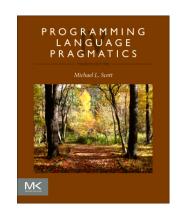
Chapter 1 :: Introduction

Programming Language Pragmatics, Fourth Edition

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Introduction

- Why are there so many programming languages?
 - evolution -- we've learned better ways of doing things over time
 - socio-economic factors: proprietary interests,
 commercial advantage
 - orientation toward special purposes
 - orientation toward special hardware
 - diverse ideas about what is pleasant to use



Introduction

- What makes a language successful?
 - easy to learn (BASIC, Pascal, LOGO, Scheme)
 - easy to express things, easy use once fluent, "powerful"
 (C, Common Lisp, APL, Algol-68, Perl)
 - easy to implement (BASIC, Forth)
 - possible to compile to very good (fast/small) code(Fortran)
 - backing of a powerful sponsor (COBOL, PL/1, Ada, Visual Basic)
 - wide dissemination at minimal cost (Pascal, Turing, Java)



Introduction

- Why do we have programming languages? What is a language for?
 - way of thinking -- way of expressing algorithms
 - languages from the user's point of view
 - abstraction of virtual machine -- way of specifying what you want
 - the hardware to do without getting down into the bits
 - languages from the implementor's point of view



- Help you choose a language.
 - − C vs. C++ vs. C# for systems programming
 - Fortran vs. C for numerical computations
 - PHP vs. Ruby for web-based applications
 - Ada vs. C for embedded systems
 - Common Lisp vs. Scheme vs. ML for symbolic data manipulation
 - Java vs. .NET for networked PC programs



- Make it easier to learn new languages.
- Some languages are similar; easy to walk down family tree.
 - concepts have even more similarity; if you think in terms of iteration, recursion, abstraction (for example), you will find it easier to assimilate the syntax and semantic details of a new language.
 - Think of an analogy to human languages: good grasp of grammar makes it easier to pick up new languages (at least Indo-European).

- Help you make better use of whatever language you use
 - understand obscure features:
 - In C, help you understand unions, arrays & pointers, separate compilation, varargs, catch and throw
 - In Common Lisp, help you understand first-class functions/closures, streams, catch and throw, symbol internals



- Help you make better use of whatever language you use (2)
 - understand implementation costs: choose between alternative ways of doing things, based on knowledge of what will be done underneath:
 - use simple arithmetic equal (use x*x instead of x**2)
 - use C pointers or Pascal "with" statement to factor address calculations
 - avoid call by value with large data items in Pascal
 - avoid the use of call by name in Algol 60
 - choose between computation and table lookup (e.g. for cardinality operator in C or C++)



- Help you make better use of whatever language you use (3)
 - figure out how to do things in languages that don't support them explicitly:
 - lack of suitable control structures in Fortran
 - use comments and programmer discipline for control structures
 - lack of recursion in Fortran, CSP, etc
 - write a recursive algorithm then use mechanical recursion elimination (even for things that aren't quite tail recursive)



- Help you make better use of whatever language you use (4)
 - figure out how to do things in languages that don't support them explicitly:
 - lack of named constants and enumerations in Fortran
 - use variables that are initialized once, then never changed
 - lack of modules in C and Pascal use comments and programmer discipline
 - lack of iterators in just about everything fake them with (member?) functions



Imperative languages

- Group languages as
 - imperative
 - von Neumann
 - object-oriented
 - scripting languages
 - declarative
 - functional
 - logic, constraint-based

- (Fortran, Pascal, Basic, C)
- (Smalltalk, Eiffel, C++?)
- (Perl, Python, JavaScript, PHP)

- (Scheme, ML, pure Lisp, FP)
- (Prolog, VisiCalc, RPG)

