Write a Java CUP parser specification to implement a CSX parser. A grammar that defines
CSX’s syntax appears below. You should examine the grammar carefully to learn the structure of
CSX constructs. In most cases, structures are very similar to those of Java and C++. At this stage,
you need not understand exactly what each construct does, but rather just how each construct
appears. Labelled while statements and the break and continue statements are optional; you
get extra credit if you implement them.

The CSX grammar listed below encodes the fact that the unary ! and type-cast operators have
the highest precedence. The * and / operators have the next-highest precedence. The + and −
operators have the third-highest precedence. The relational operators (==, !=, <, <=, >= and >)
have the fourth-highest precedence. The boolean operators (&& and ||) have the lowest
precedence. Thus !A+B*C==3 || D!=F is equivalent to the following fully-parenthesized
expression: ((((!A)+(B*C))==3) || (D!=F)). All binary operators are left-associative, except the relational operators, which do not associate at all (for instance, A==B==C
is in invalid). The unary operators are (of course) right-associative. Be sure that your parser for
CSX properly reflects these precedence and associativity rules.

```
program       class id   { memberdecls }
memberdecls   fielddecl memberdecls
              | methoddecls
fielddecls    fielddecl fielddecls
              | λ
methoddecls   methoddecl methoddecls
              | λ
optionalSemi  ;
              | λ
methoddecl    void id ( ) { fielddecls stmts } optionalSemi
              | void id ( argdecls ){ fielddecls stmts } optionalSemi
              | type id ( ){ fielddecls stmts } optionalSemi
              | type id ( argdecls ){ fielddecls stmts } optionalSemi
argdecls      argdecl , argdecls
              | argdecl
```
argdecl       type id
            | type id [ ]
fielddecl    type id ;
            | type id = expr ;
            | type id [ intlit ] ;
            | const id = expr ;
stmts        stmt stmts
            | stmt
stmt        if ( expr ) stmt
            | if ( expr ) stmt else stmt
            | while ( expr ) stmt
            | id : while ( expr ) stmt
            | name = expr ;
            | read ( readlist ) ;
            | display ( displaylist ) ;
            | id ( ) ;
            | id ( args ) ;
            | return ;
            | return expr ;
            | break id ;
            | continue id ;
            | { fielddecls stmts } optionalSemi

type         int
            | char
            | bool

args         expr , args
            | expr
readlist     name , readlist
            | name
displaylist  expr , displaylist
            | expr

expr         expr || term
            | expr && term
            | term

term         factor < factor
            | factor > factor
            | factor <= factor
            | factor >= factor
            | factor == factor
            | factor != factor
            | factor

factor       factor + pri
            | factor - pri
Using JavaCUP to Build a Parser

You will use JavaCUP, a Java-based parser generator, to build your CSX parser. You'll have to rewrite the CSX grammar into the format required by JavaCUP. This format is defined in “CUP User's Manual,” available in the “Useful Programming Tools” section of the class homepage. A sample CUP specification corresponding to CSX-lite (a small subset of CSX) may be found in ~raphael/courses/cs541/public/proj3/startup/lite.cup.

Once you've rewritten the CSX grammar we've provided and entered it into a file (say csx.cup), you can test whether the grammar can be parsed by a CUP-generated parser. Run

    java java_cup.Main < csx.cup

Java CUP might generate a message

    *** Shift/Reduce conflict found in state #XX

where XX is a number that depends on the exact structure of the grammar you enter. This message indicates that the grammar we've provided is almost, but not quite, in a form acceptable to CUP. This problem is a common occurrence. Most context-free grammars used to define programming languages can be handled by CUP, sometimes after minor modification.

The difficulty in this grammar is the well-known “dangling else” problem. Given the statement

    if (a) if (b) a=true; else b=true;

does the else statement belong to the outer or inner if? The grammar we've provided allows either association. The correct association is to match the else part with the nearest unmatched if. You must modify the grammar we've provided to enforce this “nearest match” rule. CUP generates LALR(1) parsers, so a correct grammar can be written.

