= d can be shortened to a > b AND c OR =

d . As a consequence of this English @-@ like syntax , COBOL has over 300 keywords . Some of the keywords are simple alternative or pluralized spellings of the same word , which provides for more English @-@ like statements and clauses ; e.g. , the IN and OF keywords can be used interchangeably , as can IS and ARE , and VALUE and VALUES .

Each COBOL program is made up of four basic lexical items: words, literals, picture character @-@ strings (see § PICTURE clause) and separators. Words include reserved words and user @-@ defined identifiers. They are up to 31 characters long and may include letters, digits, hyphens and underscores. Literals include numerals (e.g. 12) and strings (e.g. 'Hello!'). Separators include the space character and commas and semi @-@ colons followed by a space.

A COBOL program is split into four divisions: the identification division, the environment division, the data division and the procedure division. The identification division specifies the name and type of the source element and is where classes and interfaces are specified. The environment division specifies any program features that depend on the system running it, such as files and character sets. The data division is used to declare variables and parameters. The procedure division contains the program 's statements. Each division is sub @-@ divided into sections, which are made up of paragraphs.

```
= = = Code format = = =
```

COBOL can be written in two formats: fixed (the default) or free. In fixed @-@ format, code must be aligned to fit in certain areas. Until COBOL 2002, these were:

In COBOL 2002, Areas A and B were merged and extended to column 255, and the program name area was removed.

COBOL 2002 also introduced free @-@ format code . Free @-@ format code can be placed in any column of the file , as in newer programming languages . Comments are specified using $^* >$, which can be placed anywhere and can also be used in fixed @-@ format source code . Continuation lines are not present , and the > > PAGE directive replaces the / indicator .

```
= = = Identification division = = =
```

The identification division identifies the following code entity and contains the definition of a class or interface.

```
= = = Object @-@ oriented programming = = = =
```

Classes and interfaces have been in COBOL since 2002. Classes have factory objects, containing class methods and variables, and instance objects, containing instance methods and variables. Inheritance and interfaces provide polymorphism. Support for generic programming is provided through parameterized classes, which can be instantiated to use any class or interface. Objects are stored as references which may be restricted to a certain type. There are two ways of calling a method: the INVOKE statement, which acts similarly to CALL, or through inline method invocation, which is analogous to using functions.

COBOL does not provide a way to hide methods. Class data can be hidden, however, by declaring it without a PROPERTY clause, which leaves the user with no way to access it. Method overloading was added in COBOL 2014.

```
= = = Environment division = = =
```

The environment division contains the configuration section and the input @-@ output section. The configuration section is used to specify variable features such as currency signs, locales and character sets. The input @-@ output section contains file @-@ related information.

COBOL supports three file formats , or organizations : sequential , indexed and relative . In sequential files , records are contiguous and must be traversed sequentially , similarly to a linked list . Indexed files have one or more indexes which allow records to be randomly accessed and which can be sorted on them . Each record must have a unique key , but other , alternate , record keys need not be unique . Implementations of indexed files vary between vendors , although common implementations , such as C ? ISAM and VSAM , are based on IBM 's ISAM . Relative files , like indexed files , have a unique record key , but they do not have alternate keys . A relative record 's key is its ordinal position ; for example , the 10th record has a key of 10 . This means that creating a record with a key of 5 may require the creation of (empty) preceding records . Relative files also allow for both sequential and random access .

A common non @-@ standard extension is the line sequential organization, used to process text files. Records in a file are terminated by a newline and may be of varying length.

= = = Data division = = =

The data division is split into six sections which declare different items: the file section, for file records; the working @-@ storage section, for static variables; the local @-@ storage section, for automatic variables; the linkage section, for parameters and the return value; the report section and the screen section, for text @-@ based user interfaces.

```
= = = Aggregated data = = =
```

Data items in COBOL are declared hierarchically through the use of level @-@ numbers which indicate if a data item is part of another . An item with a higher level @-@ number is subordinate to an item with a lower one . Top @-@ level data items , with a level @-@ number of 1 , are called records . Items that have subordinate aggregate data are called group items ; those that do not are called elementary items . Level @-@ numbers used to describe standard data items are between 1 and 49 .

In the above example, elementary item num and group item the @-@ date are subordinate to the record some @-@ record, while elementary items the @-@ year, the @-@ month, and the @-@ day are part of the group item the @-@ date.