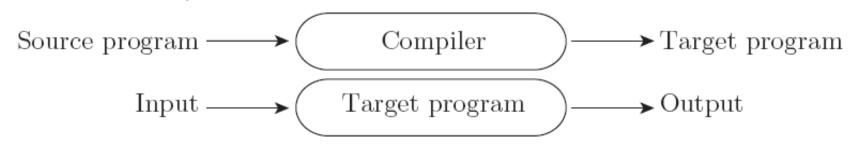


Imperative languages

- Imperative languages, particularly the von Neumann languages, predominate
 - They will occupy the bulk of our attention
- We also plan to spend a lot of time on functional, logic languages



- Compilation vs. interpretation
 - not opposites
 - not a clear-cut distinction
- Pure Compilation
 - The compiler translates the high-level source program into an equivalent target program (typically in machine language), and then goes away:



- Pure Interpretation
 - Interpreter stays around for the execution of the program
 - Interpreter is the locus of control during execution

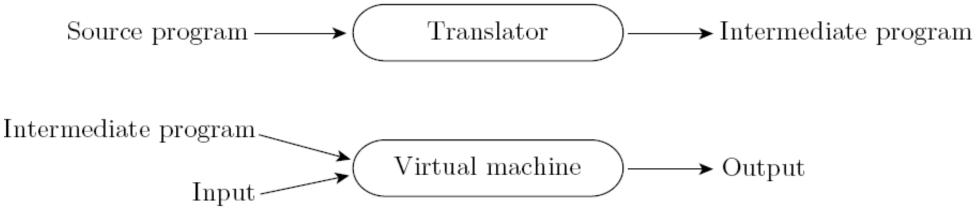




- Interpretation:
 - Greater flexibility
 - Better diagnostics (error messages)
- Compilation
 - Better performance



- Common case is compilation or simple preprocessing, followed by interpretation
- Most language implementations include a mixture of both compilation and interpretation





- Note that compilation does NOT have to produce machine language for some sort of hardware
- Compilation is *translation* from one language into another, with full analysis of the meaning of the input
- Compilation entails semantic *understanding* of what is being processed; pre-processing does not
- A pre-processor will often let errors through. A compiler hides further steps; a pre-processor does not



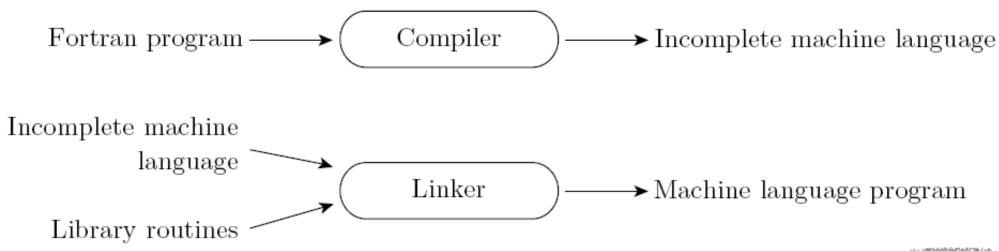
- Many compiled languages have interpreted pieces, e.g., formats in Fortran or C
- Most use "virtual instructions"
 - set operations in Pascal
 - string manipulation in Basic
- Some compilers produce nothing but virtual instructions, e.g., Pascal P-code, Java byte code, Microsoft COM+



- Implementation strategies:
 - Preprocessor
 - Removes comments and white space
 - Groups characters into *tokens* (keywords, identifiers, numbers, symbols)
 - Expands abbreviations in the style of a macro assembler
 - Identifies higher-level syntactic structures (loops, subroutines)

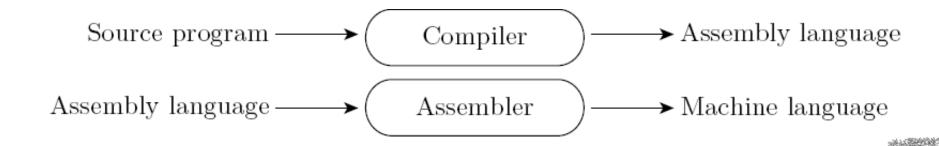


- Implementation strategies:
 - Library of Routines and Linking
 - Compiler uses a *linker* program to merge the appropriate *library* of subroutines (e.g., math functions such as sin, cos, log, etc.) into the final program:

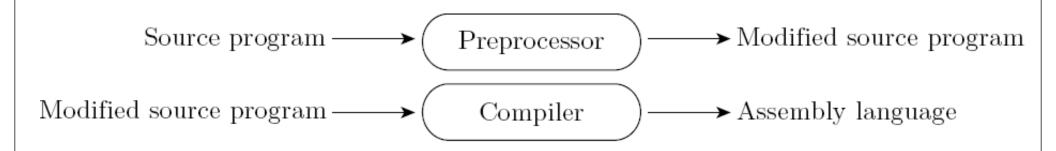




- Implementation strategies:
 - Post-compilation Assembly
 - Facilitates debugging (assembly language easier for people to read)
 - Isolates the compiler from changes in the format of machine language files (only assembler must be changed, is shared by many compilers)

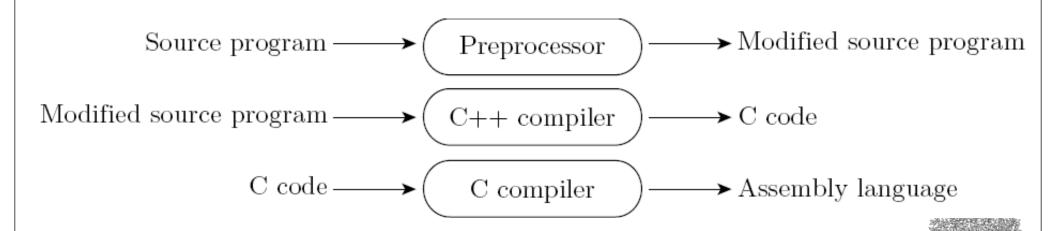


- Implementation strategies:
 - The C Preprocessor (conditional compilation)
 - Preprocessor deletes portions of code, which allows several versions of a program to be built from the same source

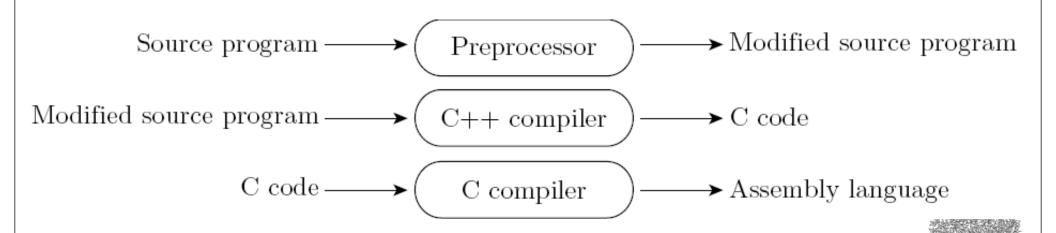




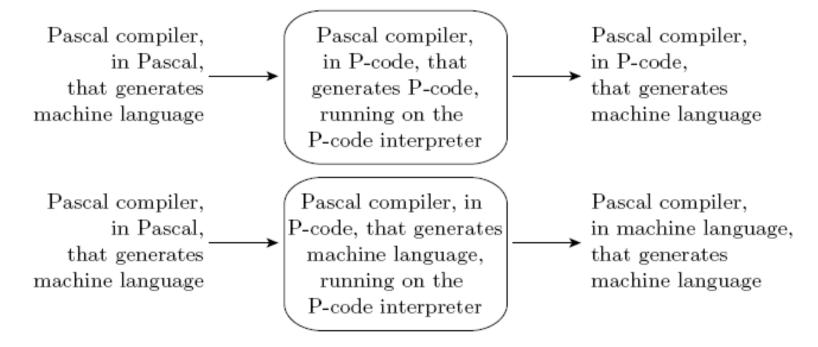
- Implementation strategies:
 - Source-to-Source Translation (C++)
 - C++ implementations based on the early AT&T compiler generated an intermediate program in C, instead of an assembly language:



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 - Source-to-Source Translation (C++)
 - C++ implementations based on the early AT&T compiler generated an intermediate program in C, instead of an assembly language:



- Implementation strategies:
 - Bootstrapping





- Implementation strategies:
 - Compilation of Interpreted Languages
 - The compiler generates code that makes assumptions about decisions that won't be finalized until runtime. If these assumptions are valid, the code runs very fast. If not, a dynamic check will revert to the interpreter.



- Implementation strategies:
 - Dynamic and Just-in-Time Compilation
 - In some cases a programming system may deliberately delay compilation until the last possible moment.
 - Lisp or Prolog invoke the compiler on the fly, to translate newly created source into machine language, or to optimize the code for a particular input set.
 - The Java language definition defines a machine-independent intermediate form known as *byte code*. Byte code is the standard format for distribution of Java programs.
 - The main C# compiler produces .NET Common Intermediate Language (CIL), which is then translated into machine code immediately prior to execution.

- Implementation strategies:
 - Microcode
 - Assembly-level instruction set is not implemented in hardware; it runs on an interpreter.
 - Interpreter is written in low-level instructions (*microcode* or *firmware*), which are stored in read-only memory and executed by the hardware.



- Compilers exist for some interpreted languages, but they aren't pure:
 - selective compilation of compilable pieces and extrasophisticated pre-processing of remaining source.
 - Interpretation of parts of code, at least, is still necessary for reasons above.
- Unconventional compilers
 - text formatters
 - silicon compilers
 - query language processors



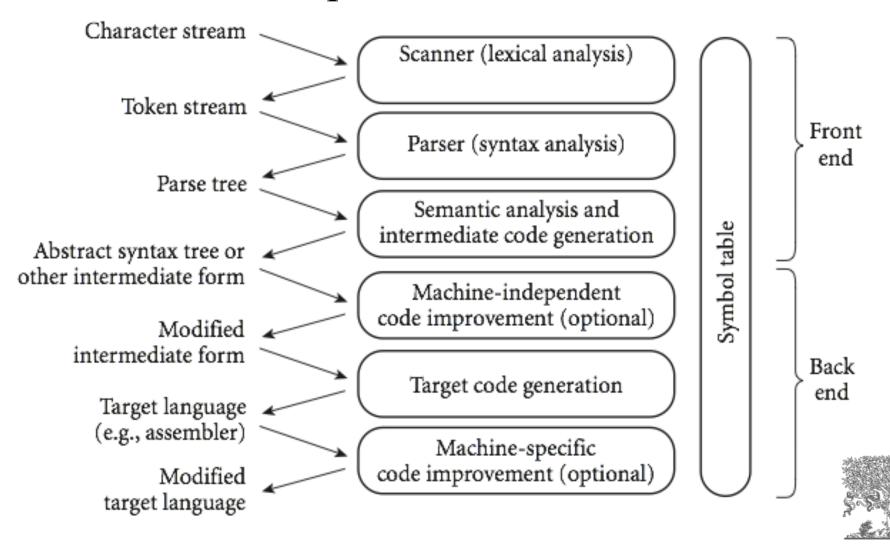
Programming Environment Tools

• Tools

Туре	Unix examples
Editors	vi, emacs
Pretty printers	cb, indent
Pre-processors (esp. macros)	cpp, m4, watfor
Debuggers	adb, sdb, dbx, gdb
Style checkers	lint, purify
Module management	make
Version management	sccs, rcs
Assemblers	as
Link editors, loaders	Id, Id-so
Perusal tools	More, less, od, nm
Program cross-reference	ctags



Phases of Compilation



• Scanning:

- divides the program into "tokens", which are the smallest meaningful units; this saves time, since character-by-character processing is slow
- we can tune the scanner better if its job is simple;
 it also saves complexity (lots of it) for later stages
- you can design a parser to take characters instead of tokens as input, but it isn't pretty
- scanning is recognition of a regular language,
 e.g., via DFA



- *Parsing* is recognition of a *context-free* language, e.g., via PDA
 - Parsing discovers the "context free" structure of the program
 - Informally, it finds the structure you can describe with syntax diagrams (the "circles and arrows" in a Pascal manual)



- **Semantic analysis** is the discovery of *meaning* in the program
 - The compiler actually does what is called
 STATIC semantic analysis. That's the meaning
 that can be figured out at compile time
 - Some things (e.g., array subscript out of bounds)
 can't be figured out until run time. Things like
 that are part of the program's DYNAMIC
 semantics



- *Intermediate form* (IF) done after semantic analysis (*if* the program passes all checks)
 - IFs are often chosen for machine independence, ease of optimization, or compactness (these are somewhat contradictory)
 - They often resemble machine code for some imaginary idealized machine; e.g. a stack machine, or a machine with arbitrarily many registers
 - Many compilers actually move the code through more than one IF

- *Optimization* takes an intermediate-code program and produces another one that does the same thing faster, or in less space
 - The term is a misnomer; we just *improve* code
 - The optimization phase is optional
- *Code generation phase* produces assembly language or (sometime) relocatable machine language



- Certain *machine-specific optimizations* (use of special instructions or addressing modes, etc.) may be performed during or after *target code generation*
- *Symbol table*: all phases rely on a symbol table that keeps track of all the identifiers in the program and what the compiler knows about them
 - This symbol table may be retained (in some form) for use by a debugger, even after compilation has completed

- Lexical and Syntax Analysis
 - GCD Program (in C)

```
int main() {
int i = getint(), j = getint();
while (i != j) {
  if (i > j) i = i - j;
  else j = j - i;
}
putint(i);
}
```



- Lexical and Syntax Analysis
 - GCD Program Tokens
 - Scanning (*lexical analysis*) and parsing recognize the structure of the program, groups characters into *tokens*, the smallest meaningful units of the program



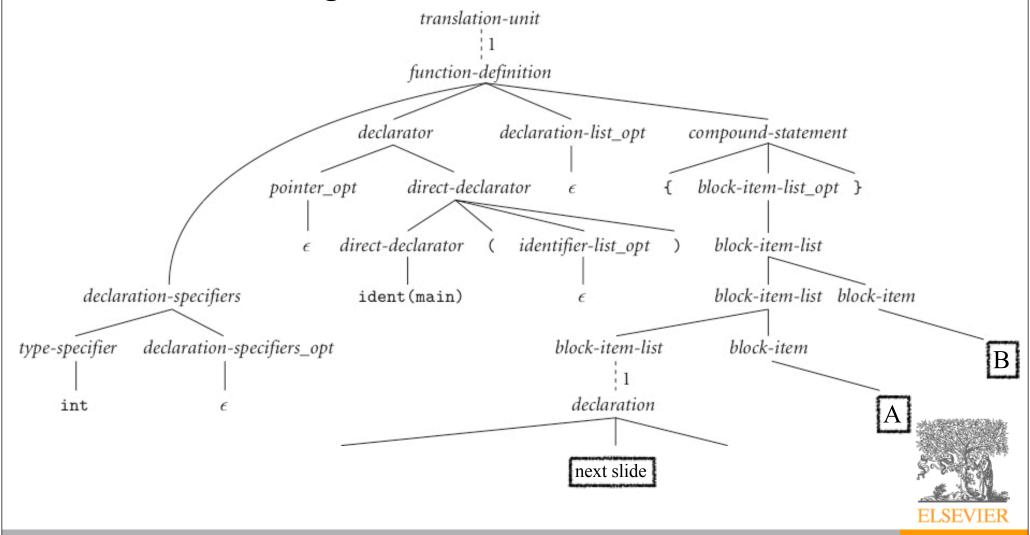
- Lexical and Syntax Analysis
 - Context-Free Grammar and Parsing
 - Parsing organizes tokens into a *parse tree* that represents higher-level constructs in terms of their constituents
 - Potentially recursive rules known as *context-free* grammar define the ways in which these constituents combine



