

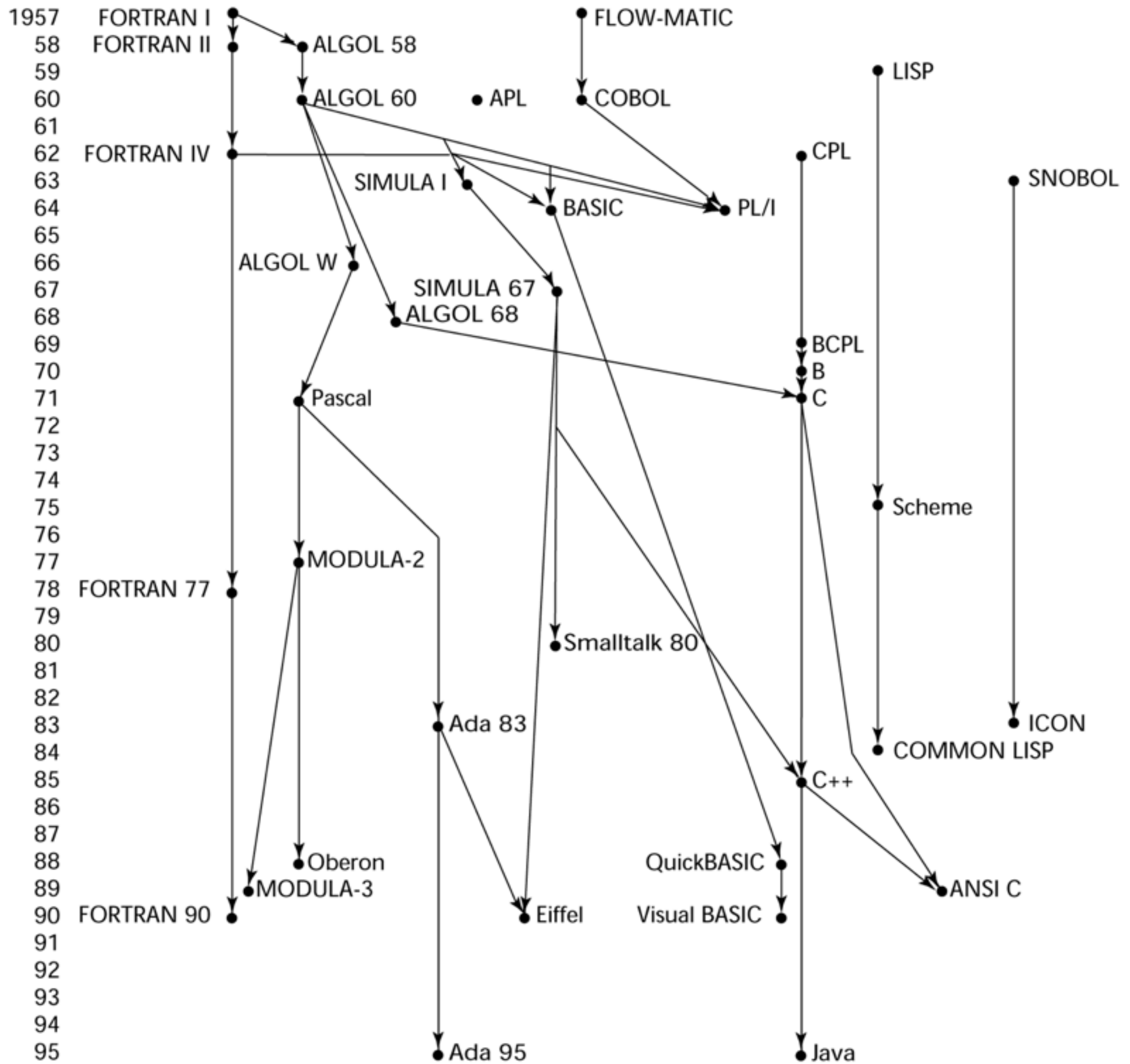
History of Programming Languages

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Programming Design Methodology

