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A STUDY OF SYSTEMS IMPLEMENTATION LANGUAGES
FOR THE POCNET SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT:

This report presents the results of a study of systems implementation languages for the Payload Operations Control Center Network (POCCNET). Criteria are developed for evaluating the languages, and fifteen existing languages are evaluated on the basis of these criteria.

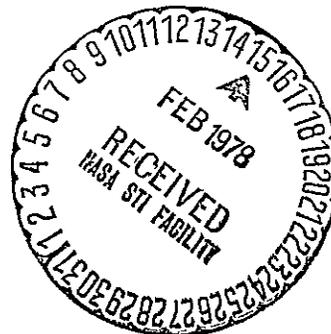


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1. INTRODUCTION

This report presents an evaluation of systems implementation languages for the Payload Operations Control Center Network (POCCNET), which is a general hardware/software concept adopted by GSFC as a means of developing and operating payload operations control centers in the 1980's. The POCCNET system [DES76a,DES76b] will provide hardware and software resource-sharing via a distributed computer network and a package of standardized applications software. This report develops criteria for evaluating POCCNET implementation languages, and then compares fifteen existing languages on the basis of these criteria.

An attempt was made during this study to examine a wide range of existing languages, from a low level macro assembler to the very large and high level language CS-4. The following fifteen languages were examined in detail:

BLISS-11	- A systems implementation language for the PDP-11 series.
C	- The language of the UNIX operating system.
CONCURRENT PASCAL	- A high level language for writing operating systems.
CS-4 Base Language	- An extensible language being developed for the Navy.
FLECS	- A Fortran preprocessor.
HAL/S	- The NASA language for the Space Shuttle program.
INTERDATA FORTRAN V	- An extension of ANSI Fortran.
JOSSLE	- A PL/I derivative for writing compilers.
JOVIAL/J3B	- A close relative of JOVIAL/J3, the Air Force standard language for command and control applications.
LITTLE	- A Fortran derivative that operates

	on bit strings of arbitrary length.
PASCAL	- A highly structured, general purpose language.
PREST4	- A Fortran preprocessor.
SIMPL-T	- The base member of a highly structured family of languages.
SPL / MARK IV	- A high level language with many machine-oriented features.
STRCMACS	- A collection of structured programming macros for IBM OS/360 assembly language.

The language evaluations in this report are based solely on the language reference manuals and other papers listed in the references. We have immediate access to the compilers for only two of the fifteen languages (C and SIMPL-T).

The criteria for evaluating the languages and the preliminary evaluations are presented in the second chapter of this report. Each evaluation is composed of two sections. The first section provides a detailed summary of the following syntactic features of the language:

- (1) basic data types and operators
- (2) control structures
- (3) data structures
- (4) other interesting features
- (5) language syntax
- (6) runtime environment .

The second section of each evaluation presents the characteristics of the language:

- (1) machine dependence
- (2) efficiency
- (3) level of the language
- (4) size of the language and compiler
- (5) special system features
- (6) error checking and debugging
- (7) design support (modularity, modifiability, and

reliability)

(8) use and availability of the language .

In the third chapter we give a summary of the functional subsystems in POCCNET, and then identify the programming application areas within the network. POCCNET will require a language or group of languages supporting general system programming, real-time processing, data base management, numerical processing, and data formatting and conversion. As can be seen, the application areas in POCCNET are diverse.

The fourth chapter contains a series of tables providing a cross reference between the language features and languages discussed in Chapter 2. Each table is devoted to one of the specific POCCNET requirements: each contains the language features contributing to the POCCNET requirement, and indicates for each language feature the presence or absence of that feature in the fifteen languages.

In the fifth and final chapter we give our recommendations and a discussion of possible candidates for the POCCNET implementation language.

2. CRITERIA AND EVALUATION OF THE LANGUAGES

In this chapter we give a detailed evaluation of the fifteen languages covered by this study. Each of the languages is evaluated on the syntactic features of the language (such as basic data types, control structures, and data structures) and on the characteristics of the language (such as machine dependence, efficiency, and design support). The evaluations are based solely on the language reference manuals and other papers listed in the references.

The section on language features contains the following subsections:

- (1) A short introduction indicating the source of the language and the intended application area;
- (2) The primitive data types of the language and the operators and functions for manipulating them;
- (3) The control structures in the language. These are described using a simple, BNF-like metalanguage. Syntactic entities in the language are enclosed in the symbols "<" and ">", language keywords are always capitalized, and any optional features are enclosed in braces "[", "]". Where a choice is available between several features they are listed one above the other, single spaced. For example:

```

    IF <boolean-expr> THEN <stmt> { ELSE <stmt> }

    WHILE <boolean-expr> REPEAT <stmt-list> END ;
    UNTIL

    DO <stmt-#> <var> = <e-1>, <e-2> { ,<e-3> }
      <stmt-list>
    <stmt-#> CONTINUE
  
```

- (4) The data structures in the language, and the operators for manipulating them. All but one of the languages in this study have arrays, others provide record structures, tables,

sets, typed pointers, and file types;

- (5) Any interesting features in the language not covered in the first four subsections. This typically includes macro processors, I/O facilities, CONSTANT declarations, and "include" statements for copying source files into a program;
- (6) The approximate number of productions in the BNF grammar used to describe the language. Since the grammars used in the reference manuals vary from syntax charts to the grammars used by the production compilers, this number only provides a rough measure of the size and complexity of the language.

Any rules containing the BNF OR-operator "!" are considered to be multiple productions. Thus, the rule

```
<loop-stmt> ::= (WHILE ! UNTIL) <boolean-expr>
                REPEAT <stmt-list> END
```

is considered to be two productions;

- (7) The runtime environment required to support the language. For example, a language that permits recursive procedures will require a runtime stack, and languages with full character string processing will require a runtime stack or dynamic storage area to store temporary results during the evaluation of string expressions. Other languages require routines for process management, real-time scheduling, I/O, interrupt handling, and error monitors.

The section on language characteristics contains the following subsections:

- (1) Machine dependence. Some of the languages in this report are truly transportable, while others contain machine or implementation dependent features such as inline assembly language, EQUIVALENCE statements for overlaying data items, user specified allocation of data items in records (word position and bit position within a word), and access to

- hardware registers;
- (2) Efficiency of the language. Languages with high level operators and a structured control structure permit a great deal of optimization to be performed. Overlays, user specified allocation of records, and packing attributes on tables can be used to conserve storage space. Some of the languages have compiler directives for requesting that certain program variables be allocated in high speed storage, or to force procedures to be expanded inline at the point of invocation (rather than generating a calling sequence);
 - (3) Level of the language. The languages in this report range from very low level (STRCMACS) to high level (CS-4, HAL/S, PASCAL). The low level languages are typeless and generally have many machine-oriented features. The high level languages, on the other hand, are fully typed and have a large number of data types, data structures, and control structures. Machine dependent features are forbidden or carefully isolated, as in CS-4;
 - (4) Size of the language and compiler. The size and complexity of the language directly influences the effort required to learn the language and to implement a compiler for the language. The languages in this study range from very small (STRCMACS) to very large (CS-4). For some of the languages the actual size of the compiler in source language statements is known;
 - (5) Special system features. Most of the fifteen languages provide a number of features that would be particularly helpful for system implementation. These include inline assembly language, process management and real-time scheduling, bit and character data types, pointers and record structures, the ability to suppress type checking, reentrant or recursive procedures, and access to hardware registers;

- (6) Error checking and debugging. Compilers for fully typed languages can detect many errors during compilation that can not be detected until the debugging phase in the typeless languages. Typeless pointer variables are particularly troublesome. Languages that do not provide default declarations or automatic type conversion can also detect more errors at compile time.

A number of the languages provide special debugging tools, including traces of program variables, statement label flow history, execution statistics, timing information, and cross reference and attribute listings;

- (7) Design support. Design support is broken down into three categories: modularity, modifiability, and reliability. Some of the features contributing toward modularity are a structured control structure, a data abstraction facility (as in CS-4), and independent compilation of procedures and functions. A macroprocessor and some form of "include" feature for copying source files into a program greatly enhances modifiability. High level data structures and operators also improve modifiability by making programs shorter and more readable.

Features contributing to reliability are full type checking, a data abstraction facility, a structured control structure, a small number of compiler-supplied defaults, and few or carefully isolated system features;

- (8) Use of the language. This section includes information about the use of the language in large programming projects, what machines have compilers for the language, and how easily the compiler could be transported to other machines. Some of this information was found in [RE75], the remainder was found in the language reference manuals.

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to the evaluations of the languages (listed in alphabetical order).

2.1. BLISS-11

2.1.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

BLISS-11 [DEC74] is a systems programming language for the PDP-11 series that was developed by a group at Carnegie Mellon University with some assistance from Digital Equipment Corporation. Although the language is highly structured, it is typeless and generally low-level. BLISS-11 differs from conventional programming languages in several important ways. First, BLISS-11 is expression oriented, so that all control structures return a value. For example, `P = (INCR I FROM 1 TO 10 BY 1 DO IF .A[.I] EQL 0 THEN EXITLOOP .I)` is a legal BLISS-11 construction. Secondly, BLISS identifiers evaluate to a pointer to the named item, and not to the value of the item. A dot operator is provided for dereferencing these pointers. For example, if A is a BLISS identifier then the expression A evaluates to the address of item A, `.A` to the value of item A, and `..A` to the value of the item pointed to by item A.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

BLISS-11 is a typeless language. All operators operate on 16-bit words, and it is the user's responsibility to insure that the information contained in the operand word(s) is of the correct type for the operator. BLISS-11 allows five types of constants to appear in expressions: character strings, integers, real numbers, octal numbers, and pointers.

The following operators are provided for operating on 16-bit words:

arithmetic operators

`+`, `-`, `*`, `/`, unary minus

`MOD`, `MAX`, `MIN`

`<expr-1> ^ <expr-2>`

Shift operator yielding value of `<expr-1>` shifted left or right by `<expr-2>` bits. The sign of `<expr-2>` determines the direction of the shift.

<expr-1> ROT <expr-2>

Left or right circular shift.

relational operators

EQL, NEQ, LSS, LEQ, GTR, GEQ

EQLU, NEQU, LSSU, LEQU, GTRU, GEQU

Relational operators for signed and unsigned ("U") operands. The relational operators return an integer result (0 for false, 1 for true).

logical operators

NOT, AND, OR, XOR, EQV

Bitwise complement, and, or, exclusive or, and equivalence.

other

. <expr>

Pointer dereferencing operator yielding the object pointed to by the <expr>.

expr <pos,len>

Partword selector for extracting bits from a word.

<var> = <expr>

Assignment operator. The value of the expression is stored at the location pointed to by the <var>. Thus if A were a BLISS-11 identifier, the expression A = .A+1 would increment the value of A. Note that the pointer dereferencing operator must be used on right-hand side of the expression, but not on the left-hand side.

B. Control Structures

- IF <test-expr> THEN <expr> { ELSE <expr> } ;

(Standard conditional.)

- BEGIN <expr-1>; ... <expr-k>; <expr-k+1> END ;

(Compound expression.)

- WHILE <test-expr> DO <expr> ;

UNTIL

(While and repeat loops with test performed before the body is executed.)

```
- DO <expr> WHILE <test-expr> ;
      UNTIL
```

(While and repeat loops with the test performed after the body is executed. The body will therefore be executed at least once.)

```
- INCR <var> FROM <e-1> TO <e-2> BY <e-3> DO <expr-body> ;
  DECR
```

(For loops. Programmer must choose a count-up or a count-down loop when the program is written.)

```
- CASE <expr-list> OF SET
```

```
  <expr-1> ;
```

```
  :
```

```
  <expr-k>
```

```
TES ;
```

(Simple case statement. The expressions in the <expr-list> are evaluated, and then each is used to select some <expr-i> in the body of the CASE expression for execution.)

```
- SELECT <expr-list> OF NSET
```

```
  <select-expr-1> : <expr-1> ;
```

```
  :
```

```
  <select-expr-k> : <expr-k>
```

```
TESN ;
```

(Select statement. The expressions in the <expr-list> are evaluated, and each one is then compared sequentially with the <select-expr-i>. If an expression matches some <select-expr-i> then the corresponding <expr-i> is executed. The keywords ALWAYS and OTHERWISE may be used in the <select-expr-i>; ALWAYS forces execution of its

<expr-i>, OTHERWISE specifies that its <expr-i> is to be executed only if no preceding <expr-i> is executed.)

- ROUTINE <ident> ({<parameter-list>}) = <expr-body> ;
 (Standard function construct. Since all BLISS-11 constructs return a value, there is no procedure or subroutine construct. Functions may be recursive.)
- <ident> ({<arg-list>})
 (Call to a routine.)
- LEAVE <label> WITH <expr> ;
 (Exit the labeled construct with the value of the expression <expr>.)
- LEAVE <label> ;
 (Exit the labeled construct with a value of 0.)
- EXITLOOP <expr> ;
 (Exit the innermost loop with the value of <expr>.)
- RETURN <expr> ;
 (Return from body of a routine with the value of the <expr>.)
- SIGNAL <signal-expr> ;
 (Initiates scan of ENABLE blocks for a "handler" for condition <signal-expr>. The SIGNAL and ENABLE constructs provide a feature somewhat similar to user defined ON-conditions in PL/I.)
- ENABLE
 <expr-1> : <handler-expr-1> ;
 :
 :
 :
 <exp-k> : <handler-expr-k>
 ELBANE ;
 (Used in conjunction with the SIGNAL construct. On execution of a SIGNAL <signal-expr>, control passes to

the most recently executed ENABLE block. The <signal-expr> is then compared with the <expr-i> in the ENABLE statement; if some <expr-i> matches the <signal-expr> then the <handler-expr> is executed, and control passes out of the block containing the ENABLE block. If no <expr-i> matches the <signal-expr> then control will pass to the next most recent ENABLE block, and the search for a handler continues. SIGNAL and ENABLE provide a "software interrupt" capability, although no return from the interrupt is possible.)

C. Data Structures

BLISS-11 has two constructs for creating more complex data structures. The first (STRUCTURE) defines a data structure and an access method for the data structure, and the second (MAP) is used to "map" or overlay a structure onto a previously unstructured block of core. The declaration

```
~ STRUCTURE <ident> [<parameter-list>] =
    [<structure-size-expr>] <access-method-expr> ;
```

defines the structure <ident> by specifying the number of storage locations required for the structure, and an expression defining an access method for the structure. The expressions defining the structure size and access method can use any of the parameters in the <parameter-list> of the structure. The structure <ident> can then be used to declare new objects of that type using the the OWN statement, or it can be mapped over some other variable. The statement

```
MAP <structure-ident> <identifier-list> <size> ;
```

maps the specified structure onto the identifiers in the identifier list. The identifiers can then be referenced as if they had been declared to have been structures of type <structure>. The MAP statement allows the programmer to access a block of core under a number of different formats.

For example, the following BLISS-11 segment defines a lower-triangular byte matrix structure:

```
BEGIN
```

```
STRUCTURE LTRIAG[I,J] =  
  [I*(I+1)/2] (.LTRIAG + .I * (.I-1)/2 + .J - 1);  
OWN LTRIAG ME5,5];  
OWN NE15];  
MAP LTRIAG N;  
ME1,1] = NE1,1] = 16;
```

BLISS-11 has a predefined structure called VECTOR that can be used to declare one dimensional arrays, and the user can define arrays with more dimensions by using the STRUCTURE statement. Finally, the untyped pointers in BLISS can be used to create arbitrary linked data structures.

D. Other Features

BLISS-11 has several features that would make BLISS programs easy to modify. The BIND statement

```
BIND <ident> = <expression> ;
```

equates <ident> with the text of the <expression>. This text is used to replace any occurrences of the <ident> in the rest of the source program. BLISS-11 also has a powerful macroprocessor that provides simple replacement macros, parameterized replacement macros, and recursive and iterated macros. Source text from a program library can be included into a BLISS program using the REQUIRE statement. BLISS-11 has no I/O facilities.

E. Runtime Environment

BLISS-11 is a low-level language and will probably run on a bare machine.

F. Syntax

BLISS-11 has a BNF grammar with approximately 150 productions.

2.1.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

BLISS-11 is a systems programming language for the PDP-11 series and is highly machine dependent. The machine dependent features include inline assembly language instructions, the partword operator for extracting bits, and the TRAP, EMT, WAIT, and RESET statements for controlling the PDP-11.

B. Efficiency

BLISS-11 is quite efficient, and will compare favorably with assembly language programs.

C. Level of the Language

The BLISS-11 language is typeless and low-level.

D. Size of the Language and the Compiler

The language is small, and the compiler should be the same.

E. Special System Features

BLISS-11 provides the following system features:

- (a) Assembly language statements can be inserted into a BLISS-11 program using the `INLINE` statement:

```
    INLINE ("any character string").
```

The character string is passed unaltered to the assembler.

- (b) The programmer can request that local variables be allocated in machine registers using the `REGISTER` statement: `REGISTER <ident>;`. The variable is allocated in one of the machine registers, although the programmer has no control over which register is used.

- (c) The `LINKAGE` statement gives the programmer control over the type of calling sequence generated for a function call. The user can specify that function parameters are to be placed on the runtime stack or in selected registers, and the language used to write the subroutine. Six calling sequences are available: `BLISS` (default), `FORTTRAN`,

INTERRUPT, EMT, TRAP, and IOT.

(d) BLISS-11 has six functions providing access to the hardware on PDP-11 machines:

TRAP(<trap-number>)	- Generate program interrupts.
EMT(<trap-number>)	
IOT(<trap-number>)	
HALT()	- Halt all execution.
RESET()	- Reset all devices on the UNIBUS.
WAIT()	- Wait for an interrupt.

(e) The ENABLE and SIGNAL constructs provide a type of software interrupt for handling user-defined exceptional conditions.

(f) BLISS-11 has pointer variables, a partword operator for extracting bits from a word, character strings, record structures, and the MAP feature for accessing a block of core under several different formats.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

Because of the absence of types, there is little that BLISS can do in the way of compile or runtime error checking. The BLISS-11 pointers are completely unrestricted, and it is therefore possible to create pointers that will generate addressing exceptions, cause branches into the middle of data, access data under the wrong format, and so forth.

BLISS-11 has a compiler option that will provide an interface for the SIX12 debugging package.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

Modularity in BLISS-11 is good. BLISS-11 supports independent compilation of routines, and communication via GLOBAL variables or registers. User control over calling sequences makes interfacing with assembly language or FORTRAN routines fairly easy.

(b) modifiability

BLISS-11 has a very powerful macro processor and a large number of control structures. The BIND statement makes it easy to alter the constants used throughout a BLISS program. Finally, the REQUIRE statement allows the programmer to include source files into a program.

(c) reliability

BLISS-11 requires very careful programming because of the lack of type checking and the unrestricted pointers. It will be much harder to insure the reliability of a BLISS-11 program than an equivalent program written in a language like PASCAL or HAL/S.

H. Use

BLISS-11 has been implemented on the PDP-11 series, and the language could not be implemented on other machines unless the special system features for the PDP-11 were removed (TRAP, WAIT, RESET, and so forth).

2.2. C

2.2.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

The language C [RIT74,KER74] is a systems programming language developed at Bell Laboratories by D. M. Ritchie. C is a structured, medium level language with a terse syntax and a profusion of built-in operators. The language was originally designed for the PDP-11 series, although it has since been implemented on other machines (HIS 6070 and the IBM 360 and 370 series). The UNIX operating system and a substantial portion of the software in the UNIX timesharing system are written in C.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

C has four basic data types; INT, CHAR (single character), FLOAT and DOUBLE (single and double precision floating point). The language is fully typed, although automatic conversion between the four basic types is provided in many instances. In particular, a CHAR expression can be used anywhere that an INT expression can be used. Five types of constants are permitted in expressions: integers, character constants of one or two characters, strings of characters (treated as character arrays), and floating point numbers.

C has a large number of operators for manipulating the basic data types. The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

Logical operators (INT and CHAR operands only)

! <expr>	1 if <expr> = 0, and 0 otherwise.
~ <expr>	Bitwise complement of <expr>.
<e1> & <e2>	Bitwise AND of <e1>, <e2>.
<e1> <e2>	Bitwise OR.
<e1> ^ <e2>	Bitwise exclusive OR.
<e1> << <e2>	Left logical shift of <e1> by <e2> bits.
<e1> >> <e2>	Right arithmetic shift.
++ <variable>	Auto-increment and auto-decrement operators

-- <variable> corresponding to the PDP-11 series machine
 <variable> ++ instructions. In the prefix form the
 <variable> -- variable is incremented or decremented by
 1 and the value of the variable becomes the value of the
 expression. In the postfix form the value of the variable
 becomes the value of the expression, and the variable is
 then incremented or decremented by 1.

logical operators (all basic types)

<e1> ? <e2> : <e3> Selection operator equivalent to
 if <e1> then <e2> else <e3>.
 <e1> && <e2> 1 if <e1> and <e2> are non-zero,
 and 0 otherwise.
 <e1> !| <e2> 1 if <e1> or <e2> is non-zero, 0 otherwise.
 <e1> , <e2> The expressions <e1> and <e2> are evaluated
 from left to right, and <e2> becomes the
 value of the entire expression.
 sizeof <expr> size of the expression in bytes.

arithmetic operators

<e1> % <e2> Remainder function (<e1> modulo <e2>).
 The operands <e1> and <e2> must be INT
 or CHAR.
 +, -, *, / Standard arithmetic operators. The operands
 may be INT, CHAR, FLOAT, or DOUBLE.
 Automatic conversion is performed between
 the types.

relational operators (All types)

=, != All the relational operators yield an
 <, >, <=, >= integer result (1 or 0). All combinations
 of operand types are permitted, and
 conversion is performed between unequal
 types.

assignment operators

C has a standard assignment operator of the form <variable>
 = <expr>. Automatic type conversion is performed if the types do

not match. In addition to this standard operator, C combines the assignment operator with many of the previously discussed operators. For each of the following operators, `<variable> =op <expr>` is equivalent to `<variable> = <variable> op <expr>`:

`=+, =-, =*, =/`

`=>>, =<<`

`=&, =!, =^`

B. Control Structures

- `{ <stmt-1>; ... <stmt-k>; }`

(Compound statement formed by placing statement in braces. Since C uses the characters { and } as part of the language syntax, we will use [and] to denote any optional features in the language.)

- `IF (<expr>) <stmt-1>; [ELSE <stmt-2>;]`

(Conditional statement with optional ELSE part.)

- `WHILE (<expr>) <stmt>;`

- `DO <stmt> WHILE <expr>;`

(Standard while loop with the loop test before and after the loop body.)

- `FOR (<expr-1>; <expr-2>; <expr-3>) <stmt>;`

(For loop. The expression `<expr-1>` defines the loop variable and the initial value, `<expr-2>` the loop test, and `<expr-3>` the increment statement. For example:

```
SUM = 0;
```

```
FOR (I=0; I<n; I++) SUM += VECTOR[I];
```

```
)
```

- `SWITCH (<case-expr>)`

```
{ CASE <constant-expr-1>: <stmt-list-1>;
```

```
  ⋮           ⋮           ⋮
```

```
  CASE <constant-expr-k>: <stmt-list-k>;
```

```
[ DEFAULT: <stmt-list>; ]
} ;
```

(Case statement with an optional DEFAULT clause. No two of the constant expressions may have the same value. The <case-expr> is evaluated, and the value is compared with the constant expressions in an unspecified order. If a matching constant expression is found then the corresponding <stmt-list> is executed; the DEFAULT <stmt-list> is executed only if no matching constant expression is found. Note: the case prefixes do not alter the flow of control within the SELECT statement. Thus, if <stmt-list-i> is selected for execution by the <case-expr>, then control will flow through <stmt-list-i> into <stmt-list-i+1> unless some statement in <stmt-list-i> causes an exit from the SELECT statement.)

- BREAK;

(Exit the innermost WHILE, DO, FOR, or SWITCH statement.)

- CONTINUE;

(Continue next iteration of the innermost WHILE, DO, or FOR statement.)

- GOTO <label-expression>;

(Unconditional branch to a label within the current function.)

- RETURN [(<expr>)] ;

(Return from current function with an optional result.)

- <type> <ident> (<parameter-list>) <body>

(Standard function definition. For example:

```
INT FACTORIAL (N)
  INT N;
  RETURN (N<2 ? 1 : N*FACTORIAL(N-1));
```

As the example illustrates, functions can be called recursively. All parameters are passed by value.)

