

Parsing Expression Grammars: A Recognition-Based Syntactic Foundation

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Designing a Language Syntax

Designing a Language Syntax

Textbook Method

1. Formalize syntax via context-free grammar
2. Write a YACC parser specification
3. Hack on grammar until “near-*LALR(1)*”
4. Use generated parser

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Pragmatic Method

1. Specify syntax informally
2. Write a recursive descent parser

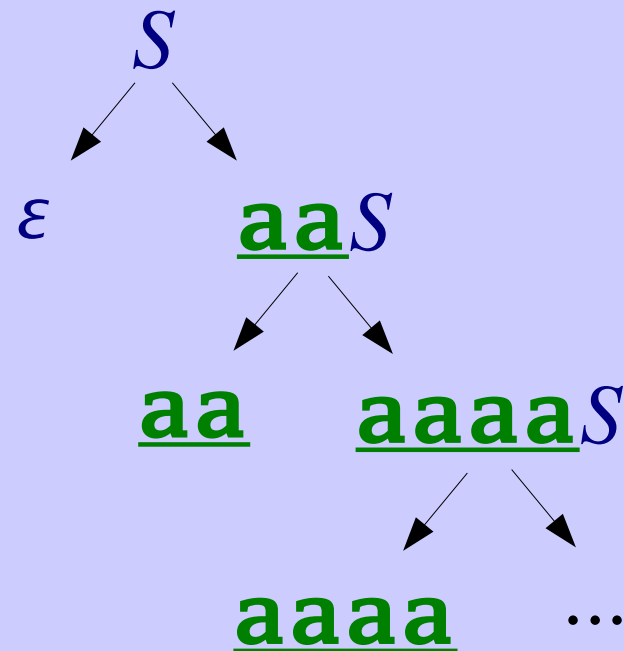
What exactly does a CFG describe?

Short answer:

a rule system to **generate** language strings

Example CFG:

$$\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow \underline{aa}S \\ S \rightarrow \varepsilon \end{array}$$



