# Principles of Programming Languages 

Lecture 02

Criteria for Language Design

## Criteria for Language Design

1. Simplicity

- mnemonic
- clear easily mastered semantics
- as few basic concepts as possible
- feature/concepts limited enough to master entire language (discourages "dialecting")
- effects of feature combinations easily predictable
- simple rules of combination


## ex:

(1) PL/I: default coercion rules among fixed bin, fixed dec, float bin, float dec, when modified by scale attributes, become very complex. Each rule is reasonable by itself-the combination yields strange results.
dcl $M$ fixed $\operatorname{dec}(10,5), N$ fixed $\operatorname{bin}(5,4)$; $\mathrm{N}=0$;
$\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{N}+.1$;
$\begin{array}{clll}\text { expr attr. } & \text { repn. } & \text { val. } \\ .1 \text { dec }(1,1) & 0.1 \quad \text { (dec) } & & 1 / 10 \\ \mathrm{~N}+.1 \text { bin }(5,4) & 0.0001 \mid 100110011 & \text {. } & 1 / 16\end{array}$
(binary conversion, then truncation)
M dec $(10,5) 00000.06250$ (dec) $1 / 16$
(2) ALGOL 60:

- own static
- array dynamic size (known at block entry)
ex: own boolean array $\mathrm{B}[\mathrm{M}: \mathrm{N}]$;
- created on first entry to block
- retained between entries to block (with values at block exit)
- seemingly could vary in size
- conflicts with stack implementation
- meaning?
(3) PASCAL: fairly simple
(4) ADA:


## Entia non sint multiplicanda praeter necessitatem -William of Ockham

- procedure calls: keyword or positional for actual/formal correspondence
- but positional parameters must occur first, and once a keyword is used, rest of the call must use keyword parms

REORDER_KEYS (NUM_OF_ITEMS, KEY_ARRAY :=: RESULT_TABLE);
2. Well-defined Syntactic/Semantic Description

- syntax - not a problem to specify once designed
- semantics - big problem; still often informal
- ALGOL 68 Report (1968)
- Revised Report on ALGOL 68 (1975)
- Informal Introduction to ALGOL 68, Lindsey \& Van der Meulen (1977)
- Chapter 0: Very Informal Introduction to ALGOL 68
- Techniques
- Interpretive (operational): PL/I (VDL, Wegner, 1972)
- Axiomatic: PASCAL (Hoare-Wirth, 1971)
- Denotational: Scheme (Steele \& Sussman, 1978)


## ex:

(1) ALGOL 60: Lack of complete syntax and semantics (especially I/O) harmed adoption
(2) PASCAL: forward left out of grammar; demands definition before use but makes exceptions for recursive types
(3) PASCAL: When are types equivalent? The Report is ambiguous
type $t=\operatorname{array}[1 . .100]$ of real;
var $a, b$ : array [1..100] of real;
$c \quad: \operatorname{array}[1 . .2]$ of $t$;
$d$ : array[1..2] of array[1..100] of real;
$e \quad: t$;
$f$ : array[1..100] of real; $g \quad: t$;

- structural equivalence: equivalent if have same type structure
- $\{a, b, e, f, g\}$ : array[1..100] of real;
- $\{c, d\}$ : array[1..2] of array[1..100] of real;
- declaration equivalence: variables type compatible $\Leftrightarrow$ have same type name (built-in or user-defined) or appear in the same declaration (ex: PASCAL)
- $\{a, b\}$ (same declaration)
- $\{f\}$ (distinct declaration)
- $\{e, g\}$ (both of type $t$ )
- $\{c\},\{d\}$ (distinct declaration)
- name equivalence: variables type compatible $\Leftrightarrow$ have same type name (built-in or user-defined) (ex: ADA)
- only $\{e, g\}$ (both of type $t$ )
- all others inequivalent
(4) DO loops in early FORTRAN: is the index value available after transfer out?
(5) ALGOL 60: Semantics of assignments

From the Algol 60 Report:
"4.2.3. Semantics [of assignment statement]
Assignment statements serve for assigning the value of an expression to one or several variables ... The process will in the general case be understood to take place in three steps as follows:
4.2.3.1. Any subscript expressions occurring in the left part variables are evaluated in sequence from left to right.
4.2.3.2. The expression of the statement is evaluated. 4.2.3.3. The value of the expression is assigned to all the left part variables, with any subscript expressions having values as evaluated in step 4.2.3.1."

```
begin integer a;
    integer procedure f(x, y); value y,x; integer y,x;
        a := f := x + 1;
    integer procedure g(x); integer x;
        x := g := a + 2;
    a := 0; outreal(1, a + (f(a,g(a)) / g(a)) )
end
```

Many possible evaluations of: $\mathbf{a}+(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathrm{g}(\mathrm{a})) /$ g(a) )

## $a+(f(a, g(a)) / g(a))$



$$
\begin{aligned}
& g(x) \text { by name: } \\
& \qquad x:=g:=a+2 \\
& f(x, y) \text { by value: } \\
& \quad a:=f:=x+1 \\
& \text { main }:
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{a}:=0 ; \\
& \text { print expr }
\end{aligned}
$$

## (a) Eval denom. $1^{\text {stt }}$, then numer. L-R



```
\(g(x)\) by name:
    \(x:=g:=a+2\)
\(f(x, y)\) by value:
    \(a:=f:=x+1\)
    main:
    \(a:=0 ;\)
    print expr
```


