

## A C++ PEG library

### What is PEG

PEG (Parsing Expression Grammar) is a formalism for specifying recursive descent parsers with unlimited backtracking. The theory of PEGs can be browsed in Wikipedia or in Bryan Ford's original paper <http://bford.info/pub/lang/peg.pdf>. Bryan Ford developed a technique called "packrat parsing" that optimizes PEG parsers by memoization and allows them to parse any PEG grammar in linear time.

As a practical example of a PEG grammar, this one describes a calculator that handles signed or unsigned integers, skips white space and supports the four basic operations and grouping with parentheses:

```
WS          <- [ \t\f\r\n]*
SIGN        <- [+ -]
DIGIT       <- [0-9]
NUMBER      <- SIGN? DIGIT+ WS
LPAR        <- '(' WS
RPAR        <- ')' WS
ADD         <- '+' WS
SUB         <- '-' WS
MUL         <- '*' WS
DIV         <- '/' WS

calc        <- WS expression
expression  <- term ( ADD term / SUB term ) *
term        <- factor ( MUL factor / DIV factor ) *
factor      <- NUMBER / LPAR expression RPAR
```

This calculator accepts expressions like

```
((1 + 2) * (-3 + 4) + 1) / 3 + 5
```

Given a correct input, the parser consumes it and succeeds. If the input is syntactically incorrect, it is not consumed and the parser fails.

Like YACC, which is a compiler of context-free grammars (CFGs), there are also compilers of PEG grammars. The PEG/LEG tools by Ian Piumarta are good examples.

Here we introduce a C++ PEG library whose style and functionality are inspired by LEG. LEG is a compiler, i.e. it takes a PEG grammar and generates C code from it. Our library allows PEG grammars to be embedded in C++ code and parsed directly, without intermediate code generation.

This library is a single header file (peg.h). It is conceptually similar to boost::spirit, although much smaller, simpler and less efficient.

Following LEG, we did not implement "packrat parsing" optimizations. In theory, a recursive descent parser with unlimited backtracking could take exponential time. In practice, however, this is unlikely to happen. Most grammars require only modest amounts of backtracking, since they would be difficult to understand otherwise. So the effect of optimization could frequently be small or even negative. For example, the Pascal language has a LL(1) grammar and may be parsed without backtracking.

### The peg library

The library requires at least C++11.

The syntax has been made as similar to LEG's as possible, although there are some restrictions due to the available C++ operators, their associativities and precedence.

Here is the same calculator as in the previous example, this time implemented with our library. Actions have been added to the grammar, so that it not only recognizes but also evaluates the arithmetic expressions and prints the results.

```

#include <iostream>
#include <string>

#define PEG_USE_SHARED_PTR

#include "peg.h"

using namespace std;
using namespace peg;

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    matcher m;
    vect<int> val;

    // Lexical rules

    Rule WS, SIGN, DIGIT, NUMBER, LPAR, RPAR, ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV;

    WS          = *Ccl(" \t\f\r\n");
    SIGN        = Ccl("+ -");
    DIGIT       = Ccl("0-9");
    NUMBER      = (~SIGN >> +DIGIT)-- >> WS >> Do([&] { val.push(stoi(m.text())); });
    LPAR        = Lit('(') >> WS;
    RPAR        = Lit(')') >> WS;
    ADD         = Lit('+') >> WS;
    SUB         = Lit('-') >> WS;
    MUL         = Lit('*') >> WS;
    DIV         = Lit('/') >> WS;

    // Calculator

    Rule calc, expression, term, factor;

    calc        = WS >> expression >> Do([&] { cout << val.top() << endl; val.pop(); });

    expression  = term >> *(
        ADD >> term >> Do([&] { val.top(-1) += val.top(); val.pop(); })
        | SUB >> term >> Do([&] { val.top(-1) -= val.top(); val.pop(); })
    );

    term        = factor >> *(
        MUL >> factor >> Do([&] { val.top(-1) *= val.top(); val.pop(); })
        | DIV >> factor >> Do([&] { val.top(-1) /= val.top(); val.pop(); })
    );

    factor      = NUMBER
        | LPAR >> expression >> RPAR;

    while ( calc.parse(m) )
        m.accept();
}

```

Rule definitions use = instead of <-.