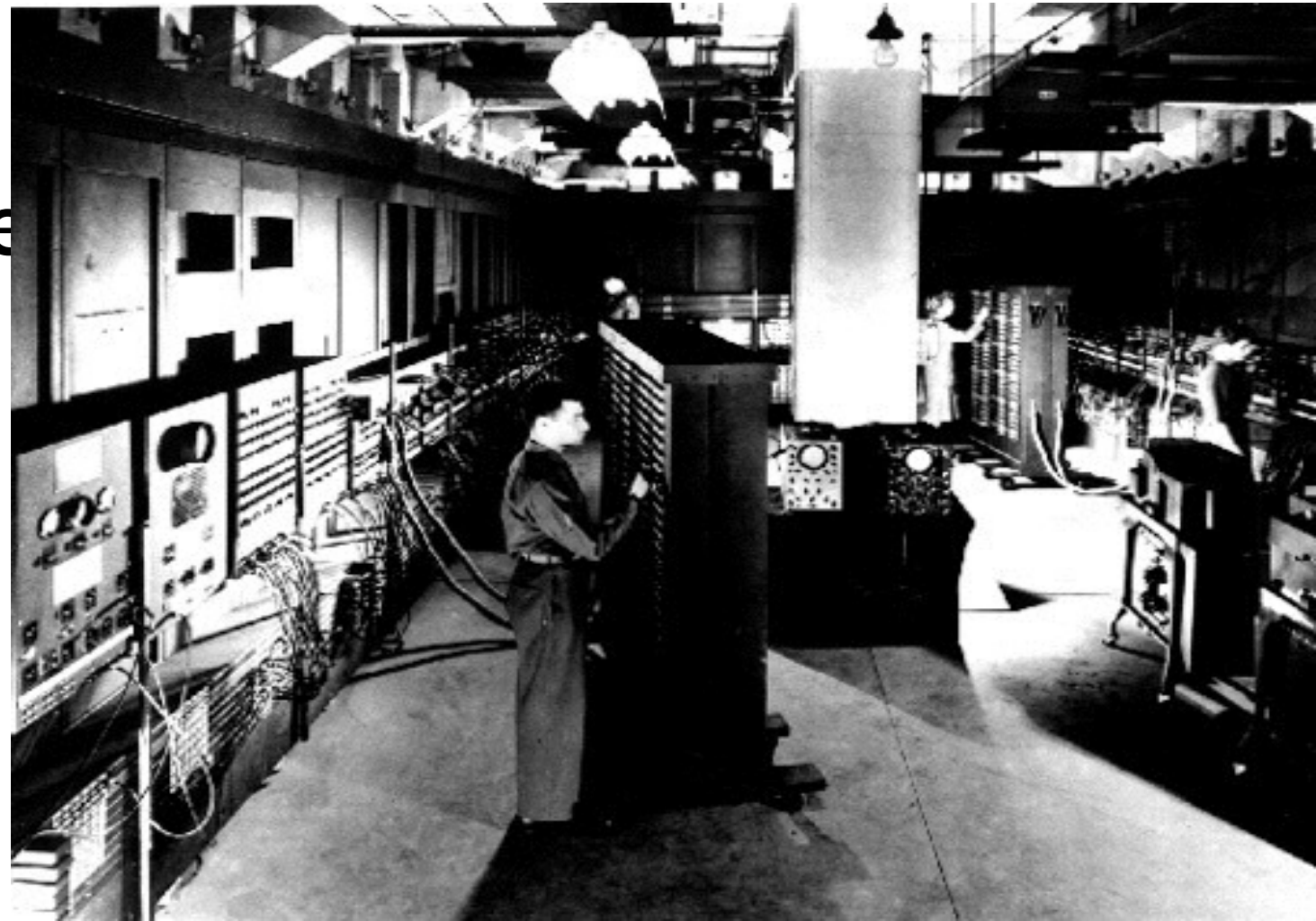
- ◆ 1950s and early 1960s: simple applications; worry about machine efficiency (FORTRAN)
- ◆ Late 1960s: people efficiency important; readability, better control structures (ALGOL)
 - Structured programming, free format lexical
 - Top-down design and step-wise refinement
- ◆ Late 1970s: process-oriented to data-oriented
 - Data abstraction
- ◆ Middle 1980s: object-oriented programming
 - Data abstraction + inheritance + dynamic binding

Genealogy of Common Languages (Fig. 2.1)



The Dawn of Modern Computers

- Early computers (40's and early 50's) are programmed using machine code directly:
 - Limited hardware; no FP, indexing, system software
 - Computers more expensive for programmers/users
 - Poor readability, modifiability, expressiveness



Early Programming

- Programmers have to enter machine code to program the computer
 - Floating point: coders had to keep track of the exponent manually
 - Relative addressing: codes had to be adjusted by hand for the absolute addresses
 - Array subscripting needed
 - Something easier to remember than octal opcodes
- Early aids:
 - Assembly languages and assemblers: English-like phrases I-to-I representation of machine instructions
- Saving programmer time became important ...

1948 Cambridge

- 111000000000100110010
- A 25 S
- 1948 David Wheeler: translate strings into bin code
- 1950: *The Preparation of Programs for an Electronic Digital Computer*

Programming Languages

Photo # NH 96566-KN First Computer "Bug", 1945

92

9/9

0800 Antan started

1000 " stopped - antan ✓

1300 (032) MP - MC 1.2700 9.037 847 025

(033) PRO 2 2.130476415 9.037 846 995 correct

conck 2.130676415 4.615925059(-2)

Relays 6-2 in 033 failed special speed test

In relay 11.000 test

Relays changed

1100 Started Cosine Tape (Sine check)

1500 Started Mott's Antan Test.

1545 Relay #70 Panel F (moth) in relay.

First actual case of bug being found.