You may rewrite the CSX grammar in any way you wish, adding or changing productions and
nonterminals. You **must not** change the CSX language itself (the sequences of tokens considered valid).

Once your grammar is in the right format and generates no error messages, Java CUP creates a file `parser.java` that contains the parser it has generated. It also creates a file `sym.java`, which contains the token codes the parser is expecting. Use `sym.java` with JLex in generating your scanner to guarantee that both the scanner and parser use the same token codes.

The generated parser, named `parse`, is a member of class `parser`. Compiling `parser` generates some warnings that you may ignore. It calls `Scanner.next_token()` to get tokens. Class `Scanner` (provided by us) creates a `Yylex` object (a JLex scanner) and calls `yylex()` as necessary to provide tokens. Be sure to call `Scanner.init(in)` prior to parsing with `in`, the `FileInputStream` you wish to scan from.

If there is a syntax error during parsing, `parse()` throws a `SyntaxErrorException`; be sure to catch it. It also calls `syntax_error(token)` to print an error message. We provide a simple implementation of `syntax_error` in `lite.cup` (the Java CUP parser specification for CSX-lite). You may improve it if you wish (perhaps to print the offending token). You should test your parser on a variety of simple inputs, both valid and invalid, to verify that your parser is operating correctly.

**Generating Abstract Syntax Trees**

You should consider the material in this section a hint, not a requirement.

So far, your parser reads input tokens and determines whether they form a syntactically correct program. You now must extend your parser so that it builds an abstract syntax tree (AST). The AST will be used by the type checker and code generator to complete compilation of a CSX program.

Abstract syntax tree nodes are defined as Java classes, with each particular kind of AST node corresponding to a particular class. The AST node for an assignment statement corresponds to the class `AsgNode`. The classes comprising AST nodes are not independent. All of them are direct or indirect subclasses of the following:

```java
abstract class ASTNode {
    int lineNum;
    int colNum;

    static void genIndent(int indent) { ... }

    ASTNode() { lineNum = -1; colNum = -1; }
    ASTNode(int l, int c) { lineNum = l; colNum = c; }
    boolean isNull() { return false; } // Is this node null?
    void unparse(int indent) { }
};

ASTNode is the base class from which all other classes for AST nodes are created. ASTNode is an abstract superclass; objects of this class are never created. Its definition serves to define the fields and methods shared by all subclasses.

ASTNode contains two instance variables: `lineNum` and `colNum`. They represent the line and column numbers of the tokens from which the AST node was built. Thus for `AsgNode`, the AST node for assignment statements, `lineNum` and `colNum` would correspond to the position of the assignment’s target variable, since that’s where the assignment statement begins.

ASTNode also has two constructors that set `lineNum` and `colNum`. These constructors are called by constructors of subclasses to set these two fields (to either explicit or default values).
The method `isNull` is used to determine if a particular AST node is “null”; that is, if it corresponds to $\lambda$. Only special “null nodes” define their `isNull` function to return true; other AST nodes inherit the definition in `ASTNode`.

The method `unparse` is used to “unparse” an AST node—that is, to print it out in a clear human-readable form. Unparsing is discussed below. Each subclass provides its own definition of `unparse`; the default—to print nothing—is usually inappropriate. Thus the `AsgNode`’s `unparse` function will define how assignment statements are to be printed. Clearly each kind of AST node should have its own unparsing rules. Member `genIndent` is a utility routine used by `unparse`.

An example of an AST node we might build while parsing a CSX program is:

