# 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>

# **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:

terminal classname  $name_1$ ,  $name_2$ , ...

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

You define non-terminal symbols you will use as:

non terminal classname name<sub>1</sub>, name<sub>2</sub>, ...

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

#### **Production Rules**

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.

**RESULT** names the left- hand side non- terminal.

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

For example,

```
prog ::= LBRACE:1 stmts:s RBRACE
```

```
\{: RESULT =
```

new csxLiteNode(s,

```
l.linenum,l.colnum); :}
```

This corresponds to the production  $prog \rightarrow \{ stmts \}$ 

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 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;

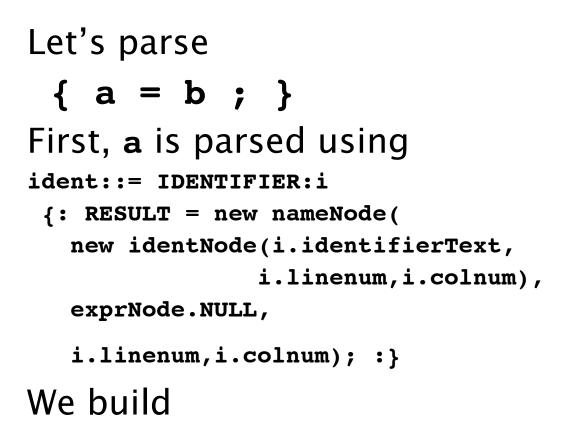
# Example

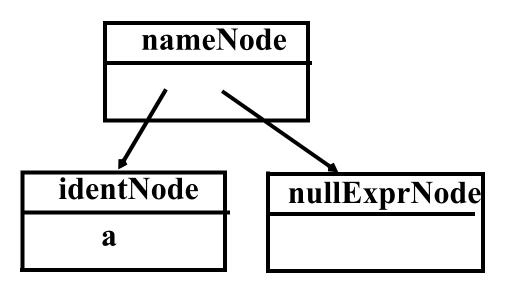
Let's look at the CUP specification for CSX-lite. Recall its CFG is

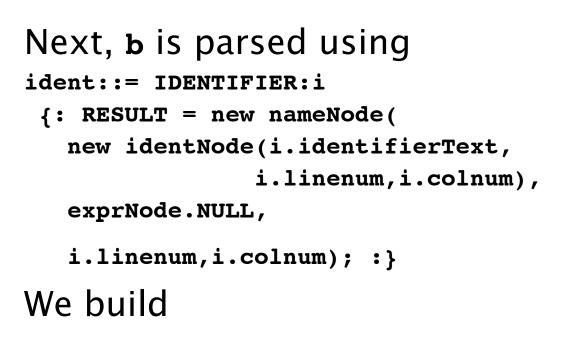
```
The corresponding CUP
specification is:
/***
This Is A Java CUP Specification For
CSX-lite, a Small Subset of The CSX
Language, Used In Cs536
 ***/
/* Preliminaries to set up and use the
scanner.
          */
import java cup.runtime.*;
parser code {:
 public void syntax error
  (Symbol cur token){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

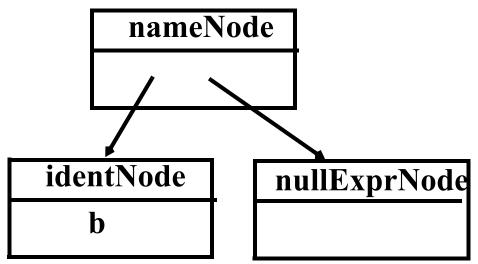
```
/* Terminals (tokens returned by the
scanner). */
terminal CSXIdentifierToken IDENTIFIER;
terminal CSXToken SEMI, LPAREN, RPAREN,
ASG, LBRACE, RBRACE;
terminal CSXToken PLUS, MINUS, rw IF;
/* Non terminals */
non terminal csxLiteNode prog;
non terminal stmtsNode
                         stmts;
non 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,l.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::=
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; :}
;
```









