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An Interactive Classifier Programming Language

by

Keith Fenske

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

Department of Computing Science

Edmonton, Alberta
Spring 1988
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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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Abstract

A classifier programming environment is developed in two parts: an interactive programming language and a user classifier system. The programming language supports simple data objects (numbers, strings, lists), global variables, basic control statements ("for", "if", "repeat", "while"), pre-defined functions, and user-defined functions with local variables. The user classifier system is any program that can communicate with the programming language through special functions written in an application-dependent module.

Classifier systems are artificial intelligence applications which learn by applying genetic algorithms to bit strings. A bit string represents all possible binary numbers with a given pattern: "0" for zero bits, "1" for one bits, and "#" for any bit ("don't cares"). Knowledge is encoded into bit strings via a message list and a rule list. Messages are the current state of the classifier system; rules are legal transitions to new states. Rules are created with genetic operators for bit inversion, bit replacement ("mutation"), and bit exchange ("crossover"). Rules acquire strength when they lead to successful goal states. To limit the creation of non-functional rules, stronger rules displace weaker rules ("survival of the fittest").

The following compiler implementation issues are discussed: internal data storage, lexical tokens in the input, design of a grammar syntax, semantic actions for creating a parse tree, interpretation and execution of the parse tree (with error recovery), and construction of a communication interface between the language and a classifier system. Particular attention is paid to keeping the language small while maintaining flexibility of use.
Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the people who have been dedicated to helping me finish my degree:

Jonathan Schaeffer, my supervisor

Sheila and Norbert Berkowitz, my mentors

Melvin and Beth Fenske, my parents

Lingyan Shu, my friend

Much time has been spent and many words said; now the text is in your hands.
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1. Introduction

Classifier systems are rule-based artificial intelligence applications which use bit strings to represent knowledge in the form of messages and rules. Learning takes place when new rules are created from existing rules by applying genetic operators. There is no attempt to understand the meaning of the messages or rules: any rule which leads to a successful goal state is considered desirable and is given a high strength. (Rules which lead to a failure state are eliminated.) The user's control over a classifier system is restricted by the constantly changing nature of the rule and message lists. In many ways, trying to work with a classifier is like trying to program a computer in machine code when the instruction set keeps changing.

Classifier systems are simple machines which respond to simple commands: add a message; add a rule; show me all rules; create a new rule by genetic crossover; generate a new message list; etc. Users want more complex operations: execute the following sequence of commands until a certain condition is true; save all information in a file; repeatedly change a previously saved state in different ways and observe the results; etc. Giving the user a direct connection to the classifier would be tedious, because the user would have to type all of the commands himself (in bit string form) and manually inspect all output to look for conditions of interest.

Our research group into classifier systems (Robert Andrew Chai, Keith Fenske, Jonathan Schaeffer, Dale Schuurmans, and Lingyan Shu) quickly developed a need for a classifier "front end" to provide standard programming constructs such as variables, control statements, pre-defined functions, etc. It was not clear how this front end was to be implemented.

The fastest solution would have been to write a library of subroutines that a user could call from programs written in Pascal [Bo81] or "C" [Ke78]. This was rejected for two reasons. First, the user would be working in a language with far more rigid concepts of syntax and data type checking than are necessary for the relatively simple requirements of
classifier systems. Second, every time the user made a change, he would have to recompile his program. A more interactive solution was necessary.

The next choice would have been an interpreted language such as LISP [Wi84]. This would have given the user the necessary amount of interaction. He would have been able to try something, check the result, and try something else — all within the same LISP session. LISP's definition of recursive lists has the appropriate amount of structure for representing data in a classifier system. The problem with LISP is that a software designer must choose one of two options: either the application is written in LISP and allows the user to invoke it with LISP expressions, or the application hides the fact that it is written in LISP and maintains complete control over its execution. The first option forces the user to learn LISP, and LISP control "statements" are not well-suited to casual programming. The second option forces the interpreted LISP program to interpret a user's program, resulting in a significant loss in speed. Rejecting LISP was not easy, because having an interpreter that (at any time) can evaluate dynamically-created expressions is worth some loss in performance.

A decision was made to design a new programming language. This language is called face, is interactive, can represent the data in an arbitrary classifier system, and is close enough to existing languages (Pascal and "C") that only minor training is necessary. The language has been kept simple from the user's point of view. Data follows the representations in LISP: there are numbers, strings, and lists. No data type checking is performed, as this appeared to be unnecessary. Control flow is procedural with expressions, function definitions, and control statements ("for", "if", "repeat", "while"). The resulting language looks like the pseudo-code often used to describe the execution of algorithms.

The first major design question was the relationship between the programming language and the classifier system. Should they be two parts of the same program? Or should they be two different programs? Combining them together into a single executable module gives the programming language better access to data in the classifier system, but restricts how the classifier is written and works (see Chapter 11). Separating them limits communication between the two programs, but allows the classifier to be modified or replaced without changing the programming language. The approach used here places the
programming language between the user and his classifier system:

```
user  standard  classifier
    programming language    system
```

The connection between the user and the programming language is the familiar terminal with a keyboard. Of course, an operating system like UNIX\textsuperscript{e} [Ke84] allows much more sophisticated connections, but the standard input is assumed to be an interactive terminal. (Throughout this document, the word "UNIX" refers exclusively to the trademarked software product of AT&T Bell Laboratories.) The connection between the programming language and the classifier system is a UNIX pipe.

The second major design question was the implementation language. "C" was chosen to make the best use of the UNIX compiler-development tools LEX [Le78] and YACC [Jo78].

During implementation, the person writing the programming language (Keith Fenske) and the person writing the classifier system (Robert Chai) worked at different speeds, depending upon their other duties. Not having an exact specification of the classifier system was a solid benefit for the programming language. Whenever there was some doubt about how a feature would be implemented (or used), a generalizing assumption was made. The result is a programming language which is fully functional by itself and may be used or debugged without reference to a classifier. Attached to the language are application-dependent functions which communicate with the classifier. The syntax of the functions, the types of their parameters, and the results they return are all regular objects in the programming language. Changing the classifier system involves no changes to the language; only modifications to the communication support routines are required.

An overview of classifier systems is next. Then the representation of data is discussed. Given data structures and the skeleton of a programming language, lexical and syntactical grammars are developed. Associated with the grammars are semantic rules for creating parse trees, which are executed by an interpreter (with traps for error conditions).
Pre-defined functions are chosen to provide the user with a complete programming environment. A communication interface to the classifier system is attached. Finally, comments on the success or failure of certain features are presented.
2. Classifier Systems

A classifier system is an artificial intelligence program based on bit strings and genetic operators. There have been numerous papers published in this area, and more than a few conferences held, so an introduction is best served by presenting some background material and then deferring to one of John H. Holland's papers [Ho86] which describes applications in function optimization and robotics. Also mentioned in the Holland paper are a classifier to play the card game of "poker" (S. Smith, 1980) and a classifier to detect leaks in a pipeline (D. Goldberg, 1983). See [Ho86–2] for related work and [Ri86] for an implementation.

2.1. Bit Strings

A bit string is a string consisting of the characters "0", "1", and "#" (don't care). The following are examples of legal bit strings:

"0"
"1101#"
"0#1#0"

Each bit string represents all possible binary numbers with a given pattern. The binary numbers must have as many digits as there are characters in the bit string. Where the string has a "0", the same position in the numbers must have the binary digit 0; where the string has a "1", the numbers must have the bit 1; and where the string has a "#", then any bit is acceptable. In the previous example, the first string represents only one number (zero), the second string represents two numbers, and the third string represents four numbers:
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;0#1#0&quot;</td>
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Bit strings are easy for computers to work with because their alphabet is limited to three characters, and they can be stored as logical masks and values. (In a "mask", significant digits are ones and ignored digits are zeros.) The mask for "01#" would be 110 and the value would be 010. An arbitrary binary number matches the bit string "01#" if the logical AND of the number and the mask 110 is equal to the value 010. Logical operations are the fastest instructions on a computer.

2.2. Messages and Rules

Information about a classifier system's current state is stored in messages, which are fixed-length bit strings. Generally, only the characters "0" and "1" are allowed. All messages have the same length, based on the assumption that if everyone works with objects of the same size, then programming is easier. Collectively, the messages are referred to as the "message list".

Rules act upon the message list. Each rule has a condition bit string and an action bit string, and is written as:

\[ \text{condition} / \text{action} \]

If there is a message in the message list with the same pattern as the condition, then the
action is invoked. For example, if the message list is:

"00111"
"01010"

then the rule:

"01010" / "11111"

matches the second message, and the action "11111" is invoked. Invoking an action posts a new message to the message list; in this case, the message "11111".

Conditions may have "don't cares" ("#") for some of their pattern bits. Actions may also have "don't cares", in which case the corresponding bits from the matching message are passed through unchanged. The previous rule could be modified to match both of the original messages:

"0###1#" / "1####"

This new rule changes the first bit in a message to a one, and passes on the other bits unchanged. If it is applied to the first message ("00111"), then the result is "10111"; applied to the second message ("01010"), the result is "11010".

Conditions may be negated by placing a minus sign ("-") before the condition. A negated condition is true only if there are no messages which match the given pattern:

"-000##" / "00000"

says that if there are no messages with zeros in the first three bits, then create a new message that is all zero.

More than one condition may be specified in the same rule. All conditions must be satisfied before the rule's action is invoked:

"0####", "-####1" / "0###1"
looks for a message that has a zero in the first bit, checks that no message has a one in the last bit, and then creates a new message beginning with a zero and ending with a one.

Holland is not very clear about the exact meaning of multiple conditions. Let $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_r$ be the conditions. Let $a$ be the action. Then Holland says on page 603:

The condition part of the classifier $C$ is satisfied if each condition $c_i$ is satisfied by some message $M_j$ on the current message list. When the classifier is satisfied, an outgoing message $M^*$ is generated as before using the message $M_j$ satisfying condition $c_1$ and the action part $a$.

Must the same message $M_j$ satisfy all conditions? Or can there be $r$ possibly different messages satisfying the separate conditions? If the same message must satisfy all conditions, then it is unnecessary to identify $M_j$ as the message satisfying condition $c_1$. If different messages can be used to satisfy the individual conditions, then Holland’s example on page 605 makes more sense. Suppose that a message $M_5$ is to be generated when the following "Boolean" condition is true:

\[(c_1 \text{ and } c_2) \text{ or } [c_3 \text{ and } \neg c_4]\]

That is, when conditions $c_1$ and $c_2$ are jointly satisfied, or when condition $c_3$ is satisfied and $c_4$ can not be satisfied. This may be rewritten as two classifier rules:

\[
C_1 , C_2 / M_5 \\
C_3 , \neg C_4 / M_5
\]

If $c_1$ through $c_4$ were single-valued Boolean variables (true or false), then this wouldn’t work — because classifiers have no concept of variables, Boolean or otherwise. Fortunately, conditions are bit string patterns representing sets of messages, and are "satisfied" when the sets are not empty.

Thus, the answer to the earlier question is, yes, the messages may be different. A multiple-condition rule is satisfied if there are messages which independently satisfy each of
the conditions. (Multiple conditions could be replaced by single conditions and flag bits in the messages, if it weren't for negative conditions.)

2.3. Genetic Operators

A classifier system is given an initial set of messages and rules by the "environment" (that is, the user). One execution cycle consists of the following steps:

— receive messages from the environment (if any),
— find all rules whose conditions are satisfied,
— generate a new set of message strings,
— send messages to the environment (if any).

While indefinite cycles are possible with this scheme, it fails to do any useful work except in the extreme case where the rules are already perfectly developed. For the classifier to learn, it must adapt its existing rules to new situations. The adaptation scheme has two parts: assigning a "strength" to each rule, and specifying a method of creating and testing new rules.

The strength of a rule is a measure of how often the rule has lead to a successful goal state. Goal states are characterized by a large number called "pay-off". (Failure states are usually characterized by a large negative number.) The more frequent the success, the higher the strength. Strong rules are given preference over weaker rules in the hope that they will again be successful. Strength is a dynamic quantity which is constantly updated according to the current situation. Please refer to Holland's paper for a description of the "bucket–brigade" algorithm.

New rules are created by "genetic" operators. The "crossover" operator takes two strong rules, swaps some of the bits at random, and creates two new rules. The "invert" operator takes one rule, inverts some of the bits, and creates a new rule. The "mutate" operator takes one rule and replaces some of the bits. If these new rules are functional (lead toward a goal state), then they acquire strength and may displace their parent rules.
If they are non-functional, or are special cases of rules that already perform well, then they may be eliminated by other new rules.

Genetic operators imitate the apparent changes to DNA molecules that occur during sexual reproduction. Consider the following two rules:

"000" / "##0"
"001" / "##0"

These rules have the same action and their conditions differ in only one position. If the condition in either rule is mutated to have a don't care in the third position, then a more general rule is created:

"00#" / "##0"

This new rule is preferred over the first two rules because it can be applied in both situations where the first two rules apply. As the new rule gets used, it acquires strength. The first two rules are not used, and their strength is reduced. Eventually, they become sufficiently weak that they are eliminated. (This assumes, of course, that these rules are functional!)

The genetic operators depend upon dynamic strengths to judge the fitness of each rule.

2.4. User Environment

The classifier system functions as a machine. A user feeds it some initial messages and rules. Commands are given to apply genetic operators or to generate the next list of messages. These messages are inspected. If a goal state is reached, then the classifier system is rewarded with a pay-off. If a failure state is reached (as happens when the classifier is playing a game and makes an illegal move), then a negative pay-off occurs. Otherwise, the process is repeated.
No matter whether the classifier system "wins" or "loses", the rules and adjusted strengths are an improved description of the application problem. This description may not agree with a human description, but it still makes the classifier better prepared to solve the same problem again. The new information should be used in further trials, or saved and reloaded at a later time.

2.5. Classifier Example

To demonstrate how a classifier system can be used, here is a simple example which teaches the classifier to turn on a light if two switches are in same position, and to turn off the light otherwise. This example is easy because only one message is exchanged between the programming language and the classifier system at each step.

Messages need three bits: two for the switches and one for the light. Let "0" mean that a switch (or the light) is off and let "1" mean on. Then the message string:

"010"

says that the first switch is off (left bit), the second switch is on (middle bit), and the light is off (right bit).

The classifier is expected to find a set of legal rules for turning the light on and off. At least one initial rule must be given to the classifier so that it can create other more meaningful rules. Using the syntax of the pre-defined functions described in a later chapter, we can supply a dummy rule:

```
rule({"00#","##0"});
```

telling the classifier to turn the light off if both switches are off. This is not one of the legal rules that we want the classifier to find!

The classifier is trained by picking random test cases until it makes at least 99 (for example) correct answers between failures:
correct := 0;
while (correct < 99)
do
    # generate and test
end;

The first part of the "generate and test" procedure is to apply genetic operators to the classifier rule list:

crossover();
invert();
mutable();

These operators create new rules which may or may not be legal. The rules are tested by choosing switch and light settings at random and sending these settings to the classifier as a message. Let first be the first switch, second be the second switch, and light be the light:

first := random(2);
second := random(2);
light := random(2);

assigns all three variables to be non-negative random integers less than 2 (that is, 0 or 1). A message can be created by converting the numbers (above) into the characters "0" or "1", and then concatenating the characters together into a string:

new := "01"[first+1]
      + "01"[second+1]
      + "01"[light+1];

This string new is sent to the classifier with:

message(new);

Suppose that the switches are on and the light is off. Then the message:
message("110");

will be sent to the classifier. The classifier is told to apply its rules to the current message list (consisting of one message in this example):

    generate();

generating one new message as the first element in the global variable messlist. If the resulting message has the correct setting for the light (and does not change the switches):

    if (messlist[1][3] = "01"[(first=second)+1])
    and (messlist[1][1:2] = new[1:2])

then the classifier is rewarded and the number of correct answers is incremented:

    then
      payoff(999);
      correct := correct + 1;

where "999" is just a large number with no special meaning. If the light has the wrong setting, then the classifier is punished:

    else
      payoff(-999);
      correct := 0;
    end;

This random testing is repeated until the classifier gives consistently good results, at which point it should have exactly four strong rules in the global variable rulelist:

    "00#" / "##1"
    "01#" / "##0"
    "10#" / "##0"
    "11#" / "##1"
(returning to Holland's syntax for specifying rules). Depending upon how the classifier is implemented, it may prefer to replace the don't cares ('#') in the actions with the literal bits from the conditions.

2.6. Observations

Much of the description above assumes restrictions which are only necessary for keeping the classifier system simple:

(1) Replacing fixed-length strings with variable-length strings would allow the classifier to create longer messages and rules to encode additional information observed about the problem domain. The cost would be in sign-extending older messages or rules.

(2) Instead of having one or more conditions per rule, we could allow zero or more conditions. A rule with zero conditions would be equivalent to a message, since the null condition can be defined as true. A general implementation could then remove the distinction between messages and rules!

(3) Without strong initial rules, the classifier system randomly creates and eliminates a large number of rules before it reaches a state with some pay-off (however small). Then it randomly searches near the first pay-off. If the state space is considered to be a flat surface, then the system acts like a drunk sailor wandering around a lamp post. (This is known as a "random walk" in probability theory. See [Fe68] for a description, and for the more general case of Markov processes.) Only when the classifier develops rules leading to a goal state does this behavior moderate. Hence, one suggestion for improving the performance of a classifier system is to initially train it in situations very close to a goal state.

(4) Bit strings are deceptive. Because they have only two values (zero or one), they make the problem of coding an application look simple. This simplicity is not real, and can result in different performance depending upon the coding scheme. For example, if a field in a classifier message has three possible values (say: yes, no,
and maybe), then two bits must be allocated. One scheme is:

\[
\begin{align*}
00 &= \text{yes} \\
01 &= \text{no} \\
10 &= \text{maybe}
\end{align*}
\]

If this field is randomly changed ("mutated"), then it should have an equal chance of going from one value to another. The classifier system does not respect this desire. By mutating a bit at random, it can turn "yes" into "no" or "maybe", "no" into "yes", and "maybe" into "yes" — but it can never turn "no" into "maybe" or vice versa. (Ignoring, of course, the possibility of the illegal combination 11.) Thus, the coding of message fields affects the performance of the classifier system.
3. Representation of Data

The representation of data is a major decision in any programming language. The amount of work required to implement basic operators such as addition ("+") is proportional to the number of different data types which may appear as operands.

3.1. Numbers

Numbers are necessary for representing the "strength" of rules in the classifier system. Either real numbers or integers are acceptable. (Even if the classifier wants real numbers, integers can be scaled by the communication routines.) Numbers are also necessary for general programming in the classifier language. It would be hard to loop through a set of statements, or to count objects, without numbers.

Stealing a trick from APL [Gi76], the user has no control over the internal representation of numbers: all numbers are double-precision floating-point. The effective range of double-precision real numbers on most computers (17 decimal digits) is larger than the range of long integers (10 digits), so the user will never notice that integer calculations are being done in floating-point. Any additional overhead caused by the floating-point arithmetic is buried in the other actions of the compiler.
3.2. Strings

The definition of strings is harder to decide. Should strings be arrays of characters (as is done in APL, "C", and Pascal)? Should strings be a basic data type (completely replacing the concept of an individual character)? Are bit strings different than ordinary strings? These questions (and more) arose before a rather "obvious" choice was made.

Strings need to be built up from characters when it is important to manipulate individual characters. This would happen, for example, if a string was a card image where each column had a separate meaning. In the classifier system, messages are assumed to be composed of fields. Is it reasonable to assume that fields will be one character long? That is, should we assume that the user will want to manipulate messages by changing individual bits? (Remember, one character in a message is one "bit" in a bit string.) Implied is a further assumption that all fields can be encoded as one bit — which has already been contradicted by a previous "yes", "no", or "maybe" example. Hence, it is unlikely that the user will work only with individual characters. Manipulating fields in a bit string will involve groups of characters. Groups of characters are otherwise known as strings!

Now, if strings are a basic data type, is there a difference between "regular" strings used for text (as in output to the user) and "bit" strings used for binary patterns? We could have separate definitions for text strings versus bit strings by putting text strings in double quotes ("”) and bit strings in single quotes (’’):

"this is a text string"
‘00100#111’

Would this buy us anything? Are the operators applied to bit strings completely different than the operators applied to normal strings? For example, will we want to subscript ("index") bit strings but never regular strings? Will we only want to write out regular strings as text to the user, but never bit strings? Is there any situation where bit strings and regular strings will need to be combined? Better yet, is there any situation where we will have a string and not know what kind of string it is?
Too many questions like these were asked, and too much code was duplicated, before the observation at the beginning of this chapter was formalized: doubling the number of data types doubles the amount of work during implementation. Bit strings and text strings are both implemented as strings. For most operators, bit strings are treated no differently than any other string. Only when an operator requires interpretation are bit strings treated in special ways. (Example bit string operators are *and*, *or*, and *not*. Please refer to Appendix A for a complete description of the string operators.)

3.3. Lists

Numbers and strings need to be collected together for at least one obvious reason and one not-so-obvious reason. The obvious reason is the representation of rules: a classifier rule has a condition part, an action part, and a strength number. We could force the condition part to consist of exactly one bit string. Then to create a new rule, we would need to send a condition string, an action string, and a strength. To print a rule, we could print the condition string followed by the action string followed by the strength. However, if we return the rule so that the user can manipulate it, then we must have a data object which is capable of holding two strings and a number.

What kind of object can hold two strings and a number? An array that allows elements to be of different types (which is not legal in Pascal or "C"). Or a record with one string field for the condition, another string field for the action, and a numeric field for the strength.

A less obvious problem is the representation of fields within a message. Ideally, we would like to name the fields in the Pascal style of records. If the data in our language was strongly typed (as in Pascal), then we would know what values were legal in every part of each piece of data. Creating a message would then be a matter of declaring a variable of the appropriate type and assigning values to each field. This can be done (and is done) in many compiled languages where the user types his program into a file, compiles it with a compiler to produce object code, and then runs the object code. This suffers from a lack
of interaction. Why should a user type:

```pascal
m : message;
m.first := yes;
m.middle := no;
m.end := maybe;
```

just to create a message which will be converted into the bit string:

```
"000110"
```

Given the choice between typing six bits in quotes and four lines of Pascal, the user will slowly type the bits (and swear about how obscure they are). Of course, there is no need to use pure Pascal syntax. We could introduce new delimiters to create an object with an assumed data type. For example:

```
< yes, no, maybe >
```

might be a shorthand way of creating something of type "message". This works well if there are only a few data types with special syntax, such as classifier messages and rules. Unfortunately, big messages and rules are composed from smaller less-complicated pieces which still may be big enough to need their own special syntax. Changing the language to allow for any number of special cases gets ridiculous.

The syntax used in the previous "<>" example looks suspiciously like LISP lists. The only difference is that we are assuming a fixed interpretation of the data types. Going back to the more obvious need for collections of data, a point was ignored which strongly implies a list structure. The condition part of a rule consists of one or more condition bit strings. Representing exactly one condition was shown to be easy. Having two conditions is equally easy, with both records and arrays, because conditions have the same "type". Exactly three conditions causes no new problems. In fact, any exact number of conditions can always be represented with either records or arrays. The same is true if a maximum number of conditions can be assumed (by replacing unused conditions with some "null" value). The phrase "one or more" does not specify a limit. If we assume a limit, then the
programming language will be unable to support general classifier systems. Hence, we must not assume a maximum number of conditions. Arrays that are declared with fixed sizes cannot be used here. Records that are declared with a fixed number of fields (even "variant" records in Pascal) can not be used. Some structure that has a variable number of entries must be used.

LISP collects data together in lists. A list is either empty, or contains elements. If it is empty, it looks like this:

\[
( )
\]

If the list is not empty, then it contains one or more elements separated by spaces. Each element is either an atom or a list. The following are examples of legal lists (with simple values):

\[
(3)
\]

\[
(dog)
\]

\[
(3\ dogs\ (sat\ in)\ a\ lake)
\]

Even programs in LISP are lists!

Data in classifier systems is represented by lists in the programming language. No data type checking is performed on the list elements, because classifier data is sufficiently simple that type checking is unnecessary. Without strong typing, there is no need for type declarations. Without type declarations, variables are whatever they are assigned to be, and do not need to be declared in advance. Type and variable declarations are a major part of traditional language grammars. Thus, a non-traditional grammar will be required. The only concession is purely syntactical: "(" and ")" are commonly used as parentheses in algebraic expressions, so different characters should be used for delimiting lists. "{" and "}" have been chosen because they are familiar as set notation.

Please refer to Appendix A for a complete description of the list operators, and for data objects in general.
3.4. Internal Representation

The classifier programming language has numbers, strings, and lists. Numbers are always double-precision floating-point. Strings consist of zero or more characters. Lists have zero or more elements, each of which may be a number, a string, or another list.

To represent a number, we must tell "C" to declare space for the number:

\[ \text{NUMBER number;} \]

where \text{NUMBER} is \#defined by the "fainc.h" module to be the "C" \text{double} type. To represent a string, we must declare space for an array of characters:

\[ \text{char string[MAXSTRING];} \]

says that \text{string} is an array of characters indexed from zero to \text{MAXSTRING}−1. Of course, this assumes that all strings have the same length (\text{MAXSTRING}), and that no space is wasted by padding trivial strings to the maximum length. A more reasonable method is to dynamically allocate strings by some as yet unspecified means, and to save the address of the string:

\[ \text{char * string;} \]

To allow strings to be signed (as in classifier conditions), we must save the sign of each string:

\[ \text{int sign;} \]

where \text{sign} is either +1 for a positive string or −1 for a negated string.

Numeric and string values are stored in a "C" structure known as \text{ValueThing}:
#define ValNUMBER 703
#define ValSTRING 705

typedef struct ValThing {
  NUMBER number;
  int sign;
  char * string;
  int type;
} ValThing;

where type identifies the data type in the structure according to the symbols ValNUMBER and ValSTRING. These #define's are prefixed with "Val" to avoid confusion with similar lexical tokens which are defined later. Although the number field is used only for numbers, and sign only for strings (and lists), these two fields are not combined — even at the expense of extra code — to keep the code readable and to provide a degree of internal error checking. (See the CheckSign routine.)

Lists are represented as linked lists. A list is a value structure with a type field of:

#define ValSET 704

Lists have signs (defined as for strings). Lists also point to the first element in the list:

struct ValueThing * next;

next may be the address of a ValueThing, which is the first element, or it may be the NULL pointer. If next is NULL, then the list is the empty list, because it has no elements:

```
+---+
| list |
|     |
|     |
|     |
|     |
\-----

next = NULL
```

If next is not NULL, then it points to a value structure of type:
```c
#define ValELEMENT 702
```

An element has no sign, is not visible to the user, and only serves to connect value structures containing real data. Elements have next pointers along with this pointers:

```c
struct ValueThing * this;
```

this is the address of a value structure for a number, string, or another list:

```
    element   this
     ^        |
      |       next
```

When lists and elements are linked together, data objects which look small to the user are expanded into much larger (but very regular) structures. For example, the list:

```c
{1, "hello", {3, 4}}
```

has three elements: a number, a string, and a list (whose elements are two numbers). Internally, this is stored as:
This example is a visual answer to questions such as "why does a list point to its first element through next instead of this"? this always points to a complete data object, that is, an object which would be legal even without the presence of the list. Lists are created recursively; there is no difference between the structure of a list which appears by itself and a list which is an element in another list. (The next element in a list is always accessed through next independent of whether the current value structure is an element or a list.)

Lists in this language are not as compact as the lists in LISP. The basic change is the addition of a ValSET structure in front of what would be the LISP list. This places information about the data type in the data itself, without having to reference some external dictionary. Further, the LISP definitions allow sublists to be rooted at each element (see the cdr function); here elements are not legal data objects by themselves, and hence are not legal as sublists. The choice is more than just a question of representation.
LISP does not copy values when creating a list. If the same value is used more than once, then changing one reference to the value will change all other references. This is a very convenient property for experienced users, especially when combined with a copy-on-demand function, but violates an informal principle known as the "law of least astonishment" (attributed to the University of Michigan programmers who wrote the MTS operating system). This law states that when the user types a command, the system should do the simplest and most obvious action which is consistent with the phrasing of the command. The classifier language will be used in an interactive environment. The user will be typing commands, observing the results, and then typing more commands. If he assigns a value to a variable early in his session, then this variable should retain the same value throughout the session, until he explicitly changes it. LISP may turn a variable into a reference to some other variable, print the correct value now, but later indirectly change the value of the referenced variable. The frustration of the user can be extreme, especially when the original reference has long since vanished from the screen and the user's memory.

To keep users happy, and to reduce the author's work, unique copies of all elements are made when a list is created.

Why are elements forced to point to complete data objects? Elements could themselves contain the value, along with a link to the next element. The reason has to do with assignment. Lists replace arrays and records. The user will want to change values within a list. If elements contained the values, then the elements would have to be overwritten to assign a new value (to avoid damaging forward and backward pointers). Having a *this* pointer to the element's value allows the assignment to be done by replacing one pointer — much faster.

Here is the full definition of a value structure, as taken from the "fainc.h" module. Comments have been removed, due to the limited width of this formatted page:
#define ValDUMMY 701
#define ValELEMENT 702
#define ValNUMBER 703
#define ValSET 704
#define ValSTRING 705

typedef struct ValueThing {
    struct ValueThing * next;
    NUMBER number;
    int sign;
    char * string;
    struct ValueThing * this;
    int type;
} ValueThing;

(Dummy values are explained later — much later.)

One final note: The "C" programming language allows pointers to be NULL. Internally, the classifier language must check next pointers to see if they are NULL. Checking this pointers is not much more difficult. If we allow NULL values for both of these pointers, a list may have elements which point to NULL. We could hide this fact from the user, or we can make it visible. By creating a special symbol (called "NULL"), the user may have NULL values in his lists. Lists are recursively defined. If lists can have NULL elements, then NULL values must be legal by themselves. NULL values hence become a fourth type of data object. This may seem a minor point now, but having explicit NULL values makes other parts of the language much easier. (For example, what is the value of a global or local variable which has not been assigned a value? Answer: NULL!)
4. Lexical Analysis

Input from the user is structured as a small programming language. Programming languages are parsed (understood) by recognizing pieces called "tokens", combining tokens into statements according to syntax rules, and then executing semantic actions associated with the rules. The work of recognizing tokens in the input language is done by the lexical routines.

4.1. Overview of Lexical Analysis

An example will help to explain what a token is. Consider the following expression:

\[(\text{old} + \text{new}) > 25\]

This expression adds the value of the variable \text{old} to the value of the variable \text{new} and compares the sum against the number 25. There are seven tokens in this expression (ignoring the spaces):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>token number</th>
<th>token string</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Informally, tokens are input words separated by punctuation.
Different languages place different demands upon the lexical routines. In some languages, the recognition of tokens depends upon the current context of the parser. In an extreme case, the same input may be interpreted in different ways depending upon where it appears in a program:

\[\text{elseif}\]

might be recognized as the token "else" followed by the token "if" in a conditional statement, but as the variable name "elseif" in an assignment statement. Rules like this are hard to implement, because the same sequence of input characters can generate a variable number of tokens.

Less extreme is the case where input is always broken into the same tokens, but the meaning of the tokens may change. A confusing but legal example comes from the PL/I language (page 87 of [Ah86]):

\[
\text{IF THEN THEN THEN = ELSE; ELSE ELSE = THEN;}
\]

To quote [Ah86]: "In PL/I, keywords are not reserved; thus, the rules for distinguishing keywords from identifiers are quite complicated". The lexical routines must have full knowledge of the parser's context before they can break input characters into tokens. Sharing this much information makes a compiler more difficult to write, because the lexical analysis can not be cleanly separated from syntax and semantic analysis.

To avoid these problems, languages such as Pascal reserve some of the possible input words, and force reserved words to have a fixed meaning. Examples are words like "if", "begin", and "end" in Pascal. "if" is always the first part of a conditional statement; "begin" always introduces a compound statement which must terminate with "end". None of these reserved words may be used as variable names. Using "if" where a variable name is required will generate a syntax error.

Removing context sensitivity from the lexical level allows the lexical routines to run almost independently of the syntax or semantic routines. The lexical routines are given complete control over the input stream. When called, they look for the next token, and
return this token to the caller. Between calls, they do nothing. In fact, the lexical routines act as a subroutine for the syntax routines. While the syntax routines are putting together an expression, they call the lexical routines whenever the syntax rules say that there may be another token in the expression. When the syntax routines have enough tokens, they reduce rules, execute semantics, etc. The syntax routines never try to read the input themselves.

With the UNIX operating system, lexical analysis can be done by writing your own program, or by using LEX to generate a lexical function called yylex from a table of rules written as regular expressions. LEX encourages you to create simple tokens via reserved words and operators, but allows action statements written in "C" which can potentially add as much context sensitivity as required.

4.2. Classifier Lexical Tokens

You have already seen two of the input tokens in the classifier language: numbers and strings. A number is a sequence of digits, possibly containing a decimal point, and optionally followed by an exponent. A much-simplified version of the LEX rule for a number is:

```
[0-9]+  
```

which says "a character from 0 to 9 repeated one or more times". The sign of a number (" + " or " - ") is not part of the token, or else expressions like:

```
5-3
```

would be treated as two number tokens, with the minus sign as part of the second number, when it should remain as a subtraction operator. Associated with the number rule is an action:

```c
{ yylval.number = atof(yytext); return(TokNUMBER); }
```
Unless you have used LEX before, or are reading the manual now, this explanation will not be very helpful. First, *yyval* is a special place where information is returned to the syntax routines (YACC). Second, *number* is a field within the structure or union for the YACC stack type. Third, *atof* is a "C" function to convert an ASCII character string to a double-precision floating-point number. Fourth, *yytext* is where LEX stores the current input token. Fifth, *TokNUMBER* is a flag returned to the syntax routines to indicate that a number was found. (Remember *ValNUMBER* and the comment about the "Val" prefix? Well, here is the corresponding "Tok" prefix.)

Interested readers may refer to the listing of the "falex.1" module in Appendix B. The remainder of this discussion will avoid the technical details.

Strings are recognized when LEX finds a delimiter which may begin a string: double quote ("), closing quote or acute accent ('), and opening quote or grave accent ('). LEX is not asked to find the entire string, because it is unable to properly handle "escape" sequences within a string. A function by the name of *LexString* is called instead. *LexString* builds up the string in a static buffer using input bytes supplied by LEX. The string ends when a matching delimiter is found. Between the starting and ending delimiters, there may be regular text characters and escape sequences. An escape sequence puts a special character into the string. Backslash followed by "n" (that is, \n without the quotes) is replaced by a single newline character; \t is replaced by a tab character; \" is replaced by a single backslash character; and backslash followed by the string delimiter puts one delimiter into the string as text. Before returning the string to the syntax routines, *LexString* allocates enough dynamic memory to hold the string (plus a null byte as a terminator) and then copies its static buffer to the dynamic memory. The caller is given a string token (*TokSTRING*) and the address of the dynamic copy.

The next most interesting tokens are comments. Comments are thrown away by the lexical routines before they can reach the syntax routines. This makes comments invisible to the syntax level. Hence, the only restriction on comments is that they must not conflict with anything used in the syntax grammar. Pascal uses '{' and '}' to delimit comments; the classifier language has already chosen these two symbols to delimit lists. We could use
two other paired symbols: anything between these symbols would be a comment. LEX allows tokens to specify input that extends over multiple lines. Every part of each input line matching the token is placed into LEX's token buffer (yytext). yytext is, by default, 200 bytes long. Putting arbitrarily-sized comments into such a small buffer is almost guaranteed to crash LEX.

Alternatively, we could use the same trick as for strings and call a function to "process" the comments. The function definition would be trivial: read until a delimiter marking the end of the comment, or an end-of-file, whichever comes first. Possible delimiters are "/*" and "*/" familiar to "C" and PL/1 programmers. This would work, but there is an even easier way used by the UNIX shells. Pick some character not found in the language, such as "#". (Even though # is used in bit strings, there is no conflict because strings always exist between string delimiters.) Tell the user that everything from # to the end of the line is ignored. Then define the following LEX rule:

"#" .*

with no action. This rule matches # followed by any number of characters except for the newline. (And, as an added joke, comments are introduced by a character which means "don't care" in bit strings!)

In order of their appearance in "falex.1", the following tokens are also recognized: Reserved words ("and", "do", "else", etc.) are accepted in any mixture of upper- or lower-case, supposedly as a convenience to the user, but actually to prevent the user from writing a program which misuses a reserved word by slightly changing its appearance. Relational operators all return TokRELOP for their token number, with further information stored in yyval, since this removes seven operators from the syntax grammar, effectively reducing in half the size of the YACC finite state machine. Variable names are any letter followed by zero or more letters or digits; upper- and lower-case are important in variable names. Special symbols with unambiguous meanings are accepted. For example, all of the "C" relational operators are supported:
==  !=  <  <=  >=  >

as well as the Pascal relational operators:

=  <>  <  <=  >=  >

The assignment operator is from Pascal:

:=

"%" is accepted for the reserved word "mod"; "&" and "&&" are accepted for "and"; "|" and "||" for "or"; etc. White space (blanks, tabs, and newlines) are ignored. Finally, all single-character tokens which do not require conversion (such as "*") are returned directly by a default rule.

4.3. Test for Lexical Routines

The lexical routines are called from deep within the YACC-generated parser. If the information they return is bad, then YACC will produce unexpected "syntax error" messages. YACC does not tell you why there is an error, or what the offending token is, only that the input does not agree with its rules. (You can use the YYDEBUG flag, if you dare.) Fighting with YACC is a needless trouble, especially when the lexical routines are perfectly happy to run without YACC.

To test the lexical routines, a program called "telex" was written. telex allocates space for the global variable yyval, where LEX expects to return information about the tokens, calls yylex for a token, prints the token’s name and value, and then calls for another token. This procedure continues until you type an end-of-file on standard input.

telex is a quick—and—dirty test routine which took less than an hour to complete, found a number of trivial mistakes in the LEX rules, and saved numerous hours of aggravation when LEX was finally attached to the syntax routines.
5. Syntax and Semantic Analysis

The classifier programming language will be used in an interactive environment (that is, will talk to a user sitting at a terminal). Interaction is more than just typing a program into a file, running it through a compiler, and observing output on the terminal. Interaction means trying many things — some right, some wrong — all during the same programming session. After each attempt, something is learned about the problem, and this learning guides further attempts. The final product may well be a program saved in a file, but such an inflexible mode should not be forced upon the user.

As tokens are read by the lexical routines, they are put together according to syntax rules. The syntax rules are defined by a compiler-compiler language known as YACC. YACC accepts LALR(1) grammars (see [Ah86]). For our purposes, an LALR(1) grammar parses input starting with the leftmost token, reduces rules according to the rightmost derivation, and allows one character of look-ahead when deciding between two rules with the same partial derivation. Pascal is an example of an LALR(1) language.

5.1. Desirable Features

As statements are read from the user's input, how much should be compiled at each step, and what is done with the compiled result?

Recall from Chapter 3 that data in a list structure is not strongly typed. Individual elements may be numbers, strings, lists, or the NULL value. The type of the data is known only when the list is put together, and may change later if the user assigns a new value to one of the elements. In many languages, before using a variable, you must declare the variable by specifying the variable's name and an existing type. Pascal programs make declarations in the following order:
— constants
— types
— variables
— functions or procedures

Constant declarations must precede type declarations, which must precede variable declarations, etc. You are not allowed to declare a block of related constants and variables, followed by a second block of different related constants and variables. The impression is that the compiler will work only if all constants appear before all types before all variables. Is this necessary? No. Consider the legal declarations in a function or procedure:

— constants
— types
— variables
— functions or procedures

That is, exactly the same declarations which are legal in the main program. A variable declaration in the main program may appear before a constant declaration in a function or procedure. While these new declarations are local to the function, they still demonstrate that Pascal must be prepared to handle any declaration in the presence of all other declarations. Why, then, do declarations have a fixed order? To make the language definition more uniform. (The convenience of the user is not important.)

