-value table
                               position) \rightarrow identifier?
 table : bound-id-table?
 position : id-table-position?
(bound-id-table/c key-ctc
                   val-ctc
                  [#:immutable immutable]) → contract?
 key-ctc : flat-contract?
 val-ctc : chaperone-contract?
 immutable : (or/c #t #f 'dont-care) = 'dont-care
```

Like the procedures for free-identifier tables (make-free-id-table, free-id-table-ref, etc), but for bound-identifier tables, which use bound-identifier=? to compare keys.

Changed in version 6.3.0.3 of package base: Added bound-id-table-keys, bound-id-table-values, in-bound-id-table. Changed in version 6.3.0.6: Added bound-id-table-ref!, bound-id-table-set*, bound-id-table-set*!, bound-id-table-update!, and bound-id-table-update

2.4 Sets with Identifier Keys

```
(require syntax/id-set) package: base
```

This module provides *identifier sets*: sets with identifier keys that use identifier-specific comparisons instead of the usual equality operators such as eq? or equal?.

This module implements two kinds of identifier sets: one via free-identifier=? and one via bound-identifier=?. Each are available in both mutable and immutable variants and implement the gen:set, gen:stream, prop:sequence, and gen:equal+hash generic interfaces.

Identifier sets are implemented using identifier tables, in the same way that hash sets are implemented with hash tables.

2.4.1 Sets for free-identifier=?

A free-identifier set is a set whose keys are compared using free-identifier=?. Free-identifier sets implement the gen:set interface, so all of the appropriate generic functions (e.g., set-add, set-map, etc) can be used on free-identifier sets.

Produces a mutable free-identifier set or immutable free-identifier set, respectively. The set uses free-identifier=? to compare keys.

The identifiers are compared at phase level *phase*. The default phase, (syntax-local-phase-level), is generally appropriate for identifier sets used by macros, but code that analyzes fully-expanded programs may need to create separate identifier sets for each phase of the module.

The optional <code>init-set</code> argument provides the initial set elements. It must be a set of identifiers. If the <code>init-set</code> set has multiple distinct entries whose keys are <code>free-identifier=?</code>, only one of the entries appears in the new id-set, and it is not specified which entry is picked.

```
(free-id-set? v) \rightarrow boolean? v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v was produced by mutable-free-id-set or immutable-free-id-set, #f otherwise.

```
(mutable-free-id-set? v) \rightarrow boolean? v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v was produced by mutable-free-id-set, #f otherwise.

```
(immutable-free-id-set? v) \rightarrow boolean? v : any/c
```

Returns #t if v was produced by $\verb"immutable-free-id-set"$, #f otherwise.

```
(free-id-set-empty? s) → boolean?
s : free-id-set?
```

```
Like set-empty?.
(free-id-set-count s) \rightarrow exact-nonnegative-integer?
  s : free-id-set?
Like set-count.
(free-id-set-member? s \ v) \rightarrow boolean?
   s : free-id-set?
   v : identifier?
Like set-member?.
(free-id-set=? s1 \ s2) \rightarrow boolean?
   s1 : free-id-set?
   s2 : free-id-set?
Like set=?.
 (free-id-set-add \ s \ v) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-set?
   s : immutable-free-id-set?
   v : identifier?
Like set-add.
(free-id-set-add! s v) \rightarrow void?
   s : mutable-free-id-set?
   v : identifier?
Like set-add!.
 (free-id-set-remove s v) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-set?
   s : immutable-free-id-set?
   v : identifier?
Like set-remove.
(free-id-set-remove! s v) \rightarrow void?
   s : mutable-free-id-set?
   v : identifier?
Like set-remove!.
(free-id-set-first s) \rightarrow identifier?
  s : free-id-set?
```

```
Like set-first.
(free-id-set-rest s) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-set?
   s : immutable-free-id-set?
Like set-rest.
(in-free-id-set s) \rightarrow sequence?
  s : free-id-set?
Like in-set.
(free-id-set->stream s) \rightarrow stream?
  s : free-id-set?
Like set->stream.
(free-id-set->list s) \rightarrow list?
  s : free-id-set?
Like set->list.
(free-id-set-copy s) \rightarrow free-id-set?
 s : free-id-set?
Like set-copy.
(free-id-set-copy-clear s) \rightarrow free-id-set?
 s : free-id-set?
Like set-copy-clear.
(free-id-set-clear s) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-set?
 s : immutable-free-id-set?
Like set-clear.
(free-id-set-clear! s) \rightarrow void?
s : mutable-free-id-set?
Like set-clear!.
(free-id-set-union s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-set?
   s0 : immutable-free-id-set?
  s : free-id-set?
```

```
Like set-union.
 (free-id-set-union! s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow void?
   s0 : mutable-free-id-set?
   s : free-id-set?
Like set-union!.
(free-id-set-intersect s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-set?
   s0 : immutable-free-id-set?
   s : free-id-set?
Like set-intersect.
 (free-id-set-intersect! s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow void?
   s0 : mutable-free-id-set?
   s : free-id-set?
Like set-intersect!.
 (free-id-set-subtract s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow immutable-free-id-set?
   s0 : immutable-free-id-set?
   s : free-id-set?
Like set-subtract.
 (free-id-set-subtract! s0 \ s \ldots) \rightarrow void?
   s0 : mutable-free-id-set?
   s : free-id-set?
Like set-subtract!.
 (free-id-set-symmetric-difference s0 s ...)
  → immutable-free-id-set?
   s0 : immutable-free-id-set?
   s : free-id-set?
Like set-symmetric-difference.
(free-id-set-symmetric-difference! s0 \ s \ldots) \rightarrow void?
   s0 : mutable-free-id-set?
   s : free-id-set?
```

Like set-symmetric-difference!.

```
(free-id-subset? s1 \ s2) \rightarrow boolean?
   s1 : free-id-set?
   s2 : free-id-set?
Like subset?.
 (free-id-proper-subset? s1 \ s2) \rightarrow boolean?
   s1 : free-id-set?
   s2 : free-id-set?
Like proper-subset?.
 (free-id-set-map \ s \ f) \rightarrow list?
   s : free-id-set?
   f : (-> identifier? any/c)
Like set-map.
 (free-id-set-for-each s f) \rightarrow void?
   s : free-id-set?
   f : (-> identifier? any/c)
Like set-for-each.
 (id-set/c elem-ctc
            [#:setidtype idsettype
            #:mutability mutability]) → contract?
   elem-ctc : flat-contract?
   idsettype : (or/c 'dont-care 'free 'bound) = 'dont-care
   mutability : (or/c 'dont-care 'mutable 'immutable)
               = 'immutable
```

Creates a contract for identifier sets. If *mutability* is 'immutable, the contract accepts only immutable identifier sets; if *mutability* is 'mutable, the contract accepts only mutable identifier sets.

Creates a contract for free-identifier sets. If *mutability* is 'immutable, the contract accepts only immutable identifier sets; if *mutability* is 'mutable, the contract accepts only mutable identifier sets.

2.4.2 Sets for bound-identifier=?

A bound-identifier set is a set whose keys are compared using bound-identifier=?. Bound-identifier sets implement the gen:set interface, so all of the appropriate generic functions (e.g., set-add, set-map, etc.) can be used on bound-identifier sets.

```
(mutable-bound-id-set [init-set
                         #:phase phase]) → mutable-bound-id-set?
  init-set : set? = null
 phase : (or/c exact-integer? #f) = (syntax-local-phase-level)
(immutable-bound-id-set [init-set
                           #:phase phase])
→ immutable-bound-id-set?
init-set : set? = null
 phase : (or/c exact-integer? #f) = (syntax-local-phase-level)
(bound-id-set? v) \rightarrow boolean?
 v: any/c
(mutable-bound-id-set? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v : any/c
(immutable-bound-id-set? v) \rightarrow boolean?
 v : any/c
(bound-id-set-empty? s) \rightarrow boolean?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-count s) \rightarrow exact-nonnegative-integer?
 s: bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-member? s \ v) \rightarrow boolean?
 s: bound-id-set?
  v : identifier?
(bound-id-set=? s1 \ s2) \rightarrow boolean?
 s1 : bound-id-set?
 s2 : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-add \ s \ v) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-set?
 s : immutable-bound-id-set?
  v : identifier?
(bound-id-set-add! s v) \rightarrow void?
 s : mutable-bound-id-set?
 v : identifier?
(bound-id-set-remove s v) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-set?
 s : immutable-bound-id-set?
  v : identifier?
(bound-id-set-remove! s \ v) \rightarrow void?
 s : mutable-bound-id-set?
 v : identifier?
(bound-id-set-first s) \rightarrow identifier?
  s : bound-id-set?
```

```
(bound-id-set-rest s) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-set?
  s : immutable-bound-id-set?
(in-bound-id-set s) \rightarrow sequence?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set->stream s) \rightarrow stream?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set->list s) \rightarrow list?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-copy s) \rightarrow bound-id-set?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-copy-clear s) \rightarrow bound-id-set?
  s: bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-clear s) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-set?
  s : immutable-bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-clear! s) \rightarrow void?
  s : mutable-bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-union s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-set?
  s0 : immutable-bound-id-set?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-union! s0 \ s \ldots) \rightarrow void?
  s0 : mutable-bound-id-set?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-intersect s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-set?
  s0 : immutable-bound-id-set?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-intersect! s0 \ s \ldots) \rightarrow void?
 s0 : mutable-bound-id-set?
  s: bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-subtract s0 \ s \dots) \rightarrow immutable-bound-id-set?
  s0 : immutable-bound-id-set?
  s: bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-subtract! s0 \ s \ldots) \rightarrow void?
  s0 : mutable-bound-id-set?
  s: bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-symmetric-difference s0 s ...)
→ immutable-bound-id-set?
 s0 : immutable-bound-id-set?
  s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-set-symmetric-difference! s0
                                         s \ldots) \rightarrow \text{void}?
 s0 : mutable-bound-id-set?
 s : bound-id-set?
(bound-id-subset? s1 \ s2) \rightarrow boolean?
  s1 : bound-id-set?
  s2 : bound-id-set?
```

Like the procedures for free-identifier sets (e.g., immutable-free-id-set, free-id-set-add, etc.), but for bound-identifier sets, which use bound-identifier=? to compare keys.

2.5 Hashing on bound-identifier=? and free-identifier=?

This library is for backwards-compatibility. Do not use it for new libraries; use syntax/idtable instead.