Sequences of expressions, made by concatenation in the original, need an operator in C++. Binary operator >> is used for this purpose.

The prioritized choice operator is | instead of /.

These are the lexical primitives:

Lit(c) matches character c.

Lit(s) matches the string s literally.

Ccl(s) matches any character in the string s. Ccl means character class. Character - is special. If it appears between two other characters in s it defines a character range, otherwise, if it is the first or last character in s, it just represents itself. Ccl("0-9") is the class of decimal digits. If s begins with ^, the class is complemented or negated. The ^ is removed from s and the class contains all characters not included in the rest of s. Ccl("^") is a class that contains all characters and matches any character. It is equivalent to Any().

Any() matches any character. In the original syntax this primitive is represented by a dot (.). It fails only when the parser has reached the end of the input and cannot read more (end-of-file).

Repetition operators are prefix and not postfix as in the original notation.

\* means zero or more times.

+ means one or more times.

~ means zero or one time (optional). It is postfix ? in the original.

Rule definitions need a semi-colon (;) at the end, since they are normal C++ statements.

The Do() primitive always succeeds without consuming input. It schedules an action to be executed after a successful parse if the branch of the grammar where the Do() is placed is matched. It takes an argument of type `std::function<void()>`, i.e. a free function, function object or lambda taking no arguments and returning nothing.

The Pred() primitive designates a semantic predicate. It takes an argument of type `std::function<void(bool &)>`, i.e. a free function, function object or lambda that takes a reference to a boolean variable and returns nothing. The function passed to Pred() is not scheduled for later, it is executed during parsing and Pred() succeeds without consuming input or fails, depending on the value of the variable when the function returns. The variable is initialized to true (success) before calling the function, so that Pred() succeeds by default if the function does not modify or just ignores its argument.

Syntactic predicates use the same prefix operators as in the original notation:

&exp ("and-predicate") succeeds if exp can be parsed at this point. It does not consume input and does not schedule any actions that exp might contain.

!exp ("not-predicate") is the same as the and-predicate, but it inverts the result: it succeeds if exp fails and vice-versa, without consuming input or scheduling actions. This kind of predicate is most frequently used. For example, !Any() means end-of-file.

The text consumed by one expression or by a sequence of expressions can be captured using the prefix or postfix operator --. The captured text is available in Do() or Pred() code following the capture. In the calculator, for example, the NUMBER rule uses (`~SIGN >> +DIGIT`)-- >> WS. This means an optional sign followed by one or more decimal digits and eventual white space. The captured text includes the optional sign and the digits, but not the white space that may follow. The action included in the rule gets the captured text by calling `m.text()` - this will be explained later.

## The rules

Rules are instances of the Rule class. Defining a rule means constructing a syntax tree, dynamically allocating memory for the structures in the nodes of the tree. If a grammar is defined just once, it is probably not worth worrying about the allocated memory. In this case, each node of the tree points to its children using normal pointers. If the macro `PEG_USE_SHARED_PTR` is defined before including `peg.h`, these pointers are replaced by smart pointers of the type `std::shared_ptr`. These take care of releasing memory when the rules are no longer used.

In our example we have defined this macro just to check that the smart pointer version works, although it is really not necessary, since the grammar is defined only once in function `main()`.

When a grammar is built, rules may be defined in any arbitrary order. Any rule can refer to any other rule, whether it has already been defined or not. This is necessary in order to define recursive grammars, which is very frequent.

The Rule class has been designed in such a way that, when used as an expression, a Rule becomes a reference to itself. For this reason its use is very restricted: rules can only be default constructed and assigned from another rule, an expression or a type implicitly converting to an expression. No temporaries can be created, since they would produce expressions with dangling references. For that reason the class has no constructors except the default, and the copy constructor has been deleted. `Rule()` is the only possible temporary, do not use it. It would serve no purpose, anyway.

