Java CUP

Java CUP is a parser- generation tool, similar to Yacc.

CUP builds a Java parser for LALR(1) grammars from production rules and associated Java code fragments.

When a particular production is recognized, its associated code fragment is executed (typically to build an AST).

CUP generates a Java source file parser.java. It contains a class parser, with a method
Symbol parse()

The **symbol** returned by the parser is associated with the grammar's start symbol and contains the AST for the whole source program.

The file sym.java is also built for use with a JLex-built scanner (so that both scanner and parser use the same token codes).

If an unrecovered syntax error occurs, Exception() is thrown by the parser.

CUP and Yacc accept exactly the same class of grammars—all LL(1) grammars, plus many useful non-LL(1) grammars.

CUP is called as

java java_cup.Main < file.cup</pre>

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Java CUP Specifications

Java CUP specifications are of the form:

- Package and import specifications
- User code additions
- Terminal and non-terminal declarations
- A context- free grammar, augmented with Java code fragments

Package and Import Specifications

You define a package name as: package name;
You add imports to be used as: import java cup.runtime.*;

User Code Additions

You may define Java code to be included within the generated parser:

action code {: /*java code */ :} This code is placed within the generated action class (which holds user- specified production actions).

parser code {: /*java code */ :}
This code is placed within the
generated parser class .

init with{: /*java code */ :}
This code is used to initialize the
generated parser.

scan with {: /*java code */ :}
This code is used to tell the
generated parser how to get
tokens from the scanner.

Terminal and Non-terminal Declarations

You define terminal symbols you will use as:

classname is a class used by the scanner for tokens (CSXToken, CSXIdentifierToken, etc.)

You define non-terminal symbols you will use as:

classname is the class for the AST node associated with the non-terminal (stmtNode, exprNode, etc.)

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RESULT names the left- hand side

The Java classes of the symbols are defined in the terminal and non-terminal declaration sections.

For example,

non-terminal.

```
prog ::= LBRACE:1 stmts:s RBRACE
{: RESULT =
    new csxLiteNode(s,
```

new csxLiteNode(s,
 l.linenum,l.colnum); :}

This corresponds to the production prog → { stmts }

The left brace is named 1; the stmts non-terminal is called s.

In the action code, a new **CSXLiteNode** is created and assigned to **prog**. It is constructed from the AST node associated with **s**. Its line and column

Production Rules

```
Production rules are of the form

name ::= name<sub>1</sub> name<sub>2</sub> ... action;

or

name ::= name<sub>1</sub> name<sub>2</sub> ...

action<sub>1</sub>

| name<sub>3</sub> name<sub>4</sub> ... action<sub>2</sub>

| ...
;
```

Names are the names of terminals or non-terminals, as declared earlier.

Actions are Java code fragments, of the form

```
{: /*java code */ :}
```

The Java object assocated with a symbol (a token or AST node) may be named by adding a :id suffix to a terminal or non-terminal in a rule.

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numbers are those given to the left brace, 1 (by the scanner).

To tell CUP what non-terminal to use as the start symbol (**prog** in our example), we use the directive:

start with prog;

Example

Let's look at the CUP specification for CSX- lite. Recall its CFG is

```
\begin{array}{lll} \text{program} \rightarrow \{ & \text{stmts} \\ \text{stmts} \rightarrow \text{stmt} & \text{stmts} \\ & \mid \lambda \\ \text{stmt} \rightarrow \text{id} & = & \text{expr} \\ & \mid \text{if} & ( & \text{expr} & ) & \text{stmt} \\ \text{expr} & \rightarrow & \text{expr} & + & \text{id} \\ & \mid & \text{expr} & - & \text{id} \\ & \mid & \text{id} \end{array}
```

