

C Programming Tools: Part 4

Building Lexers and Parsers

Duncan C. White
d.white@imperial.ac.uk

Dept of Computing,
Imperial College London

The handout and tarball are available on materials.doc.ic.ac.uk and at:
<http://www.doc.ic.ac.uk/~dcw/c-tools-2021/lecture4/>

- Last lecture, we started building our own tools when necessary, at a range of scales from tiny to large.

- Last lecture, we started building our own tools when necessary, at a range of scales from tiny to large.
- Most of those tools were [Code Generators - Code that Writes Code](#) (Tip 29).

- Last lecture, we started building our own tools when necessary, at a range of scales from tiny to large.
- Most of those tools were [Code Generators - Code that Writes Code](#) (Tip 29).
- A [Code Generator](#) defines some [Little Language](#) and then translates that into some other form - eg valid C source code.

- Last lecture, we started building our own tools when necessary, at a range of scales from tiny to large.
- Most of those tools were [Code Generators](#) - [Code that Writes Code](#) (Tip 29).
- A [Code Generator](#) defines some [Little Language](#) and then translates that into some other form - eg valid C source code.
- The main topic of this lecture is to find how to make writing [Code Generators](#) even easier.

- The first part of writing any **Code Generator** is to build a **lexical analyser** (aka a **Lexer**) and a **Parser** for your little language.

- The first part of writing any **Code Generator** is to build a **lexical analyser** (aka a **Lexer**) and a **Parser** for your little language.
- Everyone should write a couple of lexers and parsers by hand to get the hang of them, but..

- The first part of writing any **Code Generator** is to build a **lexical analyser** (aka a **Lexer**) and a **Parser** for your little language.
- Everyone should write a couple of lexers and parsers by hand to get the hang of them, but.. **After that, it's just boring gruntwork - so use tools:**

- The first part of writing any **Code Generator** is to build a **lexical analyser** (aka a **Lexer**) and a **Parser** for your little language.
- Everyone should write a couple of lexers and parsers by hand to get the hang of them, but.. **After that, it's just boring gruntwork - so use tools:**
- **Lex** generates C code (a **Lexer**) from declarative definitions of **lexical tokens**, and how to recognise them in the input.

- The first part of writing any **Code Generator** is to build a **lexical analyser** (aka a **Lexer**) and a **Parser** for your little language.
- Everyone should write a couple of lexers and parsers by hand to get the hang of them, but.. **After that, it's just boring gruntwork - so use tools:**
- **Lex** generates C code (a **Lexer**) from declarative definitions of **lexical tokens**, and how to recognise them in the input.
- **Yacc** generates C code (a **Parser**) from declarative definitions of the **grammar**, plus **actions** to take when grammatical constructs are parsed successfully. The parser calls the lexer to supply the next token.

- The first part of writing any **Code Generator** is to build a **lexical analyser** (aka a **Lexer**) and a **Parser** for your little language.
- Everyone should write a couple of lexers and parsers by hand to get the hang of them, but.. **After that, it's just boring gruntwork - so use tools:**
- **Lex** generates C code (a **Lexer**) from declarative definitions of **lexical tokens**, and how to recognise them in the input.
- **Yacc** generates C code (a **Parser**) from declarative definitions of the **grammar**, plus **actions** to take when grammatical constructs are parsed successfully. The parser calls the lexer to supply the next token.
- The actions you tell Yacc to take when constructs are parsed can do anything, but typically they build an **Abstract Syntax Tree** or **AST**, aka the **parse tree**. This is an internal form of the little language input, used by later phases of compilation (semantic checking and code generation) - implemented as **AST tree walkers**.

- The first part of writing any **Code Generator** is to build a **lexical analyser** (aka a **Lexer**) and a **Parser** for your little language.
- Everyone should write a couple of lexers and parsers by hand to get the hang of them, but.. **After that, it's just boring gruntwork - so use tools:**
- **Lex** generates C code (a **Lexer**) from declarative definitions of **lexical tokens**, and how to recognise them in the input.
- **Yacc** generates C code (a **Parser**) from declarative definitions of the **grammar**, plus **actions** to take when grammatical constructs are parsed successfully. The parser calls the lexer to supply the next token.
- The actions you tell Yacc to take when constructs are parsed can do anything, but typically they build an **Abstract Syntax Tree** or **AST**, aka the **parse tree**. This is an internal form of the little language input, used by later phases of compilation (semantic checking and code generation) - implemented as **AST tree walkers**.
- Note: **Datadec** is the perfect tool to generate ASTs.

- What **Little Language** shall we use as an example?

- What **Little Language** shall we use as an example?
- Let's start with **integer constant expressions** such as $3 * (10 + \text{eek} * (123 / 3) \bmod 7)$.

- What **Little Language** shall we use as an example?
- Let's start with **integer constant expressions** such as $3*(10+eek*(123/3) \bmod 7)$.
- Looking first at the lexical level, the basic 'tokens' needed are:
 - Numeric constants (eg '123').
 - Identifiers - named constants (eg 'eek') whose values are defined elsewhere.
 - Various one-character operators (eg. '(', '+', '*', ')', etc).
 - A Haskell-inspired keyword 'mod' (i.e. modulus, '%' in C terms).

- What **Little Language** shall we use as an example?
- Let's start with **integer constant expressions** such as $3 * (10 + \text{eek} * (123 / 3) \bmod 7)$.
- Looking first at the lexical level, the basic 'tokens' needed are:
 - Numeric constants (eg '123').
 - Identifiers - named constants (eg 'eek') whose values are defined elsewhere.
 - Various one-character operators (eg. '(', '+', '*', ')', etc).
 - A Haskell-inspired keyword 'mod' (i.e. modulus, '%' in C terms).
- Two of those tokens have associated values:
 - A **numeric constant** has an associated **integer** value - which particular number we have seen, eg. 3, 10, 123 etc.

- What **Little Language** shall we use as an example?
- Let's start with **integer constant expressions** such as $3 * (10 + \text{eek} * (123 / 3) \bmod 7)$.
- Looking first at the lexical level, the basic 'tokens' needed are:
 - Numeric constants (eg '123').
 - Identifiers - named constants (eg 'eek') whose values are defined elsewhere.
 - Various one-character operators (eg. '(', '+', '*', ')', etc).
 - A Haskell-inspired keyword 'mod' (i.e. modulus, '%' in C terms).
- Two of those tokens have associated values:
 - A **numeric constant** has an associated **integer** value - which particular number we have seen, eg. 3, 10, 123 etc.
 - An **identifier** has an associated **string (char *)** - the actual name of the identifier that we've seen, eg "eek".

