

# Introduction to Scientific Computing Languages

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## What is a programming language?

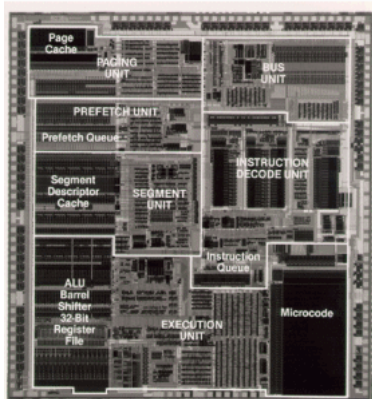
- A set of **instructions and constructs** for communicating with a computing device.
- Instructions and constructs are combined and organized into programs.
- Examples: Basic, Pascal, Cobol, Fortran, C, C++, Lisp, Prolog, SQL, Java, Perl, Python, Ruby, ...

“Computing device”?

sequential processors, embedded processors, ...,  
parallel computers, supercomputers.

# Processor's Components

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Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU) (control signals, inputs, outputs), Floating Point Unit (FPU), Prefetching Unit, Registers, ...

- Languages let the users specify how to use these components.
- Only **Assembly** operates on components: Low-level language.
- High-level languages only specify the computations to be performed.
- A **compiler** and/or an **interpreter** translates high-level programs into a sequence of component actions.

- Very fast!
- Not the lowest level. Not directly executable.
- **Assembler** translates assembly into machine code. Executable.
- Assembly consists of mnemonic codes.  
Machine code: only numbers.
- Translation Assembly  $\leftrightarrow$  machine code is almost 1-1.  
This is not true for high-level languages.
- Assembler is hardware-specific. Control over chips' components.

# Assembly

## Example

```
.text
.globl poly

poly:
    li.s  $f0, 0.0           # y = 0, running & return result
    mtc1  $6  $f12          # x, move to float register

Loop:
    mul.s $f14, $f12, $f0    # compute (x * y)
    mul   $2, $5, 4          # $5 = i, compute address of a[i]
    addu  $3, $2, $4         # a + (i*4)
    l.s   $f16, 0($3)       # a[i], load coefficient
    add.s $f0, $f16, $f14    # y = a[i] + (x*y)
    addi  $5, $5, -1        # decrease i

    slt   $2, $5, $0        # $2 = 1 if i < 0
    beq   $2, $0, Loop      # goto Loop if i >= 0

Exit:
    j     $31
```

# Evaluate the value of a polynomial using Horner's algorithm.  
#  $f = a[0] + a[1] * x + a[2] * x^2 + \dots + a[n] * x^n$

## What is the oldest programming language still in use?

FORTRAN 1957, 1977, 1995, ...

late '50s	<b>Fortran</b> ('57)..., Algol('58), Lisp('59)
'60s	Cobol('61), Basic('64)
'70s	Pascal('70), <b>C</b> ('72), Prolog('72), SQL('78), <b>Matlab</b> ('78)
'80s	C++('83), Perl('87), <b>Mathematica</b> ('87)
'90s	Python('91), Ruby('93), Java('95)

## Oldest programming language?

Plankalkül (1940s). For the Z1 computer, by Konrad Zuse.

# History of Programming Languages

1954

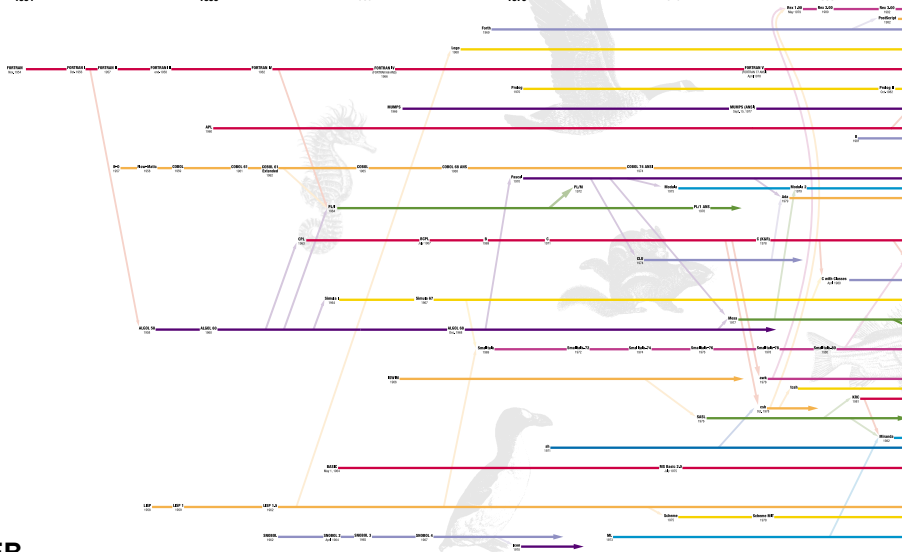
1960

1965

1970

1975

1980



WEB

# Compiled vs. Interpreted Languages

## Compiled Languages

- The program is first **compiled**, i.e., reduced to architecture-dependent instructions and stored in an executable file.
- The program can then be **executed** separately, at a later time.
- The executable is portable only to compatible platforms. The program?
- **Speed!**
- Examples: C, Fortran.

