

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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## Introduction

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CMSC 330

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## All Languages Are (Kind of) Equivalent

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- ▶ A language is **Turing complete** if it can compute any function computable by a Turing Machine
- ▶ Essentially all general-purpose programming languages are Turing complete
  - I.e., any program can be written in any programming language
- ▶ Therefore this course is useless?!
  - Learn only 1 programming language, always use it

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## Course Goal

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### Learn how programming languages work

- ▶ Broaden your language horizons
  - Different programming languages
  - Different language features and tradeoffs
    - > Useful programming patterns
- ▶ Study how languages are described / specified
  - Mathematical formalisms
- ▶ Study how languages are implemented
  - What **really** happens when I write `x.foo(...)`?

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## Studying Programming Languages

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- ▶ Helps you to choose between languages
  - Programming is a human activity
    - > Features of a language make it easier or harder to program for a specific application
  - Using the right programming language for a problem may make programming
    - > Easier, faster, less error-prone

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## Studying Programming Languages

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- ▶ Become better at learning new languages
  - A language not only allows you to express an idea, it also shapes how you think when conceiving it
    - There are some fundamental computational paradigms underlying language designs that take getting used to
  - You may need to learn a new (or old) language
    - Paradigms and fads change quickly in CS
    - Also, may need to support or extend legacy systems

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## Why Study Programming Languages?

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- ▶ To make you better at learning new languages
  - You may need to add code to a legacy system
    - E.g., FORTRAN (1954), COBOL (1959), ...
  - You may need to write code in a new language
    - Your boss says, “From now on, all software will be written in {C++/Java/C#/Python...}”
  - You may think Java is the ultimate language
    - But if you are still programming or managing programmers in 20 years, they probably won't be programming in Java!

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## Studying Programming Languages

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- ▶ Improve your understanding of languages you are already familiar with
  - Many “design patterns” in Java are functional programming techniques
  - Understanding what a language is good for will help you know when it is appropriate to use
  - The deeper your understanding of a language, the better you will be at using it appropriately

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## Course Subgoals

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- ▶ Learn some fundamental programming-language concepts
  - Regular expressions
  - Automata theory
  - Context free grammars
  - Parallelism & synchronization
- ▶ Improve programming skills
  - Practice learning new programming languages
  - Learn how to program in a new style

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## Syllabus

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- ▶ Scripting languages (Ruby)
- ▶ Regular expressions & finite automata
- ▶ Context-free grammars & parsing
- ▶ Functional programming (OCaml)
- ▶ Concurrency & synchronization
- ▶ Environments, scoping, type systems
- ▶ Logic programming (Prolog)
- ▶ Comparing language styles; other topics

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## Calendar / Course Overview

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- ▶ Tests
  - 4 quizzes, 2 midterms, final exam
- ▶ Projects
  - Project 1-2 – Ruby
  - Project 3-4 – OCaml
  - Project 5 – Multithreading
  - Project 6 – Prolog
- ▶ Meet your professor!
  - 1% extra credit : come to chat with your professor during office hours or at a mutually agreed-upon time
  - Conversation need not be long, or technical ... but we would like to get to know you!

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## Project Grading

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- ▶ Projects will be graded using the CS submit server
- ▶ Develop programs on your own machine
  - Generally results will be identical on dept machines
  - Your responsibility to ensure programs run correctly on the grace cluster
- ▶ Software versions
  - Ruby 1.9.3
  - OCaml 4.0.1
  - SWI-Prolog 6.6.1

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## Rules and Reminders

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- ▶ Use lecture notes as your text
  - Supplement with readings, Internet
  - You will be responsible for everything in the notes, even if it is not directly covered in class!
- ▶ Keep ahead of your work
  - Get help as soon as you need it
    - Office hours, Piazza (email as a last resort)
- ▶ Don't disturb other students in class
  - Keep cell phones quiet
  - No laptops / tablets in class
    - Except for taking notes (please sit in back of class)

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## Academic Integrity

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- ▶ All written work (including projects) must be done on your own
  - Do not copy code from other students
  - Do not copy code from the web
  - Do not post your code on the web
  - We're using Moss; cheaters will be caught
- ▶ Work together on **high-level** project questions
  - Do not look at/describe another student's code
  - If unsure, ask an instructor!
- ▶ Work together on practice exam questions

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## Changing Language Goals

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- ▶ 1950s-60s – Compile programs to execute efficiently
  - Language features based on hardware concepts
    - ▶ Integers, reals, goto statements
  - Programmers cheap; machines expensive
    - ▶ Computation was the primary constrained resource
    - ▶ Programs had to be efficient because machines weren't
      - Note: this still happens today, just not as pervasively