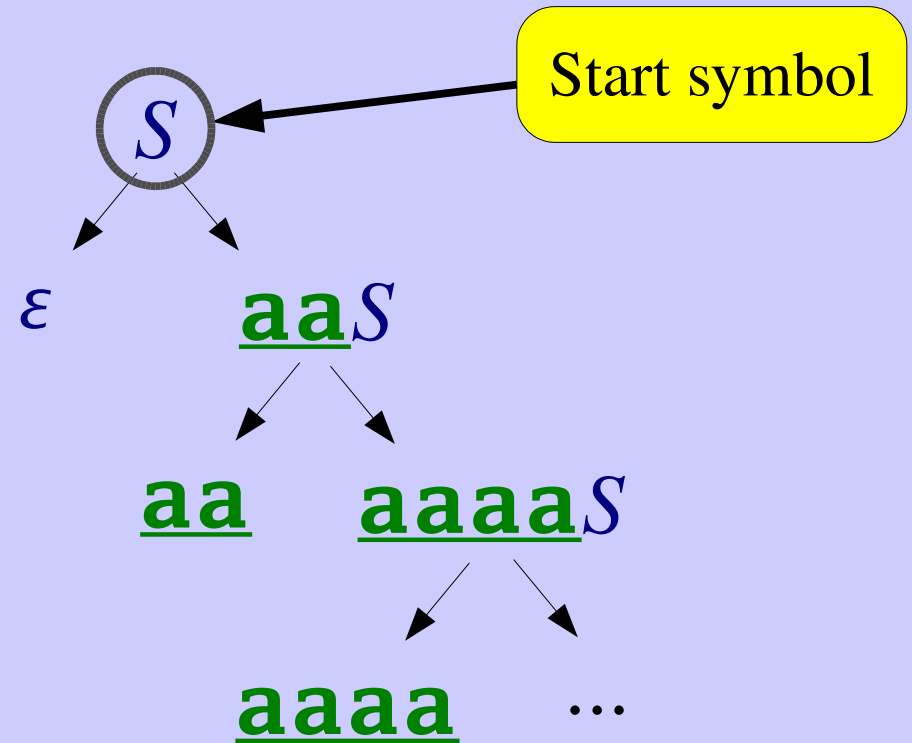
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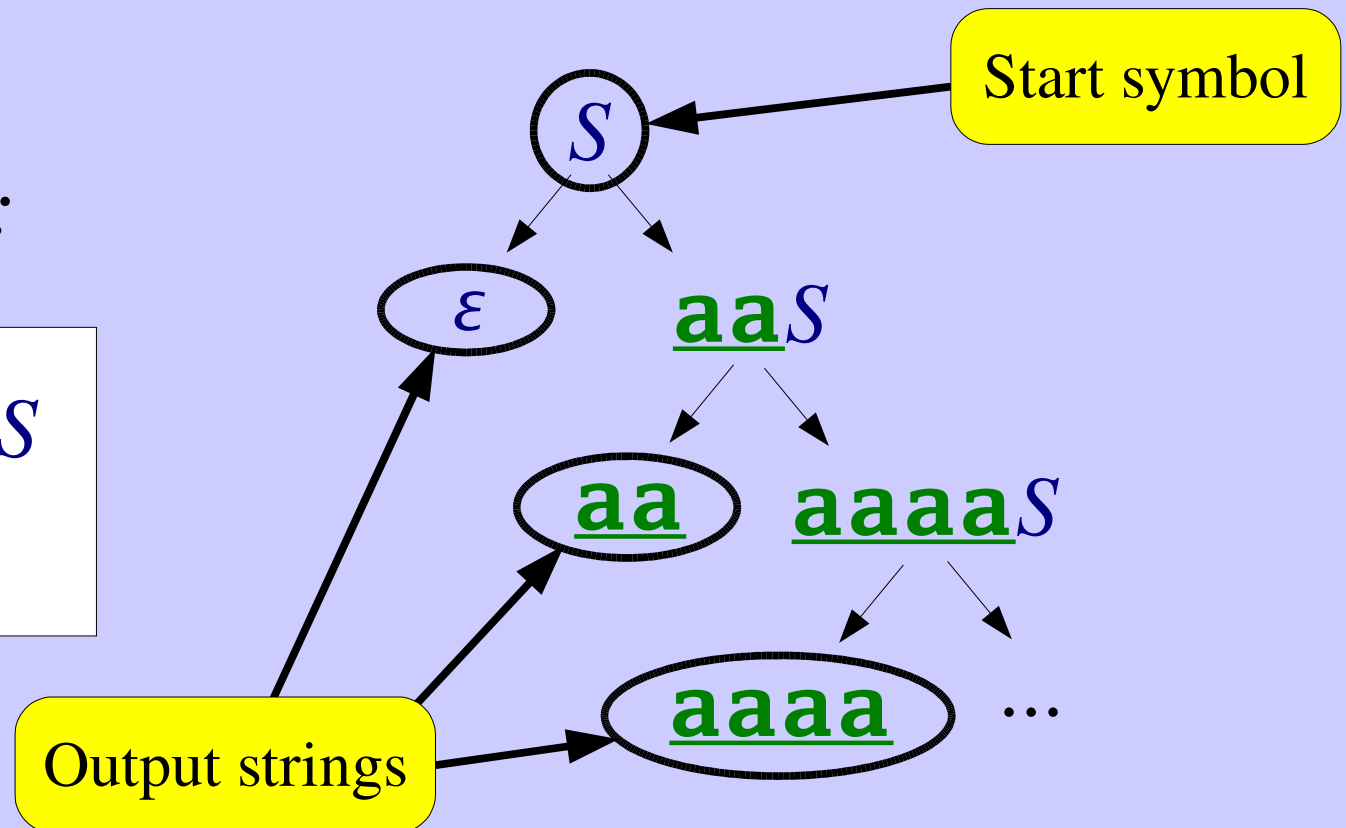
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$S \rightarrow \underline{aa}S$
 $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$



What exactly do we *want* to describe?