Subordinate items can be disambiguated with the IN (or OF) keyword . For example , consider the example code above along with the following example :

The names the @-@ year , the @-@ month , and the @-@ day are ambiguous by themselves , since more than one data item is defined with those names . To specify a particular data item , for instance one of the items contained within the sale @-@ date group , the programmer would use the @-@ year IN sale @-@ date (or the equivalent the @-@ year OF sale @-@ date) . (This syntax is similar to the " dot notation " supported by most contemporary languages .)

```
= = = Other data levels = = =
```

A level @-@ number of 66 is used to declare a re @-@ grouping of previously defined items , irrespective of how those items are structured . This data level , also referred to by the associated RENAMES clause , is rarely used and , circa 1988 , was usually found in old programs . Its ability to ignore the hierarchical and logical structure data meant its use was not recommended and many installations forbade its use .

A 77 level @-@ number indicates the item is stand @-@ alone , and in such situations is equivalent to the level @-@ number 01 . For example , the following code declares two 77 @-@ level data items , property @-@ name and sales @-@ region , which are non @-@ group data items that are independent of (not subordinate to) any other data items :

An 88 level @-@ number declares a condition name (a so @-@ called 88 @-@ level) which is

true when its parent data item contains one of the values specified in it VALUE clause . For example , the following code defines two 88 @-@ level condition @-@ name items that are true or false depending on the current character data value of the wage @-@ type data item . When the data item contains a value of ' H ' , the condition @-@ name wage @-@ is @-@ hourly is true , whereas when it contains a value of ' S ' or ' Y ' , the condition @-@ name wage @-@ is @-@ yearly is true . If the data item contains some other value , both of the condition @-@ names are false .

= = = Data types = = =

Standard COBOL provides the following data types:

Type safety is variable in COBOL. Numeric data is converted between different representations and sizes silently and alphanumeric data can be placed in any data item that can be stored as a string, including numeric and group data. In contrast, object references and pointers may only be assigned from items of the same type and their values may be restricted to a certain type.

= = = = = PICTURE clause = = = = =

A PICTURE (or PIC) clause is a string of characters , each of which represents a portion of the data item and what it may contain . Some picture characters specify the type of the item and how many characters or digits it occupies in memory . For example , a 9 indicates a decimal digit , and an S indicates that the item is signed . Other picture characters (called insertion and editing characters) specify how an item should be formatted . For example , a series of + characters define character positions as well as how a leading sign character is to be positioned within the final character data ; the rightmost non @-@ numeric character will contain the item 's sign , while other character positions corresponding to a + to the left of this position will contain a space . Repeated characters can be specified more concisely by specifying a number in parentheses after a picture character ; for example , 9 (7) is equivalent to 9999999 . Picture specifications containing only digit (9) and sign (S) characters define purely numeric data items , while picture specifications containing alphabetic (A) or alphanumeric (X) characters define alphanumeric data items . The presence of other formatting characters define edited numeric or edited alphanumeric data items .

= = = = USAGE clause = = = = =

The USAGE clause declares the format data is stored in . Depending on the data type , it can either complement or be used instead of a PICTURE clause . While it can be used to declare pointers and object references , it is mostly geared towards specifying numeric types . These numeric formats are

Binary, where a minimum size is either specified by the PICTURE clause or by a USAGE clause such as BINARY @-@ LONG.

USAGE COMPUTATIONAL, where data may be stored in whatever format the implementation provides; often equivalent to USAGE BINARY

USAGE DISPLAY, the default format, where data is stored as a string

Floating @-@ point , in either an implementation @-@ dependent format or according to IEEE 754

USAGE NATIONAL, where data is stored as a string using an extended character set USAGE PACKED @-@ DECIMAL, where data is stored in the smallest possible decimal format (typically packed binary @-@ coded decimal)

= = = Report writer = = =

The report writer is a declarative facility for creating reports . The programmer need only specify the report layout and the data required to produce it , freeing them from having to write code to handle things like page breaks , data formatting , and headings and footings .

Reports are associated with report files, which are files which may only be written to through report writer statements.

Each report is defined in the report section of the data division . A report is split into report groups which define the report 's headings , footings and details . Reports work around hierarchical control breaks . Control breaks occur when a key variable changes it value ; for example , when creating a report detailing customers ' orders , a control break could occur when the program reaches a different customer 's orders . Here is an example report description for a report which gives a salesperson 's sales and which warns of any invalid records :

The above report description describes the following layout:

Sales Report Page 1

Seller: Howard Bromberg

Sales on 10 / 12 / 2008 were \$ 1000 @.@ 00

Sales on 12 / 12 / 2008 were \$ 0 @.@ 00

Sales on 13 / 12 / 2008 were \$ 31 @.@ 47

INVALID RECORD: Howard Bromberg XXXXYY

Seller: Howard Discount

...