C. Data Structures

C has three features for building more complex data structures from the basic data types:

(1) typed pointer variables

The statement

```
* <type> <ident>;
```

declares <ident> to be a pointer to an object of type <type>. The following operators are provided for manipulating pointers:

```
* <pointer-expr> - Yields object pointed to
                    by the pointer expression.
```

```
& <variable>      - Yields address of the variable.
```

```
<structure-pointer> -> <structure-member>
                    - Accesses the specified member
                      of the structure pointed to
                      by the structure pointer.
```

```
<pointer> + <integer-expr>
```

```
<pointer> - <integer-expr>
```

```
- When an integer is added to or
  subtracted from a pointer of
  type X, the integer is first
  multiplied by the length of an
  object of type X. Thus if P
  points into an array of record
  structures, then P+1 is a
  pointer to the next record
  structure in the array.
```

```
==, !=, <, >, <=, >=
```

```
- Pointers can be compared with
  other pointers or integers
  using the relational operators.
  Integers are multiplied by the
```

object length (as discussed under the + operator).

(2) arrays

The statement

```
<type> <ident> [<#-of-elements>] ( [<#-of-elements>] ) ;
```

declares <ident> to be an array of <#-of-elements> objects of type <type>. Arrays can have an arbitrary number of dimensions. Array indexing begins at 0, and elements of an array are accessed using standard subscript notation:

```
<ident> [<subscript>] ( [<subscript>] )
```

Arrays need not be fully dereferenced by the subscript operator. For example, if X was declared by the statement `INT X[5][20][8]` then `X[3]` yields a 20x8 integer array. Note: the assignment operator can not be used to copy an entire array from one variable to another.

(3) record structures

The statement

```
STRUCT <ident> { <type-declaration-list> };
```

declares <ident> to be a record structure composed of the objects listed in the <type-declaration-list>. The dot operator "." is used to access a member of a structure: `<structure-name>.<member-name>`. Note: The address operator & is the only other operator that can be applied to an entire structure. The assignment operator can not be used to copy an entire record structure, and entire structures can not be passed into functions as parameters or compared with other structures. A pointer to a structure can be passed into a function, however.

D. Other Features

C has an optional preprocessor pass which allows the user to include source files into the program text, and to use simple replacement macros. Files are included into the source program by the statement `#INCLUDE "file-name"`. The statement

```
#DEFINE <ident> <character-string>
```

is used to define simple

replacement macros. All occurrences of the identifier in the source text are replaced by the character string.

C has no statements for performing I/O, but the C function library contains routines for formatted and unformatted I/O.

E. Runtime Environment

C requires a runtime stack because all functions are potentially recursive.

F. Syntax

The BNF grammar for C has approximately 120 productions.

2.2.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

C has no machine dependent features and could be implemented on almost any machine.

B. Efficiency

C requires a runtime stack. C also converts all FLOAT expressions to DOUBLE expressions during the evaluation of any expression or function call. Various other automatic conversions are performed if the programmer mixes types in expressions. In all other respects C should compare favorably with assembly language programs.

C. Level of the Language

C is a medium level language. The language has records, arrays, typed pointers, structured control structures, and many operators.

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

C is a relatively small language with no complicated control structures. The compiler should also be fairly small.

E. Special System Features

C has typed pointers, record structures, recursive (and therefore reentrant) functions. The SIZEOF operator would be helpful when passing arrays or structures to assembly language routines. C also allows the programmer to request (via the REGISTER statement) that certain variables be allocated in machine registers instead of main storage. There is no way to select specific registers, however.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

Although the language is fully typed, C provides automatic type conversion between most of the data types. This will hide a number of errors (such as misspelling) unless the compiler prints warning messages when conversions are performed.

The manual does not indicate that any special debugging features are available.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

C allows independent compilation of programs, and provides communication through external variables. The language also has a number of control structures.

(b) modifiability

C has a primitive macro processor, the #INCLUDE statement for including source files into a program, and the basic structured programming control structures.

(c) reliability

C programs are very difficult to read because of the terse syntax. Many operators are used both as binary and unary operators, with no relation between the operations being performed (e.g., & is used to take the address of a variable and as the logical AND function.) Spaces around operands are critical in some situations. The statements I=-J and I = -J perform

completely different operations, for example.

The automatic type conversion performed by C can hide a number of errors caused by improper use of variables. Finally, the pointer variables in C require careful use. It is possible to generate pointers that will cause addressing errors when used, or to branch into the middle of the program's data area by using the GOTO statement with a pointer expression.

H. Use

C has been implemented on the PDP-11 series, the HIS 6070, and the IBM 360 and 370 series. The compiler is written in C itself, so the language could be implemented on other machines using standard bootstrapping techniques. C has been used extensively in the UNIX operating system and the software for the UNIX timesharing system.

2.3. CONCURRENT PASCAL

2.3.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

CONCURRENT PASCAL [HAN75a,HAN75b,HAN75c] is a high level language developed by Per Brinch Hansen at the California Institute of Technology for use in writing operating systems. The language extends the PASCAL language with three facilities for concurrent programming: concurrent processes, monitors for providing controlled access to data structures shared by a group of processes, and data abstractions called classes. CONCURRENT PASCAL has all the basic data types and control structures of PASCAL, although some of the data structures have not been included. In particular, CONCURRENT PASCAL does not have the pointer or file type of sequential PASCAL.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

CONCURRENT PASCAL has four basic data types: INTEGER, REAL, BOOLEAN, and CHAR (single character). Full type checking is performed at compile time, and no automatic conversions are performed between the basic types. The following types of constants are permitted in expressions: integer, real, boolean, character, and string (treated as an array of characters).

The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators and functions (INTEGER and REAL operands)

- Standard arithmetic operators for INTEGER or REAL operands.
- Division operator for REAL operands.
- DIV, MOD - Division and modulus operators for INTEGER operands.
- ABS(<expr>) - Absolute value of REAL or INTEGER expression.
- SUCC(<expr>) - Functions yielding successor and predecessor of the INTEGER expression.
- PRED(<expr>)

- CONV(<expr>) - Converts INTEGER expression to REAL.
- TRUNC(<expr>) - Truncates a REAL expression to INTEGER.

Logical operators (BOOLEAN operands)

- AND, OR, NOT - The BOOLEAN operators yield a BOOLEAN result.

relational operators (all basic types)

- =, <>, <, >, <=, >=
 - The two operands must have the same type. The relational operators yield a BOOLEAN result.

character operators

- SUCC, PRED - Successor and predecessor functions.
- CHR(<expr>) - Yields i-th character in the character set, where i is the value of <expr>.
- ORD(<char>) - Ordinal position of the character in the character set.

B. Control Structures

- BEGIN <stmt-list> END
(Compound statement.)
- IF <boolean-expr> THEN <stmt> { ELSE <stmt> }
(Standard conditional with optional ELSE clause.)
- WHILE <boolean-expr> DO <stmt>
(While loop.)
- REPEAT <stmt-list> UNTIL <boolean-expr>
(Until loop. The body of the loop will be executed at least once.)
- CYCLE <stmt-list> END;
(Unbounded repetition of the <stmt-list>.)
- FOR <var> := <expr-1> TO <expr-2> DO <stmt>
 DOWNTO
(For loops with implied increments of +1 and -1.)

```

- CASE <scalar-expr> OF
  <constant-list-1> : <stmt-1>
      :
      :
  <constant-list-k> : <stmt-k>
END

```

(Case statement. The <scalar-expr> can be INTEGER, CHAR, BOOLEAN, or any user-defined scalar or subrange type (scalar and subrange types will be described later in Section C). The constant lists must contain constants of the same type as the <scalar-expr>. The <scalar-expr> is evaluated, and the constant lists are scanned to find a constant equal to the expression. If a match is found then the corresponding statement is executed; if no match is found then the effect of the CASE statement is undefined.)

```

- WITH <variable-list> DO <stmt>

```

(Executes <stmt> using the record variables in the <variable-list.> Any expression in <stmt> may refer to subcomponents of the records without fully qualifying the subcomponent. For example, if X is a record with subcomponents A, B, and C, then

```

    WITH X DO BEGIN
      A := A + 1.0;
      B := A < 10.0;
      C := 'G'
    END

```

is equivalent to

```

    X.A := X.A + 1.0;
    X.B := X.A < 10.0;
    X.C := 'G';

```

)

```

- PROCEDURE {ENTRY} <proc-name>
  { (<parameter-list>) }; <proc-body>

```

FUNCTION { ENTRY } <func-name>

{ (<parameter-list>) } : <type> ; <func-body>

(Procedure and function definitions. Neither may be recursive. If the ENTRY attribute is specified then the procedure or function may be called by an external PROCESS, MONITOR, or CLASS (see Section D for a discussion of these system types). The user can request that procedure parameters be passed by value or by reference, but all function parameters are passed by value.)

- <func-name> { (<argument-list>) }

<proc-name> { (<argument-list>) }

(Invoke a function or procedure.)

C. Data Structures

CONCURRENT PASCAL has seven constructs for creating more complex data structures from the basic data types:

(1) scalar type

The scalar type statement

TYPE <type-ident> = (<object-1>, ..., <object-k>) ;

defines an ordered set consisting of <object-1>, ..., <object-k>. For example:

```
TYPE MONTH = (JAN,FEB,MAR,APR,MAY,JUN,JUL,AUG,
              SEP,OCT,NOV,DEC) ;
```

The set is ordered, so the relational operators =, <>, <, >, <=, >=, the assignment operator :=, and the functions SUCC, PRED, and ORD can be applied to any scalar type. Note: the basic types INTEGER, CHAR, and BOOLEAN are predefined scalar types.

(2) subrange types

Subrange types are subranges of scalar types, and they also form ordered sets of objects. The statement

TYPE <type-ident> = <object-1> .. <object-m> ;

defines a subrange type. There must be a scalar type

containing both objects, and the first object must be less than the second. For example:

```
TYPE SPRING = MAR .. MAY;
TYPE DIGIT = '0' .. '9';
TYPE INDEX = 0 .. 100;
```

All the operators for scalar types can be applied to subrange types.

(3) arrays

The statement

```
TYPE <type-id> = ARRAY [<dimension-list>] OF <type> ;
```

defines an array type. Arrays can have an arbitrary number of dimensions, and the <type> can be any type except a system type. The dimensions are specified by subrange types. For example:

```
TYPE MATRIX = ARRAY[1..3, 1..3] OF REAL;
VAR VECTOR : ARRAY[1..10] OF REAL;
VAR JOBSRUN : ARRAY[1968..1973, JAN..DEC] OF INTEGER;
```

Array elements are referenced by listing the subscripts in brackets:

```
<ident> [<subscript-list>] .
```

The relational operators = and <> can be used to compare two arrays of the same type, and the assignment operator := can be used to copy an entire array.

(4) sets

The statement

```
TYPE <type-ident> = SET OF <base-type> ;
```

defines a type consisting of all possible subsets of the <base-type>, which must be a scalar or subrange type. For example:

```
TYPE DAY = (M,T,W,TH,F,SA,S); {Define scalar type}
VAR DAYSOFF : SET OF DAY; {Now use it for a set}
VAR DIGITS : SET OF 0..9;
```

The following operators are available for manipulating set types:

```
[ <element-list> ] - Set constructor yielding set.
```

	The list may be empty.
OR, -, AND	- Set union, difference, and intersection.
<=, >=	- Tests on set inclusion.
IN	- Membership operator yielding true if element is in set.

(5) record structures

A record type is declared with a statement of the form

```

TYPE <type-ident> = RECORD
    <member-1> : <type-1>
        :
        :
    <member-k> : <type-k>
END ;

```

Records can contain an arbitrary number of members, and each member can be of any type except a system type. The following operators are provided for manipulating record types:

```

<record-var> . <member-name>
    - Dot operator for accessing member of a record.
=, <> - Tests for equality (records must have same
        type).
:=     - Assignment operator for copying an entire
        record.

```

The WITH statement discussed in Section B can be used to avoid qualifying each member of a record with the record name.

(6) queues

Queues, which are used within MONITORS to suspend and resume processes, are declared with a statement of the form

```

TYPE <type-ident> = QUEUE ;

```

A queue can only hold a single PROCESS, but arrays of queues can be defined. The following queue functions are available:

```

EMPTY(q) - Returns true if the queue is empty.

```

DELAY(q) - Delay the currently executing process in the queue (execution of the process is suspended and the MONITOR is freed for use by other processes).

CONTINUE(q) - Reactivate a stalled process. The currently executing process returns from the MONITOR. If the queue contains a process then that process resumes execution in the MONITOR routine that DELAYed it.

(7) system types

System types are defined with a statement of the form

```

TYPE <type-ident> =
    PROCESS
    MONITOR ( (<parameter-list>) )
    CLASS
    <private-sector> <routine-entries> <initial-stmt>

```

The parameter list of a system type defines the constants and other system types which the system type can access. Data declared in the <private-section> is accessible only within the system type, and the <routine-entries> define a set of routines that may be called by other system types. The <initial-stmt> specifies any initialization to be performed when the system type is first activated.

A program in CONCURRENT PASCAL consists of an arbitrary number of independent, concurrently executing PROCESSES. Each PROCESS defines a data structure and a sequential program for operating on the data structure. A PROCESS can only communicate with another PROCESS by calling a MONITOR: MONITORS are used for synchronization and data sharing. A MONITOR also defines a data structure and an arbitrary number of operations that can be performed on the data structure by concurrent PROCESSES. A CLASS is similar to a MONITOR, except that a CLASS may only be accessed by a single PROCESS.

System types are initially activated with the INIT statement:

```
INIT <system-type> ( (<parameter-list>) ) ;
```

The INIT statement defines the access rights (the other system types which can be accessed) by the system type, and executes the initial statement of the system type.

D. Other Features

CONCURRENT PASCAL requires the declaration of all variables, functions, and procedures prior to their use. The language has a declaration of the form `CONST <ident> = <expr>;` for declaring program constants. The identifier can be used in any expression, but the value of the identifier can not be altered. CONCURRENT PASCAL does not support the pointer type, the "variant field" in records, or the dynamic storage allocation provided by sequential PASCAL. CONCURRENT PASCAL does not provide dynamic arrays or even array dimensions as parameters, as in the following FORTRAN segment:

```
SUBROUTINE XYZ(ARRAY,N,M)
  INTEGER N,M,ARRAY(N,M)
```

Thus, it is not possible to write a CONCURRENT PASCAL program that manipulates arrays of arbitrary sizes. Finally, the language does not permit external functions or procedures: a CONCURRENT PASCAL program consists of a main program and an arbitrary number of nested functions and procedures, and the entire program must be compiled as a unit.

E. Runtime Environment

CONCURRENT PASCAL does not require a runtime stack, since recursive procedures and functions are not permitted. The language does not require a dynamic storage allocator either, since the pointer type and the NEW statement of sequential PASCAL have been eliminated. However, CONCURRENT PASCAL does need a runtime executive for time-slicing concurrent processes.

F. Syntax

CONCURRENT PASCAL has a BNF grammar with approximately 150 productions.

2.3.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

The UNIV attribute on procedure and function parameters can be used to write machine dependent programs. In all other respects CONCURRENT PASCAL is not machine dependent, and could be implemented on almost any machine.

B. Efficiency

CONCURRENT PASCAL is an efficient programming language. The language requires no runtime stack or dynamic storage allocation, and the language features have been carefully selected to permit efficient implementation of the language. Sets can be represented by bits strings; the set union, intersection, and difference operators can then be implemented in just a few instructions. Scalar and subrange types are equivalently simple. The structured control structures also permit better code optimization.

The manual for the PDP-11/45 implementation of CONCURRENT PASCAL contains tables indicating the execution times for many of the operators and control structures. These tables can be used by the programmer to minimize the number of expensive constructs in a program (for example, the DELAY and CONTINUE statements causing process switching take approximately 100 times as long to execute as an integer assignment operation).

C. Level of the Language

CONCURRENT PASCAL is a high level language.

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

The CONCURRENT PASCAL language is moderate in size. The compiler (which is written in sequential PASCAL) is only 8500 statements.

E. Special System Features

REPRODUCIBILITY OF THE
ORIGINAL PAGE IS POOR

CONCURRENT PASCAL has record types, the set type (which can be used as bit strings), and the system types PROCESS, MONITOR, and CLASS for concurrent programming.

Another useful feature is UNIV parameters in procedures and functions. Declaring a parameter to be UNIV suspends the normal type checking that would be performed for the parameter, and thus allows the programmer to access a block of core under a number of different formats. For example, an array of characters could be passed into a procedure in which the corresponding formal parameter was declared to be an array of integers. Within the procedure body the formal parameter would be treated as an array of integers.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

CONCURRENT PASCAL performs full type checking at compile time for any program not using UNIV parameters. The CONST feature permits the declaration of "read only" variables. CONCURRENT PASCAL also has a hierarchical structure that forces the programmer to specify the access rights of all system types, and the compiler enforces these access rights. The subrange types also allow the implementation to perform runtime checks on variables to insure that the values are within the subrange. Such a feature would be very helpful in a diagnostic compiler.

The manual for CONCURRENT PASCAL does not indicate that any special debugging tools are available.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

Modularity in CONCURRENT PASCAL is fair. The language has a full set of structured control structures, and internal procedures and functions are provided. However, CONCURRENT PASCAL does not permit external procedures or functions. This makes it costly to use existing programs (in a system library, for example), since the programs must be recompiled each time they are used.

(b) modifiability

As discussed previously, CONCURRENT PASCAL has no provisions for external procedures or functions. This would be a serious weakness in large systems (10,000 lines), where the most trivial modification in one of the programs would require the recompilation of the entire system. However, CONCURRENT PASCAL does have the CONST feature for declaring program constants, high level data structures and operators, the subrange type, and the control structures for structured programming. The CLASS and MONITOR types also provide a data abstraction facility. All these features make programs easier to read and modify.

(c) reliability

CONCURRENT PASCAL performs complete type checking at compile time (including procedure and function parameters). CONCURRENT PASCAL is also a high level and well structured language, so that programs should be smaller and more self-documenting than programs written in languages with fewer data or control structures. It should be considerably easier to write reliable programs in CONCURRENT PASCAL than in a language like FORTRAN.

H. Use

CONCURRENT PASCAL has been implemented on the PDP-11/45. The compiler is written in sequential PASCAL, so the language could easily be transported to other machines. CONCURRENT PASCAL has been used to implement part of the SOLO operating system (a single-user operating system for the PDP-11/45).

2.4. CS-4 Base Language

2.4.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

CS-4 [INT75a] is a large, general purpose language currently being developed by Intermetrics for the Navy. The language is fully typed, block structured, and offers many of the features found in PL/I and HAL/S. CS-4 is an extensible language, and many of the high level features in the language are constructed from lower level features using the CS-4 data abstraction facility.

Because CS-4 is currently under development, only the CS-4 base language will be examined in this report (in the remainder of this section the CS-4 base language will be referred to as CS-4).

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

CS-4 has ten basic data types: INTEGER, REAL, FRACTION, COMPLEX, VECTOR (vector of REALs), MATRIX (NxM matrix of REALs), BOOLEAN, STATUS, SET, and STRING (fixed and varying length ASCII character strings). The STATUS type is equivalent to the PASCAL scalar type. Mixed mode arithmetic expressions are permitted, but in general no automatic type conversions are performed. Five types of literals can appear in CS-4 expressions: integer, real, boolean, status, and string.

The operators for manipulating these data types are listed below:

arithmetic operators (INTEGER, REAL, FRACTION, and COMPLEX
operands)

+, -, *, /, **

IDIV - Integer division for integer operands.

ABS - Absolute value.

SGN - Signum function.

SQRT - Square root function for real and
fraction operands.

- FLOOR, CEIL - Floor and ceiling functions for real operands.
- REAL-EQ
REAL-NE
REAL-LT
REAL-GT
REAL-LE
REAL-GE - Variable precision comparison functions for real operands. The relational operators can be used for fixed precision comparisons.
- FRACTION-EQ
:
:
FRACTION-GE - Similar functions for fractions.
- COMPLEX-EQ
COMPLEX-NE - Similar functions for complex operands.
- REALPART, IMAGPART - Real and imaginary part of a complex operand.
- CONJUGATE - Complex conjugate.
- ANGLE - Angle in polar coordinates of a complex operand.
- MAG - Magnitude of a complex operand.

Log, exponential, and normal, inverse, hyperbolic, and inverse hyperbolic trigonometric functions are available for real operands.

boolean operators

- NOT, AND, OR, XOR, NAND, NOR, EQV
- All the boolean operators yield a boolean result.

relational operators

- =, ~=, <, >, <=, >=
- All the relational operators yield a boolean result. The operands being compared must have the same type. The operators = and ~= can be applied to any of the basic data types, but <, >, <=, >= can only be used with INTEGER, REAL, FRACTION, or STATUS operands.

status operators

PREDECESSOR, SUCCESSOR

- Successor and predecessor functions.

string operators

FLAVOR - Determines string type (fixed or varying).

LENGTH - Returns length of a fixed length string.

CURRENT-LENGTH - Returns length of a varying string.

MAX-LENGTH - Returns maximum length for a varying string.

<string-var> (<subscript>)

- Pseudo operator for accessing single characters in a string.

SUBSTR - Pseudo-variable for accessing substrings.

!! - Concatenation.

ASCII - Converts a string of characters to an array of integers.

PAD - Pads blanks onto the end of a string.

vector operators

<vector-var> (<subscript>)

- Accesses element of a vector.
- Element-wise addition and subtraction.
- Vector dot product.

OUTER - Vector outer product.

CROSS - Vector cross product.

VECTOR-SIZE - Returns length of a vector.

MAG - Magnitude of a vector.

UNIT - Unit vector.

VECTOR-EQ
VECTOR-NE - Variable precision comparison functions.

matrix operators

<matrix-var> (<subscript>,<subscript>)

- Element-wise addition and subtraction.
- Matrix dot product. The * operator can also be used to form the dot product of compatible matrices and vectors.

TRACE, TRANSPOSE, DETERMINANT, INVERSE

- Standard matrix operators.

MATRIX-SIZE - Returns length of first or second
dimension.

MATRIX-EQ, MATRIX-NE

- Variable precision comparison functions.

set operators

NOT, AND, OR, NAND, NOR, XOR

- Set complement, intersection, union,
complemented intersection and union, and
exclusive union.

SUBSET - Determines if a set is a subset of another.

EMPTY - Determines if a set is empty.

<set-var> (<set-member>)

- Returns TRUE if the member is contained
in the set.

B. Control Structures

- BEGIN <stmt-list> END

(Compound statement. Any data declared within the
BEGIN statement is local to the BEGIN statement.)

- IF <boolean-expr> THEN <stmt-list> { ELSE <stmt-list> } FI

(Conditional statement with optional ELSE part.)

- CASE <case-expr>

OF <constant-list> :: <stmt-list>

⋮ ⋮

OF <constant-list> :: <stmt-list>

{ OTHERWISE <stmt-list> }

END

(Case statement. The <case-expr> can be an INTEGER,
STRING, or STATUS expression, and the constant lists
must contain constants of the same type as the
<case-expr>. The <case-expr> is evaluated, and the

constant lists are scanned to find a constant equal to the expression. If a match is found then the corresponding statement list is executed; if no match is found then the OTHERWISE clause is executed.)

- WHILE <boolean-expr> REPEAT <stmt-list> END
(Standard while loop.)
- FOR (<var> IS) INTEGER (RANGE: <expr> THRU <expr>)
STATUS (<status-literal-list>)
{ WHILE <boolean-expr> } REPEAT <stmt-list> END
(For loop specifying a number of iterations of a statement list. No loop variable is required if the loop body does not need one. If a loop variable is specified then its value may not be altered by the loop body.)
- UPDATE (<shared-variable-list>) <stmt-list> END
(Update block for controlling access to shared variables by concurrent tasks. A variable declared with the SHARED(PROTECTED) attribute may only be referenced in an update block, and a task executing an update block will be stalled until the locked variables in the update block are no longer being accessed in an UPDATE block of any other task.)
- GOTO <label>
(Unconditional transfer. The <label> can not be the label of a statement located outside of the procedure that contains the GOTO statement.)
- EXIT <label>
(Exits the BEGIN block, UPDATE block, WHILE or FOR loop having the specified label.)
- RETURN (<result-expr>)
(Return from a procedure or function.)
- <handler-name> : PROCEDURE ((<parameter-list>))
ATTR (HANDLES (<signal-name-list>)):

```
<stmt-list>
```

```
END <handler-name>
```

(Declaration of a signal handler. Signals and signal handlers are similar to PL/I ON-conditions and ON-units, respectively. A signal can be generated by a hardware interrupt, runtime error-checking code, or a SIGNAL statement. Signals generated with the SIGNAL statement can pass parameters to a signal handler. Signal handlers can handle an arbitrary number of signals.)

```
- SIGNAL <signal-name> { (<parameter-list>) }
```

(Raises the specified signal. If there is an active signal handler for the signal then it will be invoked. The parameter list can be used to pass additional information to the handler.)

```
- RESIGNAL
```

(Can only appear in a signal handler. The RESIGNAL statement raises the signal that caused the signal handler to be invoked.)

```
- ABORT to <label>
```

(Can only appear in a signal handler. The <label> must be the label of a statement in the block containing the signal handler. The ABORT statement transfers control to the labeled statement, thereby terminating execution of the handler and all dynamically intervening procedures between the handler and the origin of the signal.)

```
- <proc-name> : PROCEDURE ({ <parameter-list> })
```

```
    { <type> } ATTR (OPEN  
                   (CLOSED) ;  
                   MOPEN
```

```
    <stmt-list>
```

```
    END <proc-name>
```

(Definition of a procedure or a function. The <parameter-list> defines the procedure parameters and

indicates for each parameter the method used to pass the parameter (call by value, reference, or name) and whether the parameter is to be used as an input, output, or input/output parameter. Parameters can be declared to be optional by specifying a keyword to identify the optional parameter and a default value to be used when the parameter is not supplied.

