Preliminaries

What we will discuss:

- Programming languages and the process of programming.
- Criteria for the design and evaluation of programming languages
- Basic ideas of programming language implementations.

Programming languages and the process of programming

Points to discuss:

- Programming means more than coding.
- Why study programming languages?
- Programming language paradigms and applications.

Programming means much more than coding in a programming language

- Before coding begins, you analyze the problem, design (or borrow) an algorithm, analyze the cost of the solution.
- After all coding has been done, you have to *maintain* the program.
- Programming languages are used to instruct computers.
 - What do we communicate to computers?
 - How do computers talk back to us?

Programming means more than coding (2)

- How do programming languages differ from natural languages? Would talking to computers (instructing them) in human languages be preferable?
- What makes someone a good programmer?
- Should a good programmer know more than one programming language?

Why should we study programming languages?

- To have an increased capacity to express ideas
 - By learning new language constructs
 - develop an appreciation for valuable language features and constructs

-e.g., simulating Perl's associative arrays in C

Why should we study programming languages? (2)

- To have a choice of programming tools that best match the task at hand:
 - people are fluent in multiple languages
 - identify subtasks and apply to each of them the best language, using the full expressive power of each language.
 - the Microsoft.NET case
 - libraries and community-developed extensions could be a differentiating factor

Why should we study programming languages? (3)

- To understand better the connection between algorithms and programs.
 - some programming languages are more suitable for solving particular types of programs
 - to be able to look for general, languageindependent solutions
 - To have a choice of programming tools that best match the task at hand

-the Microsoft.NET example

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Why should we study programming languages? (4)

- To learn new programming languages easily
 - familiarize with the building blocks of the language
 - able to recognize them later in other languages
 e.g., OOP concepts -> Ruby

Why should we study programming languages? (5)

- To appreciate the workings of a computer equipped with a programming language—by knowing how languages are implemented.
 - improve software efficiency by knowing implementation issues
 - understanding the impact of the different choices (data structures, workflows) on the efficiency of the implementation

– e.g., vectorized operations in MATLAB preferred over repetitive constructs

Why should we study programming languages? (6)

- To see how a language may influence the discipline of computing and strengthen good software engineering practice.
 - Some programming languages could have become very popular due to some appealing features
 - Yet their conceptual design was not well understood by the software engineering community
 - e.g., ALGOL 60 vs. Fortran

The many classes of programming languages: programming language paradigms

- Every programming language supports a slightly different or dramatically different style of problem solving.
- The same computation can be expressed in various languages, and then run on the same computer.

Programming languages classified by paradigm

- Imperative: how do we solve a problem (what steps does a solution have)?
 - Object-oriented: what objects play roles in a problem, what can they do, and how do they interact to solve the problem?
- Logic-based: what do we do to solve a problem? (The language decides how to do it.)
- Functional: what simple operations can be applied to solving a problem, how are they mutually related, and how can they be combined?

Classification by generality of use

- General-purpose programming languages (most of the known languages are in this category);
- Specialized programming languages
 - database languages
 - vector-processing languages
 - mobile languages
 - data management languages
 - web languages
 - and more

Classification by abstraction level

- <u>Low-leve</u>l (1GL-2GL) languages (machine languages, assembly languages).
- <u>High-level</u> (3GL) languages (most of the well-known languages belong to this category).
- <u>Very high-level</u> (4GL) languages (Prolog is sometimes listed in this category, and some specialized languages).
- Beyond programming languages:
 - Programming environments, software development tools and workbenches.

Classification by area of application

 Data processing (also known as "business applications").

Now made largely unnecessary, since we have databases and other business-related packages, such as spreadsheets, and special-purpose software.

• Scientific computing (this includes engineering).

Today this has been changed by new hardware designs such as supercomputers or vector computers, and specialized computing devices.

Classification by area of application (2)

- Artificial intelligence and other applications not in the computer science mainstream.
 - This might include educational software and games.
 - New hardware (so far mostly simulated) such as connection machines and neural networks.

-e.g. Deep Learning (Theano, TensorFlow)

- "In-house" computing applications.
 - compiler construction, systems programming, GUI, API, and so on.

