Introduction to Programming Languages

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Objectives

- A History of Programming Languages
- Why study programming languages?
- Classifications of Programming Languages
- Compilation vs. Interpretation
- Implementation strategies
- Programming Environment Tools
- An Overview of Compilation

History of Programming Languages

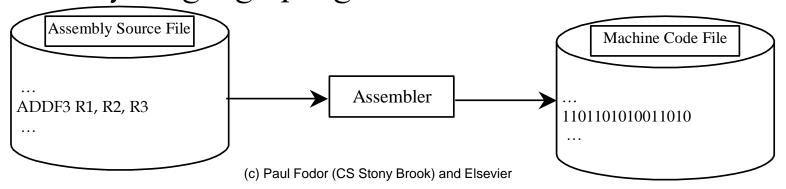
- At the beginning there was only machine language: a sequence of bits (binary with: electric switches on and off, or punched cards) that directly controls a processor, causing it to add, compare, move data from one place to another, etc.
 - Example: GCD program in x86 machine language:
 55 89 e5 53 83 ec 04 83 e4 f0 e8 31 00 00 00 89 c3 e8 2a 00 00 00 39 c3 74 10 8d b6 00 00 00 39 c3 7e 13 29 c3 39 c3 75 f6 89 1c 24 e8 6e 00 00 00 8b 5d fc c9 c3 29 d8 eb eb 90

History of Programming Languages

- Assembly languages were invented to allow machinelevel/processor operations to be expressed with <u>mnemonic</u> abbreviations
 - For example, to add two numbers, you might write an instruction in assembly code like this:

ADDF3 R1, R2, R3

• A program called *assembler* is used to convert assembly language programs into machine code



• Example: GCD program in x86 assembly:

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%ebp pushl movl %esp, %ebp %ebx pushl subl \$4, %esp andl \$-16, %esp call getint %eax, %ebx movl call getint %eax, %ebx cmpl je С %eax, %ebx A : cmpl jle D %eax, %ebx subl cmpl %eax, %ebx **B**: jne Α C: movl %ebx, (%esp) call putint movl -4(%ebp), %ebx leave ret subl %ebx, %eax D: В jmp

History of Programming Languages

- Assemblers were eventually augmented with elaborate *"macro expansion*" facilities to permit programmers to define <u>parameterized</u> abbreviations for common sequences of instructions
- Problem: each different kind of computer had to be programmed in its own assembly language
 - People began to wish for <u>machine-independent</u>
 <u>languages</u>
- These wishes led in the mid-1950s to the development of standard *higher-level languages* compiled for different architectures by *compilers*

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History of Programming Languages

- Today there are thousands of high-level programming languages, and new ones continue to emerge
- Why are there so many?
 - Evolution
 - Different Purposes
 - Personal Preference

- Why do we have programming languages? What is a language for?
 - <u>way of thinking</u> -- way of expressing algorithms
 - <u>way of specifying</u> what you want (see declarative languages; e.g., constraint solving languages, where one declares constraints while the system find models that satisfy all constraints)
 - <u>access special features of the hardware</u>

- What makes a language successful?
 - easy to learn (BASIC, Pascal, LOGO, Scratch, python)
 - easy to express things, i.e., easy to use once fluent (C, Java, Common Lisp, Perl, APL, Algol-68)
 - easy to deploy (Javascript, BASIC, Forth)
 - possible to compile to very good (fast/small) code (C, Fortran)
 - backing of a powerful sponsor that makes them "free" (Java, Visual Basic, COBOL, PL/1, Ada)
 - <u>real</u> wide dissemination at minimal cost (python, Pascal, Turing, Erlang)

- Help you choose a language for specific tasks:
 - C vs. C++ for <u>systems programming</u> (e.g., OS kernels, drivers, file systems)
 - Matlab vs. Python vs. R for <u>numerical computations</u>
 - C vs. python vs. Android vs. Swift vs. ObjectiveC for <u>embedded systems</u>
 - Python vs. perl vs. Ruby vs. Common Lisp vs. Scheme vs. ML for symbolic data manipulation
 - Java RPC vs. C/CORBA vs. REST for <u>networked programs</u>
 - Python vs. perl vs. Java for <u>scripting and string</u> <u>manipulations</u>