```
(require syntax/boundmap)
                               package: base
(make-bound-identifier-mapping) → bound-identifier-mapping?
(bound-identifier-mapping? v) \rightarrow boolean?
  v : any/c
(bound-identifier-mapping-get bound-map
                                id
                               [failure-thunk]) \rightarrow any
  bound-map : bound-identifier-mapping?
  id : identifier?
 failure-thunk : (-> any)
                 = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
(bound-identifier-mapping-put! bound-map
                                 id
                                 v)
                                           → void?
 bound-map : bound-identifier-mapping?
  id : identifier?
  v : any/c
```

```
(bound-identifier-mapping-for-each bound-map
                                                → void?
   bound-map : bound-identifier-mapping?
   proc : (identifier? any/c . -> . any)
 (bound-identifier-mapping-map bound-map
                                proc)
                                           \rightarrow (listof any?)
   bound-map : bound-identifier-mapping?
   proc : (identifier? any/c . -> . any)
Similar to make-bound-id-table, bound-id-table?, bound-id-table-ref, bound-
id-table-set!, bound-id-table-for-each, and bound-id-table-map, respectively.
 (make-free-identifier-mapping) → free-identifier-mapping?
 (free-identifier-mapping? v) \rightarrow boolean?
 (free-identifier-mapping-get free-map
                               [failure-thunk]) \rightarrow any
   free-map : free-identifier-mapping?
   id : identifier?
   failure-thunk : (-> any)
                  = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
 (free-identifier-mapping-put! free-map id v) \rightarrow void?
   free-map : free-identifier-mapping?
   id : identifier?
   v : any/c
 (free-identifier-mapping-for-each free-map
                                     proc)
                                              → void?
   free-map : free-identifier-mapping?
  proc : (identifier? any/c . -> . any)
 (free-identifier-mapping-map free-map proc) → (listof any?)
   free-map : free-identifier-mapping?
   proc : (identifier? any/c . -> . any)
Similar to make-free-id-table, free-id-table?, free-id-table-ref, free-id-
table-set!, free-id-table-for-each, and free-id-table-map, respectively.
 (make-module-identifier-mapping) → module-identifier-mapping?
 (module-identifier-mapping? v) \rightarrow boolean?
   v : any/c
 (module-identifier-mapping-get module-map
                                  id
                                  [failure-thunk]) \rightarrow any
   module-map : module-identifier-mapping?
   id : identifier?
   failure-thunk : (-> any)
                  = (lambda () (raise (make-exn:fail ....)))
```

```
(module-identifier-mapping-put! module-map
                                 v)
                                            → void?
 module-map : module-identifier-mapping?
 id : identifier?
 v : anv/c
(module-identifier-mapping-for-each module-map
                                    proc)
                                                → void?
 module-map : module-identifier-mapping?
 proc : (identifier? any/c . -> . any)
(module-identifier-mapping-map module-map
                               proc)
                                           \rightarrow (listof any?)
 module-map : module-identifier-mapping?
 proc : (identifier? any/c . -> . any)
```

The same as make-free-identifier-mapping, etc.

2.6 Rendering Syntax Objects with Formatting

```
(require syntax/to-string) package: base

(syntax->string stx-list) → string?
  stx-list : (and/c syntax? stx-list?)
```

Builds a string with newlines and indenting according to the source locations in stx-list; the outer pair of parens are not rendered from stx-list.

2.7 Computing the Free Variables of an Expression

Returns a list of free lambda- and let-bound identifiers in *expr-stx* in the order in which each identifier first appears within *expr-stx*. The expression must be fully expanded (see §1.2.3.1 "Fully Expanded Programs" and *expand*).

The inspector *insp* is used to disarm *expr-stx* and sub-expressions before extracting identifiers. The default *insp* is the declaration-time inspector of the syntax/free-vars module.

If module-bound? is non-false, the list of free variables also includes free module-bound identifiers.

Examples:

2.8 Replacing Lexical Context

```
(require syntax/strip-context) package: base

(strip-context form) → any/c
  form : any/c
```

Removes all lexical context from syntax objects within form, preserving source-location information and properties.

Typically, *form* is a syntax object, and then the result is also a syntax object. Otherwise, pairs, vectors, boxes, hash tables, and prefab structures are traversed (and copied for the result) to find syntax objects. Graph structure is not preserved in the result, and cyclic data structures will cause **strip-context** to never return.

Changed in version 7.7.0.10 of package base: Repaired to traverse hash tables in stx.

```
(replace-context ctx-stx form) → any/c
  ctx-stx : (or/c syntax? #f)
  form : any/c
```

Uses the lexical context of ctx-stx to replace the lexical context of all parts of all syntax objects in form, preserving source-location information and properties of those syntax objects.

Syntax objects are found in *form* the same as in strip-context.

Changed in version 7.7.0.10 of package base: Repaired to traverse hash tables in stx.

2.9 Helpers for Processing Keyword Syntax

The syntax/keyword module contains procedures for parsing keyword options in macros.

```
(require syntax/keyword) package: base

keyword-table = (dict-of keyword (listof check-procedure))
```

A keyword-table is a dictionary (dict?) mapping keywords to lists of check-procedures. (Note that an association list is a suitable dictionary.) The keyword's arity is the length of the list of procedures.

Example:

A check procedure consumes the syntax to check and a context syntax object for error reporting and either raises an error to reject the syntax or returns a value as its parsed representation.

Example:

```
> (define (check-stx-string stx context-stx)
    (unless (string? (syntax-e stx))
        (raise-syntax-error #f "expected string" context-stx stx))
    stx)

options = (listof (list keyword syntax-keyword any ...))
```

Parsed options are represented as an list of option entries. Each entry contains the keyword, the syntax of the keyword (for error reporting), and the list of parsed values returned by the keyword's list of check procedures. The list contains the parsed options in the order they appeared in the input, and a keyword that occurs multiple times in the input occurs multiple times in the options list.

```
(parse-keyword-options stx
                        table
                       [#:context ctx
                        #:no-duplicates? no-duplicates?
                        #:incompatible incompatible
                        #:on-incompatible incompatible-handler
                        #:on-too-short too-short-handler
                        #:on-not-in-table not-in-table-handler])
→ options any/c
 stx : syntax?
 table : keyword-table
 ctx : (or/c #f syntax?) = #f
 no-duplicates? : boolean? = #f
 incompatible : (listof (listof keyword?)) = '()
 incompatible-handler : (-> keyword? keyword?
                             options syntax? syntax?
                              (values options syntax?))
                       = (lambda (....) (error ....))
 too-short-handler: (-> keyword? options syntax? syntax?
                          (values options syntax?))
                    = (lambda (....) (error ....))
 not-in-table-handler: (-> keyword? options syntax? syntax?
                              (values options syntax?))
                       = (lambda (....) (error ....))
```

Parses the keyword options in the syntax stx (stx may be an improper syntax list). The keyword options are described in the table association list. Each entry in table should be a list whose first element is a keyword and whose subsequent elements are procedures for checking the arguments following the keyword. The keyword's arity (number of arguments) is determined by the number of procedures in the entry. Only fixed-arity keywords are supported.

Parsing stops normally when the syntax list does not have a keyword at its head (it may be empty, start with a non-keyword term, or it may be a non-list syntax object). Two values are returned: the parsed options and the rest of the syntax (generally either a syntax object or a list of syntax objects).

A variety of errors and exceptional conditions can occur during the parsing process. The following keyword arguments determine the behavior in those situations.

The #:context ctx argument is used to report all errors in parsing syntax. In addition, ctx is passed as the final argument to all provided handler procedures. Macros using parse-keyword-options should generally pass the syntax object for the whole macro use as ctx.

If no-duplicates? is a non-false value, then duplicate keyword options are not allowed. If

a duplicate is seen, the keyword's associated check procedures are not called and an incompatibility is reported.

The *incompatible* argument is a list of incompatibility entries, where each entry is a list of *at least two* keywords. If any keyword in the entry occurs after any other keyword in the entry, an incompatibility is reported.

Note that including a keyword in an incompatibility entry does not prevent it from occurring multiple times. To disallow duplicates of some keywords (as opposed to all keywords), include those keywords in the <code>incompatible</code> list as being incompatible with themselves. That is, include them twice:

```
; Disallow duplicates of only the #:foo keyword
(parse-keyword-options .... #:incompatible '((#:foo #:foo)))
```

When an *incompatibility* occurs, the *incompatible-handler* is tail-called with the two keywords causing the incompatibility (in the order that they occurred in the syntax list, so the keyword triggering the incompatibility occurs second), the syntax list starting with the occurrence of the second keyword, and the context (ctx). If the incompatibility is due to a duplicate, the two keywords are the same.

When a keyword is not followed by enough arguments according to its arity in table, the too-short-handler is tail-called with the keyword, the options parsed thus far, the syntax list starting with the occurrence of the keyword, and ctx.

When a keyword occurs in the syntax list that is not in table, the not-in-table-handler is tail-called with the keyword, the options parsed thus far, the syntax list starting with the occurrence of the keyword, and ctx.

Handlers typically escape—all of the default handlers raise errors—but if they return, they should return two values: the parsed options and a syntax object; these are returned as the results of parse-keyword-options.

Examples:

```
(list (list '#:transparent)
         (list '#:inspector check-expression)
         (list '#:property check-expression check-expression))
   #:context #'define-struct
   #:incompatible '((#:transparent #:inspector)
                     (#:inspector #:inspector)
                     (#:inspector #:inspector)))
define-struct: #:inspector option not allowed after
#:transparent option
(parse-keyword-options/eol
  stx
  table
 [#:context ctx
 #:no-duplicates? no-duplicates?
 #:incompatible incompatible
 #:on-incompatible incompatible-handler
 #:on-too-short too-short-handler
  #:on-not-in-table not-in-table-handler
  #:on-not-eol not-eol-handler])
\rightarrow options
 stx : syntax?
 table : keyword-table
 ctx : (or/c #f syntax?) = #f
 no-duplicates? : boolean? = #f
 incompatible : (listof (list keyword? keyword?)) = '()
 incompatible-handler : (-> keyword? keyword?
                              options syntax? syntax?
                              (values options syntax?))
                       = (lambda (....) (error ....))
 too-short-handler : (-> keyword? options syntax? syntax?
                           (values options syntax?))
                    = (lambda (....) (error ....))
 not-in-table-handler: (-> keyword? options syntax? syntax?
                              (values options syntax?))
                       = (lambda (....) (error ....))
 not-eol-handler : (-> options syntax? syntax?
                        options)
                  = (lambda (....) (error ....))
```

#'(#:transparent #:inspector (make-inspector))

Like parse-keyword-options, but checks that there are no terms left over after parsing all of the keyword options. If there are, not-eol-handler is tail-called with the options parsed thus far, the leftover syntax, and ctx.

```
(options-select options keyword) → (listof list?)
  options : options
  keyword : keyword?
```

Selects the values associated with one keyword from the parsed options. The resulting list has as many items as there were occurrences of the keyword, and each element is a list whose length is the arity of the keyword.

Like options-select, except that the given keyword must occur either zero or one times in options. If the keyword occurs, the associated list of parsed argument values is returned. Otherwise, the default list is returned.

Like options-select, except that the given keyword must occur either zero or one times in options. If the keyword occurs, the associated list of parsed argument values must have exactly one element, and that element is returned. If the keyword does not occur in options, the default value is returned.

```
(check-identifier stx ctx) → identifier?
  stx : syntax?
  ctx : (or/c #f syntax?)
```

A check-procedure that accepts only identifiers.

```
(check-expression stx ctx) → syntax?
  stx : syntax?
  ctx : (or/c #f syntax?)
```

A check-procedure that accepts any non-keyword term. It does not actually check that the term is a valid expression.

```
((check-stx-listof check) stx ctx) → (listof any/c)
  check : check-procedure
  stx : syntax?
  ctx : (or/c #f syntax?)
```

Lifts a check-procedure to accept syntax lists of whatever the original procedure accepted.

```
(check-stx-string stx ctx) → syntax?
  stx : syntax?
  ctx : (or/c #f syntax?)
```

A check-procedure that accepts syntax strings.

```
(check-stx-boolean stx ctx) → syntax?
  stx : syntax?
  ctx : (or/c #f syntax?)
```

A check-procedure that accepts syntax booleans.

3 Datum Pattern Matching

```
(require syntax/datum) package: base
```

The syntax/datum library provides forms that implement the pattern and template language of syntax-case, but for matching and constructing datum values instead of syntax.

For most pattern-matching purposes, racket/match is a better choice than syntax/datum. The syntax/datum library is useful mainly for its template support (i.e., datum) and, to a lesser extent, its direct correspondence to syntax-case patterns.