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```
specification is:
      This Is A Java CUP Specification For
      CSX-lite, a Small Subset of The CSX
      Language, Used In Cs536
        ***/
       /* Preliminaries to set up and use the
      scanner.
      import java_cup.runtime.*;
      parser code {:
        public void syntax_error
         (Symbol cur_token) {
          report_error(
            "\overline{CSX} \overline{S}yntax error at line "+
           String.valueOf(((CSXToken)
        cur_token.value).linenum),
           null);}
      : };
      init with {:
                                      : };
      scan with {:
   return Scanner.next_token();
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```

The corresponding CUP

```
/* Terminals (tokens returned by the
scanner). */
terminal CSXIdentifierToken IDENTIFIER;
terminal CSXToken SEMI, LPAREN, RPAREN,
ASG, LBRACE, RBRACE;
terminal CSXToken PLUS, MINUS, rw IF;
/* Non terminals */
non terminal csxLiteNode prog;
non terminal stmtsNode
                         stmts:
non terminal stmtNode
                          stmt:
non terminal exprNode
                         exp;
non terminal nameNode
                          ident;
start with prog;
prog::= LBRACE:1 stmts:s RBRACE
 {: RESULT=
     new csxLiteNode(s,
          1.linenum,1.colnum); :}
stmts::= stmt:s1 stmts:s2
 {: RESULT=
     new stmtsNode(s1,s2,
       s1.linenum, s1.colnum);
 :}
```

```
{: RESULT= stmtsNode.NULL; :}
stmt::= ident:id ASG exp:e SEMI
 {: RESULT=
       new asgNode(id,e,
           id.linenum,id.colnum);
 :}
| rw IF:i LPAREN exp:e RPAREN stmt:s
 {: RESULT=new ifThenNode(e,s,
            stmtNode.NULL,
            i.linenum,i.colnum); :}
 exp:leftval PLUS:op ident:rightval
 {: RESULT=new binaryOpNode(leftval,
      sym.PLUS, rightval,
      op.linenum,op.colnum); :}
| exp:leftval MINUS:op ident:rightval
 {: RESULT=new binaryOpNode(leftval,
           sym.MINUS, rightval,
           op.linenum,op.colnum); :}
| ident:i
 {: RESULT = i; :}
```

```
Let's parse
{ a = b; }

First, a is parsed using ident::= IDENTIFIER:i
{: RESULT = new nameNode( new identNode(i.identifierText, i.linenum,i.colnum); exprNode.NULL, i.linenum,i.colnum); :}

We build

nameNode

nameNode

a
```

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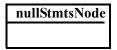
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```
Then b's subtree is recognized as
an exp:
 | ident:i
  {: RESULT = i; :}
 Now the assignment statement is
 recognized:
 stmt::= ident:id ASG exp:e SEMI
  {: RESULT=
        new asgNode(id,e,
            id.linenum,id.colnum);
  :}
We build
              asgNode
   nameNode
                         nameNode
identNode
          nullExprNode
                     identNode
                                nullExprNode
                       b
```

The stmts $\rightarrow \lambda$ production is matched (indicating that there are no more statements in the program).

CUP matches