• Make it easier to learn new languages

- programming languages are similar (same way of doing things)
 - because it is easy to walk down family tree
- **Important:** concepts have even more similarity: if you think in terms of iteration, recursion, abstraction (method and class), then you will find it easier to assimilate the syntax and semantic details of a new language than if you try to pick it up in a vacuum • 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
 - <u>understand implementation costs</u>: choose between alternative ways of doing things, based on knowledge of what will be done underneath:
 - use x*x instead of x**2
 - 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

• <u>understanding "obscure" features:</u>

- In C, it will help you understand pointers (including arrays and strings), unions, catch and throw
- In Common Lisp, it will help you understand first-class functions, closures, streams

• <u>figure out how to do things in languages that don't</u> <u>support them explicitly:</u>

- lack of recursion in Fortran, CSP
 - unfold the recursive algorithm to mechanically eliminate recursion and write a non-recursive algorithm (even for things that aren't quite tail recursive)
- lack of suitable structures in Fortran
 - use comments and programmer discipline
 - o lack of named constants and enumerations in Fortran
 - use identifiers with upper-case letters only that are initialized once, then never changed
- lack of modules in Pascal
 - include module name in method name and use comments and programmer discipline

Classifications of Programming Languages

- Many classifications group languages as:
 - imperative
 - procedural (von Neumann/Turing-based) (Fortran, C, Pascal, Basic)
 - object-oriented imperative (Smalltalk, C++, Eiffel, Java)
 - scripting languages
 - declarative
 - functional (Lisp, Scheme, ML, F#)
 - also adopted by JavaScript for call-back methods
 - logic and constraint-based (Prolog, Flora2, clingo, Zinc)

(Perl, python, JavaScript, PHP)

Many more classes: markup languages, assembly languages, query languages, etc.

Classification of PL

GCD Program in different languages, like C, python, SML and Prolog:

```
In C:
int main() {

int i = getint(), j = getint();
while (i != j) {

if (i > j) i = i - j;
else j = j - i;

putint(i);
```

```
}
```

• In SML:

fun gcd(m,n):int = if m=n then n

= else if m>n then gcd(m-n,n)

= else gcd(m,n-m);

In Python:

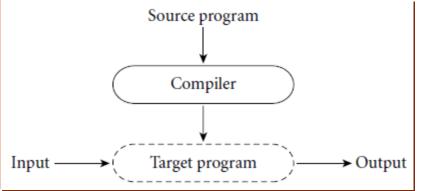
```
def gcd(a, b):
    if a == b:
        return a
    else:
        if a > b:
            return gcd(a-b, b)
        else:
            return gcd(a, b-a)
```

• In Prolog:

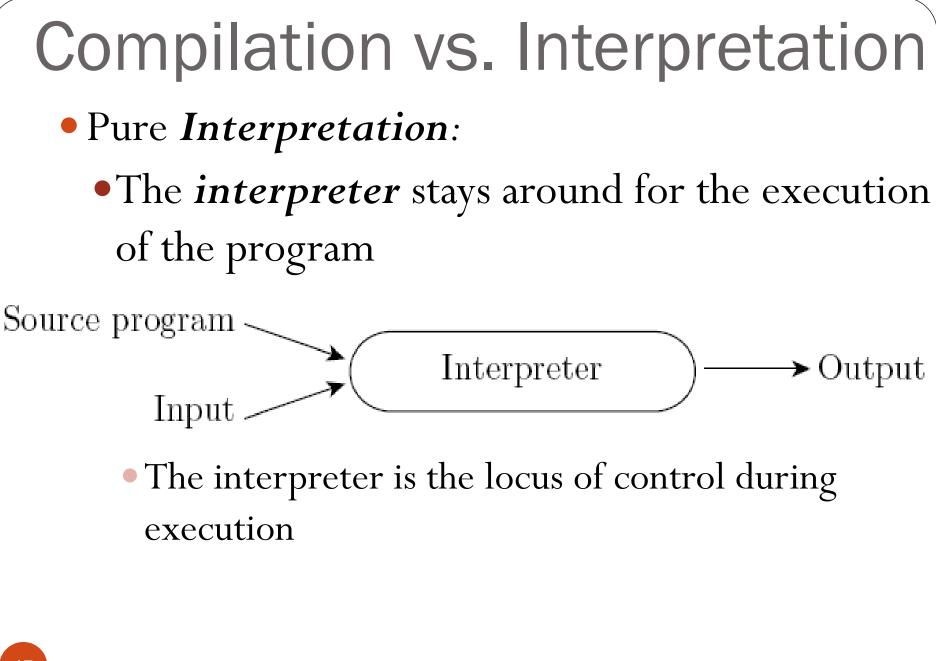
gcd(A,A,A). gcd(A,B,G) :- A > B, C is A-B, gcd(C,B,G). gcd(A,B,G) :- A < B, C is B-A, gcd(C,A,G).