## Interpreted Languages

- The instructions are parsed and executed in real time by an **interpreter**.
- No generated code. The interpreter is always needed.
- **Ease!**
- Examples: Matlab, Mathematica, Python.



# Computer Programs

Program:

sequence of instructions expressing the operations to be performed on a target computing platform.

- Each program  $\mathcal{P}$  has a meaning. It implements a function.  
 $\{\text{Initial State}\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{P}} \{\text{Final State}\}.$
- $[[\mathcal{P}]]$  is the *semantics* of the program  $\mathcal{P}$ .  
 $[[\ ]]$  = Semantics operator. Operational, Denotational, Axiomatic.  
Out of the scope of this class.
- Generally, we want  $\mathcal{P}$  to compute  $f(i)$ , with  $i \in I$ .  
 $f$  is a mathematical function, a procedure, a simulation, ...
- The question is: “does  $\mathcal{P}$  implement the function that we have in mind?”
- A program  $\mathcal{P}$  is **correct** if  $\forall i \in I, \mathcal{P}(i) \equiv f(i)$ .
- Surprisingly... when working with floating point numbers, correctness is not enough!

subroutine = function = procedure =  
subprogram (= module = method)

- Portions of the code that perform one specific task and that are reusable.
- They are very much like mathematical functions:

```
result := routine_name( arguments )
```

- BUT! One difference: side-effects.  
Many languages allow subroutines to have side-effects. The routine alters the state of the system even after its completion.

# Side Effects

```
{ (res = ...) ^ State }
```

```
res := routine_name( args );
```

```
{ (res = ...) ^ State' }
```

- If ( State = State' )  $\rightarrow$  no side-effects.
- Most languages allow constructs with side-effects.
- Print statements; iterative constructs; ...

## Subroutines are good!

- Improve **readability**: code is shorter.
- Enable **modularity**: programs are built as a composition of functionalities. Avoid reinventing the wheel.
- **Optimization**: They solve a smaller and well-defined task. Better suited to be optimized.
- Structure:

```
routine_name( args )  
    //  
    body  
    //  
return( value )
```

args, body and value are optional, depending on the language.

# Questions about Subroutines

```
routine_name_1(args_1)      routine_name_2(args_2)
  //                          //
  body_1                      body_2
  //                          //
return( value_1 )           return( value_2 )
```

- Can `body_1` include a call to `routine_name_1`?
  - Yes! → Recursion. Recursion Limit? Termination?
  - No → Iteration. Fortran '77.
- What if `body_1` includes a call to `routine_name_2` and `body_2` includes a call to `routine_name_1`?
  - Mutual recursion. Fortran '77: No.
- Are recursive languages more expressive than iterative ones? Can they compute more or fewer functions?

Recursion  $\equiv$  iteration!

# From Subroutines to Libraries

- A subroutine solves a specific problem / it computes a specific operation.
- It is reusable, i.e., it provides a certain functionality.
- A collection of germane subroutines yields a **library**.
- A library is not a program per se.  
It provides building blocks to be used when writing a program.
- BLAS   LAPACK   PETSc   MPI   Pthreads ...  
    LINPACK  
    EISPACK
- Libraries can be written in one or more languages.  
Can they be accessed from a program written in a different language?

# Imperative vs. Functional Languages

## Imperative Languages

- Concept of **Variables** and **State**.
- Program is an ordered sequence of commands and **assignments**.
- Commands modify state. Side-effects.
- C, C++, Fortran, Java, Python, Matlab, ...

## Functional Languages

- No variables or assignments.
- Program consists of **Functions** and **Recursion**.
- No side-effects!
- Subset of Declarative Languages.
- Lisp, APL, ADA, Haskell, Mathematica, Clojure, F# ...

```
Program A;  
Var I:Integer;  
    K:Char;  
    R:Real;  
  
    Procedure B;  
        Var K:Real;  
            L:Integer;  
  
            Procedure C;  
                Var M:Real;  
                Begin  
                    // Body #1  
                End;  
            Begin  
                // Body #2  
            End;  
        Begin  
            // Body #3  
        End;  
    End;
```

- Which variables (of which type) are defined in Body #1?

I:Integer, R:Real, K:Real, L:Integer,  
M:Real

- Where is K used as Real?

Body #1 and Body #2

- Can L be referenced in Body #2? Body #3?

Body #2: yes; Body #3: no



## Scope (2)

```
program main
var y: Real;
  procedure compute()
    var x : Integer;
      procedure initialize()
        var y: Integer;
        var z: Real;
        begin {initialize}
          // Body #1
        end {initialize}

        procedure transform()
          var x: Real;
          begin {transform}
            // Body #2
          end {transform}
        begin {compute}
          // Body #3
        end {compute}
      begin {main}
        // Main body
      end {main}
```

- What is the scope of the variable `x` declared in the procedure `compute`?

Body #1 and Body #3

- What is the environment for the procedure `transform`?

`y:Real` and `x:Real`