```
stmts::=
{: RESULT= stmtsNode.NULL; :}
and we build
```



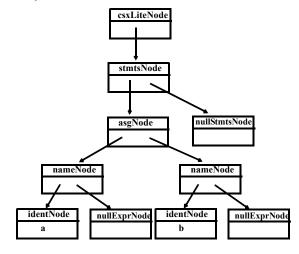
Next, $stmts \rightarrow stmt$ stmts is matched using

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This builds stmtsNode nullStmtsNode asgNode nameNode identNode identNode nullExprNode nullExprNode As the last step of the parse, the parser matches program $\rightarrow \{$ stmts using the CUP rule prog::= LBRACE:1 stmts:s RBRACE {: RESULT= new csxLiteNode(s, 1.linenum,1.colnum); :}

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The final AST reurned by the parser is



Errors in Context-Free Grammars

Context- free grammars can contain errors, just as programs do. Some errors are easy to detect and fix: others are more subtle.

In context- free grammars we start with the start symbol, and apply productions until a terminal string is produced.

Some context- free grammars may contain *useless* non-terminals.

Non-terminals that are unreachable (from the start symbol) or that derive no terminal string are considered useless.

Useless non-terminals (and productions that involve them) can be safely removed from a grammar without changing the

language defined by the grammar.

A grammar containing useless non-terminals is said to be *non-reduced*.

After useless non-terminals are removed, the grammar is *reduced*.

Consider

 $S \rightarrow A B$

| x

 $B \rightarrow b$

 $A \rightarrow a A$

 $\mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{d}$

Which non-terminals are unreachable? Which derive no terminal string?

Finding Useless Nonterminals

To find non-terminals that can derive one or more terminal strings, we'll use a marking algorithm.

We iteratively mark terminals that can derive a string of terminals, until no more non-terminals can be marked. Unmarked non-terminals are useless.

- (1) Mark all terminal symbols
- (2) Repeat

If all symbols on the righthand side of a production are marked Then mark the lefthand side Until no more non-terminals can be marked

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We can use a similar marking algorithm to determine which non-terminals can be reached from the start symbol:

- (1) Mark the Start Symbol
- (2) Repeat

If the lefthand side of a production is marked Then mark all non-terminals in the righthand side Until no more non-terminals can be marked

λ Derivations

When parsing, we'll sometimes need to know which non-terminals can derive λ . (λ is "invisible" and hence tricky to parse).

We can use the following marking algorithm to decide which non-terminals derive λ

- (1) For each production $A \rightarrow \lambda$ mark A
- (2) Repeat

If the entire righthand side of a production is marked Then mark the lefthand side Until no more non-terminals can be marked

As an example consider

 $S \rightarrow A B C$

 $A \rightarrow a$

 $B \rightarrow C D$

 $D \rightarrow d$

Ιλ

Ι λ.

 $\mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{c}$

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Potentially, the most serious flaw that a grammar might have is that it generates the "wrong language."

This is a subtle point as a grammar serves as the *definition* of a language.

For established languages (like C or Java) there is usually a suite of programs created to test and validate new compilers. An incorrect grammar will almost certainly lead to incorrect compilations of test programs, which can be automatically recognized.

For new languages, initial implementors must thoroughly test the parser to verify that inputs are scanned and parsed as expected.

Parsers and Recognizers

Given a sequence of tokens, we can ask:

Recall that compilers prefer an unambiguous grammar because a

guaranteed for all inputs.

Hence a unique translation, auided by the parse tree

structure, will be obtained.

checks if a grammar is

whether a given CFG is

is impossible to create.

ambiguous.

unambiguous.

We would like an algorithm that

Unfortunately, it is undecidable

ambiguous, so such an algorithm

Fortunately for certain grammar classes, including those for which we can generate parsers, we can prove included grammars are

unique parse tree structure can be

"Is this input syntactically valid?" (Is it generable from the grammar?).

A program that answers this question is a *recognizer*.

Alternatively, we can ask:

"Is this input valid and, if it is, what is its structure (parse tree)?"

A program that answers this more general question is termed a parser.

We plan to use language structure to drive compilers, so we will be especially interested in parsers. Two general approaches to parsing exist.

The first approach is top-down.

A parser is top-down if it "discovers" the parse tree corresponding to a token sequence by starting at the top of the tree (the start symbol), and then expanding the tree (via predictions) in a depth-first manner.

Top- down parsing techniques are *predictive* in nature because they always predict the production that is to be matched before matching actually begins.

Consider