Sales Report Page 12

Sales on 08 / 05 / 2014 were \$ 543 @.@ 98

INVALID RECORD: William Selden 12052014F00F00

Sales on 30 / 05 / 2014 were \$ 0 @.@ 00

Four statements control the report writer: INITIATE, which prepares the report writer for printing; GENERATE, which prints a report group; SUPPRESS, which suppresses the printing of a report group; and TERMINATE, which terminates report processing. For the above sales report example, the procedure division might look like this:

= = = Procedure division = = =

= = = = Procedures = = =

The sections and paragraphs in the procedure division (collectively called procedures) can be used as labels and as simple subroutines. Unlike in other divisions, paragraphs do not need to be in sections. Execution goes down through the procedures of a program until it is terminated. To use procedures as subroutines, the PERFORM verb is used. This transfers control to the specified range of procedures and returns only upon reaching the end.

Unusual control flow can trigger mines, which cause control in performed procedures to return at unexpected times to unexpected locations. Procedures can be reached in three ways: they can be called with PERFORM, jumped to from a GO TO or through execution "falling through "the bottom of an above paragraph. Combinations of these invoke undefined behavior, creating mines. Specifically, mines occur when execution of a range of procedures would cause control flow to go past the last statement of a range of procedures already being performed.

For example , in the code in the adjacent image , a mine is tripped at the end of update @-@ screen when the screen is invalid . When the screen is invalid , control jumps to the fix @-@ screen section , which , when done , performs update @-@ screen . This recursion triggers undefined behavior as there are now two overlapping ranges of procedures being performed . The mine is then triggered upon reaching the end of update @-@ screen and means control could return to one of two locations :

The first PERFORM statement

The PERFORM statement in fix @-@ screen, where it would then " fall @-@ through " into update @-@ screen and return to the first PERFORM statement upon reaching the end.

```
= = = = Statements = = =
```

COBOL 2014 has 47 statements (also called verbs) , which can be grouped into the following broad categories : control flow , I / O , data manipulation and the report writer . The report writer statements are covered in the report writer section .

= = = = Control flow = = = =

COBOL 's conditional statements are IF and EVALUATE . EVALUATE is a switch @-@ like statement with the added capability of evaluating multiple values and conditions . This can be used to implement decision tables . For example , the following might be used to control a CNC lathe :

The PERFORM statement is used to define loops which are executed until a condition is true (not while , unlike other languages) . It is also used to call procedures or ranges of procedures (see the procedures section for more details) . CALL and INVOKE call subprograms and methods , respectively . The name of the subprogram / method is contained in a string which may be a literal or a data item . Parameters can be passed by reference , by content (where a copy is passed by reference) or by value (but only if a prototype is available) . CANCEL unloads subprograms from memory . GO TO causes the program to jump to a specified procedure .

The GOBACK statement is a return statement and the STOP statement stops the program. The EXIT statement has six different formats: it can be used as a return statement, a break statement, a continue statement, an end marker or to leave a procedure.

Exceptions are raised by a RAISE statement and caught with a handler , or declarative , defined in the DECLARATIVES portion of the procedure division . Declaratives are sections beginning with a USE statement which specify the errors to handle . Exceptions can be names or objects . RESUME is used in a declarative to jump to the statement after the one that raised the exception or to a procedure outside the DECLARATIVES . Unlike other languages , uncaught exceptions may not terminate the program and the program can proceed unaffected .

= = = = = I / O = = = = = =

File I / O is handled by the self @-@ describing OPEN, CLOSE, READ, and WRITE statements along with a further three: REWRITE, which updates a record; START, which selects subsequent records to access by finding a record with a certain key; and UNLOCK, which releases a lock on the last record accessed.

User interaction is done using ACCEPT and DISPLAY.

= = = = Data manipulation = = = =

The following verbs manipulate data:

INITIALIZE, which sets data items to their default values.

MOVE, which assigns values to data items.

SET, which has 15 formats: it can modify indices, assign object references and alter table capacities, among other functions.

ADD, SUBTRACT, MULTIPLY, DIVIDE, and COMPUTE, which handle arithmetic (with COMPUTE assigning the result of a formula to a variable).

ALLOCATE and FREE, which handle dynamic memory.

VALIDATE, which validates and distributes data as specified in an item 's description in the data division

STRING and UNSTRING, which concatenate and split strings, respectively.

INSPECT, which tallies or replaces instances of specified substrings within a string.

SEARCH, which searches a table for the first entry satisfying a condition.