Compilation vs. Interpretation

- 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:



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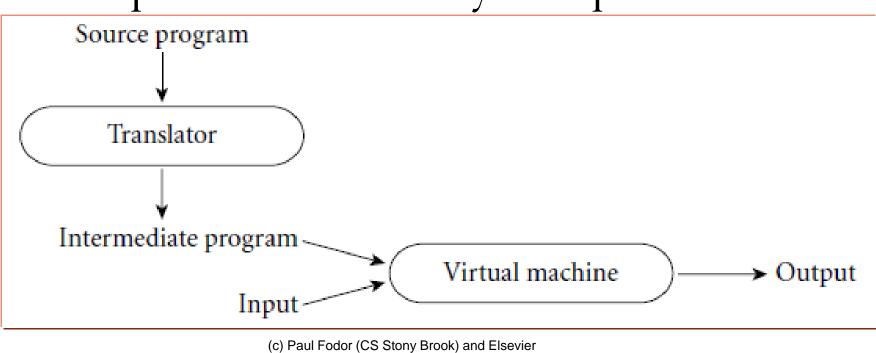
Compilation vs. Interpretation

- Compilation
 - Better performance!
- Interpretation:
 - •Greater flexibility: real-time development
 - Better diagnostics (error messages)

 Compilation vs. Interpretation
 Most modern language implementations include a mixture of both compilation and interpretation

•Compilation followed by interpretation:

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Compilation vs. 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

Compilation vs. Interpretation

- Many compiled languages have interpreted pieces, e.g., formats in Fortran or C
 - Most compiled languages use "virtual instructions"
 - set operations in Pascal
 - string manipulation in Basic

• The *Preprocessor*:

- Removes comments and white space
- Expands abbreviations in the style of a macro assembler
- Conditional compilation: if-else directives #if, #ifdef,

#ifndef, #else, #elif and #endif – example:

#ifdef __unix___
include <unistd.h>
#elif defined _WIN32
include <windows.h>
#endif

- Groups characters into tokens (keywords, identifiers, numbers, symbols)
- Identifies higher-level syntactic structures (loops, subroutines)

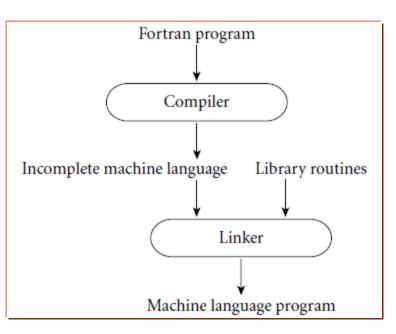
Preprocessor • The C Preprocessor: Source program removes comments expands macros Preprocessor conditional compilation Modified source program Compiler

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Assembly language

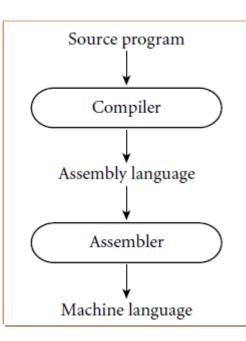
- Library of Routines and *Linking*
 - The compiler uses a *linker* program to merge the appropriate library of subroutines (e.g., math functions such as sin, cos, log, etc.) into the final

program:



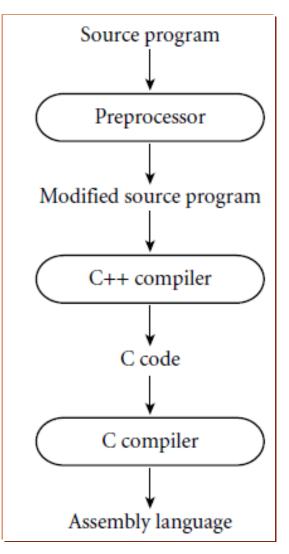
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- Post-compilation Assembly: the compiler's output is assembly instead of machine code
 - Facilitates debugging (assembly language easier for people to read)
 - Isolates the compiler from changes in the format of machine language files (only assembler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



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



- *Bootstrapping*: many compilers are self-hosting: they are written in the language they compile
 - •How does one compile the compiler in the first place?
 - One starts with a minimal subset of the language implementation—often an interpreter (which could be written in assembly language) to compile a core language (parsing, semantic analysis and execution).
 Then successively use this small implementation to compile expanded versions of the compiler.