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

 $T \rightarrow T * id \mid id$

To parse id + id in a top-down manner, a parser build a parse tree in the following steps:

$$E \Rightarrow E \Rightarrow E \Rightarrow F \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow T$$

$$T$$

$$E + T \Rightarrow E + T$$

$$T \Rightarrow E + T$$

$$T \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow T$$

$$T \Rightarrow T$$

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A wide variety of parsing techniques take a different approach.

They belong to the class of bottom- up parsers.

As the name suggests, bottom- up parsers discover the structure of a parse tree by beginning at its bottom (at the leaves of the tree which are terminal symbols) and determining the productions used to generate the leaves.

Then the productions used to generate the immediate parents of the leaves are discovered.

The parser continues until it reaches the production used to expand the start symbol.

At this point the entire parse tree has been determined.

A bottom- up parse of $id_1 + id_2$ would follow the following steps:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} T & \Rightarrow & E & \Rightarrow \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \\ id_1 & T & & \downarrow \\ T & \Rightarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ id_2 & & E + T \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ id_1 & id_2 & \\ & & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \end{array}$$

A Simple Top-Down Parser

We'll build a rudimentary topdown parser that simply tries each possible expansion of a nonterminal, in order of production definition.

If an expansion leads to a token sequence that doesn't match the current token being parsed, we *backup* and try the next possible production choice.

We stop when all the input tokens are correctly matched or when all possible production choices have been tried.

Example

Given the productions

$$S \rightarrow a$$
 | (S)

we try a, then (a), then ((a)), etc.

Let's next try an additional alternative:

Let's try to parse a, then (a], then (a], etc.

We'll count the number of productions we try for each input.

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- For input = a
 We try S → a which works.
 Matches needed = 1
- For input = (a]
 We try S → a which fails.
 We next try S → (S).
 We expand the inner S three different ways; all fail.
 Finally, we try S → (S].
 The inner S expands to a, which works.

Total matches tried = 1 + (1+3)+(1+1)= 7.

For input = ((a]]
We try S → a which fails.
We next try S → (S).
We match the inner S to (a] using 7 steps, then fail to match the last].
Finally, we try S → (S].
We match the inner S to (a] using 7

steps, then match the last]. Total matches tried = 1 + (1+7)+(1+7)= 17.

• For input = (((a 1))

We try $S \rightarrow a$ which fails. We next try $S \rightarrow (S)$. We match the inner S to ((a)] using 17 steps, then fail to match the last].

Finally, we try $S \rightarrow (S)$. We match the inner S to ((a)] using 17 steps, then match the last]. Total matches tried =

$$1 + (1+17) + (1+17) = 37.$$

Adding one extra (...] pair *doubles* the number of matches we need to do the parse.

In fact to parse (ⁱa)ⁱ takes 5*2ⁱ-3 matches. This is *exponential* growth!

With a more effective dynamic programming approach, in which results of intermediate parsing steps are cached, we can reduce the number of matches needed to n^3 for an input with n tokens.

Is this acceptable?

No!

Typical source programs have at least 1000 tokens, and $1000^3 = 10^9$ is a lot of steps, even for a fast modern computer.

The solution?

—Smarter selection in the choice of productions we try.

Reading Assignment

Read Chapter 5 of Crafting a Compiler, Second Edition.

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Prediction

We want to avoid trying productions that can't possibly work.

For example, if the current token to be parsed is an identifier, it is useless to try a production that begins with an integer literal.

Before we try a production, we'll consider the set of terminals it might initially produce. If the current token is in this set, we'll try the production.

If it isn't, there is no way the production being considered could be part of the parse, so we'll ignore it.

A *predict function* tells us the set of tokens that might be initially generated from any production.

```
For A \rightarrow X_1...X_n, Predict(A \rightarrow X_1...X_n) = Set of all initial (first) tokens derivable from A \rightarrow X_1...X_n = {a in V_t \mid A \rightarrow X_1...X_n \Rightarrow^* a...}
For example, given
Stmt \rightarrow Label id = Expr;

| Label if Expr then Stmt;

| Label read ( IdList );

| Label id ( Args );
Label \rightarrow intlit:

| \lambda
```

Production	Predict Set
Stmt → Label id = Expr ;	{id, intlit}
$\textbf{Stmt} \rightarrow \textbf{Label} \ \ \textbf{if Expr then Stmt} \ ;$	{if, intlit}
$\textbf{Stmt} \rightarrow \textbf{Label read (IdList)};$	{read, intlit}
$Stmt \to Label \; \; id \; \; (Args);$	{id, intlit}