Proposed answer:

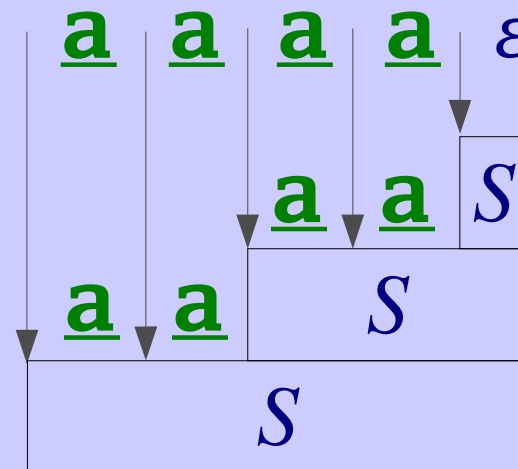
a rule system to **recognize** language strings

Parsing Expression Grammar (PEG)

models **recursive descent parsing practice**

Example PEG:

$$S \leftarrow \underline{aa}S / \varepsilon$$



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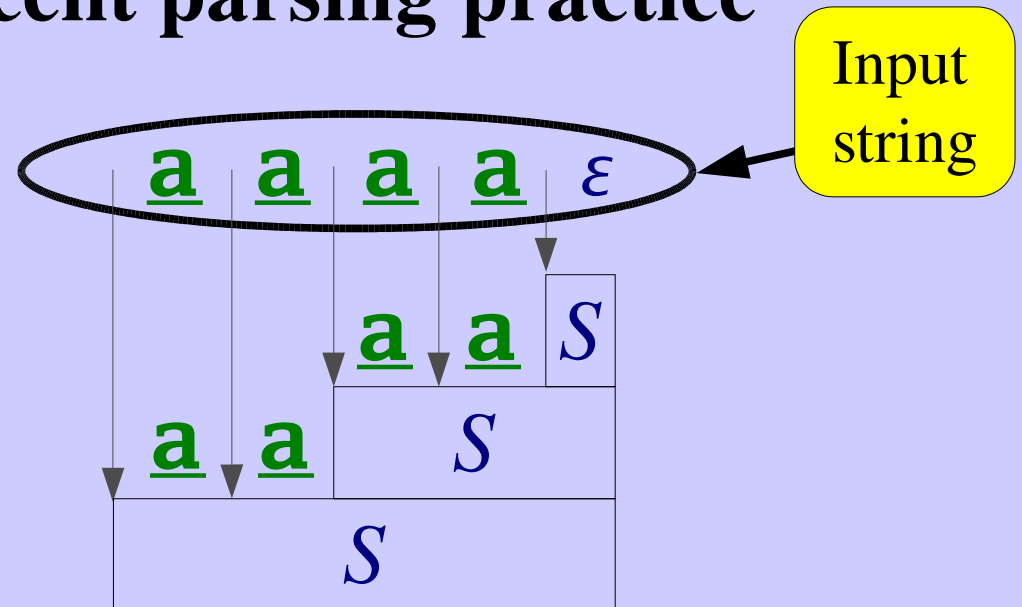
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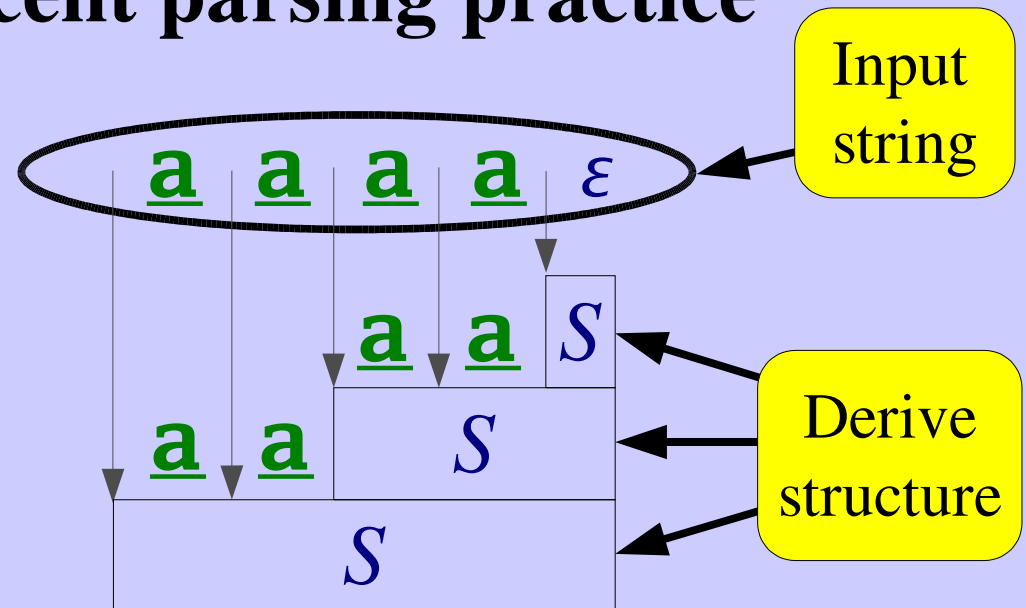
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Take-Home Points