```java
class ProgramNode extends ASTNode {
    ProgramNode(IdentNode id, MemberDeclsNode m,
        int line, int col) { ... }
    void unparse(int indent) { ... }
    private IdentNode className;
    private MemberDeclsNode members;
};
```

`ProgramNode` corresponds to the start symbol of all CSX programs, `program`. `ProgramNode` is a subclass of `ASTNode`, so it inherits all of `ASTNode`'s fields and members. It contains a constructor, as do all AST nodes. This constructor sets the private members of the class. It also calls `ASTNode`’s constructor to set `lineNum` and `colNum`.

`unparse` provides a definition of unparsing appropriate to the program structure the class represents. Since `ProgramNode` corresponds to a non-$\lambda$ construct, it is content to inherit and use `ASTNode`’s definition of `isNull`.

`ProgramNode` also contains two private fields, which correspond to the two subtrees a `ProgramNode` contains: the name of the class (an identifier), and the declarations (fields and methods) within the class. The type declarations tell us precisely the kind of subtrees that are permitted. If we try to assign a subtree corresponding to an integer literal to `className`, we get a Java type error, because the AST node corresponding to integer literals (`IntLitNode`) is different from the type that `className` expects (which is `IdentNode`).

This precaution explains why we’ve created so many different classes for AST nodes. Each different kind of node has its own class, and it is wrong to assign a class corresponding to one kind of AST node to a field expecting a different kind of AST node.

We list below (in Table 1) all the AST classes we use. For each class, we list the field names in that class and the type of each field. This type is usually a reference to a particular AST class object.

In some cases, a field may reference a special kind of AST node, a “null node,” that corresponds to $\lambda$. That is, if a subtree is empty, we use a null node to represent that fact. For example, in a class method, declarations are optional. If a class chooses to have no methods, the methods field in `MemberDeclsNode` points to a `nullFieldDeclsNode`. As you might expect, null nodes have no internal fields. They simply serve as placeholders so that all subtrees that are expected are always present. Null nodes represent null subtrees. Java’s strict type rules make it necessary to create several different classes for null nodes. However, it is easy to reference a null node of the correct type. If you want a null node that can be assigned to a field of class `XXX`, then `XXX.NULL` is the null node you want. For example, if you want to assign a null node to a field expecting a `StmtNode`, then `StmtNode.NULL` is the value you should use. It is better to reference a null node than to store a `null` value. If all object references in AST nodes point to `something` then we never have to check a reference before we use it.

Some AST nodes are always leaves (e.g., `IdentNode`); others have one or more subtrees. Thus the `AsgNode` has two subtrees, one for the name being assigned to (target) and the
other for the expression being assigned (source).

The AST nodes IdentNode, IntLitNode, CharLitNode and StrLitNode do not have subtrees, but do contain the string value, integer value, character value, or string value returned by the scanner (in token objects). Leaf nodes like TrueNode and BoolTypeNode have no fields (other than lineNum and colNum inherited from their superclass). For such nodes, we need no information beyond their class.

Besides astNode, we use a number of other abstract superclasses to build our AST. One of these is StmtNode. We never actually create a node of type StmtNode. But then why do we bother to define it?

Sometimes we want to be able to reference one of a number of kinds of AST nodes, but not just any node. Thus in a StmtNode we want to reference any kind of AST node corresponding to a statement, but not AST nodes corresponding to non-statements. We solve this problem by declaring a reference to have type StmtNode. We make all classes corresponding to statements (like AsgNode or ReadNode) subclasses of StmtNode. The rules of Java say that a reference to a class S may be assigned an object of any subclass of S. A subclass of S contains everything S does (and perhaps more). Thus an AsgNode may be assigned to a variable expecting a StmtNode without error. However, an AST node that is not a subclass of StmtNode (e.g., BoolTypeNode) may not be assigned to a variable expecting a StmtNode.

Although the set of class definitions in ast.java looks complex, the main benefit of using them is that it becomes very difficult to insert AST nodes in the wrong place. If you try, you’ll get an error message complaining that the type of node you are trying to assign to an AST node’s field is invalid. In Table 2, below, we list all the AST nodes that appears in ast.java and their superclass.

Table 1. Classes Used to Define AST Nodes in CSX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Java class</th>
<th>Fields Used</th>
<th>Type of Fields</th>
<th>Null node allowed?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ProgramNode</td>
<td>className</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>members</td>
<td>MemberDeclsNode</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MemberDeclsNode</td>
<td>fields</td>
<td>FieldDeclsNode</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>methods</td>
<td>MethodDeclsNode</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FieldDeclsNode</td>
<td>thisField</td>
<td>DeclNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>moreFields</td>
<td>FieldDeclsNode</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VarDeclNode</td>
<td>varName</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>varType</td>
<td>TypeNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>initValue</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>ConstDeclNode</td>
<td>constName</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>constValue</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ArrayDeclNode</td>
<td>arrayName</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elementType</td>
<td>TypeNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>arraySize</td>
<td>IntLitNode</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>IntTypeNode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BoolTypeNode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CharTypeNode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VoidTypeNode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Node Type</td>
<td>member 1</td>
<td>member 2</td>
<td>member 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MethodDeclsNode</td>
<td>thisDecl</td>
<td>moreDecls</td>
<td>MethodDeclsNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MethodDeclNode</td>
<td>name</td>
