Pitfalls and tips when using Coco/R

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The following examples and discussion highlight the various features of Cocol, and draw attention to common beginners' problems and misconceptions. There is a full "user manual" for Coco/R in the text book, chapter 10. There is also a complete, comprehensive, Coco Manual on PDF format available in this resource kit.

The version of Coco/R described here is not the same as the one released by Hanspeter Mössenböck at the University of Linz, although much of what appears in this document applies to that version too. Visit the official Linz website at http://www.ssw.uni-linz.ac.at/Coco/.

The notes that follow apply to the "static" version of Coco/R described in the book. Some features were added to make it easier to use. Note that the exercises make almost no use of "resolvers" to handle non-LL(1) grammars.

CHARACTERS section

This *optional* section describes the character sets from which tokens can be built in the later TOKENS section. It does nothing more; in particular it does not define tokens themselves even though at first it might seem to do so. While the definitions seem to introduce strings, this is illusory - the quotation marks are used in the sense that mathematicians would use curly braces.

Any number of sets can be defined, and they can have elements in common or not, as is convenient.

The + and - operators can be used to form the union or differences of sets, and the .. notation can be used to simplify the specification of a range. This is especially useful where this range includes control characters.

Avoid putting escape sequences like \n into the strings that define sets. Rather use the CHR(n) notation.

One cannot put spaces into literal strings in Coco/R (see later), whether these strings are being used in the CHARACTERS section to denote a set of characters, or in the TOKENS or PRODUCTIONS section to denote a literal string (terminal).

From these two points it follows that control characters like CR (CHR(13)) and LF (CHR(10)) have to be represented using the CHR(n) notation. So does SP (space, or CHR(32)) if for some strange reason it is needed as an *internal* character in a token.

ANY is a keyword that in this context means "all characters acceptable to the implementation of Coco/R". Although Java itself uses Unicode, the versions of Coco/R in this distribution are restricted to the low end (8 bit) subset of UNICODE. The first 128 elements of ASCII and Unicode are the same.

Here are some correct CHARACTERS declarations:

CHARACTERS		
ULetter	= "ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ" .	<pre>/* set of upper case letters */</pre>
LLetter	= "abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz" .	/* set of lower case letters */
digit	= "0123456789" .	<pre>/* set of all possible digits */</pre>
hexDigit	= "0123456789ABCDEF" .	/* Hexadecimal digits */
AnyVowel	= "AEIOUaeiou" .	/* The English vowels in either case */

Here are some alternatives that are valid. We can use ranges, set unions and differences:

= "A" .. "Z" = "a" .. "z" /* set of upper case letters */ ULetter /* set of lower case letters */ LLetter = ULetters + LLetters . /* set of all possible letters */ letter = CHR(0) .. CHR(31) . /* set of all ASCII control characters / = ANY - control - '"' - CHR(92) . /* set of all easy characters within a string */ control inString printable = ANY - control . /* set of all easily printable characters */ = digit + "ABCDEFabcdef" . /* all hex digits, either case acceptable */ hexDigit

Here are some "singleton" ones used to get round the problem of representing certain characters in the "string" version:

LF	= CHR(10).	/* Line feed */
CR	= CHR(13) .	/* Carriage return */
backslash	= CHR(92).	/* the dreaded \backslash used in escape sequences */

Space = CHR(32). WhiteSpace = CHR(9) .. CHR(13) + Space .

Here are some invalid ones:

```
      BadLetter = "A..Z".
      /* bad notation */

      BadDigit1 = { "0", "1", "2", "3", "4", "5", "6", "7", "8", "9" }.
      /* bad notation */

      BadDigit2 = { "0" | "1" | "2" | "3" | "4" | "5" | "6" | "7" | "8" | "9" }.
      /* bad notation */

      BadDigit3 = { "0123456789" }.
      /* bad notation */

      BadDigit3 = { 0123456789" }.
      /* bad notation */

      BadDigit3 = { 0123456789 }.
      /* bad notation */

      CRLF = CR LF .
      /* cannot define a TOKEN in this section */
```