Files and tables are sorted using SORT and the MERGE verb merges and sorts files. The RELEASE verb provides records to sort and RETURN retrieves sorted records in order.

```
= = = = Scope termination = = = =
```

Some statements , such as IF and READ , may themselves contain statements . Such statements may be terminated in two ways : by a period (implicit termination) , which terminates all unterminated statements contained , or by a scope terminator , which terminates the nearest matching open statement .

Nested statements terminated with a period are a common source of bugs . For example , examine the following code :

Here, the intent is to display y and z if condition x is true. However, z will be displayed whatever the value of x because the IF statement is terminated by an erroneous period after DISPLAY y.

Another bug is a result of the dangling else problem , when two IF statements can associate with an ELSE .

In the above fragment, the ELSE associates with the IF y statement instead of the IF x statement, causing a bug. Prior to the introduction of explicit scope terminators, preventing it would require ELSE NEXT SENTENCE to be placed after the inner IF.

```
= = = = Self @-@ modifying code = = =
```

The original (1959) COBOL specification supported the infamous ALTER X TO PROCEED TO Y statement, for which many compilers generated self @-@ modifying code. X and Y are procedure labels, and the single GO TO statement in procedure X executed after such an ALTER statement means GO TO Y instead. Many compilers still support it, but it was deemed obsolete in the COBOL 1985 standard and deleted in 2002.

```
= = = Hello , world = = = 
A " Hello , world " program in COBOL : 
= = = = HELLO , WORLD = = = =
```

When the ? now famous ? " Hello , World ! " program example in The C Programming Language was first published in 1978 a similar mainframe COBOL program sample would have been submitted through JCL , very likely using a punch card reader , and 80 column punch cards . The listing below , with an empty DATA DIVISION , was tested using GNU / Linux and the System / 370 Hercules emulator running MVS 3.8J. The JCL , written in July 2015 , is derived from the Hercules tutorials and samples hosted by Jay Moseley . In keeping with COBOL programming of that era , HELLO , WORLD is displayed in all capital letters .

After submitting the JCL, the MVS console displayed:

Line 10 of the console listing above is highlighted for effect, the highlighting is not part of the actual console output.

The associated compiler listing generated over four pages of technical detail and job run information, for the single line of output from the 14 lines of COBOL.

```
= = Criticism and defense = = = = = Lack of structure = = = =
```

In the 1970s , programmers began moving away from unstructured spaghetti code to the structured programming paradigm . In his letter to an editor in 1975 entitled " How do we tell truths that might hurt?" which was critical of several of COBOL 's contemporaries, computer scientist and Turing Award recipient Edsger Dijkstra remarked that " The use of COBOL cripples the mind; its teaching should, therefore, be regarded as a criminal offense. " In his dissenting response to Dijkstra 's

article and the above " offensive statement , " computer scientist Howard E. Tompkins defended structured COBOL : " COBOL programs with convoluted control flow indeed tend to ' cripple the mind ' , " but this was because " There are too many such business application programs written by programmers that have never had the benefit of structured COBOL taught well ... "

One cause of spaghetti code was the GO TO statement . Attempts to remove GO TOs from COBOL code , however , resulted in convoluted programs and reduced code quality . GO TOs were largely replaced by the PERFORM statement and procedures , which promoted modular programming and gave easy access to powerful looping facilities . However , PERFORM could only be used with procedures so loop bodies were not located where they were used , making programs harder to understand .

COBOL programs were infamous for being monolithic and lacking modularization . COBOL code could only be modularized through procedures , which were found to be inadequate for large systems . It was impossible to restrict access to data , meaning a procedure could access and modify any data item . Furthermore , there was no way to pass parameters to a procedure , an omission Jean Sammet regarded as the committee 's biggest mistake . Another complication stemmed from the ability to PERFORM THRU a specified sequence of procedures . This meant that control could jump to and return from any procedure , creating convoluted control flow and permitting a programmer to break the single @-@ entry single @-@ exit rule .

This situation improved as COBOL adopted more features. COBOL @-@ 74 added subprograms, giving programmers the ability to control the data each part of the program could access. COBOL @-@ 85 then added nested subprograms, allowing programmers to hide subprograms. Further control over data and code came in 2002 when object @-@ oriented programming, user @-@ defined functions and user @-@ defined data types were included.

Nevertheless, much important legacy COBOL software uses unstructured code, which has become unmaintainable. It can be too risky and costly to modify even a simple section of code, since it may be used from unknown places in unknown ways.