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## Changing Language Goals

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- ▶ Today
  - Language features based on design concepts
    - ▶ Encapsulation, records, inheritance, functionality, assertions
  - Machines cheap; programmers expensive
    - ▶ Scripting languages are slow(er), but run on fast machines
    - ▶ They've become very popular because they ease the programming process
  - The constrained resource changes frequently
    - ▶ Communication, effort, power, privacy, ...
    - ▶ Future systems and developers will have to be nimble

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## Language Attributes to Consider

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- ▶ Syntax
  - What a program looks like
- ▶ Semantics
  - What a program means (mathematically)
- ▶ Implementation
  - How a program executes (on a real machine)

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## Imperative Languages

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- ▶ Also called **procedural** or **von Neumann**
- ▶ Building blocks are procedures and statements

- Programs that write to memory are the norm

```
int x = 0;
while (x < y) x = x + 1;
```

- FORTRAN (1954)
- Pascal (1970)
- C (1971)

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## Functional Languages

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- ▶ Also called **applicative** languages
- ▶ Less explicit map to underlying memory

- Functions are higher-order

```
let rec map f = function [] -> []
                    | x::l -> (f x)::(map f l)
```

- LISP (1958)
- ML (1973)
- Scheme (1975)
- Haskell (1987)
- OCaml (1987)

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## OCaml

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- ▶ A mostly-functional language
  - Has objects, but won't discuss (much)
  - Developed in 1987 at INRIA in France
  - Dialect of ML (1973)
- ▶ Natural support for *pattern matching*
  - Generalizes `switch/if-then-else` – very elegant
- ▶ Has full featured module system
  - Much richer than interfaces in Java or headers in C
- ▶ Includes type inference
  - Ensures compile-time type safety, no annotations

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## A Small OCaml Example

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intro.ml:

```
let greet s =
  List.iter (fun x -> print_string s)
    ["hello"; s; "!\n"]
```

```
$ ocaml
Objective Caml version 3.12.1
```

```
# #use "intro.ml";;
val greet : string -> unit = <fun>
# greet "world";;
Hello, world!
- : unit = ()
```

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## Logic-Programming Languages

- ▶ Also called **rule-based** or **constraint-based**
- ▶ Program rules constrain possible results
  - Evaluation = constraint satisfaction = search
  - “A :- B” – If B holds, then A holds (“B *implies* A”)
    - ▶ `append([], L2, L2).`
    - ▶ `append([X|Xs], Ys, [X|Zs]) :- append(Xs, Ys, Zs).`
- PROLOG (1970)
- Datalog (1977)
- Various expert systems

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## Prolog

- ▶ A logic programming language
  - 1972, University of Aix-Marseille
  - Original goal: Natural language processing
- ▶ Rule based
  - Rules resemble pattern matching and recursive functions in Ocaml, but more general
- ▶ Execution = search
  - Rules specify relationships among data
    - ▶ Lists, records, “atoms”, integers, etc.
  - Programs are queries over these relationships
    - ▶ The query will “fill in the blanks”

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## A Small Prolog Example

```
/* A small Prolog program */
female(alice).
male(bob).
male(charlie).
father(bob, charlie).
mother(alice, charlie).

% "X is a son of Y"
son(X, Y) :- father(Y, X), male(X).
son(X, Y) :- mother(Y, X), male(X).
```

Lowercase logically terminates

Program consists of facts and rules

Uppercase denotes variables

User types ; to request additional answer

Multiple answers

User types return to complete request

Query

```
?- son(X,Y).
X = charlie,
Y = bob;
X = charlie,
Y = alice
```

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## Object-Oriented Languages

- ▶ Programs are built from objects
  - Objects combine functions and data
    - ▶ Often into “classes” which can inherit
  - “Base” may be either imperative or functional

```
class C { int x; int getX() {return x;} ... }
class D extends C { ... }
```
- Smalltalk (1969)
- C++ (1986)
- Ocaml (1987)
- Ruby (1993)
- Java (1995)

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## Scripting Languages

- ▶ Rapid prototyping languages for common tasks
  - Traditionally: text processing and system interaction
- ▶ “Scripting” is a broad genre of languages
  - “Base” may be imperative, functional, OO...
- ▶ Increasing use due to higher-layer abstractions
  - Not just for text processing anymore
- sh (1971)
- perl (1987)
- Python (1991)
- Ruby (1993)

```
#!/usr/bin/ruby
while line = gets do
  csvs = line.split /\,/
  if(csvs[0] == "330") then
    ...
  end
end
```

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## Ruby

- ▶ An imperative, object-oriented scripting language
  - Created in 1993 by Yukihiro Matsumoto (Matz)
  - “Ruby is designed to make programmers happy”
  - Core of Ruby on Rails web programming framework (a key to its popularity)
  - Similar in flavor to many other scripting languages
  - Much cleaner than perl
  - Full object-orientation (even primitives are objects!)

