Software Lesson 2 Outline

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Languages

- What is a language?
- Kinds of languages
  - *Natural* languages
  - *Programming* languages (also known as *Formal* languages)
- Converting between programming languages
  - *Compilers*
  - *Interpreters*
  - *Assemblers*
Ingredients of a Language

- **Symbols**: a set of **words** and **punctuation** (in computing, words and punctuation are collectively known as **tokens**)
- **Grammar** (also known as **syntax**): a set of rules for putting symbols together to get valid statements
- **Semantics**: a set of rules for interpreting the **meaning** of a grammatically valid statement
Kinds of Languages

- **Natural languages**: used in human communication
- **Programming languages** (also known as *formal languages*): used by computers (among others)
Natural Languages #1

- There are said to be 7000+ natural languages in the world: https://www.ethnologue.com/guides/how-many-languages

- Examples: English, Chinese, Swahili, Navajo, Quechua, Maori

- Typically can be described by formal rules (grammar), but often aren’t rigidly governed by these rules in everyday use:
  
  “Any noun can be verbed.”
  
  “I might could get me one o’ them there computers.”
Natural Languages #2

- Can mix words from different languages – and even syntax (elements of grammar) from different languages – in a single sentence:

  “Hey, amigo, is it all right by you if I kibbitz your pachisi game while we watch your anime?”
Natural Languages #3

- **Can be ambiguous:**
  
  “When did he say she was going?”
  
  could be interpreted as:
  
  - State the time at which he said, “She was going.”
  - According to him, at what time was she going?
Natural Languages #4

- Plenty of flexibility regarding “correctness;” for example, “ain’t,” split infinitives, ending a sentence with a preposition.

“That is something up with which I will not put.”
Programming Languages

- Examples: C, Java, HTML, Haskell, Prolog, SAS
- Also known as **formal languages**
- **Completely described** and **rigidly governed** by formal rules
- **Cannot mix** the words of multiple languages, or the syntax of multiple languages, in the same program
- **Cannot be ambiguous**
- Words and syntax must be **EXACTLY** correct in every way
## Natural Languages vs Programming Languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROPERTY</th>
<th>NAT’L</th>
<th>PROG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Completely described and <strong>rigidly governed</strong> by formal rules</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CAN</strong> mix the words of multiple languages, or the syntax of multiple languages, in the same program</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CAN</strong> be ambiguous</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words and syntax must be <strong>EXACTLY</strong> correct in every way</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Programming Language Hierarchy

- High Level Languages
- Assembly Languages
- Machine Languages
High Level Languages

- **Human-readable**
- Most are **standardized**, so they can be used on just about any kind of computer.
- Examples: C, Fortran 90, Java, HTML, Haskell, SAS
- Typically they are designed for a particular kind of application; for example:
  - C for operating system design
  - Fortran 90 for scientific & engineering applications
  - Java for embedded systems (originally designed for interactive TV)
  - HTML for hypertext (webpages)
  - SAS for statistics

But often, their uses in real life are broader their original purpose.
Assembly Languages

- **Human-readable**
- **Specific to a particular CPU family**; for example:
  - Intel/AMD x86 (PC)
  - ARM (handhelds such as cell phones and tablets)
  - IBM POWER (big IBM machines)

So, for example, a program in x86 assembly language cannot be directly run on a POWER or ARM machine.

- **Set of simple commands**; for example:
  - Load a value from a location in main memory
  - Add two numbers
  - Branch to an instruction out of sequence
Machine Languages

- **Not human-readable**, except with immense effort
- Binary code that the CPU family understands directly
- Binary representation of the CPU family’s assembly language
Converting Between Languages

Compilers, interpreters and assemblers are programs that convert human-readable source code into machine-readable executable code.
Compiler

- Converts a human-readable high level language source code of a program into a machine language \textit{executable} program
- Converts an entire source code all at once
- Must be done before executing the program
- Examples: Fortran, C, C++, Pascal
Interpreter

- Converts a human-readable high level language source code into actions that are immediately performed
- Converts and executes one statement at a time
- Conversion and execution alternate
- Examples: Perl, HTML, SAS, Mathematica, Unix “shell” (interactive system within Unix)
Assembler

