



Compilers

Stanford | Online



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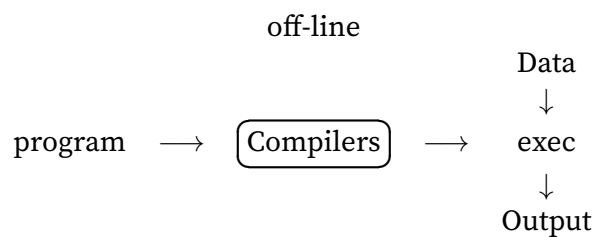
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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

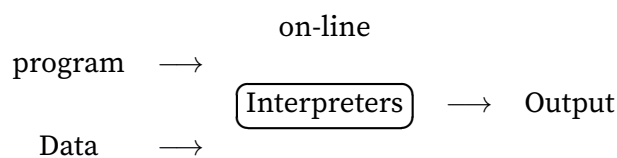
- Compilers



1954 IBM develops the 704
software > hardware
"Speedcoding"

- 10-20x slower
- 300 bytes = 30% memory

- Interpreters



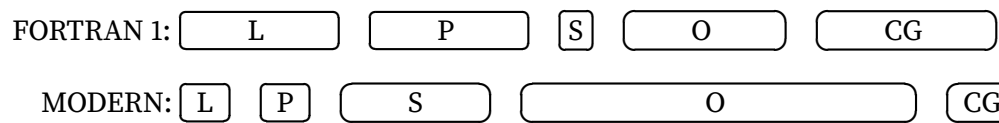
FORTRAN 1(Formulas Translated)
1954-1957
1958 50% program in FORTRAN 1

1.2 Structure of Compiler

5 phases

1. **Lexical Analysis**: divides program text into "words" or "tokens".

2. **Parsing**: diagramming sentences.
3. **Semantic Analysis**: try to understand "meaning". (hard)
Compilers perform limited semantic analysis to catch inconsistencies.
→ Programming Languages define strict rules to avoid such ambiguities.
4. **Optimization**: Automatically modify programs so that they
 - Run faster
 - Use less space
 - Reduce power consumption...
5. **Code Generation (Code Gen)**
 - Produces assembly code. (usually)
 - A translation into another language. (Analogous to human translation)



1.3 The Economy of Programming Languages

Question

1. Why are there so many Programming Languages?

Application domains have distinctive / conflicting needs.

Scientific Computing	→ Good Float Points → Good Arrays → Parallelism	FORTRAN
Business Application	→ Persistence → Report Generation → Data Analysis	SQL
Scientific Computing	→ Control of Resources → Real Time Constraints	C/C++

2. Why are there new programming languages?

Claim: Programmer training is the dominant cost for a Programming Languages

- (a) widely-used Languages are slow to change.
- (b) Easy to start a new language. → Productivity > Training Cost
- (c) Languages adopted to fill a void.

New languages tend to look like old languages because of the Claim
→ Reducing programming training, like Java vs C++.

3. What is a good programming language?

There is no universally accepted metric for language design.

CHAPTER 2

The Cool Programming Language

2.1 Cool Overview

COOL (Classroom Object Oriented Language)

Designed to be implemented in a short time and small enough for a one term project.

Cool \rightarrow MIPS(spim) \rightarrow Assembly Language

2.2 Cool Examples

1. example 1

```
class Main inherits IO {
  main() : Object {
    out_string("Hello, world!\n")
  };
};
```

2. exmaple 2

```
class Main inherits IO {
  main(): Object {{
    out_string("Enter an integer greater-than or equal-to o: ");

    let input: Int <- in_int() in
    if input < o then
      out_string("ERROR: Number must be greater-than or equal-to o\n")
    else {
      out_string("The factorial of ").out_int(input);
      out_string(" is ").out_int(factorial(input));
      out_string("\n");
    }
    fi;
  }};

  factorial(num: Int): Int {
    if num = o then 1 else num * factorial(num - 1) fi
  };
};
```

CHAPTER 3

Lexical Analysis

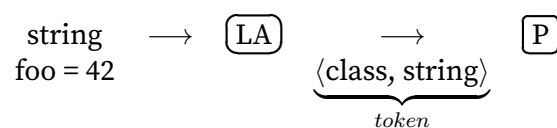
3.1 Lexical Analysis Part 1

Token class

Token classes correspond to sets of strings. Classify program substrings according to role(token class).

- **Identifier**: strings of letters or digits, starting with a letter.
- **Integer/Number**: a non-empty string of digits.
- **Keyword**: "else" or "if" or "begin" or ...
- **Whitespace**: a non-empty sequence of blanks, newlines, and tabs.
- **Operator**: like "=", "<" or ">" in cpp.
- **single character token(punctuatin mark)**: "(", ")", ";", "=".

Communicate tokens to the parser



For exmaple:

$\langle \text{Id, "foo"} \rangle \quad \langle \text{Op, "="} \rangle \quad \langle \text{Int, "42"} \rangle$

An implementation must do two things

1. Recognize substrings corresponding to tokens
→ The lexemes
2. Identify the token class of each lexeme

$$\underbrace{\langle \text{token class, lexeme} \rangle}_{\text{token}}$$