- What **Little Language** shall we use as an example?
- Let's start with **integer constant expressions** such as $3*(10+eek*(123/3) \bmod 7)$.
- Looking first at the lexical level, the basic 'tokens' needed are:
 - Numeric constants (eg '123').
 - Identifiers - named constants (eg 'eek') whose values are defined elsewhere.
 - Various one-character operators (eg. '(', '+', '*', ')', etc).
 - A Haskell-inspired keyword 'mod' (i.e. modulus, '%' in C terms).
- Two of those tokens have associated values:
 - A **numeric constant** has an associated **integer** value - which particular number we have seen, eg. 3, 10, 123 etc.
 - An **identifier** has an associated **string (char *)** - the actual name of the identifier that we've seen, eg "eek".
- If we were writing the lexer in Haskell, then a token would be represented by the following inductive data type:

```
token = PLUS or MINUS or MOD or MUL or DIV or OPEN or CLOSE  
      or IDENT(string s) or NUMBER(int n) or TOKERR;
```

- To represent this in C, we define the tokens themselves as integer constants (using any distinct, non zero values we like):

```
#define PLUS 1
#define MINUS 2
#define MUL 3
#define DIV 4
#define MOD 5
#define OPEN 6
#define CLOSE 7
#define TOKERR 8
#define NUMBER 9
#define IDENT 10
```

- To represent this in C, we define the tokens themselves as integer constants (using any distinct, non zero values we like):

```
#define PLUS 1
#define MINUS 2
#define MUL 3
#define DIV 4
#define MOD 5
#define OPEN 6
#define CLOSE 7
#define TOKERR 8
#define NUMBER 9
#define IDENT 10
```

- To represent the associated values (an integer `n` and a `char *s`), in a Lex-compatible way, we define a union type and a variable of that type:

```
typedef union
{
    int n;
    char *s;
} YYSTYPE;

extern YYSTYPE yylval;    // "lexical value" associated with current token, if any
```

- To represent this in C, we define the tokens themselves as integer constants (using any distinct, non zero values we like):

```
#define PLUS 1
#define MINUS 2
#define MUL 3
#define DIV 4
#define MOD 5
#define OPEN 6
#define CLOSE 7
#define TOKERR 8
#define NUMBER 9
#define IDENT 10
```

- To represent the associated values (an integer `n` and a `char *s`), in a Lex-compatible way, we define a union type and a variable of that type:

```
typedef union
{
    int n;
    char *s;
} YYSTYPE;

extern YYSTYPE yylval;    // "lexical value" associated with current token, if any
```

- We put these definitions in [lexsupport.h](#), along with a prototype for a function to print out the current token:

```
extern void print_token( FILE * out, int tok );
```

- In `lexsupport.c` we write:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "lexsupport.h"

YYSTYPE yylval;    // value associated with current token, if any

/*
   Print token <tok> and it's associated
   value from yylval (if any) to <out>
*/
void print_token( FILE *out, int tok )
{
    switch( tok )
    {
        case PLUS:      fputc( '+', out ); break;
        case MINUS:     fputc( '-', out ); break;
        case MUL:       fputc( '*', out ); break;
        case DIV:       fputc( '/', out ); break;
        case MOD:       fputs( "mod", out ); break;
        case OPEN:      fputc( '(', out ); break;
        case CLOSE:     fputc( ')', out ); break;
        case TOKERR:    fputs( "<UNKNOWN TOKEN>", out ); break;
        case NUMBER:    fprintf( out, "number(%d)", yylval.n ); break;
        case IDENT:     fprintf( out, "ident(%s)", yylval.s ); break;
        default:        fprintf( out, "<IMPOSSIBLE TOKEN %d>", tok );
    }
}
```

(and a small irritating Lex-support function called `yywrap`, not shown).

- Now, to define the lexical rules for our tokens, Lex allows us to specify **regular expression/action pairs**:

```
\+          return PLUS;
-          return MINUS;
\*          return MUL;
\/          return DIV;
\(          return OPEN;
\)          return CLOSE;
mod         return MOD;
[0-9]+      yyval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;
[a-z][a-z0-9]* yyval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
[ \t\n]+    /* ignore whitespace */;
.           return TOKERR;
```

- Most Lex rules are obvious, essentially **when you match this string, return this token value**. Note that regular expression rules mean that special characters like +, *, /, (and) need to be **back-slashed**.

- Now, to define the lexical rules for our tokens, Lex allows us to specify **regular expression/action** pairs:

```
\+          return PLUS;
-          return MINUS;
\*          return MUL;
\/          return DIV;
\(          return OPEN;
\)          return CLOSE;
mod         return MOD;
[0-9]+      yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;
[a-z][a-z0-9]* yylval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
[ \t\n]+    /* ignore whitespace */;
.           return TOKERR;
```

- Most Lex rules are obvious, essentially **when you match this string, return this token value**. Note that regular expression rules mean that special characters like +, *, /, (and) need to be **back-slashed**.
- A few rules are more complex - the rule `[\t\n]+ /* ignore whitespace */;` matches any number of adjacent space, tab and newline characters, then executes the **empty action**, leaving us still in the Lexer trying to find the next token, looking for any pattern matches.

- Now, to define the lexical rules for our tokens, Lex allows us to specify **regular expression/action pairs**:

```

\+          return PLUS;
\-          return MINUS;
\[          return MUL;
\[          return DIV;
\[          return OPEN;
\[          return CLOSE;
mod         return MOD;
[0-9]+      yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;
[a-z][a-z0-9]* yylval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
[ \t\n]+    /* ignore whitespace */;
.           return TOKERR;

```

- Most Lex rules are obvious, essentially **when you match this string, return this token value**. Note that regular expression rules mean that special characters like +, *, /, (and) need to be **back-slashed**.
- A few rules are more complex - the rule `[\t\n]+ /* ignore whitespace */;` matches any number of adjacent space, tab and newline characters, then executes the **empty action**, leaving us still in the Lexer trying to find the next token, looking for any pattern matches.
- Next, let's look at the NUMBER rule:

```

[0-9]+      yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;

```

- Now, to define the lexical rules for our tokens, Lex allows us to specify **regular expression/action** pairs:

```

\+          return PLUS;
\-          return MINUS;
\[          return MUL;
\[          return DIV;
\[          return OPEN;
\[          return CLOSE;
mod         return MOD;
[0-9]+      yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;
[a-z][a-z0-9]* yylval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
[ \t\n]+    /* ignore whitespace */;
.           return TOKERR;

```

- Most Lex rules are obvious, essentially **when you match this string, return this token value**. Note that regular expression rules mean that special characters like +, *, /, (and) need to be **back-slashed**.
- A few rules are more complex - the rule `[\t\n]+ /* ignore whitespace */;` matches any number of adjacent space, tab and newline characters, then executes the **empty action**, leaving us still in the Lexer trying to find the next token, looking for any pattern matches.
- Next, let's look at the NUMBER rule:

```

[0-9]+      yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;

```

The regex pattern `[0-9]+` represents an arbitrarily long sequence of one or more adjacent decimal digits.

- Looking at the action `yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;` we wonder what `yytext` is?

- Looking at the action `yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;` we wonder what `yytext` is?
- When a Lex pattern matches the first few characters in the unconsumed input, the lexer consumes the matching chunk of input, copying it into a string called `yytext`.

- Looking at the action `yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER;`, we wonder what `yytext` is?
- When a Lex pattern matches the first few characters in the unconsumed input, the lexer consumes the matching chunk of input, copying it into a string called `yytext`.
- So, when the regex `[0-9]+` has matched, the longest digit sequence found in the input is stored in `yytext`.

- Looking at the action `yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER`, we wonder what `yytext` is?
- When a Lex pattern matches the first few characters in the unconsumed input, the lexer consumes the matching chunk of input, copying it into a string called `yytext`.
- So, when the regex `[0-9]+` has matched, the longest digit sequence found in the input is stored in `yytext`.
- Then our Lex action runs: it extracts the integer value via `atoi(yytext)`, stores it in `yylval.n` (the integer associated with a `NUMBER` token) and returns `NUMBER`.

- Looking at the action `yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER`, we wonder **what yytext is?**
- When a Lex pattern matches the **first few characters in the unconsumed input**, the lexer consumes the matching chunk of input, copying it into a string called **yytext**.
- So, when the regex `[0-9]+` has matched, the **longest digit sequence found in the input** is stored in **yytext**.
- Then our Lex action runs: it extracts the integer value via `atoi(yytext)`, stores it in `yylval.n` (the **integer associated with a NUMBER token**) and returns **NUMBER**.
- So, for example, if the lexer is called to deliver the next token and the next few characters of input are:

```
12345*EEK123 mod (x+77)
```

the lexer sees that the input **12345** matches `[0-9]+`, so **12345** is consumed from the input, **yytext** is set to **"12345"**, `yylval.n` is set to **12345**, and the lexer returns **NUMBER**.

- Looking at the action `yylval.n=atoi(yytext); return NUMBER`, we wonder **what yytext is?**
- When a Lex pattern matches the **first few characters in the unconsumed input**, the lexer consumes the matching chunk of input, copying it into a string called **yytext**.
- So, when the regex `[0-9]+` has matched, the **longest digit sequence found in the input** is stored in **yytext**.
- Then our Lex action runs: it extracts the integer value via `atoi(yytext)`, stores it in `yylval.n` (the **integer associated with a NUMBER token**) and returns **NUMBER**.
- So, for example, if the lexer is called to deliver the next token and the next few characters of input are:

```
12345*EEK123 mod (x+77)
```

the lexer sees that the input **12345** matches `[0-9]+`, so **12345** is consumed from the input, **yytext** is set to **"12345"**, `yylval.n` is set to **12345**, and the lexer returns **NUMBER**.

- The unconsumed input is now: `*EEK123 mod (x+77)`

- Similarly, when we look at the IDENT rule:

```
[a-z][a-z0-9]*      yy1val.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
```

- Similarly, when we look at the IDENT rule:

```
[a-z][a-z0-9]*          yylval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
```

- The regex represents a lower case letter (`[a-z]`) followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits (`[a-z0-9]*`), ie. a lower case **alphanumeric string**.

- Similarly, when we look at the IDENT rule:

```
[a-z][a-z0-9]*      yylval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
```

- The regex represents a lower case letter (`[a-z]`) followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits (`[a-z0-9]*`), ie. a lower case **alphanumeric string**.
- When the pattern matches, the **longest alphanumeric sequence found at the front of the input** is stored in `yytext` - and consumed from the input.
- We `strdup(yytext)` to give ourselves a long-lived copy of the string, storing that in `yylval.s`, and then return `IDENT`.

- Similarly, when we look at the IDENT rule:

```
[a-z][a-z0-9]*      yy1val.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
```

- The regex represents a lower case letter (`[a-z]`) followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits (`[a-z0-9]*`), ie. a lower case **alphanumeric string**.
- When the pattern matches, the **longest alphanumeric sequence found at the front of the input** is stored in `yytext` - and consumed from the input.
- We `strdup(yytext)` to give ourselves a long-lived copy of the string, storing that in `yy1val.s`, and then return `IDENT`.
- For example, if the unconsumed input is: `eek123 mod (x+77)`

- Similarly, when we look at the IDENT rule:

```
[a-z][a-z0-9]*      yyval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
```

- The regex represents a lower case letter (`[a-z]`) followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits (`[a-z0-9]*`), ie. a lower case **alphanumeric string**.
- When the pattern matches, the **longest alphanumeric sequence found at the front of the input** is stored in `yytext` - and consumed from the input.
- We `strdup(yytext)` to give ourselves a long-lived copy of the string, storing that in `yyval.s`, and then return `IDENT`.
- For example, if the unconsumed input is: `EEK123 mod (x+77)`
- Then `EEK123` is consumed from the input, `yytext` is set to `"EEK123"`, which is then duplicated and stored in `yyval.s`, leaving `mod (x+77)` unconsumed.

- Similarly, when we look at the IDENT rule:

```
[a-z][a-z0-9]*      yyval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
```

- The regex represents a lower case letter (`[a-z]`) followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits (`[a-z0-9]*`), ie. a lower case **alphanumeric string**.
- When the pattern matches, the **longest alphanumeric sequence found at the front of the input** is stored in `yytext` - and consumed from the input.
- We `strdup(yytext)` to give ourselves a long-lived copy of the string, storing that in `yyval.s`, and then return `IDENT`.
- For example, if the unconsumed input is: `EEK123 mod (x+77)`
- Then `EEK123` is consumed from the input, `yytext` is set to `"EEK123"`, which is then duplicated and stored in `yyval.s`, leaving `mod (x+77)` unconsumed.
- Note that Lex automatically handles overlapping patterns - the keyword `mod` is not confused with an identifier, despite the string `mod` also matching a lower case letter (`m`) followed by zero or more letters or digits (`od`).

- Similarly, when we look at the IDENT rule:

```
[a-z][a-z0-9]*      yyval.s=strdup(yytext);return IDENT;
```

- The regex represents a lower case letter (`[a-z]`) followed by zero or more lower case letters or digits (`[a-z0-9]*`), ie. a lower case **alphanumeric string**.
- When the pattern matches, the **longest alphanumeric sequence found at the front of the input** is stored in `yytext` - and consumed from the input.
- We `strdup(yytext)` to give ourselves a long-lived copy of the string, storing that in `yyval.s`, and then return `IDENT`.
- For example, if the unconsumed input is: `eek123 mod (x+77)`
- Then `eek123` is consumed from the input, `yytext` is set to `"eek123"`, which is then duplicated and stored in `yyval.s`, leaving `mod (x+77)` unconsumed.
- Note that Lex automatically handles overlapping patterns - the keyword `mod` is not confused with an identifier, despite the string `mod` also matching a lower case letter (`m`) followed by zero or more letters or digits (`od`).
- See `lexer.l` in `01.expr-lexonly` for the full Lex input file, containing the above plus some prelude. This file can be turned into C code via: `lex -o lexer.c lexer.l`.

- We complete the example with a main program `mainprog.c`, that repeatedly calls the `yylex()` function that Lex generates, and prints out each token that it finds:

```
int main( int argc, char **argv )
{
    int tok;
    while( (tok=yylex()) != 0 )
    {
        printf( "token: " );
        print_token( stdout, tok );
        putchar( '\n' );
    }
    yylex_destroy();
    return 0;
}
```


- We complete the example with a main program `mainprog.c`, that repeatedly calls the `yylex()` function that Lex generates, and prints out each token that it finds:

```
int main( int argc, char **argv )
{
    int tok;
    while( (tok=yylex()) != 0 )
    {
        printf( "token: " );
        print_token( stdout, tok );
        putchar( '\n' );
    }
    yylex_destroy();
    return 0;
}
```

- You'll find all these files in the `01.expr-lexonly` directory, together with a `Makefile` to compile everything up. Type `make` and you're left with the executable `lertest`, which reads tokens from standard input.

- We complete the example with a main program `mainprog.c`, that repeatedly calls the `yylex()` function that Lex generates, and prints out each token that it finds:

```
int main( int argc, char **argv )
{
    int tok;
    while( (tok=yylex()) != 0 )
    {
        printf( "token: " );
        print_token( stdout, tok );
        putchar( '\n' );
    }
    yylex_destroy();
    return 0;
}
```

- You'll find all these files in the `01.expr-lexonly` directory, together with a `Makefile` to compile everything up. Type `make` and you're left with the executable `lertest`, which reads tokens from standard input. Run it with input:

```
12345*EEK123 mod (x+77)
```

and it generates output:

```
token: number(12345)      token: ident(x)
token: *                  token: +
token: ident(eek123)      token: number(77)
token: mod                 token: )
token: (
```

- Turning to the `parser` that `Yacc` is about to generate for us, this parser has two tasks:

- Turning to the **parser** that **Yacc** is about to generate for us, this parser has two tasks:
 - First, to check that this sequence of tokens generated by the lexer is valid under the **grammatical rules** we tell it.

- Turning to the **parser** that **Yacc** is about to generate for us, this parser has two tasks:
 - First, to check that this sequence of tokens generated by the lexer is valid under the **grammatical rules** we tell it.
 - Second, if it is valid, to generate an **Abstract Syntax Tree** representation of it.

- Turning to the [parser](#) that [Yacc](#) is about to generate for us, this parser has two tasks:
 - First, to check that this sequence of tokens generated by the lexer is valid under the [grammatical rules](#) we tell it.
 - Second, if it is valid, to generate an [Abstract Syntax Tree](#) representation of it.
- Our [Abstract Syntax](#) is most usefully defined as a series of Haskell-style inductive data types, specified (of course!) in a [Datadec](#) input file called [types.in](#):

```
arithop  = plus or minus or times or divide or mod;  
expr     = num( int n )  
          or id( string s )  
          or binop( expr l, arithop op, expr r );
```

- Turning to the [parser](#) that [Yacc](#) is about to generate for us, this parser has two tasks:
 - First, to check that this sequence of tokens generated by the lexer is valid under the [grammatical rules](#) we tell it.
 - Second, if it is valid, to generate an [Abstract Syntax Tree](#) representation of it.
- Our [Abstract Syntax](#) is most usefully defined as a series of Haskell-style inductive data types, specified (of course!) in a [Datadec](#) input file called [types.in](#):

```
arithop  = plus or minus or times or divide or mod;  
expr     = num( int n )  
         or id( string s )  
         or binop( expr l, arithop op, expr r );
```

- So, our parser's main job is to build an Abstract [expr](#) tree from our token stream.

- Turning to the [parser](#) that [Yacc](#) is about to generate for us, this parser has two tasks:
 - First, to check that this sequence of tokens generated by the lexer is valid under the [grammatical rules](#) we tell it.
 - Second, if it is valid, to generate an [Abstract Syntax Tree](#) representation of it.
- Our [Abstract Syntax](#) is most usefully defined as a series of Haskell-style inductive data types, specified (of course!) in a [Datadec](#) input file called [types.in](#):

```
arithop  = plus or minus or times or divide or mod;
expr     = num( int n )
          or id( string s )
          or binop( expr l, arithop op, expr r );
```

- So, our parser's main job is to build an Abstract [expr](#) tree from our token stream.
- To generate the parser, we provide a quite complicated Yacc input file called [parser.y](#).

- `parser.y` starts with a long prelude of plain C code:

```
%{  
// some includes and externs..  
  
expr ast = NULL;  
int yyerrors = 0;  
  
void yyerror(const char *str)  
{  
    fprintf(stderr, "Error on line %d: %s\n", yylineno, str);  
    yyerrors++;  
}  
%}
```

- `parser.y` starts with a long prelude of plain C code:

```
%{  
// some includes and externs..  
  
expr ast = NULL;  
int yyerrors = 0;  
  
void yyerror(const char *str)  
{  
    fprintf(stderr, "Error on line %d: %s\n", yylineno, str);  
    yyerrors++;  
}  
%}
```

- The parser calls the `yyerror()` function to report parse errors. Note the use of the current source line number `yylineno`, which `yylex()` automatically keeps track of.

- `parser.y` starts with a long prelude of plain C code:

```
%{  
// some includes and externs..  
  