If the procedure is declared with the OPEN attribute then the procedure body will be substituted inline whenever it is invoked: no calling sequence will be generated. A normal procedure call is generated whenever a CLOSED procedure is invoked. Finally, procedures declared as MOPEN are both OPEN and "mode-unresolved", that is, the type information used in the declaration of procedure parameters and in the body of the procedure need not be complete. When the procedure is substituted inline at the point of invocation, the type of the actual arguments is used to specify the type information for the procedure body. The MOPEN attribute provides a macro-like capability.

Procedures and functions can not be recursive.)

C. Data Structures

CS-4 has four constructs for creating more complex data structures from the basic data types:

(a) data abstractions

The MODE statement for defining CS-4 data abstractions requires the user to specify the data representation for the new mode and a set of procedures (operators) for manipulating the data representation.

```
<mode-name>: MODE ( ( <parameter-list> ) )
                ATTR( CAPABILITY( <proc-name-list> ) );
                <data-representation>
```

```

<proc-definition>
      .
      .
      .
<proc-definition>
END <mode-name>

```

The <mode-name> can then be used in type declarations to define objects with the new type. The <parameter-list> is used to "tailor" the new type to the needs of the program referencing the type. The parameters can be constants to be used in array declarations or elsewhere, or types to be used in type declarations. For example, we could define a new mode called STACK with two parameters -- one indicating the size of the stack, and one indicating the type of objects to be stored in the stack. The mode STACK could then be invoked to define a stack of integers, or reals, or boolean data.

The data representation section defines the actual representation used for the object, and the CAPABILITY section lists all of the procedures (operators) that can be used to manipulate the object. The data defined in the representation section can only be accessed by these procedures.

The assignment operator := and the relational operators =, ~= can be used to copy or compare entire data abstractions, as long as the two operands are compatible.

(b) arrays

Arrays are declared with a statement of the form

```
VARIABLE <ident> IS ARRAY( <dimension-list>, <type> )
```

Arrays can have an arbitrary number of dimensions, and each dimension is specified by a subrange of the integers or a STATUS set. For example;

```
VARIABLE XYZ IS ARRAY( EO TO 7, STATUS("A","B","C")),
                        BOOLEAN)
```

Array elements are referenced using the subscript operator

<ident> (<subscript-list>). The type of the subscripts must match the type of the corresponding dimension. For example, XYZ(3,"B") is a legal array reference for the array in the previous example. As in PL/I and HAL/S, a * can be used as a subscript to reference all of the corresponding dimension.

The assignment operator and the relational operators =, ^= can be used to copy or compare compatible arrays.

(c) structures

CS-4 structures are declared with the statement

```
VARIABLE <ident> IS STRUCTURE (<member-list>)
```

The identifiers used to define the members need not be distinct from identifiers used elsewhere in the program. The dot operator is used to access members in a structure: <structure-var> . <member> . The assignment operator and the relational operators =, ^= can be used to copy or compare compatible structures.

(d) unions

The declaration of union variables is similar to the declaration of structured variables:

```
VARIABLE <ident> IS UNION( <member-list> )
```

The <member-list> defines the set of possible types that the union variable can represent. A union variable has a "field tag" indicating which member of the <member-list> is currently being stored, and the value for that member. The field tag of a union variable can be read using the built-in function TAG, which returns a STATUS literal indicating the name of the member. The value of a union variable can be accessed using the \$ operator and the current field tag: <union-var> \$ <field-tag> . For example;

```
(Define U as a union of integer, string, and boolean.)
VARIABLE U IS UNION (I IS INTEGER(RANGE: 1 THRU 10),
                    STR IS STRING(20,"VARYING"),
                    B IS ARRAY(0 THRU 3, BOOLEAN))
```

```

                                [STR: 'A B C']  {Initial value for U.}
{At this point we have TAG(U) = "STR"  }
{and USSTR = 'A B C' .                    }
.
.
.
CASE TAG(U)
  OF "I"  ::  USI := USI+1
  OF "STR" ::  USSTR := 'Z'
  OF "B"  ::  USB(3) := FALSE
END

```

The relational operators =, ~= can be used to compare two union variables, and the assignment operator can be used to change the value of a union variable. However, the only way to change the field tag of a union variable is to assign it another union variable that already has desired field tag. This seriously restricts the usefulness of the UNION type.

D. Other Features

CS-4 is a block structured and fully typed language. Complete type checking (including procedure parameters) is performed at compile time. The language also has a CONSTANT attribute for declaring program constants.

CS-4 has an operating system interface that provides I/O and process management capabilities. The I/O system includes a hierarchical file system, file protection, and sequential, direct access, and indexed sequential files. The process management system provides features for scheduling processes, terminating processes, and communicating between processes. No additional language statements are required to support the operating system interface: the CS-4 MODE declaration is used to define data abstractions for files and processes.

E. Runtime Environment

CS-4 needs routines for process management, interprocess communication, I/O, and interrupt handling. A runtime stack or

dynamic storage area will also be required to support the string concatenation operator !!.

F. Syntax

The BNF grammar for the CS-4 base language has approximately 500 productions.

2.4.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

The language has several machine dependent features, including user specified allocation of data items, inline assembly language code, and user control over calling sequences. However, all of the machine dependent features have been carefully isolated. Inline assembly language, for example, is restricted to a special class of procedures called MPROCEDURES.

B. Efficiency

CS-4 should be moderately efficient. It has many high-level operators and a structured control structure, so a great deal of optimization can be performed. The user can also request that procedures be expanded inline, so that there will be very little overhead in the use of data abstractions.

C. Level of the Language

CS-4 is a high level language.

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

The CS-4 base language is large and will require a large compiler. The full CS-4 language will require a very large compiler.

E. Special System Features

The language has a large number of special system features. The MPROCEDURE statement permits the user to declare structures

that include information about the allocation of the structure members (bit or byte position within a word, and storage alignment). The MSTRUCTURE can also specify the absolute storage location at which the structure is to be allocated.

The MPROCEDURE statement provides the capability of writing procedures which contain assembly language code. User control over calling sequences is provided by the EPROCEDURE (external procedure) declaration, which permits the user to specify which registers will be modified by the called procedure and how parameters should be passed.

CS-4 also has the data abstraction facility. When combined with the MSTRUCTURE statement, data abstractions can be created for bit strings and pointers. The language also has records, arrays, character strings, signal handlers for processing exceptional conditions, the UPDATE block for controlling access to shared data, and the operating system interface (which includes I/O facilities and real-time process scheduling).

F. Error Checking and Debugging

CS-4 performs complete type checking at compile time (including procedure parameters), and provides no default declarations or automatic type conversion. This will allow many program errors to be detected during compilation.

Runtime checks are performed for many conditions (such as array subscript errors, CASE statements, and division by zero) unless the programmer uses compiler directives to disable the checking. The signal handlers also provide the user a means of intercepting runtime errors.

The language manual does not indicate that any special debugging tools are available.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

CS-4 is a modular, block structured language. The language has a structured control structure, the MODE declaration for

defining abstract data types, procedures can be separately compiled, and BEGIN blocks can be used to declare local data.

(b) modifiability

CS-4 programs should be easy to modify. The language is well structured, with a large number of data types, and a data abstraction facility. Status variables can be used to improve the readability of programs.

(c) reliability

The language has a number of features that would aid in the writing of reliable programs. It is well structured, many data types are provided, full type checking is performed, declaration of variables is mandatory, no automatic type conversion is performed (other than mixed-mode arithmetic), and there are only five compiler-supplied defaults for the entire base language.

H. Use

CS-4 is currently under development and has not been used for any major programming projects.

2.5. FLECS

2.5.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

FLECS [BEY75a, BEY75b] is a preprocessor for Fortran developed by T. Beyer at the University of Oregon. FLECS supports all features of ANSI standard Fortran IV, and provides a large number of structured programming constructs. No special characters (e.g. \$, %) are used to delimit the structured programming constructs. In the remainder of this section, the FLECS language is considered to be Fortran IV augmented by the FLECS preprocessor.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

FLECS supports the five basic data types of Fortran IV: INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, COMPLEX, and LOGICAL. The language permits mixed-mode expressions and will automatically convert between integer, real, and double precision numbers. Constants used in expressions can have the following types: integer, real, double precision, complex, logical, and character strings.

The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators (INTEGER, REAL, and DOUBLE

PRECISION operands)

+, -, *, /, **

logical operators (LOGICAL operands)

.NOT., .AND., .OR.

relational operators

.EQ., .NE.

All types.

.LT., .LE., .GT., .GE.

INTEGER, REAL, or DOUBLE
PRECISION operands only.

B. Control Structures

Note: In all the following control structures the symbol <body> may be replaced by <stmt> or <stmt-1> ... <stmt-k>

FIN. For example:

```

WHEN (I .LT. MAXVAL) CALL PROCESS1(I,J)
ELSE CALL BADVAL(I)
      I = MAXVAL
      RETURN
FIN

```

- IF (<logical-expr>) <body>
(Simple if statement.)

- WHEN (<logical-expr>)
 <body>
ELSE
 <body>
(Compound if statement.)

- UNLESS (<logical-expr>) <body>
(Equivalent to IF (.NOT. <logical-expr>) <body>; the <body> is executed if the <logical-expr> is false.)

- WHILE (<logical-expr>) <body>
 UNTIL
(While and until loops with test performed before execution of the <body>.)

- REPEAT WHILE (<logical-expr>) <body>
 UNTIL
(While and until loops with tests performed after execution of the <body>. The <body> will therefore be executed at least once.)

- CONDITIONAL
 (<logical-expr>) <body>
 .
 .
 (<logical-expr>) <body>
 { (OTHERWISE) <body> }
FIN

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the simple, ASSIGNED, and computed GOTO, and FUNCTIONS and SUBROUTINES. The section in this chapter concerning Interdata Fortran V gives a detailed description of these constructs.

C. Data Structures

FLECS has only one feature for building more complex data types: arrays of up to 7 dimensions. The declaration

```
DIMENSION <ident> (<dimension-list>)
```

declares <ident> to be an array. Elements of an array are accessed using standard subscript notation <ident> (<subscript-list>).

D. Other Features

FLECS is essentially a Fortran language with some additional constructs for structured programming. The language has no block structure or recursion. FLECS provides statement functions, EQUIVALENCE, COMMON, and DATA statements, and the Fortran I/O statements. Comments are denoted by a "C" in the first column of the input card. FLECS also produces a "prettyprinted" output listing - statements are automatically indented to show program structure.

E. Runtime Environment

FLECS has no dynamic storage allocation or recursion, so no stack or heap is needed. Except for I/O and type conversion routines, FLECS should run on a bare machine.

F. Syntax

Fortran IV (and therefore FLECS) has a BNF grammar, but a compiler would probably not use it. Fortran compilers tend to use ad hoc compiling techniques.

2.5.2. CHARACTERISTICS

(LISP-like conditional statement. The <logical-expr>'s are evaluated sequentially until some expression evaluates to .TRUE., and the corresponding <body> is then executed. The <body> of the optional OTHERWISE clause is executed only if all preceding <logical-expr> evaluated to .FALSE.

```
- SELECT (<select-expr>)
  (<expr>) <body>
  :
  :
  (<expr>) <body>
  { (OTHERWISE) <body> }
```

FIN

(Case statement. The <select-expr> is compared sequentially with the <expr>'s in the body of the SELECT statement. The first <body> whose <expr> matches the <select-expr> is executed, and all remaining bodies are skipped over. The <body> of the OTHERWISE clause is executed only if no preceding <expr> matched the <select-expr>.)

```
- DO (<variable> = <expr-1>, <expr-2> [, <expr-3>]) <body>
  (For loop with optional increment.)
```

```
- TO <internal-subroutine-name> <body>
  (A parameterless, internal subroutine. The subroutine name can contain any number of letters, digits, or hyphens, as long as it begins with a letter, and contains at least one hyphen. For example: INITIATE-VEHICLE-TRACKING.)
```

```
<internal-subroutine-name> (Call of an internal subroutine. Note that no parameters can be passed to the subroutine.)
```

FLECS also supports the control structures of standard Fortran: the logical and arithmetic IF, the DO statement,

A. Machine Dependence

ANSI standard Fortran IV (and therefore FLECS) is fairly machine independent. Fortran programs can usually be transported to different machines with only minor modifications (e.g. different I/O unit numbers).

B. Efficiency

Fortran IV formatted I/O must be performed interpretively and is therefore quite slow. In all other respects Fortran IV and FLECS are efficient programming languages. We note, however, that the additional structuring of FLECS programs that would be very helpful to a code optimizer is not available to the Fortran compiler; all the structured statements are converted to IF and GOTO statements before reaching the compiler.

C. Level

FLECS is a-medium level language.

D. Size of Language and Compiler

Because of the EQUIVALENCE statement, the unstructured nature of Fortran programs (optimization is difficult), and the preprocessor pass, FLECS will require a fairly large compiler.

E. Special System Features

FLECS has no special systems features.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

Fortran compilers have traditionally had very poor compile and runtime diagnostics, so FLECS diagnostics will probably be poor. The preprocessor phase of FLECS does print error messages when illegal FLECS statements are detected.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

FLECS supports independent compilation of subroutines and

functions, and communication through COMMON blocks.

(b) modifiability

FLECS has a large number of structured programming constructs. However, the language has no macroprocessor, no feature like the PASCAL constant statement for declaring program constants, no significant features for constructing complex data structures, and no "include" statement for copying source files.

(c) reliability

The structured programming constructs make FLECS a great improvement over Fortran IV. However, FLECS has no character or string operators and data types, and does not have sufficient data structuring capabilities. The lack of these features requires FLECS programs to simulate any character processing, list processing, or record processing with Fortran code. FLECS programs will therefore tend to be longer than necessary and more difficult to understand.

H. Use

The FLECS preprocessor is written in Fortran and could be implemented on almost any machine. FLECS is available on the CDC 6000, 7000, and Cyber series, the IBM 360 and 370 series, the PDP 8, 10, and 11, and the UNIVAC 1100 series. The source code for FLECS is available from its author (T. Beyer) at a nominal cost.

2.6. HAL/S

2.6.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

HAL/S [INT75b,MAR74] is a high-level aerospace language developed by Intermetrics for the Space Shuttle program. Although the language is a dialect of PL/I, several of the more serious weaknesses in the PL/I language have been eliminated (for example, HAL/S pointers are fully typed, procedure parameters are checked for valid type, and the programmer must specify which parameters will be assigned values by the procedure body). Extensive subscripting capabilities, matrix and vector operators, and control structures for real-time control and concurrent processes are also provided.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

HAL/S has eight basic data types:

INTEGER

SCALAR - floating point numbers

VECTOR - 1xN vector of SCALAR objects

MATRIX - NxN matrix of SCALAR objects

BIT - bit string

CHARACTER - variable length character string

BOOLEAN

EVENT - binary semaphores for process control. An event may be latched or unlatched; a latched event holds its value of TRUE or FALSE until set or reset, an unlatched event remains FALSE until signaled, whereupon it momentarily toggles to true, and then reverts back to FALSE. Process scheduling is invoked any time that an event is set, reset, or signaled.

Some implicit conversion is performed between these basic data types, and a set of conversion functions is provided: the functions INTEGER, SCALAR, VECTOR, MATRIX, BIT,

CHARACTER, SINGLE, and DOUBLE provide conversion between the data types and possible precisions.

The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators (INTEGER, SCALAR,
and MATRIX operands)

+, -, /
blank - multiplication
* - cross product
. - dot product

Note: some combinations of the operand types are not permitted.

bit operators (BIT and EVENT operands)

AND, OR, NOT
CAT - concatenation
SUBBIT_{1 TO j} (bit-expr) - pseudo-variable for inserting
or extracting bits.

character operators (CHARACTER operands)

CAT - concatenation
char-expr_{1 TO j} - substring insertion or extraction

boolean operators (BOOLEAN operands)

AND, OR, NOT

relational operators (all types)

=, ~ =
<, >, <=, >= - only for INTEGER, SCALAR, or CHARACTER
operands

B. Control Structures

- IF <expr> THEN <basic-stmt> ELSE <stmt>;
(Standard conditional, but basic-stmt may not be an
IF statement.)

- DO; <stmt-list> END ;


```

        { ASSIGN (<ident-list>) }
        { EXCLUSIVE } ;
          REENTRANT

```

```

    <procedure-body> CLOSE <proc-name> ;

```

(Procedure definition specifying input arguments, output arguments (the ASSIGN List). If the EXCLUSIVE attribute is specified then any concurrent task attempting to execute the procedure will be blocked as long as any other task is executing it.)

```

- <function-name>: FUNCTION { (<ident-list>) }
      <type> { EXCLUSIVE } ;
              REENTRANT

```

```

      <function body> CLOSE <function name> ;

```

(Standard function definition, but function body may not cause side effects by altering the input parameters (there is no ASSIGN List).)

```

- SCHEDULE <ident> { AT <expr>
                   IN <expr>
                   ON <event expr> }
      PRIORITY (<expr>) { DEPENDENT }
      { , REPEAT AFTER <expr> }
        EVERY
      { WHILE <event expr>
        { UNTIL <event expr> } } ;
        UNTIL <expr>

```

(Scheduling statement for concurrent tasks. A task may be scheduled immediately, AT a specific time, IN a certain number of clock ticks, or ON the value of an event. The PRIORITY is used in scheduling ready tasks. If the DEPENDENT attribute is used then the scheduled task will be terminated if the scheduling task does. The scheduling task can be REPEATED AFTER a specified time, or EVERY <expr> clock ticks. Finally, a WHILE or UNTIL clause may be attached to control this rescheduling.)

```

- CANCEL <ident-list> ;

```

(Stop rescheduling of all the tasks in the list, but allow any currently executing tasks to finish.)

- TERMINATE <ident-list> ;
(Stop rescheduling of all tasks in the list, and terminate any tasks that are currently executing.)

- WAIT ~~<arith expr> ;~~
UNTIL <arith-expr> ;
FOR DEPENDENT
<event-expr> ;
(Stalls the current process for a certain number of clock ticks, UNTIL a specific time, until all DEPENDENTS have terminated, or until some event occurs.)

- UPDATE PRIORITY <ident> TO <arith expr> ;
(Changes priority of a previously scheduled task.)

- SIGNAL <event var> ;
RESET <event var> ;
SET <event var> ;
(Used to alter event variables and thereby schedule or control tasks. SIGNAL is used for unlatched events; when an event is SIGNALed all tasks WAITing on that event are placed in the ready state. SET and RESET are used for latched events. SET forces an event to the TRUE state and frees any tasks waiting for the TRUE value of the event, RESET forces the value back to FALSE and frees any tasks waiting for the FALSE value.)

- UPDATE; <stmt-list> CLOSE;
(Update block for controlling access to shared variables by concurrent tasks. A variable declared with the LOCK attribute (LOCK (<lock number>)) may only be referenced in an update block, and a task executing an update block will be stalled until the locked variables in the update block are no longer being accessed in an UPDATE block of any other task.)

- ON ERROR { <error group> : <error number> }
<error group>

```

{ SYSTEM } {AND SIGNAL
            IGNORE SET   <event var> } ;
            RESET

```

```
ON ERROR { <error group> : <error number> } <stmt> ;
          <error group>
```

```
OFF ERROR { <error group> : <error number> } ;
           <error group>
```

(Similar to PL/I on-conditions. Each implementation will assign error groups and error numbers to the standard system errors (such as division by zero, illegal instruction); the user may use unassigned error groups and numbers for user defined conditions. The ON and OFF statements obey the HAL/S namescoping rules, so any modifications to the condition handling environment by an ON or OFF statement is removed on exit from the enclosing block.

```
- SEND ERROR <error group> : <error number> ;
```

(Simulates an occurrence of the specified error number.)

C. Data Structures

HAL/S has three constructs for creating more complex data structures from the basic data types:

(1) structures

The statement

```
STRUCTURE <template-name> { DENSE   } { RIGID } :
                        ALIGNED
```

```
    <level number> <ident> <attribute> ,
```

```
    :
```

```
    <level number> <ident> <attribute> ;
```

declares <template-name> to be a structure template. This template can be used in declaring a structured variable:

```
DECLARE <ident> <template name>
```

```
        { (<arith expr>) }.
```

A structured variable can be dimensioned, and the

components of a structure are referenced by the dot operator:

```
<ident> . <component>
```

The assignment operator and the relational operators =, ~= can be used to copy or compare compatible structures.

(2) arrays

A declaration of the form

```
DECLARE <ident> ARRAY (<dimension list>)
                        <type specification> ;
```

declares <ident> to be an array of the specified type. Array elements, rows, or subarrays are accessed using the subscript operator <ident> <subscript list>, where a single subscript can be any of the following:

```
<#-of-elements> AT <start-pos>
    (Selects a range of elements starting
     at the specified position.)
<arith-expr> TO <arith-expr>
    (Selects a range of elements.)
<arith-expr>
    (Selects a single element.)
.
    (Selects all elements in the
     corresponding dimension.)
```

The assignment operator and the relational operators =, ~= can be used to copy or compare compatible arrays.

(3) pointer variables

HAL/S has fully typed pointer variables declared by statements of the form:

```
DECLARE <ident> NAME <type specification> ;
```

When a pointer of type X is used in an expression or on the left hand side of an assignment statement an automatic dereferencing takes place. For example, if P points to a variable of type INTEGER then the

statement `P = P+1;` will increment the integer variable (the value of the pointer `P` is not altered).

A pseudo variable `NAME` is used to take the address of an object or to assign a value to a pointer variable:

```
NAME(<pointer var>) = NAME(<non-pointer var>);
```

```
NAME(<pointer var>) = NAME(<pointer var>)
```

In the first case the pointer variable is assigned the address of the non-pointer variable, in the second case the pointer variable is simply assigned the value of the pointer variable on the right hand side. Note that this implies that a pointer may not point to another pointer.

Pointer variables may be compared with the relational operators `=` and `~ =`. Finally, if a pointer points to a structure then the dot operator may be used to access the components of the structure, and if a pointer points to a dimensioned object (ARRAY, MATRIX, or VECTOR) then subscripting may be applied.

D. Other Features

HAL/S is block structured language with reserved words, and comments in `/* */` pairs. A simple replacement and a parameterized macro facility is provided by the REPLACE statement. The language also provides "inline functions"; function bodies as part of expressions. For example,

```
STRUCTURE X:                               /* Define a record */
  1 A SCALAR, -                             /* structure X. */
  1 B INTEGER,
  1 C NAME X-STRUCTURE;                    /* Now use it to */
DECLARE XSTRUC X-STRUCTURE;                /* declare XSTRUC. */
XSTRUC = FUNCTION X-STRUCTURE;            /* Initialize XSTRUC */
  DECLARE Y X-STRUCTURE;                   /* using an inline */
  Y.A = 0;                                  /* function that */
  Y.B = 0.0;                                /* returns an object */
  NAME(Y.C) = NULL;                        /* of type */
```

```

RETURN Y;                /* X-STRUCTURE.      */
CLOSE;

```

The inline function is most powerful when combined with the macro facility (for example, the inline function in the previous example could be declared to be a macro called INIT. A statement of the form XSTRUC = INIT; would then initialize the variable XSTRUC.)