= = = Compatibility issues = = =

COBOL was intended to be a highly portable, "common "language. However, by 2001, around 300 dialects had been created. One source of dialects was the standard itself: the 1974 standard was composed of one mandatory nucleus and eleven funtional modules, each containing two or three levels of support. This permitted 104 @,@ 976 official variants.

COBOL @-@ 85 was not fully compatible with earlier versions, and its development was controversial. Joseph T. Brophy, the CIO of Travelers Insurance, spearheaded an effort to inform COBOL users of the heavy reprogramming costs of implementing the new standard. As a result, the ANSI COBOL Committee received more than 2 @,@ 200 letters from the public, mostly negative, requiring the committee to make changes. On the other hand, conversion to COBOL @-@ 85 was thought to increase productivity in future years, thus justifying the conversion costs.

= = = Verbose syntax = = =

COBOL syntax has often been criticized for its verbosity . Proponents say that this was intended to make the code self @-@ documenting , easing program maintenance . COBOL was also intended to be easy for programmers to learn and use , while still being readable to non @-@ technical staff such as managers . The desire for readability led to the use of English @-@ like syntax and structural elements , such as nouns , verbs , clauses , sentences , sections , and divisions . Yet by 1984 , maintainers of COBOL programs were struggling to deal with " incomprehensible " code and the main changes in COBOL @-@ 85 were there to help ease maintenance .

Jean Sammet , a short @-@ range committee member , noted that " little attempt was made to cater to the professional programmer , in fact people whose main interest is programming tend to be very unhappy with COBOL " which she attributed to COBOL 's verbose syntax .

The COBOL community has always been isolated from the computer science community . No academic computer scientists participated in the design of COBOL : all of those on the committee came from commerce or government . Computer scientists at the time were more interested in fields like numerical analysis , physics and system programming than the commercial file @-@ processing problems which COBOL development tackled . Jean Sammet attributed COBOL 's unpopularity to an initial " snob reaction " due to its inelegance , the lack of influential computer scientists participating in the design process and a disdain for business data processing . The COBOL specification used a unique " notation " , or metalanguage , to define its syntax rather than the new Backus ? Naur form because few committee members had heard of it . This resulted in " severe " criticism .

Later , COBOL suffered from a shortage of material covering it ; it took until 1963 for introductory books to appear (with Richard D. Irwin publishing a college textbook on COBOL in 1966) . By 1985 , there were twice as many books on Fortran and four times as many on BASIC as on COBOL in the Library of Congress . University professors taught more modern , state @-@ of @-@ the @-@ art languages and techniques instead of COBOL which was said to have a " trade school " nature . Donald Nelson , chair of the CODASYL COBOL committee , said in 1984 that " academics ... hate COBOL " and that computer science graduates " had ' hate COBOL ' drilled into them " . A 2013 poll by Micro Focus found that 20 % of university academics thought COBOL was outdated or dead and that 55 % believed their students thought COBOL was outdated or dead . The same poll also found that only 25 % of academics had COBOL programming on their curriculum even though 60 % thought they should teach it . In contrast , in 2003 , COBOL featured in 80 % of information systems curricula in the United States , the same proportion as C + + and Java .

= = = Concerns about the design process = = =

Doubts have been raised about the competence of the standards committee . Short @-@ term committee member Howard Bromberg said that there was " little control " over the development process and that it was " plagued by discontinuity of personnel and ... a lack of talent . " Jean Sammet and Jerome Garfunkel also noted that changes introduced in one revision of the standard would be reverted in the next , due as much to changes in who was in the standard committee as to objective evidence .

COBOL standards have repeatedly suffered from delays: COBOL @-@ 85 arrived five years later than hoped, COBOL 2002 was five years late, and COBOL 2014 was six years late. To combat delays, the standard committee allowed the creation of optional addenda which would add features more quickly than by waiting for the next standard revision. However, some committee members raised concerns about incompatibilities between implementations and frequent modifications of the standard.

= = = Influences on other languages = = =

COBOL 's data structures influenced subsequent programming languages . Its record and file structure influenced PL / I and Pascal , and the REDEFINES clause was a predecessor to Pascal 's variant records . Explicit file structure definitions preceded the development of database management systems and aggregated data was a significant advance over Fortran 's arrays .

COBOL 's COPY facility, although considered " primitive ", influenced the development of include directives.

The focus on portability and standardization meant programs written in COBOL could be portable and facilitated the spread of the language to a wide variety of hardware platforms and operating systems. Additionally, the well @-@ defined division structure restricts the definition of external references to the Environment Division, which simplifies platform changes in particular.