<td>args</td>
<td>returnType</td>
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<td>ArgDeclsNode</td>
<td>thisDecl</td>
<td>moreDecls</td>
<td>ArgDeclsNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>argName</td>
<td>elementType</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ValArgDeclNode</td>
<td>argName</td>
<td>argType</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StmtsNode</td>
<td>thisStmt</td>
<td>moreStmts</td>
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<tr>
<td>AsgNode</td>
<td>target</td>
<td>source</td>
<td>NameNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IfThenNode</td>
<td>condition</td>
<td>thenPart</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WhileNode</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>condition</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ReadNode</td>
<td>targetVar</td>
<td>moreReads</td>
<td>NameNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DisplayNode</td>
<td>outputValue</td>
<td>moreDisplays</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CallNode</td>
<td>methodName</td>
<td>args</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ReturnNode</td>
<td>returnVal</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BreakNode</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ContinueNode</td>
<td>label</td>
<td>IdentNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BlockNode</td>
<td>decls</td>
<td>FieldDeclsNode</td>
<td>StmtNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ArgsNode</td>
<td>argVal</td>
<td>moreArgs</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StrLitNode</td>
<td>strval</td>
<td>String</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BinaryOpNode</td>
<td>leftOperand</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2  Classes Used in AST Nodes and Their Superclasses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AST Node</th>
<th>Superclass</th>
<th>AST Node</th>
<th>Superclass</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ArgDeclNode</td>
<td>ASTNode</td>
<td>ArgDeclNode</td>
<td>ASTNode</td>
</tr>
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<td>ArgsNode</td>
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<td>AsgNode</td>
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<tr>
<td>BinaryOpNode</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>BoolTypeNode</td>
<td>TypeNode</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CallNode</td>
<td>StmtNode</td>
<td>CastNode</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
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<td>ExprNode</td>
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<td>TypeNode</td>
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<tr>
<td>ProgramNode</td>
<td>ASTNode</td>
<td>ConstDeclNode</td>
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<tr>
<td>ContinueNode</td>
<td>StmtNode</td>
<td>DecNode</td>
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<td>ExprNode</td>
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<td>FctCallNode</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
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<td>IdentNode</td>
<td>ExprNode</td>
<td>IfThenNode</td>
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<td>MethodDeclNode</td>
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<td>TypeNode</td>
<td>ASTNode</td>
<td>UnaryOpNode</td>
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</table>
Getting Started

We've placed skeleton files for the project in ~raphael/courses/cs541/public/proj3/startup. Look at file ast.java. This file creates a large number of "class" files (one for each kind of AST node, as well as others). To keep your project directory manageable, the Makefile places all "class" files in a subdirectory, classes. Be sure your CLASSPATH environment variable includes this directory. The Java code in the skeleton files is not up to standard; you should use a style checker to improve the code.

Building ASTs in Java CUP

We'll need to build ASTs for CSX programs we have parsed. One of the reasons we're using Java CUP to build our parser is that it's easy to build ASTs using CUP. CUP allows us to embed actions, in the form of Java code, in the productions CUP parses. When a production containing an action is matched by parse(), the associated action is automatically executed. For example the following rule (drawn from lite.cup)

\[ stmt ::= ident:id ASG exp:e SEMI \{
    \text{RESULT} = \text{new} \text{AsgNode}(id, e, id.lineNum, id.colNum);
\} \]

specifies the production \textit{stmt} \textit{ident} = \textit{expr} ;. Whenever CUP matches this production, it calls the constructor \textit{AsgNode} (since \textit{AsgNode} corresponds to assignment statements). The constructor for \textit{AsgNode} wants four things: ASTs nodes corresponding to the source and target of the assignment, and a line and column number to associate with the assignment. The special suffixes \textit{:id} and \textit{:e} represent references (automatically maintained by CUP) to the ASTs for the \textit{ident} and \textit{expr} that it has already parsed. These ASTs have already been built by the time this production is matched. We define the line and column of the assignment to be the line and column of the leftmost symbol in the assignment, which is the \textit{ident}. Since \textit{id} references the AST node built for \textit{ident}, \textit{id.lineNum} represents the line number already stored for the identifier.

After \textit{astNode} builds a new AST node for the assignment and links in its subtrees, the result is assigned to \textit{RESULT}, which is a special symbol, maintained by CUP, that represents the left-hand side non-terminal (\textit{stmt}). As productions are matched, AST subtrees are built and merged into progressively larger trees. Finally, when the first production (corresponding to an entire program) is matched, the root of the complete AST can be returned by the parser. The bookkeeping required to maintain AST pointers as productions are matched is automatically done by CUP, using the \textit{RESULT} and \textit{:name} notation.

Information placed in tokens returned by the scanner can also be easily accessed. A suffix placed after a terminal symbol allows the token object corresponding to the terminal symbol to be accessed. Thus the rule

\[ exp ::= \text{exp:} \text{l PLUS:} \text{op ident:r} \{
    \text{RESULT} = \text{new} \text{BinaryOpNode}(l, \text{sym.PLUS}, r, 
        \text{op.lineNum}, \text{op.colNum});
\} \]
uses the `lineNum` and `colNum` values of the PLUS token (extracted as `op.lineNum` and `op.colNum`) in constructing a `BinaryOpNode` that represents the AST for the addition operation.

The objects referenced for each terminal and non-terminal symbol in the grammar are defined using `terminal` and `non-terminal` directives. The lines