You cannot put the names of CHARACTER sets, or the notations using CHR into the PRODUCTIONS, no matter how tempting this might seem:

```
CHARACTERS

CR = CHR(13);

...

PRODUCTIONS

Line = "SOMETHING" /* Here the SOMETHING is a string representing a TOKEN, and is allowed */

CR /* Wrong - CR is the name of a singleton CHARACTER set, not a token */

CHR(10) . /* Wrong - CHR(n) can only be used in defining CHARACTER sets or TOKENS */
```

TOKENS section

The *optional* TOKENS section is typically used to define the expected patterns that things like identifiers, strings and numbers can have. That is, it specifies how generic tokens may be constructed. "Generic" tokens are effectively regarded by the parser as terminal symbols, of which there might be several instances. They are all described in the same way, but they are actually lexically distinct (because they will actually be spelled differently).

The definitions are done using the Wirth EBNF metabrackets, but restricted effectively to rules equivalent to regular expressions. Any names that appear in these definitions must be the names of CHARACTER sets, and effectively here mean "select any character from that character set". Here are the obvious common ones:

TOKENS

```
identifier = letter { letter | digit } . /* For example Pat or Terry */
unsignednumber = digit { digit } . /* For example 1234 or 51 */
CRLF = CR LF .
```

One can also define tokens by a mixture of such characters drawn one at a time from named character sets and explicit strings. Within a token definition these strings "stand for themselves". Here are some simple examples:

```
TOKENS

signedNumber = ( "+" | "-" ) digit { digit } . /* mandatory + or - followed by digit sequence */

hexNumber = digit { hexDigit } "H" .

string = '"' { instring | backslash printable } '"' .
```

One can declare complete, very specific tokens in this way too. For example

TOKENS BeginKeyWord = "begin" .

in which the string "begin" stands for itself. This is unusual - keywords are nearly always declared simply by strings that appear where needed in the PRODUCTIONS section.

Tokens can get quite involved. For example, consider the following:

```
TOKENS

floatnumber = [ "+" | "-" ] digit { digit } /* whole part */

"." digit { digit } /* digits after the mandatory point */

[ ( "E" | "e" ) /* optional exponent part */

[ "+" | "-" ] /* optional sign within this */

digit { digit } /* mandatory digit sequence */

] .
```

This definition demands that there must be at least one digit before the point, there must be a point, and at least one digit after the point.

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Convince yourself that this could match numbers like +12.3 or 12.4E + 5 or 12.4E3 or 1.4e26.

Here is a variation that will match integer or float numbers:

```
TOKENS
                      "+" | "-" ] digit { digit }
                                                         /* whole part */
  floatnumber
                  = [
                                                         /* optional fraction */
                      "." digit { digit }
                                                         /* digits after the mandatory point */
                      [ ( "E"
                        ("E" | "e" )
["+" | "-" ]
                                                         /* optional exponent part */
                                                         /* optional sign within this */
                        digit { digit }
                                                         /* mandatory digit sequence */
                      ]
                    1
```

This will not match numbers like 123E45 or 123E-45. As an exercise, work out what you would need to allow such representations, as well as the ones we have seen so far.

The biggest traps that beginners fall into are as follows:

(a) The token names introduced on the left of the TOKENS production rules may not be used on the right side of the TOKENS rules in a direct or indirect way. Put another way, you cannot define one token in terms of another token, or recursively in terms of itself. So the following attempt to define a float number is invalid:

```
TOKENS

integer = digit { digit } . /* so far so good */

floatnumber = integer "." integer . /* looks seductive! */
```

The only "names" you can use within the definition part, following the = sign, are names of character sets declared in the CHARACTERS section.

However, the token names invariably appear somewhere on the right sides of productions in the PRODUCTIONS section.

(b) All the token definitions must be given by uniquely distinguishable regular expressions. So you cannot write

```
TOKENS

firstName = ULetter { LLetter } .

surname = ULetter { LLetter } .

longName = Uletter LLetter { LLetter } . /* at least two letters */
```

because all of these amount to describing the same patterns of characters. Note, however, that you could write (if you think it appropriate) something like

```
TOKENS

firstName = ULetter { LLetter } .

surname = ULetter { LLetter } "." .

integer = digit { digits }

| digit { hexDigit } "H" .
```

where the full stop at the end is sufficient to distinguish a surname (where it must appear) from a firstName (where it must not appear), or an implicitly decimal integer number from an implicitly hexadecimal number.