The classifier language does not have strong typing of data. Without type declarations, there is no need for variable declarations: to create a variable, assign it a value. The type of the variable becomes the type of the value. Without type and variable declarations, there is no need for constant declarations (if you want a constant, assign a value to a variable and then don’t change it). This leaves only function or procedure declarations.

Declarations are a major part of the Pascal language: by forcing the user to say so much about his variables, the compiler can perform static checking to test the validity of expressions before they are executed. After the declarations come the executable statements. An executable statement calls a function or procedure, assigns a new value to a
variable, or is a control statement which can execute any number of other statements. Given that the classifier language has function declarations and executable statements, in what order should they appear? The user is assumed to be sitting at an interactive terminal. Suppose he defines a function, and then tries to call it with an executable statement. The function may work, or it may fail. If the function works, then the user is happy; if it fails, he may redefine the function to fix a mistake. Then another executable statement will be needed to test the new function. Thus, the definition of functions and the execution of statements will be intermixed, and no specific order should be assumed.

The classifier language is an interpreter (not a true compiler). One function definition or executable statement is read at each step. Statements are converted into parse trees, and the parse trees are executed. The results of the execution (if any) are shown to the user. Statements can be simple expressions (such as adding two numbers), or complex programs making full use of the conditional and looping facilities (*for, if, repeat, while*). Correctly formed function definitions do not require any action; the parse tree for the function is saved so that it can be executed later via a function call.

The syntax grammar for the classifier language may resemble Pascal and other compiled languages, but the semantics of the language are closer to APL or LISP where anything and everything can be redefined at any time.

### 5.2. Language Grammar

Before explaining how individual parts of the language grammar were implemented, it is helpful to summarize the grammar in a more formal notation. Backus–Naur forms (BNF) are commonly used (see [Bo81] for Waterloo Pascal); here it is more natural to extract the YACC definitions from the "fayac.y" module in Appendix B. By annotating the YACC code, the curious reader may review the more detailed grammar.

At each call to the parser, one production of "program" is parsed:
program
  :
  | function ';'
  | statement ';;'
says that a "program" can be empty (end-of-file), a function definition followed by a
semicolon, or a statement followed by a semicolon. A function definition is:

function
  : TokFUNCTION TokNAME func_head func_body TokEND

That is, a function definition consists of the token "function" (TokFUNCTION) followed
by a name (TokNAME), a function header, a function body, and the token "end" (Tok-
END). A function header is:

  func_head
  :
  | '（' '）'
  | '（' func_pars '）'

allowing for a function header which is missing (the first rule), has only the left and right
parentheses (second rule), or has function parameters between the parentheses. Parameters
are a list of names:

  func_pars
  :
  | TkNAME
  | func_pars ',' TkNAME

Lists in YACC are defined by their first instance (first rule) along with their repeated
instances (second rule). The function body is:
func_body
  :
  | TokDO stmt_list

Again, the first rule allows a null body. The second rule is for the normal case when the
token "do" precedes a list of statements:

stmt_list
  : statement
  | stmt_list `;` statement

which is a left-recursive production like the function parameters. Statements can be:

statement
  :
  | expr
  | for_stmt
  | if_stmt
  | repeat_stmt
  | while_stmt

null (empty), expressions, for statements, if statements, repeat statements, or while state-
ments. Expressions are simple terms or operators applied to other expressions:
expr
: expr_term
| TokNOT expr
| '+' expr
| '-' expr
| expr '*' expr
| expr '+' expr
| expr '-' expr
| expr '/' expr
| expr TokAND expr
| expr TokASSIGN expr
| expr TokDIV expr
| expr TokMOD expr
| expr TokOR expr
| expr TokPOWER expr
| expr TokRELOP expr
| '()' expr
| '{} expr_set '{}
| expr '[' expr_index ']'`

Lists are right-recursive productions which may be empty:

expr_set
: 
| expr_slist

expr_slist
: expr
| expr ',' expr_slist

Index expressions are left-recursive, but allow two different forms (with or without the colon for a subrange):
expr_index
  : expr
  | expr `::` expr
  | expr_index `,)` expr
  | expr_index `,)` expr `::` expr

All expressions are eventually reduced to simple terms:

eqv_term
  : TokNAME
  | TokNAME `(,expr_pars,`)`
  | TokNULL
  | TokNUMBER
  | TokSTRING

where the second production is a function call with parameters:

eqv_pars
  :
  | eqv_plist

eqv_plist
  : expr
  | expr_plist `,)` expr

Compound statements group zero or more simple statements together. In the case of a for statement, the syntax is:
for_stmt
    : TokFOR TokNAME for_from for_to for_by for_do TokEND
for_from
    :
    | TokFROM expr
for_to
    :
    | TokTO expr
for_by
    :
    | TokBY expr
for_do
    :
    | TokDO stmt_list

making all parts of a for loop optional except for the name of the index variable. if statements select between two different statement lists depending upon the value of a conditional expression:

if_stmt
    : TokIF expr if_then if_else TokEND
if_then
    :
    | TokTHEN stmt_list
if_else
    :
    | TokELSE stmt_list

(Both the then and the else clauses are optional in if statements.) Finally, repeat and while statements combine a conditional expression with a statement list:
repeat_stmt
  : TokREPEAT stmt_list TokUNTIL expr

while_stmt
  : TokWHILE expr while_do TokEND

while_do
  :
  | TokDO stmt_list

The justification for this grammar follows.

5.3. Simple Executable Statements

A simple statement is an assignment or an expression. An assignment computes the
value of an expression and assigns the result to a variable. An expression by itself is
evaluated, and the result is printed. (This differs from Pascal where you must explicitly
write out the value of an expression before you can see the result.) For example:

5 - 3

is an expression. When evaluated, the result of this expression is the number 2. We would
like the language to immediately print the result of any simple expression:

2

Should the language assume that an expression ends when it sees a newline character (car-
riage return)? This would be convenient for a program pretending to be a desk calculator,
and may be acceptable in a program with simple input, but is not acceptable to a user who
is trying to assign a 100-element list to a variable. (The screens on most terminals are only
80 characters wide.) If newline characters can not be treated as special delimiters, then they
should be ignored like other white space (blanks and tabs). Some other character must be
used to terminate statements. A semicolon was chosen:
5 - 3;

immediately prints the result:

2

The similar-looking assignment:

a := 5 - 3;

defines nothing. Why? When you assign a value to a variable, you can always see the result later by printing the variable. (This makes the assignment operator different than other operators, so that the user does not see the result of every assignment in a function.) Typing:

a;

evaluates a as an expression, printing the result:

2

Hence, a simple statement ends with a semicolon, and prints its result if the statement is not an assignment.

Appendix A lists all of the operators which are legal in an expression. The meaning of the operators closely follows the Pascal language. The operator priorities are determined by YACC %left and %right declaration; instead of the long unambiguous productions which are typical in Pascal language definitions. One notable change is that assignment is done by an operator, not as a distinct assignment statement. This is unusual because it allows assignments to occur in the middle of an expression — the semantics of which are questionable. The semantics are clear when an assignment is used in the traditional form:

variable := expression ;

or the multiple-assignment form:
variable1 := variable2 := expression ;

Inside an expression, the meaning depends upon the order of execution for the various parts of the expression.

YACC does not care about the order of embedded assignments, nor does the classifier language (that is the user’s problem). What YACC does care about is ambiguity. For the sake of an example, assume that the only legal production on the left side of an assignment operator (which is a token of type TokASSIGN) is a variable, where a variable is defined elsewhere to be either a variable name (TokNAME) or a subscripted variable. Assume also that an expression is defined elsewhere by a production called expression. Then the following two rules decide if the input is an assignment or another expression:

```plaintext
statement : variable TokASSIGN expression
           { /* do assignment */ } expression
           { /* print expression */ } ;
```

We need an address on the left side of an assignment so that we know where to assign the value on the right side. For the expression, we need a value. This creates an ambiguity for YACC. Variable names are legal expressions (otherwise, how would you add variable a to variable b?). When YACC sees a variable name, it must decide whether this name matches variable in the first rule, and is reduced as an address, or matches expression in the second rule, and is reduced as a value. Being unable to decide, YACC reports a "reduce/reduce" conflict. To avoid the conflict, the production on the left side of an assignment operator must be the same as the production on the left side of all other operators: an expression.

YACC has a look-ahead token which could decide between the two rules if the only legal left side of an assignment was a variable name (TokNAME), because for all legal assignments, TokASSIGN would be the next token. If the next token was not TokASSIGN, then the input could not be an assignment, and must be an expression.
Pascal avoids this issue by not allowing expressions as complete statements. The convenience of an immediate reply to any expression is too much to give up in an interactive environment. Hence, assignments become just another operator, with an expression on the left side and an expression on the right side. The responsibility of maintaining enough address information to perform the assignment is postponed to the interpreter.

5.4. Creating a Parse Tree

Expressions may be executed while they are being compiled, or they may be saved in a compiled form known as a parse tree and executed later.

Combining execution and compilation has the advantage of removing one layer of software, but has two strong disadvantages: First, the expression must be recompiled every time it is used, even if this occurs inside a for loop! Second, YACC does not look for a complete expression, and then compile the individual pieces; YACC reduces pieces ("productions") each time the right tail of the input matches one of its syntax rules. This right derivation can be confusing to the user, especially when there are errors or other implicit I/O. For example, suppose that the user wants to call the function \( f \), which asks for a number and returns this number as a result, and then add one to the function's result:

\[
f() + 1;
\]

If compilation and execution are combined, then after the user types:

\[
f()
\]

YACC recognizes the function call, and invokes the function:

\[
\text{enter a number:}
\]

where this prompt is written by the function. The user types a number:
which is returned as the function's value. Then YACC starts looking for the rest of the expression, and the user must type:

```
+ 1;
```

and the result 6 is printed. This example may seem contrived (it is), but it demonstrates how confusing execution and I/O can be if compilation and execution are combined. Techniques such as buffering a complete input line help alleviate the problem, but still fail to solve truly abnormal situations where the only appropriate response is to print an error message after only part of the input has been parsed. (Buffering the text for an entire statement looks like an easy solution, but would require a very large buffer because a program can be a single compound statement extending for hundreds or thousands of input lines. Unless the entire statement can be parsed before any part is executed -- which would have to be done by the method in the following paragraphs — parsing must be done in pieces, which can cause statements inside a loop to be parsed many times.)

The alternative is to convert the user’s input into a compiled version known as a parse tree. A parse tree has a node for each operator. The children of a node are parse trees for computing the values of the operands. For example, the expression:

```
(a + b) / 2;
```

adds the value of \(a\) to the value of \(b\), and divides the total by two. As a parse tree, this is represented as:
Of course, if you forget the parentheses:

\[ a + b / 2; \]

you get an entirely different parse tree:

The disadvantages to parse trees are that they take time to create, and that they use extra space. The advantages are that a complete statement is parsed before any part is executed (allowing syntax errors to be handled cleanly), and when the same expression is executed many times, a saved tree can be quickly traversed by having a section of code dedicated to each type of operator node.
The semantic actions in the YACC grammar create parse trees. On each call to the YACC function `yyparse`, exactly one function definition or executable statement is parsed. For functions, the body of the function is a parse tree, which is saved as the function's definition. For executable statements, the address of the parse tree is returned to the caller; it is the caller's responsibility to execute the tree. When a syntax error occurs, a NULL pointer is returned instead.

5.5. Compound Executable Statements

The compound statements in this language are `for`, `if`, `repeat`, and `while`. A compound statement groups zero or more simple statements together. The `if` statement is a parse tree node (of type `OpIF`) with three children: an expression, a "then" clause, and an "else" clause:

```
  OpIF
   /   \
expression then clause else clause
```

When executed, `expression` must evaluate to either `false` (defined as the number 0) or `true` (the number 1). If `true`, the statements in the `then` clause are executed; otherwise, the statements in the `else` clause are executed. Both clauses are parse trees; their addresses are saved in the `if` operator node. Either clause may be empty, in which case the NULL pointer replaces the parse tree address.

Multiple statements are grouped together as one parse tree by an `OpSTMT` operator node. Given the trivial `if` statement:
if true
then
  a := 1;
  b := 2;
  c := 3;
end;

the *then* clause is stored as a left-recursive structure:

(The complete parse trees for the assignments are not shown.) This is known as a left-recursive production because the leftmost child of each node must be executed first, or else the statements will not be executed in the same order as they were given by the user. YACC — and all other LR parsers — encourage left recursion, as this limits the maximum depth of their internal stack.

Right recursion is used to create lists. Lists are built up in the same way as compound statements; only the name of the operator node changes. When the user types:
for a simple list with three numbers as elements, this list can be constructed in one of two ways:

(1) Start with an empty list. For each new element, find the end of the list, and append the new element.

(2) Start with an empty list. Working backwards, from the last element to the first, put each element at the front of the list. When all elements are on the list, add a list header.

The first method is left-recursive, and involves repeatedly finding the end of the created list (unless extra tail pointers are maintained). The second method is right-recursive, and allows most of the work to be done by the structure of the parse tree:
While the list is built from right-to-left, the user may have elements which need to be executed left-to-right (i.e. function calls or assignments). This is handled by evaluating the left side of a node, recursively evaluating the right side, and then joining the elements together as the recursion unwinds. Right recursion joins elements by setting one pointer and returning; see Chapter 3. (The interpreter has a huge stack for intermediate values, so this doesn't cause a problem.)
5.6. Functions and Procedures

Function definitions are nothing more than named parse trees with local variables. Functions have zero or more parameters. Each parameter is a "local variable" in the sense that the function may change the value of the variable, but this change does not affect the caller — with one exception. The first local variable always has the same name as the function. If a value is assigned to the function's name, then this value is returned to the caller as the function's result.

The names of the local variables are stored in a local symbol table, along with offsets into the parameter list. When a variable is referenced in a function, the local symbol table is searched before the global symbol table. If a local symbol is found, then a parse tree node of type OpNAME will point to the local symbol table entry. If a global symbol is found, then the node will point to the global entry. If no symbol is found, then a new global symbol is created with the default value of NULL.

When a function calls another function, the number and the type of the parameters are not checked at compile time: there is no way of knowing whether the new function will be redefined before the function call is actually executed. Similarly, a function may or may not return a result. Pascal distinguishes (at compile time) between functions and procedures by whether a result is returned. Arbitrary redefinition allows what is now a function to become a procedure, and vice versa. Mistakes allow a function to sometimes return a result and sometimes not. Hence, functions and procedures can not be distinguished in this language at compile time, and should be treated as the same class of objects: functions.
5.7. Error Productions

There are no semantic errors in the grammar: any statement which is syntactically correct has semantic meaning. Because almost every variable and function can be redefined at any time, there is no point in checking the "types" in an expression against the current values assigned to variables. This is particularly true in functions where a global variable may be referenced (say, in an division operator) with a current value which is inappropriate (say, a list). To generate a semantic error message would be to assume that the global variable will not be changed to a more appropriate value before the function is executed.

Syntax errors are handled by YACC error productions. YACC is notoriously poor at handling errors in arbitrary grammars, so the secret is to design a grammar which agrees with YACC's limited abilities. All statements end with a semicolon (;), including function definitions. Extra semicolons are allowed (that is, null statements are ignored). Semicolons are not used anywhere else in the grammar. Only one statement or function definition is parsed on each call to yyparse. Hence, skipping past a semicolon will lose at most one statement. At this point, it should be safe to call the parser for the next statement.

(By making the semicolon into a unique token with only one purpose, YACC does not need a look-ahead token to recognize the end of a statement. Further, since no other token begins with a semicolon, LEX does not need a look-ahead character to recognize the semicolon as a token. Hence, at the end of each statement, neither LEX nor YACC have buffered input. This is what makes it safe to return from YACC's yyparse after every statement. Nothing can be lost before the next statement is begun. The same safety applies to redirecting LEX's input when the load function starts reading from a new file: LEX's input file pointer yyin is replaced by a new file pointer, and LEX never notices!)

A sample error production for the addition operator is:
| expr \'+\' expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpPLUS, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); } 
| expr \'+\' error err_expr_plus \';\'
  { YYABORT; }

If the addition has proper syntax, then a parse tree node is created. Otherwise, after an expression and the definite token "+" have been found, the error production "err_expr_plus" is called, and YACC starts to look for the next semicolon. The error production looks like this:

err_expr_plus :
  { skippy("error after \'+\' in expression"); } 

This production has a null rule, which means that it always gets reduced. Upon finding a syntax error, YACC reduces this rule, causing the function skippy to be called with the string "error after \'+\' in expression". skippy is the brand name of a peanut butter; it is also the name of a function which prints a caller's error message followed by the warning "skipping to next semicolon \';\'". Then YACC goes back to the previous rule, which now looks like this:

| expr \'+\' error \';\'
  { YYABORT; }

Whenever the special token error is followed by a character, YACC throws away all input until it finds that character, and then reduces the production. Reducing this error production forces the parser to abort with an error code returned to the caller (YYABORT). The calling program must check the error code, ignore the incomplete parse tree, and then call for the next statement.

The null rule is a clever way of printing an error message and warning the user to type a semicolon before YACC starts throwing away input. The user may find this funny, in that the compiler is telling him how to fix a problem already known to the compiler, but
this is a helpful way to produce YACC error messages in an interactive environment.

Syntax error productions were added to the YACC grammar as follows: First, an error production was added to the initial production ("program") as a last chance error recovery when the input fits no rules. Second, after a definite token (not an optional token) is found, then all productions which use the same token in the same place are given the same error production. Third, no error productions are placed after a definite token which is followed by an optional clause (such as the then clause in an if statement) — because YACC's default action in optional productions is to reduce the production and to postpone recognizing errors until a required production fails.

5.8. Other Features

The YACC grammar contains some productions which are not documented for the users, because they are mostly of interest to the author:

1. Null statements are ignored when possible (see the "stmt_list" production), since statements are a relatively expensive node in the interpreter.

2. Missing elements in a list are assumed to be NULL values (see "expr_slist"). For example:

   \[ \{ 1, , 3 \} \]

   is equivalent to the list:

   \[ \{ 1, \text{NULL}, 3 \} \]

This introduces a minor quirk into the language where:

\[ \{ , , \} \text{ eq } \{ \text{NULL}, \text{NULL}, \text{NULL} \} \]

\[ \{ , \} \text{ eq } \{ \text{NULL}, \text{NULL} \} \]

\[ \{ \} \text{ ne } \{ \text{NULL} \} \]
That is, a list consisting of two commas is equivalent to a list with three NULL elements, a list with one comma is equivalent to a list with two NULL elements, but a list with zero commas is still the empty list (zero NULL elements!).

(3) Missing parameters in function calls are treated in the same way as missing elements in a list: they are assumed to be the NULL value. This mirrors the treatment of function parameters by the interpreter.

(4) The Pascal style of begin/end blocks for compound statements is not used. for statements, while statements, and function definitions must have an explicit do before the compound statement, and an explicit end at the end. if statements have optional then and else clauses, but must be terminated by an explicit end. This leads to less confusion about what a piece of code means, and forever removes the "dangling else" problem common to many languages.

5.9. Test for Parse Tree Routines

The grammar for this classifier language does essentially one job: create parse trees. Even functions are mostly defined in terms of their parse trees. To test the grammar means to test the creation of parse trees. Another quick-and-dirty test program called "tepar" was written.

tepar repeatedly calls the YACC-generated function yyparse. The returned status is printed (zero for YYACCEPT and one for YYABORT). If a parse tree is returned, then it is dumped in a crude indented format. Each node in the parse tree is a structure of type ParseThing. Pointers are shown in hexadecimal and values in decimal or as strings (where possible). The following is an example for the list {1,2,3} shown in a previous diagram:
calling yyparse()
{1,2,3};
yyparse() returns 0

at e9c0 STMT two = e980
  at e980 SET one = e940
    at e940 CONCAT one = e800 two = e900
      at e800 NUMBER number = 1
      at e900 CONCAT one = e840 two = e8c0
        at e840 NUMBER number = 2
        at e8c0 CONCAT one = e880
          at e880 NUMBER number = 3

Here, one is the "left" child and two is the "right" child. NULL pointers are not shown, and must be assumed by their absence.

Like telex, tepar found mistakes in the grammar. Many were non-trivial. Early versions of the compound statements had more OpSTMT nodes than were necessary. Numerous operators had their child pointers in the wrong place. Some productions were not being reduced as expected. Many error productions didn't work, or were positioned incorrectly. All of these mistakes were found and corrected before the remainder of the compiler was written. Thus, the syntax grammar was a final feasibility test for the entire language before too much time and effort was expended on a design that was impractical.
6. The Assignment Operator

The design of the assignment operator comes before the design of the parse tree interpreter, because assignment affects the structure of the execution data.

6.1. The Assignment Problem

To allow expressions as complete statements, assignment is an operator, not a statement. Most operators want values for their operands (left side and right side); assignment needs an address on the left and a value on the right. To avoid a YACC conflict, both sides are reduced as expressions. Expressions in a compiled language usually produce values. However, this language is not compiled: it is interpreted, and is not restricted by what most compilers do. If there is a way of keeping address information associated with values so that assignment works correctly, then we can implement expressions as complete statements.

What objects are legal on the left side of an assignment? First, variable names are legal; we always want to be able to assign a new value to a variable:

\[
name := expression ;
\]

where \(expression\) may return any value (including the NULL value). Second, the elements in a named list are assignable:

\[
name [ index ] := expression ;
\]

Third, if the indexed element in a named list is another list, then its elements are also assignable. (That is, the list indexing operator recursively preserves the assignability of the left side.) Fourth, are indexed characters in a string assignable? This would be a reasonable definition. Unfortunately, the way strings are stored makes substring assignments difficult: strings are not sets of individual characters which can be easily changed; they are packed sequences of bytes which must be modified in place. (This is a consequence of having
strings as a basic object rather than characters. Please note that strings can be modified by
subscripting the beginning of the string, concatenating a new middle with "+", and con-
catenating the old subscripted end.)

Thus, we have the following rules for deciding which expressions are assignable:

— named variables are assignable,
— the list indexing operator preserves assignability.

All other operators cancel the assignability of the operands. Hence, we need an assignment
strategy which allows a relatively small number of operators to explicitly create or preserve
assignability, while having a default action which prevents assignment.

6.2. General Solution

Global variables are stored in ValueThing structures. One ValueThing holds one
number, one pointer to a string, or one pointer to the first element in a list (see Chapter
3). Value structures are linked together to form complete lists. The names of the global
variables are stored in a global symbol table. Symbol table entries are of type SymbolThing.
Each entry points to its name, its value, and the next symbol table entry. Assume, for the
moment, that a symbol table entry points to its value via a field declared as:

    ValueThing * value;

Further, assume that sym is the address of a SymbolThing and that val is the address of a
new ValueThing. Then to assign a new value to the global variable, the following steps are
required:

    FreeValue ( sym->value ) ;

That is, free the space allocated to the old value, and then:

    sym->value = val ;
This works for all data objects, even the NULL value when it is represented by the NULL pointer.

If all assignments were to global variables, then the assignment problem would be solved. Expressions are evaluated on a stack (described later, for now assume that the stack points to the value, as compared to containing the value). Stack entries of type StackThing could point to the current value and a symbol table entry. By default, the symbol table pointer would be NULL, meaning that the stack entry is not assignable. When a global variable was used in an expression, its current value would be placed on the execution stack along with the address of its symbol table entry. If the next operator in the expression was an assignment, then it would evaluate the right side, leave this result on the stack, and change the symbol table entry to point to the new value. All other operators would ignore the symbol table entry.

Complications arise when trying to assign values to elements in a list. A ValueThing of type ValELEMENT is not valid data object by itself. Symbol table entries point to valid data objects. Hence, some other method must be used to assign elements.

6.3. Specific Solution #1

To assign global variables, list elements, and later local variables, one solution is as follows:

Give each entry in the execution stack a value pointer, a flag, and an assignment pointer. If the flag is zero, then the entry is not assignable. If the flag is marked "global", then the entry is assignable, and the assignment pointer is the address of a symbol table entry. (Assignment would be done by changing the value field in the symbol table entry to point to the new value.) If the flag is marked "local", then the entry is assignable, and the assignment pointer is the address of a variable local to a function call (the fields of which have not been explained yet). If the flag is marked "element", then the entry is assignable, and the assignment pointer is the address of a ValueThing of type ValELEMENT (change the this field).
This solution looks messy, but all of the tricky code appears only once in the assignment operator.

6.4. Specific Solution #2

A better-looking solution can be found by considering changes to the data structures:

Force all stack entries, symbol table entries, and value structures to have the same format (say, something called ThingThing). Then no assignment flag is necessary on the stack. If the assignment pointer is NULL, then the stack entry is not assignable. If the assignment pointer is not NULL, then it is the address of a ThingThing which can be assigned a new value by changing a pointer field with a common name (say, value).

This solution works by virtue of its brute-force approach to memory management. Combining the fields of many structures into one common structure does one of two things: (a) greatly increases the amount of memory required; or (b) creates a confusing number of "C" union declarations to annoy the programmer who has to type in and debug the code. Both side effects are unacceptable. (This is the programmer speaking!)

6.5. Specific Solution #3

This solution is really a stepping stone to the final solution:

Instead of assigning values by exchanging pointers, overwrite the contents of the existing value structure. This appears to reduce the number of dynamic memory allocations and de-allocations, and to be safe in the sense that any list currently pointing to an element will continue to point to the same element after assignment. (That is, there is no assumption of data being used uniquely!) Stack entries will need two fields: a value pointer and an assignment flag. Assignment is legal if the flag is non-zero, and proceeds by releasing any memory pointed to by the current value (if a list or string), and then replacing all fields in
the value structure with fields from the new value.

The NULL value will cause problems. It is no longer acceptable to use a NULL pointer to indicate that a value is the NULL value, because this NULL pointer would be pushed onto the stack where a value structure pointer is required. Attempting to reassign a value from NULL to anything else would fail because there is no old value structure to overwrite. The NULL value could be removed from the language; then some other default value would have to be given to variables which are used before being assigned (the number zero is reasonable). Keeping the NULL value means changing its definition. A new type of ValueThing must be created called ValNULL, which does not use the information in any of the fields, but is processed in the same way as the other data types. This causes two new problems:

(1) The language now has an external NULL value which differs from the implementation's internal ("C") NULL pointer. The confusion does not affect the user, but may create numerous obscure bugs in the compiler when the author forgets which value is which. (Of course, a much different name could be chosen for the external NULL value — like "nil"!)

(2) All variables must be initialized to point to a ValNULL value structure. This structure must be distinct, since it may get overwritten. The initialization must always be done, even if the next operand is an assignment to a new value. The same applies to all entries on the execution stack: they must be defaulted to a ValNULL value. Hence, many ValNULL values will be created for the sole purpose of being destroyed.

Compared to the next method, this solution confuses the programmer, uses CPU time to move fields from one structure to another during assignment, and still manages to create and destroy just as many dynamic value structures.
6.6. Final Solution #4

Solution #1 proposed that the execution stack should have a different pointer for each type of object that can be assigned. That is, if the current value is the "child" record, then the stack should also point to the "parent" record.

Solution #2 proposed that all structures should have a common format. This wasted space, but introduced an idea which will be used here: Assignments are easy if the execution stack points to a structure which has a consistent format.

Solution #3 proposed that the NULL value is most useful when it is the same as the internal NULL pointer.

Consider the following idea: Put a dummy structure between the global symbol table entry and the global variable's actual value:

```
symbol → dummy → value
```

Now make this dummy structure to be something of type ValueThing. We already know that list elements are of type ValueThing, and point to the element's value through the this field. If the dummy structure points to the variable's value through its this field, then both elements and global variables will now point to their values through the same field name in structures of the same type. Assigning either one becomes an identical operation (removing at least one messy step from solution #1):

```
owner->this = val ;
```

where owner is the address of something of type ValueThing. This keeps the property that assignments are done by the quick operation of replacing one pointer (after freeing any old value, of course).

The execution stack is basically a big array of local variables. If we use the same dummy value trick, then the stack will look like:
Stack entries (the left column above) have fields for:

```c
struct ValueThing * dummy;
struct ValueThing * owner;
```

`dummy` is the address of the dummy structure which points to the actual value for this stack entry. `owner` is the address of the value structure which "owns" the value pointed to by this dummy structure. Normally, `owner` points to another dummy structure either on the stack or attached to the global symbol table.

Assigning a local variable becomes one more case of the same thing: When a variable is referenced, the address of the variable's value is attached to the `this` field in the stack's dummy structure, and the address of the variable's dummy structure is put in the stack's `owner` field. All operators which expect to see a value can get the value from the stack via the `dummy` field. The assignment operator ignores the value; instead it checks the `owner` field. If non-zero, the assignment frees the old value pointed to by the owner's `this` field and attaches a new value.

This method of assignment has three advantages: First, the operands are general expressions (not special grammar productions). Second, assignment is done by replacing pointers and not by moving data. Third, the NULL value retains its useful properties. The major disadvantage is that a dummy structure is inserted between many objects and their
real data, which uses more space, and also causes a lot of repeated "dummy-\rightarrow\text{this}" typing in the "C" code.

6.7. Assignment Example

Let $a$ be a global variable that is a list, such as the example used in Chapter 3:

$$\{1, \text{"hello"}, \{3, 4\}\}$$

The parse tree for the statement:

$$a[2] := \text{"goodbye"}$$

looks like this:

To execute the assignment, the following steps are performed: The assignment operator ($\text{OpASSIGN}$) is called. The first action of $\text{OpASSIGN}$ is to recursively evaluate the left side. This calls the index or subscript operator ($\text{OpINDEX}$). $\text{OpINDEX}$ pushes a NULL value onto the execution stack to reserve an entry for its result. Assume that this is stack
entry number 24:

Stack[24]

Then stack entry #24 becomes:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Stack}[24].\text{dummy-}\rightarrow\text{this} & = \text{NULL}; \\
\text{Stack}[24].\text{owner} & = \text{NULL};
\end{align*}
\]

\textbf{OpINDEX} recursively evaluates its left side, which invokes the name operator. \textbf{OpNAME} points to the symbol table entry for the global variable \textit{a}. Let \textit{sym} be the address of this symbol table entry. A new stack entry is created (#25) and changed so that the dummy structure for #25 points to the value of \textit{a}:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Stack}[25].\text{dummy-}\rightarrow\text{this} & = \text{sym-}\rightarrow\text{dummy-}\rightarrow\text{this};
\end{align*}
\]

and so that the owner field for #25 points to the dummy structure for \textit{a}:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Stack}[25].\text{owner} & = \text{sym-}\rightarrow\text{dummy};
\end{align*}
\]

This completes the execution of \textbf{OpNAME}. Going back to \textbf{OpINDEX}, the right side is now recursively evaluated, invoking the number operator. \textbf{OpNUMBER} creates a new stack entry (#26) to point to a value structure containing the number 2. \textbf{OpINDEX} pops this subscript off the stack, saves it in an internal variable, and finds the address of the second \textit{ValELEMENT} structure pointed to by #25 (the list \textit{a}). Let \textit{val} be the address of this element structure. Because stack entry #25 is assignable, the result of \textbf{OpINDEX} at #24 is also assignable:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Stack}[24].\text{dummy-}\rightarrow\text{this} & = \text{val-}\rightarrow\text{this}; \\
\text{Stack}[24].\text{owner} & = \text{val};
\end{align*}
\]

(Remember that list elements point to their values through the \textit{this} field.) Entry #25 for \textit{a} is popped off the stack, and \textbf{OpINDEX} returns. \textbf{OpASSIGN} evaluates its right side, calling \textbf{OpSTRING} to push a string value structure ("goodbye") onto the stack at entry #25. The assignment operator now has a left side and a right side. The left side (#24) is checked to
make sure that it is assignable (it is). The old value pointed to by the owner of the left side is released:

\[ \text{FreeValue ( Stack[24].owner->this );} \]

The new value (at #25) is attached to the stack at #24 — allowing the result of the assignment to be used again in an expression:

\[ \text{Stack[24].dummy->this = Stack[25].dummy->this;} \]

The owner of the left side (the second \textit{ValELEMENT} in \textit{a}) is also given the new value:

\[ \text{Stack[24].owner->this = Stack[25].dummy->this;} \]

This completes the assignment. The new value of the global variable \textit{a} is:

\{1, "goodbye", \{3, 4\}\}

A few details have been omitted here, most of which involve dynamic stack data.
7. Interpretation and Execution

Parse trees are executed by an interpreter; nodes in the parse tree become executable functions. The choice of the nodes, and the functions they represent, is based on an assumed execution model. This model limits the size of the implementation, while at the same time providing an acceptable level of service to the user.

7.1. The Execution Stack

Deep inside the interpreter are some thirty different operators. Each operator can perform more than one function, depending upon the types of the operands. Individual operators ask three questions:

— where are the operands (left and right sides)?
— how are they processed?
— where does the result go?

The first and third questions are really the same question, because the result from one operator may be the input to another operator.

Consider the case of the addition operator ("+") for numbers. It has one operand on the left side of the "+", one operand on the right side, and returns one number as its result. Before the addition can proceed, the left and right sides must be evaluated and put in some location known to the operator, and a location must be allocated to hold the result. We could have the caller (parent node) perform the evaluation and allocation — but this would require every parent node to know the number of operands for each child node. That is, all operators must know about all other operators. This is hardly reasonable in a language where changes should be possible without a major reprogramming effort.

If the parent of a node can not be asked to evaluate operands or allocate results, and the children of a node are clearly in no position to do this, then the node itself must
take care of all operand and result related details. Allocating space for a result is easy: use the same facilities that already exist for creating dynamic data objects. Returning the result to the calling node is more difficult, since the result must be placed where the caller can find it.

Look at the problem from the viewpoint of a node as it evaluates its operands. The left side of an addition may be a simple number, in which case the evaluation is trivial. The left side may also be an expression, in which case the evaluation is best done by calling the appropriate operator to evaluate the expression. Where does this new operator node return its result? We could supply the address of a static location, if we were willing to accept that an addition operator could not have another addition in its operands. (Otherwise, the static location would be overwritten.) We could supply the address of a dynamic location, if we were willing to spend a lot of time creating and destroying dynamic data (which a previous chapter cautioned against). Not being able to supply either a static or dynamic location leads to the interesting conclusion that we should not be supplying an address for the result!

Operator nodes must know where to find their operands and where to put their results without being told. This rules out any sort of register or other fixed-address allocation scheme. We need something where operands have variable addresses, but still can be accessed in a predictable manner. One such method is a stack. Consider the expression:

\[(5 + 7) / 2;\]

which has the parse tree:
Assume that the stack is initially empty. When the division operator ("/", alias \textit{OpSLASH}) is called, its first action is to allocate a stack entry for its result. This gives the operator a convenient place to build up the resulting data structures, and makes sure that there is no unattached dynamic memory in the event of an error:

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline
"/" result \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

where "result" means that this part of the stack is occupied, but currently has no value. Then the addition operator (" + ", alias \textit{OpPLUS}) is called. Like the division, space is allocated for a result:

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline
"/" result \\
" + " result \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

Next, the left operand of " + " is evaluated. This is trivial, because it is an explicit number:
Now the right operand is evaluated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;/+&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;/+&quot; result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The addition operator now has both of its operands. They are combined into a result (12), which replaces the dummy "/+" result already on the stack:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;/+&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Control returns to the division operator, which evaluates its right side:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;/+&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Division may now be performed, and the dummy "/" result is replaced by the calculated result:

| 6 |
While this may look simple, there are some serious considerations implied by the use of stacks in an execution model.

First, a great benefit is achieved by allocating space for a result and then sequentially (recursively) evaluating each of the operands. When an operator is called, the stack will have a certain position. The operator does not need to know in advance what this position will be. Its result will go into the next position (that is, at an offset of zero from the position of the stack as of when the operator was called). Its first operand is evaluated on the stack, and leaves a result at the next stack position (no matter how complicated this evaluation may be). The second operand similarly goes in the stack position which has an offset of two relative to the beginning of the operator. At no time does the operator need to know how big the stack is, or what other results are already on the stack.

Second, all operators must conform to this stack model of execution. The language must be designed for recursive evaluation. The grammar must ensure that parse tree nodes requiring values for their operands have valid expressions as the child subtrees. No attempt should be made to avoid complete evaluation of expressions, such as in a "short circuit" mode where logical AND is assumed to be false if the left side is false (without looking at the right side). Operators are not allowed to leave additional information on the stack, only their result. Child operators may not question the actions of their parent operators; however, they may be selective in invoking their own children.

These restrictions do not appear to be too severe in an interactive programming language where the user will be writing simple programs. They might become annoying in a more general case. Think about the rule which says (paraphrased), "children must only speak when spoken to". A child node is not allowed to change the actions of its parent node. In the "C" language, while statements may contain break statements. The effect of a break is to immediately exit from the enclosing while loop. This is an example of a child (break) affecting the actions of its parent (while), and is prohibited here.
7.2. The Stack Entries

The stack is the basic execution model. It was chosen so that operators do not have to perform their own allocation and evaluation. The entries in the stack are assumed to be addressed starting from some relative stack pointer (SP). How big each entry is, and what information it contains, has not been explained.

All values pass through the stack at some point. Each stack entry should be capable of holding one value. Values in this language are numbers, strings, lists, and the NULL value. Numbers have a fixed size, and are easy to accommodate. Strings vary in length, and must be pointed to. Lists also vary in total size, and must be pointed to. The NULL value requires no space, only a NULL pointer. If stack entries were required to contain an entire value, then they would have to be of variable size. This would make addressing difficult, since the second (evaluated) operand for an operator could not be accessed unless you knew the size of the first operand. (Further, stack entries would not have the same structure as dynamic data objects, which would be messy.) Hence, stack entries have a fixed size, and point to their values.

One stack entry is defined by a structure called *StackThing*:

```c
typedef struct StackThing {
    struct ValueThing *dummy;
    int free;
    struct ValueThing *owner;
} StackThing;
```

dummy points to a dummy value structure, which in turn points to the real value for this stack entry. free is a dynamic data flag which is either YES or NO. owner is the address of a value structure which "owns" the value pointed to by dummy, or else NULL if there is no owner. dummy and owner are fully explained in the previous chapter.

The whole stack is an array of *StackThing's:
StackThing Stack [ STACKSIZE ];

where STACKSIZE is some large number (currently 999). The current entry in the stack is indexed by a variable called "SP":

    int SP;

All access to the stack should be relative to the current stack pointer.

Two common routines for stack management are PushStack and PopStack. PushStack "pushes" the stack down to create a new entry. This entry is given a dummy structure which points to a NULL value, and has no owner. The stack pointer (SP) is changed to this entry number, so that:

    Stack [ SP ]

refers to the new entry. PopStack "pops" the last stack entry, releasing any dynamic data, and decrements the stack pointer to be the index of the previous stack entry.

Two other stack management routines are CheckStack and ClearStack. CheckStack is called by PopStack and PushStack to check that the current stack pointer is within a legal range. ClearStack is called once to initialize all stack entries to a consistent state, which ensures that all pointers are either NULL or point to something legitimate.
7.3. Dynamic Data

As entries are pushed and popped from the stack, it is necessary to allocate and de-allocate dynamic storage.