```plaintext
terminal CSXIdentifierToken IDENTIFIER;
terminal CSXToken SEMI, LPAREN, RPAREN, ASG, LBRACE, RBRACE;
```

tell Java CUP that the tokens for `';'`, `('('`, `')'`, etc. are all instances of class `CSXToken`, whereas the `IDENTIFIER` token is an instance of class `CSXIdentifierToken`. The lines

```plaintext
non terminal csxLiteNode      prog;
non terminal StmtsNode       stmts;
```

tell that the nonterminal `prog` references class `csxLiteNode`, whereas the nonterminal `stmts` references `StmtsNode`.

The member function `parse()`, which is the CUP-generated parser, returns an object of type `Symbol`. For successful parses, it is the start symbol (`program`) of the derivation. The value field of the returned `Symbol` contains the AST corresponding to `program`.

### Unparsing

For grading, testing and debugging purposes, it is necessary to display the abstract syntax tree your parser creates. A convenient way to do so is to create a member function `unparse(int indent)` that prints out the node's structure in conventional (text-oriented) form. (indent is the number of tabs to indent prior to printing the node's structure.) `unparse` "pretty prints" the construct, adding new lines and tabs as appropriate to create a pleasing and easily-readable listing. For constructs that are forced to begin on a new line (like statements and declarations) you should print a line number at the beginning of the construct's unparsing, using the `lineNum` value stored in the AST node. The line numbers printed might not be consecutive, since they correspond to the original input text. Moreover, some parts of a construct that appear on a new line (like the `'}'` at the end of the class definition) get a line number that appears "out of order" because the line number stored with an AST node corresponds to where the construct begins.

Each abstract syntax tree node is associated with a production that can be viewed as a pattern that specifies how a node is to be displayed. For example given an `AsgNode`, which we always print on a new line, we first print out the line number (using the node's `lineNum` value) and indent using `unparse`'s `indent` parameter. We then call `target.unparse(0)` (to print the target variable, without indenting), print `'=`, call `source.unparse(0)` (to print the source expression, without indenting), and finally print `';`.

For `IntLitNodes`, we print `intval`. For `StrLitNodes`, we print `strval` (the full string representation, with quotes and escapes). For `CharLitNodes`, print `charval` as a quoted character in fully escaped form. For `IdentNodes`, the unparsers uses `idname`, which is the text of the identifier.

Abstract syntax trees for expressions contain no parentheses, since the tree structure encodes how operands are grouped. When expressions are unparsed, add explicit parentheses to guarantee that expressions are properly interpreted. Hence `A+B*C` should be unparsed as `(A+ (B*C))`. (Fancier unparsers that only print necessary parentheses are a bit harder to write. An unparsers that prints parentheses only when really necessary gets extra credit.)

### What You Must Do
This project step is not nearly as hard as it looks, because you have CUP to help you build your parser. Still, it helps to see an example of all the pieces you’ll need to complete. We’ve created a small subset of CSX, called **CSX-lite**, that’s defined by the following productions:

```
program    { stmts }
stmts      stmt stmts
            | \lambda
stmt       id = expr ;
            | if ( expr ) stmt
expr       expr + id
            | expr - id
            | id
```

**CSX-lite Grammar**

This simple subset contains no declarations, only an assignment and `if` statement are provided, and expressions involve only `+`, `-` and identifiers. Complete CUP specifications, parsers, AST builders and unparsers for CSX-lite may be found in `~raphael/~courses/cs541/public/proj3/startup`. Just type `make test` to build a complete parser for CSX-lite and then test it using a simple source program.

You should look at what we’ve provided to make sure you understand how each step of the project works for CSX-lite. It builds ASTs using calls to constructors as illustrated in `lite.cup`. Once the parser matches an individual production, it calls a constructor for the corresponding AST node. You should substitute your scanner from project 2, by replacing `lite.jlex` with your `csx.jlex` file.

Unparsing functions, one for each type of AST node, are member functions in `ast.java`. Each such routine is fairly simple—the information in the node is printed in nicely formatted form, with recursive calls to `unparse` to unparse subcomponents.

Once you’re clear on what’s going on, add a single simple feature like a variable declaration or a `while` loop. First, add the appropriate productions to the CUP specification. Build the parser and verify that you get no syntax errors when you parse source files containing the new construct. Next, add constructor actions to your CUP specification to build ASTs for the construct you’ve added. Then define `unparse` in the nodes you’ve built to unparse ASTs for this construct. Now verify that the ASTs you build are correct by looking at the unparsing you generate.

After you have added a few constructs, you should have a good understanding of all the steps involved. Then you can incrementally add the complete set of CSX productions to your CUP specification, eventually creating a complete CSX parser and unparsers.

**Error Handling**

In the case of syntax errors, CUP calls `syntax_error()` to print an error message and then throws a `SyntaxErrorException`, indicating abnormal termination. The caller of your parser should catch this exception, which indicates that because of errors it cannot build an AST.

CUP does provide a simple error recovery mechanism (using “error” markers). This feature is described in §5 of the CUP manual. If you wish, you may experiment with syntactic error recovery after your parser is fully operational.

**What to Hand In**

As input, your parser takes a text file name on the command line, which it passes to the
scanner to read and build tokens for the parser. You should test your parser on syntactically valid and invalid programs. For invalid programs, your error messages should be clear and meaningful. For valid programs, you should show a readable unparsed listing of the abstract syntax tree that is created. Hand in your parser module, your CUP specification, and a listing of your parser’s execution on a variety of syntactically valid and invalid programs.

If you wish to claim extra credit, clearly state (in the README file) what you’ve added, and include examples of its operation. In particular, if you implement labelled while statements, break and continue, mention that fact.