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## A Small Ruby Example

```
intro.rb: def greet(s)
           3.times { print "Hello, " }
           print "#{s}!\n"
           end
```

```
% irb      # you'll usually use "ruby" instead
irb(main):001:0> require "intro.rb"
=> true
irb(main):002:0> greet("world")
Hello, Hello, Hello, world!
=> nil
```

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## Concurrent / Parallel Languages

- ▶ Traditional languages had one thread of control
  - Processor executes one instruction at a time
- ▶ Newer languages support many threads
  - Thread execution conceptually independent
  - Means to create and communicate among threads
- ▶ Concurrency may help/harm
  - Readability, performance, expressiveness
- ▶ Many examples
  - Erlang, Cilk, Conc. Haskell, Fortress, UPC
  - C/C++, Java, Ruby, OCaml, Python, ...

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## Other Languages

- ▶ There are lots of other languages w/ various features
  - COBOL (1959) – Business applications
    - > Imperative, rich file structure
  - BASIC (1964) – MS Visual Basic
    - > Originally designed for simplicity (as the name implies)
    - > Now it is object-oriented and event-driven, widely used for UIs
  - Logo (1968) – Introduction to programming
  - Forth (1969) – Mac Open Firmware
    - > Extremely simple stack-based language for PDP-8
  - Ada (1979) – The DoD language
    - > Real-time
  - Postscript (1982) – Printers- Based on Forth

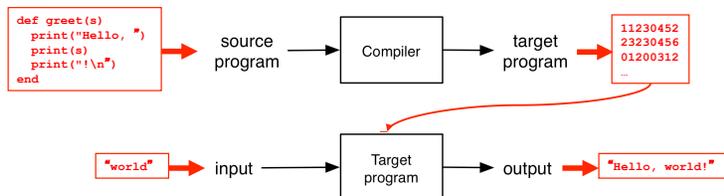
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## Program Execution

- ▶ Suppose we have a program **P** written in a high-level language (i.e., not machine code)
- ▶ There are two main ways to run **P**
  1. Compilation
  2. Interpretation

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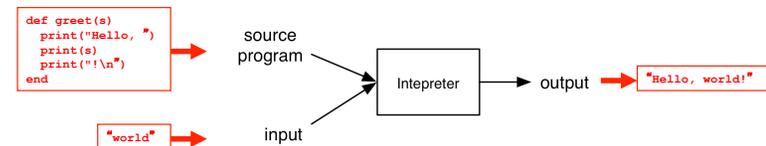
## Compilation



- ▶ Source program translated (“compiled”) to another language
  - Traditionally: directly executable machine code
  - Generating code from a higher level “interface” is also common (e.g., JSON, RPC IDL)

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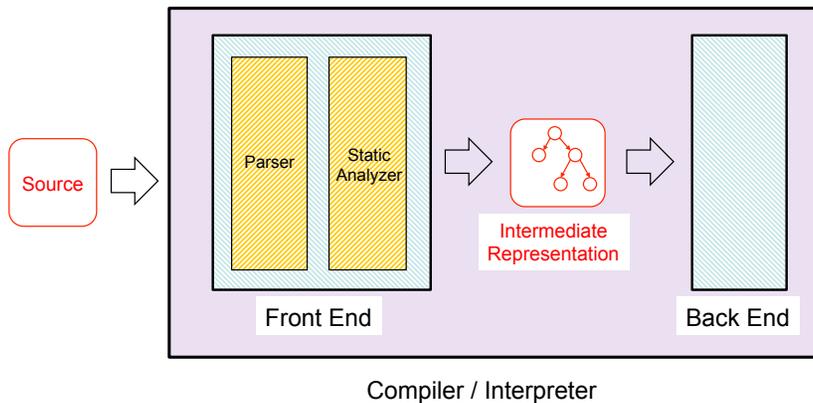
## Interpretation



- ▶ Interpreter executes each instruction in source program one step at a time
  - No separate executable

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## Architecture of Compilers, Interpreters



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## Front Ends and Back Ends

- ▶ Front ends handle syntactic analysis
  - Parser converts source code into intermediate format (“parse tree”) reflecting program structure
  - Static analyzer checks parse tree for errors (e.g. types), may also modify it
  - What goes into static analyzer is language-dependent!
- ▶ Back ends handle “semantics”
  - Compiler: back end (“code generator”) translates intermediate representation into “object language”
  - Interpreter: back end executes intermediate representation directly

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## Compiler or Interpreter?