Once again, consider the addition operator ("+"). When adding numbers, the operands may point to value structures which are owned by another value structure (a global variable or a list), or are dynamic (not owned). For the operands in an addition, this is not important: *OpPLUS* picks out the numbers, adds them, and then returns a result. The result is dynamic ("free"), because nobody owns it. If the result is used in a further calculation, such as another addition, then it is no longer needed, and must be de-allocated when it is popped from the stack. If the result is assigned somewhere, then it ceases to be "free", and must not be de-allocated.

Stack entries contain a free field which is *YES* if the value pointed to by the stack entry is dynamic, and *NO* if the value is attached somewhere. *PushStack* defaults this field to *YES*; operators which retrieve named variables (*OpNAME*) set this to *NO*; operators which produce new results reset this to *YES*. *PopStack* checks this field before popping a stack entry. If it is *YES*, then the value pointed to by the stack dummy field is released. In all cases, the dummy value pointer is then set to NULL, and the stack entry ceases to have any connection with the value.

There is a difference between the free and owner fields. free decides if a stack entry must be de-allocated after use; owner decides if a stack entry can be assigned. The two perform similar functions, except in the case of special user classifier variables which are read-only: free is *NO* and owner is NULL. This allows the variables to be used by any operator, except assignment.
7.4. More General Execution

The module responsible for interpreting and executing a parse tree is "faexe.c" (see Appendix B). The main function is ExecParse. Given a pointer to a parse tree, ExecParse performs a few administrative details, and then passes control to the individual operators via a "C" switch statement. (Each node in the parse tree has an operator type as one of its fields.) Most of the code is for the operators, and they all work relative to the current stack position. When an operator needs to evaluate one of its child nodes, it calls ExecParse again. Hence, ExecParse is also stack-relative, and is capable of recursively evaluating complete parse trees. Eventually, all parse trees end in leaf nodes which have no children: nodes for pushing named variables, strings, numeric constants, etc.

Operator nodes of special interest are:

(1) The assignment operator (OpASSIGN) evaluates its left side — as a value — and then its right side. If the stack entry for the left side still has an owner pointer, then the assignment is performed. Otherwise, an error occurs.

(2) The for statement (OpFOR) evaluates its loop expressions (from, to, and by clauses), checks that they are acceptable numbers, and then performs an internal "for" loop with this information. Moving the limits inside the interpreter saves the overhead of re-evaluating them at each repetition of the loop.

(3) The if statement (OpIF) evaluates its conditional expression (first child). If the result is 1, then ExecParse is called to execute the then clause (second child). If the result is 0, ExecParse is called to execute the else clause (third child). Otherwise, an error occurs.

(4) Unary negation (minus or OpNEGATE) tries to avoid copying its operand, since this may be a large list. Instead, after evaluating its right side, it checks if the operand is "free". If not, a dynamic copy is created with the MakeDynamic routine. Then the sign is negated in place.
(5) The statement operator ($OpSTMT$) saves the current stack pointer before executing its child. When the child returns, the new stack pointer is compared against the old. If one value is left on the stack, it is printed (if the child is not an assignment) and popped from the stack. Then if the two pointers are not equal, an error is detected. Since almost all operators are descendants of a statement node, this catches operators which are using the stack incorrectly.

(6) *while* statements ($OpWHILE$) are similar to *if* statements, except that the body of the loop is executed as long as the conditional expression evaluates to 1.

Finally, there is a function called *ExecFile* which is responsible for executing an entire file. As complete statements are parsed (with *yyparse*), they are passed to *ExecParse* for execution, and then de-allocated. Error conditions are caught, in a way which will be described later, and allowance is made for *ExecFile* to be called recursively. That is, a statement in the current file may call the *load* function, which causes a new copy of *ExecFile* to start reading from a new file. When this new file is finished, the new copy of *ExecFile* must restore all necessary internal variables to their previous values.
8. Functions and Local Variables

Functions are operators with any number of children. These children are called "parameters", and appear in a function "parameter list". The implementation of functions corresponds closely to the regular operators that functions are in fact a trivial operator known as *OpFUNCTION*.

8.1. Function Example

An example of a function call is:

\[
\begin{align*}
a & := 5; \\
\text{write}(a, a+2, a\times a, \text{sign}(a));
\end{align*}
\]

which calls the pre-defined *write* function to write out four parameters: the value of the variable *a*, the value of *a* plus two, the square of *a*, and the sign of *a*. The sign is obtained by calling the pre-defined *sign* function and using the result as a parameter to the *write* function.

The child of an *OpFUNCTION* node is a left-recursive tree of parameter nodes (*OpPAR*). Any expression is a legal parameter. *OpFUNCTION* allocates space for a function result (which defaults to the NULL value), generates the parameters from left to right, calls the function, and then pops the parameters off the stack. For the *write* example above, the following steps occur. A stack entry for the result is created:

```
"write" result
```

*write* does not return a result, but *OpFUNCTION* does not know this, so it still allocates an empty stack entry. Next, the value of *a* is pushed onto the stack (the number 5). Ignoring the intermediate call to the *OpNAME* operator, the stack now looks like this:

```
"write" result
```

The second parameter is an expression. The addition operator is called, allocates space for a result, and pushes its operands onto the stack:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;write&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;+&quot; result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the addition is complete, only the result is left:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;write&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, the multiplication operator is called to produce:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;write&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Calling `sign` involves a function call inside the incomplete function call to `write`. As before, allocate space for a result and push the parameter `a`:
*sign* returns 1 for the sign of a positive number. Immediately before *sign* returns, the stack looks like:

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;write&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

After returning, the parameter to *sign* \((a = 5)\) is popped off the stack:

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;write&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
Now the parameters to `write` are ready, and `write` is called to write the values on standard output:

```
57251
```

which is cryptic, since we forgot to include spaces between each number! `write` does not return a result, so the stack entry for its result should really be shown as the NULL value (which means that the dummy structure for this stack entry has a NULL value pointer):

```
  NULL
    5
    7
    25
    1
```

After `write` returns, `OpFUNCTION` pops the parameters off the stack, and returns to its parent, leaving the NULL function result on the stack:

```
  NULL
```

If you try this example, you will find that "NULL" is not printed on your terminal, because the parent node of `OpFUNCTION` is a statement node (`OpSTMT`), which throws away NULL function results — even if NULL is the value you want to see! Functions without a result are more properly known as procedures (in the Pascal style of naming); by defaulting the result to NULL and then throwing NULL away, procedures are made to look like functions, and the language has one less object.
8.2. Parameter Lists

Function parameters are expressions and can take on any value. No data type checking is performed, because this language does not support explicit type declarations. The called function is expected to test the validity of its parameters, and to generate an error message if they are unacceptable. This testing may be done by implicitly assuming that the parameters are legal, and letting the language force an error condition if an illegal operation is attempted.

The language does support a minimum number of parameters. If you call a function that has four parameters, and you supply only three parameters in your parameter list, then an extra NULL parameter is automatically created for the fourth parameter. No error message is generated. The reason is as follows: The language does not know what the function will do with the missing parameter. It may be optional, in the sense that it only gets used when certain combinations of the first three parameters appear. It may be required, in which case supplying a NULL value makes it safe to reference the stack at this point; however, the NULL value will probably generate an error if it is used.

Extra parameters are also legal: calling a four-parameter function with five parameters is allowed. All parameters are pushed onto the stack, the function is called, and then all parameters are popped from the stack. The extra parameters may serve some purpose as they are being evaluated, but the called function will have no way of referring to them.

Why should this be allowed? There are many pre-defined functions which have a variable number of parameters. Most of these functions need at least one or two parameters (such as the format string in \texttt{printf}), but accept more parameters. For example, \texttt{write} may have zero or more parameters. Hence, the parameter count stored in the definition of a function is treated as a minimum number of parameters. No maximum is enforced. It is the user’s problem if he supplies too many parameters. Far from being unfriendly, this allows the user to do pretty much as he wishes.
8.3. Local Variables

A local variable inside a function definition is a way of naming a parameter in the parameter list. (All local variables or parameters are stored on the stack so that functions may be recursive.) Consider the following function definition:

\[
\text{function plus ( left, right )}
\text{do}
\quad \text{plus := left + right ;}
\text{end ;}
\]

which is a named version of the addition operator (" + "). If we call \textit{plus} to add the numbers 2 and 3:

\[\text{plus ( 2 , 3 ) ;}\]

then the stack will look like this after the parameters have been pushed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;plus&quot; result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We want the local variable \textit{left} to refer to the number 2, and the local variable \textit{right} to refer to the number 3. \textit{plus} is also a local variable, and refers to the result. In this example, the stack pointer (SP) is pointing to the entry for the number 3. We could make \textit{right} equivalent to:

\text{Stack [ SP ]}

make \textit{left} equivalent to:

\text{Stack [ SP-1 ]}

and make \textit{plus} equivalent to:
Stack [ SP-2 ]

(This is the negative indexing trick used by YACC for its stack.) Unfortunately, the language does not guarantee that there are only three values on the stack, because extra parameters may have been pushed, and operations inside the function may be using stack space. We need a parameter reference mechanism which does not depend upon the relatively fickle value of the stack pointer.

A new stack pointer is created: the "frame pointer" (FP). A "frame" is a complete set of function parameters. When a function is called, the frame pointer is the index of the stack entry for the result, the frame pointer plus one is the index of the first parameter, etc. For the previous example, the stack would look like:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{FP} + 0 &= \text{"plus" result} \\
\text{FP} + 1 &= \text{2} \\
\text{FP} + 2 &= \text{3}
\end{align*}
\]

If unnecessary parameters are pushed onto the stack, they appear at index \text{FP} + 3, \text{FP} + 4, and so on. Intermediate values from expressions inside the function also appear at later stack entries, but do not affect the frame pointers. Hence, this is a fixed way of using parameters inside a function, no matter where the references may appear. The symbol table entry for a local variable contains its frame pointer offset.

Sometimes it is desirable to have local variables which are not parameters, so that these local variables may be used for temporary storage. Once again, this language does not have variable declarations. How should local variables be declared? Remember that the language will supply NULL values for any parameters which are omitted by the caller. The obvious solution is to declare all temporary variables as parameters, and to not tell the caller that they are in the parameter list. This requires absolutely no additional work in the implementation, and removes any need for a special way of declaring local variables.
8.4. Passing Parameters

To this point, the classifier language is capable of passing parameters both by value and by address (since the stack contains the address of the value!). If passing by address is supported, then a function will be able to change the caller's parameters when the normal conditions for assignment exist. The grammar does not presently have a way of identifying which parameters should be passed by value, and which should be passed by address. If someone finds a legitimate use for changing a caller's parameter, then the grammar can be modified and OpFUNCTION changed so that it no longer assumes passing by value. (All references to SymLOCAL should also be checked.) Until then, parameters to user-defined functions are made "free" with the MakeDynamic routine. When a function changes a parameter, it is changing the "free" copy, which gets de-allocated when the function returns.

Parameters to pre-defined functions such as write are passed in whatever form they get pushed onto the stack. Almost all pre-defined functions return information only through their result, and have no need to modify their parameters. Not enforcing call-by-value saves a lot of time, especially for the arithmetic functions (abs, random, sign, size), and leaves enough address information on the stack so that the formatted I/O routines can pass back data through their parameters. Of course, pre-defined functions are similar to operators in that they must not violate the dynamic allocation status of the stack entries.
9. Error Recovery

Errors are detected at five levels: lexical, syntax, semantic, execution, and internal. Each level provides a different degree of explanation and recovery.

9.1. Lexical Errors

Lexical errors occur while trying to break the input stream into tokens. Most tokens are clearly defined by LEX rules: either the input matches a meaningful token, or it matches the default rule and gets returned character by character. Only one token is capable of generating error messages: strings.

A string is a sequence of characters enclosed in quotation marks. To prevent a single typing mistake from swallowing up an entire program, strings are not allowed to include explicit newline characters. (If you want a newline inside a string, use the "\n" escape sequence.) Omitting the closing quotation mark will print the error message:

newline in quoted string ("")

and the string will include only those characters appearing before the newline. The parser is not told about this change to the input; the altered token sequence may be a perfectly legal statement, and the user may get something other than what he was expecting. (Lexical scanning is below the level of the more sophisticated syntax or execution error recovery. The altered input will probably cause a syntax error. A syntax error could be forced by returning a token not found in the grammar, such as TokERROR.)

Similarly, the lexical end-of-file character is not allowed in strings, and generates the error message:

end-of-file in quoted string ("")
Corrective action is the same as for newlines.

While looking for a string, a large buffer of fixed size is used to hold the characters before they are copied into a variable-length dynamic buffer. If this buffer gets full, the user is told:

    string longer than 999 characters, begins with "..."

where "..." is the beginning of the string. The string ends with the maximum number of characters, and any further input is treated as text to be broken into more tokens.

Associated with the lexical routines are a global variable called LineNumber and a function called PrintLine. For standard input (the terminal), LineNumber is negative to signify that no line number is meaningful. For files, LineNumber is the number of the current line in the current input file. The LEX rule for the newline character increments LineNumber:

    \n      { /* newline */ LineNumber++; }

The function PrintLine prints a message saying:

    at line 999:

where "999" represents the current line number, if input is from a file. Every error message generated by the compiler is preceded by a call to PrintLine. When combined with a subversion trick in ExecParse, this is an accurate way of pointing to the cause of an error — at any level.
9.2. Syntax Errors

Chapter 5 explains YACC syntax error recovery in great detail. Upon finding a syntax error, a message identifying the last legal token is printed, the user is warned, and then YACC is directed to throw away all input until the next semicolon. The line numbers in the error messages are obtained from the lexical level: there is no fiddling with the LineNumber global variable.

9.3. Semantic Errors

While reducing the YACC syntax productions, no semantic errors are recognized. If a statement has correct syntax, then a parse tree is successfully built, or a function is successfully defined.

9.4. Execution Errors

As a parse tree is being executed by ExecParse, the user may ask for something that can not be done (or is not implemented): division by zero, incompatible operands, bad parameters to a pre-defined function, etc. The only meaningful action is to abort the current parse tree.

One approach is to print a warning message, return an "undefined" value, and continue execution. If all operators recognized the "undefined" value as a message to quit, then this method would cleanly return back up the parse tree until the root was reached. Compared with the next method, the cost would be in having every parent node check the result of its child nodes.

Many operating systems provide a way of saving the current state of a program, and later returning to this state. The state is usually defined to be the general registers, processor status, and stack pointer: in UNIX, calling the "setjmp" routine saves the state and "longjmp" returns to this state. A sudden jump to a previous state only makes sense when
the saved state occurs in a routine which is an ancestor of the routine asking for the jump (otherwise, the contents of the machine stack are garbage). If we want to be able to abort the execution of an arbitrary parse tree with a call to:

```
ExecAbort();
```

then there must be a routine which is always the eventual parent of any parse tree. `ExecParse` is not acceptable, because it is called recursively. Saving the state upon entry to `ExecParse` and then jumping back to this state would abort only the current node in the parse tree — not the entire tree. The routine we jump to should be the same as the routine which calls `yyparse` to create the parse tree. The name of this routine is `ExecFile`.

The basic control loop in `ExecFile` is this: Save the current frame and stack pointers. Call "setjmp" to save the current state. If "setjmp" returns a non-zero status, then "longjmp" has been called by `ExecAbort` to return to this state. If "setjmp" returns a zero status, then call `yyparse` for a parse tree and `ExecParse` to execute this tree. Should an error occur, the stack may need to be cleaned up, and the current input file may need to be closed. Otherwise, repeat. This guarantees that control will return to a point which is capable of correctly handling the error condition. (The same strategy could be used to trap an interrupt signal from the ATTN, BREAK, or control-C keys.)

One final trick is played by `ExecParse` to improve the line numbers reported by `PrintLine`. As parse tree nodes are created, the current `LineNumber` becomes part of each node. Before executing a node, `ExecParse` saves the value of `LineNumber`, subverts this to be the line number in the parse node, and then executes the operator for this node. After the operator completes, the old value of `LineNumber` is restored. `ExecFile` cooperates by adjusting `LineNumber` should an error occur. The effect is like having a clock which constantly changes to show the correct time for events that are being discussed.
9.5. Internal Errors

An internal error in the compiler occurs when an assumed condition is checked, and the check fails. Examples are the sign of a data structure (CheckSign routine) or the range of the stack pointer (CheckStack). Most internal errors are caught by "switch" statements which test all legal values for an identifier (such as the $ValXXX$ data types), and the "default" case is invoked because of an illegal value. This happens quite frequently during development, but should never happen in a production version.

After an internal error is detected, the usual line number message is printed followed by "internal error", the name of the current function, and the value which caused the error. This may be enough information to duplicate the problem. No corrective action is taken, as none is known. The current function returns to its caller without doing what was requested. Some parse tree routines call $ExecAbort$. The compiler may continue to run, but should be considered damaged.
10. Pre-Defined Functions

Pre-defined functions provide the user with facilities beyond the basic expression operators. The names of these functions, their parameters, and their actions are fully documented in Appendix A; the discussion here is limited to explaining why the functions are included in this language.

New pre-defined functions are relatively easy to add, even if they are written in "C" and cause the compiler to be rebuilt, so the list here is a minimal collection which may be extended from time to time. A suggestion is to first write a new function in the face language. If the execution time is too slow, or if the function is used often enough, then rewrite it in "C".

10.1. Control Functions

The control functions are exit (alias quit), load, save, and stop.

exit performs the rather obvious task of exiting from the face program and returning to the parent process, which is usually the UNIX shell. While a user can achieve the same result by typing the end-of-file character (control-D) on standard input, this is the only way for a user-defined function to force an exit.

load starts reading statements from a named file. These statements can be assignments to global variables saved with the save function, or they can be programs written by the user. The file being loaded may contain further load requests. File names on the face command line and load are both implicit calls to the ExecFile internal routine.

save creates a file with assignment statements for all global variables. Special user classifier variables (messlist and rulelist) are saved as calls to assumed classifier functions (message and rule). This is a quick way to save the state of a classifier system, so that it can be restored later. Local variables are considered transient and are not saved. Functions
are not saved, because an external definition recreated from the internal representation would differ too greatly from what the user originally entered. Users are advised to load their functions from a text file.

stop is an implicit call to the ExecAbort internal routine. By calling stop, user-defined functions can treat a program-detected condition as a fatal execution error. A message explaining the error should be printed before calling stop.

10.2. Formatted I/O Functions

Implicit I/O is done when a statement consists of a simple expression: the PrintValue internal routine is called to write out the value of the expression. If the expression contains a string, then the string is quoted. A newline is printed after the complete expression. This differs from writing the same expression with write, since write does not add quotes or newlines. (Perhaps there should be a writeq function for explicit quoted output of strings.)

There is no read function for two reasons: First, it is unnecessary with scanf. Second, in a language without data typing, read would have to be told what kind of value to read, which amounts to the same information given to scanf anyway. Specialized read functions (getnumber, getstring, etc.) could remove the second reason, but not the first.

Formatted I/O is the ability to read and write data according to a "picture" of the expected data. Formatted I/O can be done by creating new pre-defined functions, or by calling existing system routines. Writing new functions ensures that the language will retain complete control during I/O. Using existing system routines saves a lot of time by limiting the amount of new code and by using standard documentation. This language has an interface to the UNIX routines printf, scanf, sprintf, and sscanf. printf does formatted writes onto standard output; scanf does formatted reads from standard input (or the current load file if there is one). sprintf and sscanf manipulate strings, in an attempt to move more of the work load into user-defined functions. (If a user can implement a new feature by writing a function, then that is one less function which needs to be implemented in "C".)
The pre-defined functions for formatted I/O do a reasonable amount of error checking before calling the system routines: the format parameter must be a string, other parameters must not be NULL, etc. However, they do not look at the codes in the format string, and do not know what the user is doing. If the user violates the guidelines laid out in the documentation, then the system routine may damage the compiler, the effect of which is unpredictable. A "core dump" is likely.

10.3. General Information Functions

Non-trivial user-defined functions occasionally need more information about an expression other than its nominal value. abs returns the absolute value of an expression, saving the user the trouble of checking the sign and possibly negating the value. random returns a random integer given a modulus, allowing the user to randomly pick apart messages, rules, or other data objects. round rounds a number to the closest integer. sign returns the sign of an expression: −1, 0, or +1. size returns the number of elements in a list or string. trunc truncates a number to its integral value (that is, throws away the fractional part). type returns the type of an expression, so that most user classifier support functions can be written in the face language (easy to change) instead of as pre-defined pieces of "C" code (more work for the author).

10.4. String Manipulation Functions

Classifier messages and rules are composed from bit strings. These bit strings contain fields of one or more bits, where each field serves some feature in the classifier's application. The programming language prefers to work with lists, where each element in a list corresponds to one "field" in a message. Converting from lists to bit strings would be tedious if nothing more was known in advance about the conversion. Fortunately, the assignment of bits to fields is generally fixed throughout an entire classifier application. Hence, the same field in different messages always has the same size (both in a bit string and as an element in a list). Messages can be created from lists by packing the elements together, and
assuming that a user will supply elements appropriate for his application. Messages can be unpacked via a pattern list whose elements are the correct length for the bit fields.

The function for packing a list into a string is called `pack`; the function for unpacking a string into a list is called `unpack`. Both routines are sufficiently general that the user can supply a "value" parameter with NULL values for unspecified fields, along with a standardized "pattern" parameter for missing fields. For example:

```plaintext
a := { , "01" , } ;
b := { "##" , "##" , "##" } ;
pack ( a , b ) ;
```

will print:

```
"##01##"
```

since the first and third elements of `a` are NULL, and get replaced from the pattern `b`. Recognizing NULL elements allows the user to manipulate part of a message, then later merge this partial message back into a complete message.

A third function called `pretty` is supplied as a user-defined function in the "pretty.f" file. `pretty` shows how an obscure bit string can be printed in a reasonably intelligent format with names instead of bits. Being user-defined, `pretty` can be copied and changed to fit another application.

The manipulation of strings in this manner is sufficient only when message and rule strings have a fixed format. Should anything more sophisticated be necessary, then SNOBOL pattern matching or UNIX regular expressions may be required.
11. User Classifier Support

Large portions of this language are designed on the principle that the language should know very little about classifier systems. Support for user classifier systems is no different. The less the compiler knows about classifiers, the fewer the assumptions that are made, the easier it is to change the classifier without changing the language. In the ideal scenario, it should be possible to completely replace the classifier without making any changes whatsoever to the language. If this objective can be met, then classifier systems become "users" of the programming language, and it is appropriate to talk about "user classifier systems".

To change classifiers without changing the programming language, the classifier should be a separate program. Otherwise:

1. Every change to the classifier would require the combined object module to be rebuilt.

2. Both parts would have to be implemented in the same language, or at least in compatible languages.

3. Similar programming styles would be required to avoid naming conflicts or incorrect function arguments.

4. Getting 6,000+ lines of compiler working is hard enough without having to worry about side effects on thousands of additional lines.

Hence, classifiers execute as separate UNIX processes and communicate with the programming language through a UNIX pipe.
11.1. Open and Close

The first restriction placed on the ideal situation is that the classifier system must be able to communicate with the programming language. With the UNIX operating system, the best way for two cooperating processes to communicate is with a pipe. (On BSD versions of UNIX, pipes are special cases of sockets, but that is not important here.) A pipe is a buffer stored in kernel memory, giving it a distinct speed advantage over file-based methods. A pipe has a "read" end and a "write" end. One process writes into the "write" end while the other process reads from the "read" end. This establishes a one-way communication path. To form a two-way path, a second pipe is opened in the reverse direction.

Opening pipes involves a lot of system detail which is best omitted here. Suffice to say that one process must act as the "parent"; the other process acts as the "child". The programming language is the parent. To start talking to the classifier "child", the parent opens two pipes. A duplicate copy of the parent is "forked". One copy remains as the programming language, and selects a read end from one pipe and a write end from the other. The second copy uses the opposite ends to replace its standard input and output, and then executes the real classifier program. The classifier starts running with standard input and standard output attached to the pipes from the programming language. The classifier does not know that stdin and stdout are connected to a process instead of a terminal.

This introduces the first design restriction: user classifier programs must read their input from standard input and write their output on standard output. Other units may be used, but they will not be connected to the programming language.

A second design restriction is implicit here: the user classifier is executed by the name of its executable file. At most one argument string will be supplied. (Both the file name and the argument string are options.)

Once the classifier starts running, it must tell the programming language that it is ready by sending the string:
ready

following by a newline character. Since the classifier's standard output is connected to a pipe, the following is sufficient:

```c
printf("ready\n");
fflush(stdout);
```

The call to `fflush` is necessary to ensure that the `stdout` I/O buffer is forced into the pipe. This introduces a third design restriction: the classifier must flush "ready" onto standard output every time it is ready for new input.

A fourth design restriction applies to the commands sent from the programming language to the classifier. The language will send a command keyword, possibly followed by parameters, followed by a newline character. There is no guarantee that the command keyword will be valid, or that the parameters are meaningful. The classifier must be able to read complete lines from standard input (possibly with `gets`), process the command, print any requested output, and then return back to the "ready" prompt. If the input is illegal, then error messages can be written onto standard output, and will be reported back to the language user (assuming that they are not recognized as legitimate output). A command-driven approach was chosen because it works equally well for input from a process or input from a human user.

The general execution cycle of the classifier must be:
initialize
repeat
write "ready" on standard output
flush standard output
read command from standard input
process command
until command is "close"

Sending "close" followed by a newline character is a command for the classifier to finish whatever it is doing and exit.

11.2. Basic Pre-Defined Functions

To support the simple protocol explained above, four pre-defined functions are necessary: open, close, send, and receive. open takes care of opening the pipe, may be explicitly called by the user with the name of the classifier program, or will be implicitly invoked on the first call to send or receive. close sends a "close" command, does not expect a reply, and closes the pipe. send sends an arbitrary string of characters, and adds the trailing newline. receive reads a string of characters, and throws away the trailing newline. These four functions make minimal demands upon the style of a user classifier system. While they may dictate the method of communicating, they make no assumptions about what the classifier is doing or how it works.
11.3. Message and Rule Lists

Ideally, no further assumptions should be made. The face language is powerful enough that all other communication should be done by user-defined functions loaded for each classifier system. As usual, there is a necessary feature which warrants another assumption.

Classifier systems are based on message and rule lists. The message list corresponds to the current state of the classifier; the rule list corresponds to legal transitions to new states. Both lists are owned by the classifier system, and not by the programming language. Hence, the special language variables messlist and rulelist are read-only copies of what resides in the classifier system. The message or rule lists could be fetched after every command which changes them by reading back the entire list. This can be done by user-defined functions calling send and receive. Unfortunately, both lists may be large and change frequently. Hence, trying to keep complete up-to-date copies of both lists at all times would incur a heavy communication penalty.

It is much better to fetch the lists only upon demand: when the user references the messlist or rulelist variables. Variable references occur below the level of user-defined functions. Hence, support for "fetch on demand" must be encoded into the compiler. Encoding forces assumptions. messlist and rulelist are assumed to be lists. Each element in messlist is a message; each element in rulelist is a rule. We could make further assumptions about what messages and rules look like, but this would be unwise. During early conversations with the eventual users of this language, no consensus was reached about the size of a message, the number of conditions in a rule, or even what fields should be in a rule. (Conditions and actions were obvious; strength was reasonably certain; parent and child identifiers were suggested; etc.) If the programming language can not know what a message or rule looks like, then the classifier system must supply this information.

The protocol for fetching a message or rule list is as follows: The string "messlist" (or "rulelist") is sent to the user classifier, followed by the usual newline character. The classifier must respond with one message (or rule) per line, ending with the "ready" prompt. Lines become elements in the messlist (or rulelist) list. Elements appear in the
same order as they are given by the classifier. Each line must be a valid literal data object in the face language consisting of NULL values, numbers, lists, or strings. (No expressions are allowed because these lines are not parsed by the regular parser. For the same reason, escape sequences are not allowed in strings, and missing elements are not allowed in lists.) This allows the user classifier system to completely determine the order and content of the message and rule lists. The programming language assumes that the lists exist as lists, but enforces no further assumptions.

Using some examples from Chapter 2, one possible sequence for requesting the rule list is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>language sends</th>
<th>classifier replies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rulelist</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{ &quot;01010&quot; , &quot;11111&quot; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{ &quot;0##1#&quot; , &quot;1####&quot; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{ &quot;-000##&quot; , &quot;00000&quot; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{ { &quot;0####&quot; , &quot;-####1&quot; } , &quot;0####1&quot; }</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ready</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, the first element in each list is the condition; the second element is the action. The last rule has a multiple condition. Any spacing of the elements is acceptable, since blanks and tabs are ignored.
11.4. User-Defined Support Functions

Most communication with the classifier system should be initiated by user-defined functions written in the face language. These functions should be saved in a file (such as "user.f") and loaded each time face is run. The file may contain an explicit call to open a connection to the classifier, and may send initialization strings.

Consider the "payoff" function defined as follows:

```java
function payoff ( number , buffer )
do
  flagrule();
  buffer := "payoff " + pack(number);
  send(buffer);
  receive("ready");
end;
```

which sends a command "payoff" followed by a number to the classifier system. (Pay-off tells the classifier how well it is performing.) The first parameter number is assumed to be the pay-off number. The second parameter buffer is a local variable that the caller does not know about. The first statement calls the pre-defined function flagrule to tell the programming language that its rule list is no longer valid, and must be refetched upon demand. (A similar function flagmess exists for messlist.) The second statement assigns buffer to be the string "payoff" followed by a space followed by number packed into a string. This buffer is sent to the user classifier with send. The response "ready" is expected by receive. Any output before the "ready" prompt will be treated as an error message.

User-defined functions may be slower than pre-defined functions inside the compiler, but they remove from the programming language almost all decisions about the classifier system. This comes close to the ideal of having a language which knows very little about classifiers.
12. Final Comments

During the design of this classifier programming language, very little has been said about user classifier systems. An early chapter talks about how the representation of classifier data affects the rest of the language. A later chapter begins to discuss pre-defined functions for a communication interface, but stops after concluding that most of the work can be done by user-defined functions. In between, classifier systems are virtually ignored.

The programming language is not the classifier system. There is no need to understand the classifier, only to feed it the correct commands and to read back the results. Given a minimal set of data requirements, and knowing that the language will be active during all communication with the classifier, designing the language becomes a matter of finding the smallest, most complete grammar which satisfies the requirements. The chosen language looks like the pseudo-code often used to describe the execution of algorithms. This is no coincidence. Pseudo-code is meant to be intuitive, once a few basic operators are explained. This language has a limited number of operators and pre-defined functions, all of which are implemented on the basis of what should work does work.

The user may look at this language as either the biggest desk calculator ever written (next to APL), or as a programmable tool. The connection to a user classifier system is fully functional, but is not a necessary part of the language. All concept of classifiers could be removed, and some new application added, by rewriting a few pre-defined functions. New features are limited only by the definition of functions: their parameters and results must be valid data objects in the language. This restriction is not too severe, since the representation of data has been generalized beyond the point where explicit type-checking can be performed. (That is, data has become "polymorphic".)

A few final comments are in order.
12.1. Representation of Data

Too much time is spent manipulating dynamic data (see Appendix C). While there is no obvious way of reducing this in the current version of the compiler, it is also not so obvious that the chosen data structures are the best possible. A close contender in the original design was to overwrite existing structures when doing an assignment (Chapter 6). This may have been faster. Unfortunately, a great deal of work would be involved in changing over to a different design, and curiosity alone was not enough motivation to investigate this alternative.

12.2. Questionable Semantics

The semantics of having assignment as an operator when combined with dynamically allocated data (that is, no type checking) are questionable. For example, what should the following statements mean?

\[ s := \{1, 2, 3\} ; \]
\[ s[s := 1] := s ; \]

Is it legitimate to index a list with an expression that changes the meaning of the list? What happens when the inner assignment releases the old value of \( s \) but the outer assignment attaches a new value to a released element? There should be an example like this that blows up the compiler; so far none has been found. Some dynamic memory becomes attached to dead storage (freed memory), which is a fault, but does not violate the integrity of the compiler.
12.3. Missing Features

This classifier language does many things well. The features that have been included are carefully explained in a user's guide (Appendix A) and an internal guide (the thesis body). Features that were not included are explained only briefly, or not at all.

Control flow is limited to *for*, *if*, *repeat*, and *while* statements. Even though most structured code can be phrased in terms of these statements, it is sometimes more convenient to have other variations. For example, *break* statements in the "C" language may disturb the recursive execution of nested code, but they are also very useful. (As proof, see how often they are used in the compiler's code!)

I/O support is primitive. The user must read and write with units chosen by the language. The ability to open arbitrary files is missing. To save more than just the global variables, the UNIX *script* command must be used to record a terminal session, this file must be edited back into a suitable format, and then resubmitted to the compiler as input.
Bibliography


Appendix A: Language Description

face is a classifier programming environment in two parts: an interactive programming language and a user classifier system. The programming language supports simple data objects (numbers, strings, lists), global variables, basic control statements ("for", "if", "repeat", "while"), pre-defined functions, and user-defined functions with local variables. The user classifier system is any program that can communicate with the programming language through special functions written in an application-dependent module.

A.1. Programming Language

The face programming language consists of comments, data objects, variables, expressions, statements, and functions.

A.1.1. Comments

A comment starts with a "#" symbol and goes to the end of a line. Comments are treated as white space (blanks or tabs) and ignored. Comments may not occur inside a reserved word or other token. (Please note that "#" is just a normal character when it appears in a string.)
A.1.2. Data Objects

There are three types of simple data objects: real numbers, character strings, and the NULL value.

Numbers consist of one or more signed decimal digits, possibly containing a decimal point, optionally followed by an exponent. The following are examples of legal numbers:

\begin{align*}
0 \\
42 \\
-1987 \\
+3.14159 \\
6.022045e23 \\
\end{align*}

Spaces and punctuation marks ("," ) are not allowed in a number.

Strings consist of zero or more characters between quotation marks. Quotation marks are the regular quote character ("), the closing quote or acute character (’), and the opening quote or grave character (‘). A string may include any character except for the newline and end-of-file characters. Inside a string, you may use the following escape sequences for special characters:

\begin{align*}
\text{\textbackslash n} & \quad \text{newline character} \\
\text{\textbackslash t} & \quad \text{tab character} \\
\text{\textbackslash \textbackslash} & \quad \text{\textbackslash character} \\
\end{align*}

and \textbackslash followed by the quoting character gives you one quotation mark inside the string. The following are examples of legal strings:

\begin{align*}
"" & \quad \text{empty string} \\
'h e l l o ' & \quad \text{"hello" with spaces} \\
"\n" & \quad \text{newline} \\
"(\"\")" & \quad (")
\end{align*}

Strings may have a sign. By default, strings are "positive". You may negate a string by
putting a minus sign in front of the string:

- "pattern"

Positive and negative strings can not be combined with any of the operators described later. (Negative strings are used to specify negative conditions in classifier rules.)

The last simple data object is the NULL value. NULL represents the absence of a value. NULL is not the same as an empty string. (An empty string is a string, while NULL is nothing.) NULL values occur when you use a variable that has not been assigned a value.

Simple data objects can be combined into lists. A list consists of zero or more elements. Each element may be a number, a string, the NULL value, or another list. The smallest list is the empty list:

```
{ }
```

The empty list has no elements, and hence has a size of zero. Lists of size one are legal:

```
{ 3 }  first element is the number 3
{ "word" } first element is the string "word"
```

(The spaces shown above are not necessary.) Lists with more than one element have the elements separated by commas (",",):

```
{ 1, 2, 3 }  list of three numbers
{ 1, "two", NULL }  elements can be different types
{1, {2, 3, 4}, 5, 6} list within a list
```

This last list is of size four (not six), because the second element is a list of size three.

Lists in this language replace arrays and records found in other languages. Like strings, lists can be signed.
A.1.3. Variables

A variable is a named object. Names consist of a letter followed by zero or more letters or digits. The following are examples of legal names:

\[ k, \quad \text{Prog67}, \quad \text{index} \]

Upper and lower case letters are different in names: "Prog67" is not the same variable as "prog67". Some of the possible names are reserved words, and may not be used as variables:

\[ \text{and break by div do elif else end eq eqp for from function ge gt if le lt mod ne nep not null or procedure repeat return to then until while} \]

These reserved words are recognized in any combination of upper and lower case (unlike variable names). A few other names are assigned to pre-defined functions and variables; you should avoid using these names, but the language won’t prevent you from assigning your own value. There are two pre-defined variables:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{false} & := 0 ; \\
\text{true} & := 1 ;
\end{align*}
\]

"if", "repeat", and "while" statements require conditional expressions that evaluate to either \text{false} (0) or \text{true} (1); relational operators return 0 or 1 as their result.

Variables can be assigned values by naming them on the left side of an assignment operator (" := "). To give the variable \text{a} the value 27, use:

\[ \text{a} := 27 ; \]

The semicolon is a required part of the syntax and marks the end of an executable statement. To look at the value of a variable, type the name followed by a semicolon (followed by a newline, of course):
a;  prints 27

If you use a variable that hasn't been given a value, then the value will be NULL.

These are examples of global variables. Later, local variables will be introduced when functions are defined.
A.1.4. Expressions

An expression takes one or more data objects and returns a new object. Standard operators are used.

A.1.4.1. Number Operators

For numbers, the following operators are supported:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>operator</th>
<th>type</th>
<th>explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>real addition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>unary</td>
<td>(no effect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>real subtraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>unary</td>
<td>negate sign of number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>real multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>real division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>** ^</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>real exponentiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>div</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>integer quotient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mod %</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>integer remainder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and &amp;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>logical AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not ~</td>
<td>unary</td>
<td>logical negation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>logical OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eq ==</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ge &gt;= =&gt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>greater than or equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gt &gt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>greater than relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>le &lt;= &lt;=</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>less than or equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lt &lt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>less than relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne != &lt;&gt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>not equal relation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The standard arithmetic operators ("+", "-", "*", "/") are given the usual definitions:
22 + -3;  prints 19
11 - 4;  prints 7
2 * 3;  prints 6
7 / 2;  prints 3.5
7 div 2;  prints 3
7 mod 2;  prints 1

since seven divided by two has an integer quotient of three and a remainder of one.

The logical operators are functions of 0 and 1:

not 0;  prints 1
0 and 1;  prints 0
0 or 1;  prints 1
1 and 1;  prints 1

Using a value other than 0 or 1 will force an execution error. (The same applies to all operators and functions when given an illegal value.)

Relational operators compare two numbers, and return a 1 if the specified condition is true, and 0 otherwise:

3 eq 4;  prints 0
3 < 4;  prints 1
3 != 4;  prints 1
A.1.4.2. String Operators

For strings, the following operators are supported:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>operator</th>
<th>type</th>
<th>explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>string concatenation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>unary</td>
<td>negate sign of string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and &amp;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>bit string AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not -</td>
<td>unary</td>
<td>bit string negation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>bit string OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eq ==</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eqp</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>equal pattern relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ge &gt;= =&gt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>greater than or equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gt &gt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>greater than relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>le &lt;= &lt;=</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>less than or equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lt &lt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>less than relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne !&gt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>not equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nep</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>not equal pattern relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>subscription (indexing)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adding two strings with "+" gives you a string with the two parts concatenated:

"hello" + "there"; prints "hello there"

Bit string operations assume that a string represents all possible binary values with a certain pattern. The pattern is specified with "0" for zero bits, "1" for one bits, "#" for don't cares ("0" or "1"), and "?" for positions where no bit is legal. Thus, the bit string pattern "0#1" represents all binary values with a zero followed by any digit followed by a one. Namely, 001 and 011. The bit string AND operation combines two strings (with the
same length and sign) into a new string which specifies all binary values that match the first string and the second string:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AND</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>#</th>
<th>?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The expression

"0" and "1"; prints "?"

because no binary value can have both "0" and "1" in the same bit position. Bit string AND is a well-defined operation: the binary values which match the resulting string are exactly those that match both input strings.