## (b) Eval standard topological sort (L-R)


$g(x)$ by name: $x:=g:=a+2$
$f(x, y)$ by value:

$$
a:=f:=x+1
$$

main:
$a:=0 ;$
print expr
(c) Other possible results (11 total)

$$
\frac{3}{5} \quad \frac{3}{2} \quad \frac{5}{2} \quad \frac{4}{3} \quad 3 \frac{3}{5} \quad 3 \frac{1}{3} \quad 5 \frac{3}{5} \quad 3 \frac{1}{2} \quad 7 \frac{1}{2}
$$

## Another Example:

- Bad:

$$
A[a+B[f(a)]+g(a)]:=C[a]:=0 ;
$$

- Algol examples from D.E. Knuth, " ${ }^{\text {TThe Remaining }}$ Trouble Spots in ALGOL 60", CACM 1967.
(6) C, C++: Semantics of expressions \& assignments

$$
a=f(i) ; a+=g(i) ;
$$

$a=f(i)+g(i) ;$
NOT equivalent. Result of one is known; result of the other is unknown.
(7) $\mathrm{C}++$ : There are 6 different kinds of scope:

- block (local) scope: names declared in a block \& formal parameters defined in any enclosed block/function (except if redeclared)
- function scope: labels defined throughout function in which declared
- function prototype scope: names in the parameter list extend to the end of prototype definition
- file (global) scope: name declared outside all blocks/classes is defined throughout the translation unit
- class scope: class member name $n$ is local to its class C and can be used only
(1) as n in another member function of class C
(2) as $\mathrm{C} . \mathrm{n}$ where c is an object of class C (or a derived class of $C$ )
(3) as $\mathrm{pc}->\mathrm{n}$ where pc is a pointer to an object of class C (or a derived class of C )
(4) as $X:: n$ (scope resolution operator) where $X$ is $C$ (or a derived class of C )
- namespace scope: names defined only inside the namespace (a named collection of classes) or ofoutside using scope resolution operator : : (namespaces support multivendor libraries with potential name conflicts)

```
namespace std {
    #include <iostream.h>
    #include <math.h>
}
namespace SOFTinc {
    class stack ( ... };
    class queue { ... };
}
            // here use std::<<
using namespace std;
    // here use << for std::<<
using namespace SOFTinc;
    // here use stack for SOFTinc::stack
```

3. Reliability/Safety

- Reliability: syntactic errors not easy to introduce and discouraged (related to readability)
- Safety: semantic errors detectable, preferably at compile time
ex:
(1) ALGOL 60: missing ; after comment absorbs next statement $\Rightarrow$ strange errors
(2) PL/I:

FOO: PROC OPTIONS (MAIN);
DCL ...
ON ENDFILE(SYSIN) BEGIN;
(forgot END ; )

DO $\mathrm{I}=1 \mathrm{BY}$ 1;
(forgot END; )
END FOO;
Last END creates end for FOO and any other enclosed structures with forgotton ENDs-with no warning!
(3) PASCAL: ; is a separator, not a terminator as in PL/I, ADA

PASCAL (separator bad): if $C$ then $S_{1}$ else $\quad S_{2}$; $S_{3}$;
\{error without begin $S_{2} ; S_{3}$ end ; \}
ADA (terminator good):

| if $C$ | then | $S_{1}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | else | $S_{2} ;$ |  |
|  | $\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{3}} ;$ | $(* \mathrm{ok} *)$ |  |

end if ;

- [Ripley \& Druseikis, Computer Languages 3 (1978) 227-240] [Gannon, CACM 20 (1977) 584-595]
- $20 \%$ of all PASCAL syntax errors are ; terminator errors
- $7.5 \%$ are missing begin, end
(4) Use unique delimiters for different constructs


## ADA:

## if <br> for <br> case

ALGOL 68:
do
if
case
?!:
comment tnemmoc

> end if ; end loop;
od
fi
esac
(5) PASCAL variant records: type compatibility cannot be checked at compile time
type scale $=($ large, huge $) ;$
measurement $=$
record

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { unit : string ; } \\
& \text { case size : scale of } \\
& \text { large : (exact : integer }) \text {; } \\
& \text { huge : (approx : real) }
\end{aligned}
$$

end ;
var dist : measurement ;
unit $\rightarrow$
size $\rightarrow$
exact, approx $\rightarrow$

(*) dist.exact is meaningful $\Leftrightarrow$ dist. size $=$ large dist.approx is meaningful $\quad \Leftrightarrow$ dist.size $=$ huge

- Programmer can alter dist.size
- Cannot enforce (*) at compile time
- To enforce at runtime every reference to a variant field must check the tag field value (large or huge). Never done in practice.
(6) $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C}++$ : == vs. = if ( $\mathrm{n}=0$ )
exception();
else
norm();
(7) C, C++: Implicit pointer conversions
char* mem;
void* gen_ptr;
gen_ptr $=$ mem; $/ / \mathrm{C}$ and $\mathrm{C}++$
mem $=$ gen_ptr; // assignt. compatible in C // illegal in C++
(8) Comments in C++
// FILE: rat.h
// ...
class Rat
\{
public:
// CONSTRUCTORS
Rat(int $\mathrm{n}=0$, int $\mathrm{d}=1) ; \quad / /$ default constructor: Rat
// Rat(5) ==> 5/1
Rat (const Rat\& r);
// copy constructor
Rat (double d); // init by a double value
// DESTRUCTOR
~Rat() \{ // nothing to do \}


## // SELECTORS \& CONST MEMBER FUNCTIONS

int numer() const \{ return num; \}
double decimal() const \{ return double(num)/double(den); \} int denom() const \{ return den; \}
int sign() const $\{$ if (num < 0) return -1; else return / / ...
private:
int num; // numerator
int den; // denominator > 0
\};
// NONMEMBER functions for Rat Class