The language has a data declaration facility called COMPOOL that is somewhat similar to the Fortran COMMON statement:

```

<label>: COMPOOL { RIGID };
    <data declarations>
CLOSE <label>;

```

COMPOOL blocks can be compiled independently from other programs, and the declarations in the COMPOOL block can then be included into a program by invoking the name of the COMPOOL block. The RIGID attribute forces allocation of the data in the order specified within the COMPOOL block.

HAL/S also provides for initialization of variables in DECLARE statements, and a CONSTANT attribute for declaring program constants. The language does not allow dynamic arrays, matrices, or vectors, but `^*` bounds (as in PL/I) are allowed for formal parameters. Finally, HAL/S produces a standard output listing for all programs (programs are "prettyprinted" to show statement nesting, and subscripts or superscripts are printed on separate lines).

E. Runtime Environment

HAL/S requires a run-time stack, I/O routines, and scheduling routines for activating, suspending, and synchronizing tasks.

F. Syntax

The BNF grammar for HAL/S has approximately 450 productions.

2.6.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

Except for the SUBBIT operator for extracting bits from an object, HAL/S is not machine dependent.

B. Efficiency

HAL/S is an efficient language. The language does not provide dynamic allocation of structures (as the PL/I ALLOCATE statement) or dynamic arrays, forbids branching out of procedure bodies, and has no BEGIN blocks. The high level operators and statements (matrix multiply, the UPDATE block, the SCHEDULE statement) should provide room for a great deal of optimization.

In a test performed by Intermetrics as part of the HAL/S acceptance tests [MAR75], the HAL/S compiler for the IBM 360 series generated code that was faster and required less core than IBM Fortran H (OPT=2). The benchmark included numerical analysis programs and bit and character processing programs.

C. Level of the Language

HAL/S is a high level language.

D. Size of Language and Compiler

HAL/S is a large language (comparable in size to PL/I), and the compiler is written in XPL. The compiler is probably large.

E. Special System Features

HAL/S has many features that would be useful in systems programming. The language allows DO-loop variables to be declared as TEMPORARY variables within the loop body. Variables declared to be TEMPORARY will be allocated in the fastest storage locations available.

```
example.      DO FOR TEMPORARY INTEGER I = 1,100;  
              *  
              *  
              *  
              END;
```

A variable declared to be a TEMPORARY loop variable can not be

accessed outside the loop body.

To allow for special extensions (possibly machine dependent) to HAL/S, a type of procedure or function called the %-macro was added to the language. %-macros may be implemented by inline substitution of the procedure body or by standard procedure call. As an example, the %-macro %NAMECOPY(A,B) will assign the pointer variable B to the pointer variable A without requiring type checking (thereby allowing any structure to be overlaid on any other structure).

HAL/S also has the RIGID attribute for COMPOOL or STRUCTURES, the STRUCTURE and NAME types, the SUBBIT operator, the exception handling statements (ON, OFF, SEND ERROR), the UPDATE block for shared variables, and the extensive real-time processing statements (SCHEDULE, WAIT, CANCEL, TERMINATE). All of these features would be very helpful in systems programming.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

HAL/S is fully typed, so many compile time checks can be performed. The ON and OFF ERROR statements would be useful in monitoring runtime errors.

The language manual does not indicate that any special debugging aids are available.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

HAL/S is quite modular. The COMPOOL block would be very useful in insuring that separately compiled programs use the same data structures. The LOCK and ACCESS attributes for program variables permit controlled sharing of program variables. Finally, HAL/S programs, procedures, functions, or COMPOOL blocks can be compiled independently (the first three generating object modules, the fourth generating an entry in the library of COMPOOL blocks for the installation).

(b) modifiability

The language has a number of features that would make HAL/S programs easy to modify. The REPLACE statement provides simple and parameterized macro replacement, the CONSTANT attribute can be used to declare program constants, and the COMPOOL feature allows a programmer to make minor changes to a data structure used by all programs in a project simply by changing a single COMPOOL block. Finally, the high level operators and structured programming constructs would also make program modification easier.

(c) reliability

According to its implementors, HAL/S was designed to improve software reliability. The language allows full type checking to be performed at compile time, and provides many structured programming constructs. The LOCK attribute in conjunction with the UPDATE block permits reliable data sharing, and the SCHEDULE, WAIT, CANCEL and TERMINATE statements provide high level features for real-time processing. The formatted output listings would also enhance reliability.

H. Use

HAL/S has been implemented on the IBM 360 series, the Data General NOVA, and the Shuttle flight computer (IBM AP-101). The compiler is written in XPL, so it shouldn't be terribly difficult to transport HAL/S to other machines. The language was designed and implemented by Intermetrics, and has been used extensively by NASA in the Space Shuttle program.

2.7. INTERDATA FORTRAN V

2.7.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

INTERDATA FORTRAN V [INTE74a,INTE74b,INTE74c] is an extension of ANSI Standard Fortran, the major extensions being the ADDRESS (pointer) type and the ENCODE and DECODE statements for memory to memory data transfers under format control. The Fortran language, which was originally designed in the late 1950's, was the first algorithmic language to achieve widespread acceptance. The language has been used extensively for scientific programming, but the limited number of data types and control structures has hindered the use of Fortran for system-oriented problems. Two Fortran preprocessors (FLECS and PREST4) which allow the programmer to use structures programming control structures have also been included in this report.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

FORTTRAN V supports the five basic data types of ANSI Fortran (INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, COMPLEX, and LOGICAL) as well as the pointer type ADDRESS. The language has no character or string data type, so alphanumeric data must be packed into INTEGER variables. Fortran V allows mixed mode expressions and will automatically convert between INTEGER, REAL, and DOUBLE PRECISION values. Character and address constants can be used in INTEGER expressions.

FORTTRAN V allows the following types of constants to be used in expressions: integer, floating point, double precision floating point, complex, logical, data or statement addresses, character, and hexadecimal. The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators (INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION,

COMPLEX, and ADDRESS operands)

+, -, *, /, ** - Standard arithmetic operators. ADDRESS type can only be used in INTEGER

expressions. FORTRAN V also has a extensive library of mathematical functions.

relational operators

.EQ., .NE., .LT., .GT., .LE., .GE.

logical operators (LOGICAL operands only)

.NOT., .AND., .OR.

pointer operators and functions

A`<name>` - Yields the address of the object <name>, where <name> can be a simple variable name, array, array element, or a statement label.

IVAL(<address expr>)

FVAL(<address-expr>)

DVAL(<address-expr>)

- Functions for obtaining the INTEGER, REAL, or DOUBLE PRECISION value pointed to by the address expression. It is the user's responsibility to insure that the address expression is pointing to meaningful data. Note: there is no way to alter the value of the object pointed to by the address expression.

B. Control Structures

- IF (<logical-expr>) <stmt>

(Simple conditional statement with no provision for an ELSE part.)

- IF (<arith-expr>) <label-1> , <label-2> , <label-3>

(Three-way arithmetic if statement. A transfer is made to label-1, label-2, or label-3 depending on whether the arithmetic expression is negative, zero, or positive.)

- DO <stmt-no> <var> = <var-1>, <var-2>, <var-3>
 <stmt-list>
 <stmt-no> CONTINUE
 (For loop. The variables var-1, var-2, var-3 must be
 INTEGER variables, and their values must be greater
 than 0.)
- GOTO <stmt-no>
 GOTO <assign-var>
 GOTO (<stmt-no-1>, ..., <stmt-no-k>), <var>
 (Unconditional, ASSIGNED, and computed goto
 statements.)
- <type> FUNCTION <func-name> (<parameter-list>)
 <stmt-list>
 END
 SUBROUTINE <subr-name> { (<parameter-list>) }
 <stmt-list>
 END
 (Standard function and subroutine definition.
 Neither can be recursive. Both functions and
 subroutines can have multiple entry points.)
- RETURN
 (Return from a function or subroutine.)
- CALL <subr-name> { (<argument-list>) }
 <func-name> (<argument-list>)
 (Invoke a subroutine or function.)

C. Data Structures

FORTRAN V has only one feature for building more complex data types: arrays of up to three dimensions. The declaration

<type> <ident> (<dimension-list>)

declares <ident> to be an array of the specified type. The type can be any of the basic types, and array elements are extracted using the subscript notation <ident> (<subscript-list>).

D. Other Features

INTERDATA FORTRAN V has an extensive library of built-in functions and subroutines including

BCLR - Bit clear.
BCMPL - Bit complement.
BSET - Bit set.
BTEST - Bit test.
ICBYTE - Byte clear.
ILBYTE - Byte load.
INBYTE - Byte complement.
ISBYTE - Byte store.
IAND -- Bitwise AND, OR, exclusive OR, complement,
IOR and shift.
IEOR
NOT
ISHFT

FORTRAN V does not require that scalar variables be declared. A variable that is not explicitly declared is assumed to be INTEGER or REAL, the choice depending on the first character in the variable name.

FORTRAN V has formatted and unformatted sequential and direct access I/O facilities. In addition, the ENCODE and DECODE statements provide a means of transferring data for one memory buffer to another, the data being translated according to format control. The ENCODE and DECODE statements can be used for converting between character data and the six basic types.

Finally, FORTRAN V has a conditional compilation feature. Any statements with an X in card column 1 will be treated as comments unless the compiler debug option is on, in which case they are compiled as ordinary statements. The conditional compilation feature is very helpful for inserting debugging statements into a program.

E. Runtime Environment

FORTRAN V requires no runtime stack or dynamic storage

allocator. However, the language does have fairly complex I/O facilities, so FORTRAN will require a number of I/O routines. Still, the runtime environment for FORTRAN will be considerably simpler than the runtime environment for HAL/S, SPL, or JOVIAL.

F. Syntax

FORTRAN V probably has a BNF syntax, but compilers would not use it. FORTRAN statements are easy to parse, and most FORTRAN compilers use ad hoc parsing techniques.

2.7.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

FORTRAN is as machine dependent as any of the other widely used programming languages. Almost all commercial computer systems provide a FORTRAN compiler, and FORTRAN programs can usually be transported to other facilities with out a great deal of effort. Note: one of the sources of difficulty in transporting FORTRAN programs is the difference in word sizes between the two machines. Since FORTRAN has no character or string data type, programs using character data must pack characters into INTEGER variables. Unless the packing density is set at one character per word (very expensive if there is much character data), the resulting programs will not be transportable to other machines without modification.

B. Efficiency

Optimized FORTRAN programs compare favorably with assembly language programs. The only operation in FORTRAN that is inefficient is formatted I/O, which must be interpreted at runtime.

C. Level of the Language

Fortran is a medium level language.

REPRODUCIBILITY OF THE
ORIGINAL PAGE IS POOR

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

The FORTRAN language is moderate in size, and the compiler should be too.

E. Special System Features

FORTRAN V has a very limited form of pointer variables, and many logical (bit and byte) functions. The EQUIVALENCE and COMMON statements can be used to access a block of core under various formats.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

FORTRAN compilers have traditionally had poor compile and run time diagnostics. The lack of a character data type requires the compiler to accept character strings as part of INTEGER expressions - no type checking can be performed for characters. The pointer type ADDRESS can be used to point at any data item or statement in a FORTRAN program, and no type checking can be performed. It is therefore the user's responsibility to insure that pointers are used in a proper manner.

The INTERDATA implementation of FORTRAN V provides the following debugging features:

- \$COMP - Turns on conditional compilation of source statements with an X in column 1.
- \$TRCE - Turns on trace of all or selected program variables.
- \$TEST - Turns on checking of array subscripts and DO-loop indices for 0 or negative values.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

FORTRAN V supports independent compilation of subroutines and functions. Data sharing is provided by the COMMON and EXTERNAL statements. FORTRAN is seriously lacking in structured control structures, however.

(b) modifiability

FORTRAN V has no macro processor, no CONSTANT statement for defining program constants, no INCLUDE feature for including source files into a program, and no data structures other than arrays. FORTRAN programs are often hard to read because of the lack of control structures. FORTRAN programs would be considerably harder to modify than programs written in PASCAL, for example.

(c) reliability

FORTRAN V can not perform any compile-time type checking of subroutine or function parameters, or check that variables declared in one COMMON block are consistent with variables declared in the same COMMON block by another function or subroutine. The ADDRESS type in FORTRAN V requires careful programming. It is the user's responsibility to insure that pointers are pointing to objects of the correct type. Also, the lack of control structures means that IF and GOTO statements must be used to simulate if-then-else statements, while and until loops, and case statements. This can greatly obscure the structure of a program. Finally, FORTRAN has no bit or character data types, requiring any program that uses these data types to pack characters or bits into words.

H. Use

FORTRAN V is implemented on the INTERDATA series of minicomputers. The FORTRAN language has been implemented on almost all commercial computer systems (although the implementations are all slightly different), and in the past few years a number of preprocessors have been written that permit the use of structured programming control structures in FORTRAN programs. The languages FLECS and PREST4 discussed in this chapter are two examples of this type of preprocessor.

2.8. JOSSLE

2.8.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

JOSSLE [JOH73,PRE73] is a high level language developed by John White and Leon Presser at the University of California. Although it was designed to be used in implementing compilers, the language is general purpose (JOSSLE is loosely based on PL/I) and could be applied to most system-oriented problems. JOSSLE provides some special features for managing shared data in programs, and a hierarchical control structure that tends to force top-down development of programs.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

JOSSLE has four basic data types: INTEGER, REAL, CHAR (character string), and BIT (bit string). Complete type checking is performed at compile time, and no automatic type conversion is performed between the basic types. However, the language does provide a function CONVERT for requesting explicit data conversions.

The operators and the data types on which they operate on are listed below:

Logical operators (BIT operands)

~ <expr> - Bitwise complement, AND, and OR.
 <expr> & <expr>
 <expr> ! <expr>

relational operators (all basic types)

=, ~= - Operands can be INTEGER, REAL, CHAR, BIT. Both operands must have same type.
 <, >, <=, >= - Operands can be INTEGER, REAL, or BIT. Both operands must have the same type. Note that there is no implicit ordering of the character set.

arithmetic operators (INTEGER and REAL operands)

- +,-,*,/ - Operands can be INTEGER or REAL, but both must have same type.
- MOD - Modulo operator. Operand must be INTEGER.

character operators and functions (CHAR operands only)

- !! - Concatenation.
- SUBSTR - Substring function. SUBSTR is not a pseudo-variable in the PL/I sense - it can not be used on the left-hand side of an assignment statement.

B. Control Structures

- BEGIN <stmt-list> END;
 (Compound statement.)
- IF <bit-expr> THEN <stmt> { ELSE <stmt> } ;
 (Standard conditional statement.)
- LOOP <stmt-list> END LOOP;
 (Unbounded repetition of the <stmt-list>. Each LOOP statement must contain an EXIT statement to provide termination of the loop.)
- CASE <integer-expr> OF
 <stmt-1>;
 :
 :
 <stmt-k>;
 END CASE;
 (Simple case statement. If the value of the expression is i then the i-th statement is executed. A runtime error message is produced if i is less than 1 or greater than k.)
- EXIT { IF <bit-expr> } ;
 (Unconditional and conditional exit of innermost

LOOP statement.)

- RETURN;
(Return from a procedure.)
- RETURN WITH <expr>;
(Return from a function with a result.)
- CALL <proc-name> { (<parameter-list>) };
<function-name> { (<parameter-list>) };
(Invoke a procedure or function.)
- PROCEDURE <proc-name> { (<argument-list>) } ;
<procedure-body>
END PROCEDURE <proc-name>;
- PROCEDURE <func-name>
{ (<argument-list>) } RETURNS <type> ;
<function-body>
END PROCEDURE <func-name> ;
(Standard procedures and functions. Neither can be recursive, and all parameters are passed by value.)

Note: JOSSLE has no GOTO statement.

C. Data Structures

JOSSLE has a number of constructs for creating more complex data structures from the basic types:

(1) one-dimensional arrays

The statement

```
<ident> LINLIST (<number-of-elements>) OF <type>;
```

declares <ident> to be a one-dimensional array. The type can be any one of the basic types or a record structure defined by the user. Array elements are accessed using the subscript operator <ident> (<subscript>) , and the assignment operator ← can be used to copy an entire array.

(2) record structures

The user can define record structures using the NEWTYPE

statement:

```

<type-ident> = NEWTYPE
  <member-1> <type-1>;
      :
      :
  <member-k> <type-k>;
END NEWTYPE;

```

The <type-ident> can then be used anywhere that a basic type can be used. For example:

```

ERRORMSG = NEWTYPE      /* Define record structure */
  TEXT CHAR(20);        /* for an error message. */
  ERROR-NO INTEGER;
  PRINT-FLAG BIT(1);
  NEXT-MSG PTR2A ERRORMSG;
END NEWTYPE;

DECLARE                /* Now use the structure */
  SIZE-ERROR ERRMSG;   /* to declare some things. */
  OTHER-ERRORS LINLIST(10) OF ERRMSG;
END DECLARE;

```

The syntax for referencing structure components is <structure-var> : <member-name> { . <member-name> } . The assignment operator <- can be used to copy an entire record from one variable to another.

(3) typed pointers

The declaration

```
<ident> PTR2A <type>;
```

declares <ident> to be a pointer to an object of type <type>. The type can be a user defined record structure. All pointer variables are initialized to the constant NULL. The following operators and JOSSLE statements are provided for manipulating pointer variables:

```

=, ~=,                - Equality and inequality.
<ptr-var> :=>        - Object pointed to by the pointer
                       variable. Can appear on either side
                       of an assignment statement.

```

<ptr-var> := <structure-member> { . <member> }

- Component in a structure pointed to by the pointer variable.

ADDRESS(<variable>)

- Yields address of the variable.

CONTENTS(<ptr-var>)

- Yields value of object pointed to by the pointer variable. Can not appear on the left-hand side of an assignment statement.

ALLOCATE <type> SETTING <ptr-var>;

- Allocate statement that causes dynamic allocation of an object of type <type>, and the setting of <ptr-var> to the address of the new object.

FREE <type> PTD2BY <ptr-var>;

- Statement that deallocates the core block, pointed at by the pointer variable, and sets the pointer to NULL.

(4) stacks and queues

The JOSSLE declarations

<ident> STACK OF <type> ;

<ident> QUEUE OF <type> ;

are used to define stacks and queues. The type can be any basic type or a user defined record structure. Stacks and queues are initially empty, and objects can be pushed on or popped off a stack or queue with the following two operators:

<ptr-var> <== <stack-or-queue-var>

- Sets <ptr-var> to the address of the object in the stack or queue and then pops the object off the list. If the stack or queue is initially empty the pointer is

set to NULL.

<stack-or-queue-var> <== <ptr-var>

- Pushes the object pointed to by the pointer variable onto the stack or queue.

D. Other Features

JOSSLE provides several features for managing shared data and for structuring systems of programs. JOSSLE permits internal procedures (that is, nested procedures), but unlike other block structured languages an internal procedure does not automatically inherit all variables declared in outer blocks. An internal procedure can request the use of such variables using the KNOWN statement:

```
KNOWN
  <identifier-list>
END KNOWN.
```

This feature prevents internal procedures from modifying a variable declared at an outer level without gaining explicit permission to use it.

A system of JOSSLE programs is formed by creating a COMMUNICATION REGION specifying the member programs in the system and the data to be shared among the programs. The syntax for a COMMUNICATION REGION is as follows:

```
COMMUNICATION REGION <ident>
  <record-structure-definitions>
  <shared-variable-declarations>
  MEMBERS
    <main-program>
    <sub-program-list>
  END MEMBERS;
END COMMUNICATION REGION <ident>;
```

The statement defines <ident> to be a "task" composed of a main program and a list of subprograms which communicate only through the variables in the <shared-variable-list>. A MEMBER program can only be called by other programs in the same COMMUNICATION

REGION. Each MEMBER program can be an independently compiled JOSSLE program or another COMMUNICATION REGION. A COMMUNICATION REGION is activated by a call to the identifier <ident>, which causes control to pass to the main program in the MEMBERS list.

JOSSLE has a CONSTANT declaration for declaring program constants, and primitive I/O facilities.

E. Runtime Environment

JOSSLE prohibits recursive procedures, so no runtime stack is required. However, JOSSLE does require a dynamic storage allocator and some form of garbage collector for compacting the dynamic storage area.

F. Syntax

JOSSLE has a BNF grammar with approximately 150 productions.

2.8.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

JOSSLE has no machine dependent features and could be implemented on almost any machine.

B. Efficiency

JOSSLE has no recursion (and therefore no runtime stack), and the language does not permit dynamic arrays or varying length character or bit strings. Procedure parameters are all passed by value. These restrictions would tend to make JOSSLE efficient. However, JOSSLE programs that use pointer variables to dynamically allocate storage, or that perform a great deal string concatenation will require a dynamic storage allocator and garbage collector. Garbage collection can be very expensive.

C. Level of the Language

JOSSLE is a high level language.

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

JOSSLE is a fairly large language, and the compiler will also be large.

E. Special System Features

JOSSLE has record structures, bit and character strings, fully typed pointer variables, dynamic storage allocation, and the STACK and QUEUE data structures. All of these features would be helpful in systems programming.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

JOSSLE performs complete type checking at compile time and performs no automatic conversions between the data types. Default runtime checks include array subscript checking, CASE expression out bounds, data conversion errors from the CONVERT function, and substring length errors.

The JOSSLE manual does not indicate that any special debugging features are available.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

Modularity in JOSSLE is excellent. The language provides the COMMUNICATION REGION concept, independent compilation of programs and COMMUNICATION REGIONS, and restricted inheritance of global variables. JOSSLE also has a small number of structured programming control structures.

(b) modifiability

JOSSLE programs should be very well structured because of the COMMUNICATION REGION concept and the declarations for controlling shared data. However, the language has no macro processor, and the set of control structures is fairly limited (no WHILE, FOR, or REPEAT UNTIL loops, and only a simple form of the CASE statement). Because of this, JOSSLE programs will be harder to modify than programs written in HAL/S or PASCAL.

(c) reliability

JOSSLE performs complete type checking at compile time. This permits a large number of errors to be detected at compile time that would go undetected in a language like Fortran. Like most languages with pointer variables, however, JOSSLE requires careful programming. There is nothing to prevent a user from using the ADDRESS function to point at a static variable, and then subsequently attempting to free that variable using the FREE statement.

H. Use

JOSSLE is implemented on the IBM 360 and 370 series. However, the language is machine independent and could be implemented on other machines.

2.9. JOVIAL/J3B

2.9.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

JOVIAL/J3B [REI75,SOF75] is a high level language developed by SofTech for use in avionics applications. The language is based on JOVIAL/J3, the Air Force standard language for command and control applications. JOVIAL/J3B has been used extensively in the B-1 Strategic Bomber program.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

JOVIAL/J3B has seven basic data types: signed integer, unsigned integer, fixed point, single and double precision floating point, bit string, and character string. The length of bit strings is limited to the implementation dependent number of bits in a computer word. Automatic conversion is performed between integer and floating point expressions. The following types of literals are permitted in JOVIAL/J3B expressions: integer, fixed point, single and double precision floating point, and hexadecimal and character strings.

The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators

+, -, *, /, **

ABS - Absolute value.

INTR - Extracts a bit string from an arbitrary expression and converts the string to integer.

INTGR - Converts a fixed point expression to integer.

FIX - Converts an integer expression to fixed point.

SCALE - Scales a fixed point expression.

relational operators

=, <>, <, >, <=, >=

- All the relational operators can be used to compare numeric expressions, but character expressions can

only be compared using = and <> (there is no explicit ordering of the character set). Bit expressions can not be compared using the relational operators.

All the relational operators yield a bit string result.

bit operators

NOT, AND, OR, XOR

SHIFTL - Left shift.

SHIFTR - Right shift.

BIT - Pseudo-variable for accessing bit strings. The BIT function can appear on the left-hand side of an assignment statement.

character operators

BYTE - Pseudo-variable for accessing a sequence of bytes (characters). Can appear on left-hand side of an assignment statement.

B. Control Structures

- BEGIN <stmt-list> END ;
(Compound statement.)
- IF <bit-expr> ; <stmt> ; { ELSE <stmt> } ;
(Standard conditional statement with optional ELSE part. If the value of the <bit-expr> is known at compile time then no code is generated for the bypassed THEN or ELSE <stmt>.)
- WHILE <bit-expr> ; <stmt> ;
(Standard while loop.)
- FOR <var> (<init-expr> BY <incr-expr>
{ WHILE <bit-expr> }); <stmt> ;
(For loop with optional WHILE clause.)
- FOR <var> (<init-expr> THEN <next-expr>
{ WHILE <bit-expr> }); <stmt> ;

(Alternate form of for loop. The <var> is assigned the value of the <init-expr> on the first iteration of the loop, and the value of <next-expr> on all subsequent iterations. The <next-expr> can be any integer expression, and it is evaluated on each iteration of the loop.)