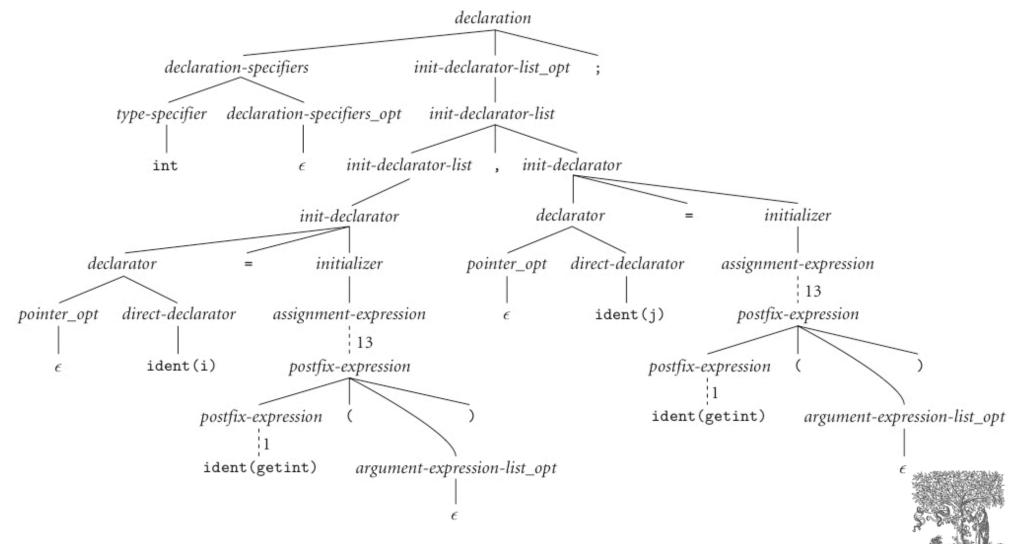
- Context-Free Grammar and Parsing
 - Example (while loop in C)



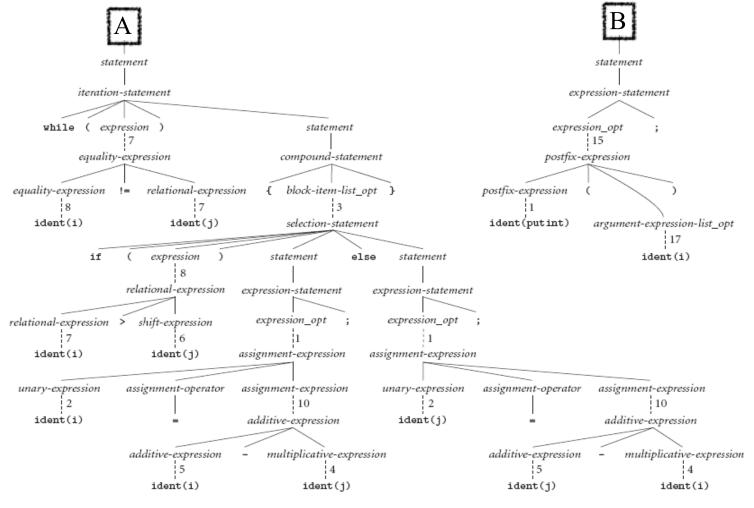
- Context-Free Grammar and Parsing
 - GCD Program Parse Tree



Context-Free Grammar and Parsing (continued)



Context-Free Grammar and Parsing (continued)





- Syntax Tree
 - GCD Program Parse Tree