Rat operator * (const Rat\& $x$, const Rat\& y);

```
opu> make
g++ -Wall -c -g testrat.cxx
In file included from testrat.cxx:7:
rat.h:58: 'Rat::operator +(const Rat &, const Rat &)'
    must take either zero or one argument
rat.h:59: 'Rat::operator (unary *)(const Rat &, const Rat &)'
    must take either zero or one argument
testrat.cxx:79: parse error at end of input
*** Exit 1
Stop.
opu>
```


## - Why?

Fixed as follows: In rat.h file, change DESTRUCTOR definition to:

```
// DESTRUCTOR
~Rat(){ // nothing to do
    }
```

opu>

- Now it compiles!
(9) Static type checking vs. Run-time type checking
- ML: static
opu> sml
Standard ML of New Jersey, Version 0.93, February 15, 1993 val it $=()$ : unit
- fun stringadd $x=x+$ "astring";
std_in:2.21 Error: overloaded variable not defined at type symbol: +
type: string
- fun $S(x)=x$;
val $S=f n: \quad$ 'a $->$ 'a
- (S 3);
val it $=3$ : int
- fun $S(x)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}x & x\end{array}\right)$;
std_in:6.12-6.16 Error: operator is not a function
operator: 'Z in expression: $x$ x
- fun $S f=(f n x=>f(x \quad x))$;
std_in:0.0-0.0 Error: operator is not a function
operator: ' Z in expression: x x
- ${ }^{\wedge} \mathrm{D}$
opu>


## - Scheme: dynamic

```
opu> scheme
Scheme Microcode Version 10.2
MIT Scheme, unix [bsd (unknown)] version
^AH (CTRL-A, then H) shows help on interrupt keys.
```

Scheme saved on ...
Release 6.1.2
Microcode 10.2
Runtime 13.91
SF 3.13
1 ] => ; scheme not strongly typed
(define stringadd
(lambda (x)
(+ x "astring") ))
STRINGADD
1 ] => (stringadd 5)
Illegal datum in second argument position "astring"
within procedure \#[PRIMITIVE-PROCEDURE \&+]
There is no environment available;
using the current read-eval-print environment.
2 Error-> ^G
Quit!

1 ]=> ; self-apply functional (define $S$
(lambda (x) (x x)) )
S

1 ] $=>\quad\left(\begin{array}{ll}S & 1\end{array}\right)$
Application of Non-Procedure Object 1
There is no environment available;
using the current read-eval-print environment.

2 Error-> ^G
Quit!

1 ] => (define omega
(lambda ()
$\left(\begin{array}{ll}S & S\end{array}\right)$
OMEGA

1 ] => (omega)
${ }^{\wedge} \mathrm{G}$
Quit!
;i;i;i; above interrupt occurred after a long processing loop ;i;i;i; next we see if $S$ behaves like an honest "self-apply"

1 ]=> (define id
(lambda (x) x ) )
ID

1 ]=> (id S)
\#[COMPOUND-PROCEDURE \#x13EDEC]

1 ] $=>$ (S id)
\#[COMPOUND-PROCEDURE \#x19FE4C]

1 ] => ( (S id) 10)
10

1 ] $=>$ ( (id S) 10)
Application of Non-Procedure Object 10
There is no environment available;
using the current read-eval-print environment.

2 Error-> ^G
Quit!

1 ]=> (\%exit)
Moriturus te saluto.
opu>
4. Fast Translation

- simple syntax $\Rightarrow$ simple parser
- LL(1) or LR(1) preferable
- "one-pass" compilation


## ex:

(1) PL/I: 10 passes over source file
(2) ADA: types, modes and names of parameters, together with the result type of a procedure, are used to resolve procedure references-leads to complex "static semantic analysis".
(a) F (X) might be

- subprogram call: F subprogram, X parm
- array reference: F array variable, X index
- conversion: F type name, $X$ expression
(b) overloaded operators ("ad hoc polymorphism")

> function "+"(X, Y: VECTOR) return VECTOR; function "+"(X, Y: MATRIX) return MATRIX; specific operator identified by the operand types and return types
5. Efficient Object Code

- Small changes in usage should not result in huge changes in execution time
- Encouraged by early binding of information at compile-time and few run-time checks (e.g., strong typing)
ex:
(1) FORTRAN: very efficient
(2) ALGOL 60 for loop:
for $i:=e_{1}$ step $e_{2}$ until $e_{3}$ do $\cdots$;
re-evaluates the step and bound expressions $e_{2}, e_{3}$ on every iteration; this penalizes most loops.
(3) SMALLTALK: elaborate bytecode to resolve b + c which abbreviates b add: c.
c might be string, vector, bignum, integer, ... Method to be used is determined by the message receiver object, using "dispatching" algorithm that searches dictionaries in bs instance dictionary, then class dictionary, then superclass dictionary, ... (deferred binding at run-time, for each message)
(4) $\mathrm{C}++$ : resolution of plus method in $\mathrm{b}+\mathrm{c}$ made at compile time using known type of operand c and static code for operator+ in known class (i.e., type) declaration of b. Efficient object code generated; no code for a run-time dictionary search.