- GOTO <label> ;

(Unconditional branch to label in current namespace.)

- GOTO <switch-name> (<integer-expr>) ;

(Computed goto. The <switch-name> must have been declared with a statement of the form

```
SWITCH <switch-name> = <label-list> ;
```

On execution of the GOTO statement the value *i* of the <integer-expr> is used to select the *i*-th label, and a branch is made to the selected label.)

- RETURN ;

(Return from a procedure or function.)

- { DEF } { RENT } PROC <proc-name>

```
{ <input-parameters> } { : <output-parameters> } )
```

```
{ <function-type> } ;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
  <local-declarations> ;
```

```
  , <stmt-list> ;
```

```
END ;
```

(Definition of a procedure or function. If the RENT option is selected then reentrant code will be generated for the procedure (recursive calls are not permitted, however). The DEF option permits the <proc-name> to be called from other external procedures. Any labels appearing in the <stmt-list> must be declared in the <local-declarations> section.)

- <proc-name> ({ <input-arguments> }

```
{ : <output-arguments> } ) ;
```

(Invocation of a procedure or function. The method used to pass parameters (such as call by value, value-result, or reference) is implementation dependent.

Internal procedures can be declared as "inline" routines with a statement of the form `INLINE <proc-name> ;` Each invocation of an inline procedure causes the body of procedure to be substituted inline at the point of invocation.)

C. Data Structures

JOVIAL/J3B has three constructs for creating more complex data structures from the basic data types:

(a) arrays

Arrays are declared with a statement of the form

```
ARRAY <var-name> (<dimension-list>) <type> ;
```

The array type can be any of the basic data types or a pointer to a table. Arrays can have up to three dimensions, and array indexing starts at 0. The elements in an array are referenced using the standard subscript operator `<var-name> (<subscript-list>)`

(b) tables

The JOVIAL language has extensive facilities for constructing data tables (linear lists of record structures). A "template" for the entries in a table is declared using the TYPE statement:

```
TYPE <new-template> TABLE ( ) { MD }
  { LIKE <old-template> }
  BEGIN <item-declarations> END ;
```

The options M and D affect the packing density of the items within the individual table entries (M-medium, D-dense). The LIKE option allows a previously defined table template to be used in the definition of a new template. The items

in the <new-template> will consist of all items in the <item-declarations> list, preceded by the items in the <old-template> if the LIKE option was used. The type of the items in the <item-declarations> list can be any of the basic data types or a pointer to a table.

The table templates can then be used to declare data tables:

```
TABLE <table-name> (<number-of-entries>) { P } { D } { M } ;
      BEGIN <item-declarations> END ;
```

The M and D options have already been described. The default method for allocating storage for a table is by table entry: for each table entry there is a contiguous block of core that is long enough to contain all the items in the <item-declarations> list. If the P option is specified, however, the table is allocated in a "parallel" fashion: there is a contiguous block of core for the first item in all the table entries, a block for all the second items, and so forth.

An alternate version of the table declaration gives the programmer complete control over placement of items within a table entry. The number of words per table entry and the placement of each item (word position and starting bit within the word) is directly specified. The storage for items can overlap.

Individual items in a directly declared table (declared without a template) are accessed using subscript notation:

```
<table-item> (<table-entry>)
```

An entire table entry can be compared with or assigned the value of another table entry using the ENTRY function. For example,

```
ENTRY(MSG.TABLE(I)) = ENTRY(ERROR.MSG(4)) ;
```

Table entries or items within a table entry of any table declared with a template can only be accessed using pointers. Pointers will be discussed in the next section.

Note: There are a large number of restrictions on the

way that tables can be declared and used.

(c) pointers to table entries

A pointer is declared with a statement of the form

```
ITEM <pointer-var> P { <template> } ;
```

Pointers declared with a template can only be used to access table entries having the same template, pointers declared without a template can point to any entry.

The following pointer functions and operators are available:

```
POINT(<table-name>, <subscript>)
```

- Yields a pointer to the specified entry in the table.

```
NEXT(<entry-pointer>, <table-name>, { <index> })
```

- Yields a pointer to the next table entry following <entry-pointer>. The <index> can be used to obtain a pointer to some table entry relative to <entry-pointer>.

For example,

```
NEXT(MSGPTR,MSG.TABLE)
```

```
NEXT(MSGPTR,MSG.TABLE,-2)
```

```
<table-item> (<entry-pointer>)
```

- Accesses the specified item in the table entry pointed at by the <entry-pointer>.

The relational operators =, <>, <, >, <=, >= can be used to compare compatible pointers, and the assignment operator = can be used to copy a pointer.

D. Other Features

JOVIAL/J3B has a number of features that would be helpful for programming large systems. Source files containing JOVIAL statements can be inserted into a program using a statement of the form COPY <file-spec> ; . Program constants can be declared using the CONSTANT statement:

```
CONSTANT <constant-name> <type> = <value> ;
```

The <constant-name> can be used in any expression, but it can not be assigned a new value by an assignment statement or a procedure call.

The language also has a simple replacement and a parameterized macro facility. Macros are declared with the statement

```
DEFINE <macro-name> { (<parameter-list>) }  
    <replacement-string> ;
```

The <replacement-string> can contain other macros.

JOVIAL/J3B has a COMPOOL feature that is similar to (but more awkward than) the HAL/S COMPOOL block. A JOVIAL COMPOOL file can contain constant and macro definitions, declarations of external procedures and functions, templates for tables, and references to BLOCK definitions (BLOCK definitions are used for declaring shared, external data; they are a combination of the Fortran COMMON and BLOCK DATA statements.) The COMPOOL file can be invoked by any program that requires the declarations and templates.

The language has an OVERLAY statement that is similar to the Fortran EQUIVALENCE statement. JOVIAL/J3B has no I/O facilities.

E. Runtime Environment

JOVIAL/J3B requires a runtime stack for any procedures declared to be reentrant. Other than this, the language requires little in the way of runtime environment.

F. Syntax

The BNF grammar for JOVIAL/J3B has approximately 500 productions (the SofTech grammar for the language includes type restrictions and is considerably more precise than typical BNF grammars).

2.9.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

JOVIAL/J3B has a large number of implementation dependent features, including the method used to pass procedure and function parameters, the maximum length of bit strings (limited to one computer word), the functions INTR, BIT, and BYTE used for accessing bit and character strings, the OVERLAY statement, programmer specified table allocation (word position and bit position within a word), the restriction that all items in a table declared with the parallel (P) attribute occupy a single word, and the lack of a collating sequence for the character set.

B. Efficiency

The language should be as efficient as Fortran for programs using non-reentrant procedures. All data areas can be allocated statically.

C. Level of the Language

JOVIAL/J3B is a high level language.

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

JOVIAL/J3B is a large language with complicated data structures (the TABLE in particular). The compiler will also be large.

E. Special System Features

The language has bit and character data types, the INTR, BIT, and BYTE functions for accessing bits and characters, reentrant procedures and functions, the OVERLAY statement for equivalencing data storage, and the TABLE data structure. All of these features would be helpful for system programming.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

The JOVIAL/J3B language is strongly typed, so many program errors can be detected during compilation.

As discussed in section B. Control Structures, no code is generated for the bypassed section of an IF statement when the value of the <bit-expr> is known at compile time. This feature

permits debugging code to be maintained in a JOVIAL/J3B program without any expense in execution time or space. For example:

```
DEFINE DEBUG = X'1';
```

```
⋮
```

```
IF DEBUG ; BEGIN <debug-statements> END;
```

The language manual does not indicate that any other debugging features are available.

6. Design Support

(a) modularity

Modularity in JOVIAL/J3B is good. The language has procedures, functions, and the basic control structures for structured programming. The language permits independent compilation of procedures, functions, and COMPOOL files. The COMPOOL and COPY files can be used to store commonly used declarations or source text, and the BLOCK statement permits sharing of external data .

(b) modifiability

JOVIAL/J3B has a number of features which would aid in program modification, including the CONSTANT declaration, the DEFINE statement for defining macros, the COPY statement for including source files, and the COMPOOL files. The language also has a structured control structure which will tend to make programs more readable.

(c) reliability

The pseudo-variables BIT and BYTE for accessing bit and character strings need to be used carefully, since they can be used to alter any portion of a data item. The OVERLAY statement and user-specified table allocation also require careful programming. In general, however, it should be considerably easier to write reliable programs in JOVIAL/J3B than in a language like Fortran. JOVIAL/J3B has structured control

structures, array and table data structures, a large set of basic data types, several features that can improve the readability of programs (macros and CONSTANT items), COMPOOL and COPY files to insure that separately compiled programs employ the same data declarations, and strong type checking.

H. Use

JOVIAL/J3B has been implemented on the IBM 370 series and a number of special purpose minicomputers including the SKC 2070, SKC 2000, IBM 4T , and the LITTON 4516D. The compiler was developed by SofTech using the AED language. JOVIAL/J3B has been used extensively in the B-1 Strategic Bomber program.

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2.10. LITTLE

2.10.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

LITTLE [SHI74] was developed at NYU in 1968 in an attempt to produce an efficient but machine independent systems implementation language. The only data type supported by the language is bit strings of arbitrary (but not varying) length, and no type checking is performed. LITTLE is essentially a Fortran language with some structured programming constructs.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

LITTLE is a typeless language that operates on bit strings of arbitrary length. The language allows five types of constants to appear in expressions: unsigned integers, octal numbers, binary numbers, mixed binary/octal numbers, and character strings (including the empty string). Note that floating point numbers are not provided. The following operators are provided:

bit string operators

.OR., .AND., .EXOR.

Bitwise OR, AND, and exclusive OR of two expressions.

The shorter operand is padded on left with zeros.

.NOT.

.FB.

Position of leftmost 1-bit in expression.

.NB.

Number of 1-bits in expression.

.C.

Bitwise concatenation of two operands.

.E. <start bit> <number of bits> <expr>

.F.

Pseudo variables for inserting or extracting bits.

The .E. operator must be used for operands extending

across word boundaries.

arithmetic operators

+ , - , * , /

Integer arithmetic operators.

relational operators

.EQ., .NE., .LT., .GT., .LE., .GE.

character operators

<string-1> .IN. <string-2>

Index of <string-1> in <string-2>.

.S. <start character> <number of characters> <string>

Pseudo variable for inserting or deleting character strings.

.CH. <character number> <string>

Pseudo variable for inserting or deleting single characters.

<string-1> .CC. <string-2>

String concatenation.

B. Control Structures

- IF (<expr>) <stmt> ;

(Simple if statement.)

- IF <expr> THEN <stmt-list> { ELSE <stmt-list> } END IF;

(Compound if.)

- WHILE <expr> ;
UNTIL

<stmt-list>

END WHILE ;
UNTIL

(Standard while and repeat loops.)

- DO <var> = <expr-1> TO <expr-2> BY <expr-3> ;

<stmt-list>

END DO ;

(Standard for loop.)

- GOTO <label> ;

GOBY (<expr>) (<label-1>, ..., <label-k>) ;

(Unconditional and computed goto.)

- SUBR <ident> { (<parameter-list>) } ;
 <stmt-list>
 END SUBR ;
- FNCT <ident> { (<parameter-list>) } ;
 <stmt-list>
 END FNCT ;
- (Fortran like subroutines and functions. Neither can
 be recursive. A function may not assign values to its
 input parameters.)
- CONT { <specifier> } ;
 (Continue next iteration of the innermost or
 specified DO, WHILE, or UNTIL loop.)
- QUIT { <specifier> } ;
 (Exit the innermost or specified loop.)
- RETURN ;
 (Return from a subroutine or function.)

C. Data Structures

The only data structure supported by LITTLE is the one-dimensional array. The statements

```
SIZE <ident> (<length in bits>) ;
DIMS <ident> (<number of elements>) ;
```

declares <ident> to be a one-dimensional array, each element of which is a bit string of length <length in bits>. Array elements are accessed using standard subscript notation:

```
<ident> (<subscript>) .
```

D. Other Features

LITTLE is a typeless, Fortran-like language with no block structure and comments in /* */ or \$ to end-of-line pairs. LITTLE has a DATA statement for initializing variables, and a NAMESET feature similar to Fortran COMMON. The language also has a simple and a parameterized macro facility allowing recursive macro expansion.

E. Runtime Environment

Because LITTLE forbids recursive subroutines or functions, the language does not require a runtime stack. There is also no need for any form of dynamic storage allocator.

F. Syntax

The BNF grammar for LITTLE has approximately 80 productions.

2.10.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

LITTLE has no machine dependent features and could be implemented on most machines. However, because of the arbitrary length of operands, there are few machines that could implement LITTLE efficiently for operands longer than the word size.

B. Efficiency

LITTLE should be efficient for programs using variables that match the word size of the host machine. Inline code can be generated for most operators, there is no need for a runtime stack, and there is no block entry or dynamic storage allocation. For expressions involving operands longer than a single word, however, LITTLE may execute considerably slower than hand-coded assembly language.

C. Level

LITTLE is a low-level language.

D. Size of Language and Compiler

LITTLE is a small language, and the compiler should also be small.

E. Special System Features

None.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

Because of the lack of data types, LITTLE can perform no compile or runtime type checking. Other runtime checks, such as subscript errors or expression out of range in a GOBY statement, will be performed if the debug option is specified.

The CDC 6600 implementation of LITTLE provides the following debugging facilities: (1) trace of assignments to selected variables; (2) calling history of subprograms; (3) statistics on number of statements executed by statement type; (4) subscript checks for arrays; and (5) verification that certain assertions (LITTLE expressions involving program variables) are true.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

LITTLE allows independent compilation of modules, and provides communication through NAMESET (Fortran COMMON) blocks.

(b) modifiability

LITTLE has a fairly powerful macro processor, the standard structured programming constructs, and a feature for conditional compilation of source text. These would be a great help in modifying LITTLE programs. However, the lack of any features for constructing new data types (other than one-dimensional arrays) means that all data structures would have to be implemented by the LITTLE programs themselves. Subsequent changes to the data structures could require large scale revisions of the program.

(c) reliability

Because LITTLE is a typeless language, the compiler performs no compile or runtime checks to insure that the bit pattern in an operand is meaningful. Type checking is therefore the user's responsibility. In addition, the lack of data structures requires LITTLE programs to simulate the data structures with LITTLE statements. LITTLE programs will then be longer, more complex, and harder to understand than a program written in a

language with more data structuring facilities.

H. Use

LITTLE has been implemented on the CDC 6600, the IBM 360 series, and the Honeywell 512. The compiler is written in LITTLE itself, and could easily be bootstrapped onto other machines.

2.11. PASCAL

2.11.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

PASCAL [JEN74, RIC76] is a general purpose, high level language designed by Niklaus Wirth as a successor to ALGOL 60. The language has a full set of control structures for structured programming, and many facilities for data structuring including arrays, records, sets, and typed pointers. PASCAL has been used for a number of systems-oriented problems including the compilers for PASCAL and CONCURRENT PASCAL, and the SOLO operating system (a single-user operating system for the PDP 11/45).

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

PASCAL has four basic data types: INTEGER, REAL, BOOLEAN, and CHAR (single character). Full type checking is performed at compile time, and no automatic conversions are performed between the basic types. The following types of constants are permitted in expressions: integer, real, boolean, character, and string (treated as an array of characters).

The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators and functions (INTEGER and REAL operands)

- + , - , * , / - Standard arithmetic operators for INTEGER or REAL operands. The division operator returns a REAL result.
- DIV , MOD - Division and modulus operators for INTEGER operands.
- ABS(<expr>) - Absolute value of REAL or INTEGER expression.
- SQR(<expr>) - Square of REAL or INTEGER <expr>.

The following functions are available for INTEGER operands:

- ODD(<expr>) - Function returning true if the expression

is odd.

SUCC(<expr>) - Functions yielding successor and
 PRED(<expr>) predecessor of the expression.

The following functions are available for REAL operands:

TRUNC(<expr>) - Functions yielding INTEGER result of
 ROUND(<expr>) truncating or rounding a REAL <expr>.
 SIN, COS, - Standard mathematical functions.
 ARCTAN, LN,
 EXP, SQRT

logical operators (BOOLEAN operands)

AND, OR, NOT - The BOOLEAN operators yield
 a BOOLEAN result.

relational operators (all basic types)

=, <>, <, >, <=, >=
 - The two operands must have the same
 type. The relational operators yield
 a BOOLEAN result.

character operators

SUCC, PRED - Successor and predecessor functions.
 CHR(<expr>) - Yields i-th character in the character
 set, where i is the value of <expr>.
 ORD(<char>) - Ordinal position of the character in the
 character set.

B. Control Structures

- BEGIN <stmt-list> END
 (Compound statement.)
- IF <boolean-expr> THEN <stmt> { ELSE <stmt> }
 (Standard conditional with optional ELSE clause.)
- WHILE <boolean-expr> DO <stmt>
 (While loop.)
- REPEAT <stmt-list> UNTIL <boolean-expr>

(Until loop. The body of the loop will be executed at least once.)

```
- FOR <var> := <expr-1> TO      <expr-2> DO <stmt>
                   DOWNTO
```

(For loops with implied increments of +1 and -1.)

```
- CASE <scalar-expr> OF
  <constant-list-1> : <stmt-1>
      :
      :
  <constant-list-k> : <stmt-k>
```

END

(Case statement. The <scalar-expr> can be INTEGER, CHAR, BOOLEAN, or any user-defined scalar or subrange type (scalar and subrange types will be described later in Section C). The constant lists must contain constants of the same type as the <scalar-expr>. The <scalar-expr> is evaluated, and the constant lists are scanned to find a constant equal to the expression. If a match is found then the corresponding statement is executed; if no match is found then none of the statements are executed.)

```
- WITH <variable-list> DO <stmt>
```

(Executes <stmt> using the record variables in the <variable-list.> Any expression in <stmt> may refer to subcomponents of the records without fully qualifying the subcomponent. For example, if X is a record with subcomponents A, B, and C, then

```
    WITH X DO BEGIN
      A := A + 1.0;
      B := A < 10.0;
      C := 'G'
    END
```

is equivalent to

```
    X.A := X.A + 1.0;
    X.B := X.A < 10.0;
```

```

        X.C := 'G';
    )

```

- GOTO <label>;

(Unconditional transfer to a statement in the current namespace. PASCAL requires that all labels be declared with the LABEL statement.)

- PROCEDURE <proc-name> { (<parameter-list>) }; <proc-body>

FUNCTION <func-name> { (<parameter-list>) } : <type>
 <func-body>

(Procedure and function definitions. Both may be recursive. The user can request that parameters be passed by value or by reference.)

- <func-name> { (<argument-list>) }

<proc-name> { (<argument-list>) }

(Invoke a function or procedure.)

C. Data Structures

PASCAL has seven constructs for creating more complex data structures from the basic data types:

(1) scalar type

The scalar type statement

```
TYPE <type-ident> = (<object-1>, ..., <object-k>) ;
```

defines an ordered set consisting of <object-1>, ..., <object-k>. For example:

```
TYPE MONTH = (JAN, FEB, MAR, APR, MAY, JUN, JUL, AUG,
              SEP, OCT, NOV, DEC) ;
```

The set is ordered, so the relational operators =, <>, <, >, <=, >=, the assignment operator :=, and the functions SUCC, PRED, and ORD can be applied to any scalar type. Note: the basic types INTEGER, CHAR, and BOOLEAN are predefined scalar types.

(2) subrange types

Subrange types are subranges of scalar types, and they

also form ordered sets of objects. The statement

```
TYPE <type-ident> = <object-1> .. <object-m> ;
```

defines a subrange type. There must be a scalar type containing both objects, and the first object must be less than the second. For example:

```
TYPE SPRING = MAR .. MAY;
TYPE DIGIT = '0' .. '9';
TYPE INDEX = 0 .. 100;
```

All the operators for scalar types can be applied to subrange types.

(3) arrays

The statement

```
TYPE <type-id> = ARRAY [<dimension-list>] OF <type> ;
```

defines an array type. Arrays can have an arbitrary number of dimensions, and the <type> can be any basic type or one of the types discussed in this section. The dimensions are specified by subrange types. For example:

```
TYPE MATRIX = ARRAY[1..3, 1..3] OF REAL;
VAR VECTOR : ARRAY[1..10] OF REAL;
VAR JOBSRUN : ARRAY[1968..1973, JAN..DEC] OF INTEGER;
```

The assignment operator := may be used to copy entire arrays, and array elements are referenced by listing the subscripts in brackets:

```
<ident> [<subscript-list>] .
```

(4) sets

The statement

```
TYPE <type-ident> = SET OF <base-type> ;
```

defines a type consisting of all possible subsets of the <base-type>, which must be a scalar or subrange type. For example:

```
TYPE DAY = (M,T,W,TH,F,SA,S);    {Define scalar type}
VAR DAYSOFF : SET OF DAY;        {Now use it for a set}
VAR DIGITS : SET OF 0..9;
```

The following operators are available for manipulating set types:

[<element-list>]	- Set constructor yielding set. The list may be empty.
+, -, *	- Set union, difference, and intersection.
=, <>	- Tests on equality or inequality.
<=, >=	- Tests on set inclusion.
IN	- Membership operator yielding true if element is in set.

(5) typed pointers

Pointer types are defined with a statement of the form

```
TYPE <type-ident> = ^ <type> ;
```

where <type> is any type. There is no "address" function in PASCAL - it is not possible to obtain the address of a variable. Instead, all pointers in PASCAL point into a dynamic storage area, and new pointers can only be created by requesting the allocation of some new data object in this storage area.

The following pointer operators and functions are available (Assume that pointer P is declared as VAR P : ^ X; .)

NEW(P)	- Allocates enough space for an object of type X, and sets P to the address of the space.
DISPOSE(P)	- Deallocates the object pointed to by P and sets P to NIL.
P ^	- Dereference operator yielding object pointed at by P. May appear on the left-hand side of an assignment statement.
=, <>	- Tests on pointer equality.
:=	- The assignment operator can be to copy pointers.

(6) file type

The statement

```
TYPE <type-ident> = FILE OF <type> ;
```

defines a sequential file of objects of type <type>. The declaration of a variable using this type (i.e., the declaration of a file) causes the implicit declaration of a variable X^{\wedge} , where X is the name of the file variable. This variable X^{\wedge} has type <type>, and acts as the buffer pointer for the file. The basic file functions are

```

RESET(X)      - Sets  $X^{\wedge}$  to the first record in the file X.
REWRITE(X)    - Prepares file X for rewriting.
GET(X)        - Gets the next record and assigns it to  $X^{\wedge}$ .
PUT(X)        - Writes out  $X^{\wedge}$  into the file.

```

(7) record structures

A record type is declared with a statement of the form

```

TYPE <type-ident> = RECORD
    <member-1> : <type-1>
        :
        :
    <member-k> : <type-k>
    { CASE <tag-field> : <type> OF
        <case-label-list-1> : (<variant-list-1>);
            :
            :
        <case-label-list-k> : (<variant-list-k>) }
    END ;

```

Records can contain an arbitrary number of members, and each member can be of any type. PASCAL records can also contain a "variant" part at the end of the record. This variant part permits records of the same type to contain a different number and different types of members. The value of the <tag-field> determines what is stored in the variant portion of the record. For example:

```

TYPE LINK = ^ PROCDESCRIPTOR;
    PRIORITY = 1..6;
    PROCDESCRIPTOR =
        RECORD      {Define a process descriptor.}
            FLINK,BLINK : LINK; {Forward/backward ptrs}

```

```

GPR : ARRAY [0..7]; {General registers}
PSW : INTEGER;      {Program status}
CASE PR : PRIORITY OF {Variant part}
  1,2,3 : (MAXTIME,
           MAXPAGES : INTEGER);
  4 : ( );
  5,6 : (BUFFER : ARRAY[0..128] OF INTEGER)
END

```

The dot operator "." is used to reference members of a record. For example:

```

VAR P : PROCDESCRIPTOR;
VAR I : INTEGER;
FOR I := 0 TO 7 DO P.GPR[I] := 0;
P.PR := 2;
P.MAXTIME := 5;
P.MAXPAGES := 1000;

```

The WITH statement discussed in Section B can be used to avoid qualifying each member of a record with the record name. The assignment operator := can be used to copy an entire record.

D. Other Features

PASCAL requires the declaration of all variables, functions, procedures, and labels. PASCAL has a declaration of the form

```
CONST <ident> = <expr>;
```

for declaring program constants. The identifier can be used in any expression, but the value of the identifier can not be altered. PASCAL does not provide dynamic arrays or even array dimensions as parameters, as in the following FORTRAN segment:

```

SUBROUTINE XYZ(ARRAY,N,M)
  INTEGER N,M,ARRAY(N,M)

```

Thus, it is not possible to write a PASCAL program that manipulates arrays of arbitrary sizes.