Key benefits of PEGs:

- **Simplicity, formalism, analyzability** of CFGs
- **Closer match** to syntax practices
 - More expressive than deterministic CFGs (*LL/LR*)
 - More of the “right kind” of expressiveness:
prioritized choice, greedy rules, syntactic predicates
 - Unlimited lookahead, backtracking
- **Linear-time parsing** for *any* PEG

What kind of recursive descent parsing?

Key assumptions:

- Parsing functions are **stateless**:
depend only on input string
- Parsing functions **make decisions locally**:
return at most one result (success/failure)

Parsing Expression Grammars

Consists of: (Σ, N, R, e_S)

- Σ : finite set of *terminals* (character set)
- N : finite set of *nonterminals*
- R : finite set of rules of the form “ $A \leftarrow e$ ”,
where $A \in N$, e is a *parsing expression*.
- e_S : a parsing expression called the *start expression*.

Parsing Expressions

ε	the empty string
$\underline{\mathbf{a}}$	terminal ($\underline{\mathbf{a}} \in \Sigma$)
A	nonterminal ($A \in N$)
$e_1 e_2$	a sequence of parsing expressions
e_1 / e_2	<i>prioritized choice</i> between alternatives
$e^?, e^*, e^+$	optional, zero-or-more, one-or-more
$\&e, !e$	syntactic predicates

How PEGs Express Languages

Given input string s , a parsing expression either:

- **Matches** and consumes a prefix s' of s .
- **Fails** on s .

Example:

$S \leftarrow \underline{\text{bad}}$

S matches “badder”

S matches “baddest”

S fails on “abad”

S fails on “babe”

Prioritized Choice with Backtracking

$S \leftarrow A / B$ means:

“To parse an S , *first* try to parse an A .

If A fails, *then* backtrack and try to parse a B .”

Example:

$S \leftarrow$ if C then S else S /
if C then S

S matches “if C then S foo”

S matches “if C then S₁ else S₂”

S fails on “if C else S”

Prioritized Choice with Backtracking

$S \leftarrow A / B$ means:

“To parse an S , *first* try to parse an A .

If A fails, *then* backtrack and try to parse a B .”

Example from the C++ standard:

“An *expression-statement* ... can be indistinguishable from a *declaration* ... In those cases the *statement* is a *declaration*.”