6. Orthogonality

A language is orthogonal to the extent that one can separate it into elements that can be defined independently

- regularity: any combination of primitives should be allowed: no ad hoc restrictions on the use of certain constructs in certain places
- programmer should be able to infer legal constructs by generalization from instances
- independent functions should be controlled by independent language mechanisms
ex:
(1) Children’s English: "I runned the program." Actually "-ed" is not a true orthogonal operator in English because of verb irregularity
(2) FORTRAN (early):
(a) could initialize a constant with ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{FOO}^{\prime}$, but could not assign string constants: $\mathrm{X}={ }^{\prime} \mathrm{FOO}$ ' illegal
(b) lacked relational operators ( $<,=$ ) for strings
(c) expressions in array subscripts had a limited syntax: $n * I+m, n$ and $m$ integer constants
(3) PASCAL:
- components of a packed array cannot be passed by reference (var)
- procedures, functions passed as parameters (actuals) cannot themselves have reference (var) parameters
- functions cannot return array, record, set, file, function
(4) ALGOL 60: the first language to focus on orthogonality
$X:=Y+($ if $A=B$ then $A+1$ else $A) * B$; goto if $X=Y$ then $L 1$ else $L 2$;
(5) ALGOL 68: highly orthogonal
- expressions on LHS as well as RHS of assignments
(int home, away; read( (home, away) );
if home > away then won elif home = away then tied else lost fi)

$$
+:=1
$$

- functions can return functions, etc.
(6) ADA: exponentiation ** not defined for "fixed point" type
(7) ADA \& PASCAL: array declarations can be given explicity without first naming a type. For any other kind of non-atomic type, one must use a pre-defined type. E.g., in ADA:
A : array (1..5) of CHARACTER;--legal
DAY : (M, T, W, TH, F); --illegal
type WORKDAY is (M, T, W, TH, F);
DAY : WORKDAY; --legal
(8) PASCAL: size of an array is part of its type
$\Rightarrow$ writing a general sort routine is difficult (re-usable code discouraged)
$\Rightarrow$ an error routine must pad all error messages to the same length (since strings are stored as packed arrays)
$\Rightarrow$ files or pointers (heap allocation) must be used when size of a storage structure cannot be estimated before execution
(9) C : tries valiantly to integrate pointer manipulation with arithmetic, and arrays with pointers. However:
- ampersand is not a true operator:
int $x$; int *px;
$\mathrm{px}=8 \mathrm{x}$; /* px gets addr of x */
px++;
\& (x+1); /* illegal */
\&3 /* illegal */
register $x ;$
px = \&x; /* illegal */
- pointer arithmetic and array indexing are close, but enough different to be confusing:
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { int a[10]; } & \text { /* array a */ } \\ \text { int *pa; } & \text { /* pointer pa */ } \\ \text { ali] } \equiv \text { *(ali) } & \\ \text { pa [i] } \equiv \quad \text { *(pali) } & \\ \text { pa }=\text { a; } & \\ \text { pa++; } & \end{array}$
but • • •
a = pa; /* illegal */
a++; /* illegal */
$\mathrm{p}=$ \&a; /*all illegal since a is a const */

Why do you seldom make these errors? Luck of style: array names are mostly actual arguments bound to formal variables (locals) in function calls. So inside the function body, an array parmeter with formal name a would be a local variable, and allow a++ to be legal.
(10) C++: All functions have parameter types and result types-except for class constructors and destructors. // FILE: stacki.h
\#include <stdlib.h> // Provides size_t
\#include <assert.h> // Provides assert

```
template <class Item>
class Stack
{
public:
// MEMBER CONSTANTS
enum \{ CAPACITY = 64 \};
// CONSTRUCTOR
Stack ( ) \{ used = 0; \}
// DESTRUCTOR
~Stack ( ) \{ \}
// MODIFICATION functions
void push(const Item\& entry);
Item pop( );
```

```
// CONSTANT functions size_t size( ) const \{ return used; bool is_empty( ) const \{ return used Item peek( ) const; private:
Item data[CAPACITY]; // bottom 0 size_t used;
\};
```

$Q:$ Why doesn't Stack () return an object of the class Stack?

A: Stroustrup wanted (run-time) declarations to look like C declarations:
Stack<int> operand, offset; Stack<char> operator;
7. Language Objects First-Class

Defn: [Stoy, Denotational Semantics, MIT, 1989, p. 39]. An object is first-class if it can be

- returned as the result of a function call
- returned as the result of an expression evaluation
- assigned as the value of a variable
- entered into an array
- selected by a conditional expression
- passed as a parameter
(1) ALGOL 60: only first-class objects were values of type real, integer and boolean. Procedures were really constants; could be called or passed as parameters only. There were label variables, but procedures could not return labels.
(2) LISP: often called a "functional language", but in classical LISP functions are not first-class objects:

```
e
e}2 (lambda (x y) (+ x y))
    ; does not eval to a function
    ; only has meaning applied to args
(\begin{array}{lll}{2}&{3}&{4}\end{array})\quad=>
opu> kcl
AKCL (Austin Kyoto Common Lisp) Version(1.505)
>( (lambda (x y) (+ x y)) 7 5)
1 2
>(lambda (x y) (+ x y))
Error: The function LAMBDA is undefined.
Error signalled by EVAL.
Broken at EVAL. Type :H for Help.
>>:r
Top level.
>(defun add (x y) (+ x y))
ADD
>(add 7 5)
1 2
```

```
>(defun ident(x) x)
IDENT
>(ident 3)
3
>(ident add)
Error: The variable ADD is unbound.
Error signalled by EVAL.
Broken at EVAL. Type :H for Help.
>>:r
Top level.
>((ident add) 7 5)
Error: (IDENT ADD) is invalid as a function.
Error signalled by EVAL.
Broken at EVAL. Type :H for Help.
>>:r
Top level.
>^DBye.
```

(3) ML ("Meta Language"): all functions are first-class; opu> sml

Standard ML of New Jersey, Version 0.66
val it $=()$ : unit

- $3+4$;
val it $=7$ : int
- fun $\operatorname{add}(x, y):$ int $=(x: i n t)+(y: i n t) ;$
val add $=f n$ : int $*$ int $->$ int
- add (7,5);
val it $=12$ : int
- fun ident (x) $=x$;
val ident $=f n: \quad$ 'a $->$ 'a
- ident (add);
val it $=f n$ : int * int $->$ int
- ident (add) (7,5);
val it $=12$ : int