Finally, the language does not permit external functions or procedures: a PASCAL program consists of a main program and an arbitrary number of nested functions and procedures, and the

entire program must be compiled as a unit.

E. Runtime Environment

PASCAL requires a runtime stack (all functions and procedures are potentially recursive), I/O routines, and a dynamic storage allocator. Some implementations may provide a garbage collector for repacking the dynamic storage area.

F. Syntax

PASCAL has a BNF grammar with approximately 150 productions.

2.11.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

PASCAL is not machine dependent and has been implemented on a large number of machines.

B. Efficiency

PASCAL is moderately efficient. The language does require a runtime stack, and dynamic storage allocation is required in any program using pointers or files. However, the language features have been carefully selected to permit efficient implementation of the language. Sets can be represented by bits strings; the set union, intersection, and difference operators can then be implemented in just a few instructions. Scalar and subrange types are equivalently simple. The structured control structures also permit better code optimization.

C. Level

PASCAL is a high level language.

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

The PASCAL language is moderate in size. The compiler, which is written in PASCAL itself, is only 8500 statements.

E. Special System Features

PASCAL has typed pointers, dynamic storage allocation, records, and the set type (which can be viewed as bit strings).

F. Error Checking and Debugging

PASCAL performs full type checking at compile time. In addition, pointers are fully typed and all pointers point into the dynamic storage area. This prevents pointers from pointing to objects of the wrong type, pointers containing illegal machine addresses, attempts to deallocate storage that was never allocated, or attempts to access data in deallocated areas. The subrange types also allow the implementation to perform runtime checks on variables to insure that the values are within the subrange. Such a feature would be very helpful in a diagnostic compiler.

The PASCAL manual does not indicate that any special debugging tools are available.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

Modularity in PASCAL is fair. The language has a full set of structured control structures, and internal procedures and functions are provided. However, PASCAL does not permit external procedures or functions. This makes it costly to use existing programs (in a system library, for example), since the programs must be recompiled each time they are used.

(b) modifiability

As discussed previously, PASCAL has no provisions for external procedures or functions. This would be a serious weakness in large systems (10,000 lines), where the most trivial modification in one of the programs would require the recompilation of the entire system. However, PASCAL does have the CONST feature for declaring program constants, high level data structures and operators, the subrange type, and the control

structures for structured programming. All these features make programs easier to read and modify.

(c) reliability

PASCAL performs complete type checking at compile time (including procedure and function parameters, and pointer variables). PASCAL is also a high level and well structured language, so that programs should be smaller and more self-documenting than programs written in languages with fewer data or control structures. It should be considerably easier to write reliable programs in PASCAL than in a language like FORTRAN.

H. Use

PASCAL has been implemented on almost all commercial computer systems, including the PDP 10, PDP-11 series, B6700, UNIVAC 1100 series, IBM 360 and 370 series, and the CDC 3000 and 6000 series. The compiler is written in PASCAL itself, so the compiler could be transported to other machines using standard bootstrapping techniques.

2.12. PREST4

2.12.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

PREST4 [KAF75] is a preprocessor for Fortran that was developed by a group at Ohio State University during the period 1973-1975. The language provides a number of structured programming constructs, as well as some statements for controlling the output listings of PREST4 source programs. The structured programming constructs are not preceded by special characters (e.g. \$, %), a technique that has been used by other Fortran preprocessors. In the remainder of this section, the PREST4 language is considered to be Fortran IV augmented by the PREST4 preprocessor.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

PREST4 supports the five basic data types of Fortran IV: INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, COMPLEX, and LOGICAL. The language permits mixed-mode expressions and will automatically convert between integer, real, and double precision numbers. Constants used in expressions can have the following types: integer, real, double precision, complex, logical, octal, and character strings (character strings must be delineated by apostrophes, since PREST4 does not permit the H specification used by Fortran IV).

The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators (INTEGER, REAL, and DOUBLE

PRECISION operands)

+, -, *, /, **

logical operators (LOGICAL operands)

.NOT., .AND., .OR.

relational operators

.EQ., .NE.

All types.

.LT., .LE., .GT., .GE. INTEGER, REAL, or DOUBLE
PRECISION operands only.

B. Control Structures

- IF <expr> THEN <stmt> { ELSE <stmt> }
 (Standard conditional.)

- DO <stmt-list> END
 (Compound statement.)

- DO WHILE <expr>
 UNTIL
 <stmt-list>
END
 (While and repeat loops.)

- DO <var> = <expr-1> { STEP <expr-2> } WHILE <expr-3>
 UNTIL
 <stmt-list>
END
 (Standard for loop.)

Note: PREST4 does not permit use of the Fortran IV forms of the IF and DO statements; only the structured forms may be used.

- GOTO <stmt-number>
 GOTO <assign-variable>
 GOTO (<stmt-number-1>, ..., <stmt-number-k>), <var>
 (Unconditional, ASSIGNED, and computed goto statements.)

- READ (<unit-number>, <format-number>, END: <stmt>)
 <input-variable-list>
 (Standard Fortran READ statement with different syntax for the end-of-file condition. The END: <stmt> provides a means of intercepting an end-of-file condition without introducing a GOTO statement.)

- <type> FUNCTION <ident> (<parameter-list>)

```

    <stmt-list>
END

SUBROUTINE <ident> { (<parameter-list>) }
    <stmt-list>
END

```

(Standard Fortran function and subroutines. Neither can be recursive. Both functions and subroutines can have multiple entry points.)

C. Data Structures

PREST4 has only one feature for building more complex data types: arrays of up to 7 dimensions. The declaration

```
DIMENSION <ident> (<dimension-list>)
```

declares <ident> to be an array. Elements of an array are accessed using standard subscript notation <ident> (<subscript-list>).

D. Other Features

PREST4 is essentially a Fortran language with some additional constructs for structured programming. The language has no block structure or recursion. PREST4 provides statement functions, EQUIVALENCE, COMMON, and DATA statements, and the Fortran I/O statements. Comments are denoted by an asterisk in the first column of the input card. PREST4 also provides a number of control statements for affecting the output listings of a PREST4 program:

```

%LIST           - Begin listing source program.
%XLIST          - Stop listing source program.
%PAGE           - Page eject.
%SKIP <count>   - Skip specified number of lines.
%DOC            - Places comments in boxes of asterisks.
%DOCEND

```

A control statement %COPY <file-name> is also provided for inserting program text into a PREST4 program from a file. This feature would be very useful for inserting variable declarations

or COMMON blocks into a program.

E. Runtime Environment

PREST4 has no dynamic storage allocation or recursion, so no stack or heap is needed. Except for I/O and type conversion routines, PREST4 should run on a bare machine.

F. Syntax

Fortran IV (and therefore PREST4) has a BNF grammar, but a compiler would probably not use it. Fortran compilers tend to use ad hoc compiling techniques.

2.12.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

ANSI standard Fortran IV (and therefore PREST4) is fairly machine independent. Fortran programs can usually be transported to different machines with only minor modifications (e.g. different I/O unit numbers).

B. Efficiency

Fortran IV formatted I/O must be performed interpretively and is therefore quite slow. In all other respects Fortran IV and PREST4 are efficient programming languages. We note, however, that the additional structuring of PREST4 programs that would be very helpful to a code optimizer is not available to the Fortran compiler; all the structured statements are converted to IF and GOTO statements before reaching the compiler.

C. Level

PREST4 is a medium level language.

D. Size of Language and Compiler

Because of the EQUIVALENCE statement, the unstructured nature of Fortran programs (optimization is difficult), and the

preprocessor pass, PREST4 will require a fairly large compiler.

E. Special System Features

Although PREST4 is described as "A Highly Structured FORTRAN Language for Systems Programming", the language has no special system features.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

Fortran compilers have traditionally had very poor compile and runtime diagnostics, so PREST4 diagnostics will probably be poor. The preprocessor phase of PREST4 does print error messages when illegal PREST4 statements are detected.

PREST4 has two control statements for debugging programs. The statement %IDENT <message> will cause <message> to be printed each time the IDENT statement is encountered during execution of the program. A full statement trace can be initiated with the %TRACE statement.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

PREST4 supports independent compilation of subroutines and functions, and communication through COMMON blocks.

(b) modifiability

PREST4 has a limited number of structured programming constructs, and an include feature (%COPY) to insert source statements into a PREST4 program from a file. However, the language has no macro processor, no feature like the PASCAL constant statement for declaring program constants, and no significant features for constructing complex data structures. PREST4 programs would be easier to modify than ordinary Fortran IV programs, but more difficult than programs written in languages like PASCAL or HAL/S.

(c) reliability

The structured programming constructs make PREST4 a great improvement over Fortran IV. However, PREST4 has no character or string operators and data types, and does not have sufficient data structuring capabilities. The lack of these features requires PREST4 programs to simulate any character processing, list processing, or record processing with Fortran code. PREST4 programs will therefore tend to be longer than necessary and more difficult to understand.

H. Use

PREST4 is implemented on the PDP-10, but the preprocessor could be implemented on almost any machine.

2.13. SIMPL-T

2.13.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

SIMPL-T [BAS74,BAS76a] is a small, procedure oriented, non-block structured language developed by Victor Basili and Joe Turner at the University of Maryland. The language provides features for arithmetic, character, and string processing, and includes a number of structured programming constructs. SIMPL-T is the basis language for a family of languages that includes SIMPL-S and SIMPL-XI (systems programming languages for the Univac 1100 and the DEC PDP-11 series), GRAAL (a graph algorithm language), and SIMPL-R (a language for scientific programming).

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

SIMPL-T has three basic data types: INT (integer), CHAR (single character), and STRING (variable length character strings). Complete type checking is performed at compile-time, and in general no automatic type conversions are performed. SIMPL-T allows six types of constants: integer, character, string, binary, octal, and hexadecimal.

SIMPL-T provides the following operators and functions for manipulating the basic data types:

arithmetic operators (INT operands only)

+, -, *, /, unary -

relational operators (INT, CHAR, or STRING operands)

=, <>, <, >, <=, >=

The operand types must be the same. The relational operators yield an integer result (0 - false, 1 - true).

string operators & functions

<string> .CON. <string>

Concatenation of strings.

<string> [<start-position>, <number-of-chars>]

Substring operator. May appear

ASCII code for the character.

CHARVAL (<ASCII-code>)

Character corresponding to the ASCII code.

INTF (<char>)

Converts a character (which must be a digit)
to an integer.

CHARF (<integer>)
<string>

Converts an integer or a string to character.

PACK (<char-array-variable>,<string-expr>)

UNPACK (<string-expr>,<char-array-variable>)

Conversion between strings and character arrays.

B. Control Structures

- IF <expr> THEN <stmt-list> { ELSE <stmt-list> } END
(Standard conditional with the required terminator
END.)

- { !<label>! } WHILE <expr> DO <stmt-list> END
(While loop with optional label. The label may only be
referenced by EXIT statements; SIMPL-T has no GOTO
statement.)

- CASE <expr> OF
 <case-expr-list> <stmt-list>
 :
 :
 <case-expr-list> <stmt-list>
 { ELSE <stmt-list> }

END

(Case statement. The <expr> is compared sequentially
with the values in each <case-expr-list> ; the
<stmt-list> whose <case-expr-list> contains the <expr>
is executed. The <expr> and <case-expr-list>'s must
all be of the same type, but can be INT or CHAR. The
<stmt-list> of the optional ELSE clause is executed
only if no <case-expr-list> contains the <expr>.)

- PROC <ident> { (<parameter-list>) }
 <proc-body>
- <type> FUNC <ident> { (<parameter-list>) }
 <function-body>
 (Procedure and function definition. Both can be recursive, and both can receive their arguments by value or by reference. All scalar parameters are passed by value unless the REF option is specified.)
- EXIT { (<label>) }
 (Exit innermost or label while loop.)
- CALL <ident> { (<argument-list> }
 (Call a procedure.)
- <ident> { (<argument-list>) }
 (Invoke a function.)
- RETURN
 (Return from a procedure.)
- RETURN (<expr>)
 (Return from a function with a result.)
- ABORT
 (Terminate execution abnormally.)

Note: SIMPL-T provides no GOTO statement.

C. Data Structures

The only data structure supported by SIMPL-T is the one-dimensional array. The declaration

```
<type> ARRAY <ident> (<number-of-elements>)
```

declares <ident> to be a one-dimensional array of the specified type. The type can be any of the three basic types (INT, CHAR, or STRING). Array elements are referenced using standard subscript notation:

```
<ident> (<subscript-list>) .
```

D. Other Features

SIMPL-T has a parameterized macro facility of the form

```
DEFINE <ident> = <define-string>
```

where the <define-string> is any character string. Parameters in the string are denoted by &n, where n is any integer between 1 and 9. For example:

```
DEFINE NUL = 'CHARVAL(0)',      /* control characters */
      LF = 'CHARVAL(10)',
      MOD = '&1-(&1/&2)*&2' /* mod function */
```

The language also has simple I/O facilities.

E. Runtime Environment

SIMPL-T requires a runtime stack for recursive procedures and functions, and for evaluation of string expressions. However, no dynamic storage allocator is required for arrays or strings.

F. Syntax

The working BNF grammar for SIMPL-T has approximately 150 productions.

2.13.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

SIMPL-T has few machine dependent features and could be implemented on almost any machine.

B. Efficiency

SIMPL-T has no dynamic arrays, and no automatic type conversion. All type checking is performed at compile time, and the default passing mechanism for procedure or function calls is by value. This allows a great deal of work to be done at compile time rather than at execution time. The Univac 1100 series implementation of SIMPL-T generates code that is as efficient as

Univac Fortran V.

C. Level of the Language

SIMPL-T is a medium level language.

D. Size of Language and Compiler

The compiler for SIMPL-T is moderate in size.

E. Special System Features

SIMPL-T has no special system features, although the two system programming languages in the SIMPL family (SIMPL-S and SIMPL-XI) provide a number of system features. SIMPL-XI [HAM76], for example, provides indirect and absolute addressing, access to machine registers, and interrupt procedures (procedures activated when a specific interrupt occurs). A one-dimensional array MEM is used to provide the absolute addressing feature: MEM(I) accesses the I-th word in main memory. A similar array MEMB is provided for accessing bytes.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

SIMPL-T performs complete type-checking at compile time, and no implicit conversion between data types is permitted. SIMPL-T can therefore detect many errors at compile time that can not be detected by other languages (such as Fortran, LITTLE, or BLISS).

A number of compiler directives are also available for debugging SIMPL-T programs, including:

- (1) subscript checking
- (2) case statement checking
- (3) calling history
- (4) static and runtime statistics
(Such as number of statements executed, timing estimates for procedures, and so forth.)
- (5) value tracing for program variables
- (6) compilable comments
(The form of a compilable comment is

```
/* <indicators> <SIMPL-text> */
```

where an <indicator> is an integer that can be turned on or off with other compiler directives. For example;

```
/* 4 WRITE ("DEBUG:    ON ITERATION",I,"X =",X) */
```

(7) cross reference and attribute listings.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

SIMPL-T allows independent compilation of program modules, and communication through external variables and entry points.

(b) modifiability

SIMPL-T has a fairly complete set of structured programming constructs and a powerful macroprocessor. SIMPL-T programs should be fairly easy to modify.

(c) reliability

The lack of constructs for building more complex data structures may make SIMPL-T programs longer than necessary and difficult to read. SIMPL-T has no record structure, and arrays can only have one dimension. A large portion of a SIMPL-T program that operates on complex data structures will therefore be taken up by segments of SIMPL statements providing access methods for the data structures. Languages with more complex data types would provide these access methods automatically. In HAL/S, for example, if A and B are compatible record structures then the statement `A = B;` will copy all of record B into record A. In SIMPL-T a transfer of this type would have to be simulated by a number of assignment statements.

H. Use

SIMPL-T has been implemented on the Univac 1100 series, the PDP 11/45, the Data General NOVA, and the CDC 6600. A version for the IBM 360 series is under development. The compiler is written in SIMPL-T itself, so the compiler can be transported to

other machines using standard bootstrapping techniques. In fact, the same front end (scanner and parser) is used on all implementations of SIMPL-T. This provides standard error diagnostics for incorrect programs.

2.14. SPL / Mark IV

2.14.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

SPL [SDC70] is a large, high level language developed by System Development Corporation in the period 1967-1970. The language was designed for aerospace applications and combines many of the features in the PL/I and JOVIAL languages. SPL offers high level features like data tables and matrix arithmetic, as well as low level, machine-oriented features like inline assembly language and access to machine registers. SPL has five application oriented subsets; the subset chosen for this report (SPL / Mark IV) was designed for ground-based support computers. In the remainder of this section SPL / Mark IV will be referred to as SPL.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

SPL has nine basic data types: INTEGER, FIXED, FLOATING, BOOLEAN, LOGICAL (bit string), TEXT (character string), STATUS (ordered sets of "states"), LOCATION (typed pointers), and CONTEXTUAL (a "universal" type). The STATUS type is equivalent to the PASCAL scalar type. CONTEXTUAL items can be assigned a value of any type. When a CONTEXTUAL item X is assigned a value of type T, the type of the item X is assumed to be T until X is assigned a new value of different type on some subsequent line in the program. CONTEXTUAL items are intended to be used for temporary storage of various types of items.

The following types of constants can appear in an SPL expression: integer, fixed point, floating point, boolean, binary, octal, hexadecimal, and character string, location, and status. Mixed mode expressions are permitted and automatic conversion is provided between all of the basic data types.

The operators and the data types on which they operate are listed below:

arithmetic operators

+, -, *, /, **

REM - Remainder function.

ABS - Absolute value.

LSH - Left arithmetic shift.

RSH - Right arithmetic shift.

SCL - Scales an arithmetic expression.

SCLR - Scales and rounds an arithmetic expression.

logical operators

LAND, LOR, LXOR, LSH, RSH

- Bitwise and, or, exclusive or, and left and right logical shift.

BIT - Pseudo-variable for accessing bit strings in any type of item. Can appear on left-hand side of an assignment statement.

boolean operators

NOT, AND, OR, EQUIV

- All the boolean operators yield a boolean result.

relational operators

EQ, NQ, GR, LS, GQ, LQ

- The relational operators yield a boolean result.

character operators

BYTE - Pseudo-variable for accessing bytes in a textual item. Can appear on left-hand side of an assignment statement.

location operators

LOC - Yields location of an item.

IND - Pseudo-variable for performing indirect addressing. Can appear on left-hand side of an assignment statement.

B. Control Structures

- IF <boolean-expr> <stmt-list>
(Simple conditional statement.)

```

~ IF <boolean-expr> THEN <stmt-list>
  { ORIF <boolean-expr> <stmt-list> }
    :           :           :
    :           :           :
  { ORIF <boolean-expr> <stmt-list> }
  { ELSE <stmt-list> }
END

```

(Conditional statement. If the initial boolean expression is false then the boolean expressions in the ORIF clauses are evaluated in order until a true one is found. If all the boolean expressions are false then the ELSE statement is executed.)

```

~ CONDITIONS
  <boolean-expr> <indicator-list>
    :           :
    :           :
  <boolean-expr> <indicator-list>
ACTIONS
  <stmt> <indicator-list>
    :           :
    :           :
  <stmt> <indicator-list>
ELSE <stmt>
END

```

(Decision table for creating a tabular solution to a complex decision problem. The table describes the conditions applicable to the problem and the actions to be taken in response to the conditions. The indicator lists in the CONDITIONS and ACTIONS sections are composed of indicators Y (yes), N (no), and blank (doesn't apply). The indicator N can only be used in the CONDITIONS section.)

```

~ FOR <var> { = <init-value> } { BY <incr-expr> }
  { WHILE <boolean-expr> } { UNTIL <boolean-expr> }
    <numeric-expr>
  <stmt-list> END

```

(For loop. If the <init-value> clause is not specified then the current value of the loop variable is used, and if the BY clause is not specified the loop variable is not automatically incremented on each iteration of the loop. The value of the loop variable and the <incr-expr> can be altered by the loop body. The clause UNTIL <numeric-expr> is equivalent to UNTIL <var> EQ <numeric-expr>.

An abbreviated form of the FOR loop is provided for processing tables (discussed in section D. Data Structures). The statement

```
FOR <var> = <table-name> <stmt-list> END
```

is equivalent to

```
FOR <var> = <length-of-table> - 1 BY -1
  WHILE <var> GQ 0 <stmt-list> END .)
```

```
- FOR <var> = <for-clause>
  ALSO <var> = <for-clause>
  :       :       :
  :       :       :
  ALSO <var> = <for-clause>
  <stmt-list>
  END
```

(Parallel FOR loop. All of the loop variables are incremented on each iteration of the loop. The <for-clause> contains the <init-value>, BY, WHILE, and UNTIL clauses of the ordinary FOR statement.)

```
- LOOP WHILE <boolean-expr> <stmt-list> END
  UNTIL
```

(While and until loop with the test performed before execution of the loop body.)

```
- ON <boolean-expr> <stmt-list> END
  <interrupt-name>
```

(Feature for handling abnormal conditions. The <boolean-expr> is automatically evaluated whenever the first operand in the expression (which must be a

variable) is assigned a new value. The variable can be assigned a new value by an SPL statement or by some hardware event. If the <boolean-expr> evaluates to true or if the specified interrupt occurs then the <stmt-list> is executed. The SPL ON statement is similar to PL/I ON-conditions, although SPL provides no way of selectively enabling or disabling ON variables, or for changing the <stmt-list> to be executed for a given condition or interrupt.)

- UNLOCK <interrupt-name>
LOCK

(Enables or disables the specified interrupt. The LOCK and UNLOCK statements can also be used for reserving hardware registers.)

- GOTO <label>
<location-variable>

(Unconditional transfer. The location variable is assumed to contain the address of some SPL statement label.)

- GOTO <switch-name> (<integer-expr>)

(Computed goto. The <switch-name> must have been declared with a statement of the form

SWITCH <switch-name> = <label-list>

On execution of the GOTO statement the value *i* of the <integer-expr> is used to select the *i*-th label, and a branch is made to the selected label.)

- RETURN { (<result-expr>) }

(Return from a procedure or function with an optional result.)

- STOP { (<label>) }

(Halts execution. A "continue operation" after the execution of a STOP statement will result in a transfer of control to the statement following the STOP statement, or to the specified label.)

- TEST ((<FOR-loop-variable>))
 (Continues the next iteration of the innermost WHILE, UNTIL, or FOR loop, or the innermost FOR Loop having the specified loop variable.)

- WAIT
 (Repeats execution of an IF, WHILE, or UNTIL statement until the conditional expression is satisfied. The statement is intended to be used to halt the execution of a program until some external event has occurred. For example,

```
IF STATUSREG EQ X'2C' THEN WAIT .)
```

- PROC .<proc-name> { (<input-parameter-list>
 = <output-parameter-list>) }
 { <type> } { INLINE
 REENTRANT }
 RECURSIVE
 <data-declarations>
 ENDDATA
 <stmt-list>
 EXIT ((<result-expr>))

 (Procedure or function definition. Procedures, functions, and statement labels can be passed as procedure parameters. Alternate exits from a procedure are possible by branching to a statement label parameter. Both procedures and functions can have multiple entry points. The EXIT clause at the end of a function definition indicates the expression to be returned by the function, although the EXIT expression can be overridden by a RETURN statement.)

- .<proc-name> { (<input-arguments> = <output-arguments>) }
 (Invoke a procedure or function.)

- CLOSE <close-name> <stmt-list> END
 (Parameterless, internal subroutine that can be

defined within another procedure.)

- GOTO <close-name>

(Call a CLOSE subroutine. Control will resume at the next statement when the CLOSE routine has finished execution.)

C. Data Structures

SPL has three features for constructing more complex data structures from the basic data types:

(a) arrays

Arrays are declared with a statement of the form

```
ARRAY <ident> (<dimension-list>) <type> { MEDIUM }
                                         DENSE }
```

The <type> can be any of the basic data types, and the options MEDIUM and DENSE affect the packing density of the array. Arrays can have an arbitrary number of dimensions. The <dimension-list> can optionally contain implicit subscripts for each of the dimensions. These implicit subscripts are used as the default subscripts whenever an array variable is used without explicit subscripts. For example:

```
ARRAY M(I 10, J 10) INTEGER " Matrix with implicit "
FOR I = 0 BY 1 UNTIL 10    " subscripts.           "
ALSO J = 0 BY 1
  M = I                    " Equivalent to         "
END                        " M(I,J) = I . . .     "
```

Array indexing begins at 0, and array elements are referenced using the standard subscript operator <ident> (<subscript-list>). The following operators are available for manipulating arrays, matrices (2 dimensional arrays or 2 dimensional subsets of arrays), and vectors (rows or columns of matrices):

```
=      - Assignment.
==     - Exchange.
```

+, - - Vector and matrix addition.
 * - Vector and matrix dot product.
 **~1 - Matrix inverse.
 TPOSE - Matrix transpose function.
 /* - Cross product for 3-D vectors.