1630 Antan started.

1700 closed down.

Fortran

- First popular high-level programming language
- Computers were small and unreliable
→ machine efficiency was most important
- Applications were scientific
→ need good array handling and counting loops
- "The IBM Mathematical FORMula TRANslating System: FORTRAN", 1954: (John Backus at IBM)
- To generate code comparable with hand-written code using simple, primitive compilers
- Closely tied to the IBM 704 architecture, which had index registers and floating point hardware

Fortran

- Fortran I (1957)
 - Names could have up to six characters, formatted I/O, user-defined subprograms, no data typing
 - No separate compilation (compiling “large” programs – a few hundred lines – approached 704 MTTF)
 - Highly optimize code with static types and storage
- Later versions evolved with more features and platform independence
- Almost all designers learned from Fortran and Fortran team pioneered things such as scanning, parsing, register allocation, code generation, optimization

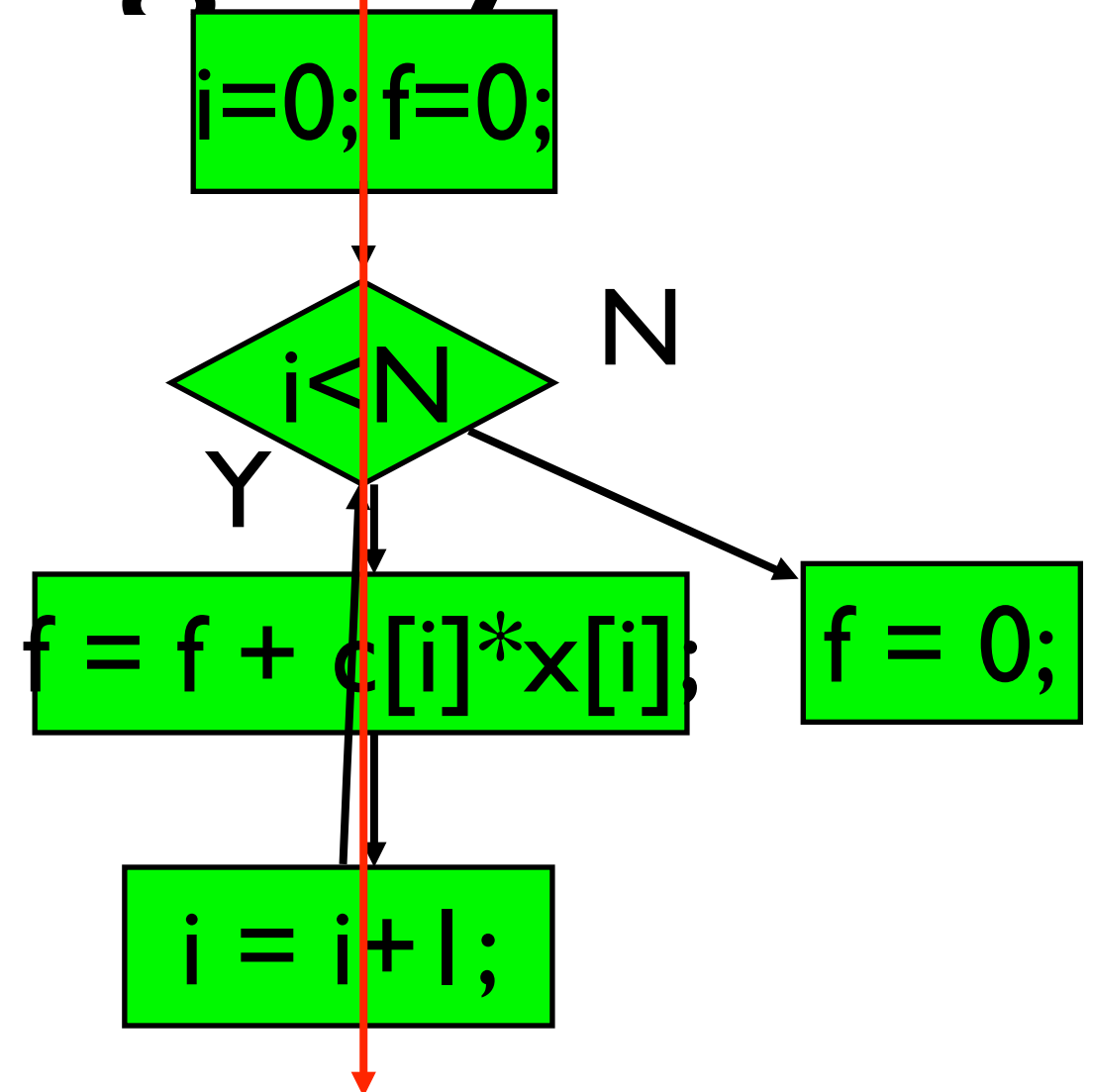
FORTRAN and von Neumann Arch.