expr ast = NULL;  
int yyerrors = 0;  
  
void yyerror(const char *str)  
{  
    fprintf(stderr, "Error on line %d: %s\n", yylineno, str);  
    yyerrors++;  
}  
%}
```

- The parser calls the `yyerror()` function to report parse errors. Note the use of the current source line number `yylineno`, which `yylex()` automatically keeps track of.
- Also note that we count the total number of parse errors in `yyerrors`.

- `parser.y` starts with a long prelude of plain C code:

```
%{  
// some includes and externs..  
  
expr ast = NULL;  
int yyerrors = 0;  
  
void yyerror(const char *str)  
{  
    fprintf(stderr, "Error on line %d: %s\n", yylineno, str);  
    yyerrors++;  
}  
%}
```

- The parser calls the `yyerror()` function to report parse errors. Note the use of the current source line number `yylineno`, which `yylex()` automatically keeps track of.
- Also note that we count the total number of parse errors in `yyerrors`.
- The variable definition:

```
expr ast = NULL;
```

defines the variable `ast` that we will use to store the AST representation (an `expr`) of the whole integer expression after a successful parse.

- Next `parser.y` contains a `%union` declaration listing all possible types of data associated with tokens (and parse rules):

```
%union
{
    int      n;
    char     *s;
    expr     e;
}
```

- Next `parser.y` contains a `%union` declaration listing all possible types of data associated with tokens (and parse rules):

```
%union
{
    int      n;
    char     *s;
    expr     e;
}
```

- Yacc auto-generates the `YYSTYPE` union declaration and the `yylval` variable (that we previously defined in `lexsupport.h`) from this information, and places it in `parser.h`.

- Next [parser.y](#) contains a `%union` declaration listing all possible types of data associated with tokens (and parse rules):

```
%union
{
    int      n;
    char     *s;
    expr     e;
}
```

- Yacc auto-generates the `YYSTYPE` union declaration and the `yylval` variable (that we previously defined in [lexsupport.h](#)) from this information, and places it in [parser.h](#).
- The Lex prelude is modified slightly to include [parser.h](#) rather than [lexsupport.h](#), allowing Lex rules to store values in `yylval.n` and `yylval.s` as before.
- Our `%union` also contains field `expr e`. We'll come back to that.

- Next `parser.y` contains a `%union` declaration listing all possible types of data associated with tokens (and parse rules):

```
%union
{
    int      n;
    char     *s;
    expr     e;
}
```

- Yacc auto-generates the `YYSTYPE` union declaration and the `yylval` variable (that we previously defined in `lexsupport.h`) from this information, and places it in `parser.h`.
- The Lex prelude is modified slightly to include `parser.h` rather than `lexsupport.h`, allowing Lex rules to store values in `yylval.n` and `yylval.s` as before.
- Our `%union` also contains field `expr e`. We'll come back to that.
- Below the `%union` we see a list of all the tokens, first those without associated values:

```
%token PLUS MINUS MUL DIV MOD OPEN CLOSE TOKERR
```


- Next `parser.y` contains a `%union` declaration listing all possible types of data associated with tokens (and parse rules):

```
%union
{
    int      n;
    char     *s;
    expr     e;
}
```

- Yacc auto-generates the `YYSTYPE` union declaration and the `yylval` variable (that we previously defined in `lexsupport.h`) from this information, and places it in `parser.h`.
- The Lex prelude is modified slightly to include `parser.h` rather than `lexsupport.h`, allowing Lex rules to store values in `yylval.n` and `yylval.s` as before.
- Our `%union` also contains field `expr e`. We'll come back to that.
- Below the `%union` we see a list of all the tokens, first those without associated values:

```
%token PLUS MINUS MUL DIV MOD OPEN CLOSE TOKERR
```

- Then we list those tokens with associated values:

```
%token <n> NUMBER
%token <s> IDENT
```

- These tell Yacc that a NUMBER token has an associated `int n` value, and an IDENT token has an associated `char *s` value.
- So, the lexer deposits the actual number seen in `yylval.n` and Yacc looks in `yylval.n` to retrieve that value later on.

- These tell Yacc that a NUMBER token has an associated `int n` value, and an IDENT token has an associated `char *s` value.
- So, the lexer deposits the actual number seen in `yylval.n` and Yacc looks in `yylval.n` to retrieve that value later on.
- Next, we tell Yacc that several parse rules also have associated values - the `expr e` field in the union, allowing those parse rules to build abstract expressions:

```
%type <e> factor term expr
```

- These tell Yacc that a NUMBER token has an associated `int n` value, and an IDENT token has an associated `char *s` value.
- So, the lexer deposits the actual number seen in `yylval.n` and Yacc looks in `yylval.n` to retrieve that value later on.
- Next, we tell Yacc that several parse rules also have associated values - the `expr e` field in the union, allowing those parse rules to build abstract expressions:
- Next, we tell Yacc which rule the parser that it generates must attempt to parse, i.e. which is the **whole input must match this** rule. Here we call that start rule `top`:

```
%type <e> factor term expr
```

```
%start top
```

- These tell Yacc that a NUMBER token has an associated `int n` value, and an IDENT token has an associated `char *s` value.
- So, the lexer deposits the actual number seen in `yylval.n` and Yacc looks in `yylval.n` to retrieve that value later on.
- Next, we tell Yacc that several parse rules also have associated values - the `expr e` field in the union, allowing those parse rules to build abstract expressions:

```
%type <e> factor term expr
```

- Next, we tell Yacc which rule the parser that it generates must attempt to parse, i.e. which is the `whole input must match this` rule. Here we call that start rule `top`:

```
%start top
```

- The rest of `parser.y` lists `the grammatical parse rules` that define integer expressions (in BNF), and the `corresponding tree-building actions` to take when a rule matches. The first rule is:

```
%%  
top      : expr      { ast = $1; }  
;
```

- These tell Yacc that a NUMBER token has an associated `int n` value, and an IDENT token has an associated `char *s` value.
- So, the lexer deposits the actual number seen in `yylval.n` and Yacc looks in `yylval.n` to retrieve that value later on.
- Next, we tell Yacc that several parse rules also have associated values - the `expr e` field in the union, allowing those parse rules to build abstract expressions:

```
%type <e> factor term expr
```

- Next, we tell Yacc which rule the parser that it generates must attempt to parse, i.e. which is the `whole input must match this` rule. Here we call that start rule `top`:

```
%start top
```

- The rest of `parser.y` lists `the grammatical parse rules` that define integer expressions (in BNF), and the `corresponding tree-building actions` to take when a rule matches. The first rule is:

```
%%
top      : expr      { ast = $1; }
;
```

So our parser must match the `entire input` - with none left over - as an `expression`. We'll discuss the action in a moment.

- The parse rules continue:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
          | expr MINUS term { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }
          | term            { $$ = $1; }
          ;

term      : term MUL factor { $$ = mktimes( $1, $3 ); }
          | term DIV factor { $$ = mkdivide( $1, $3 ); }
          | term MOD factor { $$ = mkmod( $1, $3 ); }
          | factor          { $$ = $1; }
          ;

factor    : NUMBER          { $$ = expr_num($1); }
          | IDENT           { $$ = expr_id($1); }
          | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }
          ;
```

- The parse rules continue:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
          | expr MINUS term { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }
          | term            { $$ = $1; }
          ;

term      : term MUL factor { $$ = mktimes( $1, $3 ); }
          | term DIV factor { $$ = mkdivide( $1, $3 ); }
          | term MOD factor { $$ = mkmod( $1, $3 ); }
          | factor          { $$ = $1; }
          ;

factor    : NUMBER          { $$ = expr_num($1); }
          | IDENT           { $$ = expr_id($1); }
          | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }
          ;
```

- Looking just at the rules (ignoring the actions for a moment):

- an **expression** is a list of one or more terms linked by **PLUS/MINUS** tokens,

- The parse rules continue:

```

expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
          | expr MINUS term { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }
          | term             { $$ = $1; }
          ;

term       : term MUL factor { $$ = mktimes( $1, $3 ); }
          | term DIV factor { $$ = mkdivide( $1, $3 ); }
          | term MOD factor { $$ = mkmod( $1, $3 ); }
          | factor          { $$ = $1; }
          ;

factor     : NUMBER          { $$ = expr_num($1); }
          | IDENT            { $$ = expr_id($1); }
          | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }
          ;

```

- Looking just at the rules (ignoring the actions for a moment):

- an **expression** is a list of one or more terms linked by **PLUS/MINUS** tokens,
- a **term** is a list of one or more factors linked by **MUL/DIV/MOD** tokens

- The parse rules continue:

```

expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
          | expr MINUS term { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }
          | term            { $$ = $1; }
          ;

term      : term MUL factor { $$ = mktimes( $1, $3 ); }
          | term DIV factor { $$ = mkdivide( $1, $3 ); }
          | term MOD factor { $$ = mkmod( $1, $3 ); }
          | factor          { $$ = $1; }
          ;

factor    : NUMBER          { $$ = expr_num($1); }
          | IDENT           { $$ = expr_id($1); }
          | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }
          ;

```

- Looking just at the rules (ignoring the actions for a moment):

- an **expression** is a list of one or more terms linked by **PLUS/MINUS** tokens,
- a **term** is a list of one or more factors linked by **MUL/DIV/MOD** tokens
- and a **factor** is a numeric constant, an identifier or a bracketed sub-expression.

- The parse rules continue:

```

expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
          | expr MINUS term { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }
          | term            { $$ = $1; }
          ;

term      : term MUL factor  { $$ = mktimes( $1, $3 ); }
          | term DIV factor  { $$ = mkdivide( $1, $3 ); }
          | term MOD factor  { $$ = mkmod( $1, $3 ); }
          | factor           { $$ = $1; }
          ;

factor    : NUMBER          { $$ = expr_num($1); }
          | IDENT            { $$ = expr_id($1); }
          | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }
          ;

```

- Looking just at the rules (ignoring the actions for a moment):

- an **expression** is a list of one or more terms linked by **PLUS/MINUS** tokens,
- a **term** is a list of one or more factors linked by **MUL/DIV/MOD** tokens
- and a **factor** is a numeric constant, an identifier or a bracketed sub-expression.

- But what about the actions?

- Picking one of our parse rules/action pairs out, we see:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term    { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
```

- Picking one of our parse rules/action pairs out, we see:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term    { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
```

- This rule says that one syntactic form of an integer expression comprises a sub-expression, followed by a PLUS token ('+'), followed by a term.

- Picking one of our parse rules/action pairs out, we see:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
```

- This rule says that one syntactic form of an integer expression comprises a sub-expression, followed by a PLUS token ('+'), followed by a term.
- Note that recursive rules in Yacc like this one must be written with the recursive invocation of `expr` first. Yacc's algorithm can't handle it the other way round - Yacc will generate a fatal error if you write the more intuitive: `expr : term PLUS expr`.

- Picking one of our parse rules/action pairs out, we see:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
```

- This rule says that one syntactic form of an integer expression comprises a sub-expression, followed by a PLUS token ('+'), followed by a term.
- Note that recursive rules in Yacc like this one must be written with the recursive invocation of `expr` first. Yacc's algorithm can't handle it the other way round - **Yacc will generate a fatal error** if you write the more intuitive: `expr : term PLUS expr`.
- When our `expr PLUS term` rule matches, the action is executed, with:
 - \$1 set to the value (if any) associated with the sub-`expr` rule,
 - \$2 set to the value (if any) associated with the `PLUS` token,
 - \$3 set to the value (if any) associated with the `term` rule.

- Picking one of our parse rules/action pairs out, we see:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term    { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
```

- This rule says that one syntactic form of an integer expression comprises a sub-expression, followed by a PLUS token ('+'), followed by a term.
- Note that recursive rules in Yacc like this one must be written with the recursive invocation of `expr` first. Yacc's algorithm can't handle it the other way round - **Yacc will generate a fatal error** if you write the more intuitive: `expr : term PLUS expr`.
- When our `expr PLUS term` rule matches, the action is executed, with:
 - `$1` set to the value (if any) associated with the sub-`expr` rule,
 - `$2` set to the value (if any) associated with the `PLUS` token,
 - `$3` set to the value (if any) associated with the `term` rule.
- Of course, we know that only `expr` and `term` have associated values, `PLUS` does not; so using `$2` would be an error. We use `$1` and `$3` to call `mkplus($1, $3)`. `mkplus()` is:

```
expr mkplus( expr a, expr b ) { return expr_binop(a, arithop_plus(), b); }
```


- Picking one of our parse rules/action pairs out, we see:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term    { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }
```

- This rule says that one syntactic form of an integer expression comprises a sub-expression, followed by a PLUS token ('+'), followed by a term.
- Note that recursive rules in Yacc like this one must be written with the recursive invocation of `expr` first. Yacc's algorithm can't handle it the other way round - Yacc will generate a fatal error if you write the more intuitive: `expr : term PLUS expr`.
- When our `expr PLUS term` rule matches, the action is executed, with:
 - `$1` set to the value (if any) associated with the sub-`expr` rule,
 - `$2` set to the value (if any) associated with the `PLUS` token,
 - `$3` set to the value (if any) associated with the `term` rule.
- Of course, we know that only `expr` and `term` have associated values, `PLUS` does not; so using `$2` would be an error. We use `$1` and `$3` to call `mkplus($1, $3)`. `mkplus()` is:


```
expr mkplus( expr a, expr b ) { return expr_binop(a, arithop_plus(), b); }
```
- Assigning that new expression to `$$` sets the value associated with the whole `expr` rule, think of this as the rule return value.

- Let's look at the rest of the `expr` rules and actions:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term    { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | expr MINUS term   { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | term              { $$ = $1; }  
          ;
```

- We've explained the first one. The second is very similar: another syntactic form of expression comprises an expression followed by a MINUS token followed by a term. When that matches, \$1 is the sub-expression's associated value and \$3 the term's associated value. These are combined by `mkminus($1,$3)` and assigned to \$\$.