Bit string OR is not as well-defined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OR</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>#</th>
<th>?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The resulting string can match more binary values than are strictly matched by either of the input strings. For example, "0#" matches 00 and 01, "11" matches only 11, but (by definition)

"0#" or "11"; prints "##"

This matches 00, 01, 11, and the unwanted value 10. Bit string OR is normally only used when creating a pattern condition in a classifier rule.
You may find it easier to understand bit strings if you note that the "0" character means bit 0 is legal and bit 1 is not legal; the "1" character means that 0 is illegal and 1 is legal; "#" means that both 0 and 1 are legal; and "?" means that both are illegal:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>character</th>
<th>is 0 legal?</th>
<th>is 1 legal?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;0&quot;</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;1&quot;</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;#&quot;</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;?&quot;</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The bit string operations are Boolean functions of these underlying "yes" and "no" conditions. The expression

"0" and "1"

is equivalent to logically AND'ing the first row (yes/no) with the second row (no/yes) to get the last row (no/no).

Bit string negation replaces each "0" with a "1", each "1" with a "0", each "#" with "?", and each "?" with "#":

not "0"; prints "1"
not "#"; prints "?"
not "-0?1"; prints "-1?0"

Strings are compared according to the ASCII sequence. When two strings have different lengths, and one string is equal to the beginning of the other string, then the shorter string is less than the longer string:

"A" < "a"; prints 1
"k" < "ke"; prints 1
"n" ne "hello"; prints 1

The "eqp" and "nep" operators do equality comparisons with pattern matching. This is not
much different than normal comparisons, except that the don't care character ("#") is equal to all characters:

```
"00" eqp "0#";  prints  1
"11" eqp "0#";  prints  0
```

Pattern comparisons are useful when looking at messages generated by a classifier system.

Strings may be subscripted by choosing either an individual character, or a subrange of characters, as in the following examples:

```
"hello"[2];     prints  "e"
"hello"[2:3];   prints  "el"
```

The first character in a string has index 1. It is a mistake to subscript a string with a starting index less than 1 or greater than the size of the string. In a subrange, the final index may be any non-negative integer. If the subrange final index is less than the starting index, then an empty string is returned. If the final index is greater than the string length, then the rest of the string is returned (no padding). Note that since subscripting a string returns a string, the result can be subscripted again! The following all print the string "lo":

```
"hello"[2:5][3:4];
"hello"[1:3, 4:5];
"hello"[4] + "hello"[5];
```

When indexing a single character from a string ("[n]" form), the sign of the string is ignored. When indexing a subrange ("[m:n]" form), the sign of the string is copied to the result. (This keeps indexed strings consistent with indexed lists.) Subscripted strings are never assignable.
A.1.4.3. List Operators

For lists, the following operators are supported:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>operator</th>
<th>type</th>
<th>explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>list concatenation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>unary</td>
<td>(no effect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>unary</td>
<td>negate sign of list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eq ==</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eqp</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>equal pattern relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ge &gt;=</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>greater than or equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gt &gt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>greater than relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>le &lt;=</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>less than or equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lt &lt;</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>less than relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne !=</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>not equal relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nep</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>not equal pattern relation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>binary</td>
<td>subscription (indexing)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You may concatenate two lists with the binary "+" operator:

\[
\{1, \{2, 3\}\} + \{4, 5\}; \quad \text{prints} \quad \{1, \{2, 3\}, 4, 5\}
\]

Comparisons between lists are recursive: both lists should have similar structures, and the comparison terminates prematurely when a difference is found.

Lists may be subscripted in the same way as strings. Subscripting a single element in a named list (global variable) is assignable. For example, if the global variable \(s\) has the value:

\[
s := \{7, 5, 6\};
\]
\[ s[1]; \text{ prints } 7 \]
\[ s[2:3]; \text{ prints } \{5, 6\} \]
\[ s[2:2]; \text{ prints } \{5\} \]
\[ s[2:1]; \text{ prints } \{} \]

Individual elements can be reassigned. The expression

\[ s[2] := "new"; \]

changes the second element of \( s \) to be the string "new". The new value of \( s \) is:

\[ \{7, "new", 6\} \]

If the result of list subscription is a list or string, then you can subscript the result.
A.1.4.4. Combining Expressions

When expressions are combined, operators are given the following priorities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>priority</th>
<th>association</th>
<th>operators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>highest</td>
<td>right</td>
<td>subscription ([]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>right</td>
<td>exponentiation (**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>right</td>
<td>not, unary +, unary -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td>* , / , div , mod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td>+ , -</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td>eq, eqp, le, lt, ge, gt, ne, nep</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td>and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td>or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lowest</td>
<td>right</td>
<td>assignment (:=)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

That is, subscription is performed first, then exponentiation, then unary operators, then multiplication and division, then addition and subtraction, etc. If you want an expression to be evaluated in a different order, then you must use parentheses:

\[
\begin{align*}
6 + 4 & / 2; \quad \text{prints 8} \\
(6 + 4) & / 2; \quad \text{prints 5}
\end{align*}
\]
A.1.5. Statements

The simplest statement is an expression: the expression is evaluated and the result is printed. Expressions include function calls (described later). Other statements are the "for", "if", "repeat", and "while" control statements. Every statement must end with a semicolon (;). Empty statements are legal, so extra semicolons are safely ignored. Complete programs are created by nesting control statements.

When a statement returns a value (expression or function call), then the value is printed — unless the statement is an assignment, or a function which returns the NULL value.

A.1.5.1. FOR Statement

A for statement consists of an index variable, an initial value, an increment, a final value, and some statements. All parts are optional, except for the variable name. The syntax is:

\[
\text{for name from expression to expression by expression do statements end;}
\]

name must be the name of a variable (global or local). All three expressions ("from", "to", and "by") must evaluate to numbers. If the from clause is missing, an initial value of 1 is assumed. If the to clause is missing, a final value of 1 is assumed. If the by clause is missing, an increment of 1 is assumed. The by expression (if given) must be non-zero.

The for statement assigns the initial value to the index variable. If the index variable is less than or equal to the final value (when the increment is positive), or greater than or equal to the final value (when the increment is negative), then the statements are
executed, the increment is added to the index variable, and this check is performed again.

The initial, final, and increment values are computed at the beginning of the for loop: changing them inside the loop will have no effect. Similarly, changing the index variable inside the loop does not affect the for loop. When the loop terminates, the value assigned to the index variable should not be used. (If you want to manipulate the index variable yourself, then use a repeat or while statement.)

The following example computes the sum of the first nine numbers:

```plaintext
sum := 0;
for i from 1 to 9 do
    sum := sum + i;
end;
```

A.1.5.2. IF Statement

An if statement has a conditional expression, an optional "then" clause, and an optional "else" clause. The conditional expression must evaluate to either true (1) or false (0). If true, the statements in the then clause are executed; otherwise, the statements in the else clause are executed. The syntax is:

```plaintext
if expression
    then statements
else statements
end;
```

Examples:
if (a < 0)  # assume "a" is a number
    then a := 0;  # enforce minimum value
end;

if (sign(a) < 0)  # "a" is any data object
    then write("a is negative\n");
else
    if (sign(a) > 0)
        then write("a is positive\n");
    else write("a is zero or NULL\n");
end;
end;

When an if statement has multiple disjoint conditions, it is better to use an "else-if" form. The previous "sign" example can be rewritten as:

if (sign(a) < 0)  # "a" is any data object
    then write("a is negative\n");
elif (sign(a) > 0)
    then write("a is positive\n");
else write("a is zero or NULL\n");
end;

In this language, "else-if" statements replace the "switch" statements found in "C" and the "case" statements found in Pascal.
A.1.5.3. REPEAT and WHILE Statements

`repeat` and `while` statements have a conditional expression and some statements inside a loop. The conditional expression must evaluate to either `true` (1) or `false` (0). For the `repeat` statement, the statements in the loop are executed and the expression is checked. If the expression is `false`, then the statements are executed again until the expression evaluates to `true`. (The statements in a `repeat` loop are always executed at least once.) For the `while` statement, the expression is checked. If the expression is `true`, then the statements in the loop are executed until the expression evaluates to `false`.

The syntax of a `repeat` loop is:

```
repeat statements until expression ;
```

The syntax of a `while` loop is:

```
while expression do statements end;
```

Given a number `n`, the following example computes the next higher power of two:

```
power := 1;
while (power <= n)
do
    power := power * 2;
end;
```
A.1.6. Functions

A function is a small program which is given a name so that it can be used later. Functions have zero or more parameters, can execute other statements, and may return a result. The syntax for defining a function is:

```
function name ( parameters )
  do statements
end;
```

`name` is the name of the function (such as the infamous "f"). `parameters` is either empty or a list of local variable names. If `parameters` is empty, then the parentheses "(" and ")" may be omitted. `statements` are the executable statements that make up the function. (An empty function is legal.)

All variables named in the parameter list are local to the function. When a function is called, the caller gives you values for some or all of the local variables in the parameter list. Any parameters omitted by the caller are automatically assigned NULL values. Hence, you can safely put more variables in the parameter list than you expect the caller to provide; the extra variables become temporary variables that disappear when the function returns to the caller.

The only way for a function to return information to the caller is by changing global variables, or by assigning a result to the function's name. (If the function is not assigned a result, then the NULL value is returned.)

For example, the following is a verbose version of the recursive factorial function:
function f(n, temp)
do
  if (n <= 1)
    then temp := 1;
  else
    temp := n;
    temp := temp * f(n-1);
  end;
  f := temp;
end;

The caller is expected to supply a small number as the first parameter; the second parameter is just a temporary local variable. Of course, this function can be written more compactly as:

function f(n)
do
  if (n <= 1)
    then f := 1;
  else f := n * f(n-1);
  end;
end;

To call this function, you would type:

f(0); prints 1
f(1); prints 1
f(2); prints 2
f(3); prints 6
f(4); prints 24

Since the factorial is returned as the function's result, it can be assigned to a variable, or used in another expression (as is done in the function itself when it recurses).
A.2. Pre-Defined Functions

Pre-defined functions provide services that are too difficult or too awkward to do with simple operators. One service is communication with a user classifier system (described in the next section). Other services are control of the environment, formatted I/O, general information, mathematical functions, and string manipulation. Most functions are invoked as statements, which means that you must include the semicolon that terminates every statement.

A.2.1. Control Functions

Control functions start and stop face, or change the source of its input:

exit ( )

exits from face and returns you to UNIX. This is equivalent to typing an end-of-file character (control-D) on standard input. A synonym for exit is quit.

load ( file )

starts reading input from a file named by the string file. The commands in this file are read and executed until either the end of the file is reached, or an error occurs. Then input goes back to the previous file (or standard input). If the file contains a formatted input scanf statement, which is also executed, then the file must contain the appropriate data. (This does not apply if scanf appears in a function definition which is executed later.)

save ( file )

saves the value of all global variables in a file named by the string file. The special classifier variables messlist and rulelist are saved as calls to the functions message and rule. If file is omitted, or NULL, then the information is printed on standard output (your terminal). After an error, this is a good way to dump everything to see what happened. The file created by this function can be loaded with load.
stop ( )

stops the execution of the current statement or function. If input is coming from a
file, then the file is closed (just like a fatal error). If input is coming from stan-
dard input (the terminal), then the next statement is read.

system ( command )

calls the UNIX "sh" shell with a command string. No status is returned: if the
command fails, the shell will print an error message on your terminal.

A.2.2. Formatted I/O Functions

Formatted I/O comes in two flavors: easy and hard. The easy I/O function is
write:

write ( p1, p2, ... )

writes all of its parameters on standard output without adding spaces, newlines, or
quotes to strings. You may give any number of parameters. write always works,
because nothing can go wrong. The last parameter to write is usually a newline
string. Example:

write("the value of a is ", a, "\n");

(There is no read function — use scanf.)

The other four formatted I/O functions are not so easy: if you make a mistake,
then you can crash the face program. The reason for this is very simple: face does
not perform the I/O itself. The parameters you specify are given to a system subroutine by
the same name. If the parameters are bad, or even slightly wrong, there is a good chance
that face will lose control. Should that happen, you will get a nasty "core dump" mes-
sage. The author of face will refuse to look at any "bug" that occurs during formatted
I/O.
These formatted I/O routines need information about the parameters that are being passed to the system subroutines. Because data in this language is not strongly typed (as in Pascal), the type of an I/O parameter must be guessed by looking at the current value. That is, if you want to read a number, then the variable you give to receive the number must be currently assigned to a number. Similarly, to read a string, the receiving variable must be assigned to a string. (The current values are thrown away, but the type information is still necessary.) During output, a similar restriction applies. If your format string specifies a %g format code, then the corresponding parameter must be a number. If the format code is %s, then the parameter must be a string. (Other codes may be used at your own risk.)

`printf ( format, p1, p2, ..., p9 )`

prints a formatted string with up to nine parameters on standard output. The value of the parameters must correspond to the format codes in the string `format`. Numbers should be written with the %e, %f, or %g format codes; strings should be written with %s. Examples:

```plaintext
number := 42;
printf("number is %g\n", number);
string := "hello";
printf("string is `%s`\n", string);
```

`scanf ( format, p1, p2, ..., p9 )`

reads up to nine parameters according to a format string. Input is read from the current load file, or from standard input if there is no load file. The current value of the parameters must correspond to the format codes in the string `format`. Numbers should be read with the %le or %lf format codes; strings should be read with %c or %s. Example:
number := 0;  # any number is okay
string := "";  # any string will do
scanf("%lf %s", number, string);

Like the real "scanf" subroutine, scanf returns the number of items correctly read.
You should probably assign this count to a dummy variable and ignore it.

`sprintf ( string, format, p1, p2 )`

is like `printf`, but the output goes into `string` (which must be a variable that already
has a string value). For obscure reasons, `sprintf` is limited to two data parameters.

`sscanf ( string, format, p1, ..., p9 )`

is like `scanf`, but the input comes from `string`. Example:

```
thing := 0;  # use any number here
count := sscanf("1234xyz", "%lf", thing);
```

would assign the value 1234 to the variable `thing`. `count` will be 1.
A.2.3. General Information Functions

General functions provide information that could be done by operators, but which are traditionally done by simple functions:

\texttt{abs ( expr )}

returns the absolute value of an expression. The absolute value of NULL is NULL. The absolute value of a number is the positive part. For lists and strings, the absolute value has a positive sign.

\texttt{random ( limit )}

returns a random integer greater than or equal to zero and less than the positive integer \textit{limit}.

\texttt{round ( expr, scale )}

rounds the number \textit{expr} to the closest integer. If the second parameter is given, then it must be a non-zero \textit{scale} factor: 0.01 rounds to two digits after the decimal point, 100 rounds to the nearest multiple of one hundred, etc. The default \textit{scale} factor is 1.

\texttt{sign ( expr )}

returns the sign of an expression. The NULL value has sign NULL. Numbers have a sign of \(-1, 0, \text{ or } +1\). Lists and strings have a sign of \(-1\) or \(+1\).

\texttt{size ( expr )}

returns the size of an expression. The NULL value has size 0. Numbers have size 1. The size of a string is the number of characters in the string. The size of a list is the number of elements. \textit{size} is usually called in a \texttt{for} loop when you want to loop through all elements in a list.
\texttt{trunc ( expr, scale )}

truncates the number \textit{expr} to its integer part by throwing away anything after the decimal point. If the second parameter is given, then it must be a non-zero \textit{scale} factor: 0.01 truncates to two digits after the decimal point, 100 truncates any part less than one hundred, etc. The default \textit{scale} factor is 1.

\texttt{type ( expr, string )}

returns the type of an expression as a string: "null", "number", "set" (for lists), or "string". (If something goes wrong, you may also see "dummy" or "element".) You may specify a second parameter, in which case the type is compared against your \textit{string}; a 1 is returned if they are equal, and a 0 is returned otherwise.

A.2.4. Mathematical Functions

The math functions take one or two numbers as parameters and return one number as a result. The names of these functions and their parameters are identical to the standard UNIX math library routines:

\begin{align*}
\texttt{acos ( x )} & \quad \text{arc cosine (inverse)} \\
\texttt{asin ( x )} & \quad \text{arc sine (inverse)} \\
\texttt{atan ( x )} & \quad \text{arc tangent (inverse)} \\
\texttt{atan2 ( y, x )} & \quad \text{arc tangent of } y \text{ over } x \\
\texttt{cbrt ( x )} & \quad \text{cube root} \\
\texttt{cos ( x )} & \quad \text{cosine (radians)} \\
\texttt{exp ( x )} & \quad \text{natural exponential } e^x \\
\texttt{log ( x )} & \quad \text{natural logarithm (base } e) \\
\texttt{log10 ( x )} & \quad \text{logarithm base ten} \\
\texttt{pow ( x, y )} & \quad \text{exponential } x^y \\
\texttt{sin ( x )} & \quad \text{sine (radians)} \\
\texttt{sqrt ( x )} & \quad \text{square root} \\
\texttt{tan ( x )} & \quad \text{tangent (radians)}
\end{align*}
A.2.5. String Manipulation Functions

Classifier systems work with bit strings. Bit strings are difficult for people to understand. It is much easier to create lists using symbolic names for values. For example, if your classifier machine is playing a game of tic-tac-toe, then each square can be empty, "X", or "O". Three possible values require two encoding bits. One scheme is:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{empty} & : = "00"; \\
\text{X} & : = "10"; \\
\text{O} & : = "11";
\end{align*}
\]

Then the following list is sufficient to specify nine squares:

\[
\text{board} := \{
\begin{align*}
\text{empty, empty, } X, \\
\text{empty, O, } X, \\
\text{empty, empty, O}
\end{align*}
\};
\]

(which is a win for "O" if "O" moves next). Once the names are evaluated, \( \text{board} \) will be assigned the list:

\[
\text{board} := \{"00","00","10","00","11","10","00","00","11"\};
\]

This is no longer easy for a person to read, but still isn't readable enough for the classifier system. The classifier expects bit strings (not lists). To convert \( \text{board} \) into a bit string, the elements need to be packed together:

\["000010001110000011"

Conveniently, there are functions called \( \text{pack} \) and \( \text{unpack} \) to do this:
pack (value, pattern)

The first parameter value is converted into a packed character string. If the second parameter pattern is missing or NULL, then the packed string looks like value, except that there are no commas, spaces, list delimiters, or NULL values:

pack(3);                  prints "3"
pack({1, 2});             prints "12"
pack({"hello", {-37, NULL}}); prints "hello-37"

If pattern is given, then it should have a list structure similar to value (but possibly simpler). For each NULL element in value, the corresponding element in pattern is converted into a string:

pack({"abc", NULL, "ghi"}, "def"); prints "abcdefghi"

(This example uses the same pattern string for all value elements.) Non-NULL elements are converted into strings that look like the pattern element. The sign of the value element is preserved only if the pattern element has a negative sign. Examples:

pack(5, 1);               prints "5"
pack(-5, 1);              prints "5"
pack(-5, -1);             prints "-5"

pack("hello", -"thing"); prints "hello"
pack("hello", -"thi");   prints "hel"
pack("hel", -"thing");   prints "helng"
pack("he", -"thing");    prints "-heing"

Value strings packed according to a pattern string have the same length as the pattern string: if the value string is shorter than the pattern string, then the remainder is taken from the pattern; if the value is longer, then it is truncated.
pack is recursively defined for lists:

pack([-1,-2,-3], [-5,5,-5]); prints "--12-3"

unpack (value, pattern)

unpacks value according to pattern. Each string in value is replaced by something that looks like pattern. The elements in pattern must have a negative sign if signs are expected in the value string. Examples:

unpack("abcd", ["xx", "xx"]); prints ["ab", "cd"]
unpack("-123x", [5, "z"]); prints [-123, "x"]

unpack is the reverse of pack for individual strings. For lists, unpack is recursively defined to apply the same pattern to each string element; other elements are not changed:

unpack([1,"abc",NULL],["xx","y"]; prints [1,["ab","c"],NULL

pack and unpack can quickly compose and decompose classifier bit strings. Their recursive definition makes them difficult to understand, but they can usually be convinced to do what you want them to do.

Another string manipulation function called pretty is in the file "pretty.f" in the same directory as face, and should be copied when you copy face:

pretty (value, picture)

prints a value in a pretty format. The first parameter may be a number, a string, a list, or the NULL value. The second parameter should have the same list structure as the first parameter, but with one extra level of lists to provide a mapping from value elements to name strings. For example, suppose there is a field in a classifier message that has the string "00" for NO, "11" for YES, and "01" for MAYBE. Then a mapping picture would be:
picture := {"00","NO","11","YES","01","MAYBE"};

pretty first tries to find an identical picture element (no pattern matching). The function call:

    pretty("00", picture);

would print "NO" (without quotes or newlines). If an identical element can not be found, then pretty tries again with pattern matching. The function call:

    pretty("#1", picture);

would print "(YES or MAYBE)". Finally, if pattern matching fails, then the value is printed in square brackets. The function call:

    pretty("10", picture);

would print "[10]" since there is no legal mapping.

(This function is recursively defined for lists. The caller is responsible for writing any newlines before or after the "pretty" output. Bad parameters will result in obscure error messages. As this is a user-defined function, you may inspect the source code and change it to suit your application.)
A.3. User Classifier System

The classifier system is intended to be an artificial intelligence application using genetic bit strings for learning. None of this matters to the programming language. As long as the classifier system satisfies the following requirements, it can be interfaced with face:

(1) The user classifier system must be a program which can be executed via the `exec` system call. One argument string will be given on the "command" line. The classifier should read from standard input ("stdin") and write on standard output ("stdout"). Other logical I/O units may be used, but only standard input and output will be connected to face.

(2) The classifier program must be command driven. face will send a command to the classifier's standard input. The classifier must perform any necessary action, possibly replying on standard output, and then wait for the next command. There should be no unsolicited input or output, since face is unable to handle this, and will report anything it doesn't understand as an error message.

(3) Support for the classifier program must be written in "C" in the "fause.c" module. This module may define functions which are visible to the user, may have variables which are treated in special ways, and may perform all actions that are normally allowed in "C" programs. The function parameters and results must be standard face data types.

(4) For most classifiers, only six "C" functions are required: close, flagmess, flagrule, open, receive, and send. No changes to these routines should be necessary if the following guidelines are observed:

(a) Before reading a command, print "ready" (without the quotes) followed by a newline character on standard output, call `fflush` for stdout, and then read a complete line from stdin into a buffer with `gets`. Process commands from this buffer, so that extraneous input can be ignored without leaving unread characters on stdin.
(b) The open and close protocols are simple enough, and should not be changed.

(c) Special variables such as messlist and rulelist require numerous hooks into the language. These hooks are necessary because the lists are big, change frequently, and must only be refetched on demand (that is, when referenced as a variable — which occurs below the level of user-defined functions). If you have data in your classifier which you want the user to see, think carefully before deciding to create a new special variable. It is much easier to write a user-defined function which manipulates global variables and talks to the classifier system through customized send and receive strings.

(d) The protocol for fetching the message and rule lists is as follows: The string "messlist" or "rulelist" is sent to the classifier (followed by the usual newline). The classifier is expected to return one message (or rule) per line. Each line should be a properly formatted number, string, list, or NULL value. Each line will become one element in the list. This allows the classifier to completely determine the structure of the message and rule lists. The user-defined message and rule functions should have similar definitions.

Ignoring these guidelines will create unnecessary work.
A.3.1. Robert Chai's Classifier System

Robert Chai's classifier is a bit-string learning system currently called *robert*.

A.3.1.1. Global Variables

There are two special global variables called *messlist* and *rulelist*. Both variables are lists. *messlist* is a list of message strings; each element is a bit string consisting of the characters "0" and "1". *rulelist* is a list of rules, where each rule has the list structure:

\[ \{ \text{conditions}, \text{action}, \text{strength} \} \]

*conditions* is a list of message pattern strings consisting of the characters "0", "1", and "#" (don't care). Pattern strings may have positive signs (where a message matches if it has the same pattern), or negative signs (where a message matches if it does not have the pattern). All condition strings must match before the *action* pattern string is invoked. *strength* is the rule's strength as a number starting from zero.

You may use *messlist* and *rulelist* as normal variables: you can subscript them with "[]", find out how big they are with the *size* function, etc. However, you can not change them — both variables are read-only. The only way to create new messages is with the *message* function (described later), and the only way to add new rules is with the *rule* function. This restriction is imposed because these variables are owned by the classifier system, not the programming language. *face* tries to make this transparent to the user by knowing which functions change *messlist* and *rulelist*, and fetching new copies from the classifier system when necessary.
A.3.1.2. Pre-Defined Functions

The following functions have been implemented. Many of these functions are written as user-defined functions and should be loaded from the "user.f" file when you run face.

clear ( )

clears all data in the user classifier system, effectively performing an initialization.

close ( )

closes the connection ("pipe") to the classifier system. The string "close" is sent to the classifier followed by a newline character. No response is expected. (close is implicitly done before face exits.)

crossover ( )

picks two rules at random and creates a new rule by swapping some of the bits.

flagmess ( )

flags the message list as invalid, so that a new copy will be fetched upon the next reference to messlist. This is automatically done when a pre-defined function sends a command to the classifier system which may affect the message list. You may need to call flagmess if you implement a new feature.

flagrule ( )

flags the rule list as invalid. See the previous explanation of flagmess.

generate ( )

does one generation of the classifier system. Each generation applies the rule list to the message list, produces a new message list, and updates the strength of the rules.

invert ( )

picks a rule at random and creates a new rule by inverting some of the bits.
message (string)

sends a new message to the classifier system. string may be any expression which evaluates to a string. The characters in string should be "0" or "1".

mutate ( )

picks a rule at random and creates a new rule by replacing some of the bits.

open (file, arg)

opens a connection ("pipe") to a user classifier system. If the first parameter file is given, then it must be a string containing the name of the classifier's executable file. If the second parameter arg is given, then it must be a string to be given to the classifier as the first argument on its "command" line. If either parameter is missing, or NULL, then the defaults will be used. The classifier system is expected to return the string "ready" followed by a newline. (open is implicitly done on the first call to receive or send.)

payoff (number)

sends a pay-off number to the classifier system. Positive numbers usually mean a successful result ("win"); negative numbers usually mean an error ("loss").

receive (string)

receives a line from the classifier system. A line consists of all characters except for the newline. If string is missing or NULL, then the line is returned as this function's value in the form of a string. If string is given, then it is an expected reply from the classifier system; anything else will be considered an error. (No function value is returned in this last case.)

rule (list)

sends a new rule to the classifier system. list must be a list of three elements: the first element is a list of condition strings; the second element is an action string; the third element is a strength number.
send ( string )

sends a string to the classifier system, followed by a newline character. The newline
is added by this function, and should not appear in your string. No response is
expected by this function: you may need to call receive to read a reply from the
classifier.

Note: if you send a command that should be done by a pre-defined function, then
the classifier data in face may not be consistent with the correct data in the clas-
sifier system. See flagmess and flagrule.

switch ( number )

switches to a new copy of the classifier system. number should be a number from 1
to 9, or it may be NULL for the default value of 1. Each copy of the classifier sys-
tem has its own message and rule lists. The current switch value is available in the
global variable switchnumber.
A.4. Running face

A copy of `face` is in the directory:

```
/u1/grad/fenske/Face
```

on the "pembina" machine. You should copy `face` to one of your directories. You may also want to copy the sample programs:

```
pretty.f  prime.f  user.f
```

and will need a copy of the user classifier system. To run `face`, type:

```
face
```

`face` will start running, and will print this introduction:

```
face da class: an interactive classifier programming language

ready for input
```

You may now type any legal expression, statement, or function definition. Please remember that every line must end with a semicolon (";").

To exit from `face`, type:

```
exit();
```

or the end-of-file character for your terminal (usually control-D).
A.4.1. Command Options

On the command line that invokes `face`, you may specify the following options:

`-a string`

sets the string to be given to the user classifier system as the first argument on its
command line. The default string is "-p", and may be explicitly given by "a-p".
The "p" signifies that input and output is to a process via a pipe.

`-f name`

sets the file name of the user classifier system. The default name is "robert", and
may be explicitly given by "-frobert".

`-t`

traces all input from and output to the classifier system. This is normally only use-
ful when debugging the classifier. The default is no tracing.

Any other options on the command line are assumed to be file names. The named
files will be read and executed before commands are read from the terminal. This is a good
way to load variables that were previously saved with the `save` function.
A.5. Restrictions

(1) Strings should be at most 999 characters long. When a string is allocated before its final size can be known, a maximum length of 999 bytes is assumed. The following routines are affected: formatted I/O with `scanf`, `printf`, and `sscanf` ("FioCheck" internal routine); explicit input strings in an executable statement or function definition ("LexString"); the pre-defined `pack` function ("PrePack"); the pre-defined `receive` function which reads from the user classifier system ("UserReceive"). This maximum size is determined by a `MAXSTRING` definition in the "fainc.h" file, and may be changed when rebuilding the compiler.

(2) Parameters to the formatted input and output functions (`printf`, `scanf`, `sprintf`, and `sscanf`) must agree with the fields specified in the format string. Input parameters must be assigned dummy values so that the pre-defined functions know what to use with the real system calls. Failure to do this will result in obscure core dumps ("crashes").

(3) File line numbers in error messages tell you where the compiler was when it detected the error (which may not be where the error is). If you mix statements and data in a file, then the data lines are not counted in the line number, because they are not read by the compiler.
Appendix B: Program Listings

The face programming language is constructed from seventeen different source modules which are built under the control of a make command file [Fe78]. Most of the code is written in the "C" programming language [Ke78]; the remainder is written in either LEX [Le78] or YACC [Jo78]. LEX and YACC are compiler-writing tools, and convert language descriptions into "C" code.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>File</th>
<th>Lines</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>makefile</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>dependencies and commands for rebuilding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>face.c</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>main program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faexe.c</td>
<td>2,007</td>
<td>parse tree execution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faglo.c</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>global variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fainc.h</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>includes: definitions and data types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>falex.l</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>input lexical tokens (LEX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>famem.c</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>memory allocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fapre.c</td>
<td>1,283</td>
<td>pre-defined language functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fasub.c</td>
<td>1,046</td>
<td>support subroutines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fause.c</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>pre-defined user classifier support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fayac.y</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>language grammar syntax (YACC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kpr.c</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>Keith's &quot;pr&quot; print utility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telex.c</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>test for lexical routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tepar.c</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>test for parse tree routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terob.c</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>test for Robert Chai's classifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pretty.f</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>example user-defined function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>user.f</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>user-defined classifier support functions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| total lines | 7,882 |
Appendix C: Execution Profile

Programs written in the Face language run approximately 100 times slower than the same program written in "C". Half of this delay can be attributed to interpreting the parse tree instead of generating compiled code. The remaining time is spent manipulating dynamic data objects.

During development, an execution profile was created with the UNIX gprof utility. This profile counts how often subroutines are called and estimates how much of the total CPU time is spent in each subroutine. Statistics are printed in descending order of CPU time. The information can be used to improve the performance of a program by changing sections where the most CPU time is spent.

The first working version of Face had a simple approach to pushing and popping values from the stack. The PushStack routine cleared the free and owner stack fields, and allocated a new dummy value structure. PopStack released this dummy structure. For a test program which found all prime numbers from 1 to 100, there were 13,225 calls to the malloc dynamic memory allocation routine and 13,111 calls to the free de-allocation routine.

A newer version initialized all stack fields to zero or NULL at the beginning of the program. PushStack was changed to create a dummy value structure only if the current dummy pointer was NULL; otherwise, the old dummy structure was used. PopStack was changed to release the value pointed to by the dummy structure (but not the dummy structure itself), and to set this pointer to NULL. Calls to malloc for the same test program were reduced to 4,812; calls to free were reduced to 4,681. The new version used 5.06 seconds of CPU time compared to 7.88 seconds for the old version (1.56 times faster).

A comparison of some CPU times for the old and new versions follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subroutine</th>
<th>old version</th>
<th></th>
<th>new version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>seconds</td>
<td>% total</td>
<td>calls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ExecParse</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FreeValue</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CheckStack</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malloc</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>13,225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MakeValue</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>free</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>13,111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PushStack</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PopStack</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GetMemory</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FreeString</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both versions spent roughly half of their time manipulating stack or dynamic data (FreeValue to FreeString). Fifty percent is a heavy price to pay for dynamic data. Even though no single subroutine consumes all of the time, there was room for improvement in the old version. The problem was to find a common area that affected all of the subroutines named above. Clearly, this was memory allocation. By reducing the number of calls to create and destroy stack dummy structures (a change to only a few lines of code), the total CPU time was reduced by one third.
# Face/makefile

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# The University of Alberta
# Edmonton, Alberta, Canada
# T6G 2H1
# December 1987
# Copyright (c) 1987 by Keith Fenske. All rights reserved.

# defaults
CFLAGS=-O
copies=1
paper=default
printon=bothsides
priority=n
return=bins

# file lists
OBJECT = face.o falex.o famem.o fapre.o fasub.o fause.o lex.yy.o y.tab.o
SOURCE = makefile face.c falex.c famem.c famre.c fasub.c fause.c fayac.y kpr.c telex.c tepar.c termc.c pretty.f user.f

# the whole thing
all : face guide.xp kpr
  #echo "$Face is ready"

$(OBJECT) : fainc.h

face : $(OBJECT)
  cc $(OBJECT) -ll -lm -o face

guide.xp : guide.ms
  tbl guide.ms | eqn -Tx-r | troff -ms -Tx-r >guide.xp

kpr : kpr.c
  cc kpr.c -o kpr

lex.yy.c : falex.1
  lex falex.1

lex.yy.o : fainc.h lex.yy.c y.old.h

y.old.h : y.tab.h
  cmp -s y.old.h y.tab.h || cp y.tab.h y.old.h

y.tab.c y.tab.h : fayac.y
yacc -d fayac.y

# test programs (must be explicitly named to be built)
telex : fago.o famem.o lex.yy.o telex.o
  cc fago.o famem.o lex.yy.o telex.o -ll -o telex

telex.o : fainc.h telex.c y.old.h

tepar : fago.o famem.o lex.yy.o tepar.o y.tab.o
  cc fago.o famem.o lex.yy.o tepar.o y.tab.o -ll -o tepar
```sh
Mon 11 Jan 1988  makefile  page 2

71  tepar.o : fainc.h tepar.c
72  terob : fainc.h terob.c
73  cc terob.c -o terob
74
75  # utility functions
76
77  clean :
78      -rm a.out core lex.yy.c telex tepar terob y.o.d.h y.output y.tab.[ch]
79      -rm *.o *.xp
80
81  count :
82      wc $(SOURCE)
83
84  pembina :
85      rcp face pretty.f prime.f user.f pembina:Face
86
87  permit :
88      -chmod 644 *
89      -chmod 755 face kpr telex tepar terob
90
91  print : print.xp print.prime print.source
92
93  print.xp : mpr -i -m -p"copies=\$(copies) paper=\$(paper) printon=\$(printon) \n94            priority=\$(priority) return=\$(return)" <guide.xp
95
96  print.prime : kpr
97      kpr -p269 -s prime.f prime.s prime.p >prime.xp
98
99  print.source : kpr
100     kpr -n -p148 -s $(SOURCE) >source.xp
101     mpr -i -m -p"copies=\$(copies) pages=200 paper=\$(paper) \n102        printon=\$(printon) priority=\$(priority) return=\$(return)" \n103        <source.xp
```
/*
face.c -- Classifier Interface

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December 1987

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This is the main program for the interactive classifier interface ("face").
The following arguments ("flags", "options", "parameters", "switches") may be
given on the command line:

-a <string>
sets the string which will be given to the user classifier
system as its first argument. The default "<string>" is "-p"
to indicate that commands are coming from a pipe.

-f <name>
sets the executable file name of the user classifier system.
The default "<name>" is "robert".

-t
traces all I/O with the classifier system. Generally only used
for debugging. The default is no tracing.

Any other arguments must be file names. These files will be parsed and
executed before input is read from the terminal (standard input). This is a
good way to load global variables previously saved with the "save" function.

*/

#include "fainc.h"             /* our standard includes */

main(argc, argv)
    int argc;               /* number of arguments */
    char * argv[];          /* argument strings */
    {                       /* index variable */
    /* introduction */
    printf("\nface da class: an interactive classifier programming language\n");
    /* pre-defined symbols */
    ClearStack();           /* get execution stack ready */
    PreDefine();            /* do pre-defined symbols */
    UserDefine();           /* do user-defined symbols */
    /* process command line arguments */
    for (i = 1; i < argc; i++)
    {
        if (argv[i][0] == '-')
        {
            switch (argv[i][1])
            {
            case ('a');
            case ('A');
                UserArg = & argv[i][2];
                break;
            }
case ('f');
case ('F');
    UserFile = & argv[i][2];
    break;
case ('t');
case ('T');
    UserTrace = YES;
    break;
    default:
        fprintf(stderr, "\%s: unknown flag: \%s'\n",
                argv[0], argv[i]);
        exit(-1);
        break;
    }
else
    /* must be a file name to load and execute */
    ExecFile(argv[i]);
}

/* now read and execute from standard input */
printf("\nready for input\n");
ExecFile(NULL);

/* exit back to UNIX (or our parent process) */
PreExit(NULL);
/*

faexe.c -- Execute Parse Tree

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December 1987

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These are the routines to execute a parse tree built up by "fayac.y". The YACC
grammar does essentially no checking while creating the parse tree. It is up
to the main routine "ExecParse" and its subroutines to verify that the actions
in the parse tree are meaningful.