```
(datum-case datum-expr (literal-id ...)
  clause ...)
(datum template)
```

Like syntax-case and syntax, but *datum-expr* in datum-case should produce a datum (i.e., plain S-expression) instead of a syntax object to be matched in *clauses*, and datum similarly produces a datum. Pattern variables bound in each *clause* of datum-case (or syntax-case, see below) are accessible via datum instead of syntax. When a *literal-id* appears in a *clause*'s pattern, it matches the corresponding symbol (using eq?).

Using datum-case and datum is similar to converting the input to syntax-case using datum->syntax and then wrapping each use of syntax with syntax->datum, but datum-case and datum do not create intermediate syntax objects, and they do not destroy existing syntax objects within the S-expression structure of datum-expr.

Example:

```
> (datum-case '(1 "x" -> y) (->)
    [(a ... -> b) (datum (b (+ a) ...))])
'(y (+ 1) (+ "x"))
```

The datum form also cooperates with syntax pattern variables such as those bound by syntax-case and attributes bound by syntax-parse (see §1.4.2 "Pattern Variables and Attributes" for more information about attributes). As one consequence, datum provides a convenient way of getting the list of syntax objects bound to a syntax pattern variable of depth 1. For example, the following expressions are equivalent, except that the datum version avoids creating and eliminating a superfluous syntax object wrapper:

```
> (with-syntax ([(x ...) #'(a b c)])
    (syntax->list #'(x ...)))
'(#<syntax:eval:3:0 a> #<syntax:eval:3:0 b> #<syntax:eval:3:0 c>)
> (with-syntax ([(x ...) #'(a b c)])
    (datum (x ...)))
'(#<syntax:eval:4:0 a> #<syntax:eval:4:0 b> #<syntax:eval:4:0 c>)
```

A template can also use multiple syntax or datum pattern variables and datum constants, and it can use the ~@ and ~? template forms:

```
> (with-syntax ([(x ...) #'(a b c)])
    (with-datum ([(y ...) (list 1 2 3)])
        (datum ([x -> y] ...))))
'((#<syntax:eval:5:0 a> -> 1)
    (#<syntax:eval:5:0 b> -> 2)
    (#<syntax:eval:5:0 c> -> 3))
> (with-syntax ([(x ...) #'(a b c)])
        (with-datum ([(y ...) (list 1 2 3)])
        (datum ((~@ x y) ...))))
'(#<syntax:eval:6:0 a> 1 #<syntax:eval:6:0 b> 2 #<syntax:eval:6:0
c> 3)
```

See §1.4.2.1 "Attributes and datum" for examples of ~? with datum.

If a datum variable is used in a syntax template, a compile-time error is raised.

Changed in version 7.8.0.9 of package base: Changed datum to cooperate with syntax-case, syntax-parse, etc.

```
(with-datum ([pattern datum-expr] ...)
body ...+)
```

Analogous to with-syntax, but for datum-case and datum instead of syntax-case and syntax.

Example:

The definition form of with-datum. Analogous to define/with-syntax, but for datumcase and datum.

Examples:

```
'((a b c) (1 2 3))
```

Added in version 8.2.0.8 of package base.

```
(quasidatum template)
(undatum expr)
(undatum-splicing expr)
```

 $Analogous \ to \ {\tt quasisyntax}, \ {\tt unsyntax}, \ {\tt and} \ {\tt unsyntax-splicing}.$

Example:

```
> (with-datum ([(a ...) '(1 2 3)])
     (quasidatum ((undatum (- 1 1)) a ... (undatum (+ 2 2)))))
'(0 1 2 3 4)
```

4 Module-Processing Helpers

4.1 Reading Module Source Code

```
(require syntax/modread) package: base

(with-module-reading-parameterization thunk) → any
    thunk : (-> any)
```

Calls thunk with all reader parameters reset to their default values.

Inspects stx to check whether evaluating it will declare a module—at least if module is bound in the top-level to Racket's module. The syntax object stx can contain a compiled expression. Also, stx can be an end-of-file, on the grounds that read-syntax can produce an end-of-file.

The <code>expected-module-sym</code> argument is currently ignored. In previous versions, the module form <code>stx</code> was obliged to declare a module who name matched <code>expected-module-sym</code>.

If stx can declare a module in an appropriate top-level, then the check-module-form procedure returns a syntax object that certainly will declare a module (adding explicit context to the leading module if necessary) in any top-level. Otherwise, if source-v is not #f, a suitable exception is raised using the write form of the source in the message; if source-v is #f, #f is returned.

If stx is eof or eof wrapped as a syntax object, then an error is raised or #f is returned.

4.2 Getting Module Compiled Code

```
(require syntax/modcode) package: base
```

```
(get-module-code path
                 [#:submodule-path submodule-path
                 #:sub-path compiled-subdir0
                 compiled-subdir
                 #:roots roots
                 #:compile compile-proc0
                 compile-proc
                 #:extension-handler ext-proc0
                 ext-proc
                 #:notify notify-proc
                 #:source-reader read-syntax-proc
                 #:rkt-try-ss? rkt-try-ss?
                 #:choose choose-proc])
                                                   \rightarrow any
 path : path-string?
 submodule-path : (listof symbol?) = '()
 compiled-subdir0 : (or/c (and/c path-string? relative-path?)
                           (listof (and/c path-string? relative-path?)))
                   = (use-compiled-file-paths)
 compiled-subdir : (or/c (and/c path-string? relative-path?)
                          (listof (and/c path-string? relative-path?)))
                  = compiled-subdir0
 roots : (listof (or/c path-string? 'same))
       = (current-compiled-file-roots)
 compile-proc0 : (any/c . -> . any) = compile
 compile-proc : (any/c . -> . any) = compile-proc0
 ext-proc0: (or/c #f (path? boolean? . -> . any)) = #f
 ext-proc : (or/c #f (path? boolean? . -> . any)) = ext-proc0
 notify-proc : (any/c . -> . any) = void
 read-syntax-proc : (any/c input-port? . -> . (or/c syntax? eof-object?))
                   = read-syntax
 rkt-try-ss? : boolean? = #t
 choose-proc : (or/c (-> path? path? path?
                                                  = #f
                          (or/c 'src 'zo 'so #f))
                      #f)
```

Returns a compiled expression for the declaration of the module specified by path and submodule-path, where submodule-path is empty for a root module or a list for a submodule.

The roots, compiled-subdir, choose-proc, and rkt-try-ss? and submodule-path arguments determine which file is consulted to find the compiled code. If the default values are provided, then this function uses the same logic as the default value of current-load/use-compiled. In more detail:

• If submodule-path is not the empty list, then the compiled code will never be located

in a dynamic extension; instead the original source or a "zo" file will be used.

- The rkt-try-ss? argument defaults to #t. If it is not #f, then if path ends in ".rkt", then the corresponding file ending in ".ss" will be tried as well.
- The *choose-proc* argument is called with the original source file (which might have had its ending changed, c.f. the *rkt-try-ss?* argument) and two other paths that end with "zo" and "so" (but they are not necessarily the paths that **get-module-code** uses). If the *choose-proc* returns 'src, then compiled files are not used. If it returns any other result, the result is ignored. In previous versions of this function, the *choose-proc* offered more control over which file was used but it no longer does; the current interface is kept for backwards compatibility.
- The *compiled-subdir* argument defaults to (use-compiled-file-paths); it specifies the sub-directories to search for a compiled version of the module. If *compiled-subdir* is a list, then the first directory that contains a file with an appropriate name is used as the compiled file.
- The roots list specifies a compiled-file search path in the same way as the current-compiled-file-roots parameter; it defaults to the current value of current-compiled-file-roots.

The *compile-proc* argument defaults to *compile*. This procedure is used to compile module source if an already-compiled version is not available. If *submodule-path* is not '(), then *compile-proc* must return a compiled module form.

The ext-proc argument defaults to #f. If it is not #f, it must be a procedure of two arguments that is called when a native-code version of path should be used. In that case, the arguments to ext-proc are the path for the dynamic extension, and a boolean indicating whether the extension is a _loader file (#t) or not (#f).

If a dynamic extension is preferred or is the only file that exists, it is supplied to ext-proc when ext-proc is #f, or an exception is raised (to report that an extension file cannot be used) when ext-proc is #f.

If *notify-proc* is supplied, it is called for the file (source, ".zo" or dynamic extension) that is chosen.

If read-syntax-proc is provided, it is used to read the module from a source file (but not from a bytecode file).

Changed in version 6.90.0.7 of package base: Use (default-compiled-sub-path) for the default value of compiled-subdir.

Changed in version 8.6.0.12: Generalize the #:sub-path argument, change #:sub-path's default to (use-compiled-file-paths), and pay less attention to the #:choose argument.

```
(get-module-path path
                 #:submodule? submodule?
                [#:sub-path compiled-subdir0
                 compiled-subdir
                 #:roots roots
                 #:rkt-try-ss? rkt-try-ss?
                 #:choose choose-proc])
→ path? (or/c 'src 'zo 'so)
 path : path-string?
 submodule? : boolean?
 compiled-subdir0 : (or/c (and/c path-string? relative-path?)
                           (listof (and/c path-string? relative-path?)))
                   = (use-compiled-file-paths)
 compiled-subdir : (or/c (and/c path-string? relative-path?)
                          (listof (and/c path-string? relative-path?)))
                  = compiled-subdir0
 roots : (listof (or/c path-string? 'same))
       = (current-compiled-file-roots)
 rkt-try-ss? : boolean? = #t
 choose-proc : any/c = #f
```

Produces two values. The first is the path of the latest source or compiled file for the module specified by *path*; this result is the path of the file that <code>get-module-code</code> would read to produce a compiled module expression. The second value is 'src, 'zo, or 'so, depending on whether the first value represents a Racket source file, a compiled bytecode file, or a native library file.

The compiled-subdir, roots, choose-proc, and rkt-try-ss? arguments are interpreted the same as by get-module-code.

The *submodule*? argument represents whether the desired module is a submodule of the one specified by *path*. When *submodule*? is true, the result path never refers to a dynamic extension and the result symbol is never 'so, as native libraries cannot provide submodules.

Changed in version 6.90.0.7 of package base: Use (default-compiled-sub-path) for the default value of compiled-subdir.

Changed in version 8.6.0.12: Generalize the #:sub-path argument, change #:sub-path's default to (use-compiled-file-paths), and pay less attention to the #:choose argument.

```
(default-compiled-sub-path) \rightarrow path-string?
```

If (use-compiled-file-paths) is not '(), returns the first element of the list. Otherwise, returns "compiled".

This function used to provide the default for the #:sub-path argument to get-module-code and get-module-path, but it is no longer used by this library.

Added in version 6.90.0.7 of package base.

Constructs the path used to store compilation metadata for a source file stored in the directory path. The argument roots specifies the possible root directories to consider and to search for an existing file. The sub-path arguments specify the subdirectories and filename of the result relative to the chosen root. For example, the compiled ".zo" file for "/path/to/source.rkt" might be stored in (get-metadata-path (build-path "/path/to") "compiled" "source_rkt.zo").