To sum up, the production rules in the TOKENS section are expressed in EBNF, but they do not have to be in LL(1) form (although they often are).

(c) Sometimes a token must be described in terms of a single element from a character set. This is a useful device - and in fact the only real way - for defining a terminal token that consists of a control character. By extension one might need to specify a simple sequence of awkward control characters:

 $\begin{array}{rll} {\sf TOKENS} \\ {\sf EOL} &= {\sf LF} & . \\ {\sf CRLF} &= {\sf CR} & {\sf LF} & . \end{array}$

Note that there is one predefined token, denoted by the keyword EOF, that can be used in the PRODUCTIONS section to ensure that a grammar describes all the input up to the end of file (see below).

(d) A token definition specifies a complete token as a string of contiguous characters. A common mistake is to try

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to put too much into a token definition - for example

```
TOKENS
Header = "void main () {" .
```

This sort of construction should be specified in the PRODUCTIONS section in terms of discrete tokens:

```
PRODUCTIONS
Header = "void" identifier "("")" "{".
```

(e) In any event, spaces cannot appear within literal strings used to define tokens. If a token really needs to incorporate a space (very unusual!), this must be done using something like

```
TOKENS
Devil = "Pat" Space "Terry" .
```

anotherKeyWord = "anotherkeyWord" .

= " · = "

assigned

to

(f) Key words are best introduced directly into the PRODUCTIONS section. Thus one would prefer

```
TOKENS

identifier = letter { letter }.

PRODUCTIONS

Goal = "keyword" identifier ":=" identifier "anotherKeyword" .

TOKENS

identifier = letter { letter }.

keyword = "keyword" . /* a unique keyword, given a toke name */
```

PRODUCTIONS Goal = keyword identifier assigned identifier anotherKeyword .

although the second form is permissible. Of course a key word is usually nothing other that the sort of word that might otherwise have been been an identifier! Coco/R is clever in this respect, and you will have no difficulty telling them apart if the "keyword" is introduced in the PRODUCTIONS section. If it is named and defined (as in the second example) in the TOKENS section, then you have to define the generic identifier before the specialised keyword. So don't try to write

/* another keyword, given a token name */

/* an operator, given a token name */

```
TOKENS

keyword = "keyword" . /* a unique keyword */

anotherKeyWord = "anotherkeyWord" . /* another keyword */

identifier = letter { letter }. /* too late, too late, too late */

assigned = ":=" . /* an operator */
```

Ignorable features and characters

Coco/R *optionally* allows one to specify that a set of characters is "ignorable", meaning that members of this set will be skipped over each time the scanner looks for the *next* token. The basic space character (SP, CHR(32)) is always in this set. Usually all the control characters - or at least the whitespace control characters - are also ignorable, meaning that they can be freely used to separate different tokens in the manner familiar to all Java programmers.

Because a character is ignorable does not mean that it cannot form an *internal* part of a token, but an ignorable character cannot be the *initial* character of a token.

Case-insensitive parsers/scanners can be constructed by using the keyword IGNORECASE, as shown below. If this is required, the IGNORECASE directive must appear before any others.

```
COMPILER Example
IGNORECASE /* case insensitive scanner */
... /* CHARACTERS, TOKENS sections, followed by */
IGNORE CHR(0) .. CHR(31) . /* control characters */
IGNORE CHR(9) + CHR(11) .. CHR(13) . /* white space, but not LF */
IGNORE CHR(9) .. CHR(13) . /* all white space */
```

COMMENTS section

The *optional* COMMENTS section allows one to specify the format of comments that might be injected into the file for which a grammar is needed, but which will be ignored. That is, comments are treated like white space if they appear between tokens. Typically these comments are specified with a directive like

```
        COMMENTS FROM "(*" TO "*)" NESTED
        /* Modula-2 style nested comments */

        COMMENTS FROM "/*" TO "*/*
        /* Java style comments - 1 */

        COMMENTS FROM "//" TO EOL
        /* Java style comments - 2 */

        COMMENTS FROM ";" TO EOL
        /* Assembler style comments */
```

In the last two examples EOL would have been defined under the TOKENS section as shown earlier.