- FORTRAN, and all other **imperative languages**, which dominate programming, mimic von Neumann architecture
 - Variables \leftrightarrow memory cells
 - Assignment statements \leftrightarrow data piping between memory and CPU
 - Operations and expressions \leftrightarrow CPU executions
 - Explicit control of execution flows
 - Efficient mapping between language and HW
 - efficient execution performance, but limited by von Neumann bottleneck

FORTRAN

Programming Style

- Global view, top down
- Program starts from first executable statement and follow a sequential flow with go-to
- Conceptually, a large main() including everything but without main() declaration, though FORTRAN has functions
- Match a flow chart with traces



Problems: developing large programs, making errors,
being inflexible, managing storage by programmers, ...

Functional Programming: LISP

- ◆ AI research needed a language to
 - Process data in lists (rather than arrays)
 - Symbolic computation (rather than numeric)
- ◆ John McCarthy of MIT developed LISP (LISt Processing language) in 1958
- ◆ A LISP program is a list:
`(+ a (* b c))`
 - List form both for input and for function
 - Only two data types: atoms and lists

LISP

- Pioneered **functional programming**
 - Computations by applying functions to parameters
 - No concept of variables (storage) or assignment
 - Single-valued variables: no assignment, not storage
 - Control via recursion and conditional expressions
 - Branches → conditional expressions
 - Iterations → recursion
 - Dynamically allocated linked lists

First Step Towards Sophistication

- ◆ Environment (1957-1958):
 - FORTRAN had (barely) arrived for IBM 70x
 - Many other languages, but all for specific machines → no universal lang. for communicating algorithms
 - Programmer productivity became important
- ◆ ALGOL: universal, international, machine-independent (imperative) language for expressing scientific algorithms
 - Eventually, 3 major designs: ALGOL 58, 60, and 68
 - Developed by increasingly large international committees

Issues to Address (I)

- ◆ Early languages used label-oriented control:

`GO TO 27`

`30 IF (A-B) 5,6,7`

- ◆ ALGOL supports sufficient phrase-level control, such as `if`, `while`, `switch`, `for`, `until`
→ structured programming
- ◆ Programming style:
 - Programs consist of blocks of code: blocks → functions → files
→ directories
 - Bottom-up development possible
 - Easy to develop, read, maintain; make fewer errors

Issues to Address (II)

- ◆ ALGOL designs avoided special cases:
 - Free-format lexical structure
 - No arbitrary limits:
 - Any number of characters in a name
 - Any number of dimensions for an array
 - Orthogonality: every meaningful combination of primitive concepts is legal—no special forbidden combinations to remember
 - Each combination not permitted is a special case that must be remembered by the programmer

Example of Orthogonality

	Integers	Arrays	Procedures
Passing as a parameter			
Storing in a variable			
Storing in an array			
Returning from a procedure			

- ◆ By ALGOL 68, all combinations above are legal
- ◆ Modern languages seldom take this principle as far as ALGOL → expressiveness vs efficiency

Influences

♦ Virtually all languages after 1958 used ideas pioneered by the ALGOL designs:

- Free-format lexical structure
- No limit to length of names and array dimension
- BNF definition of syntax
- Concept of type
- Block structure (local scope)
- Compound stmt (**begin end**), nested if-then-else
- Stack-dynamic arrays
- Call by value (and call by name)
- Recursive subroutines and conditional expressions

Beginning of Timesharing: BASIC

- ◆ BASIC (Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code)

- Kemeny & Kurtz at Dartmouth, 1963

- ◆ Design goals:

- Easy to learn and use for non-science students
 - Must be “pleasant and friendly”
 - Fast turnaround for homework
 - Free and private access
 - User time is more important than computer time

keyword: interactive

- ◆ First widely used language with time sharing

- Simultaneous individual access through terminals

Everything for Everybody: PL/I

◆ IBM at 1963-1964:

- Scientific computing: IBM 1620 and 7090, FORTRAN
- Business computing: IBM 1401 and 7080, COBOL
- Scientific users began to need elaborate I/O, like in COBOL; business users began to need FP and arrays

◆ The obvious solution

- New computer to do both → IBM System/360
- Design a new language to do both → PL/I

◆ Results:

- Unit-level concurrency, exception handling, pointer
- But, too many and too complex

Beginning of Data Abstraction

◆ SIMULA

- Designed primarily for system simulation in University of Oslo, Norway, by Nygaard and Dahl