```
(moddep-current-open-input-file)
  → (path-string? . -> . input-port?)
(moddep-current-open-input-file proc) → void?
  proc : (path-string? . -> . input-port?)
```

A parameter whose value is used like open-input-file to read a module source or ".zo" file

```
(struct exn:get-module-code exn:fail (path)
    #:extra-constructor-name make-exn:get-module-code)
    path : path?
```

An exception structure type for exceptions raised by get-module-code.

4.3 Resolving Module Paths to File Paths

Resolves a module path to filename path. The module path is resolved relative to rel-to-path-v if it is a path string (assumed to be for a file), to the directory result of calling the thunk if it is a thunk, or to the current directory otherwise.

When *module-path-v* refers to a module using a collection-based path, resolution invokes the current module name resolver, but without loading the module even if it is not declared. Beware that concurrent resolution in namespaces that share a module registry can create race conditions when loading modules; see also namespace-call-with-registry-lock.

Like resolve-module-path but the input is a module path index; in this case, the rel-to-path-v base is used where the module path index contains the "self" index. If module-path-index depends on the "self" module path index, then an exception is raised unless rel-to-path-v is a path string.

See module-path-index-resolve.

Examples:

4.4 Simplifying Module Paths

Returns a "simplified" module path by combining module-path-v with rel-to-module-path-v, where the latter must have one of the following forms: a '(lib) or symbol module path; a '(file) module path; a path;

'(quote symbol); a '(submod base symbol ...) module path where base would be allowed; or a thunk to generate one of those.

The result can be a path if <code>module-path-v</code> contains a path element that is needed for the result, or if <code>rel-to-module-path-v</code> is a non-string path that is needed for the result. Similarly, the result can be 'submod wrapping a path. Otherwise, the result is a module path (in the sense of <code>module-path?</code>) that is not a plain filesystem path.

When the result is a 'lib or 'planet module path, it is normalized so that equivalent module paths are represented by equal? results. When the result is a 'submod module path, it contains only symbols after the base module path, and the base is normalized in the case of a 'lib or 'planet base.

Examples:

Like collapse-module-path when given two arguments, but the input is a module path index; in this case, the rel-to-module-path-v base is used where the module path index contains the "self" index (see module-path-index-split).

When given a single argument, collapse-module-path-index returns a module path that is relative if the given module path index is relative, except that it returns #f if its argument is the "self" module path index. A resulting module path is not necessarily normalized.

Changed in version 6.1.1.8 of package base: Added the one-argument variant for collapsing a relative module path index.

Changed in version 6.9.0.5: Added support for the "self" module path index as the only argument, which meant extending the result contract to include #f

4.5 Inspecting Modules and Module Dependencies

```
(require syntax/moddep) package: base
```

Re-exports syntax/modread, syntax/modcode, syntax/modcollapse, and syntax/modresolve, in addition to the following:

A debugging aid that prints (by default) the import hierarchy starting from a given module path. Supply an alternate *show* function to handle each path instead of having it printed; the second argument is a result of **resolved-module-path-name**.

If dag? is true, then a module is passed to show only the first time is encountered in the hierarchy at a given phase.

If path-to-module-path-v is a module path, then only the spines of the tree that reach path-to-module-path-v are shown.

Changed in version 6.12.0.4 of package base: Added the #:dag? and #:path-to arguments. Changed in version 7.0.0.10: Added the #:show argument.

4.6 Wrapping Module-Body Expressions

Provided for-syntax.

Constructs a function that is suitable for use as a #%module-begin replacement, particularly to replace the facet of #%module-begin that wraps each top-level expression to print the expression's result(s).

The function takes a syntax object and returns a syntax object using <code>module-begin-form</code>. Assuming that <code>module-begin-form</code> resembles <code>#%plain-module-begin</code>, each top-level expression <code>expr</code> will be wrapped as (<code>wrap-form expr</code>), while top-level declarations (such as define-values and require forms) are left as-is. Expressions are detected after macro expansion and begin splicing, and expansion is interleaved with declaration processing as usual.

5 Macro Transformer Helpers

5.1 Extracting Inferred Names

```
(require syntax/name) package: base

(syntax-local-infer-name stx [use-local?]) → any/c
  stx : syntax?
  use-local? : any/c = #t
```

Similar to syntax-local-name, except that stx is checked for an 'inferred-name property (which overrides any inferred name). If neither syntax-local-name nor 'inferred-name produce a name, or if the 'inferred-name property value is #<void>, then a name is constructed from the source-location information in stx, if any. If no name can be constructed, the result is #f.

To support the propagation and merging of consistent properties during expansions, the value of the 'inferred-name property can be a tree formed with cons where all of the leaves are the same. For example, (cons 'name 'name) is equivalent to 'name, and (cons (void) (void)) is equivalent to #<void>.

If use-local? is #f, then syntax-local-name is not used. Provide use-local? as #f to construct a name for a syntax object that is not an expression currently being expanded.

5.2 Support for local-expand

```
(require syntax/context) package: base

(build-expand-context v) → list?
  v : (or/c symbol? list?)
```

Returns a list suitable for use as a context argument to local-expand for an internal-definition context. The v argument represents the immediate context for expansion. The context list builds on (syntax-local-context) if it is a list.

```
(generate-expand-context [liberal-definitions?]) → list?
  liberal-definitions? : boolean? = #f
```

Calls build-expand-context with a generated unique value. When *liberal-definitions?* is true, the value is an instance of a structure type with a true value for the prop:liberal-define-context property.

5.3 Parsing define-like Forms

Takes a definition form whose shape is like define (though possibly with a different name) and returns two values: the defined identifier and the right-hand side expression.

To generate the right-hand side, this function may need to insert uses of lambda. The lambda-id-stx argument provides a suitable lambda identifier.

If the definition is ill-formed, a syntax error is raised. If <code>check-context?</code> is true, then a syntax error is raised if (<code>syntax-local-context</code>) indicates that the current context is an expression context. The default value of <code>check-context?</code> is #t.

If opt+kws? is #t, then arguments of the form [id expr], keyword id, and keyword [id expr] are allowed, and they are preserved in the expansion.

The helper for normalize-definition that produces three values: the defined identifier, a function that takes the syntax of the body and produces syntax that has the expected binding structure, and finally the right-hand side expression that normalize-definition gives to the previous function.

If *err-no-body*? is true, then there must be a right-hand side expression or else it is a syntax error. The *err-no-body*? argument is true for uses of normalize-definition.

Added in version 6.1.1.8 of package base.

5.4 Flattening begin Forms

```
(require syntax/flatten-begin) package: base

(flatten-begin stx) → (listof syntax?)
  stx : syntax?
```

Extracts the sub-expressions from stx, assuming that it is a begin form. Reports an error if stx does not have the right shape (i.e., a syntax list). The resulting syntax objects have annotations transferred from stx using syntax-track-origin.

Examples:

```
> (flatten-begin #'(begin 1 2 3))
'(#<syntax:eval:2:0 1> #<syntax:eval:2:0 2> #<syntax:eval:2:0 3>)
> (flatten-begin #'(begin (begin 1 2) 3))
'(#<syntax:eval:3:0 (begin 1 2)> #<syntax:eval:3:0 3>)
> (flatten-begin #'(+ (- 1 2) 3))
'(#<syntax:eval:4:0 (- 1 2)> #<syntax:eval:4:0 3>)

(flatten-all-begins stx) → (listof syntax?)
stx: syntax?
```

Extracts the sub-expressions from a begin form and recursively flattens begin forms nested in the original one. An error will be reported if stx is not a begin form. The resulting syntax objects have annotations transferred from stx using syntax-track-origin.

Examples:

```
> (flatten-all-begins #'(begin 1 2 3))
'(#<syntax:eval:5:0 1> #<syntax:eval:5:0 2> #<syntax:eval:5:0 3>)
> (flatten-all-begins #'(begin (begin 1 2) 3))
'(#<syntax:eval:6:0 1> #<syntax:eval:6:0 2> #<syntax:eval:6:0 3>)
```

Added in version 6.1.0.3 of package base.

5.5 Expanding define-struct-like Forms

```
stx : syntax?
orig-stx : syntax?
```

Parses stx as a define-struct form, but uses orig-stx to report syntax errors (under the assumption that orig-stx is the same as stx, or that they at least share sub-forms). The result is four values: an identifier for the struct type name, a identifier or #f for the super-name, a list of identifiers for fields, and a syntax object for the inspector expression.

Generates the names bound by define-struct given an identifier for the struct type name and a list of identifiers for the field names. The result is a list of identifiers:

- struct:name-id
- ctr-name, or make-name-id if ctr-name is #f
- name-id?
- name-id-field, for each field in field-ids.
- set-name-id-field! (getter and setter names alternate).
-

If omit-sel? is true, then the selector names are omitted from the result list. If omit-set? is true, then the setter names are omitted from the result list.

The default *src-stx* is #f; it is used to provide a source location to the generated identifiers.

```
(build-struct-generation name-id
                          field-ids
                         [#:constructor-name ctr-name]
                          omit-sel?
                          omit-set?
                         [super-type
                         prop-value-list
                          immutable-k-list])
 → (listof identifier?)
 name-id : identifier?
 field-ids : (listof identifier?)
 ctr-name : (or/c identifier? #f) = #f
 omit-sel? : boolean?
 omit-set? : boolean?
 super-type : any/c = #f
 prop-value-list : list? = '(list)
 immutable-k-list : list? = '(list)
```

Takes the same arguments as build-struct-names and generates an S-expression for code using make-struct-type to generate the structure type and return values for the identifiers created by build-struct-names. The optional super-type, prop-value-list, and immutable-k-list parameters take S-expressions that are used as the corresponding argument expressions to make-struct-type.

```
(build-struct-generation* all-name-ids
                          name-id
                           field-ids
                          [#:constructor-name ctr-name]
                          omit-sel?
                          omit-set?
                          [super-type
                          prop-value-list
                          immutable-k-list])
→ (listof identifier?)
 all-name-ids : (listof identifier?)
 name-id : identifier?
 field-ids : (listof identifier?)
 ctr-name : (or/c identifier? #f) = #f
 omit-sel? : boolean?
 omit-set? : boolean?
 super-type : any/c = #f
 prop-value-list : list? = '(list)
 immutable-k-list : list? = '(list)
```

Like build-struct-generation, but given the names produced by build-struct-names, instead of re-generating them.

```
(build-struct-expand-info name-id
                           field-ids
                          [#:omit-constructor? no-ctr?
                           #:constructor-name ctr-name
                           #:omit-struct-type? no-type?]
                           omit-sel?
                           omit-set?
                           base-name
                           base-getters
                           base-setters)
                                                          \rightarrow any
 name-id : identifier?
 field-ids : (listof identifier?)
 no-ctr?: any/c = #f
 ctr-name : (or/c identifier? #f) = #f
 no-type? : any/c = #f
 omit-sel? : boolean?
 omit-set? : boolean?
 base-name : (or/c identifier? boolean?)
 base-getters : (listof (or/c identifier? #f))
 base-setters : (listof (or/c identifier? #f))
```

Takes mostly the same arguments as build-struct-names, plus a parent identifier/#t/#f and a list of accessor and mutator identifiers (possibly ending in #f) for a parent type, and generates an S-expression for expansion-time code to be used in the binding for the structure name.

If *no-ctr*? is true, then the constructor name is omitted from the expansion-time information. Similarly, if *no-type*? is true, then the structure-type name is omitted.

A #t for the base-name means no super-type, #f means that the super-type (if any) is unknown, and an identifier indicates the super-type identifier.

```
(struct-declaration-info? v) → boolean?
v : any/c
```

Returns #t if x has the shape of expansion-time information for structure type declarations, #f otherwise. See $\S 5.7$ "Structure Type Transformer Binding".