Note that the copy assignment operator is also non-standard. One would expect that the statement `r = r` does nothing. However, if `r` is a rule, what it actually does is make `r` left-recursive: `r` calls itself directly without reading input. Such a rule will overflow the stack if parsed.

Left recursion can also arise from cyclic references. The calculator has the following cycle:

expression → term → factor → expression

The two first references (expression → term → factor) are direct. The third one (factor → expression) closes the cycle but only after reading a LPAR (left parenthesis) token. Otherwise the grammar would be left-recursive and the parser would enter an infinite loop. This is an inherent limitation of PEG grammars: there cannot be reference cycles that close without reading at least one character from the input.

Once built, a grammar is used by calling method `parse()` of the starting rule (`calc` in our case). `Parse()` takes an argument of type `matcher` (see below). It returns true if the input matches the grammar, and false otherwise. Either way, when `parse()` returns the `matcher` holds the whole input that was read during parsing, both the part that matches the grammar and the one that does not. For example, let's assume that the parser is fed with this input:

(1 + 2) \* 3 Hello

The call to `calc.parse(m)` returns `true`. When parsing, the matcher advances its input pointer to the `H` in `Hello` (the first character that does not match the grammar). This is the limit of the part of the input that will be consumed by the parser. The matcher also holds a vector of actions (scheduled by `Do()` during parsing). These actions must be executed in order to evaluate the expression. Calling `m.accept()` executes the scheduled actions, resets the vector that holds them and discards the consumed part of the input. Input now starts at the `H` in `Hello`. The next call to `calc.parse()` fails, since `Hello` does not match the grammar.

### The matcher class

Each instance of a PEG parser uses a grammar (a set of rules) and an instance of the matcher class. This class provides services to the parser. Most of its methods are for internal library use, only a few of them are public and directly callable by the user:

- The constructor takes an optional argument of type `std::istream` with a default value of `std::cin`. Passing an adequate `std::istream` object the parser can be made to get its input from anywhere.
- Method `accept()` must be called after parsing in order to execute the scheduled actions and discard consumed input.
- Method `clear()` discards both all input and all scheduled actions.
- Both scheduled actions and semantic predicates may call method `text()` to get a string with the content of the most recently closed text capture. Text captures can be nested, which is useful for debugging.

### The vect class

Recursive grammars usually need a value stack. Class `vect` is good for this. It is a simple wrapper around `std::vector` that introduces some handy features.

Operator `[]` automatically resizes the vector when it is indexed beyond its current limit.

These methods are specially useful for using the vector as a stack:

- Method `push()` adds an element at the end of the vector.
- Method `top()` allows addressing relative to the top of the stack. `Top()` or `top(0)` accesses the last element of the vector, `top(-1)` the previous one, etc.
- Method `pop()` removes elements at the end of the vector. `Pop()` or `pop(1)` removes the last element, `pop(2)` removes the last two elements, etc.

Methods `reserve()`, `size()`, `resize()` and `clear()` are the same as in `std::vector`.

Manual handling of the value stack may be easy in a simple case like the calculator, but in more complicated cases it is better to handle the stack automatically. This is easily accomplished using special classes that handle stack indexing with the help of the matcher.