- Converts a human-readable CPU-specific *assembly code* into CPU-specific, non-human-readable *machine language*

- Like a compiler, but for a low level assembly language instead of a high level language
Our Old Friend hello_world.c

```c
/*
  ********************************************
  *** Program: hello_world              ***
  *** Author: Henry Neeman (hneeman@ou.edu) ***
  *** Course: CS 1313 010 Spring 2019      ***
  *** Lab: Sec 013 Fridays 2:00pm          ***
  *** Description: Prints the sentence     ***
  *** "Hello, world!" to standard output. ***
  *********************************************/

#include <stdio.h>

int main ()
{
    printf("Hello, world!\n");
}
```

% `cat hello_world.c`

% `gcc -o hello_world hello_world.c`

% `hello_world`

Hello, world!
Compiler Details

```
gcc -o hello_world hello_world.c
```

*C Source Code: hello_world.c*

Automatically invoked by compiler

**C Preprocessor**

**Compiler**

*Assembly Code: hello_world.s*

Automatically invoked by compiler

**Assembler**

**Object File: hello_world.o**

**Linker/Loader**

*Executable: hello_world*
Compiler Details (cont’d)

`gcc -o hello_world hello_world.c`

C Source Code: `hello_world.c`

C Preprocessor

Automatically invoked by compiler

Compiler

 Lexical Analysis

 Parsing

 Semantic Analysis

 Intermediate Code Generation

 Optimization

 Assembly Code Generation

 Assembly Code: `hello_world.s`

 Assembler

 Automatically invoked by compiler

 Object File: `hello_world.o`

 Linker/Loader

 Executable: `hello_world`
Elements of a Compiler #1

- **Lexical Analyzer**: identifies program’s “word” elements:
  - **Keywords** (for example, `int`, `while`)
  - **Constants** (for example, `5`, `0.725`, "Hello, world!")
  - User-defined **Identifiers** (for example, `addend`)
- **Operators**: for example:
  - Arithmetic: `+` `-` `*` `/` `%`
  - Relational: `==` `!=` `<` `<=` `>` `>=`
  - Logical: `&&` `||` `!`
Elements of a Compiler #2

- **Parser**: determines the program’s grammar
- **Semantic Analyzer**: determines what the program does
- **Intermediate Code Generator**: expresses, as an assembly-like program, what the program does
- **Optimizer**: makes code more efficient (faster)
- **Assembly Code Generator**: produces the final assembly code that represents what the program does
Phases of Compiling

- Compiler
- **Assembler**: turns assembly code into machine code
- **Linker/loader**: turns machine code into an *executable* file

Both the assembler and the linker/loader are invoked automatically by the compiler, so *you don’t have to worry about them.*
Compiling a C Statement

```
sum = a + b;
```

Lexical Analysis

```
IDENTIFIER[sum] ASSIGN IDENTIFIER[a] PLUS IDENTIFIER[b]
```

Parsing

```
ASSIGN
```

```
VARIABLE EXPRESSION
```

```
ADD
```

```
VARIABLE VARIABLE
```

Semantic Analysis

```
ASSIGN(VARIABLE[sum], ADDITION(VARIABLE[a], VARIABLE[b]))
```

Intermediate Code Generation

```
Load R00 from a
Load R01 from b
R02 = R00 + R01
Store R02 into sum
```

Assembly Code Generation

```
ld r00,a
ld r01,b
ad r02,r00,r01
st r02,sum
```
Assembly Code for \texttt{hello\_world.c} #1

On Pentium4 Using \texttt{gcc}

\begin{verbatim}
pushl %ebp
movl %esp, %ebp
subl $8, %esp
subl $12, %esp
pushl $.LC0
call printf
addl $16, %esp
leave
ret
\end{verbatim}

On IBM POWER4 Using \texttt{gcc}

\begin{verbatim}
mflr 0
stw 31,-4(1)
stw 0,8(1)
stwu 1,-64(1)
mr 31,1
lwz 3,LC..1(2)
bl .printf
nop
lwz 1,0(1)
lwz 0,8(1)
mtlr 0
lwz 31,-4(1)
blr
\end{verbatim}