One can have more than one comment format for a single grammar, but the tokens that delimit comments can be only one or two characters long.

PRODUCTIONS Section

All Cocol grammars must have a PRODUCTIONS section, and there must be a production for the Goal symbol, which is also used as the name of the grammar. The shortest possible Cocol specification (which, of course, does nothing useful) would thus be

COMPILER Goal PRODUCTIONS Goal = . END Goal.

Within the PRODUCTIONS section there must be one (and only one) defining production for each non-terminal. This production can, of course, be defined to allow alternatives. The productions can appear in any order.

Cocol can only be used for context-free grammars, so that the left side of each production must always be a single non-terminal. The right side *can* include

- Terminals represented directly by strings for example "void"
- · The names of terminal tokens named under the TOKENS section for example Number
- The names of other non-terminals for example Expression
- The meta-characters | { } [] and ().

The right side cannot include

• The names of character sets as defined in the CHARACTERS section, however tempting it might be to do so. Use an intermediate token definition, as illustrated previously.

A typical production might be

Factor = number | ["sqrt"] "(" Expression ")" .

Productions may be recursive, but left recursive grammars are intrinsically non-LL(1) and thus rarely of any use. In general, Coco/R only generates usable parsers if the PRODUCTIONS section defines an LL(1) grammar (unless resolvers are used, but these are beyond the scope of this document). There are a few exceptions to this - for example the "dangling else" construction is non-LL(1), but a Coco/R generated parser does the sensible thing.

Empty alternatives can be defined using square brackets (the recommended way), or by using a | followed by nothing, for example:

IfStatement = "if" "(" Condition ")" Statement ["else" Statement] .
IfStatement = "if" "(" Condition ")" Statement ("else" Statement |) .

Be careful of the precedence rules - alternation | is "weaker" than concatenation, so that

A = B C | D E.

means

A = (B C) | (D E).

and not

```
A = B \qquad (C \mid D) \qquad E .
```

This is a very easy mistake to make, and as with forgetting to put braces round blocks of statements in Java programs, it can lead to very-hard-to-find bugs. The production below is acceptable to Coco/R, but is (hopefully obviously) *wrong*:

IfStatement = "if" "(" Condition ")" Statement "else" Statement | .

A production like

Goal = { Something } EOF .

is often (but not always) preferable to the simpler, less explicit

Goal = { Something } .

The first form will signal an error if the sequence of Somethings does not reach the end of file, the second form might just stop prematurely and leave the user wondering what happened.

Be careful to avoid introducing optional parts in too many ways. This sometimes happens accidently, often indirectly. For example, do not fall into the trap of writing productions like

```
      Complete
      = [ { Part1 } { Part2 } ].

      Something
      = [ [ Inner ] ].

      LotsOfOptions
      = [ First ] [ Second ] [ Third ] }.

      WholePart
      = [ Part1 Part2 ].

      Part1
      = { Something }.

      Part2
      = [ Part3 ].
```

Cocol Pragmas

A Cocol grammar can include pragmas - generally placed right near the start. These start with a \$, followed by a few key letters, for example \$CNF. Letters of interest are

- C generate a driver program as well as the scanner and parser
- N generate names for the tokens (like pointSym or commaSym) rather than cryptic numbers
- F list the FIRST and FOLLOW sets for each non-terminal (in the file listing.txt).
- T test the grammar but do not generate any scanner, parser or driver

Arrangement of files when using Coco/R to build applications

Coco/R as used with the CMAKE or CJMAKE batch file supplied in the resource kit requires that files be located as described below. In this description, "Application" is used to denote the name of the application, for example Parva or Calculator.

CMAKE and CJMAKE are designed to make the process of executing (first) Coco/R and (then) the Java or C# compiler as easy as possible. Note that if the Coco/R phase is successful but the subsequent Java or C# compilation fails, the compiler error messages will have been redirected to a file named errors, where they may be inspected by editing the file (you will have to keep reloading it!) or simply displaying it with the command type errors. Remember that this usually requires you to edit the Application.atg file - don't be tempted to edit the Parser.java or Parser.cs file instead!