## Automatic handling of the value stack – classes `value_stack` and `value_map`

This version of the calculator handles the value stack automatically using the `value_stack` class, and eliminates all calls to the primitives except `Ccl()` using an overload mechanism that will be explained later.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

#define PEG_USE_SHARED_PTR

#include "peg.h"

using namespace std;
using namespace peg;

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    matcher m;
    value_stack<int> val(m);

    // Lexical rules

    Rule WS, SIGN, DIGIT, NUMBER, LPAR, RPAR, ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV;

    WS      = *Ccl(" \t\f\r\n");
    SIGN    = Ccl("+ -");
    DIGIT   = Ccl("0-9");
    NUMBER  = (~SIGN >> +DIGIT)-- >> WS >> [&] { val[0] = stoi(m.text()); };
    LPAR    = '(' >> WS;
    RPAR    = ')' >> WS;
    ADD     = '+' >> WS;
    SUB     = '-' >> WS;
    MUL     = '*' >> WS;
    DIV     = '/' >> WS;

    // Calculator

    Rule calc, expression, term, factor;

    calc      = WS >> expression >> [&] { cout << val[1] << endl; };

    expression = term >> *(
        ADD >> term >> [&] { val[0] += val[2]; }
        | SUB >> term >> [&] { val[0] -= val[2]; }
    );

    term      = factor >> *(
        MUL >> factor >> [&] { val[0] *= val[2]; }
        | DIV >> factor >> [&] { val[0] /= val[2]; }
    );

    factor    = NUMBER
        | LPAR >> expression >> RPAR >> [&] { val[0] = val[1]; };

    while ( calc.parse(m) )
        m.accept();
}
```

A `value_stack` is constructed with a reference to the matcher (`m`). The constructor, operator `[]` and method `clear()` are its only public interface.

Expressions in a rule may return a value in a slot of the value stack, according to their position in the sequence. Rule actions may access these values using indices relative to the start of the rule. Rules return values by assigning `val[0]` (assuming `val` is the value stack). If a rule's actions do not assign `val[0]`, the rule returns the value of its first expression.

The index of each expression in a rule can be easily calculated by counting how many `>>`'s separate it from the start of the rule. For example, in rule `term`, the first factor is in position 0 and the second one in position 2. If an expression of the rule has alternatives, it uses as many stack slots as its longest alternative. For example:

```
r = e0 >> (
    a1 >> a2
    | b1 >> b2 >> b3 >> b4
) >> e5;
```

The expression between parentheses uses four stack slots. The result of `e5` always appears in `val[5]`, no matter which alternative (`a1 ... a2` or `b1 ... b4`) matches when parsing.

This way of handling the value stack is similar to YACC's. Our `val[0]` is equivalent to YACC's `$$` and `val[1]` is YACC's `$2`, etc.

Handling the stack automatically with `value_stack` is easier than doing it manually, but it can be less efficient, because there are unused positions. Class `value_stack` is implemented with `vect<T>`. The size of the vector grows automatically to include the biggest index used. When the vector grows, unused slots are filled with the default value `T()`. It is also possible that the vector needs to re-allocate memory and copy the values in the previous buffer to the new one. This can be mitigated or avoided by configuring the stack with a sufficiently large initial number of slots. `Value_stack`'s constructor accepts an optional second argument specifying the initial capacity, by default 128.

Class `value_map` is implemented using `std::map<int, T>` and has the same public interface as `value_stack`, except it does not accept the second argument in the constructor since it does not need to reserve memory. Maps accept any index without filling the unused slots, and they do not need to re-allocate memory or copy values from one buffer to another. `Value_map` is probably more efficient than `value_stack` if the stack is very sparse (has many unused slots), and either the default constructor or copy assignment of `T` are costly.

It is possible to use more than one value stack with the same matcher; they run in parallel.

## Elimination of primitives

The binary operators used to build the rules are overloaded so that they can accept in one of their arguments (but not in both) values of the types taken by the primitives, and automatically convert them to the respective primitive. The assignment operator of class `Rule` is similarly overloaded.

<code>std::string s</code>	becomes <code>Lit(s)</code>
<code>const char *s</code>	becomes <code>Lit(std::string(s))</code>
<code>char c</code>	becomes <code>Lit(c)</code>
<code>std::function&lt;void()&gt; f</code>	becomes <code>Do(f)</code>
<code>std::function&lt;void(bool &amp;)&gt; f</code>	becomes <code>Pred(f)</code>

In many cases these automatic conversions allow replacing explicit calls to the primitives by their arguments. In the second version of the calculator we have eliminated all the `Lit()` and `Do()` primitives. It is not possible to eliminate `Ccl(s)`, since `s` by itself becomes `Lit(s)`.

Calls to `Lit(s)`, `Lit(c)` and `Ccl(s)` with literal arguments may also be replaced by user-defined literals:

<code>"ab"_lit</code>	becomes <code>Lit(std::string("ab", 2))</code>
<code>'c'_lit</code>	becomes <code>Lit('c')</code>
<code>"a-z"_ccl</code>	becomes <code>Ccl(std::string("a-z", 3))</code>

Using these literals is mostly a matter of aesthetic preference. Additionally, the string user-defined literals allow null characters to be included in the basic literal, since the compiler passes the length of the literal to the literal operator. The operators are defined in inline namespace `peg::literals`.

## Attached expressions

An expression can be attached to another using the syntax `e1 (e2)`. Expression `e2` is parsed immediately after successfully parsing `e1`. The behaviour is similar to `e1 >> e2`, except `e2` does not use any value stack slots. This is very useful for debugging when automatic handling of the value stack is used, since actions can be inserted anywhere in the rules without changing the position of any expression in the stack. For example, we could modify the calculator to make it show everytime a `+` sign is matched in an arithmetic expression:

```
expression    = term >> *(
                    ADD
                        >> term          >> [&] { cout << "add\n"; }
                    | SUB >> term        >> [&] { val[0] += val[2]; }
                );
```

We have attached an action to expression `ADD`, without disturbing the placement of the second term in position 2 of the stack. If we now feed the calculator with the arithmetic expression `((1+2)*3+4)*5+6`, we get the following output:

```
add
add
add
71
```

Attached expressions may be arbitrarily complex. Operator `()` has been overloaded for the same types as the binary operators, allowing us to eliminate an explicit call to `Do()` in the previous example.

Attaching actions saves unused slots in value stacks (although this is irrelevant if `value_map` is used instead of `value_stack`). The previous rule can be re-written with all actions attached without altering its behavior:

```
expression    = term >> *(
                    ADD                ([&] { cout << "add\n"; })
                    >> term            ([&] { val[0] += val[2]; })
                    | SUB >> term      ([&] { val[0] -= val[2]; })
                );
```

### Action and semantic predicate macros

`Peg.h` defines a couple of macros that allows using lambdas in actions and semantic predicates with a very concise notation. This is the macro for an action:

```
#define _(code...)    (peg::Do([&]{ code })))
```

The argument of the macro is the body of a function of type `void()`. Re-writing the previous example using this macro makes the code more concise:

```
expression    = term >> *(
                    ADD                _ ( cout << "add\n"; )
                    >> term            _ ( val[0] += val[2]; )
                    | SUB >> term      _ ( val[0] -= val[2]; )
                );
```

The second macro is for semantic predicates:

```
#define __ (code...)    (peg::Pred([&](bool &__r){ __r = ([&]()-> bool { code })(); })))
```

Here the argument of the macro is the body of a function of type `bool()`. If this function returns true the predicate succeeds, otherwise it fails. For example, the following rule always fails:

```
Rule fail;
fail = __ ( return false; );
```

Note that, as these macros expand as parenthesized expressions, you may place them anywhere in a rule. If they are placed immediately following another expression, they attach to it because the parentheses are interpreted as a function call operator. Otherwise, the parentheses are redundant and have no effect.

## Final version of the calculator

This final version of the calculator replaces calls to `Ccl()` by user-defined literals and attaches all actions using the `_(...)` macro.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>

#define PEG_USE_SHARED_PTR

#include "peg.h"

using namespace std;
using namespace peg;

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    matcher m;
    value_stack<int> val(m);

    // Lexical rules

    Rule WS, SIGN, DIGIT, NUMBER, LPAR, RPAR, ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV;

    WS      = "*" \t\f\r\n"_ccl;
    SIGN    = "+-"_ccl;
    DIGIT   = "0-9"_ccl;
    NUMBER  = (~SIGN >> +DIGIT)-- >> WS  _( val[0] = stoi(m.text()); );
    LPAR    = '(' >> WS;
    RPAR    = ')' >> WS;
    ADD     = '+' >> WS;
    SUB     = '-' >> WS;
    MUL     = '*' >> WS;
    DIV     = '/' >> WS;

    // Calculator

    Rule calc, expression, term, factor;

    calc      = WS >> expression          _( cout << val[1] << endl; );

    expression = term >> *(
        ADD >> term          _( val[0] += val[2]; )
        | SUB >> term        _( val[0] -= val[2]; )
    );

    term       = factor >> *(
        MUL >> factor        _( val[0] *= val[2]; )
        | DIV >> factor      _( val[0] /= val[2]; )
    );

    factor     = NUMBER
        | LPAR >> expression >> RPAR  _( val[0] = val[1]; );

    while ( calc.parse(m) )
        m.accept();
}
```

## Checking a grammar

If the macro `PEG_DEBUG` is defined before including `peg.h`, the rules are compiled with a method that allows checking a grammar. This method must be applied to the starting rule, in our example:

```
calc.check();
```

`Check()` visits all grammar paths originating in the starting rule and throws an exception of type `Rule::bad_rule` whenever it detects uninitialized rules or potential left recursion, i.e. closed paths that may be traversed without consuming input.

It cannot be called more than once on the same grammar, which would be pointless anyway. Once the grammar is checked, both the macro and the call to `check()` can be removed.

Additionally, each rule may be assigned a name (a `const char *`). For example,

```
calc.name = "calc";
```



In debug mode `peg.h` defines the macro `peg_debug()` as follows:

```
#define peg_debug(rule) rule.name = #rule
```

So in order to assign a debugging name to `calc`, this is the easiest way:

```
peg_debug(calc);
```

Those rules that have names assigned will print debugging messages to standard error when visited by `check()`. This is useful for understanding the paths that `check()` follows through the grammar and determining the reason for eventual failures.

For example, we define `PEG_DEBUG` in the calculator. After the grammar is built and before parsing we write:

```
peg_debug(NUMBER);
peg_debug(LPAR);
peg_debug(RPAR);
peg_debug(ADD);
peg_debug(SUB);
peg_debug(MUL);
peg_debug(DIV);
peg_debug(calc);
peg_debug(expression);
peg_debug(term);
peg_debug(factor);

calc.check();
```

When the program runs, we get the following output on standard error:

```
calc
| expression
| | term
| | | factor
| | | | NUMBER
| | | | LPAR
| | | | expression (r)
| | | | RPAR
| | | MUL
| | | factor (v)
| | | DIV
| | | factor (v)
| | ADD
| | term (v)
| | SUB
| | term (v)
calc: check OK
```

The name of each rule is printed when visited, with an indentation that reflects the level of nesting. The syntax tree of each rule is visited only once. Rules that have already been visited are marked (v). Recursive calls are marked (r).

Now we make a small change to the grammar: in the last rule (factor) we make `LPAR` optional (`~LPAR`). This change makes the grammar left-recursive, because now the cycle `expression`  $\rightarrow$  `term`  $\rightarrow$  `factor`  $\rightarrow$  `expression` can close without consuming input. `Check()` detects the problem:

```
calc
| expression
| | term
| | | factor
| | | | NUMBER
| | | | LPAR
| | | | expression (r)
terminate called after throwing an instance of 'peg::Rule::bad_rule'
what(): Left-recursive rule
```

Some low-level lexical rules like `WS` (white space) have not been debugged, because they would clutter the output of the debugger. Note that `check()` always checks the whole grammar, independently of which rules are debugged, if any. Normally `check()` is first called without debugging. If the grammar checks OK, nothing else need be done. If `check()` throws, some rules can be gradually added to the debugger, until the cause of the problem is clear.