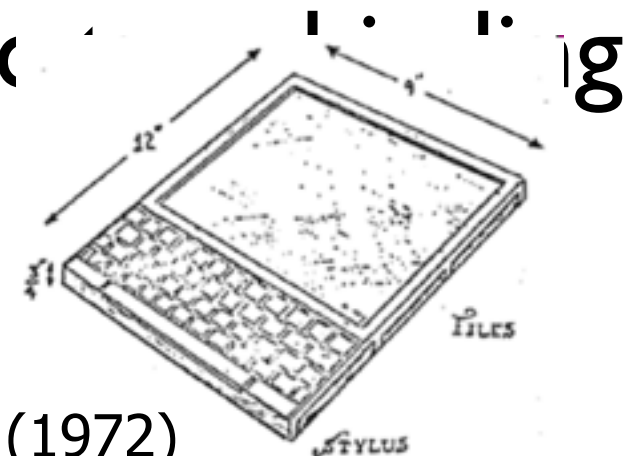
◆ Starting 1961: SIMULA I, SIMULA 67

◆ Primary contributions

- Co-routines: a kind of subprogram
- Implemented in a structure called a class, which include both local data and functionality and are the basis for data abstraction

Object-Oriented Programming

- ◆ Smalltalk: Alan Kay, Xerox PARC, 1972
- ◆ First full implementation of an object-oriented language
 - Everything is an object: variables, constants, activation records, classes, etc.
 - All computation is performed by objects sending and receiving messages
 - Data abstraction, inheritance, dynamic
- ◆ Also pioneered graphical user interface design

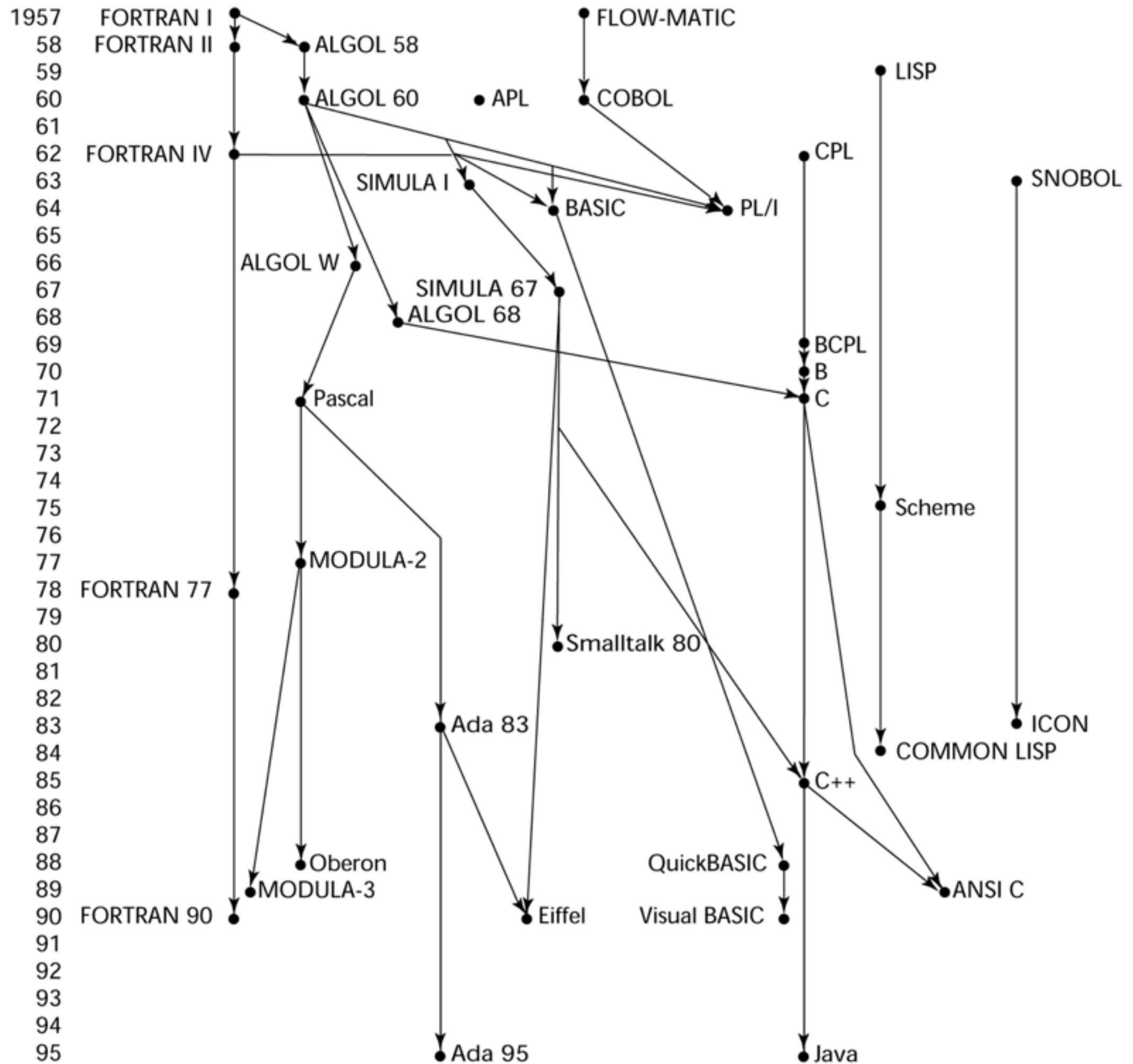


Dynabook (1972)