• Bootstrapping:

- Assemblers were the first language tools to bootstrap themselves
- Java is a self-hosting compiler. So are: Basic, C, C++, C#, OCaml, Perl6, python, XSB.
- It is a form of dogfooding (Using your own product, *Eating your own dog food*)
 - The language is able to reproduce itself.
- Developers only need to know the language being compiled.
 - are also users of the language and part of bug-reporting
- Improvements to the compiler improve the compiler itself.

- Bootstrapping is related to *self-hosting*:
 - Ken Thompson started development on Unix in 1968 by writing the initial Unix kernel, a command interpreter, an editor, an assembler, and a few utilities on GE-635.
 - Then the Unix operating system became self-hosting: programs could be written and tested on Unix itself.
 - Development of the Linux kernel was initially hosted on a Minix system.
 - When sufficient packages, like GCC, GNU bash and other utilities are ported over, developers can work on new versions of Linux kernel based on older versions of itself (like building kernel 3.21 on a machine running kernel 3.18).

- Compilation of Interpreted Languages (e.g., python, Lisp):
 - Compilers exist for some interpreted languages, but they aren't pure:
 - selective compilation of compilable pieces and leave sophisticated language uses to an interpreter kept at runtime

- 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 sources into machine language, or to optimize the code for a particular input set (e.g., dynamic indexing in Prolog)

• Microcode

• Code written in low-level instructions (microcode or firmware), which are stored in read-only memory and executed by the hardware.

Unconventional compilers:

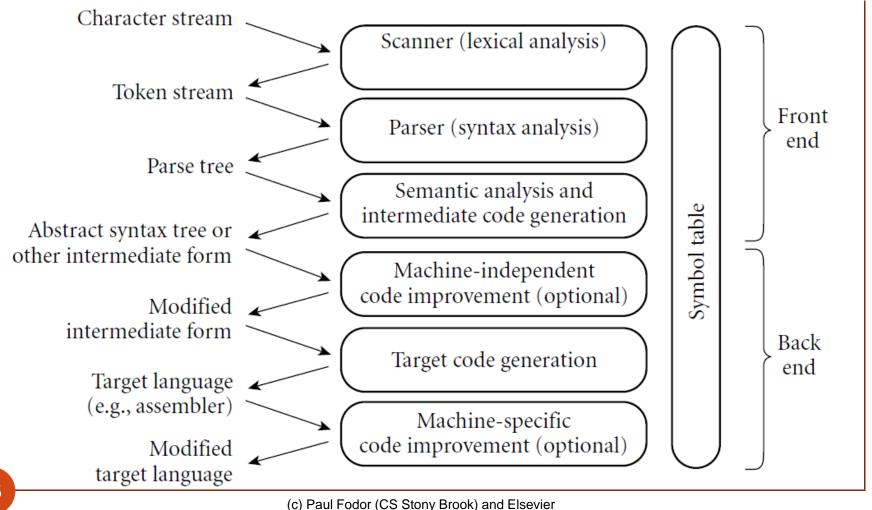
- text formatters: TEX/LaTex and troff are actually compilers
- silicon compilers: laser printers themselves incorporate interpreters for the Postscript page description language
- query language processors for database systems are also compilers: translate languages like SQL into primitive operations (e.g., tuple relational calculus and domain relational calculus)

Programming Environment Tools

- Compilers and interpreters do not exist in isolation
 - Programmers are assisted by tools and IDEs

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

An Overview of CompilationPhases of Compilation



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An Overview of Compilation

- *Scanning* is recognition of a regular language, e.g., via DFA (Deterministic finite automaton)
 - divides the program into "*tokens*", which are the smallest meaningful units; this saves time, since character-by-character processing is slow
 - you can design a parser to take characters instead of tokens as input, but it isn't pretty

An Overview of Compilation • Example, take the 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