- Let's look at the rest of the `expr` rules and actions:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term    { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | expr MINUS term   { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | term              { $$ = $1; }  
          ;
```

- We've explained the first one. The second is very similar: another syntactic form of expression comprises an expression followed by a MINUS token followed by a term. When that matches, \$1 is the sub-expression's associated value and \$3 the term's associated value. These are combined by `mkminus($1,$3)` and assigned to \$\$.
- `mkminus()` is: `expr mkminus(expr a, expr b) { return expr_binop(a, arithop_minus(), b); }`

- Let's look at the rest of the `expr` rules and actions:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | expr MINUS term { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | term            { $$ = $1; }  
          ;
```

- We've explained the first one. The second is very similar: another syntactic form of expression comprises an expression followed by a MINUS token followed by a term. When that matches, \$1 is the sub-expression's associated value and \$3 the term's associated value. These are combined by `mkminus($1,$3)` and assigned to \$\$.
- `mkminus()` is: `expr mkminus(expr a, expr b) { return expr_binop(a, arithop_minus(), b); }`
- The third rule is simpler: another form of an expression is a single term (with no additive operators such as PLUS or MINUS). In this case, we simply copy the term's associated value \$1 into \$.

- Let's look at the rest of the `expr` rules and actions:

```
expr      : expr PLUS term  { $$ = mkplus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | expr MINUS term { $$ = mkminus( $1, $3 ); }  
          | term            { $$ = $1; }  
          ;
```

- We've explained the first one. The second is very similar: another syntactic form of expression comprises an expression followed by a MINUS token followed by a term. When that matches, \$1 is the sub-expression's associated value and \$3 the term's associated value. These are combined by `mkminus($1,$3)` and assigned to \$\$.
- `mkminus()` is: `expr mkminus(expr a, expr b) { return expr_binop(a, arithop_minus(), b); }`
- The third rule is simpler: another form of an expression is a single term (with no additive operators such as PLUS or MINUS). In this case, we simply copy the term's associated value \$1 into \$\$.
- Terms are incredibly similar - but with the higher priority multiplicative operators, so we'll not bother to explain them.

- Factors are more interesting, and deserve an explanation:

```
factor      : NUMBER      { $$ = expr_num($1); }  
            | IDENT       { $$ = expr_id($1); }  
            | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }  
            ;
```

- So: a factor may be a plain integer constant (the NUMBER token), in which case we construct an `expr_num()` from the number's associated value `$1 - yy1val.n`.

- Factors are more interesting, and deserve an explanation:

```
factor      : NUMBER      { $$ = expr_num($1); }  
            | IDENT       { $$ = expr_id($1); }  
            | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }  
            ;
```

- So: a factor may be a plain integer constant (the NUMBER token), in which case we construct an `expr_num()` from the number's associated value `$1 - yylval.n`.
- Or a factor may be an identifier (the IDENT token), in which case we construct an `expr_id()` from the identifier's associated value `$1 - yylval.s`, a `malloc()`d string allocated by `strdup()`.

- Factors are more interesting, and deserve an explanation:

```
factor      : NUMBER          { $$ = expr_num($1); }  
            | IDENT           { $$ = expr_id($1); }  
            | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }  
            ;
```

- So: a factor may be a plain integer constant (the NUMBER token), in which case we construct an `expr_num()` from the number's associated value `$1 - yylval.n`.
- Or a factor may be an identifier (the IDENT token), in which case we construct an `expr_id()` from the identifier's associated value `$1 - yylval.s`, a `malloc()`d string allocated by `strdup()`.
- Finally, a factor may be a bracketed sub-expression, in which case we copy the associated value `$2` of the sub-expression.

- Factors are more interesting, and deserve an explanation:

```
factor      : NUMBER      { $$ = expr_num($1); }  
            | IDENT       { $$ = expr_id($1); }  
            | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }  
            ;
```

- So: a factor may be a plain integer constant (the NUMBER token), in which case we construct an `expr_num()` from the number's associated value `$1 - yylval.n`.
- Or a factor may be an identifier (the IDENT token), in which case we construct an `expr_id()` from the identifier's associated value `$1 - yylval.s`, a `malloc()`d string allocated by `strdup()`.
- Finally, a factor may be a bracketed sub-expression, in which case we copy the associated value `$2` of the sub-expression.
- The top level (start) rule, `top`, has a subtly different action:

```
top         : expr        { ast = $1; };
```

- Factors are more interesting, and deserve an explanation:

```
factor      : NUMBER      { $$ = expr_num($1); }
            | IDENT       { $$ = expr_id($1); }
            | OPEN expr CLOSE { $$ = $2; }
            ;
```

- So: a factor may be a plain integer constant (the NUMBER token), in which case we construct an `expr_num()` from the number's associated value `$1` - `yyval.n`.
- Or a factor may be an identifier (the IDENT token), in which case we construct an `expr_id()` from the identifier's associated value `$1` - `yyval.s`, a `malloc()`d string allocated by `strdup()`.
- Finally, a factor may be a bracketed sub-expression, in which case we copy the associated value `$2` of the sub-expression.
- The top level (start) rule, `top`, has a subtly different action:

```
top      : expr      { ast = $1; };
```

- When this matches **the entire input**, with no junk left following a valid `expr`, that final abstract expr is copied from `$1` to the `expr ast` variable. This enables the final fully built expr AST to be extracted from Yacc's clutches and returned to us.

- Turn `parser.y` into a C module (`parser.c` and `parser.h`) via: `yacc -vd -o parser.c parser.y`.