Programming Based on Logic: Prolog

- ◆ Developed by Comerauer and Roussel (University of Aix-Marseille) in 1972, with help from Kowalski (University of Edinburgh)
- ◆ Based on formal logic
- ◆ Non-procedural
 - Only supply relevant facts (predicate calculus) and inference rules (resolutions)
 - System then infer the truth of given queries/goals
- ◆ Highly inefficient, small application areas (database, AI)

Genealogy of Common Languages (Fig. 2.1)



Summary: Application Domain

- ◆ Application domains have distinctive (and conflicting) needs and affect prog. lang.
 - Scientific applications: high performance with a large number of floating point computations, e.g., Fortran
 - Business applications: report generation that use decimal numbers and characters, e.g., COBOL
 - Artificial intelligence: symbols rather than numbers manipulated, e.g., LISP
 - Systems programming: low-level access and efficiency for SW interface to devices, e.g., C
 - Web software: diff. kinds of lang. markup (XHTML), scripting (PHP), general-purpose (Java)

Summary: Programming Methodology in Perspective

- ◆ 1950s and early 1960s: simple applications; worry about machine efficiency (FORTRAN)
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Theory of PL: Turing Equivalence

- ◆ Languages have different strengths, but fundamentally they all have the same power

$\{\text{problems solvable in Java}\}$
 $= \{\text{problems solvable in Fortran}\}$
 $= \dots$

- ◆ And all have the same power as various mathematical models of computation

$= \{\text{problems solvable by Turing machine}\}$
 $= \{\text{problems solvable by lambda calculus}\}$
 $= \dots$

- ◆ Church-Turing thesis: this is what “computability” means

What Make a Good PL?

Language evaluation criteria:

- ◆ **Readability**: the ease with which programs can be read and understood
- ◆ **Writability**: the ease with which a language can be used to create programs
- ◆ **Reliability**: a program performs to its specifications under all conditions
- ◆ **Cost**

Features Related to Readability

- ◆ Overall simplicity: lang. is more readable if
 - Fewer features and basic constructs
 - Readability problems occur whenever program's author uses a subset different from that familiar to reader
 - Fewer feature multiplicity (i.e., doing the same operation with different ways)
 - Minimal operator overloading
- ◆ Orthogonality
 - A relatively small set of primitive constructs can be combined in a relatively small number of ways
 - Every combination is legal, **independent** of context
 - ➔ Few exceptions, irregularities

Features Related to Readability

- ◆ Control statements
 - Sufficient control statements for structured prog.
→ can read program from top to bottom w/o jump
- ◆ Data types and structures
 - Adequate facilities for defining data type & structure
- ◆ Syntax considerations
 - Identifier forms: flexible composition
 - Special words and methods of forming compound statements
 - Form and meaning: self-descriptive constructs, meaningful keywords

Writability

- ◆ Simplicity and orthogonality
 - But, too orthogonal may cause errors undetected
- ◆ Support for abstraction
 - Ability to define and use complex structures or operations in ways that allow details to be ignored
 - Abstraction in process (e.g. subprogram), data
- ◆ Expressivity
 - A set of relatively convenient ways of specifying operations
 - Example: the inclusion of **for** statement in many modern languages

Reliability

- ◆ Type checking
 - Testing for type errors, e.g. subprogram parameters
- ◆ Exception handling
 - Intercept run-time errors & take corrective measures
- ◆ Aliasing
 - Presence of two or more distinct referencing methods for the same memory location
- ◆ Readability and writability
 - A language that does not support “natural” ways of expressing an algorithm will necessarily use “unnatural” approaches, and hence reduced reliability

Cost

- ◆ Training programmers to use language
- ◆ Writing programs (closeness to particular applications)
- ◆ Compiling programs
- ◆ Executing programs: run-time type checking
- ◆ Language implementation system: availability of free compilers
- ◆ Reliability: poor reliability leads to high costs
- ◆ Maintaining programs

Others

◆ Portability

- The ease with which programs can be moved from one implementation to another

◆ Generality

- The applicability to a wide range of applications

◆ Well-definedness

- The completeness and precision of the language's official definition

◆ Power efficiency?