```
orig-stx : syntax?
name-id : identifier?
super-id-or-false : (or/c identifier? #f)
field-id-list : (listof identifier?)
current-context : any/c
make-make-struct-type : procedure?
omit-sel? : boolean? = #f
omit-set? : boolean? = #f
```

This procedure implements the core of a define-struct expansion.

The generate-struct-declaration procedure is called by a macro expander to generate the expansion, where the name-id, super-id-or-false, and field-id-list arguments provide the main parameters. The current-context argument is normally the result of syntax-local-context. The orig-stx argument is used for syntax errors. The optional omit-sel? and omit-set? arguments default to #f; a #t value suppresses definitions of field selectors or mutators, respectively.

The make-struct-type procedure is called to generate the expression to actually create the struct type. Its arguments are orig-stx, name-id-stx, defined-name-stxes, and super-info. The first two are as provided originally to generate-struct-declaration, the third is the set of names generated by build-struct-names, and the last is super-struct info obtained by resolving super-id-or-false when it is not #f, #f otherwise.

The result should be an expression whose values are the same as the result of make-struct-type. Thus, the following is a basic make-make-struct-type:

but an actual make-make-struct-type will likely do more.

5.6 Resolving include-like Paths

Resolves the syntactic path specification path-spec-stx as for include.

The *source-stx* specifies a syntax object whose source-location information determines relative-path resolution. The *expr-stx* is used for reporting syntax errors.

5.7 Controlling Syntax Templates

(require syntax/template) package: base

```
(transform-template template-stx
                    #:save save-proc
                    #:restore-stx restore-proc-stx
                   [#:leaf-save leaf-save-proc
                    #:leaf-restore-stx leaf-restore-proc-stx
                    #:leaf-datum-stx leaf-datum-proc-stx
                    #:pvar-save pvar-save-proc
                    #:pvar-restore-stx pvar-restore-stx
                    #:cons-stx cons-proc-stx
                    #:ellipses-end-stx ellipses-end-stx
                    #:constant-as-leaf? constant-as-leaf?])
→ syntax?
 template-stx : syntax?
 save-proc : (syntax? . -> . any/c)
 restore-proc-stx : syntax?
 leaf-save-proc : (syntax? . -> . any/c) = save-proc
 leaf-restore-proc-stx : syntax? = #'(lambda (data stx) stx)
 leaf-datum-proc-stx : syntax? = #'(lambda (v) v)
 pvar-save-proc : (identifier? . -> . any/c) = (lambda (x) #f)
 pvar-restore-stx : syntax? = #'(lambda (d stx) stx)
 cons-proc-stx : syntax? = #'cons
 ellipses-end-stx : syntax? = #'values
 constant-as-leaf? : boolean? = #f
```

Produces an representation of an expression similar to #`(syntax #,template-stx), but functions like save-proc can collect information that might otherwise be lost by syntax (such as properties when the syntax object is marshaled within bytecode), and run-time functions like the one specified by restore-proc-stx can use the saved information or otherwise process the syntax object that is generated by the template.

The save-proc is applied to each syntax object in the representation of the original template (i.e., in template-stx). If constant-as-leaf? is #t, then save-proc is applied only to syntax objects that contain at least one pattern variable in a sub-form. The result of save-proc is provided back as the first argument to restore-proc-stx, which indicates a function with a contract (-> any/c syntax any/c any/c); the second argument to

restore-proc-stx is the syntax object that syntax generates, and the last argument is a datum that have been processed recursively (by functions such as restore-proc-stx) and that normally would be converted back to a syntax object using the second argument's context, source, and properties. Note that save-proc works at expansion time (with respect to the template form), while restore-proc-stx indicates a function that is called at run time (for the template form), and the data that flows from save-proc to restore-proc-stx crosses phases via quote.

The <code>leaf-save-proc</code> and <code>leaf-restore-proc-stx</code> procedures are analogous to <code>save-proc</code> and <code>restore-proc-stx</code>, but they are applied to leaves, so there is no third argument for recursively processed sub-forms. The function indicated by <code>leaf-restore-proc-stx</code> should have the contract (<code>-> any/c syntax? any/c</code>).

The leaf-datum-proc-stx procedure is applied to leaves that are not syntax objects, which can happen because pairs and the empty list are not always individually wrapped as syntax objects. The function should have the contract (-> any/c any/c). When constant-as-leaf? is #f, the only possible argument to the procedure is null.

The pvar-save and pvar-restore-stx procedures are analogous to save-proc and restore-proc-stx, but they are applied to pattern variables. The pvar-restore-stx procedure should have the contract (-> any/c syntax? any/c), where the second argument corresponds to the substitution of the pattern variable.

The *cons-proc-stx* procedure is used to build intermediate pairs, including pairs passed to *restore-proc-stx* and pairs that do not correspond to syntax objects.

The ellipses-end-stx procedure is an extra filter on the syntax object that follows a sequence of . . . ellipses in the template. The procedure should have the contract (-> any/c any/c).

The following example illustrates a use of transform-template to implement a syntax/shape form that preserves the 'paren-shape property from the original template, even if the template code is marshaled within bytecode.

```
#:restore-stx #'add-shape-prop)]))
```

5.8 Creating Macro Transformers

Creates a transformer that replaces references to the macro identifier with reference-stx. Uses of the macro in operator position are interpreted as an application with reference-stx as the function and the arguments as given. If the reference-stx is a procedure, it is applied to the macro identifier.

If the macro identifier is used as the target of a set! form, then the set! form expands into the application of setter-stx to the set! expression's right-hand side, if setter-stx is syntax; otherwise, the identifier is considered immutable and a syntax error is raised. If setter-stx is a procedure, it is applied to the entire set! expression.

Examples:

```
> (define the-box (box add1))
> (define-syntax op
          (make-variable-like-transformer
          #'(unbox the-box)
          #'(lambda (v) (set-box! the-box v))))
> (op 5)
6
> (set! op 0)
> op
0
```

Added in version 6.3 of package base.

```
(make-expression-transformer transformer)
    → (-> syntax? syntax?)
    transformer : (-> syntax? syntax?)
```

Creates a transformer derived from *transformer* that ensures it expands in an expression context. When invoked in an expression context, it calls *transformer*. When invoked in any other context, the new transformer wraps the argument syntax with #%expression.

Added in version 7.7.0.9 of package base.

5.9 Applying Macro Transformers

For backwards compatibility only; syntax-local-apply-transformer is preferred.

Applies transformer as a syntax transformer to stx in the current expansion context. The result is similar to expanding a use of an identifier bound as a syntax transformer bound to transformer with local-expand, except that expansion is guaranteed to stop after applying a single macro transformation (assuming transformer does not explicitly force further recursive expansion).

Unlike simply applying *transformer* to *stx* directly, using local-apply-transformer introduces the appropriate use-site scope and macro-introduction scope that would be added by the expander.

The *context* and *intdef-ctx* arguments are treated the same way as the corresponding arguments to local-expand.

Added in version 6.90.0.29 of package base.

6 Reader Helpers

6.1 Raising exn:fail:read

```
(require syntax/readerr)
                             package: base
(raise-read-error msg-string
                   source
                   line
                   col
                   pos
                   span
                  [#:extra-srclocs extra-srclocs]) → any
 msg-string : string?
  source : any/c
 line : (or/c exact-positive-integer? #f)
  col : (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
  pos : (or/c exact-positive-integer? #f)
  span : (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
  extra-srclocs : (listof srcloc?) = '()
```

Creates and raises an exn:fail:read exception, using msg-string as the base error message.

Source-location information is added to the error message using the last five arguments and the <code>extra-srclocs</code> (if the <code>error-print-source-location</code> parameter is set to <code>#t</code>). The <code>source</code> argument is an arbitrary value naming the source location—usually a file path string. Each of the <code>line</code>, <code>pos</code> arguments is <code>#f</code> or a positive exact integer representing the location within <code>source</code> (as much as known), <code>col</code> is a non-negative exact integer for the source column (if known), and <code>span</code> is <code>#f</code> or a non-negative exact integer for an item range starting from the indicated position.

The usual location values should point at the beginning of whatever it is you were reading, and the span usually goes to the point the error was discovered.

```
pos : (or/c exact-positive-integer? #f)
span : (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
```

Like raise-read-error, but raises exn:fail:read:eof instead of exn:fail:read.

6.2 Module Reader

```
(require syntax/module-reader)
```

See also §17.3 "Defining new #lang Languages" in *The Racket Guide*.

The syntax/module-reader library provides support for defining #lang readers. It is normally used as a module language, though it may also be required to get make-meta-reader. It provides all of the bindings of racket/base other than #%module-begin.

```
(#%module-begin module-path)
(#%module-begin module-path reader-option ... form ....)
(#%module-begin
                          reader-option ... form ....)
reader-option = #:read
                             read-expr
             #:read-syntax read-syntax-expr
              #:whole-body-readers? whole?-expr
               #:wrapper1
                             wrapper1-expr
               #:wrapper2
                             wrapper2-expr
               #:module-wrapper module-wrapper-expr
               #:language
                           lang-expr
                             info-expr
               #:info
               #:interaction-info interaction-info-expr
              #:language-info language-info-expr
```

```
read-expr : (input-port? . -> . any/c)
read-syntax-expr : (any/c input-port? . -> . any/c)
whole?-expr : any/c
wrapper1-expr : (or/c ((-> any/c) . -> . any/c)
                       ((-> any/c) boolean? . -> . any/c))
                 (or/c (input-port? (input-port? . -> . any/c)
                        . \rightarrow . any/c)
wrapper2-expr :
                       (input-port? (input-port? . -> . any/c)
                        boolean? \cdot \rightarrow \cdot \operatorname{any/c})
                       (or/c ((-> any/c) . -> . any/c)
module-wrapper-expr :
                        ((-> any/c) boolean? . -> . any/c))
info-expr: (symbol? any/c (symbol? any/c . -> . any/c) . -> . any/c)
interaction-info-expr : (or/c (symbol? any/c . -> . any/c) #f)
language-info-expr : (or/c (vector/c module-path? symbol? any/c) #f)
            (or/c module-path?
                   (and/c syntax? (compose module-path? syntax->datum))
lang-expr :
                   procedure?)
```

In its simplest form, the body of a module written with syntax/module-reader contains just a module path, which is used in the language position of read modules. For example, a module something/lang/reader implemented as

```
(module reader syntax/module-reader
  module-path)
```

creates a reader such that a module source