- Turn `parser.y` into a C module (`parser.c` and `parser.h`) via: `yacc -vd -o parser.c parser.y`.
- One remaining point is where the AST builder functions like `mkplus()` are actually stored, we've shown a couple of individual ones, but not where they're stored. Each is a thin wrapper on top of the datadec-generated types:

```
expr mkplus( expr a, expr b )
{
    return expr_binop(a, arithop_plus(), b);
}
```

- Turn `parser.y` into a C module (`parser.c` and `parser.h`) via: `yacc -vd -o parser.c parser.y`.
- One remaining point is where the AST builder functions like `mkplus()` are actually stored, we've shown a couple of individual ones, but not where they're stored. Each is a thin wrapper on top of the datadec-generated types:

```
expr mkplus( expr a, expr b )
{
    return expr_binop(a, arithop_plus(), b);
}
```

- This function and all its friends (`mkminus()` etc) are very repetitive. In the previous lecture we wrote a tiny `tmpl` tool to generate such output, so let's reuse it! We generate these functions from the input file `binfuncs.in`:

```
TEMPLATE,expr mk<0>( expr a, expr b )\n{\n\treturn expr_binop(a, arithop_<0>(), b);\n}\n\nplus\nminus\ntimes\ndivide\nmod
```

- Turn `parser.y` into a C module (`parser.c` and `parser.h`) via: `yacc -vd -o parser.c parser.y`.
- One remaining point is where the AST builder functions like `mkplus()` are actually stored, we've shown a couple of individual ones, but not where they're stored. Each is a thin wrapper on top of the datadec-generated types:

```
expr mkplus( expr a, expr b )
{
    return expr_binop(a, arithop_plus(), b);
}
```

- This function and all its friends (`mkminus()` etc) are very repetitive. In the previous lecture we wrote a tiny `tmpl` tool to generate such output, so let's reuse it! We generate these functions from the input file `binfuncs.in`:

```
TEMPLATE,expr mk<0>( expr a, expr b )\n{\n\treturn expr_binop(a, arithop_<0>(), b);\n}\n
plus
minus
times
divide
mod
```

- A tiny helper shell script `mkmodule` is run with `binfuncs` as its argument, it uses `tmpl` to turn `binfuncs.in` into `binfuncs.c`, then uses my other tool `proto` to generate `binfuncs.h` from `binfuncs.c`.

- The `02.expressions` directory also provides:
 - A main program (`mainprog.c`) which initialises the lexer, calls the parser, and prints out the AST (if parsing is successful) or prints error messages if not,

- The `02.expressions` directory also provides:
 - A main program (`mainprog.c`) which initialises the lexer, calls the parser, and prints out the AST (if parsing is successful) or prints error messages if not,
 - A module called `consthash` that gives expressions the ability to use predefined named constants (such as powers of two), and command line arguments (`arg1..argn`), these constants are stored in a `longhash` (from the previous lecture's `libADTs library`),

- The `02.expressions` directory also provides:
 - A main program (`mainprog.c`) which initialises the lexer, calls the parser, and prints out the AST (if parsing is successful) or prints error messages if not,
 - A module called `consthash` that gives expressions the ability to use predefined named constants (such as powers of two), and command line arguments (`arg1..argn`), these constants are stored in a `longhash` (from the previous lecture's `libADTs library`),
 - A module called `eval` that evaluates expressions, by walking `expr ast`, using `consthash` to look up identifiers, and

- The `02.expressions` directory also provides:
 - A main program (`mainprog.c`) which initialises the lexer, calls the parser, and prints out the AST (if parsing is successful) or prints error messages if not,
 - A module called `consthash` that gives expressions the ability to use predefined named constants (such as powers of two), and command line arguments (`arg1..argn`), these constants are stored in a `longhash` (from the previous lecture's `libADTs library`),
 - A module called `eval` that evaluates expressions, by walking `expr ast`, using `consthash` to look up identifiers, and
 - A `Makefile` to build everything, using `lex`, `yacc`, `datadec` and `mkmodule` to generate the lexer, parser, `types` module and `binfuncs` module, and then compiles and links everything.

- The `02.expressions` directory also provides:
 - A main program (`mainprog.c`) which initialises the lexer, calls the parser, and prints out the AST (if parsing is successful) or prints error messages if not,
 - A module called `consthash` that gives expressions the ability to use predefined named constants (such as powers of two), and command line arguments (`arg1..argn`), these constants are stored in a `longhash` (from the previous lecture's `libADTs library`),
 - A module called `eval` that evaluates expressions, by walking `expr ast`, using `consthash` to look up identifiers, and
 - A `Makefile` to build everything, using `lex`, `yacc`, `datadec` and `mkmodule` to generate the lexer, parser, `types` module and `binfuncs` module, and then compiles and links everything.
- Build by typing `make`. We end up with an expression parser, treebuilder and evaluator called `expr`, in which we only write *about 350 lines of code*. Give it a try!

- The `02.expressions` directory also provides:
 - A main program (`mainprog.c`) which initialises the lexer, calls the parser, and prints out the AST (if parsing is successful) or prints error messages if not,
 - A module called `consthash` that gives expressions the ability to use predefined named constants (such as powers of two), and command line arguments (`arg1..argn`), these constants are stored in a `longhash` (from the previous lecture's `libADTs library`),
 - A module called `eval` that evaluates expressions, by walking `expr ast`, using `consthash` to look up identifiers, and
 - A `Makefile` to build everything, using `lex`, `yacc`, `datadec` and `mkmodule` to generate the lexer, parser, `types` module and `binfuncs` module, and then compiles and links everything.
- Build by typing `make`. We end up with an expression parser, treebuilder and evaluator called `expr`, in which we only write *about 350 lines of code*. Give it a try!
- So far, we've used all this heavy-duty technology to essentially build a *5 dollar calculator*. Are you impressed?

- The `02.expressions` directory also provides:
 - A main program (`mainprog.c`) which initialises the lexer, calls the parser, and prints out the AST (if parsing is successful) or prints error messages if not,
 - A module called `consthash` that gives expressions the ability to use predefined named constants (such as powers of two), and command line arguments (`arg1..argn`), these constants are stored in a `longhash` (from the previous lecture's `libADTs library`),
 - A module called `eval` that evaluates expressions, by walking `expr ast`, using `consthash` to look up identifiers, and
 - A `Makefile` to build everything, using `lex`, `yacc`, `datadec` and `mkmodule` to generate the lexer, parser, `types` module and `binfuncs` module, and then compiles and links everything.
- Build by typing `make`. We end up with an expression parser, treebuilder and evaluator called `expr`, in which we only write *about 350 lines of code*. Give it a try!
- So far, we've used all this heavy-duty technology to essentially build a *5 dollar calculator*. Are you impressed? Weellll.. Perhaps not:-). But in the final lecture we'll see how to scale our input language up significantly.