$statement \leftarrow declaration /$
 $expression-statement$

Greedy Option and Repetition

$A \leftarrow e?$ equivalent to $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow e / \varepsilon$

$A \leftarrow e^*$ equivalent to $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow e \mathbf{A} / \varepsilon$

$A \leftarrow e^+$ equivalent to $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow e e^*$

Example:

$I \leftarrow L^+$

$L \leftarrow \underline{\mathbf{a}} / \underline{\mathbf{b}} / \underline{\mathbf{c}} / \dots$

I matches “foobar”

I matches “foo(bar)”

I fails on “123”

Syntactic Predicates

And-predicate: $\&e$ succeeds whenever e does,
but consumes no input [Parr '94, '95]

Not-predicate: $!e$ succeeds whenever e fails

Example:

$A \leftarrow \underline{\text{foo}} \&(\underline{\text{bar}})$

$B \leftarrow \underline{\text{foo}} !(\underline{\text{bar}})$

A matches “foobar”

A fails on “foobie”

B matches “foobie”

B fails on “foobar”

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Example:

$C \leftarrow B I^* E$

$I \leftarrow !E (C / T)$

$B \leftarrow \underline{(}^*$

$E \leftarrow \underline{*)}$

$T \leftarrow [any\ terminal]$

C matches “ $(^*ab^*)cd$ ”

C matches “ $(^*a(^*b^*)c^*)$ ”

C fails on “ $(^*a(^*b^*))$ ”

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Begin marker

C matches “ $(^*ab^*)cd$ ”

C matches “ $(^*a(^*b^*)c^*)$ ”

C fails on “ $(^*a(^*b^*))$ ”

Syntactic Predicates

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Example:

Internal elements

$C \leftarrow B(I^*)E$

$I \leftarrow !E(C / T)$

$B \leftarrow \underline{C^*}$

$E \leftarrow \underline{^*}$

$T \leftarrow [any\ terminal]$

C matches “ $(^*ab^*)cd$ ”

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Example:

Only if an end marker *doesn't* start here...

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Example:

Only if an end marker *doesn't* start here...

$C \leftarrow B I^* E$
 $\rightarrow I \leftarrow !E C / T$
 $B \leftarrow \underline{(}^*$
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...consume a nested comment, or else consume any single character.

C matches $\underline{(*a(*b*)c*)}$
 C fails on $\underline{(*a(*b*))}$

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Unified Grammars

PEGs can express both *lexical and hierarchical* syntax of realistic languages in one grammar

- *Example (in paper):*
Complete self-describing PEG in 2/3 column
- *Example (on web):*
Unified PEG for Java language

Lexical/Hierarchical Interplay

Unified grammars create new design opportunities

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} E &\leftarrow S / \underline{(E)} / \dots \\ S &\leftarrow \underline{“ C* “} \\ C &\leftarrow \underline{\backslash (E)} / \\ &\quad \underline{! “ ! \backslash T} \\ T &\leftarrow [any\ terminal] \end{aligned}$$

To get Unicode “ \forall ”,
instead of “`\u2200`”,
write “`\(0x2200)`”
or “`\(8704)`”
or “`\(FOR_ALL)`”

Lexical/Hierarchical Interplay

Unified grammars create new design opportunities

Example:

General-purpose expression syntax

$E \leftarrow S / (E) / \dots$

$S \leftarrow _ C * _$

$C \leftarrow _ (E) /$
 $_ ! _ ! _ T$

$T \leftarrow [any\ terminal]$

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Lexical/Hierarchical Interplay

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Example:

String literals

$E \leftarrow S / (E) \dots$

$S \leftarrow _ " C * _ "$

$C \leftarrow _ (E) /$
 $_ ! " ! _ T$

$T \leftarrow [any\ terminal]$

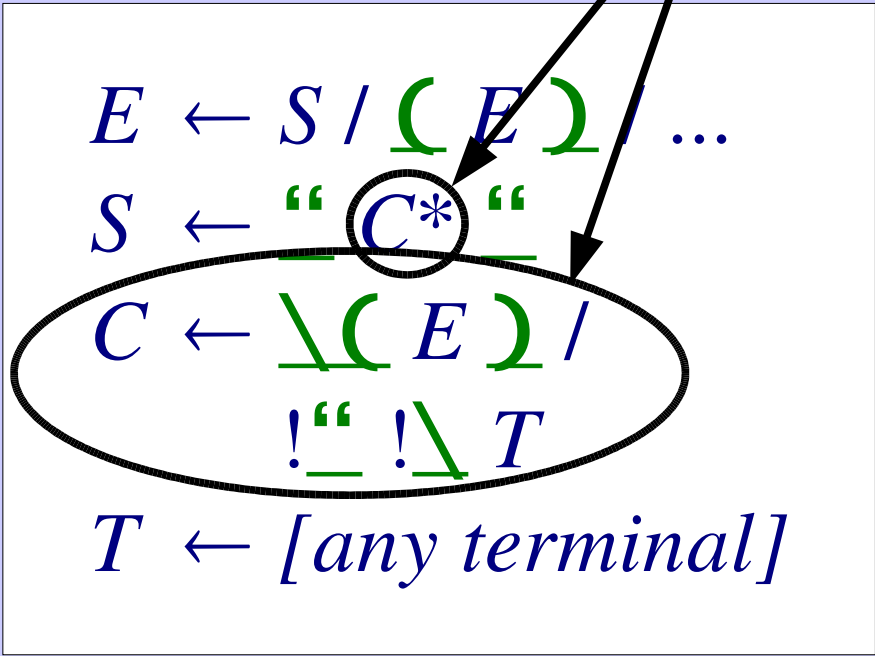
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Example:

Quotable characters

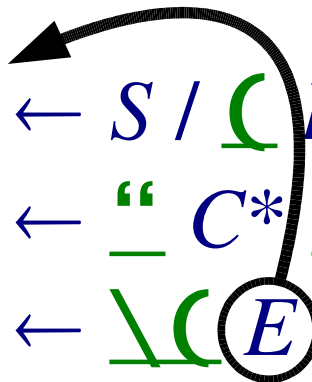


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Formal Properties of PEGs

- Express all deterministic languages - $LR(k)$
- Closed under union, intersection, complement
- Some non-context free languages, e.g., $\underline{a}^n \underline{b}^n \underline{c}^n$
- Undecidable whether $L(G) = \emptyset$
- Predicate operators can be eliminated
 - ...but the process is non-trivial!

Minimalist Forms

Predicate-free PEG



TS [Birman '70/'73]

TDPL [Aho '72]

Any PEG



gTS [Birman '70/'73]

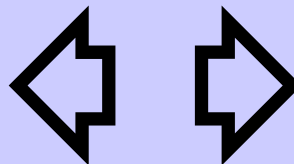
GTDPL [Aho '72]

$A \leftarrow \varepsilon$

$A \leftarrow \underline{\mathbf{a}}$

$A \leftarrow f$

$A \leftarrow BC / D$



$A \leftarrow \varepsilon$

$A \leftarrow \underline{\mathbf{a}}$

$A \leftarrow f$

$A \leftarrow B[C, D]$

Formal Contributions

- Generalize TDPL/GTDPL with more expressive *structured parsing expression* syntax
- *Negative* syntactic predicate - $!e$
- *Predicate elimination* transformation
 - Intermediate stages depend on generalized parsing expressions
- *Proof of equivalence* of TDPL and GTDPL

What *can't* PEGs express directly?

- Ambiguous languages

That's what CFGs were designed for!

- Globally disambiguated languages?

– $\{\underline{a}, \underline{b}\}^n \underline{a} \{\underline{a}, \underline{b}\}^n$?

- State- or semantic-dependent syntax

– C, C++ typedef symbol tables

– Python, Haskell, ML layout

Generating Parsers from PEGs

Recursive-descent parsing

- ☞ Simple & direct, but exponential-time if not careful

Packrat parsing [Birman '70/'73, Ford '02]

- ☞ Linear-time, but can consume substantial storage

Classic LL/LR algorithms?

- ☞ Grammar restrictions, but both time- & space-efficient

Conclusion

PEGs model common parsing practices

- *Prioritized choice, greedy rules, syntactic predicates*

PEGs naturally complement CFGs

- CFG: *generative* system, for *ambiguous* languages
- PEG: *recognition-based*, for *unambiguous* languages

For more info:

<http://pdos.lcs.mit.edu/~baford/packrat>

(or **Google** for “Packrat Parsing”)