- ▶ gcc
  - Compiler – C code translated to object code, executed directly on hardware (as a separate step)
- ▶ javac
  - Compiler – Java source code translated to Java byte code
- ▶ java
  - Interpreter – Java byte code executed by virtual machine
- ▶ sh/csh/tcsh/bash
  - Interpreter – commands executed by shell program

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## Compilers vs. Interpreters

- ▶ Compilers
  - Generated code more efficient
  - “Heavy”
- ▶ Interpreters
  - Great for debugging
  - Slow
- ▶ In practice
  - “General-purpose” programming languages (e.g. C, Java) are often compiled, although debuggers provide interpreter support
  - Scripting languages and other special-purpose languages are interpreted, even if general purpose

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## Formal (Mathematical) Semantics

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- ▶ What do my programs mean?

```
let rec fact n =  
  if n = 0 then 1  
  else n * (fact n-1)
```

```
let fact n =  
  let rec aux i j =  
    if i = 0 then j  
    else aux (i-1) (j*i) in  
  aux n 1
```

- ▶ Both OCaml functions implement “the factorial function.” How do I know this? Can I prove it?
  - Key ingredient: a mathematical way of specifying what programs do, i.e., their semantics
  - Doing so depends on the semantics of the language

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## Semantic styles

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- ▶ Textual language definitions are often **incomplete** and **ambiguous**
- ▶ A **formal** semantics is basically a mathematical definition of what programs do. Two flavors:
  - Denotational semantics (compiler/translator)
    - > Meaning defined in terms of another language (incl. math)
    - > If we know what C means, then we can define Ruby by translation to C
  - Operational semantics (interpreter)
    - > Meaning defined as rules that simulate program execution
    - > Show what Ruby programs do directly, using an abstract “machine,” more high-level than real hardware

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## Attributes of a Good Language

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- Cost of use
  - Program execution (run time), program translation, program creation, and program maintenance
- Portability of programs
  - Develop on one computer system, run on another
- ▶ Programming environment
  - External support for the language
  - Libraries, documentation, community, IDEs, ...

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## Attributes of a Good Language

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- Clarity, simplicity, and unity
  - Provides both a framework for thinking about algorithms and a means of expressing those algorithms
- Orthogonality
  - Every combination of features is meaningful
  - Features work independently
- Naturalness for the application
  - Program structure reflects the logical structure of algorithm

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## Attributes of a Good Language

- Support for abstraction
  - Hide details where you don't need them
  - Program data reflects the problem you're solving
- Security & safety
  - Should be very difficult to write unsafe programs
- Ease of program verification
  - Does a program correctly perform its required function?

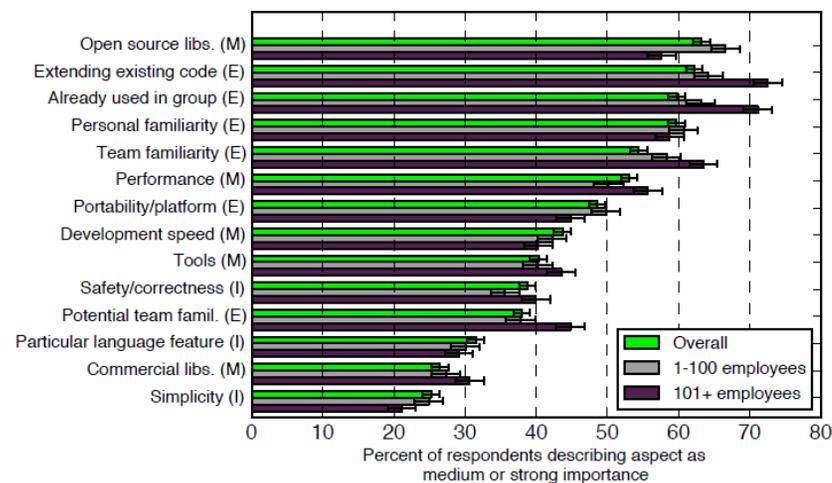
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## Summary

- ▶ Many types of programming languages
  - Imperative, functional, logical, OO, scripting, ...
- ▶ Many programming language attributes
  - Clear, natural, low cost, verifiable, ...
- ▶ Programming language implementation
  - Compiled, interpreted
- ▶ Programming language semantics
  - Proving your program operates correctly

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## What Programmers Want In a PL



Meyerovitch & Rabin, "Empirical analysis of programming language adoption", OOPSLA' 13<sup>2</sup>