## (4) Scheme functions are first class

```
opu> scheme
Scheme Microcode Version 10.2
MIT Scheme, unix [bsd (unknown)] version
^AH (CTRL-A, then H) shows help on interrupt keys.
1 ] => (define add
    (lambda (x y)
    (+ x y) ))
ADD
1 ] => (add 7 5)
1 2
1 ]=> (define ident
    (lambda (x)
        x ))
IDENT
```

1 ]=> (ident add)
\# [COMPOUND-PROCEDURE \#x1691E0]
1 ] => ( (ident add) 75 )
12
1 ] => (\%exit)
Moriturus te saluto.

```
(5) The equivalent example in Common Lisp requires
computation of function closures like # (quote
ident)
opu> kcl
AKCL (Austin Kyoto Common Lisp) Version(1.505) Fri Dec 14 1S
>(defun add (x y) (+ x y))
ADD
>(defun ident (x) x)
IDENT
```

>(funcall \#'ident 3)
3
;i;i; fun name ! = fun val (closure)
>(funcall \#'ident add)
Error: The variable $A D D$ is unbound.
Error signalled by EVAL.
Broken at EVAL. Type :H for Help.
>>: r
Top level.

```
>(funcall #'ident #'add)
(LAMBDA-BLOCK ADD (X Y) (+ X Y))
;;;;;; looks like a functional argument but isn't
>( (funcall #'ident #'add) 7 5)
Error: (FUNCALL #'IDENT #'ADD) is invalid as a function.
Error signalled by EVAL.
Broken at EVAL. Type :H for Help.
>>:r
Top level.
>(funcall (funcall #'ident #'add) 7 5)
1 2
>^DBye.
opu>
```

8. Transparent Data Types

- Defn: A data type is transparent when all values of that type can be represented as literals within the language.
- related to being first-class
(1) APL: arrays are both first-class objects and transparent

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
S & \leftarrow & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\
S & \leftarrow & 15 & & & &
\end{array}
$$

(2) ALGOL 68: arrays are both first-class objects and transparent
$[1: 3,1: 2] \operatorname{int} A:=((1,2),(0,0),(3,4))$; (row-major $3 \times 2$ array representation)
(3) ALGOL 68: structs are transparent: struct (string unit, int value) $X:=$ ("lumens", 12);
$X:=$ ("btu", 4);
(4) PASCAL: arrays are not transparent; no way to initialize or assign
(5) PASCAL: sets are transparent (except for limits on set size): $X:=\left[{ }^{\prime} A^{\prime} . .{ }^{\prime} M^{\prime}\right] ; Y:=[2 . .12]$; but set lacks orthogonality since set of record is disallowed.
9. Generality/Abstraction

- all features should be composed of a few basic concepts
- "natural" generalization of disparate concepts should be found


## ex:

(1) PASCAL: enumeration types all support pred, succ, $=$, <, etc.
(2) PASCAL: for takes scalar types, sets
(3) ALGOL 68: for from by to while do $\cdot$. od. PL/I also has extremely generalized loop structure
(4) C almost unifies arrays and pointers
(5) Early C: structures could not be assigned to, copied, passed to or returned from functions
(6) APL: A + B for vectors, arrays; even $3+A$ defined for arrays
(7) PASCAL: dimensions of an array are part of its type: function $\operatorname{sum}(x$ : array [1..100] of real) : real;
end $\{$ sum $\}$;
But cannot be re-used on the argument bigvec : array[1..100000] of real;
(8) ALGOL 60: begin ... end brackets do double, unrelated duty.
(a) They group statements into a compound statement
(b) They open and close blocks, thus manipulating the environment:
$n:=10$;
begin integer $n$;
$n:=3$;
end
10. Machine Independence and Portability

- character set part of language definition
- language acknowledges variant machine arithmetics, word sizes, representation limits


## ex:

(1) ADA: "representation attributes" make important implementation-dependent characteristics accessible to programmer; this makes it possible to program for version generators

INTEGER'FIRST
X'ADDRESS
T'MACHINE_ROUNDS

INTEGER' LAST
$X^{\prime}$ SIZE
T'MACHINE_EMAX
(2) PASCAL: unfortunate historical limit on size of sets CDC 6000 PASCAL: scalar types limited to $\leq 59$ elements; subranges could only be indexed inside [0..58].
(3) $\mathbf{f 7 7}$ et. seq. has standardized character set; earlier FORTRANS did not (e.g., code was uncompilable due to identifies like RATE_OF_PAY)
(4) FORTRAN (early): could EQUIVALENCE a logical and real quantity, if knew the representation of reals
(5) $\mathrm{C}++$ : short and int could be implemented the same. float, double, long could be implemented the same. char might be more than 8 bits. All these are ANSI "spec".
(6) ADA: the package SYSTEM draws together implementation-dependent language characteristics package SYSTEM is type ADDRESS is implementation defined; type NAME is implementation defined enumeration type;
SYSTEM_NAME: constant NAME $:=$ implementation defined;
STORAGE_UNIT: constant $:=$ implementation defined;
MEMORY_SIZE: constant $:=$ implementation defined;
-- System Dependent Named Numbers;
MIN_INT : constant $:=$ implementation defined;
MAX_INT : constant $:=$ implementation defined;
TICK $:$ constant $:=$ implementation defined;
-••
-- Other System Dependent Declarations
subtype PRIORITY is INTEGER range implementation defined;
end SYSTEM;
11. Verifiability

- language should make formal verification of program correctness easy
- need an axiomatic/denotational description of all semantics
- far from achieved