Criteria for the design and evaluation of programming languages

- Points to discuss:
 - Readability
 - Writability
 - Reliability
 - Cost

Criteria for the design and evaluation of programming languages

- 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**: conformance to specifications (i.e., performs according to its specifications)
- **Cost**: the ultimate total cost

Criteria for the design and evaluation of programming languages

Table 1.1 Language evaluation criteria and the characteristics that affect them

| | CRITERIA | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--|--|
| Characteristic | READABILITY | WRITABILITY | RELIABILITY | | |
| Simplicity | • | • | • | | |
| Orthogonality | • | • | • | | |
| Data types | • | • | • | | |
| Syntax design | • | • | • | | |
| Support for abstraction | | • | • | | |
| Expressivity | | • | • | | |
| Type checking | | | • | | |
| Exception handling | | | • | | |
| Restricted aliasing | | | • | | |

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Readability

- This is subjective, but very important.
- Language readability is essential because of software engineering practices, and in particular the needs of <u>software evolution</u> and <u>maintenance</u>.
 - 1970s the software lifecycle concept
 - Abstraction—support for generality of programs: procedural abstraction, data abstraction.
 - Absence of ambiguity (and absence of too many coding choices, like having five different loop constructs).

Readability (2)

- Simplicity:
 - Number of basic constructs: keep it small
 - Minimal feature multiplicity
 - count = count + 1
 - count += 1
 - count++
 - ++count
 - Minimal operator overloading
 - could be misleading if users do not employ it carefully
 - e.g., "+" to sum all elements in an array
 - "+" to sum the first two elements in an array

Readability (2)

- Orthogonality: there are no restrictions on combinations of primitive language concepts.
 - Orthogonality follows from a symmetry of relationships among primitives.
 - e.g., a pointer to any primitive data type
 - pointers to arrays too (type operators)
- More orthogonality = fewer special cases in the language.
- This may be carried too far (as in Algol 68).
- Simplicity is partially dictated by orthogonality.
- Functional languages are good at both.

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Readability (3)

- Data types need to be adequately defined
 - -timeOut = 1
 - timeOut = true
- Syntax design
 - Special words
 - -while, class, for ...
 - -ADD AX, BX VS. AR AX, BX
 - Compound statements, e.g., { } vs. end if
 - Using keywords as variable names (Fortran 95)

Writability

- Simplicity and orthogonality: once more, subjective.
 - Pascal has always been considered simple, Ada complicated
 - Basic is very simple
 - Prolog is conceptually simple, but may be difficult to learn.
 - is Java simple?
- Modularity and tools for modularization, support for integrated programming environments.
- Writability should be considered in the context of the target problem domain of a language.

Writability (2)

- Expressivity of control and data structures.
 - what is better (easier to read, maintain and so on):
 - a longer program made of simple elements?
 - a shorter program built out of complex, specialized constructions?
 - Examples of high expressive power: recursion, built-in backtracking (as in Prolog), search in database languages.
 - Examples of low expressive power: instructions in machine or assembly languages.
- Appearance: syntax, including comments.

Reliability

- If a program performs according to its specifications under all conditions
 - avoiding errors as much as possible
 - More safety for the programmer
 - Type checking
 - Strongly typed languages are often more reliable
 compile-time checking whenever possible

Error and exception handling

- intercept runtime errors, take corrective measures and then continue
- Aliasing: Accessing same memory locations via different names

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Cost

Cost

- Development time (ease of programming, availability of shared code).
- Efficiency of implementation: how easy it is to build a language processor (Algol 68 is a known failure, Ada almost a failure; Pascal, C, C++ and Java have been notable successes).
- Translation time and the quality of object code.
- Maintenance
- Portability and standardization.

In a nutshell...

- Designing a programming language requires the reconciliation and satisfaction of multiple, often conflictive, evaluation criteria
 - Reliability vs. cost of execution
 - Type checking increases run time
 - Java designers traded execution efficiency for reliability
 - Writability vs. readability
 - Writability vs. reliability

-Pointers in C++ did not make it to Java

• Choosing constructs and features for a programming language requires many compromises and trade-offs.

Implementing programming languages

- Points to discuss:
 - Language processors, virtual computers
 - Models of implementation
 - Compilation and execution

Language processors

- A processor for language L is any device (hardware or software) that understands and can execute programs in language L.
- **Translation** is the process of mapping a program in the source language into the target language while preserving the meaning or function of the source program.
- The target language may be directly executable on the computer or (more often) may have to be translated again — into an even lower-level language.