```
#lang something
....
is read as
  (module name-id module-path
          (#%module-begin ....))
```

where name-id is derived from the source input port's name in the same way as for #lang s-exp.

Keyword-based reader-options allow further customization, as listed below. Additional forms are as in the body of racket/base module; they can import bindings and define identifiers used by the reader-options.

#:read and #:read-syntax (both or neither must be supplied) specify alternate
readers for parsing the module body—replacements read and read-syntax, respectively. Normally, the replacements for read and read-syntax are applied repeatedly
to the module source until eof is produced, but see also #:whole-body-readers?.

Unless #:whole-body-readers? specifies a true value, the repeated use of read or read-syntax is parameterized to set read-accept-lang to #f, which disables nested uses of #lang.

See also #:wrapper1 and #:wrapper2, which support simple parameterization of readers rather than wholesale replacement.

• #:whole-body-readers? specified as true indicates that the #:read and #:read-syntax functions each produce a list of S-expressions or syntax objects for the module content, so that each is applied just once to the input stream.

If the resulting list contains a single form that starts with the symbol '#%module-begin (or a syntax object whose datum is that symbol), then the first item is used as the module body; otherwise, a '#%module-begin (symbol or identifier) is added to the beginning of the list to form the module body.

• #:wrapper1 specifies a function that controls the dynamic context in which the read and read-syntax functions are called. A #:wrapper1-specified function must accept a thunk, and it normally calls the thunk to produce a result while parameterize-ing the call. Optionally, a #:wrapper1-specified function can accept a boolean that indicates whether it is used in read (#f) or read-syntax (#t) mode.

For example, a language like racket/base but with case-insensitive reading of symbols and identifiers can be implemented as

Using a readtable, you can implement languages that are extensions of plain S-expressions.

- #:wrapper2 is like #:wrapper1, but a #:wrapper2-specified function receives the input port to be read, and the function that it receives accepts an input port (usually, but not necessarily the same input port). A #:wrapper2-specified function can optionally accept an boolean that indicates whether it is used in read (#f) or read-syntax (#t) mode.
- #:module-wrapper specifies a function that controls the dynamic context in which
 the overall module form is produced, including calls to the read and read-syntax
 functions and to any #:wrapper1 and #:wrapper2 functions. The #:modulewrapper-specified function must accept a thunk, and it can optionally accept a
 boolean that indicates whether it is used in read (#f) or read-syntax (#t) mode.

While a #:wrapper1-specified or #:wrapper2-specified function sees only individual forms within the read module, a #:module-wrapper-specified function sees the entire result module form (via the result of its thunk argument).

• #:info specifies an implementation of reflective information that is used by external tools to manipulate the *source* of modules in the language *something*. For example, DrRacket uses information from #:info to determine the style of syntax coloring that it should use for editing a module's source.

The #:info specification should be a function of three arguments: a symbol indicating the kind of information requested (as defined by external tools), a default value that normally should be returned if the symbol is not recognized, and a default-filtering function that takes the first two arguments and returns a result.

The expression after #:info is placed into a context where language-module and language-data are bound. The language-module identifier is bound to the module-path that is used for the read module's language as written directly or as determined through #:language. The language-data identifier is bound to the second result from #:language, or #f by default.

The default-filtering function passed to the #:info function is intended to provide support for information that syntax/module-reader can provide automatically. Currently, it recognizes only the 'module-language key, for which it returns language-module; it returns the given default value for any other key.

In the case of the DrRacket syntax-coloring example, DrRacket supplies 'color-lexer as the symbol argument, and it supplies #f as the default. The default-filtering argument (i.e., the third argument to the #:info function) currently just returns the default for 'color-lexer.

• #:interaction-info specifies an implementation of reflective information that is used by external tools for interactive evaluation. When <code>interaction-info-expr</code> produces a function, the function accepts two arguments: a symbol a symbol indicating the kind of information requested (as defined by external tools), and a default value that normally should be returned if the symbol is not recognized.

As long as interaction-info-expr is specified, module-path is specified, or lang-expr is literally a quote form, then get-interaction-info is defined an exported. Normally, interaction information is used by setting current-interaction-info to a vector with the enclosing module's path as its first element and 'get-interaction-info as its second element. The third element of the vector is an argument to get-interaction-info, and it is bound as language-data in interaction-info-expr.

If interaction-info-expr is omitted or is literally #f, and if module-path is specified or lang-expr is literally a quote form, then get-interaction-info is automatically defined to use the same implementation as #:info, but instantiated with language-module as #f.

• #:language-info specifies an implementation of reflective information that is used by external tools to manipulate the module in the language *something* in its *expanded*, *compiled*, or *declared* form (as opposed to source). For example, when

Racket starts a program, it uses information attached to the main module to initialize the run-time environment.

Submodules are normally a better way to implement reflective information, instead of #:language-info. For example, when Racket starts a program, it also checks for a configure-runtime submodule of the main module to initialize the run-time environment. The #:language-info mechanism pre-dates submodules.

Since the expanded/compiled/declared form exists at a different time than when the source is read, a #:language-info specification is a vector that indicates an implementation of the reflective information, instead of a direct implementation as a function like #:info. The first element of the vector is a module path, the second is a symbol corresponding to a function exported from the module, and the last element is a value to be passed to the function. The last value in the vector must be one that can be written with write and read back with read. When the exported function indicated by the first two vector elements is called with the value from the last vector element, the result should be a function or two arguments: a symbol and a default value. The symbol and default value are used as for the #:info function (but without an extra default-filtering function).

The value specified by #:language-info is attached to the module form that is parsed from source through the 'module-language syntax property. See module for more information.

The expression after #:language-info is placed into a context where language-module are language-data are bound, the same as for #:info.

In the case of the Racket run-time configuration example, Racket uses the #:language-info vector to obtain a function, and then it passes 'configure-runtime to the function to obtain information about configuring the runtime environment. See also §18.1.5 "Language Run-Time Configuration".

• #:language allows the language of the read module to be computed dynamically and based on the program source, instead of using a constant module-path. (Either #:language or module-path must be provided, but not both.)

This value of the #:language option can be either a module path (possibly as a syntax object) that is used as a module language, or it can be a procedure. If it is a procedure it can accept either

- 0 arguments;
- 1 argument: an input port; or
- 5 arguments: an input port, a syntax object whose datum is a module path for the enclosing module as it was referenced through #lang or #reader, a starting line number (positive exact integer) or #f, a column number (non-negative exact integer) or #f, and a position number (positive exact integer) or #f.

The result can be either

 a single value, which is a module path or a syntax object whose datum is a module path, to be used like module-path; or two values, where the first is like a single-value result and the second can be any value.

The second result, which defaults to #f if only a single result is produced, is made available to the #:info and #:module-info functions through the language-data binding. For example, it can be a specification derived from the input stream that changes the module's reflective information (such as the syntax-coloring mode or the output-printing styles).

As another example, the following reader defines a "language" that ignores the contents of the file, and simply reads files as if they were empty:

```
(module ignored syntax/module-reader
  racket/base
  #:wrapper1 (lambda (t) (t) '()))
```

Note that the wrapper still performs the read, otherwise the module loader would complain about extra expressions.

As a more useful example, the following module language is similar to at-exp, where the first datum in the file determines the actual language (which means that the library specification is effectively ignored):

```
(module reader syntax/module-reader
 -ignored-
 #:wrapper2
 (lambda (in rd stx?)
   (let* ([lang (read in)]
           [mod (parameterize ([current-readtable
                                 (make-at-readtable)])
                   (rd in))]
           [mod (if stx? mod (datum->syntax #f mod))]
           [r (syntax-case mod ()
                [(module name lang* . body)
                 (with-syntax ([lang (datum->syntax
                                      #'lang* lang #'lang*)])
                   (syntax/loc mod (module name lang . body)))])]
      (if stx? r (syntax->datum r))))
 (require scribble/reader))
```

The ability to change the language position in the resulting module expression can be useful in cases such as the above, where the base language module is chosen based on the input. To make this more convenient, you can omit the <code>module-path</code> and instead specify it via a <code>#:language</code> expression. This expression can evaluate to a datum or syntax object that is used as a language, or it can evaluate to a thunk. In the latter case, the thunk is invoked

to obtain such a datum before reading the module body begins, in a dynamic extent where current-input-port is the source input. A syntax object is converted using syntax->datum when a datum is needed (for read instead of read-syntax). Using #:language, the last example above can be written more concisely:

For such cases, however, the alternative reader constructor make-meta-reader implements a more tightly controlled reading of the module language.

Changed in version 6.3 of package base: Added the #:module-reader option.

```
(make-meta-reader self-sym
                  path-desc-str
                  [#:read-spec read-spec]
                  module-path-parser
                  convert-read
                  convert-read-syntax
                  convert-get-info)
→ procedure? procedure? procedure?
 self-sym : symbol?
 path-desc-str : string?
 read-spec : (input-port? . -> . any/c) = (lambda (in) ....)
 module-path-parser : (any/c . -> . (or/c module-path? #f
                                           (vectorof module-path?)))
 convert-read : (procedure? . -> . procedure?)
 convert-read-syntax : (procedure? . -> . procedure?)
 convert-get-info : (procedure? . -> . procedure?)
```

Generates procedures suitable for export as read (see read and #lang), read-syntax (see read-syntax and #lang), and get-info (see read-language and #lang), respectively, where the procedures chains to another language that is specified in an input stream.

The generated functions expect a target language description in the input stream that is provided to <code>read-spec</code>. The default <code>read-spec</code> extracts a non-empty sequence of bytes after one or more space and tab bytes, stopping at the first whitespace byte or end-of-file (whichever is first), and it produces either such a byte string or <code>#f</code>. If <code>read-spec</code> produces <code>#f</code>, a reader exception is raised, and <code>path-desc-str</code> is used as a description of the expected language form in the error message.

The at-exp, reader, and planet languages are implemented using this function.

The reader language supplies read for read-spec. The at-exp and planet languages use the default read-spec.

The result of read-spec is converted to a module path using module-path-parser. If module-path-parser produces a vector of module paths, they are tried in order using module-declared? If module-path-parser produces #f, a reader exception is raised in the same way as when read-spec produces a #f. The planet languages supply a module-path-parser that converts a byte string to a module path. Lang-extensions like at-exp use lang-reader-module-paths as this argument.

If loading the module produced by <code>module-path-parser</code> succeeds, then the loaded module's read, read-syntax, or <code>get-info</code> export is passed to <code>convert-read</code>, <code>convert-read-syntax</code>, or <code>convert-get-info</code>, respectively. See §1.3.18 "Reading via an Extension" for information on the protocol of read and read-syntax.

The procedures generated by make-meta-reader are not meant for use with the syntax/module-reader language; they are meant to be exported directly.

```
(lang-reader-module-paths bstr)
  → (or/c #f (vectorof module-path?))
  bstr : bytes?
```

To be used as the third argument to make-meta-reader in lang-extensions like at-exp. On success, it returns a vector of module paths, one of which should point to the reader module for the #lang bstr language. These paths are (submod base-path reader) and base-path/lang/reader.

```
(wrap-read-all mod-path
               in
               read
               mod-path-stx
               src
               line
                col
               pos)
                              \rightarrow any/c
 mod-path : module-path?
 in : input-port?
 read : (input-port . -> . any/c)
 mod-path-stx : syntax?
 src : (or/c syntax? #f)
 line: number?
 col: number?
 pos: number?
```

This function is deprecated; the syntax/module-reader language can be adapted using the various keywords to arbitrary readers; please use it instead.

Repeatedly calls read on in until an end of file, collecting the results in order into lst, and derives a name-id from (object-name in) in the same way as #lang s-exp. The

The at-exp language supplies convert-read and convert-read-syntax to add @-expression support to the current readtable before chaining to the given procedures.

last five arguments are used to construct the syntax object for the language position of the module. The result is roughly

```
`(module ,name-id ,mod-path ,@lst)
```

7 Parsing for Bodies

```
(require syntax/for-body) package: base
```

The syntax/for-body module provides a helper function for for-like syntactic forms that wrap the body of the form while expanding to another for-like form, and the wrapper should apply only after the last #:break or #:final clause in the body.

```
(split-for-body stx body-stxes) → syntax?
  stx : syntax?
  body-stxes : syntax?
```

The body-stxes argument must have the form (pre-body ... post-body ...), and it is rewritten into ((pre-body ...) (post-body ...)) such that (post-body ...) is as large as possible without containing a #:break or #:final clause.

The stx argument is used only for reporting syntax errors.

Use split-for-body instead of assuming that the last form in a for-like form's body can be wrapped separately. In particular, the last form might contain definitions that need to be spliced in the same definition context as earlier forms to create mutually-recursive definitions.

8 Unsafe for Clause Transforms

```
(require syntax/unsafe/for-transform) package: base
```

The syntax/unsafe/for-transform module provides a helper function that gives access to the sequence transformers defined by define-sequence-syntax. This is what the for forms use and enables faster sequence traversal than what the sequence interface provides.

The output may use unsafe operations.