*/

#include "fainc.h"    /* our standard includes */
#include <math.h>      /* math routines */
#include <setjmp.h>    /* system long jump */

/*
Define a type for saving "jump buffers", which are used by "setjmp" and
"longjmp" for stack information. We make the whole buffer into a structure,
so that we can assign them easily.
*/
typedef struct { jmp_buf env; } JumpThing;

JumpThing ErrorJump; /* global jump for errors */
JumpThing ReturnJump; /* global jump for function returns */

/*
Define some logic tables for the bit string operations AND and OR. Each table
is for 0, 1, don't care ('#'), and illegal ('?'). The tables are:

          AND | 0 | 1 | # | ? |
          ---------------
          0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | ? |
          1 | ? | 1 | 1 | ? |
          # | 0 | 1 | # | ? |

          OR | 0 | 1 | # | ? |
          ---------------
          0 | 0 | # | # | 0 |
          1 | # | 1 | # | 1 |
          # | # | # | # | # |

This may look funny (why is "0" AND'ed with "1" undefined?), until you accept
that bit strings represent all possible binary values that match a given
pattern. No bit string can have both "0" and "1" in the same position.
*/
char AndTable[4][4] = { '0', BADBIT, '0', BADBIT,  
                        BADBIT, '1', '1', BADBIT,  
                        '0', '1', ANYBIT, BADBIT,  
                        BADBIT, BADBIT, BADBIT, BADBIT };  

char OrTable[4][4] = { '0', ANYBIT, ANYBIT, '0',  
                        ANYBIT, '1', ANYBIT, '1',  
                        ANYBIT, ANYBIT, ANYBIT, ANYBIT,  
                        '0', '1', ANYBIT, BADBIT };  

/*  
Check that the current stack pointer is valid. Generate an internal error  
message if not.  
*/  

CheckStack()  
{  
    if (SP < 0)  
    {  
        PrintLine();  
        fprintf(stderr,  
            "internal error: CheckStack SP = %d is negative\n",  
            SP);  
        SP = 0;  
        /* fix */  
        ExecAbort();  
    }  
    else if (SP >= STACKSIZE)  
    {  
        PrintLine();  
        fprintf(stderr,  
            "internal error: CheckStack SP = %d not less than %d\n",  
            SP, STACKSIZE);  
        SP = STACKSIZE - 1;  
        /* fix */  
        ExecAbort();  
    }  
}  

/*  
Clear all entries in the stack so that it is safe for PushStack() to assume  
that all non-NULL "dummy" fields point to a legitimate dummy value structure.  
*/  

ClearStack()  
{  
    int i;  
    /* index variable */  
    for (i = 0; i < STACKSIZE; i++)  
    {  
        Stack[i].dummy = NULL;  
        Stack[i].free = YES;  
        Stack[i].owner = NULL;  
    }  
    FP = SP = 0;  
    /* stack pointers */  
}  

/*  
Debugging routine to dump the entire stack.  
*/  

DumpStack()
{ int i; /* index variable */
    printf("\nStack dump with FP = \%d and SP = \%d\n", FP, SP);
    for (i = 0; i <= SP; i++)
    {
        printf("Stack \%d : dummy \%a free \%a owner \%a value ", i,
            Stack[i].dummy, Stack[i].free, Stack[i].owner);
        PrintValue(stdout, Stack[i].dummy, YES);
        printf("\n");
    }
}

/*
ExecAbort()
*@
ExecAbort()
{
    longjmp(ErrorJump.env, YES);
}

/*@ 
ExecAssign()
*/
ExecAssign()
{
    if (Stack[SP-1].owner != NULL)
    {
        /* free any old value owned by the owner */
        FreeValue(Stack[SP-1].owner->this);
        /* copy the new value */
        MakeDynamic(SP); /* copy right side */
        Stack[SP].free = NO; /* but assignment kills free */
        Stack[SP-1].free = NO; /* this is not the real variable! */
        Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = Stack[SP].dummy->this;
        Stack[SP-1].owner->this = Stack[SP].dummy->this;
        PopStack(); /* kill right side */
    } else
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "left side of '=' is not assignable\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
}

/*@ 
ExecCompare()
*/
Compare two values, given four sign flags (equal, greater than, less than, or not comparable) and a flag to indicate if don't cares ("#") are acceptable in strings.
ExecCompare(par, equal, greater, less, noteq, pattern)

ParseThing * pp;

/* a parse tree pointer */

int equal;

/* YES if left = right is okay */

int greater;

/* YES if left > right is okay */

int less;

/* YES if left < right is okay */

int noteq;

/* YES if not comparable is okay */

int pattern;

/* YES if */

/* special in strings */

{

if compare;

/* result from CompareValue() */

NUMBER result;

/* FALSE or TRUE */

ExecParse(par->one);

/* left side */

ExecParse(par->two);

/* right side */

compare = CompareValue(Stack[SP-1].dummy->this, Stack[SP].dummy->this, pattern);

PopStack();

/* kill right side */

PopStack();

/* kill left side */

if ((compare == CMPEQ) && equal)

|| ((compare == CMPT) && greater)

|| ((compare == CMPLT) && less)

|| ((compare == CMNP) && noteq))

result = TRUE;

else

result = FALSE;

PushStack();

/* our result */

Stack[SP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValueNUMBER);

Stack[SP].dummy->this->number = result;

}

/ *

ExecFile()

/ *

Read, parse, and execute the statements in a given file (or standard input if
the file name string pointer is NULL). Return on an end-of-file or error.
Ignore errors when reading from standard input.
/ *

ExecFile(cp)

char * cp;

/* file name string pointer */

FILE * fp;

/* new file pointer */

JumpThing oerror;

/* old (previous) error jump */

FILE * oldfp;

/* old (previous) file pointer */

int oldframe;

/* old (previous) frame pointer */

int oldline;

/* old (previous) file line number */

JumpThing oreturn;

/* old (previous) function return */

int oldstack;

/* old (previous) stack pointer */

oldframe = FP;

oldstack = SP;

/* must return to this frame */

/* must return to this stack */

/* open the file for reading */

oldfp = yin;

oldline = LineNumber;

/* save LEX file pointer */

/* save file line number */

if (cp == NULL)

{

fp = stdin;

/* use standard input */

LineNumber = -9999; /* fake file line number */

}

else

{

printf("loading file "s\n", cp);
fp = fopen(cp, "r");
if (fp == NULL)
{
  fprintf(stderr,
  "load failed: can't open file '%s' for reading\n", cp);
  return;
}
LineNumber = 1;

yyin = fp; /* hopefully, re-direct LEX input */
/* parse statements, with a long jump set for errors */
olderror = ErrorJump; /* save previous error jump */
oldreturn = ReturnJump; /* save previous function return */
while (!feof(fp))
{
  int status; /* status of called function */
  int thisline; /* file line number */
  /* save file line number, which ExecParse changes */
  thisline = LineNumber;
  if ((setjmp(ErrorJump.env) == 0) && (setjmp(ReturnJump.env) == 0))
  {
    ParseTree = NULL;
    status = yyparse();
    thisline = LineNumber;
    if (status == 0)
    {
      ExecParse(ParseTree);
      FreeParse(ParseTree);
    }
    else if (cp != NULL)
    {
      break;
    }
  }
  else
  { /* fix up the stack after abort */
    if (FP != oldframe)
    {
      /*
      printf("restoring frame pointer from %d to %d\n", 
      FP, oldframe);
      */
      FP = oldframe;
    }
    if (SP > oldstack)
    {
      /*
      printf("restoring stack pointer from %d to %d\n", 
      SP, oldstack);
      */
      while (SP > oldstack)
      PopStack();
    }
    /* stop looking at this file, if not stdin */
    if (cp != NULL)
    {
      break;
    }
  }
  LineNumber = thisline; /* restore file line number */
ErrorJump = olderror; /* restore previous error jump */
ReturnJump = oldreturn; /* restore previous function return */

/* print pretty messages for end-of-file */

if (cp == NULL)
  printf("\nend-of-file on standard input\n");
else
  if (feof(fp))
    printf("\nend-of-file on file \'\%s\'\n", cp);
else
    printf("\nclosing file \'\%s\'\n", cp);
  fclose(fp);

yyin = oldfp; /* hopefully, restore LEX input */
LineNumber = oldline; /* restore file line number */

}

/*
Execute a parse tree node as a function call. This is used by OpNAME and
OpFUNCTION. After all of the parameters have been generated, the new function
is given a frame pointer (FP) for its parameters so that its stack looks like
this:

  Stack[FP] = function result (initially NULL)
  Stack[FP+1] = first parameter
  Stack[FP+2] = second parameter
  ...
  ...
  ...

For user-defined functions, we copy by value any parameters which have not been
declared as "passed by address" (free = NO). Pre-defined functions must take
care of themselves.

*/

ExecuteFunction(par)

  ParseThing = par; /* a parse tree pointer */

  int i;
  int newframe;
  int oldframe;
  JumpThing oldreturn;
  SymbolThing * sym;

  oldframe = FP;
  oldreturn = ReturnJump;

  /* check that this symbol really is a function */

  if (par->symbol->type != SymFUNCTION)
  {
    PrintErr(stderr, "symbol \'\%s\' is not a function\n",
      par->symbol->name);
    ExecAbort();
  }

  /* make room for a result */

  PushStack();
  newframe = SP; /* where new frame pointer will be */


/* copy the caller's parameter list to the stack */
/* can't use new FP yet, because some parameters may be local */

ExecParse(par->one);

/* add NULL parameters for anything missing */
FP = newFrame;
while ((SP - FP) < par->symbol->count)
    PushStack();

/* call the function (user-defined or pre-defined) */
switch (par->symbol->special)
{
case (0):
    /* user-defined function */
    /* check if parameters should be made dynamic (copied) */
    i = FP + 1;           /* stack entry for first parameter */
sym = par->symbol->local->next;  /* first parameter */
while (sym != NULL)
{
    if (sym->free == NO)
    {
        /* may be passed by address */
    }
    else
    {
        /* must be passed by value (copied) */
    }
    MakeDynamic(i);
    i++;
    sym = sym->next;
}

/* call the user-defined function, with a return trap */
if (setjmp(ReturnJump.env) == 0)
{
    ExecParse(par->symbol->parse);
}
else
{
    /* must be an early "return" statement */
}
break;

case (SpeABS):
    PreAbs(par);
    break;

case (SpeACOS):
    /* math routine */
    PreMath(par, acos, "acos function");
    break;

case (SpeASIN):
    /* math routine */
    PreMath(par, asin, "asin function");
    break;

case (SpeATAN):
    /* math routine */
    PreMath(par, atan, "atan function");
    break;

case (SpeATAN2):
    /* math routine */
    PreMath(par, atan2, "atan2 function");
    break;

case (SpeCBRT):
    /* math routine */
    PreMath(par, cbrt, "cbrt function");
    break;

case (SpecCLOSE):
    /* user classifier */
    PreClose(par);
    break;
}
case (SpeCOS):
  /* math routine */
  PreMath(par, cos, "cos function");
  break;

  case (SpeEXIT):
  PreExit(par);
  break;

  case (SpeEXP):
  /* math routine */
  PreMath(par, exp, "exp function");
  break;

  case (SpeFLAGMESS):
  /* user classifier */
  PreFlagMess(par);
  break;

  case (SpeFLAGRULE):
  /* user classifier */
  PreFlagRule(par);
  break;

  case (SpeLOAD):
  PreLoad(par);
  break;

  case (SpeLOG):
  /* math routine */
  PreMath(par, log, "log function");
  break;

  case (SpeLOG10):
  /* math routine */
  PreMath(par, log10, "log10 function");
  break;

  case (SpeOPEN):
  /* user classifier */
  PreOpen(par);
  break;

  case (SpePACK):
  PrePack(par);
  break;

  case (SpePOW):
  /* math routine */
  PreMath(par, pow, "pow function");
  break;

  case (SpePRINTF):
  PrePrintf(par);
  break;

  case (SpeRANDOM):
  PreRandom(par);
  break;

  case (SpeRECEIVE):
  /* user classifier */
  PreReceive(par);
  break;

  case (SpeROUND):
  PreRound(par);
  break;

  case (SpeSAVE):
  /* user classifier */
  PreSave(par);
  break;

  case (SpeSCANF):
  PreScanf(par);
  break;

  case (SpeSEND):
  /* user classifier */
  PreSend(par);
  break;

  case (SpeSIGN):
  PreSign(par);
  break;

  case (SpeSIN):
  /* math routine */
  PreMath(par, sin, "sin function");
  break;

  case (SpeSIZE):
  PreSize(par);
  break;

  case (SpeSPRINTF):
  PreSprintf(par);
  break;

  case (SpeSPRINTF):
  /* math routine */
  PreMath(par, sqrt, "sqrt function");
  break;

  case (SpeSSCANF):
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561      PreSscanf(par);
562      break;
563      case (SpeSTOP):
564          PreStop(par);
565          break;
566      case (SpeSYSTEM):
567          PreSystem(par);
568          break;
569      case (SpeTAN):
570          /* math routine */
571          PreMath(par, tan, "tan function");
572          break;
573      case (SpeTRUNC):
574          PreTrunc(par);
575          break;
576      case (SpeTYPE):
577          PreType(par);
578          break;
579      case (SpeUNPACK):
580          PreUnpack(par);
581          break;
582      case (SpeVALUE):
583          PreValue(par);
584          break;
585      case (SpeWRITE):
586          PreWrite(par);
587          break;
588      default:
589          PrintLine();
590          fprintf(stderr, "internal error: ExecFunction symbol special = %d\n",
591              par->symbol->special);
592          ExecAbort();
593  }
594  /*
595  /* pop everything off the stack, except for the result */
596  while (FP < SP)
597      PopStack();
598  FP = oldframe;                     /* restore previous frame pointer */
599  ReturnJump = oldreturn;            /* restore previous function return */
600  }
601  
602  /*
603  ExecName()
604  Given the address of a symbol table entry, push the value of the symbol onto
605  the stack. This is used by OpFOR and OpNAME.
606  */
607  
608  ExecName(sym)
609  SymbolThing * sym;   /* a symbol table pointer */
610  {
611      int n;                 /* stack entry number */
612      switch (sym->type)
613      {
614          case (SymFUNCTION):
615              PrintLine();
616              fprintf(stderr, "function \%s\n\n", sym->name);
617              ExecAbort();
618              break;
619          case (SymGLOBAL):
620              PushStack();
621              if (sym->dummy == NULL)
622                  sym->dummy = MakeValue(Va1DUMMY);
623              if (sym->special == 0)
624                  
625
630  Stack[SP].dummy->this = sym->dummy->this;
631  Stack[SP].free = NO;
632  Stack[SP].owner = sym->dummy;
633 
634  /* must be a user classifier variable */
635  UserOpName(sym);
636  }
637  else
638  }
639  break;
640  case (SymLOCAL):
641    PushStack();
642    n = FP + sym->offset;
643    if (Stack[n].owner == NULL)
644    {
645      /* regular local symbol not attached anywhere else */
646      Stack[SP].dummy->this = Stack[n].dummy->this;
647      Stack[SP].free = NO;
648      Stack[SP].owner = Stack[n].dummy;
649    }
650    else
651    {
652      /* local copy of a more global symbol */
653      /* value may have changed: get new value from owner */
654      Stack[SP].dummy->this = Stack[n].owner->this;
655      Stack[SP].free = NO;
656      Stack[SP].owner = Stack[n].owner;
657    }
658  break;
659  default:
660    PrintLine();
661    fprintf(stderr, "internal error: ExecName symbol type = %d
", sym->type);
662    ExecAbort();
663    break;
664  }
665  /*
666  ExecParse()
667  Recursively execute a parse tree. This is one big switch statement, where each
668  case pushes and pops the stack in its own way. See OpSTMT for some error
669  checking. . . .
670  */
671  ExecParse(par, /* a parse tree pointer */
672  ParseThing * par;
673  { int error;
674  int j, k, m, n;
675  int oldframe;
676  int oldline;
677  int oldstack;
678  ValueThing * val;
679  NUMBER w, x, y, z;
680  if (par == NULL)
681  return;
682  /* change file line number to value saved in parse tree */
683  oldline = LineNumber;
684  LineNumber = par->line;
685  /* check stack, before doing anything important */
/* CheckStack(); */ /* leave this to PopStack, PushStack */
/* one big, big switch statement */
switch (par->type)
{
    /* and */
    /* or */
    case (OpAND):
    case (OpOR):
        PushStack(); /* our result */
        ExecParse(par->one); /* left side */
        ExecParse(par->two); /* right side */
        error = NO; /* assume no errors */
        if (((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this == NULL)
             || (Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL))
        {
            error = YES;
        } else if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER)
                    && (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER))
        {
            x = Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->number;
            y = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
            Switch (par->type)
            {
                case (OpAND):
                if (x == FALSE)
                    if ((y == FALSE) || (y == TRUE))
                        w = FALSE;
                    else
                        error = YES;
                else if (x == TRUE)
                    if (y == FALSE)
                        w = TRUE;
                    else if (y == TRUE)
                        w = TRUE;
                else
                    error = YES;
                else
                    error = YES;
                break;
                case (OpOR):
                if (x == FALSE)
                    if (y == FALSE)
                        w = FALSE;
                    else if (y == TRUE)
                        w = TRUE;
                else
                    error = YES;
                else if (x == TRUE)
                    if ((y == FALSE) || (y == TRUE))
                        w = TRUE;
                else
                    error = YES;
                else
                    error = YES;
                break;
                default:
                PrintLine();
                fprintf(stderr,
                        "internal error: OpAND parse type = %d\n",
                        par->type);
                error = YES;
break;
}

if (!error)
{
    Stack[SP-2].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
    val->number = w;
}
else if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
    && (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING))
{
    char * left, * right, * result;
    left = Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->string;
    right = Stack[SP].dummy->this->string;
    result = NULL;
    j = strlen(left);
    k = strlen(right);
    CheckSign(Stack[SP-1].dummy->this);
    CheckSign(Stack[SP].dummy->this);
    if ((j == k)
        && (Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->sign ==
            Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign))
    {
        Stack[SP-2].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValSTRING);
        val->sign = Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign;
        val->string = result = GetMemory(k + 1);
        while (*left)
        {
            if (*left == '0')
                m = 0;
            else if (*left == '1')
                m = 1;
            else if (*left == ANYBIT)
                m = 2;
            else if (*left == BADBIT)
                m = 3;
            else
            {
                error = YES;
                break;
            }
            if (*right == '0')
                n = 0;
            else if (*right == '1')
                n = 1;
            else if (*right == ANYBIT)
                n = 2;
            else if (*right == BADBIT)
                n = 3;
            else
            {
                error = YES;
                break;
            }
            if (par->type == OpAND)
                (*result) = AndTable[m][n];
            else
                (*result) = OrTable[m][n];
            left ++;
            right ++;
            result ++;
        }
    }
(*resul*) = '\0';
}
else
    error = YES;
}
else
    error = YES;
if (error)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "bad values in 'and' or 'or': ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP-1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, " and ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}
PopStack();     /* kill right side */
PopStack();     /* kill left side */
brea
/* assignment */
case (OpASSIGN):
    ExecParse(par->one);     /* left side */
    ExecParse(par->two);     /* right side */
    ExecAssign();     /* do assignment */
    break;
/* concatenate set elements */
case (OpCONCAT):
    PushStack();
    Stack[SP].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(VaLELEMENT);
    /* generate new (left) element */
    ExecParse(par->one);
    MakeDynamic(SP);
    val->this = Stack[SP].dummy->this;     /* link */
    Stack[SP].free = NO;
    PopStack();
    /* generate right recursive tail */
    if (par->two != NULL)
    {
        ExecParse(par->two);
        MakeDynamic(SP);
        val->next = Stack[SP].dummy->this;     /* link */
        Stack[SP].free = NO;
        PopStack();
    }
    break;
/* division (integer quotient) */
/* modulo (integer remainder) */
case (OpDIV):
    case (OpMOD):
    PushStack();     /* our result */
    ExecParse(par->one);     /* left side */
    ExecParse(par->two);     /* right side */
    error = NO;       /* assume no errors */
    if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->type != VaNUMBER)
|| (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
{| error = YES;
} else
{| long i, j, k; /* use long integers here */
| x = Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->number; /* left side */
| y = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number; /* right side */
| j = (long) x;
| k = (long) y;
| if ((x != (NUMBER) j) || (y != (NUMBER) k))
{| /* truncation changes value */
| error = YES;
|} else if (k == 0)
{| /* can't divide by zero */
| error = YES;
|} else
{| switch (par->type)
{| case (OpDIV):
| i = j / k;
| break;
| case (OpMOD):
| i = j % k;
| break;
| default:
| PrintLine();
| fprintf(stderr, "Internal error: OpDIV parse type = %d\n",
| par->type);
| error = YES;
| break;
|}
| w = (NUMBER) ;
| Stack[SP-2].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
| val->number = w;
|}
if (error)
{| PrintLine();
| fprintf(stderr, "bad values in 'div' or 'mod': ");
| PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP-1].dummy, YES);
| fprintf(stderr, " and ");
| PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
| fprintf(stderr, "\n");
| ExecAbort();
|}
PopStack(); /* kill right side */
PopStack(); /* kill left side */
break;
/* equal relation */
/* equal pattern relation */
/* greater than or equal relation */
/* greater than relation */
/* less than or equal relation */
/* less than relation */
/* not equal relation */
/* not equal pattern relation */

case(OpEO):
ExecCompare(par, YES, NO, NO, NO, NO):
break;

case(OpEQP):
ExecCompare(par, YES, NO, NO, NO, YES):
break;

case(OpGE):
ExecCompare(par, YES, YES, YES, NO, NO):
break;

case(OpGT):
ExecCompare(par, NO, YES, YES, NO, NO):
break;

case(OpLE):
ExecCompare(par, YES, NO, YES, NO, NO):
break;

case(OpLT):
ExecCompare(par, NO, NO, YES, NO, NO):
break;

case(OpNE):
ExecCompare(par, NO, YES, YES, YES, NO):
break;

case(OpNP):
ExecCompare(par, NO, YES, YES, YES, YES):
break;

/* for */

case (OpFOR):

/* get initial ("from") value */

if (par->one == NULL)
x = ONE;
else
{
    ExecParse(par->one);
    if ((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr,
                    "bad 'from' value in 'for' statement: ");
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, "\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
    x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
    PopStack();
}

/* get final ("to") value */

if (par->two == NULL)
y = ONE;
else
{
    ExecParse(par->two);
    if ((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr,
                    "bad 'to' value in 'for' statement: ");
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, "\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
}


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y = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
    PopStack();

/* get increment ("by") value */
if (par->three == NULL)
    z = ONE;
else
    ExecParse(par->three);
    if (((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->number == ZERO))
        printf(stderr, "bad 'by' value in 'for' statement: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, ":\n");
    ExecAbort();
    z = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
    PopStack();

/* execute for loop */
for (w = x; ; w += z)
{
    /* assign value to index variable */
    if (((z < ZERO) && (w < y))
        || ((z >= ZERO) && (w > y))
        break;
    /* execute statement body */
    ExecParse(par->four);

break;

/* function call */
case (OpFUNCTION):
    ExecFunction(par);
    break;

/* if */
case (OpIF):
    ExecParse(par->one);
    /* test condition */
    error = NO;
    /* assume no errors */
    if (((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
        error = YES;
    else
    {
```
x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
/* check test condition */
if (x == TRUE)
{
    ExecParse(par->two);
}
else if (x == FALSE)
{
    ExecParse(par->three);
}
else
    error = YES;

if (error)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "bad condition in 'if' statement: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}
PopStack(); /* kill test condition */
break;
/* index (subscript or subrange) */
case (OpINDEX):
    PushStack(); /* our result */
    /* generate expression to be indexed */
    ExecParse(par->one);
    if ((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValSET)
        && (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValSTRING))
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "subscripted expression must be a set or string: ");
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, "\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
    /* generate index lower bound */
    ExecParse(par->two);
    error = NO; /* assume no errors */
    if ((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
    {
        error = YES;
    }
    else
    {
        x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
        m = n = (long) x;
        if (x != (NUMBER) m)
        { /* truncation changes value */
            error = YES;
        }
}  
  
else if (m <= 0)  
{  
  /* lower bound must be positive */  
  
    error = YES;  
  
}  

if (error)  
{  
    PrintLine();  
    fprintf(stderr,  
        "subscript lower bound must be a positive integer: ");  
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);  
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");  
    ExecAbort();  
}  

PopStack();  
/* generate index upper bound */  

if (par->three != NULL)  
{  
    ExecParse(par->three);  
    error = NO;  
    /* assume no errors */  

    if ( ((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)  
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != Va1NUMBER))  
        
        error = YES;  
    
else  
{  
    x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;  
    n = (Long) x;  

    if (x != (NUMBER) n)  
    {  
        /* truncation changes value */  
        error = YES;  
    }  
else if (n < 0)  
{  
    /* upper bound must be non-negative */  
    
    error = YES;  
}  

}  

if (error)  
{  
    PrintLine();  
    fprintf(stderr,  
        "subscript upper bound must be a non-negative integ");  
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);  
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");  
    ExecAbort();  
}  

PopStack();  
/* do set subscription */  

if (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == Va1SET)  
{  

CheckSign(Stack[SP].dummy->this);

if (m > n)
{
    /* return a null set */
    Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = MakeValue(Val1SET);
    Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->sign =
        Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign;
}
else
{
    ValueThing * val;    /* a value structure */

    /* find first element */

    j = 1;
    val = Stack[SP].dummy->this->next;
    while ((j < m) && (val != NULL))
    {
        j ++;
        val = val->next;
    }

    if (val == NULL)
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "bad subscript: index %d", m);
        fprintf(stderr, " greater than set size");
        fprintf(stderr, " %d for ", (j-1));
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, \
            "\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }

    /* single elements may be assignable */

    if (par->three == NULL)
    {
        if ((Stack[SP].free == YES)
            || (Stack[SP].owner == NULL))
        {
            /* free is never assignable */

            Stack[SP-1].dummy->this =
                CopyValue(val->this);
            Stack[SP-1].free = YES;
            Stack[SP-1].owner = NULL;
        }
        else
        {
            Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = val->this;
            Stack[SP-1].free = NO;
            Stack[SP-1].owner = val;
        }
    }

    /* subranges are copied (not assignable) */

    else
    {
        ValueThing * new;

        new = MakeValue(Val1SET);
        new->sign = Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign;
        Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = new;
        Stack[SP-1].free = YES;
        Stack[SP-1].owner = NULL;

        while ((j <= n) && (val != NULL))
        {
            j ++;
            val = val->next;
        }
    }
}
j ++;
new->next = MakeValue(ValELEMENT);
new->next->this = CopyValue(val->this);
new = new->next;
val = val->next;
}
}

/* do string subscription */
/* easier because the result is never assignable */
else
{
    char * lp, * rp:  /* left, right string */
    CheckSign(Stack[SP].dummy->this);
    Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValSTRING);
    if (par->three == NULL)
        val->sign = 1;  /* if [n] indexing */
    else
        val->sign = Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign;
    rp = Stack[SP].dummy->this->string;
k = strlen(rp);
    if (m > n)
    { /* return a null string */
        val->string = lp = GetMemory(1);
        (*lp) = '\0';
    }
    else if (m > k)
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "bad subscript: index %d", m);
        fprintf(stderr, " greater than string size");
        fprintf(stderr, " %d for ", k);
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, "/n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
    else
    {
        if (k < n)
            n = k;  /* adjust upper bound */
        val->string = lp = GetMemory(n - m + 2);
        rp = rp + m - 1;
        for (; m <= n ; m ++)
            (*lp ++) = (*rp ++);
        (*lp) = '\0';
    }
}
PopStack();  /* kill subscripted expression */
break;
/* subtraction ("-" ) */
/* division ("/" ) */
/* multiplication ("*" ) */
case (OpMINUS):
case (OpSLASH):
case (OpSTAR):
PushStack(); /* our result */
ExecParse(par->one); /* left side */
ExecParse(par->two); /* right side */
error = NO; /* assume no errors */
if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this == NULL)
  || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
  error = YES;
else {
  x = Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->number; /* left side */
  y = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number; /* right side */
  switch (par->type)
  {
    case (OpMINUS):
      w = x - y;
      break;
    case (OpSLASH):
      if (y == ZERO) error = YES;
      else w = x / y;
      break;
    case (OpSTAR):
      w = x * y;
      break;
    default:
      PrintLine();
      fprintf(stderr, "internal error: OpMINUS parse type = %d\n",
                 par->type);
      error = YES;
      break;
  }
  if (error)
  {
    Stack[SP-2].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
    val->number = w;
  }
  if (error)
  {
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "bad values in \"\", \"-\", or \"/\": ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP-1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, \" and \n\",
            par->type);
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, \"\n\"");
    ExecAbort();
  }
  PopStack(); /* kill right side */
  PopStack(); /* kill left side */
  break;
  /* name (may be a function call) */
  case (OpNAME):
    if (par->symbol->type == SymFUNCTION)
    {
      ExecFunction(par);
    }
    else
{  
    ExecName(par->symtab);
}
break;

/* negate (unary minus) */

case (OpNEGATE):
    ExecParse(par->one);    /* right side */
    MakeDynamic(SP);
    val = Stack[SP].dummy->this;
    if (val == NULL)
    {
        /* negated NULL is still just NULL */
        else if ((val->type == ValNUMBER)
            val->number = - val->number;
    } else if (((val->type == ValSET) || (val->type == ValSTRING))
        CheckSign(val);
        val->sign = - val->sign;
    } else
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "internal error: OpNEGATE value type = %d\n", 
            val->type);
        ExecAbort();
    }
break;

/* not (logical negation) */

case (OpNOT):
    PushStack();    /* our result */
    ExecParse(par->one);    /* right side */
    error = NO;    /* assume no errors */
    if (Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
    {
        error = YES;
    } else if (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER)
    {
        x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
        if (x == FALSE)
            w = TRUE;
        else if (x == TRUE)
            w = FALSE;
        else
            error = YES;
        if (error)
        {
            Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
            val->number = w;
        }
    } else if (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
    {
        /* logically negate a bit string */
        char * new, * old;    /* string pointers */
        CheckSign(Stack[SP].dummy->this);
        Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValSTRING);
val->sign = Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign;
old = Stack[SP].dummy->this->string;
k = strlen(old);
val->string = new = GetMemory(k + 1);
while ((*old) != '\0')
{  
    if ((*old) == '0')
        (*new) = '1';
    else if ((*old) == '1')
        (*new) = '0';
    else if ((*old) == ANYBIT)
        (*new) = BADBIT;
    else if ((*old) == BADBIT)
        (*new) = ANYBIT;
    else
        {  
            error = YES;
            break;
        }
    new ++;
    old ++;
}
(*new) = '\0';  /* terminate string */
else
    error = YES;
if (error)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "bad value in 'not': ");
    printUsage(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}
PopStack();  /* kill right side */
break;
/* null */
case (OpNULL):
    PushStack();
    break;
/* number */
case (OpNUMBER):
    PushStack();
    Stack[SP].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(VaNUMBER);  
    val->number = par->number;
    break;
/* parameter list */
case (OpPAREN):
    ExecParse(par->one);  /* left recursive side */
    ExecParse(par->two);  /* this parameter (right) */
    break;
/* addition ("++") */
case (OpSECONDARY):
    PushStack();  /* our result */
    ExecParse(par->one);  /* left side */
    ExecParse(par->two);  /* right side */
error = NO; /* assume no errors */

if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this == NULL)
   || (Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL))
{
   error = YES;
}
else if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
   && (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING))
{
   x = Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->number; /* left side */
   y = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number; /* right side */
   w = x + y;
   Stack[SP-2].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
   val->number = w;
}
else if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER)
   && (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER))
{
   ValueThing * head; /* head (left) set */
   ValueThing * tail; /* tail (right) set */

   /* a little late, but check sign anyway */

   CheckSign(Stack[SP-1].dummy->this);
   CheckSign(Stack[SP].dummy->this);

   /* get link to right side */

   MakeDynamic(SP);
   tail = Stack[SP].dummy->this->next;
   Stack[SP].dummy->this->next = NULL; /* kill link */
   Stack[SP].free = YES;

   /* attach link to existing left side */

   MakeDynamic(SP-1);
   head = Stack[SP-1].dummy->this;
   while (head->next != NULL)
   {
      head = head->next;
   }
   head->next = tail;

   Stack[SP-1].dummy->this = head;
   Stack[SP-2].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
   val->number = w;
}
else if ((Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
   && (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
   && (Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->sign == Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign))
{
   char * cp; /* a string pointer */

   CheckSign(Stack[SP-1].dummy->this);
   CheckSign(Stack[SP].dummy->this);

   /* get enough memory, and copy strings */

   j = strlen(Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->string);
   k = strlen(Stack[SP].dummy->this->string);

   Stack[SP-2].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValSTRING);
   val->sign = Stack[SP].dummy->this->sign;
   val->string = cp = GetMemory(j + k + 1);
strcpy(cp, Stack[SP-1].dummy->this->string);
strcat((cp + j). Stack[SP].dummy->this->string);
}
else
    error = YES;

if (error)
{    
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "bad values in \n: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP-1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, " and ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, \n);    
    ExecAbort();
}

PopStack(); /* kill right side */
PopStack(); /* kill left side */
break;

/* power */
case (OpPOWER):
    /* convert power operator into a function call */
    /* can't do this in YACC: user may re-define \"pow\" symbol */
    PushStack(); /* our result */
    ExecParse(par->one); /* left side */
    ExecParse(par->two); /* right side */
    oldframe = FP; /* save frame pointer */
    FP = SP - 2; /* create fake frame */
    PreMath(NULL, pow, "power operator"); /* math routine */
    FP = oldframe; /* restore frame pointer */
    PopStack(); /* kill right side */
    PopStack(); /* kill left side */
    break;

/* repeat */
case (OpREPEAT):
    
    do
    {    
    /* execute statements */
    ExecParse(par->one);
    /* generate test condition */
    ExecParse(par->two);
    error = NO; /* assume no errors */
    if ((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
    {        
        error = YES;
    }
    else
    {        
        x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
        /* check test condition */
        if ((x == FALSE) || (x == TRUE))
        {            
            /* illegal value, but do nothing */
        }
    }
    else
error = YES;

if (error)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "bad condition in 'repeat' statement: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}

PopStack();  /* kill test condition */

while (x == FALSE):
    break;

/* return from function */

case (OpRETURN):
    longjmp(ReturnJump.env, YES);

break;

/* finished set */

case (OpSET):

    PushStack();
    Stack[SP].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(V.
    val->sign = 1;

    /* generate element concatenations */

    if (par->one != NULL)
    {
        ExecParse(par->one);
    MakeDynamic(SP);
    val->next = Stack[SP].dummy->this;  /* link */
    Stack[SP].free = NO;
    PopStack();

    break;

    /* statement */

case (OpSMT):

    oldstack = SP;  /* must return to this level */

    /* do any preceding (left recursive) statements */

    ExecParse(par->one);

    /* do this statement */

    if (par->two != NULL)
    {
        ExecParse(par->two);

        /* anything to print? */

    if (SP == (oldstack + 1))
    {
        if (par->two->type == OpASSIGN)
        {
            /* throw away assigned value */
        }

        else if (((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
        & ((par->two->type == OpFUNCTION)
        || (par->two->type == OpNAME)
        & (par->two->symbol->type == SymFUNCTION))))

        {

...
/* throw away NULL function result */
}  
else
{
    PrintValue(stdout, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stdout, "\n");
}
PopStack();
}

/* is stack back to original level? */

if (SP != oldstack)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "internal error: OpSTM stack pointer is %d, not %d\n", SP, oldstack);
    ExecAbort();
}
break;

/* string */

case (OpSTRING):
    PushStack();
    Stack[SP].dummy->this = val = MakeValue(ValSTRING);
    val->sign = 1;
    val->string = CopyString(par->string); /* must be "free" */
    break;

/* while */

case (OpWHILE):
    do
    {
        /* generate test condition */
        ExecParse(par->one);
        error = NO; /* assume no errors */
        if ((Stack[SP].dummy->this == NULL)
            || (Stack[SP].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
        {
            error = YES;
        }
        else
        {
            x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
            /* check test condition */
            if (x == TRUE)
            {
                ExecParse(par->two);
            }
            else if (x == FALSE)
            {
                /* log indicator value, but do nothing */
            }
            else
            {
                error = YES;
            }
        }
    }
    if (error)
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "bad condition in 'while' statement: ");
PrintValue(stderr, Stack[SP].dummy, YES);
fprintf(stderr, "\n");
ExecAbort();
}

PopStack(); /* kill test condition */
while (x == "TRUE");
brea;
/* default case for illegal or undefined operators */
default:
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "internal error: ExecParse parse type = %d\n",
            par->type);
    ExecAbort();
brea;
/* end of big, big switch statement */
}
/* restore file line number */
LineNumber = oldline;
} 
MakeDynamic() 

Make a stack entry dynamic. That is, if it is not marked as "free", then replace it with a "free" copy.
/* MakeDynamic(n) */
int n;
    /* stack entry number, usually SP */
if (((n < 0) || (n > SP))
    
{ 
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, 
        "internal error: MakeDynamic has n = %d and SP = %d\n", 
            n, SP);
    ExecAbort();
}
if (Stack[n].free != YES)
{
    Stack[n].dummy->this = CopyValue(Stack[n].dummy->this);
    Stack[n].free = YES;
    Stack[n].owner = NULL;
}
/*
PopStack() 
Pop one value off the stack. If the stack is marked as "free" (dynamic), then its memory will be released.
*/
PopStack() 
{
    CheckStack(); /* of course */
    /* free the value */
if (Stack[SP].free == YES)
{
    FreeValue(Stack[SP].dummy->this);
}

/* clear the stack entry, just to be careful */
Stack[SP].dummy->this = NULL;
Stack[SP].free = YES;
Stack[SP].owner = NULL;

/* decrement stack pointer, and check it again */
SP --;
CheckStack();

笑着说，PushStack()

Push a NULL value onto the stack. A NULL value has the attributes of being
dynamically allocated ("free") and no owner. The stack field "dummy" points
to a dummy value structure that ends in a null pointer (dummy->this is NULL).
The caller should attach his value to the end of the dummy structure.

(All of the dummy stuff is necessary so that function local variables can be
assigned.)

PushStack()
{
    /* increment the stack pointer, and check it */
    SP ++;
    CheckStack();
    /* put a dummy value structure onto the stack */
    if (Stack[SP].dummy == NULL)
    {
        Stack[SP].dummy = MakeValue(VALDUMMY);
    }
    Stack[SP].dummy->this = NULL;
    Stack[SP].free = YES;
    Stack[SP].owner = NULL;
/*

faglo.c -- Global Variables

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This file defines the global variables declared by "fainc.h". A global
variable is any variable shared by more than one module. They are collected
here so that you don't have to go looking for initial values.

*/

#include "fainc.h"    /* our standard includes */

int FP = 0;          /* function frame pointer */
SymbolThing * GlobalHead = NULL; /* global symbol head */
SymbolThing * GlobalTail = NULL; /* global symbol tail */
int LineNumber = -3000;  /* file line number */
SymbolThing * LocalHead = NULL; /* local symbol head */
SymbolThing * LocalTail = NULL; /* local symbol tail */
ParseThing * ParseTree = NULL; /* YACC parse tree */
int SP = 0;           /* stack pointer (index) */
StackThing Stack[STACKSIZE+1]; /* execution stack */
char * UserArg = "-p";  /* argument for classifier */
char * UserFile = "robert"; /* name of user classifier */
int UserTrace = NO;    /* trace flag for classifier */
/*

fainc.h -- Include Standard Definitions

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This file is #include'd by the other modules to declare:
- values for common symbolic names
- return value types for functions
- data types for global variables

All global variables are defined in the "faglo.c" module.

*/

/* other includes */

#include <stdio.h>    /* standard I/O */

/* definitions */

#define ANYBIT "#"    /* "don't care" character in a bit string */
#define BADBIT "?"    /* illegal character in a bit string */
#define CMPEQ 0        /* compare: left equals right */
#define CMPGT 1        /* compare: left greater than right */
#define CMPLT 2        /* compare: left less than right */
#define CMPNE 3        /* compare: left, right not comparable */
#define FALSE 0.0      /* user-level logical false */
#define FORMAT "%.15g" /* (f)printf format for numbers */
#define MAXSTRING 999  /* maximum bytes in a string */
#define NO 0           /* "C" level logical false */
#define NUMBER double  /* user-level numeric type */
#define ONE 1.0        /* user-level value of number one */
#define QUOTE ","     /* character for printing a string */
#define STACKSIZE 999  /* size of execution stack */
#define TRUE 1.0       /* user-level logical true */
#define YES 1          /* "C" level logical true */
#define ZERO 0.0       /* user-level value of number zero */

/*
For each complete statement, a parse tree is built and then executed. The
contents of a parse node vary depending upon the operator, which is some OPXXX
number.
*/

#define OPAND 101
#define OPASSIGN 102
#define OPCONCAT 103
#define OPDIV 104
#define OPEDO 105
#define OPEDOP 106
#define OPFOR 107
#define OPFN 108
#define OPGE 109
#define OPGT 110
#define OPIF 111
```c
#define OpINDEX 112
#define OpLE 113
#define OpLT 114
#define OpMINUS 115
#define OpMOD 116
#define OpNAME 117
#define OpNE 118
#define OpNEGATE 119
#define OpNEQ 120
#define OpNOT 121
#define OpNULL 122
#define OpNUMBER 123
#define OpOR 124
#define OpPAR 125
#define OpPLUS 126
#define OpPOWER 127
#define OpREPEAT 128
#define OpRETURN 129
#define OpSET 130
#define OpSLASH 131
#define OpSTAR 132
#define OpSTM 133
#define OpSTRING 134
#define OpWHILE 135

typedef struct ParseThing {
  struct ParseThing * one; /* first part, if not NULL */
  struct ParseThing * two; /* second part, if not NULL */
  struct ParseThing * three; /* third part, if not NULL */
  struct ParseThing * four; /* fourth part, if not NULL */
  int count; /* parameter count */
  int line; /* file line number */
  NUMBER number; /* if a number */
  char * string; /* if a string */
  struct SymbolThing * symbol; /* if a name */
  int type; /* parse type: DpXXX */
} ParseThing;

typedef struct StackThing {
  struct ValueThing * dummy; /* pointer to dummy value structure */
  int free; /* non-zero if this value is "free" */
  struct ValueThing * owner; /* owning ValueThing, if not NULL */
} StackThing;