Language Design Trade-Offs

◆ Reliability vs. cost of execution

- e.g., Java demands all references to array elements be checked for proper indexing but that leads to increased execution costs

◆ Readability vs. writability

- e.g., APL provides many powerful operators (and a large number of new symbols), allowing complex computations to be written in a compact program but at the cost of poor readability

◆ Writability (flexibility) vs. reliability

- e.g., C++ pointers are powerful and very flexible but not reliably used

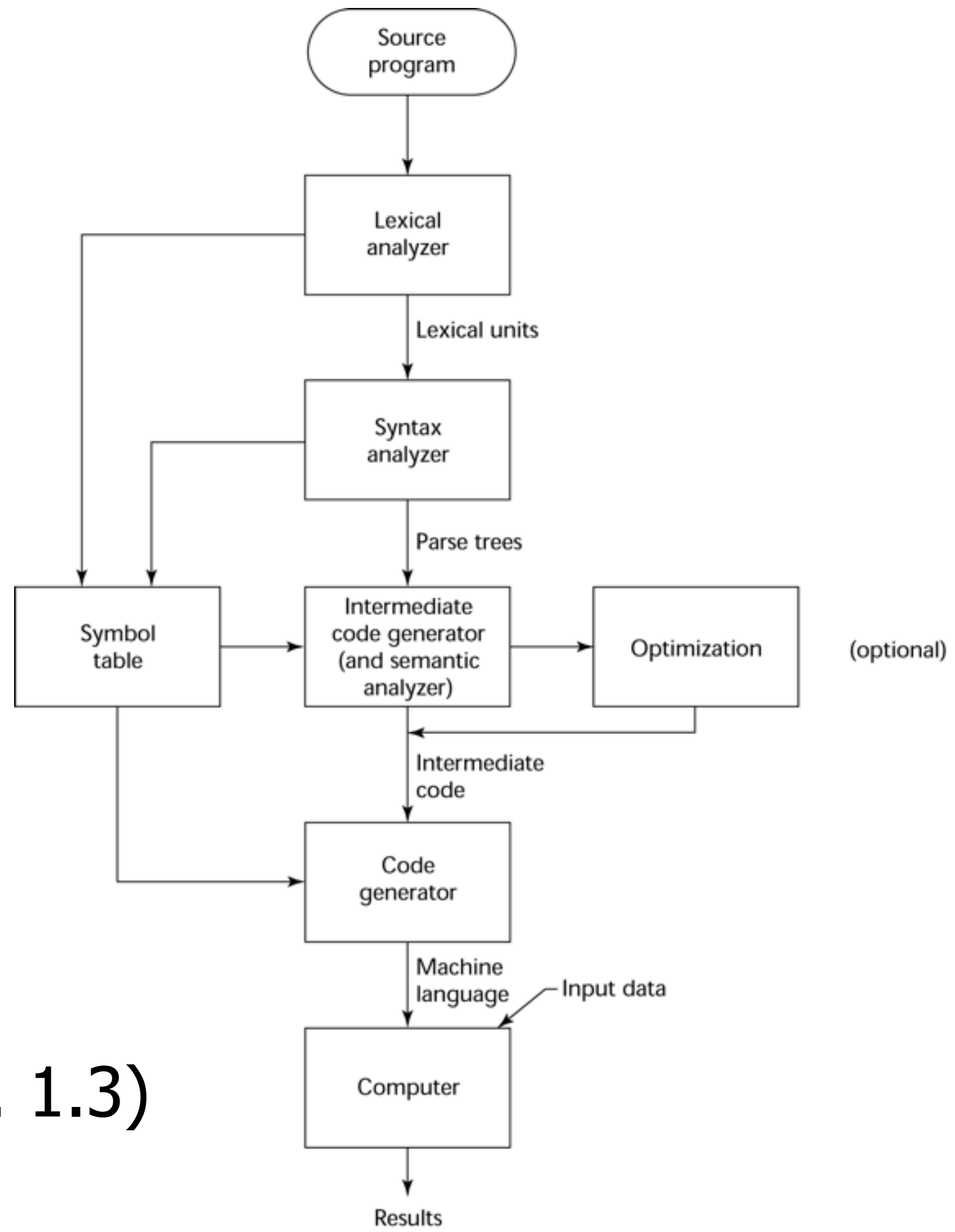
Implementations of PL

- ◆ It is important to understand how features and constructs of a programming language, e.g., subroutine calls, are implemented
 - Implementation of a PL construct means its realization in a lower-level language, e.g. assembly
 - mapping/translation from a high-level language to a low-level language
 - Why the need to know implementations?
Understand whether a construct may be implemented efficiently, know different implementation methods and their tradeoffs, etc.