## ex:

(1) PL/C (Cornell PL/I): assert feature was a "compilable comment"
(2) ADA: (Strawman 1975) Design was to be "amenable to verification of correctness".
(3) C++: assert( used < CAP \&\& 0 <= top <= used); violation causes exception to be thrown at run-time. If user provides no handler, a run-time error message is printed, and program exits.
12. Consistency with Familiar Notations

- respect common expectations regarding established notation
- encouraged by overloading: the ability to define multiple meanings for the same syntax; resolved by context


## ex:

(1) PASCAL: +: integer, real, boolean
<: any enumeration type
(2) ADA: package textio

GET ( ITEM : out CHARACTER ); STRING INTEGER
FLOAT
FIXED
BOOLEAN enumeration types
(3) COBOL: ADD B TO C GIVING A
(4) Smalltalk:

$$
x+2 * y \equiv((x \text { plus: 2) times: y) }
$$

$x$ sent +2 message; resulting object is sent $* y$ message; resulting object has value $(x+2) \cdot y$.
(5) $\mathrm{C}++$ : flexible operator overloading for any class bool operator==(const Table\& $x$, const Table\& y);
output insertion operator generalizes:
ostream\& operator<<(ostream\& outstream, const Table\& source); as does input extraction operator >>.
Each new object class can overload these with appropriate 'output packing'" and 'input unpacking'" code.
(6) C++ notation for casting:

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\mathrm{x} & =\text { (double) } i ; \quad / / \mathrm{C} & \\
\mathrm{x}=\text { double(i); } & / / \mathrm{C}++ & \\
\mathrm{x}=\text { static_cast<double>(i)// } & \text { ANSI C++ }
\end{array}
$$

(latter uses notation for template arguments in C++)
13. Uniformity

- similar things should have similar meanings
$\equiv$ dissimilar semantics $\Rightarrow$ dissimilar appearance
- "semantic differences should appear as syntactic differences"
- basic constructs should be applied consistently and universally
- "semantic similarities should appear as syntactic similarities"
(1) PASCAL: control-flow case $\neq$ variant record case record <fixed part>;
case expression of
value $_{1}$ : stmt ${ }_{1}$;
value $_{n}:$ stmt $_{n}$; end
case $f(c)$ of
apple : $a:=a+1$;
banana : $b:=b+1$;
end
case ident: typeid of value $_{1}$ : (fields ${ }_{1}$ ); :
value $_{n}$ : $\left(\right.$ fields $\left._{n}\right)$; end
record count: integer;
case $c$ : fruit of
apple : (diameter : integer) ;
banana: (length: real);
end
(2) ADA: $F(X)$ could be an array reference or a function call. But arrays and functions are very different [Van der Linden, SIGPLAN Notices 17, 3(Mar 82), 93-94]
- arrays have to be initialized before use, but not functions
- arrays can receive as well as return values, but not ADA functions (PL/I has 'pseudo-functions'')
- arrays can be passed to a subprogram as a parameter, but not ADA functions (no procedure type in ADA)
- arrays may return different values at different times with the same arguments, but not pure ADA functions
- arrays are viewed as data areas, but functions are viewed as code
(3) ALGOL 60: double use of begin $\cdots$ end as statement compounder and block definer. Confuses sequencing, definition and allocation.
(4) PASCAL: repeat loops can have any number of statements in the body, but for loops can have only one (requiring multi-statement body to be bracketed).


## 14. Extensibility

- supports abstract datatype: a collection of data items and functions that create, access and mutate these data. Implemented by classes, modules (Modula2), clusters (CLU), packages (ADA), etc.
- encouraged by overloading, inheritance or typeparameters: the compiler "dispatches" the code that will be executed
(1) ADA: package concept and overloading of operators
(2) PASCAL: user-define types, but no way to group data types and associated procedures and functions together
(3) ALGOL 68: highly extensible via overloading mode vec $=$ struct (real $x$ coord, ycoord, zcoord); op $x \quad=\quad$ (vec $u$ ) real: $x$ coord $\mathbf{o f} u$;
op $y \quad=\quad$ (vec $u$ ) real: ycoord of $u$;
$\mathbf{0 p} z \quad=\quad$ (vec $u$ ) real: $z$ coord of $u$;
op * $\quad=($ real $r$, vec $u)$ vec: $\left(r^{*} x u, r^{*} y u, r^{*} z u\right)$;
$\mathbf{o p}$ * $\quad=($ vec $u, v)$ real: $x u^{*} x v+y u^{*} y v+z u^{*} z v$;
op norm $=($ vec $u)$ real: $\operatorname{sqrt(u*u);~}$
can declare precedence of ops
(4) C++: Class definition: compile-time overloading \& type checks, inheritance, and type-templating of classes

15. Supports Information Hiding
D. Parnas, "On the criteria to be used in decomposing systems into modules", CACM 15, 12 (Dec 72), 105358.

- modules should be designed with two types of security in mind (abstraction barrier)
(A) secure abstraction: the user has all the information needed to use the module correctly-and nothing more
(B) secure modification: the implementor has all the information needed to implement the module correctly-and nothing more
- Two discoveries during the evolution of languages
- name visibility rules need to be flexible: classical block structure is too rigid
- passing information among modules via parameter lists is insufficient

User

Code using the module

Abstraction Barrier

Q
Code implementing the module

Implementor
ex: FORTRAN "labeled" COMMON provided a means for sharing data among subroutines/functions without declaration in an enclosing block
DIMENSION A(99) block not declared
10 READ $(1,20)$ K
20 FORMAT (I2)
$\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot$
SUBROUTINE VBLE (ITOKEN)
COMMON /SYMTAB/NAME (100) block SYMTAB
$\quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad$
END
SUBROUTINE CONST (ITOKEN)
COMMON /SYMTAB/ENTRY (100) shared
$\quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad$.
END