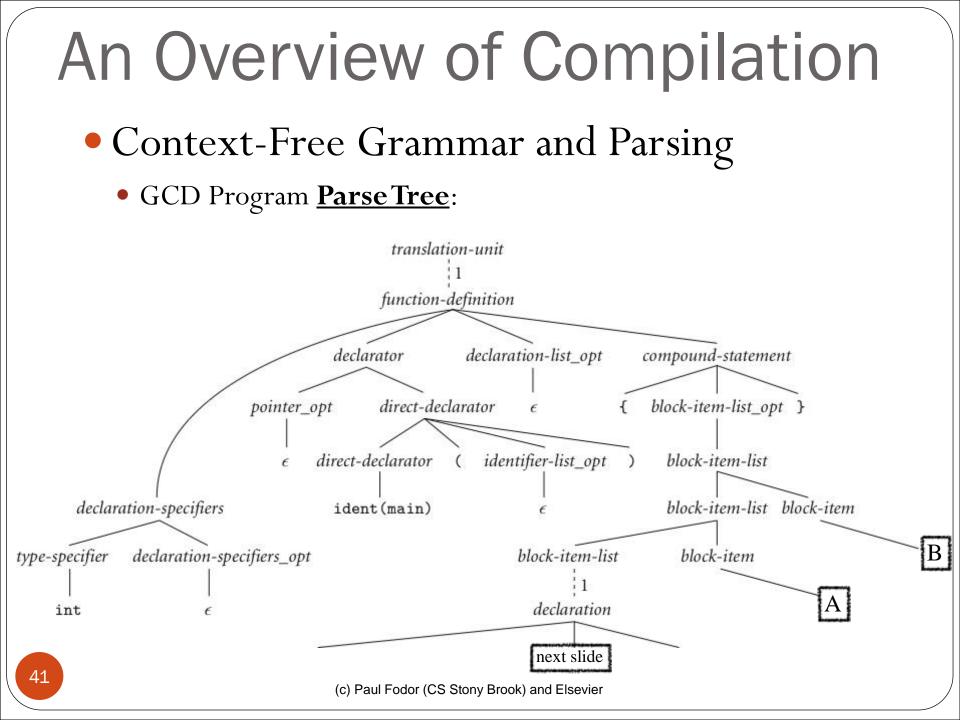
- GCD Program Tokens
 - <u>Scanning</u> (lexical analysis) and parsing recognize the structure of the program, groups characters into tokens, the smallest meaningful units of the program

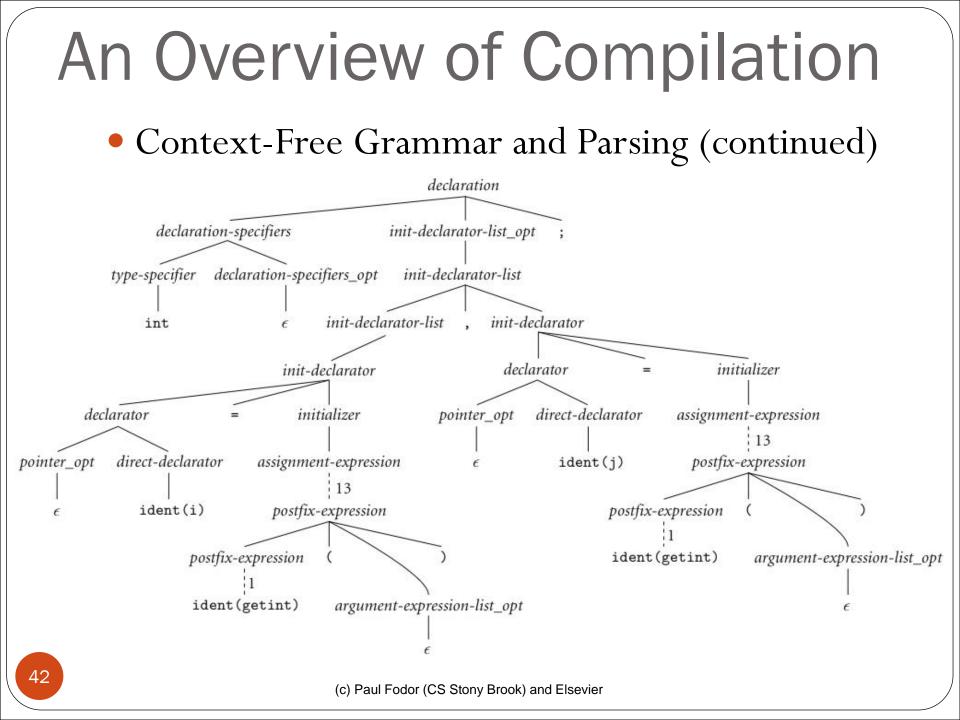
int	main	()	{								
int	i	=	getint	()	, j	=	8	getint	()	;
while	(i	!=	j)	{						
if	(i	>	j)	i	=	i	-		j	;
else }	j	=	j	-	i	;						
<pre>putint }</pre>	(i)	;								