For Java:

- Work within a directory (denoted by Base below) of your own choice.
- Driver.frame (or the modified Application.frame), Scanner.frame, Parser.frame and Application.atg can all be in the Base directory. Alternatively, and sensibly, the standard frame files Driver.frame, Scanner.frame, Parser.frame found in the subdirectory %RESOURCE%\cocoj\frames stipulated by the RESOURCE environment variable will be used.
- The Cocol grammar Application.atg should be stored in a subdirectory Base\Application.
- If a modified Application.frame takes the place of Driver.frame, this should be stored in the Base\Application directory.
- Any auxiliary source files such as Table.java should also be placed in the subdirectory Base\Application.
- These auxiliary classes should all be defined to belong to a package named Application.
- Ensure that the class files for the I/O and set libraries used in these applications have been stored in the subdirectory %RESOURCE%\library stipulated by the RESOURCE environment variable.
- The files Parser.java, Scanner.java and Application.java will be created in the Base\Application subdirectory.

For C#:

- Work within a directory (denoted by Base below) of your own choice.
- Driver.frame (or the modified Application.frame), Scanner.frame, Parser.frame and Application.atg can all be in the Base directory. Alternatively, and sensibly, the standard frame files Driver.frame, Scanner.frame, Parser.frame found in the directory %RESOURCE%\cococ\frames stipulated by the RESOURCE environment variable will be used.
- The Cocol grammar Application.atg should be placed in the Base directory
- If a modified Application.frame takes the place of Driver.frame, this should be stored in the Base directory.
- Any auxiliary source files such as Table.cs should be placed in the subdirectory Base/Application
- These auxiliary classes should all be defined to belong to a namespace called Application.
- Ensure that the source file Library.cs for the I/O and set libraries used in these applications has been stored in the subdirectory %RESOURCE%\library stipulated by the RESOURCE environment variable.
- The files Parser.cs, Scanner.cs and Application.cs will be created in the Base subdirectory.

Frame files

Coco/R requires the presence of at least two "frame files" (and, as distributed here, usually a third one). The standard frame files are as follows, and are skeletons into which Coco/R injects code relevant to a particular application:

Parser.frame - parser frame file (needed) Scanner.frame - scanner frame file (needed) Driver.frame - driver frame file (optional)

We have also supplied an alternative scanner frame file:

Scanner1.frame - scanner frame file, taking input from StdIn

The Driver.frame file is rudimentary. It will serve for basic parsers, but serves best as a template from which can be derived a Grammar.frame file suited to the application at hand.

These frame files could be copied to a working directory, but is is suggested that they be left in a "frames" directory, and that Coco be invoked with a command like

coco Grammar.ATG -frames c:\cococ\frames

specifying in the -frames directive where the frame files are to be found.

If you wish to experiment with a version of Coco/R that generates a scanner which take input from the standard input file, copy scanner1.frame to scanner.frame (taking care to save the original first).

Developing token definitions

It is sometimes quite difficult to get token definitions correct. The following simple grammar may prove to be of use. It constructs a system that can read a file of tokens and report on the type and the spelling of each one. So, for example, if it were presented with a file reading

1234 asdfg "a string" 'c' ++ --

it should report that it finds a number, an identifier, a string, a character and then some unrecognizable tokens.

```
import library.*;
COMPLLER Tokens $CN
/* Test scanner construction and token definitions - Java version */
CHARACTERS
              = CHR(32)
  SD
             = CHR(92).
  backslash
  control
              = CHR(0) \dots CHR(31)
              = "ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZabcdefghijkImnopqrstuvwxyz" .
  letter
              = "0123456789"
  digit
              = ANY - ''' - control - backslash .
= ANY - "'" - control - backslash .
  strinaCh
  char Ch
  printable
              = ANY - control
                 /* you may like to introduce others */
TOKENS
              = letter { letter | digit } .
  ident
  number
              = digit { digit }
              = '"` { stringCh | backslash printable } '"'
= "'" ( charCh | backslash printable ) "'"
  stringLit
              = '"'
  charLit
                 /* you may like to introduce others */
IGNORE control
PRODUCTIONS
                              (. I0.write(token.kind, 3);
   Tokens = { ANY
                                  10.writeLine(" | " + token.val.trim() + "|"); .)
             } EOF .
END Tokens.
```

You may like to modify this to include other token definitions with which you are having difficulty, and to puzzle over the results that are produced.