- Lack of information hiding leads to two problems in some languages
- indiscriminate access: when inadvertent access to variables cannot be forbidden
- vulnerability: when access to needed variables cannot be assured
ex: ALGOL 60: inadvertent access can occur with any attempt at abstract datatypes begin integer array $S[1: 100]$; integer TOP;
procedure Push(x); integer $x$;
begin $T O P:=T O P+1 ; S[T O P]:=x$ end ;
procedure $\operatorname{Pop}(x)$; integer $x$;
begin Pop $:=S[T O P]$; TOP: $=T O P-1$ end ;
boolean procedure Empty();
begin ... end ;
$T O P:=0$;
:
user code using " stack'" abstraction
Push/Pop calls inadvertent access to $S$ and TOP!
end
- no way to place declaration in a block-structured language that prohibits indiscriminate access
- any change in implementation of datatype in effect changes the whole program
ex: ALGOL 60: cannot guarantee access to the same variables after local editing begin integer $x$;
$\vdots$ big code
begin
$\leftarrow$ add new declaration real $x$;
$\vdots \quad$ big code
$x:=x+1$;
end
end
- Difficulty: ALGOL 60 has merged three things that should be decoupled
- definition of new object 'class'" (ADT)
- allocation of new object instance
- access by binding a new name to new instance


## ex:

(1) ADA: package concept makes definition, allocation, name access orthogonal
generic package STACK is --"template" def procedure PUSH (X: in INTEGER); procedure POP(X: out INTEGER); function EMPTY return BOOLEAN;

end STACK;

package STACK1 is new STACK; --"instance" allocation package STACK2 is new STACK;
--note: in ADA this is static-not done at run-time declare
use STACK1; -- provide for name access
I, $N$ : INTEGER;
begin
:
PUSH(I); --access
POP (N) ;
:
STACK1.PUSH(I); --qualified name access
STACK2.POP(N);
end;
(2a) SNOBOL4: vulnerability avoidance (information hiding) violated by dynamic binding (dynamic scoping).

- dynamic binding: free names in each function activation are bound to the names in the environment of the caller, resolvable only at run-time.
- static binding (static scoping, lexical scoping): free names are bound to the names in lexically surrounding scopes, based on purely textual rules, and resolvable at compile-time.
- In the examples below, what value of y is printed by fun?
- PASCAL has static binding
- SNOBOL4 has dynamic binding

```
program bind(output);
const TAB = ' ';
var x,y,z: integer;
```

```
function fun: integer;
var x: integer;
begin (* fun *)
    x := 99;
    writeln('fun:' ,TAB, x ,TAB,y ,TAB,z);
    fun := y
end (* fun *) ;
```

procedure sub;
var y: integer;
begin (* sub *)
y $:=13 ;$
writeln('sub 1:' ,TAB, x ,TAB, Y ,TAB, z);
z := fun;
writeln('sub 2:' ,TAB, $x$,TAB, $y$,TAB, $z)$
end (* sub *) ;
begin (* bind *)
$\mathrm{x}:=1 ; \mathrm{y}:=2 ; \mathrm{z}:=3$;
writeln('bind 1:' ,TAB, $x$,TAB, $y$,TAB, $z) ;$
sub;
writeln('bind 2:' ,TAB, $x$,TAB, $y$,TAB, $z)$;
z := fun;
writeln('bind 3:' ,TAB, $x$,TAB, $y$,TAB, $z)$;
end (* bind *) .

| bind 1: |  | 1 |  | 2 |  | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sub 1: |  | 1 |  | 13 |  | 3 |
| fun: | 99 |  | 2 |  | 3 |  |
| sub 2: |  | 1 |  | 13 |  | 2 |
| bind 2: |  | 1 |  | 2 |  | 2 |
| fun: | 99 |  | 2 |  | 2 |  |
| bind 3: |  | 1 |  | 2 |  | 2 |

MACRO SPITBOL VERSION 3.51 .1

BIND
$\mathrm{TAB}=, \quad$,

DEFINE ('FUN()X') : (FUN.)
FUN X $=99$

$$
\text { OUTPUT }=\text { 'FUN' } \mathrm{TAB} \mathrm{X} \text { TAB } \mathrm{Y} \text { TAB } Z
$$

$$
\text { FUN }=Y \quad:(\text { RETURN })
$$

FUN.

SUB.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{X}=1 ; \mathrm{Y}=2 ; \mathrm{Z}=3 \\
& \text { OUTPUT }=\text { 'BIND } 1^{\prime} \mathrm{TAB} \mathrm{X} \text { TAB } \mathrm{Y} \text { TAB } \mathrm{Z} \\
& \text { SUB () } \\
& \text { OUTPUT }=\text { 'BIND 2' TAB } \mathrm{X} \text { TAB } \mathrm{Y} \text { TAB } \mathrm{Z} \\
& \mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{FUN}() \\
& \text { OUTPUT }=\text { 'BIND } 3^{\prime} \text { TAB } \mathrm{X} \text { TAB } \mathrm{Y} \text { TAB } \mathrm{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$ END

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DEFINE ('SUB () Y') : (SUB.) } \\
& \text { SUB } \quad Y=13 \\
& \text { OUTPUT }=' \text { SUB } 1^{\prime} \text { TAB } \mathrm{X} \text { TAB } Y \text { TAB } Z \\
& Z=F U N() \\
& \text { OUTPUT }=' \text { SUB } \mathbf{2}^{\prime} \text { TAB } X \text { TAB } Y \text { TAB } Z \\
& \text { : (RETURN) }
\end{aligned}
$$

| BIND | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| SUB | 1 | 1 | 13 | 3 |
| FUN | 99 | 13 | 3 |  |
| SUB | 2 | 1 | 13 | 13 |
| BIND | 2 | 1 | 2 | 13 |
| FUN | 99 | 2 | 13 |  |
| BIND | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 |