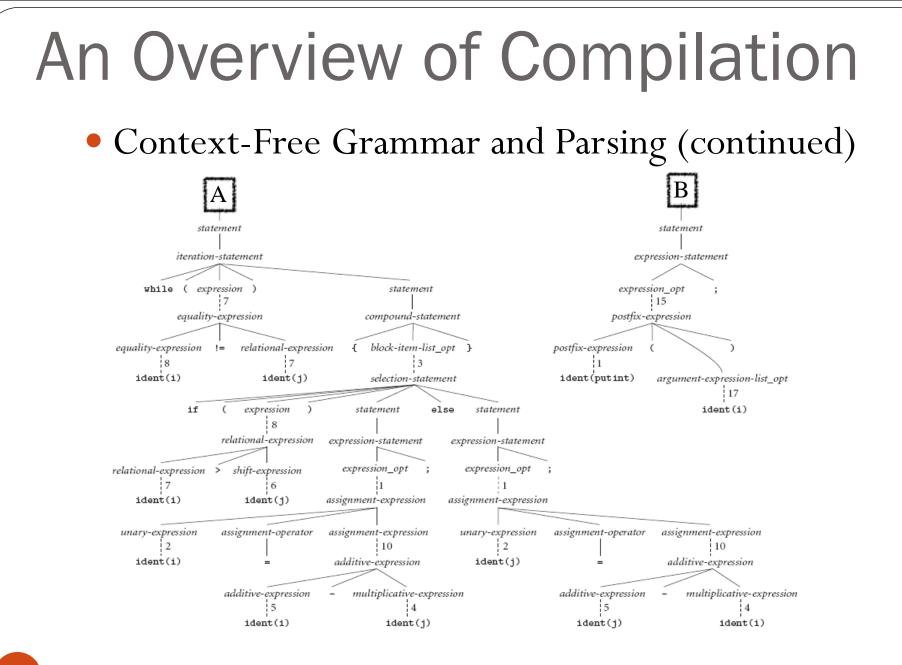
- *Parsing* is recognition of a context-free language, e.g., via PDA (Pushdown automaton)
 - Parsing discovers the "context free" structure of the program
 - Informally, it finds the structure you can describe with syntax diagrams (e.g., the "circles and arrows" in a language manual)

An Overview of Compilation Context-Free Grammar and Parsing • Grammar Example for while loops in C: *while-iteration-statement* \rightarrow *while (expression) statement* statement, in turn, is often a list enclosed in braces: $statement \rightarrow compound-statement$ *compound-statement* \rightarrow *{ block-item-list opt }* where block-item-list opt $\rightarrow block$ -item-list

or $block-item-list \ opt \rightarrow \epsilon$ and $block-item-list \rightarrow block-item$ $block-item-list \rightarrow block-item-list \ block-item$ $block-item \rightarrow declaration$ $block-item \rightarrow statement$ (C) Paul Fodor (CS Stony Brook) and Elsevier







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- *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.

An Overview of Compilation
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

• Semantic Analysis and Intermediate Code Generation

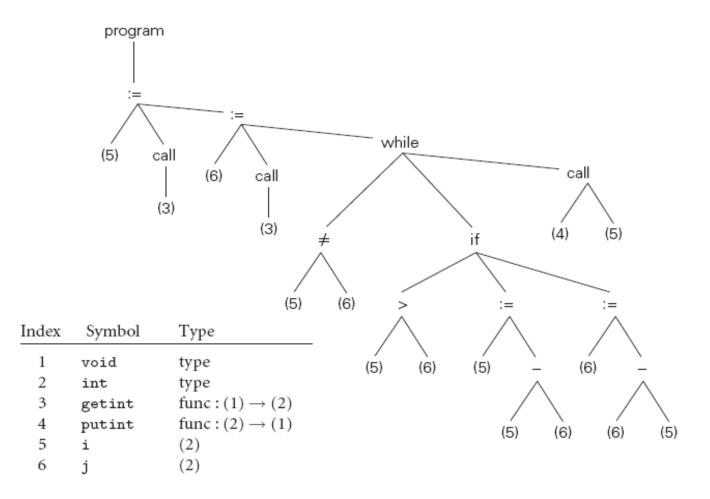
- Semantic analysis is the discovery of meaning in a program
 - tracks the types of both identifiers and expressions
 - builds and maintains a *symbol table* data structure that maps each identifier to the information known about it
 - context checking
 - Every identifier is declared before it is used
 - No identifier is used in an inappropriate context (e.g., adding a string to an integer)
 - Subroutine calls provide the correct number and types of arguments.
 - Labels on the arms of a switch statement are distinct constants.
 - Any function with a non-void return type returns a value explicitly