Different \textit{opcodes}!
Assembly Code for **hello_world.c** #2

On Pentium4 Using **gcc** (GNU compiler)

```
pushl  %ebp
movl  %esp, %ebp
subl  $8,  %esp
subl  $12, %esp
pushl $._LC0
call printf
addl $16, %esp
leave
ret
```

On Pentium4 Using **icc** (Intel compiler)

```
pushl  %ebp
movl  %esp, %ebp
subl  $3,  %esp
andl  $-8, %esp
addl  $4,  %esp
push  $__STRING.0
call printf
xorl  %eax, %eax
popl  %ecx
movl  %ebp, %esp
popl  %ebp
ret
```

Different sequences of instructions!
Machine Code for `hello_world.c`

10111101010100010101011110101001
10111010101000010101101011101000
01110101010000101011010111010001
01010100101010101101010101011010

...
How to Program in Machine Language Directly

1. Write the assembly code for the program directly by hand; that is, not in a high level language.

2. For each assembly language instruction, look up the bit pattern of the associated machine code.

3. On the computer console, flip switches to match the bit pattern of the machine code.

4. Press the “Run” button.

On modern computers, programming directly in machine language is just about impossible.
Why Not Do Everything in Machine Language?

Incredibly tedious and ridiculously error-prone!

Fun and easy!
Not nearly as tedious or error-prone!
Why Not Do Everything in Assembly Language?

Can’t be run on any other kind of computer. May be completely obsolete in a few years.

Portable to many kinds of computers. Will still be usable in 20 years ("legacy" codes).
The Programming Process

Formulate Problem

Construct Algorithm

Choose Programming Language

Write Program

Compile

Bugs?

Yes

Debug

Bugs?

No

Run

Bugs?

Yes

No

Get an A/Impress Your Boss/Sell for Zillions!
What is an Algorithm?

An **algorithm** is:
- a step-by-step method
- that is written in a natural language (for example, English) or in **pseudocode** (something that sort of looks like a programming language but isn’t as precise), instead of in a programming language,
- that solves a well-defined (though not necessarily useful) problem,
- on a well-defined set of inputs (which may be empty),
- using finite **resources** (for example, computing time and storage),
- and that produces a well-defined set of outputs (which may be empty).
Algorithms

An algorithm is a language-independent way of expressing the method of solving a problem; that is, an algorithm could be expressed in two different languages (for example, English and Japanese) and still be the same algorithm.

A program, by contrast, is a language-dependent implementation of the method of solving a problem; that is, the same set of steps expressed in two different programming languages would be two different programs, even if the two programs accomplished exactly the same result.

Many programs, but not all, implement algorithms.

Programs that don’t implement algorithms often implement heuristics, which typically are inexact but good enough.

The word “algorithm” comes from the name of the 9th century mathematician, Muhammad ibn Musa al-Khwarizmi.
Algorithm Example: Eating a Bowl of Corn Flakes

- Get bowl from cupboard
- Get spoon from drawer
- Get box of corn flakes from pantry
- Get jug of milk from refrigerator
- Place bowl, spoon, corn flakes and milk on table
- Open box of corn flakes
- Pour corn flakes from box into bowl
- Open jug of milk
- Pour milk from jug into bowl
- Close jug of milk
- Go to table
- Pick up spoon

- Repeat until bowl is empty of corn flakes
  - Using spoon, pick up corn flakes and milk from bowl
  - Put spoon with corn flakes and milk into mouth
  - Pull spoon from mouth, leaving corn flakes and milk
  - Repeat ...
    - Chew
    - ... until mouthful is mush
    - Swallow

- Leave mess for housemates to clean up
Top-Down Design

Algorithms for most non-trivial problems tend to be fairly complicated.

As a result, it may be difficult to march from an algorithm’s beginning to its end in a straight line, because there may be too many details to keep in your head all at one time.

Instead, you can use a technique called *top-down design*: start with the whole problem, then break it into a few pieces, then break each of those pieces into a few pieces, then break each of those pieces into a few pieces, and so on, until each piece is pretty small.
Eating Cornflakes: Top Level

- Get stuff
- Transport stuff
- Set up stuff
- Eat
- Finish