/* Expressions are evaluated on a stack. To keep the stack entries consistent,
 each entry points to a structure which contains the actual value. Additional
 information is kept on whether the stack values were created dynamically (and
 are free to be assigned to a variable), or if the values are owned by a variable
 that can be assigned a new value (used to simplify the assignment grammar).
 */

/* There are only two types of symbols: functions and variables. Variables can be
 global or local. Global variables have exactly one value, which is pointed to
 by the symbol table (via a dummy value structure). Local variables are stack
 offsets relative to a function call (which allows recursion).
 */
#define SpeABS 401 /* pre-defined absolute function */
#define SpeACOS 402 /* pre-defined arc cosine function */
#define SpeASIN 403 /* pre-defined arc sine function */
#define SpeATAN 404 /* pre-defined arc tangent function */
#define SpeATAN2 405 /* pre-defined arc tangent function */
#define SpeCBrT 406 /* pre-defined cube root function */
#define SpeCLOSE 407 /* classifier close function */
#define SpeCOS 408 /* pre-defined cosine function */
#define SpeEXIT 409 /* pre-defined exit function */
```
typedef struct SymbolThing {
    int count;
    struct ValueThing * dummy;
    int free;
} SymbolThing;

/* The user's data is stored in linked "value" structures. Basic data items are numbers, strings, and the NULL value. Composite items are sets of the basic items. A dummy value is inserted between variable entries in the symbol table and the actual value structure so that the assignment operator doesn't need separate productions for the leftand and righthand sides. (See the "owner" field in "StackThing".*) */

typedef struct ValueThing {
    struct ValueThing * next;
    /* first element if a set */
```c
211   NUMBER number;          /* next element if an element */
212   int align;              /* value if a number */
213   char * string;          /* +1 or -1 if set or string */
214   struct ValueThing * this; /* value if a string */
215   int type;               /* value if dummy or element */
216   /* value type: ValXXX */
217 } ValueThis;
218
219
220 /* global variables */
221
222 extern int FP;           /* function frame pointer */
223 extern SymbolThing * GlobalHead; /* global symbol head */
224 extern SymbolThing * GlobalTail;  /* global symbol tail */
225 extern int LineNumber;     /* file line number */
226 extern SymbolThing * LocalHead; /* local symbol head */
227 extern SymbolThing * LocalTail;  /* local symbol tail */
228 extern ParseThing * ParseTree; /* YACC parse tree */
229 extern int SP;            /* stack pointer (index) */
230 extern StackThing Stack[];   /* execution stack */
231 extern char * UserArg;     /* argument for classifier */
232 extern char * UserFile;    /* name of user classifier */
233 extern int UserTrace;      /* trace flag for classifier */
234 extern FILE * yyin;        /* LEX input file pointer */
235
236 /* functions */
237
238 int CompareValue();        /* compare value structures */
239 char * CopyString();       /* dynamic string copy */
240 ValueThing * CopyValue();  /* dynamic value copy */
241 NUMBER FindNumber();       /* find number in a string */
242 char * GetMemory();         /* memory allocation */
243 SymbolThing * GlobalAdd(); /* global symbol addition */
244 SymbolThing * GlobalLook(); /* global symbol look-up */
245 SymbolThing * LocalAdd();  /* local symbol addition */
246 SymbolThing * LocalLook(); /* local symbol look-up */
247 ParseThing * MakeParse();  /* create parse tree node */
248 SymbolThing * MakeSymbol(); /* create symbol table entry */
249 ValueThing * MakeValue();  /* create value structure */
250 char * PackValue();        /* pack a value into a string */
251 char * SkipSpace();        /* skip white space in a string */
252 ValueThing * StringToValue(); /* parse string into value structure */
253 ValueThing * UnpackString(); /* unpack string into a value */
254 ValueThing * UnpackValue(); /* unpack value into a bigger value */
255 char * UserReceive();      /* receive from user classifier */
```
/*

falex.1 -- Lexical Tokens

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This file breaks up the input stream into tokens that can be handled by YACC.
Reserved words are recognized in any combination of upper and lower case
letters. Some special characters are converted into the equivalent reserved
word. (For example, "&" is the same as the "AND" token.) Strings are scanned
manually so that "\" escape sequences can be recognized. Comments go from a
"#" character to the end of the line (not in a string, of course!).

The relational operators (EQ, LT, etc) are grouped together as a single token.
This simple change reduced an early version of the YACC machine in "y.output"
from 2,300 lines to 1,200 lines.

(Special characters are listed in ASCII order.)

*/

#include "fainc.h"    /* our standard includes */
#include "y.tab.h"    /* YACC token definitions */
define LEXEOF 0     /* lexical end-of-file character */

doUBLE atof();     /* ASCII to floating double */

%

%}

%^

[^aA][nN][dD] { return(TokAND); }
[^bB][rR][eE][aA][kK] { return(TokBREAK); }
[^bB][yY] { return(TokBY); }
[^dD][lL][vV] { return(TokDIV); }
[^dD][oO] { return(TokDD); }
[^eE][lL][iI][fF] { return(TokELIF); }
[^eE][lL][sS][eE] { return(TokELSE); }
[^eE][nN][dD] { return(TokEND); }
[^eE][qQ] { yyval1.count = OpEQ; return(TokRELOP); }
[^eE][pP] { yyval1.count = OpEP; return(TokRELOP); }
[^fF][oO][rR] { return(TokFOR); }
[^fF][rR][mM] { return(TokFROM); }
[^fF][uU][nN][cC][tT][tT][oO][nN] { return(TokFUNCTION); }
[^gG][eE] { yyval1.count = OpGE; return(TokRELOP); }
[^gG][Tt] { yyval1.count = OpGT; return(TokRELOP); }
[^iI][fF] { return(TokIF); }
[^lL][eE] { yyval1.count = OpLE; return(TokRELOP); }
[^lL][tT] { return(TokMRD); }
[^mM][oO][dD] { yyval1.count = OpNE; return(TokRELOP); }
[^nN][eE] { yyval1.count = OpNEP; return(TokRELOP); }
[^nN][oO][pP] { return(TokNOT); }
[^nN][uU][lL][lL] { return(TokNULL); }
[^oO][rR] { return(TokOR); }
Given a delimiting character, look for a string ending with this character, and
which may include the following escape sequences:

    \n for newline
    \t for tab
    \ for \n
or \ followed by the delimiting character.

LexString(delim)

    char delim;          /* delimiting character */
    char buffer[MAXSTRING+2]; /* string buffer */
    char c;              /* some input character */
    int length;          /* bytes in string buffer */
    length = 0;          /* nothing in buffer */
while (length <= MAXSTRING)
{
    c = input(); /* get an input character */
    if (c == LEXEOF) /* lexical end-of-file? */
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "end-of-file in quoted string (%c)\n", delim);
        unput(c);
        break;
    }
    else if (c == 'n') /* newline? */
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "newline in quoted string (%c)\n", delim);
        unput(c);
        break;
    }
    else if (c == '\\') /* escape sequence? */
    {
        char d; /* another input character */
        d = input();
        if (d == 'n')
            buffer[length++] = '\\';
        else if (d == 't')
            buffer[length++] = '\t';
        else if (d == '/')
            buffer[length++] = '\\';
        else if (d == delim)
            buffer[length++] = delim;
        else
        {
            buffer[length++] = '\\';
            unput(d);
        }
    }
    else if (c == delim) /* end of the string? */
    {
        break;
    }
    else /* just a text character */
    {
        buffer[length++] = c;
    }
    buffer[length] = '\0'; /* put null at the end */
}
if (length > MAXSTRING)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr,
            "string longer than %d characters, begins with \%s<\n",
            MAXSTRING, buffer);
}
yyval.string = CopyString(buffer);
/*
PrintLine()
If input is coming from a file, print an error message on stderr with the file
line number. Otherwise, if input is from a terminal, don't bother.
*/
PrintLine()
211  {
212     if (LineNumber > 0)
213         fprintf(stderr, "at line %d: ", LineNumber);
prisingly copy a value structure into a new dynamically allocated structure. The contents of the new structure are identical to the old, and no attempt is made to check them.

ValueThing * CopyValue(val)
ValueThing * new; /* new value structure pointer */
{ ValueThing * new; /* new value structure pointer */
  if (val == NULL)
    new = NULL;
  else
    { new = MakeValue(val->type);
      new->next = CopyValue(val->next);
      new->number = val->number;
      new->sign = val->sign;
      new->string = CopyString(val->string);
      return(new);
    }
  return(new);
}
new->this = CopyValue(val->this);
}
return(new);
 */
FreeParse()
Recursively free all memory allocated to a parse tree. This is used when a
function is re-defined, or after a complete statement has been executed.
*/
FreeParse(par)
/* a parse tree pointer */
{
    if (par != NULL)
    {
        FreeParse(par->one);
        FreeParse(par->two);
        FreeParse(par->three);
        FreeParse(par->four);
        FreeString(par->string);
        /* DO NOT FREE PAR->SYMBOL */
        free(par);
    }
}

FreeString()
/*
Free the memory allocated to a string. The string must have been previously
allocated by some dynamic routine, such as CopyString().
*/
FreeString(string)
/* a string pointer */
{
    if (string != NULL)
        free(string);
}

FreeSymbol()
/*
Recursively free all memory allocated to a symbol table. This is used when a
global symbol is re-defined as a function, and the old local symbol table (if
any) must be de-allocated. The caller must ensure that there are no stray
 pointers to the freed memory.
*/
FreeSymbol(sym)
/* a symbol table pointer */
{
    SymbolThing * old; /* old symbol table pointer */
    SymbolThing * new; /* new symbol table pointer */
    old = sym;
    while (old != NULL)
    {
        FreeValue(old->dummy);
        FreeSymbol(old->local);
        FreeString(old->name);
        FreeParse(old->parse);
        new = old->next; /* don't use a freed pointer! */
    }
free(old);
old = new;
}

FreeValue()

Recursively free all memory allocated to a value structure. This is used when
a variable is assigned, or when an operator finishes with its operands.

FreeValue(val)

ValueThing * val; /* a value structure pointer */
{
  ValueThing * old; /* old value structure pointer */
  ValueThing * new; /* new value structure pointer */

  old = val;
  while (old != NULL)
  {
    FreeString(old->string);
    FreeValue(old->this);

    new = old->next; /* don't use a freed pointer */
    free(old);
    old = new;
  }
}

GetMemory()

Given a size in bytes, allocate enough memory to hold a thing that big. If
this fails, print a nasty error message and abort.

GetMemory(size)

char * GetMemory(size)

int size; /* size in bytes */
{
  char * malloc(); /* must declare function type */
  char * new; /* pointer to new string */

  new = malloc((unsigned) size);
  if (new == NULL)
  {
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "GetMemory failed to allocate %d bytes\n", size);
    abort(); /* be nasty */
  }
  return(new);
}

GlobalAdd()

Add a new symbol to the global symbol table. A warning is issued if this name
is already on the global symbol table.

GlobalAdd(name, type)

SymbolThing * GlobalAdd(name, type)
char * name; /* some name string */
int type; /* symbol type: SymXXX */
{
  SymbolThing * sym; /* symbol table pointer */
sym = GlobalLook(name);
if (sym != NULL)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "warning: duplicate global symbol '%s'
", name);
}

sym = MakeSymbol(type);
sym->name = name;
if (GlobalTail != NULL)
    GlobalTail->next = sym;
GlobalTail = sym;
if (GlobalHead == NULL)
    GlobalHead = sym;

return(sym);

/*
GlobalLook()

Given a name, look for this symbol in the global symbol table. If an entry is
found, return the address. Otherwise, return NULL.
*/

SymbolThing * GlobalLook(name)
{ char * name; /* some name string */
    SymbolThing * sym; /* symbol table pointer */
    sym = GlobalHead;
    while (sym != NULL)
    {
        if (strcmp(name, sym->name) == 0)
            break;
        sym = sym->next;
    }
    return(sym);
}

/*
LocalAdd()

Add a new symbol to the local symbol table. A warning is issued if this name
is already on the local symbol table.
*/

SymbolThing * LocalAdd(name)
{ char * name; /* some name string */
    SymbolThing * sym; /* symbol table pointer */
    if (sym != NULL)
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "warning: duplicate local symbol '%s'
", name);
        sym = MakeSymbol(SymLOCAL);
        sym->name = name;
        if (LocalTail != NULL)
            LocalTail->next = sym;
        LocalTail = sym;
        if (LocalHead == NULL)
            LocalHead = sym;
    }
    return(sym);
SymbolTable * LocalLook(name)
    char * name;
    /* some name string */

    SymbolTable * sym;  /* symbol table pointer */

    sym = LocalHead;
    while (sym != NULL)
        if (strcmp(name, sym->name) == 0)
            break;
        sym = sym->next;
    return(sym);

Allocate space for a new parse tree node, given the operator type and pointers
to the first four parse sub-trees. All other fields are cleared; the caller
must insert the correct contents.

ParseTable * MakeParse(type, one, two, three, four)
    int type;  /* operator type: OpXXX */
    ParseTable * one;  /* first part */
    ParseTable * two;  /* second part */
    ParseTable * three;  /* third part */
    ParseTable * four;  /* fourth part */

    ParseTable * new;  /* new parse pointer */

    new = (ParseTable *) GetMemory(sizeof(ParseTable));

    new->one = one;
    new->two = two;
    new->three = three;
    new->four = four;
    new->count = 0;
    new->line = LineNumber;
    new->number = ZERO;
    new->string = NULL;
    new->symbol = NULL;
    new->type = type;

    return(new);

Allocate space for a new symbol table entry, given the symbol type. All of the
fields are cleared, and the caller must insert the correct contents.

SymbolTable * MakeSymbol(type)
    int type;  /* symbol type: SymXXX */
{  
  SymbolThing * new;        /* new symbol pointer */
  new = (SymbolThing *) GetMemory(sizeof(SymbolThing));
  new->count = 0;
  new->dummy = NULL;
  new->free = YES;
  new->local = NULL;
  new->name = NULL;
  new->next = NULL;
  new->offset = 0;
  new->parse = NULL;
  new->special = 0;
  new->type = type;
  
  return(new);
}

/*
Allocate space for a new value structure, given the value type. All of the
fields are cleared, and the caller must insert the correct contents.
*/

ValueThing * MakeValue(type)
{
  int type;            /* value type: ValXXX */
  ValueThing * new;    /* new value pointer */
  new = (ValueThing *) GetMemory(sizeof(ValueThing));
  new->next = NULL;
  new->number = ZERO;
  new->sign = 0;
  new->string = NULL;
  new->this = NULL;
  new->type = type;

  return(new);
}
fapre.c -- Pre-Defined Functions

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These are the pre-defined language functions. Many are just calls to support
subroutines in the "fasub.c" module. (Classifier pre-defined functions are in
the "fauser.c" module.)

/*

#include "fainc.h"  /* our standard includes */
#include <math.h>  /* math routines */
#include <setjmp.h>  /* system long jump */
#include <signal.h>  /* system signals */
#include <varargs.h>  /* system variable arguments */

jpm_buf MathJump;  /* for errors in math routines */

*/

/* Define a type for the parameters to the formatted I/O routines ("printf",
"scanf", etc). Each parameter can be a number pointer, a number value, or a
string pointer. We cheat here and assume that parameters are of two types:
pointers and numbers. All pointers are assumed to have the same size.

Note: There is a problem on VAX computers. Parameters are pushed onto a
common stack. For an arbitrary union to be acceptable for all parameters,
members of the union would have to have the same size. Otherwise, if numbers
are double-precision, and "double" is twice the size of a pointer, then for:

printf("%s %f", "hello", 23);

the following would get put on the machine stack for "hello" and 23:

+--------------------------+
| char pointer            |
| garbage                 |
| double                   |
+--------------------------+

when "printf" is expecting:

+--------------------------+
| char pointer            |
| double                   |
+--------------------------+

*/

#define FioNUMBER 801  /* type if a number */
#define FioPOINTER 802  /* type if a pointer */

typedef struct {
  NUMBER number;  /* number value */
  char * pointer;  /* number or string pointer */
  int type;  /* type */
} FioThing;

struct { NUMBER dummy[10]; } va_list;
/* 10-variable argument list */
/* don't change the name */
va_list va_pvar;  /* pointer to variable list */
#define va_put(p) if (p.type == FioNUMBER) \n    va_arg(va_pvar, NUMBER) = p.number; \nelse \n    va_arg(va_pvar, char *) = p.pointer;

/**
 * FioCheck()
 * Check that a parameter on the stack is legal for use with the formatted I/O
 * subroutines ("printf", "scanf", etc). Return the appropriate value for use
 * with the real system subroutine.
 */

FioThing FioCheck(n, string, assign, name)
{
    int n;    /* offset from frame pointer */
    int string; /* YES if must be a string */
    int assign; /* YES if must be assignable */
    char * name; /* name of pre-defined function */
    FioThing result; /* our result thingy */
    result.number = ZERO; /* default to zero */
    result.pointer = NULL; /* default to nothing */
    result.type = FioPOINTER; /* assume a pointer */

    if ((FP + n) > SP)
    { /* this parameter is missing in function call */
        if (string)
        {    
            PrintLine();
            fprintf(stderr, 
"%s failed: string parameter %d is missing\n", 
    name, n);
            ExecAbort();
        }
        else
            result.pointer = NULL;
    }
    else if (Stack[FP+n].dummy->this == NULL)
    { /* explicit NULL parameters are illegal */
        /* happens when you use an undefined variable name */
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "%s failed: parameter %d is NULL\n", name, n);
        ExecAbort();
    }
    else if (assign && (Stack[FP+n].owner == NULL))
    {    
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, 
"%s failed: parameter %d can not be assigned: ", 
    name, n);
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+n].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, \"\n\");
        ExecAbort();
    }
    else if (Stack[FP+n].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER)
    { /*
        if (string)
        {    
            PrintLine();
            fprintf(stderr, 
"%s failed: parameter %d must be a string: ", 
    name, n);
            PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+n].dummy, YES);
fprintf(stderr, "\n");
ExecAbort();
} else if (assign)
{
    Stack[FP+n].dummy->this->number = ZERO;
    resultpointer = (char *) &
    Stack[FP+n].dummy->this->number;
} else
{
    resultnumber = Stack[FP+n].dummy->this->number;
    resulttype = FioNUMBER;
}
else if (Stack[FP+n].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
{
    if (assign)
    {
        char * cp;
        int i;
        /* free old string */
        FreeString(Stack[FP+n].dummy->this->string);
        /* allocate and clear a new string */
        /* clearing it makes %c input safe */
        cp = GetMemory(MAXSTRING + 1);
        for (i = 0; i <= MAXSTRING; i++)
            *((cp+i)) = '\0';
        /* link back to original value structure */
        Stack[FP+n].dummy->this->string = cp;
    }
    else
    {
        Println();
        fprintf(stderr,
"%s failed: parameter %d must be a number or string: ",
name, n);
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+n].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, "\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
    return(result);
} /* PreAbs() */

Pre-defined function to return the absolute value of an expression.
/*
PreAbs(par)
ParseThing * par: /* function call in parse tree */
{
    if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
    {
        /* abs(NULL) is just NULL */
    } else
    {
        CheckSign(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this);
switch (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->ty_e)
{
    case (ValNUMBER):
        Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
        Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = fabs(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->number);
        break;
    case (ValSET):
    case (ValSTRING):
        Stack[FP].dummy->this = CopyValue(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this);
        Stack[FP].dummy->this->sign = 1;
        break;
    default:
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr,
"internal error: PreAbs value type = %d\n",
        Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type);
        ExecAbort();
        break;
}

/*
PreDefine()

Define the pre-defined symbols. Try to be alphabetical here.

For functions, "sym->count" is the minimum number of parameters. If negative,
then any number of parameters is acceptable, and the pre-defined function must
be smart enough to use only those values that have been actually pushed onto
the stack.
*/

PreDefine()
{
    SymbolThing * sym; /* a symbol table pointer */
    sym = GlobalAdd("abs", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 1;
    sym->special = SpeABS;
    sym = GlobalAdd("acos", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeACOS;
    sym = GlobalAdd("asin", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeASIN;
    sym = GlobalAdd("atan", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeATAN;
    sym = GlobalAdd("atan2", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeATAN2;
    sym = GlobalAdd("cbrt", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeCBRT;
    sym = GlobalAdd("cos", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeCOS;
    sym = GlobalAdd("exit", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 0;
sym->special = SpeEXIT;
sym = GlobalAdd("exp", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 0;
    sym->special = SpeEXP;

sym = GlobalAdd("false", SymGLOBAL);
    sym->dummy = MakeValue(ValDummy);
    sym->dummy->this = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
    sym->dummy->this->number = FALSE;

sym = GlobalAdd("load", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 1;
    sym->special = SpeLOAD;

sym = GlobalAdd("log", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeLOG;

sym = GlobalAdd("log10", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeLOG10;

sym = GlobalAdd("pack", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpePACK;

sym = GlobalAdd("pi", SymGLOBAL);
    sym->dummy = MakeValue(ValDummy);
    sym->dummy->this = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
    sym->dummy->this->number = 3.14159265358979323846;

sym = GlobalAdd("pow", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpePow;

sym = GlobalAdd("printf", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 1;
    sym->special = SpePRINTF;

sym = GlobalAdd("quit", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 0;
    sym->special = SpeEXIT;

sym = GlobalAdd("random", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 1;
    sym->special = SpeRANDOM;

    srand(getpid()); /* initialize random seed */

sym = GlobalAdd("round", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeROUND;

sym = GlobalAdd("save", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 1;
    sym->special = SpeSAVE;

sym = GlobalAdd("scanf", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 1;
    sym->special = SpeSCANF;

sym = GlobalAdd("sign", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 1;
    sym->special = SpeSIGN;

sym = GlobalAdd("sin", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 2;
    sym->special = SpeSIN;

sym = GlobalAdd("size", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 1;
sym->special = SpeSIZE;
sym = GlobalAdd("sprintf", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpePRINTF;
sym = GlobalAdd("sqrt", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpeSQRFT;
sym = GlobalAdd("sscanf", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpeSSCANF;
sym = GlobalAdd("stop", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 0;
sym->special = SpeSTOP;
sym = GlobalAdd("system", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 1;
sym->special = SpeSYSTEM;
sym = GlobalAdd("tan", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpeTAN;
sym = GlobalAdd("true", SymGLOBAL);
sym->dummy = MakeValue(ValDUMMY);
sym->dummy->this = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
sym->dummy->this->number = TRUE;
sym = GlobalAdd("trunc", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpeTRUNC;
sym = GlobalAdd("type", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpeTYPE;
sym = GlobalAdd("unpack", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpeUNPACK;
sym = GlobalAdd("value", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 1;
sym->special = SpeVALUE;
sym = GlobalAdd("write", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = -1;
sym->special = SpeWRITE;
}

PreExit()

Pre-defined function to exit (quit) from this classifier interface system, and to return to the UNIX command level.

PreExit(par)

{ ParseThing * par; /* function call in parse tree */
  fprintf(stderr, "\n");
  PrintLine();
  fprintf(stderr, "exit() called; returning to UNIX\n");
  /* close the pipe to the user classifier system (if any) */
UserClose();
exit(1);

PreLoad();

Pre-defined function to "load" (read and execute) the statements or definitions in a file.

PreLoad(par)
ParseThing * par;  /* function call in parse tree */
{
    if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this != NULL)
&& (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING))
    {
        ExecFile(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string);
    }
    else
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "Load failed: parameter must be a file name string: ");
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, "%n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
}

PreMath()

Pre-defined math functions. The caller must give us the address of a real system math routine (like "sqrt") and a character string with the routine's name. We pass up to two number parameters, return one number result, and trap errors.

PreMath(par, func, name)
ParseThing * par;  /* function call in parse tree */
double (* func)();  /* pointer to function returns double */
char * name;  /* function name */
{
    int error;  /* YES means bad values */
    extern int PreMathTrap();  /* trap handler for error signal */
    int (* status)();  /* status of "signal" function */
    NUMBER w, x, y;  /* numbers */
    error = NO;  /* assume no errors */

    /* get first number parameter */
    if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this != NULL)
&& (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER))
    {
        x = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->number;
    }
    else
    {
        error = YES;
    }

    /* get second number parameter (if any) */
    if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this == NULL)
    {
        y = ZERO;
else if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER)
    {
        y = Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->number;
    }
else
    error = YES;
/* add protection and call the math routine */
if (error)
{
    /* set long jump for PreMathTrap abort */
    if (setjmp(MathJump) == 0)
    {
        /* trap signal for math errors */
        status = signal(SIGILL, PreMathTrap);
        if (status == BADSIG)
        {
            perror("PreMath signal trap failed");
            exit(-1);
        }
    }
    /* call the math routine */
    w = (*func)(x, y);
    /* return the result (if we get this far) */
    Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
    Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = w;
} else
{
    /* must be PreMathTrap aborting */
    error = YES;
}
/* restore default signal trap */
status = signal(SIGILL, SIG_DFL);
if (status == BADSIG)
{
    perror("PreMath signal default failed");
    exit(-1);
}
if (error)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "%s failed: bad number parameters: ", name);
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, " and ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+2].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "%n");
   ExecAbort();
}
/*
PreMathTrap()
Trap the error signal that happens when bad parameters are given to a math
routine.
*/
PreMathTrap()
{
    longjmp(MathJump, YES);
}

/*

Pack a value structure into a string. This is used to convert some general set
into a message or rule string suitable for a user classifier machine.
*/

PrePack(par)
{
    ParseThing * par;       /* function call in parse tree */
    char buffer[MAXSTRING+1]; /* temporary buffer for result */
    char * cp;              /* pointer into "buffer" */
    cp = PackValue(buffer, Stack[FP+1].dummy->this,
                    Stack[FP+2].dummy->this);
    Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValSTRING);
    Stack[FP].dummy->this->sign = 1;
    Stack[FP].dummy->this->string = CopyString(buffer);
}

/*

PrePrintf()

Formatted output with the "printf" subroutine to standard output. We use
variable argument lists because the size of a string pointer may be different
than the size of a number.
*/

PrePrintf(par)
{
    ParseThing * par;       /* function call in parse tree */
    FioThing format;        /* format string */
    FioThing p1, p2, p3, p4, p5, p6, p7, p8, p9; /* parameters */

    format = FioCheck(1, YES, NO, "printf");
    p1 = FioCheck(2, NO, NO, "printf");
    p2 = FioCheck(3, NO, NO, "printf");
    p3 = FioCheck(4, NO, NO, "printf");
    p4 = FioCheck(5, NO, NO, "printf");
    p5 = FioCheck(6, NO, NO, "printf");
    p6 = FioCheck(7, NO, NO, "printf");
    p7 = FioCheck(8, NO, NO, "printf");
    p8 = FioCheck(9, NO, NO, "printf");
    p9 = FioCheck(10, NO, NO, "printf");

    va_start(va_pvar);      /* start list */
    va_put(p1);
    va_put(p2);
    va_put(p3);
    va_put(p4);
    va_put(p5);
    va_put(p6);
    va_put(p7);
    va_put(p8);
    va_put(p9);
    va_end(va_pvar);        /* end list */
    _doprnt(format.pointer, &va_alist, stdout);
}

/*
PreRandom()

Generate a pseudo-random number from 0 and less than the caller's modulus.

PreRandom(par)

 ParseThing * par;       /* function call in parse tree */
 int error;               /* YES means bad value */
 long i;                  /* integral caller's parameter */
 long random();           /* system random number routine */
 NUMBER x;                /* caller's original parameter */
 error = NO;              /* assume no errors */

 if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
 || (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type != ValNUMBER))
 {
   error = YES;
 }
 else
 {
   x = Stack[SP].dummy->this->number;
   i = (long) x;
   if (x != (NUMBER) i)
   {
     /* truncation changes value */
     error = YES;
   }
   else if (i <= 0)
   {
     /* modulus must be positive */
     error = YES;
   }
 }

 if (error)
 {
   PrintLine();
   fprintf(stderr, 
     "random failed: parameter must be a positive integer: ");
   PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
   fprintf(stderr, \n"");
   Execute();
 }

 Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
 Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = (NUMBER) (random() % i);

PreRound()

Pre-defined function to round a number to the closest integral value. If a second parameter is given, then it must be a scale factor. (For example, a factor of 0.01 would round to the nearest penny.)

PreRound(par)

 ParseThing * par;       /* function call in parse tree */
 int error;               /* YES means bad values */
 long i;                  /* integral part */
 NUMBER x;                /* number to be converted */
 NUMBER y;                /* scale factor */
error = NO;  /* assume no errors */
/* get number to be converted */
if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this != NULL) 
& (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == VaNUMBER))
  x = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->number;
else
  error = YES;
/* get scale factor */
if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this == NULL)
  y = ONE;
else if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->type == VaNUMBER)
  y = Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->number;
  if (y == ZERO)
    error = YES;
else
  error = YES;
/* do the conversion */
if (!error)
  if (x < ZERO)
    i = (long) ((x / y) - 0.5);
  else
    i = (long) ((x / y) + 0.5);
  Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(VaNUMBER);
  Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = y * (NUMBER) i;
if (error)
  
  PrintLine();
 fprintf(stderr, "round failed: bad number parameters: ");
  PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
  fprintf(stderr, " and ");
  PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+2].dummy, YES);
  fprintf(stderr, "\n");
  ExecAbort();
}
PreSave()
Pre-defined function to save all global variables into a file named by the
user, or else print them on the terminal if no file name is given.
*/
PreSave(par)
ParseThing * par;  /* function call in parse tree */
{
  char * cp;  /* pointer to file name string */
  FILE * fp;  /* file pointer */
  SymbolThing * sym;  /* a symbol table pointer */
if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
  
  cp = NULL;
  fp = stdout;
else if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == VALSTRING)
{
    cp = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string;
    fp = fopen(cp, "w");
    if (fp == NULL)
      {  
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr,  
          "save failed: can't open file '%s' for writing\n",  
          cp);
        ExecAbort();
      }
}
else
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr,  
      "save failed: parameter must be a file name String or NULL: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}

sym = GlobalHead;
while (sym != NULL)
{
    if (sym->type == SymGLOBAL)
      {
        if (sym->special == 0)
          {  
            fprintf(fp, "%s := ", sym->name);
            PrintValue(fp, sym->dummy, YES);
            fprintf(fp, ";\n");
          }
        else
          {  
            UserSave(fp, sym);
          }
      }
    sym = sym->next;
}
if (cp != NULL)
fclose(fp);

/*
PreScanf()

Formatted input with the "scanf" subroutine from wherever it is that we are
reading input ("yyin").
*/

PreScanf(par)

{  
  ParseThing * par;  
  /* function call in parse tree */

  int count;  
  /* result from fscanf */
  FloThing format;  
  /* format string */
  FloThing p1, p2, p3, p4, p5, p6, p7, p8, p9;  
  /* parameters */

  format = FloCheck(1, YES, NO, "scanf");
  p1 = FloCheck(2, NO, YES, "scanf");
  p2 = FloCheck(3, NO, YES, "scanf");
  p3 = FloCheck(4, NO, YES, "scanf");
  p4 = FloCheck(5, NO, YES, "scanf");
  p5 = FloCheck(6, NO, YES, "scanf");
  p6 = FloCheck(7, NO, YES, "scanf");
  p7 = FloCheck(8, NO, YES, "scanf");

*/
p8 = FunctionCheck(9, NO, YES, "scanf");
p9 = FunctionCheck(10, NO, YES, "scanf");
count = fscanf(yyin, format, p1, p2, p3, p4, p5, p6, p7, p8, p9);
Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValueNUMBER);
Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = (NUMBER) count;
}

/*
PreSign()

Pre-defined function to return the sign of an expression.
*/

PreSign(par)

ParseThing * par;  /* function call in parse tree */
{
    if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
        /* sign(NULL) is just NULL */
    else
    {
        NUMBER sign;
        CheckSign(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this);
        switch (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type)
        {
            case (ValueNUMBER):
                sign = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->number;
                if (sign < ZERO)
                    sign = - ONE;
                else if (sign > ZERO)
                    sign = ONE;
                break;
            case (ValueSET):
            case (ValueSTRING):
                sign = (NUMBER) Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->sign;
                break;
            default:
                PrintLine();
                fprintf(stderr,
                    "internal error: PreSign value type = %d\n",
                    Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type);
                ExecAbort();
                break;
        }
        Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValueNUMBER);
        Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = sign;
    }
}

/*
PreSize()

Pre-defined function to return the size of an expression.
*/

PreSize(par)

ParseThing * par;  /* function call in parse tree */
ValueThing * val;    /* a value structure pointer */
NUMBER size;        /* where we put the size */
if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
{
    size = ZERO;
}
else switch (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type)
{
    case (VaINumber):
    size = ONE;
    break;
    case (VaSET):
    size = ZERO;
    val = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->next;
    while (val != NULL)
    {
        size += ONE;
        val = val->next;
    }
    break;
    case (VaSTRING):
    size = (NUMBER) strlen(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string);
    break;
    default:
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "internal error: PreSize value type = %d
",
    Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type);
    ExecAbort();
    break;
}
Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(VaINumber);
Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = size;
*/

/*
PreSprintf()
Formatted output with the "sprintf" subroutine to a text string. Because of
problems with variable arguments, this routine is restricted to two data
parameters.
(Calling "doprnt" with variable arguments into a string is too difficult.) */

PreSprintf(par)
ParseThing * par; /* function call in parse tree */
{
    FloThing format; /* format string */
    FloThing p1, p2; /* parameters */
    FloThing string; /* a text string */
    string = FloCheck(1, YES, YES, "sprintf");
    format = FloCheck(2, YES, NO, "sprintf");
    p1 = FloCheck(3, NO, NO, "sprintf");
    p2 = FloCheck(4, NO, NO, "sprintf");
    if (SP > (FP + 4))
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr,
            "warning: sprintf called with too many parameters ((%d)\n",
            (SP-FP));
    }
    if (p1.type == FloNUMBER)
    {
        if (p2.type == FloNUMBER)
            sprintf(string.pointer, format.pointer, p1.number,
                p2.number);
        else
            sprintf(string.pointer, format.pointer, p1.number,
p2.pointer);
}
else
{
    if (p2.type == FINUMBER)
        sprintf(string.pointer, format.pointer, p1.pointer,
             p2.number);
    else
        sprintf(string.pointer, format.pointer, p1.pointer,
             p2.pointer);
}

/*

PreSscanf()

Formatted input with the "sscanf" subroutine from a text string.

*/

PreSscanf(par)

ParseThing * par;   /* function call in parse tree */

{ int count;        /* result from sscanf */
  FioThing format;  /* format string */
  FioThing p1, p2, p3, p4, p5, p6, p7, p8, p9; /* parameters */
  FioThing string;  /* a text string */

  string = FioCheck(1, YES, NO, "sscanf");
  format = FioCheck(2, YES, NO, "sscanf");
  p1 = FioCheck(3, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p2 = FioCheck(4, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p3 = FioCheck(5, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p4 = FioCheck(6, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p5 = FioCheck(7, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p6 = FioCheck(8, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p7 = FioCheck(9, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p8 = FioCheck(10, NO, YES, "sscanf");
  p9 = FioCheck(11, NO, YES, "sscanf");

  count = sscanff(string.pointer, format.pointer, p1.pointer, p2.pointer,
                  p3.pointer, p4.pointer, p5.pointer, p6.pointer, p7.pointer,
                  p8.pointer, p9.pointer);

  Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
  Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = (NUMBER) count;
}

/*

PreStop()

Pre-defined function to stop the current user program or statement. We do
this by the crude method of forcing an execution abort (just like some sort
of fatal error).

*/

PreStop(par)

ParseThing * par;   /* function call in parse tree */

{ fprintf(stderr, "\n");
  PrintLine();
  fprintf(stderr, "stop() called; ready for more input\n");
  ExecAbort();
}

PreSystem()
Pre-defined function to call the UNIX "sh" shell with a command line.

PreSystem(par)
  ParseThing * par;        /* function call in parse tree */
  {
    if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this != NULL)
        && (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING))
      {
        system(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string);
      }
    else
      {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "system failed: parameter must be a command string: ");
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, \n");
        ExecAbort();
      }
  }

PreTrunc()
  /*
    Pre-defined function to truncate a number to its integral part. If a second
    parameter is given, then it must be a scale factor. (For example, a factor of
    0.01 would truncate to the penny.)
   */

PreTrunc(par)
  ParseThing * par;        /* function call in parse tree */
  {
    int error;               /* YES means bad values */
    long i;                 /* integral part */
    NUMBER x;               /* number to be converted */
    NUMBER y;               /* scale factor */
    error = NO;             /* assume no errors */
    /* get number to be converted */
    if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this != NULL)
        && (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER))
      {
        x = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->number;
      }
    else
      {
        error = YES;
    }
    /* get scale factor */
    if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this == NULL)
      {
        y = ONE;
      }
    else if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->type == ValNUMBER)
      {
        y = Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->number;
        if (y == ZERO)
          error = YES;
      }
    else
      {
        error = YES;
      }
    /* do the conversion */
    if (!error)
      {

f = (long) (x / y);
Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValueNUMBER);
Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = y * (NUMBER) 1;
}

if (error)
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr, "trunc failed; bad number parameters: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, " and ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+2].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}

/*
PreType()

Pre-defined function to return the type of an expression. If a second
parameter is given, then it must be a string. We compare the type of the
first parameter with this string, and return TRUE if the types are the same,
and FALSE if they are different.
 */

PreType(par)
    ParseThing = par; /* function call in parse tree */
{
    char * type; /* type string pointer */
    if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
        type = "null";
    else switch (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type)
        case (ValueDUMMY):
            type = "dummy";
            break;
        case (ValueELEMENT):
            type = "element";
            break;
        case (ValueNUMBER):
            type = "number";
            break;
        case (ValueSET):
            type = "set";
            break;
        case (ValueSTRING):
            type = "string";
            break;
        default:
            PrintLine();
            fprintf(stderr, "internal error: PreType value type = %d\n",
                Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type);
            ExecAbort();
            break;
    }
    /* do we return the type, or compare it with another string? */
    if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this == NULL)
        }
    else if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->type == ValueSTRING)
{  // Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValueNumber);
  if (strcmp(Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->string, type) == 0)
    Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = TRUE;
  else
    Stack[FP].dummy->this->number = FALSE;
}
else
{
  PrintLine();
  fprintf(stderr, "type failed; second parameter must be a string or NULL: ");
  PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+2].dummy, YES);
  fprintf(stderr, "\n");
  ExecAbort();
}

/* PreUnpack() 
Pre-defined function to return a value that looks like the first parameter,
but with all strings replaced by a value that looks like the second parameter.
For each string, this is the reverse operation of "pack()".
*/

PreUnpack(par)
{
  ParseThing * par;     /* function call in parse tree */
  Stack[FP].dummy->this = UnpackValue(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this,
    Stack[FP+2].dummy->this);
}

/* PreValue() 
Pre-defined value function. Manually try to parse a string into a value
structure.
WARNING: This function was written to read back message and rule lists from
the user classifier system. It is not documented, and is subject to change.
*/

PreValue(par)
{
  ParseThing * par;     /* function call in parse tree */
  char * cp;            /* a character pointer */
  int error;            /* YES means bad string */
  error = NO;           /* assume no errors */
  if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL) ||
      (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type != ValSTRING))
    error = YES;
  else
    {  // cp = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string;
      Stack[FP].dummy->this = StringToValue(cp, cp, &cp);
      if (!"cp) != '0'") /* did we use entire string */
        error = YES;
    }
  if (error)
    {  // PrintLine();
      PrintLine();
    }
}
fprintf(stderr, "value failed: bad string parameter: ");
PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
fprintf(stderr, "\n");
ExecAbort();
}

/*
PrWrite()

Pre-defined write function. Write out all of the parameters without adding
spaces, newlines, or quotes to strings.
*
PrWrite(par)
    ParseThing * par;    /* function call in parse tree */
{                      /* index variable */
    int i;
    for (i = (FP + 1); i <= SP; i++)
        PrintValue(stdout, Stack[i].dummy, NO);
/*
 * fasub.c -- Support Subroutines
 * 
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 * T6G 2H1
 * 
 * December 1987
 * 
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 * 
 * These are the support subroutines for various nifty things. Most are called
 * by the pre-defined functions in the "fapre.c" module.
 */

#include "fainc.h"     /* our standard includes */
#include <ctype.h>      /* character types */
#include <math.h>       /* math routines */

/*
CheckSign()

Check the "sign" of a value structure. It should be zero for some value types,
and +1 or -1 for others.

This function could be generalized to check (for each value type) that the
fields which should be unused have their default values. The additional CPU
time is probably not warranted in a production version.
 */

CheckSign(val)
ValueThing * val;  /* a value structure pointer */
{
    if (val == NULL)
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "internal error: CheckSign value pointer = NULL\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
    else switch (val->type)
    {
    case (ValDummy):
    case (ValNumber):
    if (val->sign != 0)
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "internal error: CheckSign sign = %d not zero\n",
        val->sign);
        ExecAbort();
    } break;
    case (ValSet):
    case (ValString):
    if (val->number != ZERO)
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "internal error: CheckSign number = ");
        fprintf(stderr, FORMAT, val->number);
        fprintf(stderr, " not zero\n");
        ExecAbort();
    }
if ((val->sign != -1) && (val->sign != 1))
{
    printf(stderr, "internal error: CheckSign sign = %d not \-1\n", val->sign);
    ExecAbort();
}
break;
}
default:
    printf(stderr, "internal error: CheckSign value type = %d\n", val->type);
    ExecAbort();
    break;
}
/*
CompareValue()
Given two value structures, compare them or give up. An integer is returned:
CMPLE if left = right
CMPGT if left > right
CMPLT if left < right
CMPLNE if left and right are not comparable
We keep track of the sign of "left" and "right" so that for sets and strings
we can compare the positive parts and then reverse CMPGT and CMPLT results if
necessary.
*/

int CompareValue(left, right, pattern)

ValueThing * left; /* left value structure */
ValueThing * right; /* right value structure */
int pattern; /* YES if "#" allowed in strings */

{ int result; /* result of comparison */
  int sign; /* sign of comparison: -1 or +1 */

  result = CMPSEQ; /* assume equal */
  sign = 1; /* don't reverse result */

  if (left == NULL)
  {
    if (right == NULL)
      result = CMPSEQ;
    else
      result = CMPLNE;
  } else if (right == NULL)
  {
    result = CMPLNE;
  } else if ((left->type == ValNUMBER) && (right->type == ValNUMBER))
  {
    if (left->number < right->number)
      result = CMPLT;
    else if (left->number > right->number)
      result = CMPGT;
    else
      result = CMPSEQ;
  } else if ((left->type == ValSET) && (right->type == ValSET))
  {
    CheckSign(left);
    CheckSign(right);
sign = left->sign;

if (left->sign != right->sign)
{
    result = CMPGT; /* sign may get reversed */
}
else
{
    ValueThing * lp; /* left element */
    ValueThing * rp; /* right element */
    lp = left->next; /* first element on left */
    rp = right->next; /* first element on right */
    result = CMPEQ; /* assume equal */

    while ((lp != NULL) && (rp != NULL))
    {
        result = CompareValue(lp->this, rp->this, pattern);
        if (result != CMPEQ)
            break;
        lp = lp->next;
        rp = rp->next;
    }
    if (result == CMPEQ)
    {
        if (lp != NULL)
            result = CMPGT;
        else if (rp != NULL)
            result = CMPLT;
    }
}
else if ((left->type == ValSTRING) && (right->type == ValSTRING))
{
    CheckSign(left);
    CheckSign(right);

    sign = left->sign;
    if (left->sign != right->sign)
    {
        result = CMPGT; /* sign may get reversed */
    }
    else
    {
        char * lp, * rp; /* left, right pointers */
        lp = left->string;
        rp = right->string;
        if (pattern)
        {
            result = CMPEQ; /* assume equal */

            while (((*lp) != 'O') && ((*rp) != 'O'))
            {
                if (((*lp) != ANYBIT) && ((*rp) != ANYBIT))
                {
                    if ((*lp) < (*rp))
                        result = CMPLT;
                    break;
                }
                else if ((*lp) > (*rp))
                {
                    result = CMPGT;
                    break;
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
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211
212 }  
213 }  
214 if (result == CMPEQ)  
215 {  
216     if ((*lp) == '\0')  
217         result = CMPGT;  
218     if ((*rp) == '\0')  
219         result = CMPLT;  
220 }  
221 else  
222 {  
223     int status;  /* result from strcmp */  
224     status = strcmp(lp, rp);  
225     if (status < 0)  
226         result = CMPLT;  
227     else if (status > 0)  
228         result = CMPGT;  
229     else  
230         result = CMPEQ;  
231 }  
232 else  
233 {  
234     /* not comparable */  
235     result = CMPNE;  
236 }  
237  
238 /* reverse the meaning of "less than" and "greater than"? */  
239 if (sign < 0)  
240 {  
241     switch (result)  
242        {  
243         case (CMPEQ):  
244             return(CMPEQ);  
245             break;  
246         case (CMPGT):  
247             return(CMPLT);  
248             break;  
249         case (CMPLT):  
250             return(CMPGT);  
251             break;  
252         case (CMPNE):  
253             return(CMPNE);  
254             break;  
255         default:  
256             PrintLine();  
257             fprintf(stderr,  
258                "internal error: CompareValue result = %d\n",  
259                result);  
260             ExecAbort();  
261             break;  
262         }  
263     else  
264     {  
265         return(result);  
266     }  
267 }
/*
 FindNumber()

 Given the address of a string, try to find a number. We return the address
 in the string after the number.

 Note: This routine does NOT accept a leading sign (+ or -), because of
 who calls it (StringToValue, UnPackString).
 */

 NUMBER FindNumber(cp, newcp)
     char * cp; /* current string pointer */
     char * newcp; /* returned string pointer */
 {
     double atof(); /* ASCII to floating double */
     char * new; /* our string pointer */
     NUMBER result; /* our resulting number */

     new = cp; /* starting address */

     /* skip digits before decimal point */
     while (isascii(*new) && isdigit(*new))
         new ++;

     /* skip decimal point (if any) and trailing digits */
     if (**new == '.')
         {
         new ++;
         while (isascii(*new) && isdigit(*new))
             new ++;
         }

     /* skip exponent (if any) */
     if (**new == 'e' || (**new == 'E'))
         {
         new ++;
         if (**new == '-' || (**new == '+'))
             new ++;
         while (isascii(*new) && isdigit(*new))
             new ++;
         }

     /* convert ASCII to number and return new string pointer */
     result = atof(cp);
     (*newcp) = new;
     return(result);
 }

/*
 PackValue()

 Pack a value structure into a string. This is used to compress a set into a
 true bit string. It has been defined to be quite general, although this
 generality may not be useful.

 The "value" parameter may be NULL, a number, a set, or a string. The "pattern"
 parameter must have the same structure. If "value" is a set, then "pattern"
 may be a set with a similar but simpler structure (fewer levels), such as a
 number or string.

 Assume that "value" and "pattern" are both sets with identical structures.
 Then, for each NULL element in "value", the corresponding element in "pattern"
 is converted into a string and concatenated to this function's result.
Non-NULL elements in "value" are converted to a string that looks like the
"pattern" element. If a "value" element has a negative sign, then the sign is
only preserved if the "pattern" element is also negative.