(b) tables

SPL has a table data structures almost identical to the JOVIAL/J3B table. Tables are declared with a statement of the form

```

TABLE <ident> { (<implicit-subscript>) } <table-length>
      { SERIAL } { MEDIUM
                  DENSE   } <item-declarations>
                  TIGHT
  
```

The implicit subscript is used whenever the table identifier is used a subscript. The default method for allocating tables is by "columns", that is, there is a contiguous block of core for the first item in all table entries, another block for all the second items, and so forth. If the SERIAL option is specified, however, the table will be allocated by table entry. For each table entry there will be a block of core long enough to contain all the items in the entry. The options MEDIUM, DENSE, and TIGHT affect the packing density of the table. The items in the <item-declarations> list can be any of the basic data types, but item names must be distinct between tables.

An alternate version of the table declaration gives the programmer complete control over placement of items within a table entry. The number of words per table entry and the placement of each item (word position and starting bit within the word) is directly specified. The storage for items can overlap.

Tables can be accessed in any of the following four ways:

```

<table-name>                    - Accesses entire table.
<table-name> (<subscript>)     - Accesses all of the specified
                               entry in the table.
  
```

- <item-name> - Accesses an entire column of the table.
- <item-name> (<subscript>) - Accesses a single item in the specified table entry.

The assignment operator =, the exchange operator =x, and the relational operators EQ, NQ can be used to copy, exchange, or compare tables or table entries. The assignment operator can also be used to copy columns of a table. Finally, the functions NENT and NWDSN are provided for determining the number of entries in a table and the number of words in a table entry.

(c) record structures

Record structures are declared with the statement

```
<ident>, DECLARE <member-declarations>
```

The members in a record can be arrays, tables, or any of the basic data types. The identifiers used for members need not be distinct from identifiers declared elsewhere. The ^ operator is used to access members in a record:

```
<record-name> ^ <member-name>
```

D. Other Features

SPL has an OVERLAY statement that is equivalent to the Fortran EQUIVALENCE statement, and extensive facilities for sequential I/O (including programmer specified blocking factors, record format, error exits, data conversion, and statements for opening and closing files).

Simple replacement macros can be defined using the DEFINE statement

```
DEFINE <ident> AS <character-string>
```

All occurrences of the identifier are replaced by the character string. SPL also has a CONSTANT declaration for declaring program constants, and an implementation dependent COMPOOL feature that is similar to the JOVIAL COMPOOL file.

The language provides default declarations for undeclared variables, and the programmer can change the default to any of

the basic data types at any point in an SPL program. Finally, the SDC implementation of SPL / Mark IV has compiler directives permitting the user to write portions of an SPL program in the JOVIAL language.

E. Runtime Environment

SPL requires a runtime stack for programs using recursive or reentrant procedures and functions, and sequential I/O routines.

F. Syntax

The BNF grammar for SPL has approximately 400 productions.

2.14.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

SPL has a large number of machine dependent features, including the function BIT for accessing bit strings, the OVERLAY statement, user specified table allocation (word position and bit position within a word), the hardware statement, and inline assembly language.

B. Efficiency

SPL permits efficient programming. The language provides high level operators (including matrix arithmetic and direct assignment of arrays and tables), a structured control structure that permits better optimization, many features for minimizing storage requirements (the OVERLAY statement, user defined tables, packing densities), the INDEX statement for frequently accessed variables, and the ability to generate inline assembly code. No runtime stack is required for non-reentrant procedures.

C. Level of the Language

SPL is a high level language, although it also provides a large number of low level features.

D. Size of the Language and Compiler

SPL is a large language and will require a large compiler.

E. Special System Features

SPL has many features that would be helpful in systems programming, including

- (a) Pointers, tables, and record structures.
- (b) Recursive, reentrant, or inline procedures. Procedures can have multiple entry points and alternate exits. A program can abort to a procedure many "levels" back up the calling chain by branching to a statement label passed as an input parameter.
- (d) The OVERLAY statement, and user defined table allocation permitting the overlaying of data items and access to a block of core under varying data formats.
- (e) The ON statement for intercepting interrupts and abnormal conditions.
- (f) The HARDWARE statement for defining machine registers and other hardware, and the DIRECT statement for inline assembly language.
- (g) The LOCK and UNLOCK statements for reserving hardware registers, enabling and disabling interrupts, and establishing read/write protection for areas of memory (for machines having a memory protection facility).
- (h) The INDEX statement for requesting that frequently accessed variables be allocated in the fastest storage locations available.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

In general, SPL requires careful programming. Automatic conversion is performed between the basic types, and default declarations are provided. This will tend to hide a number of programming errors such as misspellings. Location variables can be used to alter instructions or to branch into a data area. Finally, the language has many system features that permit the user to directly access hardware facilities.

SPL has two compiler directives that would be helpful in

debugging and improving SPL programs. The TRACE directive is used to trace the value of selected program variables and the flow history of statement labels for selected areas in a program. The TIME directive enables the programmer to determine the execution time of any block of SPL statements.

6. Design Support

(a) modularity

SPL is quite modular. The language has internal and external procedures and functions, the CLOSE routine for nested procedures, a structured control structure, and the COMPOOL file. Independent compilation of procedures and functions is permitted.

(b) modifiability

The language has a variety of basic data types, high level operators, the CONSTANT attribute for declaring program constants, the DEFINE statement for declaring simple macros, and a structured control structure. All of these features would make SPL programs easier to read and modify.

However, SPL also has many machine dependent features that permit bit packing, overlaying of data areas, and inline assembly language. Use of these features in a program would make modification or transportation to other machines difficult. The language also permits programs to be written that are not "self documenting". Implicit subscripts are provided for arrays and tables, automatic type conversions are performed, and default declarations are provided for undeclared variables. The statement GOTO A in an SPL program can be an unconditional branch to the statement labeled A or a call of a parameterless procedure.

(c) reliability

SPL provides many low level features that permit efficient, machine dependent programming at the expense of reliability. All of the system features require careful programming. Automatic

type conversions and default declarations will also tend to hide program errors.

H. Use

SPL has been implemented on the IBM 360 and 370 series and on the CDC 6000 series. The compiler was developed by SDC using the translator writing system CWS.

2.15. STRCMACS

2.15.1. LANGUAGE FEATURES

STRCMACS [BAR74] is a set of macros providing structured programming constructs for IBM OS/360 assembly language. The macros, which were developed by C. Wrandle Barth at Goddard Space Flight Center, are placed in the OS/360 macro library and invoked automatically during the assembly of an STRCMACS program. No preprocessor step is required. In the remainder of the section, STRCMACS will be considered to be the structured programming macros plus all the facilities of OS/360 assembly language.

A. Basic Data Types and Operators

STRCMACS is a macro assembly language operating on 32-bit words, and no type checking is performed. The operators are the OS/360 assembly language instructions. The instruction set provides instructions for manipulating bits, characters, integers, and floating point, double precision, extended precision, and decimal numbers.

B. Control Structures

```

- BLOCK
  <instruction-1>
  .
  <instruction-k>
BLEND
  (Compound statement or code block.)

```

```

- IF <test expression>
  <instruction list>
{ ELSE
  <instruction list> }
FI

```

(Standard conditional statement. The <test expression> is composed of machine instructions for setting the

condition code and mnemonics (from the extended branch-on-condition mnemonics) specifying under what conditions the "then" part of the if statement is to be executed. Tests in the test expression may be combined using the connectives AND and OR. For example:

```
IF (LTR,3,3,P)           - if register 3 > 0
IF (TM,8(1),X'80',0),OR,(CLC,SIZE,='MAX',EQ)
                        - if high order bit of
                          word at 8(1) is set,
                          or if SIZE = 'MAX'
```

- DO FOREVER
 - <instruction-list>
 - OD
 - (Unbounded repetition.)
- DO WHILE, <test expression>
 - UNTIL
 - <instruction list>
 - OD
 - (Standard while and repeat loops. The <test expression> is identical to the one described for the IF construct.)
- DOCASE <case var>
 - CASE <instruction list> ESAC
 -
 -
 -
 - CASE <instruction list> ESAC
 - ESACOD
- DOCASE <case var>
 - CASE <case value list> <instruction list> ESAC
 -
 -
 -
 - CASE <case value list> <instruction list> ESAC
 - ESACOD
- DOCASE
 - CASE <test expression> <instruction list> ESAC

```

:
:
CASE <test expression> <instruction list> ESAC

```

ESACOD

(Case and Select constructs. In the first two forms the <case var> is used to select one of the CASE blocks for execution. The <case var> can be a register or a memory location, and can be a byte, halfword, or fullword in length. In the first form of the DOCASE the <case var> is used directly to select a CASE block (if <case var> = i then the i-th CASE block is executed). In the second form, the <case var> is compared sequentially with the <case value list>s; the CASE block whose <case value list> contains the <case var> is executed. In the third form of the DOCASE there is no <case var>; the <test expressions> are executed sequentially until one of the tests succeeds. The CASE block containing the succeeding test is then executed.

In any of the three forms of the DOCASE construct one of the CASE blocks can have the MISC operand (for miscellaneous). A CASE block with this attribute is executed if no other CASE blocks in the DOCASE are executed.

example:

case block	block will be executed if
CASE 2	<case var> = 2
CASE 3,(5,12)	<case var> = 3,5,6,...,12
CASE '=',<>	<case var> = '=' or '<>'
CASE ('I1','I5')	<case var> = 'I1',..., 'I5'
CASE (LTR,8,8,Z)	register 8 = 0)

```

- <label> PROC { <options> }
  <instruction list>
  CORP <label>

```

(Procedure construct. The procedure can be called using the OS/360 CALL macro. The <options> operand

allows the user to specify standard or non-standard linkage, dynamic saveareas, a procedure identifier string, base registers, and so forth.)

- EXIT <Label>
(Exit the specified block.)

- ONEXIT
 <instruction list>
{ ATEND
 <instruction list> }
OD

(STRCMACS distinguishes between normal exit of a DO loop by failure of the loop test and abnormal exit by the execution of an EXIT macro. The ONEXIT ... ATEND construct can be appended to any of the DO loop constructs. If the loop is terminated abnormally then the ONEXIT <instruction list> is executed and the ATEND <instruction list> is skipped. If the loop terminates normally only the ATEND <instruction list> is executed.)

C. Data Structures

STRCMACS has no high level data structures.

D. Other Features

An STRCMACS program can use all of the OS/360 assembly language instructions.

E. Runtime Environment

As an assembly language STRCMACS will run on a bare machine.

F. Syntax

The STRCMACS macros are translated into assembly language by the OS/360 assembler. There is no compiler for STRCMACS.

2.15.2. CHARACTERISTICS

A. Machine Dependence

The STRCMACS macros are designed for the IBM 360 series. However, similar macros could be designed for any machine.

B. Efficiency

STRCMACS is as efficient as assembly language.

C. Level

STRCMACS is a very low level language.

D. Size of Language and Compiler

STRCMACS is implemented by a small number of macros, and is therefore quite small.

E. Special System Features

STRCMACS has no special constructs or data structures for systems programming. However, the user has access to the full set of OS/360 assembly language instructions.

F. Error Checking and Debugging

The STRCMACS macros will produce diagnostic messages at assembly time if an error is detected. However, no runtime error checking is performed. A few features are provided for debugging STRCMACS programs. Any PROC can specify the following debug options: (1) LISTBLOCKS - lists the static nesting, name, and block number of all blocks in the PROC; (2) PROCNAMES - generates an in-line character string for the procedure name to aid in locating procedures in an ABEND dump; (3) PROCCOUNTS, BLOCKCOUNTS - counts the number of times that each block in the PROC is executed; (4) PROCTRACE - maintains the calling history of the last 257 blocks.

G. Design Support

(a) modularity

STRCMACS supports independent assembly of programs, and

provides communication through external variables or COMMON blocks. The language is also considerably more structured than ordinary assembly language.

(b) modifiability

STRCMACS is essentially an assembly language. Although the structured programming constructs are a vast improvement over ordinary assembly language, STRCMACS programs will still be difficult to modify.

(c) reliability

Although the structured constructs are an improvement, STRCMACS will still have the same reliability problems as assembly language. No type checking of any sort is performed, all the operators (machine instructions) are low level, and there are no data structuring facilities.

H. Use

STRCMACS is implemented on the IBM 360 series. Since the structured programming constructs are not machine dependent, and since the number of macros is small, STRCMACS could be implemented on other machines without any significant effort.

3. POCCNET REQUIREMENTS

In this chapter we examine the specific requirements of POCCNET [DES76a,DES76b] and its applications software. POCCNET is a hardware/software system that will support the development and operation of Payload Operations Control Centers (POCCs) during the 1980's. In order to implement the POCCNET system, software must be developed for the distributed computer network and the standardized applications software. We will therefore give a brief description of each of these areas.

The POCCNET network is composed of five functional subsystems: an Applications Processor (AP) subsystem, an Interprocess Communication (IPC) subsystem, a Data Base (DB) subsystem, an Interface subsystem, and a Control subsystem. The AP subsystem is composed of general purpose minicomputers with operating systems capable of running POCC software. The IPC subsystem handles all message transfers within the network, and the DB subsystem provides on-line storage for the POCCs and the network. The standardized applications software for POCCNET is also managed by the DB subsystem. The Interface subsystem provides communication between POCCNET and the outside world (which includes human users, telemetry and commands, and other computer systems). Finally, the Control subsystem directs and monitors the operation of the entire POCCNET system.

The package of standardized applications software will provide software that implements functions common to many POCCs. This includes POCC application programs, program development tools, and related software.

The implementation language (or group of languages) for POCCNET will therefore have to support all of the following application areas: (1) general systems programming, which is required throughout POCCNET; (2) real-time processing for time-critical operations in the IPC and Interface subsystems; (3) data-base processing for the DB subsystem; (4) numerical processing for massaging spacecraft data, simulating telemetry,

and so forth; (5) data formatting and conversion for the Interface subsystem. This involves primarily bit and character string processing.

For each of these application areas we would like a programming language that provided the following features:

- (1) general systems programming
 - (a) bit and character string manipulation
 - (b) some ability to perform absolute and indirect addressing (such as pointers or the SIMPL-XI MEM array)
 - (c) record structures and one-dimensional arrays
 - (d) ability to suppress type checking, so that a block of core can be accessed under various data formats
 - (e) exception handling by ON-conditions or interrupt procedures
 - (f) reentrant or recursive procedures and functions
 - (g) dynamic storage allocation
 - (h) concurrent processes and controlled data sharing between processes
 - (i) access to operating system facilities
- (2) real-time processing
 - (a) all of the features of general systems programming
 - (b) high efficiency
 - (c) real-time scheduling of processes (schedule at a certain time, in a certain number of clock ticks, and so forth)
- (3) data-base processing
 - (a) protection mechanism for files and individual data elements
 - (b) various file organizations and access methods
 - (c) good data structuring capabilities, possibly a data abstraction feature
 - (d) facilities for defining a data-base management system
- (4) numerical processing
 - (a) variety of arithmetic data types and precisions
 - (b) user control over precision

- (c) ability to intercept underflow and overflow conditions
 - (d) array, matrix, and vector data structures
 - (e) library of mathematical functions and subroutines
- (5) data formatting and conversion
- (a) bit and character string manipulation

In addition to the requirements for the separate application areas, there are a group of features that should appear in any POCCNET implementation language. These features include integer, floating point, and character data types; control structures for structured programming; arrays and record structures for building data structures; a macro processor; and some form of INCLUDE statement for copying commonly used source files into a program. A data abstraction facility would also be very helpful, although CS-4 and Concurrent Pascal are the only languages in this study that provide such a feature.

In addition to having all of the above capabilities, the scientific programming notation should possess certain characteristics. Among other things it should support ease of program expression, the writing of correct, efficient, and portable code, and the reuse of algorithms written in it. Let us consider these characteristics one at a time.

One would like to express the algorithms in a natural manner. This implies the notation should be natural to the problem area. For example within the general problem area of mathematics there is a specialized and different mathematical notation for the algebraist and analyst. Each aids in expressing the problems of the particular area explicitly and precisely and in an easy to communicate form.

Correctness of a program is defined as the ability of the program to perform consistently with what we perceive to be its functional specifications. The programming language should support the writing of correct programs. The language should simplify rather than complicate the understanding of the problem solution. The complexity in understanding a program should be due to the complexity inherent in the algorithms, not due to the

notation used. The notation should be clear and simple. A language natural to the problem area aids in correctness as it makes the statement of the solution easier to read and understand. The easier it is to read and understand a solution algorithm, the easier it is to certify its correctness. Aids in making a program readable are structuring it from top to bottom and breaking it into small pieces. In order to achieve the goal of supporting correctness, a language should be simple, contain well-understood control and data structures, permit the breaking up of the algorithm into small pieces using procedures and macros, and contain high-level problem area oriented language primitives.

A program is considered efficient if it executes at as fast a speed and in as small a space as is necessary. The language should permit the efficient execution of programs written in it. The higher level the algorithm, the more information is exposed for optimization and the better job a compiler can do on improving the code generated. On the other hand, high level often implies general applicability in order to handle the majority of cases. This can often imply an inefficiency for a particular application. For example, consider a language in which matrices have been defined as a primitive data type with a full set of operators including matrix multiplication. The multiplication operation has been defined for the general case. Suppose the particular subproblem calls for the multiplication of two triangular matrices. Using the standard built in operator is inefficient. One would like to be able to substitute a more efficient multiplication algorithm for the particular case involved. But this implies that the language permits the redefinition of language primitives at lower levels of abstraction. That is, the programmer should be able to express the algorithm at a high level and then alter the lower level design of the algorithm primitives for a particular application when it is necessary for reasons of efficiency.

A language supports portability when it permits the writing of algorithms that can execute on different machines.

Portability is a difficult, subtle problem that involves several diverse subproblems. The numerical accuracy of arithmetic computations can vary even on machines with the same word size. Techniques for dealing with this problem include variable length arithmetic packages or a minimum precision (modulo word size) specifications. Another problem area of portability is text processing. One way of dealing with this problem is to define a high-level string data type which is word size independent. A third area of problems involves interfacing with a variety of host machine systems. One method of handling this is to define programs to run on some level of virtual machine that is acceptable accross the various machine architectures and systems and then to define that virtual machine on top of the host system for each of those architectures. This is commonly done using a runtime library. In general the higher level the algorithms, the more portable they are. However, more portability often means less efficiency. A language that supports portability should contain one of the above mechanisms for transporting numerical precision accross machine architectures, high level data types, the ability to keep nonportable aspects in one place, and a macro facility for parameterizing packets of information modulo word size.

Software is reusable if it can be used accross several different projects with similar benefits. In order for software to be reusable, its function must be of a reasonably general nature, e.g., the square root and sine functions, it must be written in a general way and it must have a good, simple, straightfoward set of specifications. The area of scientific programming has a better history of reusable software than most. Consider as examples some of the libraries of numerical analysis routines. This is due largely to the easily recognizable, general nature of many scientific functions and the simplicity of their specifications. However, there are whole areas of scientific software development that do not have a histry of reuse, such as telemetry software.

Software written in a general way may perform less

efficiently than hand-tailored software. However, if it is well written it should be possible to measure it and based on these measures modify it slightly in the appropriate places to perform to specification for the particular application.

A good, simple, straightforward set of specifications is not easy to accomplish, especially when the nature of the function is complex. A good high level algorithm can help in eliciting that specification. Specifications for software modules should also include an analysis of the algorithm, e.g., the efficiency of the algorithm with respect to the size of the input data. The language should support the development of a good library of well-specified software modules that are easy to modify if the time and space requirements are off. It should also be capable of interfacing efficiently with other languages and of expressing algorithms so that the essential function is clear and of a general nature.

4. LANGUAGE FEATURE TABLES FOR THE LANGUAGES

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 contained a discussion of the criteria used for evaluating the fifteen languages, and the preliminary evaluations of the languages themselves. This chapter contains a series of tables that summarize the evaluations in Chapter 2, as well as adding some new information about the languages and POCCNET requirements discussed in Chapter 3. Each table is devoted to one of the following POCCNET requirements: modularity, modifiability, reliability, data structuring, character string processing, bit string processing, numerical processing, efficiency, special system features, and error checking and debugging. Each table contains the primary language features that influence the POCCNET requirement, and indicates for each language feature the presence (X) or absence (.) of that feature in the languages. Footnotes are added to the end of some of the tables to provide additional information about a language or language feature.

The following abbreviations are used for the languages in the tables: BL (BLISS-11), C (C), CP (CONCURRENT PASCAL), FL (FLECS), HS (HAL/S), IF (INTERDATA FORTRAN V), JS (JOSSLE), JV (JOVIAL/J3B), LI (LITTLE), PA (PASCAL), P4 (PREST4), SI (SIMPL-T), and SP (SPL / Mark IV). The language STRCMACS is not included in the tables because it only provides structured control structures (no data types or data structures).

4.2. MODULARITY

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Structured control structure	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Independent compilation of programs	X	X	.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	X
INCLUDE feature [1]	X	X	X	.	.	X	.	.
COMPOOL files	X	.	.	X	X
Global or COMMON data	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Controlled access to shared data [2]	.	.	X	X	.	X
Data abstraction facility	.	.	X	X
Block structure [3]	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X

Notes:

[1] Some feature permitting source text from a program library to be included into a program.

[2] Such as the HAL/S UPDATE block.

[3] JOSSLE is a block structured language, but it restricts the inheritance of global variables. See discussion of KNOWN statement in the Chapter 2 evaluation of JOSSLE.

4.3. MODIFIABILITY

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Structured control structure	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
INCLUDE feature [1]	X	X	X	.	.	X	.	.
COMPOOL files	X	.	.	X	X
Data abstraction facility	.	.	X	X
Simple replacement macros [2]	X	X	.	.	.	X	.	.	X	X	.	.	X	X
Parameterized macros	X	X	.	.	X	X	.	.	X	.
Conditional compilation of source text	X	.	X	.	.	.	X	.
High level data structures and operators	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X
CONSTANT declaration	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X

Notes:

[1] Some feature permitting source text from a program library to be included into a program.

[2] Macros that do not permit parameters.

4.4. RELIABILITY

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Structured control structure	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Full type checking [1]	.	X	X	X	.	X	.	X	.	X	X	X	X	.
INCLUDE feature [2]	X	X	X	.	.	X	.	.
Data abstraction facility	.	.	X	X
COMPOOL files	X	.	.	X	X
High level data structures and operators	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X
CONSTANT declaration	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X
Few machine-dependent features	.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	X	X	.
Standardized output listings	X	X
Debugging aids [3]	.	.	.	X	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	X
Few compiler-supplied defaults	.	.	X	X	.	.	.	X	.	.	X	.	X	.

Notes:

[1] Including type checking of procedure parameters.

[2] Some feature permitting source text from a program library to be included into a program.

[3] LITTLE and SIMPL-T provide many debugging aids, the other languages provide only a few.

4.5. DATA STRUCTURING FEATURES

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Array data structure	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Array assignment operator	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	.	X
Array comparison operators = and =	.	.	X	X	.	X
Record data structure [1]	.	X	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X
Record assignment operator	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	.
Record comparison operators = and =	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	X	.	.	.
Untyped pointer variables [2]	X	X
Typed pointer variables [3]	.	X	.	.	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	.	X
Address function for pointers	X	X	.	.	.	X	X	X	X
Dynamic storage allocation using pointers [4]	X	.	.	X	.	.	.
Set data type	.	.	X	X	X	.	.	.
Set assignment operator	.	.	X	X	X	.	.	.
Set relational operators = and =	.	.	X	X	X	.	.	.
Various set operators [5]	.	.	X	X	X	.	.	.
Data abstraction facility	.	.	X	X

Notes:

- [1] JOVIAL only has a table data structure (tables can only be formed from simple items, so that a JOVIAL table can not contain another table or an array as one of its items).
- [2] Pointers in INTERDATA FORTRAN V can only be used to fetch data indirectly, they can not be used to store data indirectly.
- [3] The JOSSLE pointer type is really a table index (subscript) and not a general pointer.
- [4] Such as the JOSSLE ALLOCATE statement or the PASCAL function NEW.
- [5] Such as set union, intersection, complement, and membership.