```
(expand-for-clause* orig-stx clause) → syntax?
  orig-stx : syntax?
  clause : syntax?
```

Expands a for clause of the form [(x ...) seq-expr], where x are identifiers, to:

```
(([(outer-id ...) outer-expr] ...)
  outer-check
  ([loop-id loop-expr] ...)
  pos-guard
  ([(inner-id ...) inner-expr] ...)
  inner-check
  pre-guard
  post-guard
  (loop-arg ...))
```

which can then be spliced into the appropriate iterations. See :do-in for more information.

The result may use unsafe operations.

The first argument orig-stx is used only for reporting syntax errors.

Added in version 8.10.0.3 of package base.

```
(expand-for-clause orig-stx clause) → syntax?
  orig-stx : syntax?
  clause : syntax?
```

Like expand-for-clause*, but the result omits a inner-check part:

```
(([(outer-id ...) outer-expr] ...)
  outer-check
  ([loop-id loop-expr] ...)
  pos-guard
  ([(inner-id ...) inner-expr] ...)
  pre-guard
```

```
post-guard
(loop-arg ...))
```

If a clause expands to a inner-check clauses that is not ignorable, expand-for-clause reports an error. An ignorable clause is (void) or a begin form wrapping ignorable clauses.

9 Source Locations

There are two libraries in this collection for dealing with source locations; one for manipulating representations of them, and the other for quoting the location of a particular piece of source code.

9.1 Representations

```
(require syntax/srcloc) package: base
```

This module defines utilities for manipulating representations of source locations, including both srcloc structures and all the values accepted by datum->syntax's third argument: syntax objects, lists, vectors, and #f.

```
(source-location? x) → boolean?
  x : any/c
(source-location-list? x) → boolean?
  x : any/c
(source-location-vector? x) → boolean?
  x : any/c
```

These functions recognize valid source location representations. The first, source-location?, recognizes srcloc structures, syntax objects, lists, and vectors with appropriate structure, as well as #f. The latter predicates recognize only valid lists and vectors, respectively.

Examples:

```
> (source-location? #f)
#t
> (source-location? #'here)
#t
> (source-location? (make-srcloc 'here 1 0 1 0))
#t
> (source-location? (make-srcloc 'bad 1 #f 1 0))
#f
> (source-location? (list 'here 1 0 1 0))
#t
> (source-location? (list* 'bad 1 0 1 0 'tail))
#f
> (source-location? (vector 'here 1 0 1 0))
#t
> (source-location? (vector 'bad 0 0 0 0))
#f
```

```
(check-source-location! name x) → void?
  name : symbol?
  x : any/c
```

This procedure checks that its input is a valid source location. If it is, the procedure returns (void). If it is not, check-source-location! raises a detailed error message in terms of name and the problem with x.

Examples:

```
> (check-source-location! 'this-example #f)
> (check-source-location! 'this-example #'here)
> (check-source-location! 'this-example (make-
srcloc 'here 1 0 1 0))
> (check-source-location! 'this-example (make-
srcloc 'bad 1 #f 1 0))
this-example: expected a source location with line number
and column number both numeric or both #f; got 1 and #f
respectively: (srcloc 'bad 1 #f 1 0)
> (check-source-location! 'this-example (list 'here 1 0 1 0))
> (check-source-location! 'this-example (list* 'bad 1 0 1 0 'tail))
this-example: expected a source location (a list of 5
elements); got an improper list: '(bad 1 0 1 0 . tail)
> (check-source-location! 'this-example (vector 'here 1 0 1 0))
> (check-source-location! 'this-example (vector 'bad 0 0 0 0))
this-example: expected a source location with a positive
line number or #f (second element); got line number 0:
'#(bad 0 0 0 0)
(build-source-location loc \ldots) \rightarrow srcloc?
 loc : source-location?
(build-source-location-list loc \ldots) \rightarrow source-location-list?
 loc : source-location?
(build-source-location-vector loc \ldots) \rightarrow source-location-vector?
 loc : source-location?
(build-source-location-syntax loc ...) → syntax?
 loc : source-location?
```

These procedures combine multiple (zero or more) source locations, merging locations within the same source and reporting #f for locations that span sources. They also convert the result to the desired representation: srcloc, list, vector, or syntax object, respectively.

Examples:

```
> (build-source-location)
```

```
(srcloc #f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-list)
'(#f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-vector)
'#(#f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-syntax)
#<syntax ()>
> (build-source-location #f)
(srcloc #f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-list #f)
'(#f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-vector #f)
'#(#f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-syntax #f)
#<syntax ()>
> (build-source-location (list 'here 1 2 3 4))
(srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4)
> (build-source-location-list (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4))
'(here 1 2 3 4)
> (build-source-location-vector (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4))
'#(here 1 2 3 4)
> (build-source-location-syntax (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4))
#<syntax:here:1:2 ()>
> (build-source-location (list 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'here 5 6 7 8))
(srcloc 'here 1 2 3 12)
> (build-source-location-list (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'here 5 6 7 8))
'(here 1 2 3 12)
> (build-source-location-vector (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'here 5 6 7 8))
'#(here 1 2 3 12)
> (build-source-location-syntax (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'here 5 6 7 8))
#<syntax:here:1:2 ()>
> (build-source-location (list 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'there 5 6 7 8))
(srcloc #f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-list (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'there 5 6 7 8))
'(#f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-vector (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'there 5 6 7 8))
'#(#f #f #f #f #f)
> (build-source-location-syntax (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4) (vector 'there 5 6 7 8))
#<syntax ()>
(source-location-known? loc) → boolean?
  loc : source-location?
```

This predicate reports whether a given source location contains more information than simply #f.

Examples:

```
> (source-location-known? #f)
#f
> (source-location-known? (make-srcloc #f #f #f #f #f))
> (source-location-known? (make-srcloc 'source 1 2 3 4))
> (source-location-known? (list #f #f #f #f #f))
> (source-location-known? (vector 'source #f #f #f #f))
> (source-location-known? (datum->syntax #f null #f))
> (source-location-known? (datum->syntax #f null (list 'source #f #f #f #f)))
(source-location-source loc) \rightarrow any/c
 loc : source-location?
(source-location-line loc) \rightarrow (or/c exact-positive-integer? #f)
 loc : source-location?
(source-location-column loc)
→ (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
 loc : source-location?
(source-location-position loc)
→ (or/c exact-positive-integer? #f)
 loc : source-location?
(source-location-span loc)
→ (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
 loc : source-location?
```

These accessors extract the fields of a source location.

Examples:

```
> (source-location-source #f)
#f
> (source-location-line (make-srcloc 'source 1 2 3 4))
1
> (source-location-column (list 'source 1 2 3 4))
2
> (source-location-position (vector 'source 1 2 3 4))
3
> (source-location-span (datum->syntax #f null (list 'source 1 2 3 4)))
4
```

```
(source-location-end loc)
  → (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
  loc : source-location?
```

This accessor produces the end position of a source location (the sum of its position and span, if both are numbers) or #f.

Examples:

```
> (source-location-end #f)
> (source-location-end (make-srcloc 'source 1 2 3 4))
> (source-location-end (list 'source 1 2 3 #f))
> (source-location-end (vector 'source 1 2 #f 4))
#f
(update-source-location loc
                       #:source source
                       #:line line
                       #:column column
                       #:position position
                       #:span span) → source-location?
 loc : source-location?
 source : any/c
 line : (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
 column : (or/c exact-positive-integer? #f)
 position : (or/c exact-nonnegative-integer? #f)
 span : (or/c exact-positive-integer? #f)
```

Produces a modified version of loc, replacing its fields with source, line, column, position, and/or span, if given.

Examples:

```
> (update-source-location #f #:source 'here)
'(here #f #f #f)
> (update-source-location (list 'there 1 2 3 4) #:line 20 #:column 79)
'(there 20 79 3 4)
> (update-source-location (vector 'everywhere 1 2 3 4) #:position #f #:span #f)
'#(everywhere 1 2 #f #f)
```

```
(source-location->string loc) → string?
  loc : source-location?
(source-location->prefix loc) → string?
  loc : source-location?
```

These procedures convert source locations to strings for use in error messages. The first produces a string describing the source location; the second appends ": " to the string if it is non-empty.

Examples:

```
> (source-location->string (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4))
"here:1:2"
> (source-location->string (make-srcloc 'here #f #f 3 4))
"here::3-7"
> (source-location->string (make-srcloc 'here #f #f #f))
> (source-location->string (make-srcloc #f 1 2 3 4))
> (source-location->string (make-srcloc #f #f #f 3 4))
"::3-7"
> (source-location->string (make-srcloc #f #f #f #f #f))
> (source-location->prefix (make-srcloc 'here 1 2 3 4))
"here:1:2: "
> (source-location->prefix (make-srcloc 'here #f #f 3 4))
"here::3-7: "
> (source-location->prefix (make-srcloc 'here #f #f #f #f))
"here: "
> (source-location->prefix (make-srcloc #f 1 2 3 4))
":1:2: "
> (source-location->prefix (make-srcloc #f #f #f 3 4))
"::3-7: "
> (source-location->prefix (make-srcloc #f #f #f #f #f))
```

Changed in version 8.1.0.5 of package base: Changed format to separate a line and column with a instead of ...

9.2 Source Location Utilities

```
(require syntax/location) package: base

(syntax-source-directory stx) → (or/c path? #f)
  stx : syntax?
```

```
(syntax-source-file-name stx) \rightarrow (or/c path? #f) stx : syntax?
```

These produce the directory and file name, respectively, of the path with which stx is associated, or #f if stx is not associated with a path.

Examples:

Added in version 6.3 of package base.

9.2.1 Quoting

The following macros evaluate to various aspects of their own source location.

Note: The examples below illustrate the use of these macros and the representation of their output. However, due to the mechanism by which they are generated, each example is considered a single character and thus does not have realistic line, column, and character positions.

Furthermore, the examples illustrate the use of source location quoting inside macros, and the difference between quoting the source location of the macro definition itself and quoting the source location of the macro's arguments.

```
(quote-srcloc)
(quote-srcloc form)
(quote-srcloc form #:module-source expr)
```

Quotes the source location of *form* as a **srcloc** structure, using the location of the whole (quote-srcloc) expression if no *expr* is given. Uses relative directories for paths found within the collections tree, the user's collections directory, or the PLaneT cache.

Examples:

```
> (quote-srcloc)
(srcloc 'eval 2 0 2 1)
> (define-syntax (not-here stx) #'(quote-srcloc))
> (not-here)
(srcloc 'eval 3 0 3 1)
> (not-here)
(srcloc 'eval 3 0 3 1)
> (define-syntax (here stx) #`(quote-srcloc #,stx))
(srcloc 'eval 7 0 7 1)
> (here)
(srcloc 'eval 8 0 8 1)
(quote-source-file)
(quote-source-file form)
(quote-line-number)
(quote-line-number form)
(quote-column-number)
(quote-column-number form)
(quote-character-position)
(quote-character-position form)
(quote-character-span)
(quote-character-span form)
```

Quote various fields of the source location of form, or of the whole macro application if no form is given.

Examples:

```
> (list (quote-source-file)
        (quote-line-number)
        (quote-column-number)
        (quote-character-position)
        (quote-character-span))
'(eval 2 0 2 1)
> (define-syntax (not-here stx)
    #'(list (quote-source-file)
             (quote-line-number)
            (quote-column-number)
            (quote-character-position)
            (quote-character-span)))
> (not-here)
'(eval 3 0 3 1)
> (not-here)
'(eval 3 0 3 1)
```

You can achieve an effect similar to __FILE__ from Perl or Ruby and __file__ from Python by using quote-source-file.

Quote the result of source-location->string or source-location->prefix, respectively, applied to the source location of form, or of the whole macro application if no form is given.

Examples:

```
> (list (quote-srcloc-string)
          (quote-srcloc-prefix))
  '("eval:2:0" "eval:2:0: ")
 > (define-syntax (not-here stx)
      #'(list (quote-srcloc-string)
              (quote-srcloc-prefix)))
 > (not-here)
 '("eval:3:0" "eval:3:0: ")
 > (not-here)
  '("eval:3:0" "eval:3:0: ")
 > (define-syntax (here stx)
     #`(list (quote-srcloc-string #,stx)
              (quote-srcloc-prefix #,stx)))
 > (here)
 '("eval:7:0" "eval:7:0: ")
 > (here)
  '("eval:8:0" "eval:8:0: ")
(quote-module-name submod-path-element ...)
```

Quotes the name of the module in a form suitable for printing, but not necessarily as a valid module path. See quote-module-path for constructing quoted module paths.

Returns a path, symbol, list, or 'top-level, where 'top-level is produced when used outside of a module. A list corresponds to a submodule in the same format as the result of variable-reference->module-name. Any given <code>submod-path-elements</code> (as in a submod form) are added to form a result submodule path.

To produce a name suitable for use in printed messages, apply path->relative-string/library when the result is a path.

Examples:

```
> (module A racket
     (require syntax/location)
     (define-syntax-rule (name) (quote-module-name))
     (define a-name (name))
     (module+ C
        (require syntax/location)
       (define c-name (quote-module-name))
       (define c-name2 (quote-module-name ".."))
        (provide c-name c-name2))
      (provide (all-defined-out)))
 > (require 'A)
 > a-name
 ' A
 > (require (submod 'A C))
 > c-name
 '(A C)
 > c-name2
 '(A C "..")
 > (module B racket
     (require syntax/location)
     (require 'A)
     (define b-name (name))
      (provide (all-defined-out)))
 > (require 'B)
 > b-name
 'B
 > (quote-module-name)
 'top-level
 > (current-namespace (module->namespace ''A))
 > (quote-module-name)
(quote-module-path submod-path-element ...)
```

Quotes the name of the module in which the form is compiled. When possible, the result is a valid module path suitable for use by dynamic-require and similar functions.

Builds the result using quote, a path, submod, or 'top-level, where 'top-level is produced when used outside of a module. Any given <code>submod-path-elements</code> (as in a submod form) are added to form a result submodule path.

Examples:

```
> (module A racket
    (require syntax/location)
    (define-syntax-rule (path) (quote-module-path))
    (define a-path (path))
    (module+ C
      (require syntax/location)
      (define c-path (quote-module-path))
      (define c-path2 (quote-module-path ".."))
      (provide c-path c-path2))
    (provide (all-defined-out)))
> (require 'A)
> a-path
' ' A
> (require (submod 'A C))
> c-path
'(submod 'A C)
> c-path2
'(submod 'A C "..")
> (module B racket
    (require syntax/location)
    (require 'A)
    (define b-path (path))
    (provide (all-defined-out)))
> (require 'B)
> b-path
''B
> (quote-module-path)
'top-level
> (current-namespace (module->namespace ''A))
> (quote-module-path)
' ' A
```

10 Preserving Source Locations

```
(require syntax/quote) package: base
```

The syntax/quote module provides support for quoting syntax so that its source locations are preserved in marshaled bytecode form.

```
(quote-syntax/keep-srcloc datum)
(quote-syntax/keep-srcloc #:source source-expr datum)
```

Like (quote-syntax datum), but the source locations of datum are preserved. If a source-expr is provided, then it is used in place of a syntax-source value for each syntax object within datum.

Unlike a quote-syntax form, the results of evaluating the expression multiple times are not necessarily eq?.

11 Non-Module Compilation And Expansion

```
(require syntax/toplevel) package: base

(expand-syntax-top-level-with-compile-time-evals stx) → syntax?
  stx : syntax?
```

Expands stx as a top-level expression, and evaluates its compile-time portion for the benefit of later expansions.

The expander recognizes top-level begin expressions, and interleaves the evaluation and expansion of the begin body, so that compile-time expressions within the begin body affect later expansions within the body. (In other words, it ensures that expanding a begin is the same as expanding separate top-level expressions.)

The stx should have a context already, possibly introduced with namespace-syntax-introduce.

```
(expand-top-level-with-compile-time-evals stx) \rightarrow syntax? stx : syntax?
```

Like expand-syntax-top-level-with-compile-time-evals, but stx is first given context by applying namespace-syntax-introduce to it.

```
(expand-syntax-top-level-with-compile-time-evals/flatten stx)
  → (listof syntax?)
  stx : syntax?
```

Like expand-syntax-top-level-with-compile-time-evals, except that it returns a list of syntax objects, none of which have a begin. These syntax objects are the flattened out contents of any begins in the expansion of stx.

```
(eval-compile-time-part-of-top-level stx) \rightarrow void? stx : syntax?
```

Evaluates expansion-time code in the fully expanded top-level expression represented by stx (or a part of it, in the case of begin expressions). The expansion-time code might affect the compilation of later top-level expressions. For example, if stx is a require expression, then namespace-require/expansion-time is used on each require specification in the form. Normally, this function is used only by expand-top-level-with-compile-time-evals.

```
(eval-compile-time-part-of-top-level/compile stx)
  → (listof compiled-expression?)
  stx : syntax?
```

Like eval-compile-time-part-of-top-level, but the result is compiled code.

12 Trusting Standard Recertifying Transformers

(require syntax/trusted-xforms)
package: base

The syntax/trusted-xforms library has no exports. It exists only to require other modules that perform syntax transformations, where the other transformations must use syntax-disarm or syntax-arm. An application that wishes to provide a less powerful code inspector to a sub-program should generally attach syntax/trusted-xforms to the sub-program's namespace so that things like the class system from racket/class work properly.

13 Attaching Documentation to Exports

```
(require syntax/docprovide) package: base
```

NOTE: This library is deprecated; use scribble/srcdoc, instead.

A form that exports names and records documentation information.

The doc-label-id identifier is used as a key for accessing the documentation through lookup-documentation. The actual documentation is organized into "rows", each with a section title.

A row has one of the following forms:

• (section-string (name type-datum doc-string ...) ...)

Creates a documentation section whose title is *section-string*, and provides/documents each *name*. The *type-datum* is arbitrary, for use by clients that call lookup-documentation. The *doc-strings* are also arbitrary documentation information, usually concatenated by clients.

A name is either an identifier or a renaming sequence (local-name-id extenal-name-id).

Multiple rows with the same section name will be merged in the documentation output. The final order of sections matches the order of the first mention of each section.

- (all-from prefix-id module-path doc-label-id)
- (all-from-except prefix-id module-path doc-label-id id ...)

Merges documentation and provisions from the specified module into the current one; the *prefix-id* is used to prefix the imports into the current module (so they can be re-exported). If *ids* are provided, the specified *ids* are not re-exported and their documentation is not merged.

```
\begin{array}{ccc} ({\tt lookup-documentation} & {\tt module-path-v} \\ & & {\tt label-sym}) & \to & {\tt any} \\ & {\tt module-path-v} : & {\tt module-path?} \\ & {\tt label-sym} : & {\tt symbol?} \end{array}
```

Returns documentation for the specified module and label. The <code>module-path-v</code> argument is a quoted module path, like the argument to <code>dynamic-require</code>. The <code>label-sym</code> identifies a set of documentation using the symbol as a label identifier in <code>provide-and-document</code>.

14 Contracts for Macro Subexpressions

```
(require syntax/contract) package: base
```

This library provides a procedure wrap-expr/c for applying contracts to macro subexpressions.

```
(wrap-expr/c contract-expr
             expr
            [#:arg? arg?
             #:positive pos-blame
             #:negative neg-blame
             #:name expr-name
             #:macro macro-name
             #:context context
             #:phase phase]) → syntax?
 contract-expr : syntax?
 expr : syntax?
 arg? : any/c = #t
 pos-blame : (or/c syntax? string? module-path-index?
                    'from-macro 'use-site 'unknown)
           = 'from-macro
 neg-blame : (or/c syntax? string? module-path-index?
                    'from-macro 'use-site 'unknown)
           = 'use-site
 expr-name : (or/c identifier? symbol? string? #f) = #f
 macro-name : (or/c identifier? symbol? string? #f) = #f
 context : (or/c syntax? #f) = (current-syntax-context)
 phase : exact-integer? = (syntax-local-phase-level)
```

Returns a syntax object representing an expression that applies the contract represented by <code>contract-expr</code> to the value produced by <code>expr</code>.

The other arguments have the same meaning as for expr/c.

Examples:

```
(open-input-string "(1 2 3)")])
    (read))
'(1 2 3)
> (myparameterize1 (['whoops 'something])
     'whatever)
myparameterize1: contract violation
  expected: parameter?
  given: 'whoops
  in: parameter?
      macro argument contract on the parameter argument
  contract from: top-level
  blaming: top-level
   (assuming the contract is correct)
  at: eval:4:0
> (module mod racket
    (require (for-syntax syntax/contract))
    (define-syntax (app stx)
       (syntax-case stx ()
         [(app f arg)
          (with-syntax ([cf (wrap-expr/c
                                #'(-> number? number?)
                                #:name "the function argument"
                                #:context stx)])
            #'(cf arg))]))
    (provide app))
> (require 'mod)
> (app add1 5)
> (app add1 'apple)
app: broke its own contract
  promised: number?
  produced: 'apple
  in: the 1st argument of
      (-> number? number?)
      macro argument contract on the function argument
  contract from: 'mod
  blaming: (quote mod)
   (assuming the contract is correct)
  at: eval:8:0
> (app (lambda (x) 'pear) 5)
app: contract violation
  expected: number?
  given: 'pear
  in: the range of
      (-> number? number?)
```

macro argument contract on the function argument contract from: 'mod

blaming: top-level

(assuming the contract is correct)

at: eval:9:0

Added in version 6.3 of package base.

Changed in version 7.2.0.3: Added the #:arg? keyword argument and changed the default values and interpretation of the #:positive and #:negative arguments.

Changed in version 7.3.0.3: Added the #:phase keyword argument.

15 Macro Testing

Evaluates ct-expr at compile time and quotes the result using quote-id, which defaults to quote. Another suitable argument for quote-id is quote-syntax.

If catch? is #t, then if the evaluation of ct-expr raises a compile-time exception, it is caught and converted to a run-time exception.

Examples:

Added in version 6.3 of package base.

```
(convert-compile-time-error expr)
```

Equivalent to (#%expression expr) except if expansion of expr causes a compile-time exception to be raised; in that case, the compile-time exception is converted to a run-time exception raised when the expression is evaluated.

Use convert-compile-time-error to write tests for compile-time error checking like syntax errors:

Examples:

FAILURE

name: check-exn

location: eval:6:0

params: '(#rx"missing formals and body" #<procedure>)

message: "Wrong exception raised"

exn-message: "eval:6:0: lambda: bad syntax\n in: (lambda)"

exn:

#(struct:exn:fail:syntax "eval:6:0: lambda: bad syntax\n in: (lambda)"

#<continuation-mark-set> (#<syntax:eval:6:0 (lambda)>))

Without the use of convert-compile-time-error, the checks above would not be executed because the test program would not compile.

Added in version 6.3 of package base.

```
(convert-syntax-error expr)
```

Like convert-compile-time-error, but only catches compile-time exn:fail:syntax? exceptions and sets error-print-source-location to #f around the expansion of expr to make the message easier to match exactly.

Example:

Added in version 6.3 of package base.

16 Internal-Definition Context Helpers

Adjusts the syntax properties of stx to record that parts of stx were expanded via intdef-

Specifically, the identifiers produced by (internal-definition-context-binding-identifiers intdef-ctx) are added to the 'disappeared-binding property of stx.

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