• Semantic analysis implementation

- *semantic action routines* are invoked by the parser when it realizes that it has reached a particular point within a grammar rule.
- Not all semantic rules can be checked at compile time: only the *static semantics* of the language
 - the *dynamic semantics* of the language must be checked at run time
 - Array subscript expressions lie within the bounds of the array
 - Arithmetic operations do not overflow

- Semantic Analysis and Intermediate Code Generation
 - The parse tree is very verbose: once we know that a token sequence is valid, much of the information in the parse tree is irrelevant to further phases of compilation
 - The semantic analyzer typically transforms the parse tree into an <u>abstract syntax tree</u> (AST or simply a syntax tree) by removing most of the "artificial" nodes in the tree's interior
 - The semantic analyzer also *annotates* the remaining nodes with useful information, such as pointers from identifiers to their symbol table entries
 - The annotations attached to a particular node are known as its *attributes* (c) Paul Fodor (CS Stony Brook) and Elsevier

An Overview of Compilation • <u>GCD Syntax Tree (AST)</u>



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- In many compilers, the annotated syntax tree constitutes the *intermediate form* that is passed from the front end to the back end.
- In other compilers, semantic analysis ends with a <u>traversal</u> of the tree that generates some other intermediate form
 - One common such form consists of a control flow graph whose nodes resemble fragments of assembly language for a simple idealized machine

- *Intermediate Form* (IF) is 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 <u>resemble machine code for some</u> <u>imaginary idealized machine</u>; e.g. a stack machine, or a machine with arbitrarily many registers
 - Many compilers actually move the code through more than one IF

• Target Code Generation:

- The code generation phase of a compiler translates the intermediate form into the <u>target language</u>
- To generate assembly or machine language, the code generator traverses the symbol table to assign locations to variables, and then traverses the intermediate representation of the program, generating loads and stores for variable references, interspersed with appropriate arithmetic operations, tests, and branches

• Target Code Generation:

• Naive x86 assembly language for the GCD program

	pushl movl subl	%ebp %esp, %ebp \$16, %esp	#	<pre>\) reserve space for local variables /</pre>
	call	getint	#	read
	movl	%eax, -8(%ebp)	#	store i
	call	getint	#	read
	movl	%eax, -12(%ebp)	#	store j
A:	movl	-8(%ebp), %edi	#	load i
	movl	-12(%ebp), %ebx	#	load j
	cmpl	%ebx, %edi	#	compare
	je	D	#	jump if i == j
	movl	-8(%ebp), %edi	#	load i
	movl	-12(%ebp), %ebx	#	load j
	cmpl	%ebx, %edi	#	compare
	jle	В	#	jump if i < j
	movl	-8(%ebp), %edi	#	load i
	movl	-12(%ebp), %ebx	#	load j
	subl	%ebx, %edi	#	i = i - j
	movl	%edi, -8(%ebp)	#	store i
	jmp	C		
B:	movl	-12(%ebp), %edi	#	load j
	movl	-8(%ebp), %ebx	#	load i
	subl	%ebx, %edi	#	j = j - i
	movl	%edi, -12(%ebp)	#	store j
C:	jmp	Α		
D:	movl	-8(%ebp), %ebx	#	load i
	push	%ebx	#	push i (pass to putint)
	call	putint	#	write
	addl	\$4, %esp	#	pop i
	leave		#	deallocate space for local variables
	mov	\$0, %eax	#	exit status for program
	ret		#	return to operating system

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- Some improvements are machine independent
- Other improvements require an understanding of the target machine
- Code improvement often appears as two phases of compilation, one immediately after semantic analysis and intermediate code generation, <u>the</u> <u>other immediately after target code generation</u>