Implementation by Compilation

- ◆ Translate a high-level program into equivalent machine code automatically by another program (compiler)
- ◆ Compilation process has several phases:
 - Lexical analysis: converts characters in the source program into lexical units
 - Syntax analysis: transforms lexical units into parse trees which represent syntactic structure of program
 - Semantics analysis: generate intermediate code
 - Code generation: machine code is generated
 - Link and load

Compilation Process



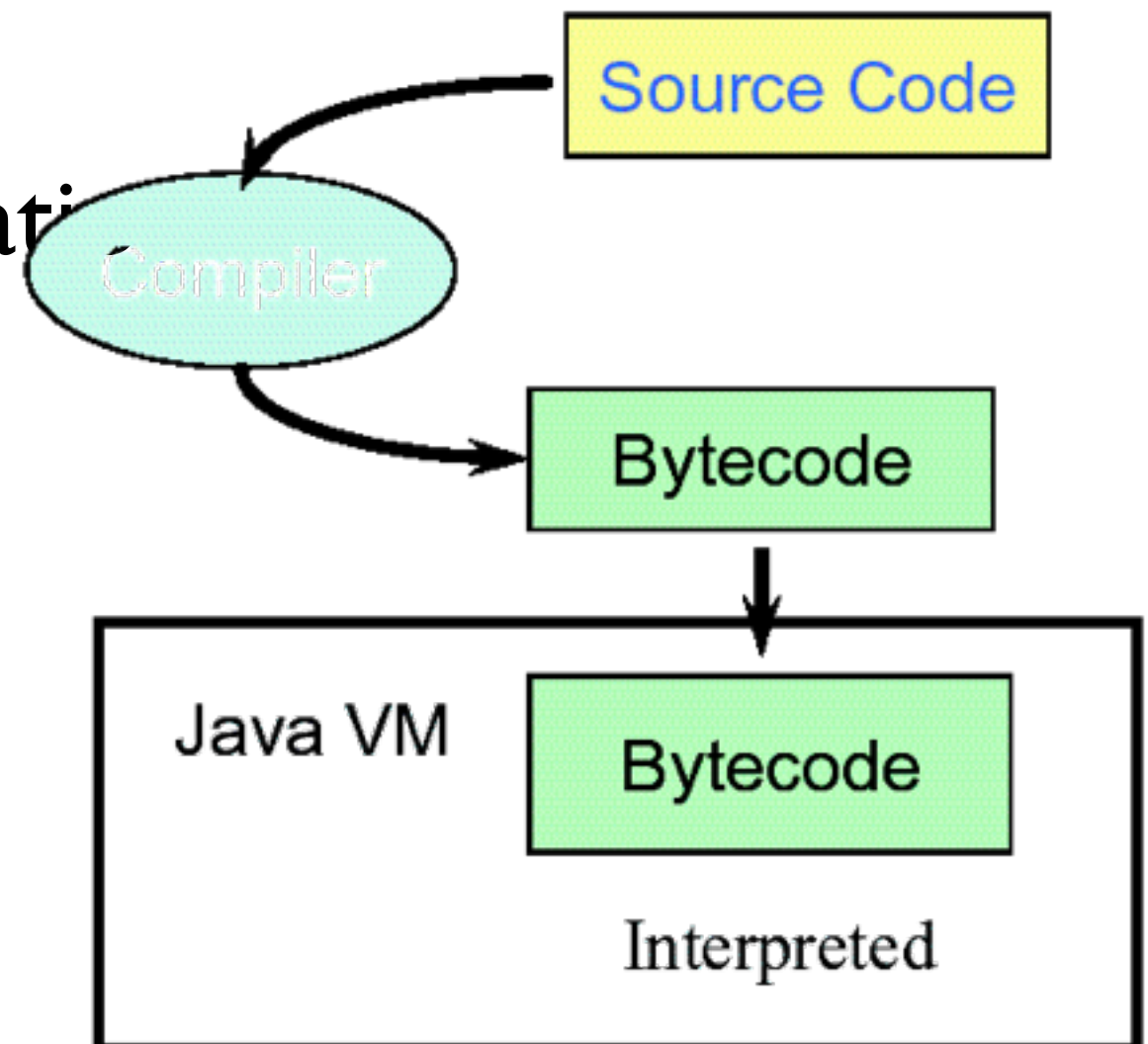
(Fig. 1.3)

Implementation by Interpretation

- ◆ Program interpreted by another program (interpreter) without translation
 - Interpreter acts a simulator or virtual machine
- ◆ Easier implementation of programs (run-time errors can easily and immediately displayed)
- ◆ Slower execution (10 to 100 times slower than compiled programs)
- ◆ Often requires more space
- ◆ Popular with some Web scripting languages (e.g., JavaScript)

Hybrid Implementation Systems

- ◆ A high-level language program is translated to an intermediate language that allows easy interpretation
 - Faster than pure interpretation



Summary

- ◆ Most important criteria for evaluating programming languages include:
 - Readability, writability, reliability, cost
- ◆ Major influences on language design have been application domains, machine architecture and software development methodologies
- ◆ The major methods of implementing programming languages are: compilation, pure interpretation, and hybrid implementation