```
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
          nullExprNode
                                 nullExprNode
                     identNode
identNode
                        b
  a
```

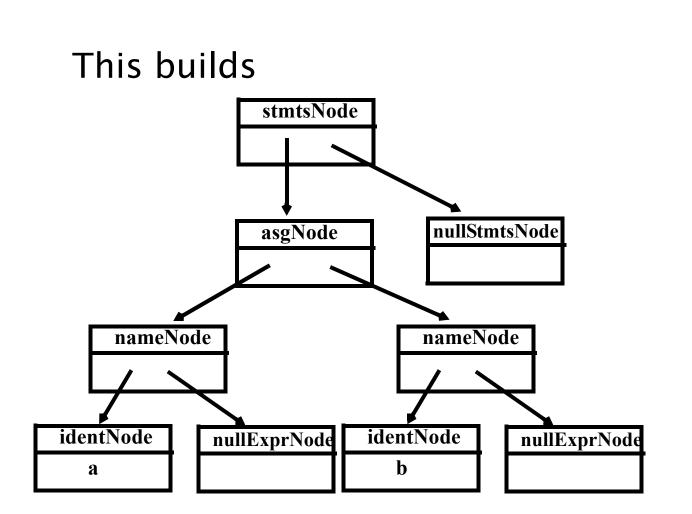
The stmts  $\rightarrow \lambda$  production is matched (indicating that there are no more statements in the program). CUP matches

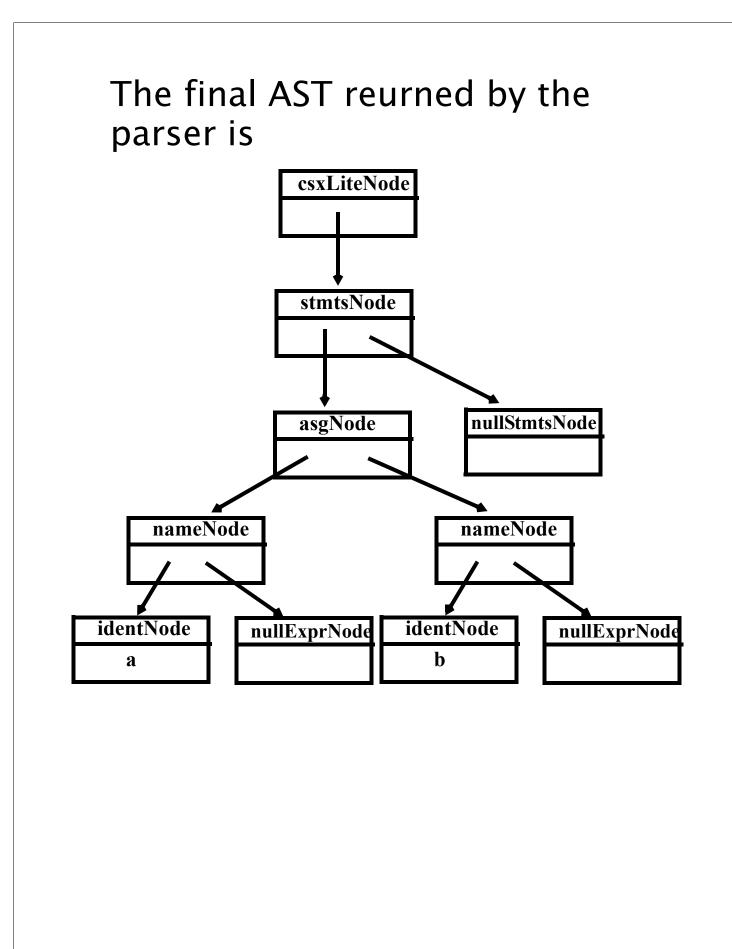
stmts::=

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

nullStmtsNode

```
Next,
stmts → stmt stmts
is matched using
stmts::= stmt:s1 stmts:s2
{: RESULT=
    new stmtsNode(s1,s2,
    s1.linenum,s1.colnum);
;}
```





# **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 *nonreduced*.

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

 $\textbf{S} \rightarrow \textbf{A} \ \textbf{B}$ 

$$\mathsf{B} \rightarrow \mathsf{b}$$

$$A \rightarrow a A$$

$$\mathbf{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{d}$$

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 nonterminals 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 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

# $\lambda$ **Derivations**

When parsing, we'll sometimes need to know which nonterminals can derive  $\lambda$ . ( $\lambda$  is "invisible" and hence tricky to parse).

We can use the following marking algorithm to decide which non-terminals derive  $\lambda$ 

- (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 $S \rightarrow A \ B \ C$ $A \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow C \ D$ $D \rightarrow d$ $\mid \lambda$ $C \rightarrow c$ $\mid \lambda$

#### Recall that compilers prefer an unambiguous grammar because a unique parse tree structure can be guaranteed for all inputs.

Hence a unique translation, guided by the parse tree structure, will be obtained.

We would like an algorithm that checks if a grammar is ambiguous.

Unfortunately, it is undecidable whether a given CFG is ambiguous, so such an algorithm is impossible to create.

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

"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*.

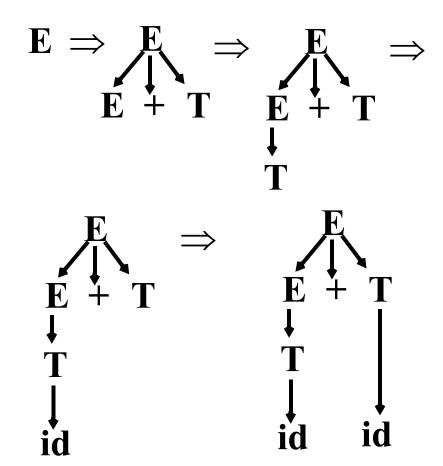
We plan to use language structure to drive compilers, so we will be especially interested in parsers. Two general approaches to parsing exist.

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:



A wide variety of parsing techniques take a different approach.

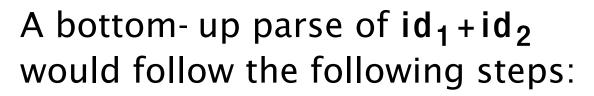
They belong to the class of *bottom-up* parsers.

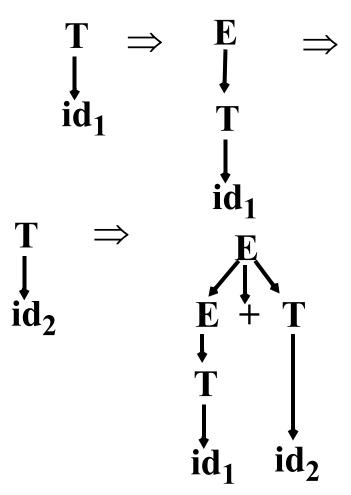
As the name suggests, bottom- up parsers discover the structure of a parse tree by beginning at its bottom (at the leaves of the tree which are terminal symbols) and determining the productions used to generate the leaves.

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 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:  $S \rightarrow a$ | (S) | (S] Let's try to parse a, then (a], then ((a]], etc. We'll count the number of productions we try for each input.

- For input = aWe try  $S \rightarrow a$  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 ]]] We try S → a which fails. We next try S → ( 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 (<sup>i</sup>a]<sup>i</sup> takes 5\*2<sup>i</sup>- 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.