(2b) LISP 1.5: vulnerability avoidance (information hiding) violated by shallow binding

- shallow binding: free names in body of a function that is passed as a parameter are bound to the names in the environment of the caller
- deep binding: free names in body of a function that is passed as a parameter are bound to the names in the environment at the place where the function is defined.
;; $\operatorname{LISP} 1.5$-- shallow binding
> (defun add1 (x) (+ x 1))
add1
> (add1 5)
6
> (defun twice (f y) (f (f y)) )
twice
> (twice 'add1 5)
7
> (twice '(lambda (x) (* 2 x)) 3)
12
> (setq y 2)
2
> (twice '(lambda (x) (* y x)) 3)
27
;;; not 12!
- y interpreted dynamically in caller twice. Clash occurs with bound $y$ in defn of twice. Bindings at call time are stored on an association list:
( ( f . ' (lambda (x) (* y x)) ) ( y . 3 ) )
(f (fy)) $\rightarrow$
( (lambda (x) (* y x))
( (lambda (x) (* y x)) 3 ) ) $\rightarrow$
( (lambda (x) (*y x) ) (* y 3) ) $\rightarrow$
( (lambda (x) (* y x) ) 9 ) $\rightarrow$
$(* \mathrm{Y} 9) \rightarrow 27$
- what happens in Common LISP? Deep binding
opus> kcl
AKCL (Austin Kyoto Common Lisp) Version (1.505)
;;; illustrates deep binding in Common Lisp unless 'special'
>(defun add (x) (+ x 1) )
ADD 1
>(defun twice (fy) (f (fy)) )
TWICE
>(twice \#'a dd 5)
Error: The function $F$ is undefined.
>\#' add
(LAMBDA-BLOCK ADD1 (X) (+ X 1))
>'add
ADD 1
; ; forgot about FUNCALL!!
>(funcall \#' +2 3)
5
>(funcall \#'add1 5)
6
$>$ (defun twice (f $y$ ) (funcall $f$ (funcall $f y)$ ) TWICE
>(twice \#'add1 5)
7
>(twice \#' (lambda (x) (* 2 x)) 3)
12
>;i; set a variable named $y$ in the top-level environment
$>($ set $y$ 2)
2
>(twice \#' (lambda (x) (* y x))

3) 

12
>;i; note function closure \# causes deep binding of "y" ;i; $y$ is a "free name" in the last closure above
(3) C++: Widely practiced style of class definition puts user interface in a header file, and implementation in a separate file.

- declarations, prototypes in . h file and code in . cxx(.cpp) file. Programs using the class need only include the header.
- but C++ does not require this partition
- in-lined function definition within class declaration "exposes" implementation details, violating the "abstraction barrier"
- templated class declarations required to include all implementation in same file as prototypes, and all to be included by class user. (Why?) This effectively breaks down the abstraction barrier.
// FILE: bag.h
// CLASS PROVIDED: Bag (a container class for a collection of

```
#include <stdlib.h> // Provides size_t and NULL
#include "link1.h" // Provides Node struct
    class Bag
    {
    public:
        // TYPEDEF
        typedef Node::Item Item;
        // CONSTRUCTORS and DESTRUCTOR
        Bag( );
        ~Bag( );
        // MODIFICATION functions
        void insert(const Item& entry);
            . .
        // CONSTANT functions
        size_t size( ) const { return many_nodes; } // INLINED
        Item grab( ) const;
    private:
        Node *head_ptr; // Head pointer for Item list
        size_t many_nodes; // Number of nodes on list
    };
```

```
// FILE: bag.cxx
// CLASS implemented: Bag (see bag.h)
#include <stdlib.h> // Provides NULL, rand, size_t
#include "link.h" // Provides Node, list_clear, ...
#include "bag.h"
Bag::Bag( )
// Library facilities used: stdlib.h
{
    head_ptr = NULL;
    many_nodes = 0;
}
```

Bag: : ~Bag ( )
// Library facilities used: link1.h
\{
list_clear(head_ptr);
many_nodes $=0$;
\}
void Bag::insert (const Item\& entry)
// Library facilities used: link1.h
\{
list_head_insert(head_ptr, entry);
many_nodes++;
\}
16. Supports Development

- facilities for "programming in the large"
- full macro preprocessor; at least a define/include facility
- library extension and standard prolog facility
- information hiding across separately compiled modules
- separate compilation of modules (data and procedures)
- integrated with programming development tools


## ex:

(1) PASCAL: major limitations $\Rightarrow$ Turbo Pascal \&c, Modula2, ...
(2) ALGOL 60: a major detriment to its use
(3) C, C++ plus Unix program development tools (emacs, make, rcs, debugger, ...) form successful program development environment. The language itself directly supports none of this.
(4) In C\#, all major processors (compiler, linker) are available as class methods to be called within the language itself - allows for "on the fly" creation, translation, execution of code.
(5) In C,C++ the notion of module is identified with that of file, confounding two concepts. Not so in modula3 and predecessors.
(6) Monolithic commercial development environments combine structure editors, preprocessors, compilers, libraries, linkers, project management, debuggers, multiple target code generators, document tools (e.g., MetroWerks Code Warrior, Visual $C++$ )
(7) Smalltalk code is almost never actually written using its linearized "file-in"' syntax. An elaborate development environment surrounds the user, with graphical user interface providing an interactive dialog for defining classes and entering code for class methods. Language itself is hard to distinguish from its programming environment. It is all in Smalltalk. (Only the virtual machine executing bytecode has to be ported to a new target.)