Models of implementation

- Compilation:
 - translate the program into an equivalent form in a lower-layer virtual machine language;
 - execute later.
- Interpretation:
 - divide the program up into small (syntactically meaningful) fragments;
 - in a loop, translate and execute each fragment immediately.
 - fetch/execute cycle

Models of implementation (2)

- Compilation:
 - Very fast program execution
 - directly using the native code of the target machine
 - opportunity to apply quite powerful optimizations during the compilation stage
- Interpretation:
 - easier to implement
 - no need to run a compilation stage: can execute code directly "on the fly"

Models of implementation (3)

- Pure compilation and pure interpretation are seldom used. Normally, an implementation employs a mix of these models.
 - For example: compile Java into bytecodes, then interpret bytecodes.
- We consider a language processor an interpreter if it has "more interpretation than compilation". We consider a language processor a compiler if there is more of compilation.

Models of implementation (4)



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Models of implementation (5)

- Some languages are better interpreted, for example interactively used Prolog or Lisp.
- Some languages are better compiled, for example, C++, Java.
- There can also be compiled Prolog or Lisp:
 - an interpretive top-level loop handles user interaction.
 - Predicates of functions are compiled into an optimized form which is then interpreted.



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Virtual computers

- A virtual computer is a software realization (simulation) of a language processor.
- Programming directly for hardware is very difficult — we usually "cover" hardware with layers of software.
- A layer may be shared by several language processors, each building its own virtual computer on top of this layer.

Examples of shared layers

- All language processors require support for input/output.
- All language processors eventually must do some calculations, that is, use the CPU.

Virtual computers

- We normally have <u>hierarchies</u> of virtual machines:
 - at the bottom, hardware;
 - at the top, languages close to the programmer's natural way of thinking.
- Each layer is expressed only in terms of the *previous* layer—this ensures proper abstraction.

Language processors and the operating system

- OS mediates between a language processor and the macroinstruction / microinstruction processors.
 - e.g. an OS and a C compiler provide a virtual C computer.



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A generic hierarchy of virtual computers

- Layer 0: hardware
- Layer 1: microcode
- Layer 2: machine language
- Layer 3: system routines
- Layer 4: machine-independent code
- Layer 5: high-level language (or assembler)
- Layer 6: application program
- Layer 7: input data [this is also a language!]

Virtual computers — example

- Layer 0: IBM Netvista with Intel Pentium 4, 2GHz
- Layer 1: IBM Intel machine language
- Layer 2: Windows NT 4.0
- Layer 3: Java byte-code
- Layer 4: JDK 1.2
- Layer 5: a Java implementation of Prolog
- Layer 6: a Prolog implementation of mySQL
- Layer 7: a database schema defined and created
- Layer 8: records for insertion into the database

August 2016 TIOBE Programming Languages Index

| Aug 2016 | Aug 2015 | Change | Programming Language | Ratings | Change |
|----------|----------|--------|----------------------|---------|--------|
| 1 | 1 | | Java | 19.010% | -0.26% |
| 2 | 2 | | C | 11.303% | -3.43% |
| 3 | 3 | | C++ | 5.800% | -1.94% |
| 4 | 4 | | C# | 4.907% | +0.07% |
| 5 | 5 | | Python | 4.404% | +0.34% |
| 6 | 7 | ^ | PHP | 3.173% | +0.44% |
| 7 | 9 | ^ | JavaScript | 2.705% | +0.54% |
| 8 | 8 | | Visual Basic .NET | 2.518% | -0.19% |
| 9 | 10 | ^ | Perl | 2.511% | +0.39% |
| 10 | 12 | ~ | Assembly language | 2.364% | +0.60% |

more details here

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2016 IEEE Programming Languages Ranking

| Lan | iguage Rank | Types | Spectrum Ranking |
|-----|-------------|----------|------------------|
| 1. | С | 🗋 🖵 🏶 | 100.0 |
| 2. | Java | 🕀 🖸 🖵 | 98.1 |
| З. | Python | | 98.0 |
| 4. | C++ | . 🖵 🏶 | 95.9 |
| 5. | R | - | 87.9 |
| 6. | C# | ⊕ 🖸 🖵 | 86.7 |
| 7. | PHP | \oplus | 82.8 |
| 8. | JavaScript | \oplus | 82.2 |
| 9. | Ruby | | 74.5 |
| 10. | Go | | 71.9 |

more details here

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