```c
char * PackValue(cp, value, pattern)
char * cp;  /* where output goes */
ValueThing * value;  /* value to be packed */
ValueThing * pattern;  /* pattern to be used */
{
    char * new;  /* new output pointer */
    new = cp;  /* default to nothing */
    if (value == NULL)
    {
        if (pattern == NULL)
            /* do nothing */
        else
            /* use pattern element instead */
            new = PackValue(new, pattern, NULL);
    }
    else if (((value->type == ValNUMBER) && (pattern == NULL))
    {
        sprintf(new, FORMAT, value->number);
        new += strlen(new);  /* find new string end */
    }
    else if (((value->type == ValNUMBER) && (pattern->type == ValNUMBER))
    {
        if (pattern->number < ZERO)
            sprintf(new, FORMAT, value->number);
        else
            sprintf(new, FORMAT, fabs(value->number));
        new += strlen(new);  /* find new string end */
    }
    else if (((value->type == ValSET) && (pattern == NULL))
    {
        ValueThing * val;  /* current part of "value" */
        CheckSign(value);
        if (value->sign < 0)
            (*new ++) = '-';
        val = value->next;  /* first value element */
        while (val != NULL)
        {
            new = PackValue(new, val->this, pattern);
            val = val->next;
        }
    }
    else if (((value->type == ValSET) && (pattern->type == ValNUMBER))
    {
        ValueThing * val;  /* current part of "value" */
        CheckSign(value);
        if (((pattern->number < ZERO) && (value->sign < 0))
            (*new ++) = '-';
        val = value->next;  /* first value element */
        while (val != NULL)
        {
            new = PackValue(new, val->this, pattern);
            val = val->next;
        }
```
else if ((value->type == VaLSET) && (pattern->type == VaLSTRING))
{
    ValueThing * val;        /* current part of "value" */
    CheckSign(pattern);
    CheckSign(value);
    if ((pattern->sign < 0) && (value->sign < 0))
        (*new ++) = '"';
    val = value->next;       /* first value element */
    while (val != NULL)
    {
        new = PackValue(new, val->this, pattern);
        val = val->next;
    }
}
else if ((value->type == VaLSET) && (pattern->type == VaLSET))
{
    ValueThing * pat;        /* current part of "pattern" */
    ValueThing * val;        /* current part of "value" */
    CheckSign(pattern);
    CheckSign(value);
    if ((pattern->sign < 0) && (value->sign < 0))
        (*new ++) = '"';
    pat = pattern->next;     /* first pattern element */
    val = value->next;       /* first value element */
    while ((pat != NULL) || (val != NULL))
    {
        if (pat == NULL)
        {
            new = PackValue(new, val->this, NULL);
            val = val->next;
        } else if (val == NULL)
        {
            new = PackValue(new, pat->this, NULL);
            pat = pat->next;
        } else
        {
            new = PackValue(new, val->this, pat->this);
            pat = pat->next;
            val = val->next;
        }
    }
}
else if ((value->type == VaLSTRING) && (pattern == NULL))
{
    CheckSign(value);
    if (value->sign < 0)
        (*new ++) = '"';
    strcpy(new, value->string);
    /* find new string end */
}
else if ((value->type == VaLSTRING) && (pattern->type == VaLSTRING))
{
    int j, k;               /* string lengths */
    char * pp;              /* pattern string pointer */
    char * vp;              /* value string pointer */
    CheckSign(pattern);
    CheckSign(value);
    if ((pattern->sign < 0) && (value->sign < 0))
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(*new ++ = ' - ';

pp = pattern->string;
vp = value->string;

j = strlen(vp); /* value length */
k = strlen(pp); /* pattern length */

if (j <= k) /* if value <= pattern */
{}

strcpy(new, vp); /* copy value string */
new ++ = j; /* new output pointer */
pp ++ = j; /* get extra from pattern */

for (; j < k ; j ++)

(*new ++ = (*pp ++);
}

else /* if value > pattern */
{}

for (j = 0 ; j < k ; j ++)

(*new ++ = (*vp ++);

}

else
{}

PrintLine();

fprintf(stderr, "pack failed: can't pack ");

PrintValue(stderr, value, YES);

fprintf(stderr, " into pattern ");

PrintValue(stderr, pattern, YES);

fprintf(stderr, "\n");

ExecAbort();

/* put an end-of-string marker and return */

(*new) = '\0';

return(new);

PrintString();

Print a string (possibly quoted) using a given file pointer.

PrintString(fp, cp, quote)

FILE *fp: /* a file pointer */
char *cp: /* string pointer */
int quote; /* YES if we quote strings */

{}

if (quote)
{}

fprintf(fp, "\%c", QUOTE);

while (*cp)
{}

if (*cp == '\n')
    fprintf(fp, "\n");
else if (*cp == '\t')
    fprintf(fp, "\t");
else if (*cp == '\\')
    fprintf(fp, "\\\");
else if (*cp == QUOTE)
    fprintf(fp, "\\\%c", QUOTE);
else
    fprintf(fp, "\%c", (*cp));

op ++;

} fprintf(fp, "\%c", QUOTE);
else    fprintf(fp, "%s", cp):

/*
PrintValue()
Recursively print a value structure. The caller gives us a file pointer (like "stdout"), and is responsible for any newlines before or after the output.
Unlike most subroutines, the caller may pass us a dummy value structure. This is provided as a courtesy only, due to the large number of PrintValue() calls.
*/

PrintValue(fp, val, quote)
    FILE * fp;
    ValueThing * val;
    int quote;
    /* a file pointer */
    /* a value structure pointer */
    /* YES if we quote strings */
{
    int comma;
    /* "comma required" flag */
    ValueThing * new;
    /* new value structure pointer */
    if (val == NULL)
{
        fprintf(fp, "NULL");
    }
    else
{
    CheckSign(val);
    switch (val->type)
{
    case (ValDUMMY):
        PrintValue(fp, val->this, quote);
        break;
    case (ValNUMBER):
        fprintf(fp, FORMAT, val->number);
        break;
    case (ValSET):
        if (val->sign < 0)
            fprintf(fp, "-");
        fprintf(fp, "(");
        comma = NO;
        new = val->next;
        while (new != NULL)
{
            if (comma)
                if (quote)
                    fprintf(fp, ", ");
                else
                    fprintf(fp, ",");
            PrintValue(fp, new->this, quote);
            comma = YES;
            new = new->next;
        }
        fprintf(fp, ")");
        break;
    case (ValSTRING):
        if (val->sign < 0)
            fprintf(fp, "-");
        PrintString(fp, val->string, quote);
        break;
    default:
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr,
            "internal error: PrintValue value type = %d\n",
            val->type);
ExecAbort();
Break;
}

/*
 * SkipSpace()

Given a string pointer, return a new pointer which skips over any white space
(blanks, tabs, or newlines).
*/

char * SkipSpace(char * cp)
{
    char * new;
    while (isspace(*new))
    {
        new ++;
    }
    return(new);
}

/*
 * StringToValue()

Given a string pointer, try to parse the string as the definition of a single
data object (number, string, set, or NULL value). This is a crude version of
the real YACC parser, and is used to take apart message and rule lists from
the user classifier system.

The following features are not supported:
- missing set elements are NOT converted to NULL values
- escape sequences are NOT allowed in strings

WARNING: This function was written to read back message and rule lists from
the user classifier system. It is not documented, and is subject to change.
*/

ValueThing * StringToValue(char * start, char * cp, char * newcp)
{
    int error;
    char * new;
    ValueThing * result;
    int sign;
    error = NO;
    new = cp;
    result = NULL;
    sign = 1;
    new = SkipSpace('new);
    /* look for a sign */
    if (((new) == '\0')
    {
        error = YES;
    }
    else if (((new) == '+')
    {  
        /*...*/
}
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701        new = SkipSpace(new+1);
702    }
703    else if (((*new) == '¬')
704    {
705        new = SkipSpace(new+1);
706        sign = -1;
707    }
708
709    /* find the data type */
710
711    if (error)
712    {
713        /* do nothing at this level */
714    }
715    else if (((*new) == 'n') || (((*new) == 'N'))
716    {
717        /* must be the NULL value */
718        if ((((*new) == 'u') || (((*new) == 'U'))
719        && (((*new) == 'l') || (((*new) == 'L')))
720        {new ++;
721            result = NULL;
722        }
723        else
724            error = YES;
725    }
726
727    else if (isascii(*new) && (isdigit(*new) || ((*new) == '.')))
728    {
729        /* must be a number */
730        result = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
731        result->number = FindNumber(new, &new) * sign;
732    }
733    else if (((*new) == '{')
734    {
735        /* must be a set */
736        ValueThing = val;
737        new = SkipSpace(new+1);
738        result = val = MakeValue(ValSET);
739        val->sign = sign;
740
741        if (((*new) == '}')) /* end of set? */
742        {
743            new ++;
744        }
745    }
746    else
747    {
748        /* end of set */
749        while (YES)
750        {
751            val->next = MakeValue(ValELEMENT);
752            val = val->next;
753            val->this = StringToValue(start, new, &new);
754
755            if (((*new) == ',')
756            {
757                new ++; /* more elements */
758            }
759            else if (((*new) == '}')
760            {
761                new ++; /* end of set */
762                break;
763            }
764            else
765            {
766                error = YES;
767                break;
768            }
Given a string and a pattern value, attempt to take the string apart and create a value structure that looks like the pattern. The caller must give us the
starting string pointer, and we return (as a parameter) the updated pointer.

