Abstraction

- Programming language (PL) gives an unambiguous notation for expressing algorithms
 - o Do NOT want ambiguity
- PL source is processed by PL Processors
- PLs differ by level of abstraction
- Abstraction requires translation, often between levels of abstraction
- Editors, frameworks, etc. are still higher than HLL

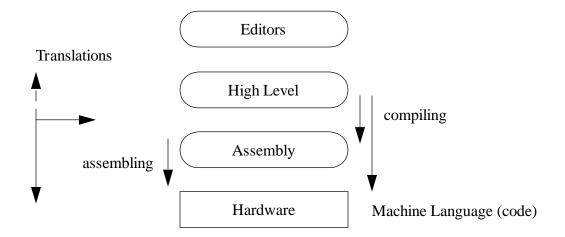


Figure 1. Abstraction and resulting translation

- Historical developments in abstractions/translations
 - o machine language (ML)
 - machine dependent
 - binary, hard to use
 - fixed addresses
 - o symbolic assembly
 - one-to-one correspondence to ML except for extensions
 - symbolic addresses with storage allocation directives
 - machine dependent
 - extensions: macro processing, functions, modular assembling
 - o high level language (HLL)
 - complex expressions
 - data typing (built-in and/or user-defined)
 - complex control structures
 - procedural and data abstraction
 - machine independent (portability)

- some system level dependencies prevent 100% portability
- recursion

Programming Language Processors

- Generating translators
 - o source -> target
 - o file, persists, can be distributed independently but only on the same target machine
 - o compiler: generating translator HLL-> lower level (assembly or ML)
- Interpreters
 - o source -> execution
 - o every execution needs the translator
 - o execution must be time/sliced with translator

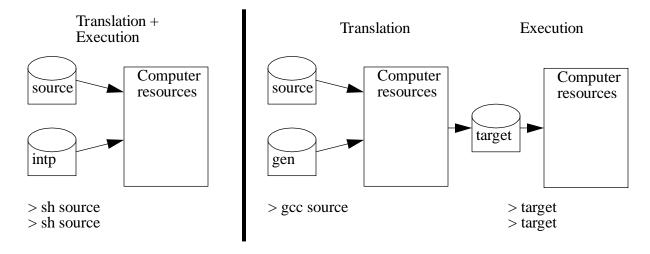


Figure 2. Interpretation (left) vs. generation (right)

Attribute	Interpreter	Generator
Target	no explicit target, just execution	file
Translation speed		
Translation complexity		
Translation memory req.		
Execution speed, memory		

- Hardware is interpreter its own machine code
 - source (machine code) -> target (actions)
 - o hardwired vs. micro-coded
- Translation passes
 - o Pass is one read over the input
 - o Translators need a number of *passes*
 - Some passes can be on the original source, some on some intermediate representation
 - More passes lead to more portable/reconfigurable compilers (cheaper)
 - Fewer passes lead to faster compilers (more expensive) often losing reconfigurability

Programming Language Specification

- PL is defined by
 - Syntax
 - What are lexical elements and how to put them together
 - Semantics (static and execution semantics)
 - What is the meaning of instructions
 - Static semantics are constraints/rules (contextual constraints) that can be processed by the translator which could not be expressed by syntax
 - Execution (dynamic) semantics

Syntax

- alphabet ∑ set of valid characters
- grammar set of rules for generating/recognizing valid strings of the language
 - grammar is defined on a different alphabet (tokens T)

Assume binary alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.

- The set of all strings over the alphabet is Σ^* .
 - \circ For example, 0, 011, 101111, as well as the empty string ϵ are all strings generated from this alphabet.
- However, a given language L will have grammar rules/restrictions allowing only a certain subset of Σ * to be valid.
 - \circ For example, L₁ = 01*will have valid strings such as 0, 0111, but 10 would not be valid

The C programming language

- has alphabet containing letters, digits, symbols such as %, *, &, but not symbols such as \$ or
- has about a hundred classes of tokens such as
 - o if, while, void keywords
 - o operators such as +, ++
 - o delimiters such as , (
 - o identifiers such as x
 - o numbers such as 5, 2.3
- grammar says how the tokens can be arranged
 - o e.g., statement must end with;

Semantics

- The meaning of expressions and statements
 - o denotational vs. operational semantics
 - o informal vs. formal (or hybrid)

The semantics of an assignment in C can be for example explained informally using operational semantics

- evaluate the right hand side
- assign the resulting value into lefty hand side, performing any necessary type coercion

Classification of Languages

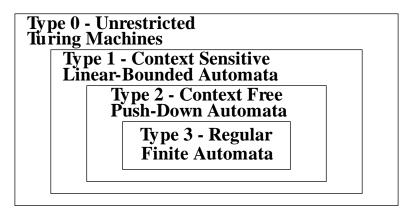


Figure 3. Chomsky classification of languages and their algorithms/processors

- Programming languages are not context-free (CF)
- Context-free are the most that can be effectively processed
- CF languages are defined with context-free grammar (CFG)
- PL are divided into CF and non-CF components
- PL is defined with grammar and semantics on elements called tokens
 - o tokens are defined by regular language, with so called *lexical* definitions

- o for example, numbers starting with x are hex numbers, identifiers must start with letter, etc.
- o tokens are extracted using Finite Automaton (FA, FSM, FSA, etc.)
- o syntax is defined in terms of tokens
- Grammar (CFG) is processed by PushDown Automaton (PDA)
 - PDA is augmented with procedures to deal with static semantics (semantic routines)
 - variable binding
 - arguments types and number
 - compatibility rules etc.
 - CFG is expressed using Backus-Naur Form (BNF)
 - CFG can be augmented with static semantics information

BNF

- See 4250 textbook
- Standard BNF has terminals (tokens) and non-terminals
 - Terminals and nonterminals must be differentiated by notation such as token vs.
 <nonterminal> or a vs. A
 - o One <nontermimal> is designated as the initial
 - BNF is a set of rules/productions of the form
 <nonterminal> -> any combination of terminals and <nonterminals>
- Extended BNF
 - Uses extra symbols to simplify the productions
 - {x} means repeat x any number of times
 - [x]means optional x
 - Etc.
 - The extended extra symbols must be clearly differentiated from the same symbols in terminals

Bindings

- See 4250 textbook
- Assigning property values to something
 - Assigning value to variable
 - Assigning address to variable
 - Assigning type to variable
- Static vs dynamic binding

- o Static translation time
- o Dynamic execution time
- o Example from 4250 static scoping vs. dynamic scoping

Assume function

```
int max(int, int);
then what bindings we have in this fragment:
int x;
x = 3;
x = max(3.5, 2+3);
```