4.6. CHARACTER STRING PROCESSING

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Character data type [1]	.	X	X	X	.	X	.
Character string data type [2]	.	.	.	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	.	.	X	X
Assignment operator for strings	.	.	.	X	.	X	.	X	X	X	.	.	X	X
Concatenation operator	.	.	.	X	.	X	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	.
Substring pseudo-operator [3]	.	.	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	X	.	.	X	X
Substring function only	X
Length function	.	.	.	X	.	X	X	.
Character search function (INDEX)	X	.	.	.	X	.	.	X	.
Relational operators =, ~=	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Relational operators <, > <=, >=	X	X	X	.	X	X	X	.	.	X	X	X	X	.
Conversion between character and integer data type	X	X	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	X	X	.	X	X

Notes:

[1] Fortran has no character data type, but permits characters to be packed into INTEGER variables. LITTLE is typeless but provides character string operators.

[2] C, CONCURRENT PASCAL, and PASCAL have no character string data type, but they do permit character arrays.

[3] A substring pseudo-operator can appear on the left-hand side of an assignment statement.

4.7. BIT STRING PROCESSING

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Bit data type [1]	X	.	X	X	X	.	.	.	X
AND, OR, NOT functions	X	X	.	.	.	X	X	X	X	X	.	.	X	X
SHIFT function	X	X	X	.	X	.	.	.	X	X
Bit substring pseudo-operator	X	X	X	.	X	X	.	.	X	X
Concatenation operator	X	.	.	.	X
Relational operators =, ~=	X	X	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	X
Relational operators <, > <=, >=	X	X	.	X	.	.	X	X

Notes:

[1] BLISS-11 is typeless but it provides bit manipulating operators. INTERDATA FORTRAN V and SIMPLT-T have no bit data type but they provide operators or functions for manipulating bits in integer expressions.

4.8. NUMERICAL PROCESSING

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Integer data type	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Floating point data type	.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	.	X
Fixed point data type	.	.	.	X	X	X
Complex data type	.	.	.	X	X	.	X	X	.	.
Double precision floating point type	.	X	.	.	X	X	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	.
Variable precision for all numeric data types	.	.	.	X	X
Automatic conversion between the numeric types	.	X	.	X	X	X	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	X
Generic numerical functions	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X
Ability to intercept underflow or overflow conditions	.	.	.	X	.	X	X
Matrix or vector data type [1]	.	.	.	X	.	X
Matrix and vector assignment operator	.	.	.	X	.	X	X
Matrix and vector relational operators =, <=	.	.	.	X	.	X	X
Matrix and vector dot product	.	.	.	X	.	X	X
Vector cross product	.	.	.	X	.	X	X
Matrix inverse, transpose, and trace	.	.	.	X	.	X	X
FOR or DO loops [2]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	X	X	.	X

Notes:

[1] SPL has no matrix type, but it provides many operators for manipulating 1 or 2-dimensional sections of arrays.

[2] FLECS, INTERDATA FORTRAN V, LITTLE, and PREST4 require the DO loop increment to be positive. CONCURRENT PASCAL and PASCAL only permit +1 or -1 as the loop increment.

4.9. EFFICIENCY

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Uses runtime stack	X	X	.	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X
Uses dynamic storage allocator	X	.	.	X	.	.	.
Uses system monitor for runtime scheduling	.	.	X	X	.	X
Structured control structure	X	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
High level data structures and operators	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X
User requested packing densities [1]	X	.	.	X	.	X	.	.	X
Bit packing feature in tables or structures [2]	.	.	.	X	X	X
OVERLAY or EQUIVALENCE stmt	X	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	X
INLINE attribute for procedures and functions [3]	.	.	.	X	X	X
Compiler directives for requesting fast storage [4]	X	X	.	.	.	X	X
Inline assembly language	X	.	.	X	.	.	X	X

Notes:

[1] Such as the table or record^s attributes MEDIUM, DENSE, TIGHT.

[2] User allocation of data items within tables or records, including word and bit position.

[3] INLINE attribute to force procedures or functions to be expanded inline instead of generating a calling sequence.

[4] Such as the HAL/S TEMPORARY statement and the C REGISTER statement.

4.10. SPECIAL SYSTEM FEATURES

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Record structure [1]	.	X	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X
Bit manipulating features	X	X	.	X	.	X	X	X	X	X	.	.	X	X
Character manipulating features [2]	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Pointers or indirect addressing [3]	X	X	.	.	.	X	X	X	.	.	X	.	.	X
Access to machine registers	X	.	.	X	X
Inline assembly language	X	.	.	X	.	.	X	X
Reentrant or recursive procedures	X	X	X	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	X	.	X	X
Exception handling constructs [4]	X	.	.	X	.	X	X
Special subroutine linkages [5]	X	.	.	X	.	X
Dynamic storage allocation [6]	X	.	.	X	.	.	.
Concurrent processes	.	.	X	X	.	X
Real-time scheduling of processes	.	.	.	X	.	X
Ability to access a block of core under varying data formats [7]	X	.	X	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	.	X	.	X

Notes:

- [1] JOVIAL only has a table data structure (tables can only be formed from simple items, so that a JOVIAL table can not contain another table or an array as one of its items).
- [2] The Fortran languages FLECS, INTERDATA FORTRAN V, and PREST4 provide inadequate character manipulating features.
- [3] Pointers in INTERDATA FORTRAN V can only be used to fetch data indirectly, they can not be used to store data indirectly.
- [4] Such as ON-conditions or signal handlers.
- [5] Subroutine linkages to other languages (like Fortran, PL/I, assembly language), or user control over the subroutine linkage (how arguments are passed, which registers are altered, how result

is returned, and so forth).

[6] Such as the JOSSLE ALLOCATE statement or the PASCAL function NEW.

[7] Without using assembly language routines.

4.11. ERROR CHECKING AND DEBUGGING

Language Feature	Languages													
	BL	C	CP	C4	FL	HS	IF	JS	JV	LI	PA	P4	SI	SP
Complete type checking [1]	.	X	X	X	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	X	.
Partial type checking only	X	.	X	.	X	.	.	X	.	X
No automatic conversions between the basic data types	X	.	X	X	.	X	X	.	X	.
No default type declarations	X	.	X	X	.	.	.	X	.	X	X	.	X	.
Exception handling constructs [2]	X	.	.	X	.	X	X
Debugging aids:														
Subscript checking	.	.	.	X	.	.	X	X	.	X	.	.	X	.
Variable tracing	X	.	.	X	.	X	X	X
Calling history	X	.	.	X	X
Execution-time statistics	X	.	.	X	X
Conditional compilation feature	X	.	X	.	.	.	X	.

Notes:

[1] Including procedure parameters and pointer variables.

[2] Such as ON-conditions or signal handlers.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

Based on our study of POCCNET requirements and our evaluation of the languages, we have concluded that none of the fifteen languages can satisfy all of the requirements. The application areas within POCCNET are diverse and there are too many additional constraints on the implementation language. Since none of the languages satisfy all the requirements, a language (or group of languages) should be chosen that satisfies most of the POCCNET requirements at a low cost.

The requirements of the POCCNET implementation language were discussed in Chapters 2, 3, and 4. They included support for the five application areas, and additional constraints such as machine independence, efficiency, and modifiability. However, we should also consider the costs associated with each of the fifteen languages. Language costs can be subdivided into start-up costs, development and testing costs, and maintenance costs. The start-up costs for the POCCNET language include the cost of obtaining compilers, training personnel in the new language and design methodology, and developing other language tools (such as macro processors, debugging aids, and special linkers or loaders). Start-up cost will therefore be directly affected by the complexity of the language and the availability of compilers for the language.

Development and testing costs will be affected by the design support and debugging features in the language. These include features supporting reliability, modularity, modifiability, readability, and error checking/debugging aids. Type checking of procedure and function parameters will speed the integration testing of program modules.

Maintenance costs will be affected by the readability and modifiability of the language. Languages that are not machine

dependent will require fewer software changes as new hardware is added to POCCNET. Documentation aids such as cross reference and attribute listing, static and execution-time program statistics, and standardized output listings would also lower the cost of maintaining POCCNET software.

Another factor to consider is the relatively long life of POCCNET. The network is expected to support GSFC POCCS throughout the 1980's. Over such a long period the development, testing, and maintenance costs will greatly exceed the start-up costs associated with the implementation language.

5.2. Language Recommendations

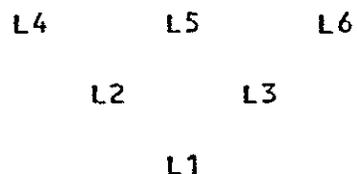
At this point we will discuss our conclusions and recommendations about the fifteen languages. The languages fall naturally into five groups: (1) the SIMPL and PASCAL families; (2) the high level languages CS-4, HAL/S, JOSSLE, JOVIAL, and SPL; (3) the Fortran languages FLECS, INTERDATA FORTRAN V, and PREST4; (4) the low to medium level languages BLISS, C, and LITTLE; (5) the macro assembly language STRCMACS. We will discuss each of these groups in turn.

5.3. Families of Languages

As discussed previously, there are a number of application areas within POCCNET. These range from real-time and general systems programming up to numerical and data base processing. POCCNET poses additional constraints on the implementation language, including machine independence, reliability, and modifiability. Based on our evaluation of the languages, none of them meet all the POCCNET requirements. Moreover, it is likely that any language that did satisfy all of the requirements would be too large and contain too many contradictory features [BAS76b]. The runtime environment needed to support such a language would be complex and inefficient. What we would like

instead is a set of languages, each tailored to one particular subapplication. However, there are several drawbacks to building a large set of independent languages. For one thing, the design and development of new programming languages would be fraught with many problems since each language would be an entirely new design experience. Secondly, if these languages were truly different in design, it would require the user to learn several totally different notations for solving the different aspects of the problem. Thirdly, there would be a proliferation of languages and compilers to maintain.

One possible approach that minimizes some of the above drawbacks is the development of a family of programming languages and compilers. The basic idea behind the family is that all the languages in the family contain a core design which consists of a minimal set of common language features and a simple common runtime environment. This core design defines the base language for which all the other languages in the family are extensions. This also guarantees a basic common design for the compilers. The basic family concept can be viewed as a tree structure in which each of the languages in a subtree is an extension of the language at the root of the subtree. For example:



In this case the language $L4 = L2 \cup$ {new features of L4}.

Using the family approach permits the development of several application area languages, minimizing the difference between the languages and the compiler design effort. Since many of the constructs for various applications contain a similarity of design or interact with the environment in similar ways, experience derived from one design and development effort can be directly applied to another. Since the best choice of notation for a particular application area may not be known a priori, the family idea permits some experimentation without the cost of a

totally new language and compiler development.

There are several approaches to minimizing the compiler development for a family of languages. One can develop an extensible language and build the family out of the extensible base language. The extension can be made either by a data abstraction facility as in CLU [LIS74] or by some form of full language extension as in ELF [CHE68]. The family of compilers can also be built using a translator writing system or by extending some base core compiler, as was done with the SIMPL and the PASCAL families. A combination of two of the above techniques is recommended here, and they will be discussed a little more fully.

In the core extensible compiler approach, the base compiler for the base language is extended for each new language in the family, creating a family of compilers. In order to achieve the resulting family of compilers, the core compiler must be easy to modify and easy to extend with new features. One experience with this technique, the SIMPL family of languages and compilers, has proved reasonably successful with respect to extensibility due to the use of specialized software development techniques during compiler development.

Using the core extensible compiler approach, the compiler $C(L)$ for a new language in a subtree is built from the compiler for the language at the root of the subtree. This is done by making modifications (mod) to that compiler to permit it to handle the new features of the extension language. For the family in the previous example we have

$$C(L4) = C(L2) \text{ mod } \{L4 \text{ fixes}\} \cup \{\text{new } L4 \text{ routines}\}$$

where the set of L4 routines represents the code for the L4 extensions to L2, and the set of L4 fixes represents the code for modifying the L2 compiler to add those extensions. The key to good extensible compiler design is to minimize the number of modifications (fixes) and maximize the number of independent routines.

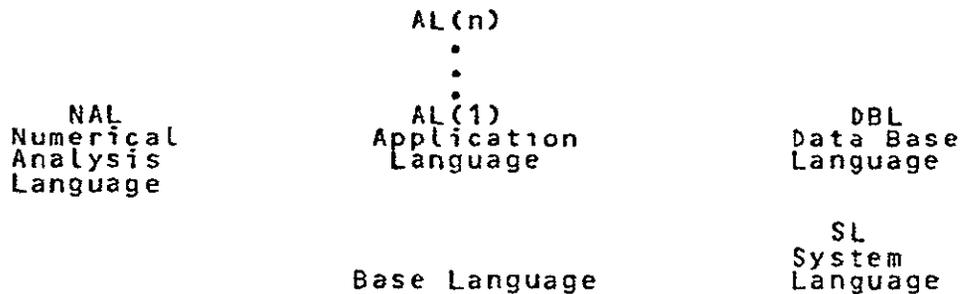
Using a data extension approach, new data types and data structures can be added to the language using a built-in data

abstraction facility. In order to achieve reasonable extensibility, the facility should be easy to use and permit efficient implementation. Experience with forms of data abstraction facilities in CS-4 and CONCURRENT PASCAL have demonstrated the benefits of this approach.

Here the effective compiler for a new language is again built from the compiler for its immediate ancestor in the tree. This is done by adding a new set of library modules that represent the new data types and structures and their associated operators and access mechanisms, respectively. For example, $C(L4) = C(L2) \cup \{L4 \text{ library modules}\}$.

Each of the two techniques has different assets. The core extensible compiler approach permits full language extension, including new control structures and modifications to the runtime environment. It offers the most efficiency and permits a full set of specialized error diagnostics to be built in. The data definitional approach can be used only for data extensions, but these are by far the most common in the range of subapplication. It is also a lot easier to do and can be performed by the average programmer, where the compiler extensions require more specialized training. Ideally, the first approach should be used for application extensions and the second for smaller subapplication extensions.

Let us now apply this family concept to the POCCNET system and consider how the various application-oriented language features could be distributed across several languages in the family. There would be a language in the family for each application, i.e., a systems programming language, a numerical analysis language, a data base language, a graphics or display language, and so forth. Each language would be built out of some base language (which may in fact be the system language). The application language may have several extensions, each of which adds on some higher level set of primitives. For example, some set of standardized algorithms could be defined as a set of primitive operations in the language. The family tree for the language may take on a form such as



In general, the application languages can be just as high an extension of AL(1) as is appropriate for the sophistication of the user. The system is then modularized so that each module is programmed in the appropriate language, e.g., a numerical analysis module in the numerical analysis language NAL. Each of these modules can interface with the others through an interfacing system. The interface system is part of the basis for the family of languages and contains among other things the compilers for the languages. The interface system could be built into the IPC or Interface Subsystems of POCCNET.

It is clear that the family of languages concept permits the incorporation of the various capabilities required for the POCCNET system. This concept also rates well with respect to design support, reliability, efficiency, machine independence, and reusability.

With respect to ease of expression, algorithms are written in a notation which is specialized to the application. Since each language is reasonably independent of the application level, primitives in one notation can be fine-tuned without affecting the primitives of another application. This permits a certain amount of experimentation, and primitives can be varied with experience.

High level, application-oriented primitives make a solution algorithm easier to read and understand and therefore easier to verify as correct. The specialized notation raises the level of the executing algorithm to the level at which the solution is developed. Debugging features will be improved, because the compilers for the individual languages can tailor error diagnostics and recovery to the particular application.

Each language is small and relatively simple, so that compilation of programs is very efficient. Each language is not complicated by a mix of features whose interaction may complicate the runtime environment, and a simpler runtime environment implies more efficient execution. Language features are specialized to meet one specific application and don't have to be generalized, inefficient versions of the feature. If necessary, the programmer can always use one of the lower level languages to improve or fine-tune an algorithm.

Higher level primitives will make programs more portable. The hierarchy with respect to the data abstractions permits the localization of the machine dependent aspects of the program, and these localized sections can be recoded when the program is transported to a different machine. And with regard to the development of reusable software, each application area has its own language. Thus, needed submodules are written in the target application notation rather than the host application notation. This makes it easier to recognize the essential function of the submodule and easier to write it in a more generally applicable way.

Our primary recommendation is that POCCNET be implemented using a family of languages. Two such families (PASCAL and SIMPL) were examined in this study. However, since neither of these families as they currently exist will satisfy all of the requirements of POCCNET, we recommend that one of the families be improved for POCCNET. The compilers for both languages are written in a high level language (PASCAL and SIMPL-T) and both were designed to be modifiable and machine independent.

The two major deficiencies in the PASCAL family are the lack of external procedures (programs must be compiled en masse) and the lack of "adjustable" arrays or strings as formal procedure parameters. PASCAL requires the length of formal array or string parameters to be declared at compile time, so there is no way to write a PASCAL procedure that will manipulate arrays or strings of arbitrary length. We would recommend that external procedures

be added to PASCAL, and that adjustable arrays and strings be provided using the "*"-bound of PL/I or by passing in the array or string dimensions, as is done in Fortran. At least one implementation of PASCAL on the IBM 360 series already provides external procedures and functions [RUS76]. The usefulness of CONCURRENT PASCAL for systems programming would also be increased by the addition of a bit string data type.

The SIMPL family could be improved by the addition of record structures and multidimensional arrays (both of these extensions have already been designed). The system features in SIMPL-XI could also be extended for POCCNET. The addition of a data abstraction facility would greatly improve the entire SIMPL family. Finally, these changes would not require complete reworking of the compiler, since the SIMPL compiler was specifically designed to be extendible.

5.4. Use of a Single Language

The second alternative for a POCCNET implementation language is to use a single language that meets most of the POCCNET requirements. Any of the languages CS-4, HAL/S, JOSSLE, JOVIAL/J3B, and SPL/Mark IV could be used to implement most of POCCNET.

We recommend that HAL/S be chosen over the other four languages. HAL/S has few machine dependent features, it is efficient, and it has many system features (including records, pointers, real-time process scheduling, and exception handling statements). The language also has features that would improve the reliability and modifiability of programs, including full type checking, COMPOOL files, a macro processor, and structured control structures. HAL/S has been implemented on the IBM 360 series, the Data General Nova, and the Shuttle flight computer.

Although the CS-4 language has many nice features (such as data abstractions), the language is currently under development and no compiler is available. For this reason, we can not

recommend CS-4 for use in the POCCNET system. SPL is judged to be equivalent to HAL/S in power, but the language has many features that would decrease the reliability of programs. SPL provides many low level and machine dependent features, automatic type conversion between all of the basic data types, default declarations of variables, and "implicit" subscripts for arrays. SPL was therefore judged to be inferior to HAL/S. Finally, the JOSSLE and JOVIAL/J3B languages are proper subsets of HAL/S and were therefore eliminated.

5.5. Use of Fortran

Because of its widespread use in the computer industry, this report must discuss the possibility of using Fortran as the POCCNET implementation language. Fortran variants have been implemented on almost all commercial computer systems. Although there are many minor differences between the implementations, almost all implementations support the 1966 ANSI Standard Fortran. In addition, the Fortran language is more widely known than any of the other languages in this study. Thus, the use of Fortran as the POCCNET implementation language would probably permit a shorter start-up time and a lower initial cost than the other languages.

Despite the lower initial cost, we recommend that Fortran not be used for POCCNET. Over the course of a long project like POCCNET, it is likely that the cost of software development and maintenance will greatly exceed the initial start-up cost. This is crucial, because Fortran provides few features that support the development or maintenance of programs. The language has few control structures, so that GOTO and IF statements must be used to simulate if-then-else statements, while loops, case statements, etc. No bit or character data type is provided. Bit and character data must therefore be stored in INTEGER variables, and it becomes impossible to enforce type checking between the integer, bit, and character data types. Fortran also doesn't

perform type checking for subroutine or function parameters, so integration testing of Fortran programs becomes more difficult. The only data structure provided by Fortran is the array: the language has no record structure for forming logical groupings of data. Finally, Fortran has no macro facilities, no CONSTANT statement for defining program parameters, and no INCLUDE feature for copying source files into a program. The lack of these features will make Fortran programs longer than necessary and difficult to read, modify, or debug.

Finally, Fortran does not provide the system features that are required of the POCCNET implementation language. Fortran has no pointers, records, reentrant procedures, access to machine registers, concurrent processes, or exception handling features. Some of these features can be simulated by calling assembly language routines, but with considerable loss in efficiency. For all these reasons, we feel that Fortran would be a poor choice for the POCCNET implementation language.

If Fortran is chosen as the implementation language (in spite of our recommendations), we strongly advise that a preprocessor be used to provide control structures for structured programming. Two such preprocessors (FLECS and PREST4) were examined in this study. Since PREST4 forbids the use of some Fortran constructs (FLECS does not) and provides fewer new control structures than FLECS, we recommend that FLECS be chosen as the Fortran preprocessor. FLECS is written in Fortran and is available from its author, T. Beyer, at a nominal cost (\$100). Many other Fortran preprocessors are also available [MEI75].

5.6. Remaining Languages

The remaining languages were eliminated early in the study when it became clear that they did not come close to satisfying all the requirements of the POCCNET system. The languages BLISS-11 and LITTLE were considered to be too low-level for general use in POCCNET. Both of these languages are typeless,

systems implementation languages. While the language C provided many low-level features within a typed, medium level language, it was rejected because of its terse and frequently unreadable syntax.

Finally, some portions of the POCCNET system may be written in assembly language where time or space efficiency is critical. For these portions, we recommend that the vendor's assembly language be augmented by a set of structured macros similar to STRCMACS. Macros of this type can greatly improve the readability of assembly language programs. The structured macros can be expanded during the normal assembly step if the assembly language provides a macro facility, or during a preprocessor pass if no such facility exists.

5.7. Summary

To summarize, on the basis of our study none of the fifteen languages meet all of the requirements for a POCCNET implementation language. Our primary recommendation is that a family of languages be developed for POCCNET by modifying the PASCAL or SIMPL families. If a single implementation language is to be used then we recommend that the NASA Shuttle language HAL/S be chosen. We recommend that Fortran not be used as the implementation language. Finally, if Fortran or assembly language are used in POCCNET then preprocessors should be used to provide structured control structures.

th-th-that's all folks!

on bit strings of arbitrary length.

PASCAL - A highly structured, general purpose language.

PREST4 - A Fortran preprocessor.

SIMPL-T - The base member of a highly structured family of languages.

SPL / MARK IV - A high level language with many machine-oriented features.

STRCMACS - A collection of structured programming macros for IBM OS/360 assembly language.

The language evaluations in this report are based solely on the language reference manuals and other papers listed in the references. We have immediate access to the compilers for only two of the fifteen languages (C and SIMPL-T).

The criteria for evaluating the languages and the preliminary evaluations are presented in the second chapter of this report. Each evaluation is composed of two sections. The first section provides a detailed summary of the following syntactic features of the language:

- (1) basic data types and operators
- (2) control structures
- (3) data structures
- (4) other interesting features
- (5) language syntax
- (6) runtime environment .

The second section of each evaluation presents the characteristics of the language:

- (1) machine dependence
- (2) efficiency
- (3) level of the language
- (4) size of the language and compiler
- (5) special system features
- (6) error checking and debugging
- (7) design support (modularity, modifiability, and

1. INTRODUCTION

This report presents an evaluation of systems implementation languages for the Payload Operations Control Center Network (POCCNET), which is a general hardware/software concept adopted by GSFC as a means of developing and operating payload operations control centers in the 1980's. The POCCNET system [DES76a, DES76b] will provide hardware and software resource-sharing via a distributed computer network and a package of standardized applications software. This report develops criteria for evaluating POCCNET implementation languages, and then compares fifteen existing languages on the basis of these criteria.

An attempt was made during this study to examine a wide range of existing languages, from a low level macro assembler to the very large and high level language CS-4. The following fifteen languages were examined in detail:

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| BLISS-11 | - A systems implementation language for the PDP-11 series. |
| C | - The language of the UNIX operating system. |
| CONCURRENT PASCAL | - A high level language for writing operating systems. |
| CS-4 Base Language | - An extensible language being developed for the Navy. |
| FLECS | - A Fortran preprocessor. |
| HAL/S | - The NASA language for the Space Shuttle program. |
| INTERDATA FORTRAN V | - An extension of ANSI Fortran. |
| JOSSLE | - A PL/I derivative for writing compilers. |
| JOVIAL/J3B | - A close relative of JOVIAL/J3, the Air Force standard language for command and control applications. |
| LITTLE | - A Fortran derivative that operates |