```
841     ValueThing * UnpackString(cp, pattern, newcp)
842     
843     char * cp;          /* starting string pointer */
844     char * pattern;     /* pattern to be used */
845     char * newcp;       /* where we return new pointer */
846     
847     {                      /* our result */
848     ValueThing * result;
849     int sign;              /* sign of a value */
850     
851     if (*((cp) == '\0'))
852     {                      /* CopyValue(pattern); */
853     
854     }                      /* NULL */
855     else if (pattern == NULL)
856     {                      /* NULL */
857     result = NULL;
858     
859     }                      /* type == ValNUMBER */
860     else if (pattern->type == ValNUMBER)
861     {                      /* type == ValNUMBER */
862     sign = 1;
863     if (pattern->number < ZERO)
864     {                      /* if (pattern->type == ValNUMBER) */
865     if (*((cp) == '+'))
866     cp ++;
867     else if (*((cp) == '-'))
868     {                      /* if (pattern->type == ValNUMBER) */
869     sign = -1;
870     cp ++;
871     }
872     
873     result = MakeValue(ValNUMBER);
874     result->number = FindNumber(cp, &cp) * sign;
875     
876     }                      /* type == ValSET */
877     else if (pattern->type == ValSET)
878     {                      /* type == ValSET */
879     ValueThing * new;      /* a new set */
880     ValueThing * pat;      /* current part of "pattern" */
881     
882     sign = 1;
883     CheckSign(pattern);   /* CheckSign(pattern); */
884     if (pattern->sign < 0)
885     {                      /* if (pattern->type == ValSET) */
886     if (*((cp) == '+'))
887     cp ++;
888     else if (*((cp) == '-'))
889     {                      /* if (pattern->type == ValSET) */
890     sign = -1;
891     cp ++;
892     }
893     
894     new = result = MakeValue(ValSET); /* a new set */
895     result->sign = sign;
896     pat = pattern->next;   /* first pattern element */
897     
898     while (pat != NULL)
899     {                      /* while (pat != NULL) */
900     
901     new->next = MakeValue(ValELEMENT);
902     new->next->this = UnpackString(cp, pat->this, &cp);
903     new = new->next;
904     pat = pat->next;
905     }
906     
907     else if (pattern->type == ValSTRING)
908     {                      /* type == ValSTRING */
909     int j, k;                    /* string lengths */
910     char * pp;                    /* pattern pointer */
911     char * rp;                    /* result pointer */
```
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sign = 1;
CheckSign(pattern);
if (pattern->sign < 0)
{
    if ((*cp) == '+')
        cp ++;
    else if ((*cp) == '-')
    {
        sign = -1;
        cp ++;
    }
}
result = MakeValue(Va1STRING);
result->sign = sign;

pp = pattern->string;
j = strlen(cp); /* remaining input */
k = strlen(pp); /* pattern length */

result->string = rp = GetMemory(k + 1);

if (j <= k) /* input smaller than pattern */
{
    strcpy(rp, cp); /* copy all input */
    cp ++;
    pp ++;
    rp ++;
    for (; j < k; j++)
        (*rp ++) = (*pp ++);
}
else /* j > k */ /* more input than pattern */
{
    for (j = 0; j < k; j++)
        (*rp ++) = (*cp ++);

    (*rp) = '\0'; /* end result string */
}

else
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr,
        "internal error: UnpackString pattern type = %d\n",
        pattern->type);
    ExecAbort();
}

/* pass back new string pointer, and return value */

(*newcp) = cp;
return(result);

/**************************************************************************
Given a value structure, return a new value structure which looks like the
old value, except that all strings have been broken apart by a "pattern".
The result of this function is dynamic, and may be assigned freely.
**************************************************************************

ValueThing * UnpackValue(value, pattern)
    ValueThing * value; /* original value */
    ValueThing * pattern; /* pattern structure */
{
    ValueThing * result; /* our result */

    if (pattern == NULL)
    {
        /* can't unpack without a pattern */


result = NULL;
}  
else if (value == NULL)  
{  
    /* replace NULL value with the pattern */  
    result = CopyValue(pattern);  
}  
else if (value->type == ValNUMBER)  
{  
    /* numbers are unchanged */  
    result = CopyValue(value);  
}  
else if (value->type == ValSET)  
{  
    /* sets are unpacked recursively */  
    ValueThing * new;   
    /* new set */  
    ValueThing * val;   
    /* current part of "value" */  
    new = result = MakeValue(ValSET);  
    CheckSign(value);  
    result->sign = value->sign;  
    val = value->next;   
    /* first value element */  
    while (val != NULL)  
    {  
        new->next = MakeValue(ValELEMENT);  
        new->next->this = UnpackValue(val->this, pattern);  
        new = new->next;  
        val = val->next;  
    }  
}  
else if (value->type == ValSTRING)  
{  
    /* strings are so much work, we call somebody else */  
    char * cp;   
    /* dummy string pointer */  
    result = UnpackString(value->string, pattern, &cp);  
    CheckSign(value);  
    if (((result != NULL) && (value->sign < 0))  
    {  
        CheckSign(result);  
        if (result->type == ValNUMBER)  
            result->number = - result->number;  
        else  
            result->sign = - result->sign;  
    }  
}  
else  
{  
    PrintLine();  
    fprintf(stderr, "unpack failed: can’t unpack ");  
    PrintValue(stderr, value, YES);  
    fprintf(stderr, " using pattern ");  
    PrintValue(stderr, pattern, YES);  
    fprintf(stderr, ":\n");  
    ExecAbort();  
}  
return(result);
/*

fause.c -- User Support

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All knowledge and special code necessary to support an interface to the user's
classifier system is buried in this module. These routines can be safely
omitted without affecting the language itself. (There are a few pre-defined
function references in the main code that would need to be commented out.)

*/

#include "fainc.h"           /* our standard includes */
#define MESSLIST 301          /* special code for "messlist" variable */
#define READY "ready"        /* user classifier prompt for input */
#define RULELIST 302          /* special code for "rulelist" variable */

char UserBuffer[MAXSTRING+1];  /* buffer for UserReceive() */
int UserFlagMess = YES;         /* YES if "messlist" is invalid */
int UserFlagRule = YES;         /* YES if "rulelist" is invalid */
int UserReadFD = -1;           /* user pipe read file descriptor */
int UserWriteFD = -1;          /* user pipe write file descriptor */

/*

Pre-defined function to close the connection to the user classifier system, if
it isn't already closed. There are no parameters, and no result.
*/

PreClose(par)
    ParseThing * par;           /* function call in parse tree */
    {                           /*
        UserClose();
    }

/*

PreFlagMess()

Pre-defined function to flag the user classifier message list ("messlist") as
invalid, so that it will be re-fetched upon the next reference. This is
necessary after sending any command that MAY change the message list.
*/

PreFlagMess(par)
    ParseThing * par;           /* function call in parse tree */
    {                           /*
        UserFlagMess = YES;
    }

/*

PreFlagRule()

Pre-defined function to flag the user classifier rule list ("rulelist") as
invalid, so that it will be re-fetched upon the next reference. This is

necessary after sending any command that MAY change the rule list.

*/

PreFlagRule(par)
{
    ParseThing * par;  /* function call in parse tree */
    UserFlagRule = YES;
}

PreOpen()

Pre-defined function to open a connection to the user classifier system, if it
isn't already open. If the first parameter is given, then it must be the name
of the executable classifier file. If the second parameter is given, then it
must be the first argument to the user classifier. If either parameter is
missing, then the defaults are used.

*/

PreOpen(par)
{
    ParseThing * par;  /* function call in parse tree */
    char * arg;        /* argument to user classifier */
    int error;         /* YES means bad values */
    char * file;       /* file name of user classifier */
    error = NO;        /* assume no errors */

    /* get file name */
    if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
    {
        file = UserFile;     /* default */
    }
    else if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
    {
        file = Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string;
    }
    else
    {
        error = YES;
    }

    /* get first argument to classifier */
    if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this == NULL)
    {
        arg = UserArg;     /* default */
    }
    else if (Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
    {
        arg = Stack[FP+2].dummy->this->string;
    }
    else
    {
        error = YES;
    }

    /* open connection */
    if (error)
    {
        UserOpen(file, arg);
    }
    else
    {
        PrintLine();
        fprintf(stderr, "open failed: bad string parameters: ");
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, " and ");
        PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+2].dummy, YES);
        fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    }
ExecAbort();

PreReceive()

Pre-defined function to receive a string from the user classifier system. If a parameter is given, then we keep waiting until we get this "expected" response string, and nothing is returned to the caller. (May get abused by the user.)

PreReceive(par)

ParseThing * par; /* function call in parse tree */

char * cp; /* a string pointer */

if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this == NULL)
{
    cp = UserReceive();
    Stack[FP].dummy->this = MakeValue(ValSTRING);
    Stack[FP].dummy->this->sign = 1;
    Stack[FP].dummy->this->string = CopyString(cp);
}
else if (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING)
{
    UserReady(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string);
}
else
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr,
        "receive failed: parameter must be a string or NULL: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}

PreSend()

Pre-defined function to send a string to the user classifier system. (May get abused by the user.)

PreSend(par)

ParseThing * par; /* function call in parse tree */

if ((Stack[FP+1].dummy->this != NULL)
    && (Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->type == ValSTRING))
{
    UserSend(Stack[FP+1].dummy->this->string);
}
else
{
    PrintLine();
    fprintf(stderr,
        "send failed: parameter must be a string: ");
    PrintValue(stderr, Stack[FP+1].dummy, YES);
    fprintf(stderr, "\n");
    ExecAbort();
}
UserClose()

Tell the user classifier system to exit, and then close the pipe.
*/

UserClose()
{
    int status; /* status of called function */
    if ((UserReadFD < 0) && (UserWriteFD < 0))
        return; /* already closed */
    if (UserTrace)
        fprintf(stderr,
            "trace: closing pipe to user classifier system\n");
    /* tell user classifier system to close up and exit */
    /* we don't care if there is a "ready" reply */
    UserSend("close");
    sleep(1); /* wait for child to exit */
    /* invalidate our file descriptors */
    status = close(UserReadFD);
    if (status < 0)
        { perror("UserClose close UserReadFD failed");
          exit(-1); }
    status = close(UserWriteFD);
    if (status < 0)
        { perror("UserClose close UserWriteFD failed");
          exit(-1); }
    UserReadFD = UserWriteFD = -1;
}

UserDefine()

Define and initialize any functions to support the user classifier system. (See
also PreDefine() in the "fapre.c" file.)
*/

UserDefine()
{
    SymbolThing * sym; /* a symbol table pointer */
    sym = GlobalAdd("close", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 0;
    sym->special = SpeCLOSE;
    sym = GlobalAdd("messlist", SymGLOBAL);
    sym->dummy = MakeValue(ValDUMMY);
    sym->dummy->this = MakeValue(ValSET);
    sym->dummy->this->sign = 1;
    sym->special = MESSLIST;
    sym = GlobalAdd("flagness", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 0;
    sym->special = SpeFLAGNESS;
    sym = GlobalAdd("flagrule", SymFUNCTION);
    sym->count = 0;
    sym->special = SpeFLAGRULE;
sym = GlobalAdd("open", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 2;
sym->special = SpeOPEN;

sym = GlobalAdd("receive", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 1;
sym->special = SpeRECEIVE;

sym = GlobalAdd("rulelist", SymGLOBAL);
sym->dummy = MakeValue(VaIDUMMY);
sym->dummy->this = MakeValue(VaIFSET);
sym->dummy->this->sign = 1;
sym->special = RULELIST;

sym = GlobalAdd("send", SymFUNCTION);
sym->count = 1;
sym->special = SpeSEND;
}

/*
UserError()

Print an unidentified string as an error message from the user classifier system.
*/

UserError(cp)
{
    char * cp; /* a string pointer */
    printf(stderr, "classifier error: \"%s\n", cp);
}

/*
UserFetchList()

The caller must have sent a command to the user classifier asking for the message or rule list. We fetch all elements (either list), and attach a new set structure to the symbol table entry.
*/

UserFetchList(sym)
{
    SymbolThing * sym; /* a symbol table pointer */
    char * cp; /* string pointer */
    char * new; /* new string pointer */
    ValueThing * val; /* a value structure pointer */

    /* free old value */
    FreeValue(sym->dummy->this);

    /* create a new value */
    sym->dummy->this = val = MakeValue(VaIFSET);
    val->sign = 1;

    while (YES)
    {
        cp = UserReceive();
        if (strcmp(cp, READY) == 0)
            break;

        val->next = MakeValue(VaIELEMENT);
        val = val->next;
        val->this = StringToValue(cp, cp, &new);

        if (*new != '\0') /* did we use entire string? */
            UserError(cp); /* no */
/*
 * UserFetchMess()
 * Fetch a new copy of the message list from the user classifier system.
 */
UserFetchMess(sym)
    SymbolThing * sym;        /* a symbol table pointer */
    {/* reset fetch flag */
        UserFlagMess = NO;
        /* ask for the message list */
        UserSend("messlist");
        /* call common routine for fetching a set */
        UserFetchList(sym);
    }

/*
 * UserFetchRule()
 * Fetch a new copy of the rule list from the user classifier system.
 */
UserFetchRule(sym)
    SymbolThing * sym;        /* a symbol table pointer */
    {/* reset fetch flag */
        UserFlagRule = NO;
        /* ask for the rule list */
        UserSend("rulelist");
        /* call common routine for fetching a set */
        UserFetchList(sym);
    }

/*
 * UserOpen()
 * Open a pipe to the user classifier system. We use two UNIX pipes, because
 * it's simple, and it works.
 */
UserOpen(file, arg)
    char * file;            /* file name of user classifier */
    char * arg;            /* argument to user classifier */
    { /* pipe file descriptors */
        int fda[2], fdb[2];
        int status;   /* status of called function */
        if ((UserReadFD > 0) && (UserWriteFD > 0))
            return;  /* already open */
        if (UserTrace)
            fprintf(stderr,
                "trace: opening pipe to user classifier '%s'\n', file);
/* create the necessary pipes (two) */

status = pipe(fda); /* get face-to-classifier pipe */
if (status < 0)
{
    perror("UserOpen pipe fda failed");
    exit(-1);
}
status = pipe(fdb); /* get classifier-to-face pipe */
if (status < 0)
{
    perror("UserOpen pipe fdb failed");
    exit(-1);
}

/* fork a copy of "face" to become the classifier */

status = fork();
if (status < 0)
{
    perror("UserOpen fork failed");
    exit(-1);
}
else if (status == 0)
{
    /* child process */
    /* close unused ends of the pipes */

    status = close(fda[1]);
    if (status < 0)
    {
        perror("UserOpen close fda[1] failed");
        exit(-1);
    }

    status = close(fdb[0]);
    if (status < 0)
    {
        perror("UserOpen close fdb[0] failed");
        exit(-1);
    }

    /* replace standard input and output */

    close(0); /* close stdin */
    status = dup(fda[0]); /* replace with pipe */
    if (status < 0)
    {
        perror("UserOpen dup stdin failed");
        exit(-1);
    }

    close(1); /* close stdout */
    status = dup(fdb[1]); /* replace with pipe */
    if (status < 0)
    {
        perror("UserOpen dup stdout failed");
        exit(-1);
    }

    /* execute the user classifier system */
    /* if "exec1" returns, it's an error */

    exec1(file, file, arg, 0);
    perror("UserOpen exec1 failed");
    printf(stderr, "open failed: parameters were '%s' and '%s\n", file, arg);
    exit(-1);
}
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        else
            
            /* parent process */
            
            /* close unused ends of the pipes */
            status = close(fda[0]);
            if (status < 0)
            {
                perror("UserOpen close fda[0] failed");
                exit(-1);
            }
            status = close(fdb[1]);
            if (status < 0)
            {
                perror("UserOpen close fdb[1] failed");
                exit(-1);
            }
            
            UserReadFD = fdb[0];    /* our read file descriptor */
            UserWriteFD = fda[1];   /* our write file descriptor */
            sleep(1);              /* let child start running */
            /* UserSend("open"); */ /* tell child to open up */
            UserReady(READY);      /* should be ready now */

        }
    }

    /*
    UserOpName()
    *
    The "name" executable operator found a global variable marked "special". This
    must be a special user classifier variable. Re-fetch it from the classifier
    system if necessary. (A dummy stack element is ready for the value.)
    */

    UserOpName(sym)
    
    SymbolThing * sym;        /* a symbol table pointer */

    /* only "messlist" and "rulelist" are legal now */
    switch (sym->special)
    {
    case (MESSLIST):
        if (UserFlagMess)
            UserFetchMess(sym);
            Stack[SP].dummy->this = sym->dummy->this;
            Stack[SP].free = NO;
            Stack[SP].owner = NULL;    /* not assignable */
            break;

    case (RULELIST):
        if (UserFlagRule)
            UserFetchRule(sym);
            Stack[SP].dummy->this = sym->dummy->this;
            Stack[SP].free = NO;
            Stack[SP].owner = NULL;    /* not assignable */
            break;
        default:
            PrintLine();
            fprintf(stderr,
                "internal error: UserOpName symbol special = %d\n",
                sym->special);
            ExecAbort();
            break;
    }

}
/* UserReady() */

Call this subroutine after sending a command to the user classifier system, and the only acceptable response is "ready" (or whatever the final prompt string is chosen to be).

UserReady(string)
char * string;  /* expected response string */
char * cp;  /* a string pointer */

while (YES)
{
  cp = UserReceive();  /* receive a line */
  if (strcmp(cp, string) == 0)
    break;
  UserError(cp);  /* must be an error message */
}
}

UserReceive()

Receive a line from the user classifier system. Return the address of the string (in our static buffer) to the caller. The string does not include the newline character.

char * UserReceive()
{
  char * cp;  /* a string pointer */
  int status;  /* status of called function */

  if (UserReadFD < 0)
    UserOpen(UserFile, UserArg);

  /* read the pipe, one byte at a time, until a newline */
  sleep(1);  /*
  cp = UserBuffer;  /* start here */
  while (YES)
  {
    status = read(UserReadFD, cp, 1);
    if (status != 1)
    {
      perror("UserReceive read failed");
      exit(-1);
    }
    if ((*cp) == '\n')
      break;
    else
      cp ++;
    (*cp) = '\0';  /* terminate string with null */
  }

  if (UserTrace)
    fprintf(stderr, "trace: received " UserBuffer);  /*
  sleep(1);  */

  /* return address of buffered string */
  return(UserBuffer);
}

*/

UserSave()
The pre-defined save() function found a global variable that it does not understand (because the "special" flag is non-zero). We convert this variable into the proper format for a user classifier function call.

UserSave(fp, sym)

FILE *fp;   /* file pointer */
SymbolThing *sym;   /* a symbol table pointer */
{
    char *fun;   /* pointer to function name */

    /* only "messlist" and "rulelist" are legal now */
    switch (sym->special)
    {
        case (MESSLIST):
            fun = "message";
            break;
        case (RULELIST):
            fun = "rule";
            break;
        default:
            PRINTLINE();
            fprintf(stderr, "internal error: UserSave symbol special = %d\n", sym->special);
            ExecAbort();
            break;
    }

    /* both "messlist" and "rulelist" must be sets */
    if (((sym->dummy == NULL)
        || (sym->dummy->this == NULL)
        || (sym->dummy->this->type != ValSET))
    {
        /* must be some mistake. save unchanged */
        fprintf(fp, "%s := ", sym->name);
        PrintValue(fp, sym->dummy, YES);
        fprintf(fp, "; # warning, expecting a set\n");
    } else
    {
        ValueThing *val;   /* pointer to set element */
        /* we have a legal set to work with */
        fprintf(fp, "\n# saving '%s'\n", sym->name);

        val = sym->dummy->this->next;
        while (val != NULL)
        {
            fprintf(fp, "%s", fun);
            PrintValue(fp, val->this, YES);
            fprintf(fp, ";\n");
            val = val->next;
        }

        fprintf(fp, "# end of '%s'\n\n", sym->name);
    }

    /*
    UserSer3();
    */
    Send a string followed by a newline to the user classifier system. We add the newline, not the caller.
UserSend(string)
{
    char * string;      /* some text string */
    int length;         /* length of string */
    int status;         /* status of called function */
    if (UserWriteFD < 0)
        UserOpen(UserFile, UserArg);
    /* sleep(1); */
    if (UserTrace)
        fprintf(stderr, "trace: sending '%s\n", string);
    /* send the string, followed by a newline */
    length = strlen(string);
    status = write(UserWriteFD, string, length);
    if (status != length)
    {
        perror("UserSend write string failed");
        exit(-1);
    }
    status = write(UserWriteFD, \n", 1);
    if (status != 1)
    {
        perror("UserSend write newline failed");
        exit(-1);
    }
    /* sleep(1); */
fayac.y -- YACC Grammar

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This is the YACC grammar. It has been greatly simplified by the following
assumptions:

This program will be used in an interactive environment.

Exactly one function definition or complete executable statement is parsed on
each call to yyparse().

When a syntax error is found, a message is printed, and all input is skipped
until the next semicolon (;). At this point, it should be safe to call the
parser for the next statement.

Statements always end with a semicolon. The semicolon is not used anywhere
else in the grammar. Hence, YACC will safely parse a statement without
fetching a look-ahead token from LEX (which would be lost on the next call).

Anything and everything can be re-defined at any time. There is no required
ordering for the input statements. This means that the semantic actions can
not and should not do type checking. Also, this removes the compile-time
distinction between functions and procedures.

Operators are assigned priorities with the %left and %right declarations.
This avoids having to separate the rules into long unambiguous productions
(as is typical in Pascal language definitions).

Assignments are just the lowest-priority operator. They are implemented by
keeping track of the owner of each data value, so that one extra level of
indirection can always be removed.

The only control statements are "for", "if", "repeat", and "while". Everything
else is done by pre-defined functions.

*/
#include "fainc.h"            /* our standard includes */
SymbolThing * sym;            /* a symbol table pointer */
SymbolThing * ThisFunction;   /* current function symbol */
%

%start program

%token TokAND TokASSIGN TokBREAK TokBY TokDIV TokDO TokELIF TokELSE TokEND
%token TokERROR TokFOR TokFROM TokFUNCTION TokIF TokMOD
%token <string> TokNAME
%token <count> TokNUMBER
%token <number> TokPOWER
%token <count> TokRELOP
%token <string> TokRETURN
program :
    { /* prevents an error on end-of-file */ }
    | function ':':
        { YYACCEPT; }
    | statement ';
        { ParseTree = MakeParse(OpSTMT, NULL, $1, NULL, NULL); YYACCEPT; }
    | error err_program ':;'
        { YYABORT; }
    ;

function : TokFUNCTION func_name func_head func_body TokEND
    { ThisFunction->count = $3;
        ThisFunction->parse = $4;
        LocalHead = LocalTail = NULL;
    }
    | TokFUNCTION error err_function ':;'
        { YYABORT; }
    ;

func_name : TokNAME
    { LocalHead = LocalTail = MakeSymbol(SymLOCAL);
        LocalHead->name = CopyString($1);
        ThisFunction = GlobalLook($1);
        if (ThisFunction == NULL)
            ThisFunction = GlobalAdd($1, SymFUNCTION);
        else
            /* free old definition (if any) */
            FreeValue(ThisFunction->dummy);
FreeSymbol(ThisFunction->local);
FreeString(ThisFunction->name);
FreeParse(ThisFunction->parse);

ThisFunction->count = 0;
ThisFunction->dummy = NULL;
ThisFunction->free = YES;
ThisFunction->local = LocalHead;
ThisFunction->name = "$1$;
ThisFunction->offset = 0;
ThisFunction->parse = NULL;
ThisFunction->special = 0;
ThisFunction->type = SymFUNCTION;

func_head :
  { $$ = 0; }
  |
  | '(
  |  { $$ = 0; }
  | )
  | (' func_pars ')
  | ( $$ = $2; )
  | (' error err_func_paren ')
  | ( YYABORT; )

func_pars : TokNAME
  { /* first parameter passed by value */
    $$ = 1;
    sym = LocalAdd($1);
    sym->free = YES;
    sym->offset = $$;
  }
  |
  | '*' TokNAME
  { /* first parameter passed by address */
    $$ = 1;
    sym = LocalAdd($2);
    sym->free = NO;
    sym->offset = $$;
  }
  |
  | '*' error err_func_star '
  | ( YYABORT; )
  | func_pars ,',' TokNAME
  { /* following parameter passed by value */
    $$ = $1 + 1;
    sym = LocalAdd($3);
    sym->free = YES;
    sym->offset = $$;
  }
  |
  | func_pars ,',' '*' TokNAME
  { /* following parameter passed by address */
    $$ = $1 + 1;
    sym = LocalAdd($4);
    sym->free = NO;
    sym->offset = $$;
  }
  |
  | func_pars ,',' '*' error err_func_star '
  | ( YYABORT; )
  | func_pars ,',' error err_func_comma '
  | ( YYABORT, )

func_body :
  { $$ = NULL; }
  | TokASSIGN stmt_list
  | ( $$ = $2; )
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211    | TokDO stmt_list
212            { $$ = $2; }
213
214
215 stmt_list  : statement
216            {
217                if ($1 == NULL)
218                    $$ = NULL;
219                else
220                    $$ = MakeParse(OpSTMT, NULL, $1, NULL, NULL);
221            }
222
223 stmt_list ':' statement
224            {
225                if ($1 == NULL)
226                    $$ = $3;
227                else if ($3 == NULL)
228                    $$ = $1;
229                else
230                    $$ = MakeParse(OpSTMT, $1, $3, NULL, NULL);
231            }
232
233 statement  :
234            { $$ = NULL; }
235
236 | expr
237            { $$ = $1; }
238
239 | for_stmt
240            { $$ = $1; }
241
242 | if_stmt
243            { $$ = $1; }
244
245 | repeat_stmt:
246            { $$ = $1; }
247
248 | return_stmt:
249            { $$ = $1; }
250
251 | while_stmt:
252            { $$ = $1; }
253
254 expr      : expr_term
255            { $$ = $1; }
256
257 | TokNOT expr
258            { $$ = MakeParse(OpNOT, $2, NULL, NULL, NULL); }
259
260 | TokNOT error err_expr_not :
261            { YYABORT; }
262
263 | '+' expr
264            { $$ = $2; }
265
266 | '+' error err_expr_plus :
267            { YYABORT; }
268
269 | '-' expr
270            { $$ = MakeParse(OpNEGATE, $2, NULL, NULL, NULL); }
271
272 | '-' error err_expr_minus :
273            { YYABORT; }
274
275 | '*' expr
276            { $$ = MakeParse(OpSTAR, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
277
278 | '*' error err_expr_star :
279            { YYABORT; }
280
281 | '+' expr
282            { $$ = MakeParse(OpPLUS, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
283
284 | '+' error err_expr_plus :
285            { YYABORT; }
286
287 | '-' expr
288            { $$ = MakeParse(OpMINUS, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
289
290 | '-' error err_expr_minus :
291            { YYABORT; }
292
293 | '/' expr
294            { $$ = MakeParse(OpSLASH, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
295
296 | '/' error err_expr_slash :
297            { YYABORT; }
298
299 | error err_exprleck :
300            { YYABORT; }
301
302 | error err_exprleck_plus :
303            { YYABORT; }
304
305 | error err_exprleck_minus :
306            { YYABORT; }
307
308 | error err_exprleck_slash :
309            { YYABORT; }
expr TokAND expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpAND, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
expr TokAND error error_expr_and ':'
  { YYABORT; }
expr TokASSIGN expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpASSIGN, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
expr TokASSIGN error error_expr_assig ':'
  { YYABORT; }
expr TokDIV expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpDIV, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
expr TokDIV error error_expr_div ':'
  { YYABORT; }
expr TokMOD expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpMOD, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
expr TokMOD error error_expr_mod ':'
  { YYABORT; }
expr TokOR expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpOR, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
expr TokOR error error_expr_or ':'
  { YYABORT; }
expr TokPOWER expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpPOWER, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
expr TokPOWER error error_expr_power ':'
  { YYABORT; }
expr TokRELOP expr
  { $$ = MakeParse($2, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
expr TokRELOP error error_expr_relop ':'
  { YYABORT; }
'(' expr ')
  { $$ = $2; }
'(' error error_expr_paren ':'
  { YYABORT; }
'(' expr_set ')
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpSET, $2, NULL, NULL, NULL); }
'(' error error_expr_set ':'
  { YYABORT; }
expr_index ')
  { $$ = $1; }
expr_index error error_expr_index ':'
  { YYABORT; }

expr_set :
  { $$ = NULL; }
expr slist
  { $$ = $1; }

expr slist : expr
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpCONCAT, $1, NULL, NULL, NULL); }
expr :
  { /* "(expr) must be the same as "(expr,NULL)" */
    $$ = MakeParse(OpCONCAT, $1,
      MakeParse(OpNULL, NULL, NULL, NULL),
      NULL, NULL, NULL); }
  }
expr . expr slist
  { $$ = MakeParse(OpCONCAT, $1, $3, NULL, NULL); }
'\', ' expr slist
  { /* ".expr slist" must be "(NULL,expr slist)" */
    $$ = MakeParse(OpCONCAT,
      MakeParse(OpNULL, NULL, NULL, NULL),
      $2, NULL, NULL); }
'\', '


expr_index : expr
  | expr_index expr
  | expr_index expr expr
  | expr_index expr expr expr
  |ヤYABORT;

expr_term : TokNAME
  | sym = LocalLook($1);
  | if (sym == NULL)
  |  sym = GlobalLook($1);
  | if (sym == NULL)
  |  sym = GlobalAdd($1, SymGLOBAL);
  | $2 = MakeParse(OpNAME, NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL);
  | $2->symbol = sym;
  | TokNAME ("expr_pars")
  | sym = GlobalLook($1);
  | if (sym == NULL)
  |  sym = GlobalAdd($1, SymGLOBAL);
  | $2 = MakeParse(OpFUNCTION, $3, NULL, NULL, NULL);
  | if ($3 != NULL)
  |  $2->count = $3->count;
  | $2->symbol = sym;

expr_pars : expr
  | expr_plist

expr_plist : expr
  | $2 = MakeParse(OpPAR, NULL, $1, NULL, NULL);
  | $2->count = 1;
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421
| ',', expr
422
|   { /* "", expr " is "NULL,expr " */
423 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpNULL, NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL);
424 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpPAR, NULL, $$, NULL, NULL);
425 |     $$->count = 1;
426 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpPAR, $$, $2, NULL, NULL);
427 |     $$->count = 2;
428 |
429 | expr_plist ',', expr
430 |   { $$ = MakeParse(OpPAR, $1, $3, NULL, NULL);
431 |     $$->count = $1->count + 1;
432 |
433 | expr_plist ','
434 |   { /* "expr_plist," is "expr_plist,NULL" */
435 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpPAR, $1,
436 |     MakeParse(OpNULL, NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL),
437 |     NULL, NULL);
438 |     $$->count = $1->count + 1;
439 |
440 |   |
441 |   { /* "", is "NULL,NULL" */
442 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpNULL, NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL);
443 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpPAR, OpPAR, $$, NULL, NULL);
444 |     $$->count = 1;
445 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpPAR, $$,
446 |     MakeParse(OpNULL, NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL),
447 |     NULL, NULL);
448 |     $$->count = 2;
449 |
450 |
451 : for_stmt : TokFOR TokNAME for_from for_to for_by for_do TokEND
452 |   { sym = LocalLook($2);
453 |     if (sym == NULL)
454 |       sym = GlobalLook($2);
455 |     if (sym == NULL)
456 |       sym = GlobalAdd($2, SymGLOBAL);
457 |     $$ = MakeParse(OpFOR, $3, $4, $5, $6);
458 |     $$->symbol = sym;
459 |
460 |   |
461 |   { TokFOR error err_for ';'
462 |
463 |  ;
464 |
465 | for_from :
466 |   { $$ = NULL; }
467 |   | TokASSIGN expr
468 |   |   { $$ = $2; }
469 |   | TokASSIGN error err_for_from ';
470 |   |   { YYABORT; }
471 |   | TokFROM expr
472 |   |   { $$ = $2; }
473 |   | TokFROM error err_for_from ';
474 |   |   { YYABORT; }
475 |   |
476 |
477 : for_to :
478 |   { $$ = NULL; }
479 |   | TokTO expr
480 |   |   { $$ = $2; }
481 |   | TokTO error err_for_to ';
482 |   |   { YYABORT; }
483 |   |
484 ;
for_by:
  ( $$ = NULL; )
  | TokBY expr
  ( $$ = $2; )
  | TokBY error err_for_by ':
  ( YYABORT; )
;
;
for_do:
  ( $$ = NULL; )
  | TokDO stmt_list
  ( $$ = $2; )
;
;
if_stmt:
  TokIF expr if_then if_else TokEND
  ( $$ = MakeParse(OpIF, $2, $3, $4, NULL); )
  | TokIF error err_if ':
  ( YYABORT; )
;
;
if_then:
  ( $$ = NULL; )
  | TokTHEN stmt_list
  ( $$ = $2; )
;
;
if_else:
  ( $$ = NULL; )
  | TokELSE stmt_list
  ( $$ = $2; )
  | TokELIF expr if_then if_else
  ( $$ = MakeParse(OpIF, $2, $3, $4, NULL); )
  | TokELIF error err_if_elif ':
  ( YYABORT; )
;
;
repeat_stmt:
  TokREPEAT stmt_list TokUNTIL expr
  ( $$ = MakeParse(OpREPEAT, $2, $4, NULL, NULL); )
  | TokREPEAT stmt_list TokUNTIL error err_rep_until ':
  ( YYABORT; )
  | TokREPEAT error err_repeat ':
  ( YYABORT; )
;
;
return_stmt:
  TokRETURN
  ( $$ = MakeParse(OpRETURN, NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL); )
;
;
while_stmt:
  TokWHILE expr while_do TokEND
  ( $$ = MakeParse(OpWHILE, $2, $3, NULL, NULL); )
  | TokWHILE error err_while ':
  ( YYABORT; )
;
;
while_do:
  ( $$ = NULL; )
  | TokDO stmt_list
  ( $$ = $2; )
;
;
err_expr_and:
  ( skippy("error after 'and' or '&\' in expression"); )
;
;
err_expr_assign : { skippy("error after ":=" in expression"); }
err_expr_div : { skippy("error after 'div' in expression"); }
err_expr_index : { skippy("error after ']' or ',' in subscripted expression"); }
err_expr_minus : { skippy("error after '-' in expression"); }
err_expr_mod : { skippy("error after 'mod' or '%' in expression"); }
err_expr_not : { skippy("error after 'not' or '~' in expression"); }
err_expr_or : { skippy("error after 'or' or ']' in expression"); }
err_expr_paren : { skippy("error after '(' in expression"); }
err_expr_plus : { skippy("error after '+' in expression"); }
err_expr_power : { skippy("error after '**' or '^' in expression"); }
err_expr_relop : { skippy("error after relational operator in expression"); }
err_expr_set : { skippy("error after '{' in set expression"); }
err_expr_slash : { skippy("error after '/' in expression"); }
err_expr_star : { skippy("error after '*' in expression"); }
err_for : { skippy("error after 'for' in for statement"); }
err_for_by : { skippy("error after 'by' in for statement"); }
err_for_from : { skippy("error after 'from' in for statement"); }
err_for_to : { skippy("error after 'to' in for statement"); }
err_function:
  { skippy("error after 'function' in function definition"); }

err_func_comma:
  { skippy("error after ',' in function parameters"); }

err_func_paren:
  { skippy("error after '(' in function parameters"); }

err_func_star:
  { skippy("error after '*' in function parameters"); }

err_if:
  { skippy("error after 'if' in if statement"); }

err_if_elif:
  { skippy("error after 'elif' in if statement"); }

err_program:
  { skippy("input must be an executable statement or function definition"); }

err_repeat:
  { skippy("error after 'repeat' in repeat statement"); }

err_rep_until:
  { skippy("error after 'until' in repeat statement"); }

err_while:
  { skippy("error after 'while' in while statement"); }

%

/*
skippy()
*/

Because of a syntax error, we will now start skipping until we find a semicolon in the input. The caller gives us an error message to print first.

/*
  skippy(cp)      /* character string pointer */
  {
    yyerror(cp);  /* skipping to next semicolon ';' */
  }

  yyerror()      /*
  yyerror(string)    /* some error message */
  { char * string; /*
  */
  */
701       PrintLine();
702       fprintf(stderr, "%s\n", string);
703   )
/*

kpr.c -- Keith's Print Program

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December 1987

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Print a file listing in a format acceptable to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
and Research. This is similar to the standard UNIX "pr" utility, but has fewer
options:

- n    number the lines. Default is no line numbers.
- p<number>
        first page number. Default is 1.
- s    skip to a new sheet of paper for each file. Default is to skip
        only to the next side.

All other arguments must be file names. The output from this program should be
fed directly into "mpr" without running "xp" first. The following MTS carriage
control characters are used (first column):

:    skip to physical top of next page
9    single spacing, ignore MTS lines per page count

*/

#include <stdio.h>    /* standard I/O */
#include <sys/types.h> /* for last modify time */
#include <sys/stat.h>  /* for last modify time */
#include <time.h>      /* time buffers */

#define PAGEGAP 0      /* lines before page number */
#define PAGELIST 93    /* spaces before page number */
#define TITLEGAP 1      /* lines after page before title */
#define LISTTITLE 32   /* spaces before title */
#define TEXTGAP 2      /* lines after title before text */
#define LISTTEXT 70    /* spaces before text */
#define TEXTLINES 70   /* text lines per page */

/* global variables */

int NumberFlag = 0;    /* non-zero if line numbers */
int PageNumber = 1;    /* first page number */
int SkipFlag = 0;      /* non-zero if skip sheet */

/* main program */

main(argc, argv)
    int argc;
    char * argv[];
    /* number of arguments */
    /* argument strings */
{
    int i;
    /* index variable */

    /* set page printer font and format */
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71    printf("**** OVERLAY=NONE\n");
72    printf("**** FORMAT=FMTGH1 FONTNEXTIMAGE=MEDIUM SKIPDO=REXTSHEET\n");
73    
74    /* process command line arguments */
75    
76    for (i = 1; i < argc; i++)
77        {
78        if (argv[i][0] == '-')
79        {
80            switch (argv[i][1])
81            {
82            case ('n'):
83                NumberFlag = 1;
84                break;
85            case ('P'):
86                PageNumber = atoi(&argv[i][2]);
87                break;
88            case ('S'):
89                SkipFlag = 1;
90                break;
91            default:
92                fprintf(stderr, "kpr: unknown flag: \%s\n",
93                           argv[i]);
94                exit(-1);
95                break;
96            }
97        } else
98        {  
99            ListFile(argv[i]);
100         }
101     }
102 
103 /*
104 ListFile()
105 
106 Given a file name, list the contents of the file.
107 */
108 
109 ListFile(name)
110 
111 { char * name;  /* file name */
112     int c;
113     int column;  /* current output column (tabs) */
114     FILE * fp;  /* file pointer */
115     int i, j;  /* index variables */
116     int line;  /* file line number */
117     struct stat modify;  /* last modify buffer */
118     int page;  /* local page number */
119     int status;  /* status of called function */
120     char time_day[9];  /* time string buffers */
121     char time_month[9];
122     char time_year[9];
123     char time[99];  /* last modify time string */
124 
125     /* open file */
126     fp = fopen(name, "r");
127     if (fp == NULL)
128        {
129         fprintf(stderr, "kpr: can't open \%s for reading\n", name);
130         return;
131     }
/* get last modify time and reformat it */

status = stat(name, &modify);
if (status != 0)
{
    fprintf(stderr, "kpr: can't get file status for '%s', name
    fclose(fp);
    return;
}

sscanf(asctime(localtime(&modify.st_mtime)), "%s %s %s %s %s %s
    time_week, time_month, time_day, time_time, time_year);

sprintf(time, "%s %s %s %s", time_week, time_month, time_day, time_year);

/* skip to a new sheet of paper */

if (SkipFlag)
    printf("%*s SKIPTOSEARCHET\n");

/* do the pages of text */

line = page = 1; /* local line and page numbers */

while (!feof(fp))
{
    /* start a new page */

    printf("\n");

    /* do the page number */

    SkipLines(PAGEGAP);
    printf("\n");
    SkipSpaces(PAGELEFT);
    printf("%d\n", PageNumber);

    /* do the title */

    SkipLines(TITLEGAP);
    printf("\n");
    SkipSpaces(TITLELEFT);
    printf("%s %s page %d\n", time, name, page);

    /* do enough text lines to fill this page */

    SkipLines(TEXTGAP);

    for (i = 0; i < TEXTLINES; i++)
    {
        if (feof(fp)) /* end-of-file? */
            break;

        column = 0; /* starting column */

        do
        {
            c = fgetc(fp);

            if ((c == EOF) || (c == '\n'))
            {
                if (column > 0)
                    putchar('\n');

                break;
            }

            if (column == 0)
            {
                printf("%s", SkipSpaces(TEXTLEFT));
            }
        }
if (NumberFlag)
    printf("%3d ", line);
else
    SkipSpaces(8);

if (c == 0x07)    /* bell */
    {putchar(0x0f); /* translate */
     column ++;
    }
else if (c == '\t')    /* tab */
    {
        j = 8 - (column % 8);
        SkipSpaces(j);
        column += j;
    }
else if (c == '^~')    /* circflex */
    {putchar(0x0b); /* translate */
     column ++;
    }
else if (c == 'L')    /* grave */
    {putchar(0x0d);
     /* translate */
     column ++;
    }
else if (c == 0x7f)    /* delete */
    {putchar(0x0f);
     /* translate */
     column ++;
    }
else
    {putchar(c);
     column ++;
    }

    while (c != '\n'):
        if ((c == EOF) || (c == '\f'))
            break;
        line ++;
    }
/* increment page number */
page ++;        /* local page number */
PageNumber ++;        /* global page number */
}
/* close file */
fclose(fp);

Skiplines()
The caller tells us how many blank lines to put in the output.
*/
Skiplines(count)
        {int count;         /* number of blank lines */
         int k;           /* index variable */
         for (k = 0 ; k < count ; k ++)
281     printf("\n");
282 }
283
284
285 /*
286 SkipSpaces()
287 288 The caller tells us how many blank spaces to put in the output.
289 */
290
291 SkipSpaces(count)
292 293     int count;                /* number of blank spaces */
294 295     int k;                    /* index variable */
296 297     for (k = 0 ; k < count ; k++)
298         printf(" ");
299 300 }
/*
  telex.c -- Test Lexical Routines

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This is a quick-and-dirty program to test the lexical routines. As you type
tokens, this program will tell you the token number, and possibly the value
(if it recognizes the token).
*/

#include <ctype.h>       /* character types */
#include "fainc.h"        /* our standard includes */
#include "y.tab.h"        /* YACC token definitions */

YYSTYPE yylval;         /* where LEX returns information */

main()
{
  int token;            /* token returned by LEX */

  do {
    token = yylex();    /* get a token */
    if (token == TokAND)
      printf("token AND\n");
    else if (token == TokASSIGN)
      printf("token ASSIGN\n");
    else if (token == TokBREAK)
      printf("token BREAK\n");
    else if (token == TokBY)
      printf("token BY\n");
    else if (token == TokDIV)
      printf("token DIV\n");
    else if (token == TokDO)
      printf("token DO\n");
    else if (token == TokELSE)
      printf("token ELSE\n");
    else if (token == TokEND)
      printf("token END\n");
    else if (token == TokERROR)
      printf("token ERROR\n");
    else if (token == TokFOR)
      printf("token FOR\n");
    else if (token == TokFROM)
      printf("token FROM\n");
    else if (token == TokFUNCTION)
      printf("token FUNCTION\n");
    else if (token == TokIF)
      printf("token IF\n");
    else if (token == TokMOD)
      printf("token MOD\n");
    else if (token == TokNAME)
      printf("token NAME = '%s' at %x\n", yylval.string,
             yylval.string);
    else if (token == TokNOT)
      printf("token NOT\n");
  }
else if (token == TokNULL)
    printf("token NULL\n");
else if (token == TokNUMBER)
    {
        printf("token NUMBER = ");
        printf(FORMAT, yylval.number);
        printf("\n");
    }
else if (token == TokOR)
    printf("token OR\n");
else if (token == TokPOWER)
    printf("token POWER\n");
else if (token == TokRELOP)
    {
        int op;
        op = yylval.count;
        printf("token RELOP = ");
        if (op == OpEQ)
            printf("OpEQ\n");
        else if (op == OpGE)
            printf("OpGE\n");
        else if (op == OpGT)
            printf("OpGT\n");
        else if (op == OpLE)
            printf("OpLE\n");
        else if (op == OpLT)
            printf("OpLT\n");
        else if (op == OpNE)
            printf("OpNE\n");
        else if (op == OpNPE)
            printf("OpNPE\n");
        else
            printf("unknown %d\n", op);
    }
else if (token == TokREPEAT)
    printf("token REPEAT\n");
else if (token == TokRETURN)
    printf("token RETURN\n");
else if (token == TokSTRING)
    printf("token STRING = '%s' at %x\n", yylval.string,
            yylval.string);
else if (token == TokT0)
    printf("token T0\n");
else if (token == TokTHEN)
    printf("token THEN\n");
else if (token == TokUNTIL)
    printf("token UNTIL\n");
else if (token == TokWHILE)
    printf("token WHILE\n");
else if (isascii(token) & isprint(token))
    printf("token character '%c'\n", token);
else
    printf("token decimal %d\n", token);
}
}

while (token > 0):
    printf("\nend-of-file received from LEX\n");
}
tepar.c -- Test Parse Routines

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This is a quick-and-dirty routine to dump the parse tree built up by the YACC
grammar. It replaces the "main()" routine normally found in "face.c".

#include "fainc.h"  /* our standard includes */

/*
main()
Fake main program to keep calling YACC until an end-of-file.
*/

main()
{
    int flag;  /* status flag */
    do
    {
        ParseTree = NULL;
        printf("\nCalling yyparse()\n");
        flag = yyparse();
        printf("\nyyparse() returns %d\n", flag);
        if (ParseTree == NULL)
            printf("ParseTree is NULL\n");
        else
            DumpParse(ParseTree, 0);
    }
    while (!feof(stdin));

    printf("\nend-of-file on standard input\n");
}

/*
DumpParse()
Dump a parse tree in a crude indented format.
*/

DumpParse(parse, level)
ParseThing *parse;  /* pointer to a parse tree */
int level;  /* indenting level */
{
    int i;  /* index variable */

    for (i = 0 ; i < level ; i++)
        printf(" ");
    printf("at \%x ", parse);
    if (parse->type == OpAND)
else if (parse->type == OpASSIGN)
    printf("ASSIGN");
else if (parse->type == OpCONCAT)
    printf("CONCAT");
else if (parse->type == OpDIV)
    printf("DIV");
else if (parse->type == OpEQ)
    printf("EQ");
else if (parse->type == OpEOP)
    printf("EOP");
else if (parse->type == OpFOR)
    printf("FOR");
else if (parse->type == OpFUNCTION)
    printf("FUNCTION");
else if (parse->type == OpGE)
    printf("GE");
else if (parse->type == OpGT)
    printf("GT");
else if (parse->type == OpIF)
    printf("IF");
else if (parse->type == OpINDEX)
    printf("INDEX");
else if (parse->type == OpLE)
    printf("LE");
else if (parse->type == OpLT)
    printf("LT");
else if (parse->type == OpMINUS)
    printf("MINUS");
else if (parse->type == OpMOD)
    printf("MOD");
else if (parse->type == OpNAME)
    printf("NAME");
else if (parse->type == OpNE)
    printf("NE");
else if (parse->type == OpNEGATE)
    printf("NEGATE");
else if (parse->type == OpNEP)
    printf("NEP");
else if (parse->type == OpNOT)
    printf("NOT");
else if (parse->type == OpNULL)
    printf("NULL");
else if (parse->type == OpNUMBER)
    printf("NUMBER");
else if (parse->type == OpOR)
    printf("OR");
else if (parse->type == OpPAR)
    printf("PAR");
else if (parse->type == OpPLUS)
    printf("PLUS");
else if (parse->type == OpPOWER)
    printf("POWER");
else if (parse->type == OpREPEAT)
    printf("REPEAT");
else if (parse->type == OpRETURN)
    printf("RETURN");
else if (parse->type == OpSET)
    printf("SET");
else if (parse->type == OpSLASH)
    printf("SLASH");
else if (parse->type == OpSTAR)
    printf("STAR");
else if (parse->type == OpSTMT)
    printf("STMT");
else if (parse->type == OpSTRING)
    printf("STRING");
else if (parse->type == OpWHILE)
    printf("WHILE");
else
printf("decimal \%d", parse->type);

if (parse->one != NULL)
  printf(" one = \%x", parse->one);
if (parse->two != NULL)
  printf(" two = \%x", parse->two);
if (parse->three != NULL)
  printf(" three = \%x", parse->three);
if (parse->four != NULL)
  printf(" four = \%x", parse->four);
if (parse->count != 0)
  printf(" count = \%d", parse->count);
if (parse->number != ZERO)
{
  printf(" number = ");
  printf(FORMAT, parse->number);
}
if (parse->string != NULL)
  printf(" string = \"%s\", ", parse->string);
if (parse->symbol != NULL)
  printf(" symbol = \"%s\", parse->symbol, parse->symbol->name);

if (parse->one != NULL)
  DumpParse(parse->one, (level+1));
if (parse->two != NULL)
  DumpParse(parse->two, (level+1));
if (parse->three != NULL)
  DumpParse(parse->three, (level+1));
if (parse->four != NULL)
  DumpParse(parse->four, (level+1));
/*
terob.c -- Test Robert Program

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December 1987

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This is a dummy program which is connected to the user classifier end of a
pipe to dump exactly what the "face" program is sending to the classifier
system. This program reads a line from standard input, traces it onto the
terminal, repeatedly asks you for what to send back (until you type the magic
word "ready"), and then waits to read more input from standard input.
(The name "terob" comes from "test Robert", where "Robert" is Robert Andrew
Chai, who is writing the real user classifier machine.)
*

#include "fsinc.h"    /* our standard includes */
#define READY "ready"  /* user classifier prompt for input */

main(argc, argv)
  int argc;             /* number of arguments */
  char * argv[];        /* argument strings */
{
  char buffer[MAXSTRING+1]; /* input/output buffer */
  int i;                 /* index variable */
  FILE * ttin;           /* input from terminal */
  FILE * ttout;          /* output to terminal */

  ttin = fopen("/dev/tty", "r");
  if (ttin == NULL)
    {
      fprintf(stderr, "can't open /dev/tty for input\n");
      exit(-1);
    }

  ttout = fopen("/dev/tty", "w");
  if (ttout == NULL)
    {
      fprintf(stderr, "can't open /dev/tty for output\n");
      exit(-1);
    }

  /* introduce ourself and echo command line arguments */
  fprintf(ttout, "\terob: running\n");
  for (i = 0; i < argc; i++)
    {
      fprintf(ttout, "terob: argument \%d is '\%s', i, argv[i]);
    }
  fflush(ttout);

  /* main loop */
  while (!feof(stdin)) && (!feof(ttin))
    {
      fprintf(ttout, "terob: sending '\%s', READY);"},
      fflush(ttout);
}
71 fprintf(stdout, "%s\n", READY);
72 fflush(stdout);
73
74 gets(buffer); /* drops newline */
75 if (feof(stdin))
76   break;
77
78 fprintf(ttout, "terob: received '%s'\n", buffer);
79 fflush(ttout);
80
81 if (strcmp(buffer, "close") == 0)
82   break;
83
84 while (YES)
85 {
86   fprintf(ttout, "terob: send what reply? ");
87   fflush(ttout);
88
89   scanf(ttin, " %[^\n]s", buffer);
90   if (feof(ttin))
91     break;
92
93   if (strcmp(buffer, READY) == 0)
94     break;
95
96   fprintf(ttout, "terob: sending '%s'\n", buffer);
97   fflush(ttout);
98   fprintf(stdout, "\n%s\n", buffer);
99   fflush(stdout);
100 }
101
102 if (feof(ttin))
103   break;
104
105 fprintf(ttout, "\n\ninter: exiting\n");
106 fflush(ttout);
107
108 fclose(ttin);
109 fclose(ttout);
110 }
function pretty(value, picture, found, i) {
    if type(value, "set")
        if sign(value) < 0
            write("-");
        end;
        write("*" famer: 1 to size(value)
            do
                if i > 1
                    then write(" ");
                end;
                pretty(value[i], picture[i]);
            end;
    else
        pretty(value, picture, found, i + 1)
    end;
}
found := 0;
for i from 1 to size(picture) by 2
do
  if value = picture[i]
    then
      if found > 0
        then write(" and ");
      end;
      write(picture[i+1]);
      found := found + 1;
    end;
end;

# try pattern matching if nothing identical was found
if found = 0
  then
    for i from 1 to size(picture) by 2
do
      if value eq picture[i]
        then
          if found = 0
            then write("(");
          else write(" or ");
          end;
          write(picture[i+1]);
          found := found + 1;
        end;
    end;
  end;
end;
# user.f
#
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# T6G 2H1
#
# December 1987
#
# These functions provide most of the support for Robert Chai's
# classifier system. Since they are user-defined, they are easy to
# change.
#
# close(), flagmess(), flagrule(), open(), receive(), and send() are
# written in "C" in the "faus.c" module.
#
# clear ()

function clear
do
  flagmess();  # messlist is invalid
  flagrule();  # rulelist is invalid
  send("clear");
  receive("ready");
end;

# crossover ()

function crossover
do
  flagrule();  # rulelist is invalid
  send("crossover");
  receive("ready");
end;

# generate ()

function generate
do
  flagmess();  # messlist is invalid
  flagrule();  # rulelist is invalid
  send("generate");
  receive("ready");
end;

# invert ()

function invert
do
  flagrule();  # rulelist is invalid
  send("invert");
  receive("ready");
end;

# message ( string )

function message ( string, buffer )  # string parameter
do
  flagmess();  # messlist is invalid

buffer := "message " + pack(string);
send(buffer);
receive("ready");
end;

# mutate ()

function mutate
do
flagrule();  # rulelist is invalid
send("mutate");
receive("ready");
end;

# payoff ( number )

function payoff ( number ,  # number parameter
buffer )  # local string buffer
do
flagrule();  # rulelist is invalid
buffer := "payoff " + pack(number);
send(buffer);
receive("ready");
end;

# rule ( set )

function rule ( set ,  # set parameter
buffer ,  # local string buffer
conditions ,  # local set of conditions
i )  # local index variable
do
flagrule();  # rulelist is invalid
if type(set) ne "set"
then
    write("rule failed; bad set parameter: ");
    set;
    stop();
end;

# do condition strings

buffer := "rule ";

conditions := set[1];
if type(conditions, "set")
then
    for i from 1 to size(conditions)
do
        if i > 1
            then Buffer := buffer + " , ";
        end;
        buffer := buffer + pack(conditions[i]);
    end:
else
    buffer := buffer + pack(conditions);
end;

# do action part

buffer := buffer + " / " + pack(set[2]);

# do any remaining elements
for i from 3 to size(set)
  do
    buffer := buffer + " " + pack(set[i]);
  end;

# send to classifier system
send(buffer);
receive("ready");
end;

# switch (number)
function switch (number, # number parameter
  buffer ) # local string buffer
  do
    flagmess(); # messlist is invalid
    flagrule(); # rulelist is invalid
    if type(number, "null")
      then switchnumber := 1;
    else
      if type(number, "number")
        then switchnumber := number;
      else
        write("switch failed: bad number parameter: ");
        number;
        stop();
      end;
    end;
  end;

buffer := "switch " + pack(switchnumber);
send(buffer);
receive("ready");
end;

switchnumber := 1; # initial value
primes := \{\};
for i from 1 to 100
  do
    j := true;
    k := 2;
    while (j and (k <= size(primes)))
      do
        if i mod primes[k] eq 0
        then j := false;
        end;
        k := k + 1;
      end;
    if (j)
      then
        write(i, " is a prime number\n");
        primes := primes + \{i\};
      end;
  end;
primes;
Script started on Tue Dec 22 19:02:41 1987

cavell fenske % face prime.f
ace da class: an interactive classifier programming language

loading file 'prime.f'

1 is a prime number
2 is a prime number
3 is a prime number
5 is a prime number
7 is a prime number
11 is a prime number
13 is a prime number
17 is a prime number
19 is a prime number
23 is a prime number
29 is a prime number
31 is a prime number
37 is a prime number
41 is a prime number
43 is a prime number
47 is a prime number
53 is a prime number
59 is a prime number
61 is a prime number
67 is a prime number
71 is a prime number
73 is a prime number
79 is a prime number
83 is a prime number
89 is a prime number
97 is a prime number

{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61,
  67, 71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97}

end-of-file on file 'prime.f'

ready for input

exit();

exit() called; returning to UNIX

cavell fenske % exit

script done on Tue Dec 22 19:03:06 1987
call graph profile:
The sum of self and descendents is the major sort for this listing.

function entries:

index  the index of the function in the call graph listing, as an aid to locating it (see below).

%time  the percentage of the total time of the program accounted for by this function and its descendents.

self  the number of seconds spent in this function itself.

descendents  the number of seconds spent in the descendents of this function on behalf of this function.

called  the number of times this function is called (other than recursive calls).

self  the number of times this function calls itself recursively.

name  the name of the function, with an indication of its membership in a cycle, if any.

index  the index of the function in the call graph listing, as an aid to locating it.

parent listings:

self*  the number of seconds of this function's self time which is due to calls from this parent.

descendents*  the number of seconds of this function's descendent time which is due to calls from this parent.

called**  the number of times this function is called by this parent. This is the numerator of the fraction which divides up the function's time to its parents.

total*  the number of times this function was called by all of its parents. This is the denominator of the propagation fraction.

parents  the name of this parent, with an indication of the parent's membership in a cycle, if any.

index  the index of this parent in the call graph listing, as an aid in locating it.

children listings:

self*  the number of seconds of this child's self time which is due to being called by this function.

descendent*
the number of seconds of this child's descendents's time which is due to being called by this function.

**called**  the number of times this child is called by this function. This is the numerator of the propagation fraction for this child.

**total**  the number of times this child is called by all functions. This is the denominator of the propagation fraction.

**children**  the name of this child, and an indication of its membership in a cycle, if any.

**index**  the index of this child in the call graph listing, as an aid to locating it.

* these fields are omitted for parents (or children) in the same cycle as the function. If the function (or child) is a member of a cycle, the propagated times and propagation denominator represent the self time and descendents time of the cycle as a whole.

** static-only parents and children are indicated by a call count of 0.

**cycle listings:**
The cycle as a whole is listed with the same fields as a function entry. Below it are listed the members of the cycle, and their contributions to the time and call counts of the cycle.
granularity: each sample hit covers 4 byte(s) for 0.22% of 4.56 seconds

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<th>%time</th>
<th>self descendents</th>
<th>called/total called+self called/total</th>
<th>parents name</th>
<th>parents index</th>
<th>children index</th>
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<td>_fprintf [9]</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
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<td>_strcmp [37]</td>
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</table>
Fri 27 Nov 1987 prime.p

[22] 1.0 0.00 0.05 26/108
     0.00 0.05

[23] 0.9 0.03 0.01 15/15
     0.03 0.01

[24] 0.7 0.01 0.02 1/1
     0.00 0.01
     0.01 0.01
     0.00 0.00

[25] 0.7 0.03 0.00

[26] 0.7 0.03 0.00

[27] 0.7 0.03 0.00 50/50
     0.00 0.00
     0.00 0.00

[28] 0.7 0.01 0.02 1/1
     0.00 0.00
     0.00 0.00

[29] 0.7 0.03 0.00

[30] 0.4 0.02 0.00 1/1
     0.00 0.00
     0.00 0.00

[31] 0.4 0.02 0.00

[32] 0.4 0.02 0.00 5/5
     0.00 0.00

[33] 0.4 0.01 0.01 2/5
     0.01 0.01
     0.01 0.01

<spontaneous>

-_PrintToString [22]
-_fprintf [8]

-_malloc [7]
-_morecore [23]
-_sbrk [38]

-_ExecFile [24]
-_fclose [36]
-_fprintf [23]
-_setjmp [85]
-_fopen [91]

-_ClearStack [25]

-_CompareValue [26]

-_CopyString [27]
-_strcpy [82]

-_PreDefine [28]
-_srandom [30]
-_getpid [93]

-_yyparse [29]

-_PreDefine [28]
-_srandom [30]
-_random [81]

-_MakeDynamic [31]

-_yylex [32]
-_atoi [84]

-_main [34]
-_ExecFile [24]
-_printf [33]
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<th>CPU</th>
<th>CPU</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Function</th>
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<td>_free [12]</td>
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<td>_random [81]</td>
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</table>
flat profile:

% time the percentage of the total running time of the program used by this function.

cumulative seconds a running sum of the number of seconds accounted for by this function and those listed above it.

self seconds the number of seconds accounted for by this function alone. This is the major sort for this listing.

calls the number of times this function was invoked, if this function is profiled, else blank.

self ms/call the average number of milliseconds spent in this function per call, if this function is profiled, else blank.

total ms/call the average number of milliseconds spent in this function and its descendents per call, if this function is profiled, else blank.

name the name of the function. This is the minor sort for this listing. The index shows the location of the function in the gprof listing. If the index is in parenthesis it shows where it would appear in the gprof listing if it were to be printed.
granularity: each sample hit covers 4 byte(s) for 0.20% of 5.06 seconds

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