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By David Hemmendinger • Edit History

Summary

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computer programming language

any of various languages for expressing a set of detailed instructions for a digital computer. Such instructions can be executed directly when they are in the computer manufacturer-specific numerical form known as machine language, after a simple substitution process when expressed in a corresponding assembly language, or after translation from some “higher-level” language. Although there are many computer languages, relatively few are widely used.

Key People:

Stephen Wolfram • Niklaus Emil Wirth • Kristen Nygaard • John Warner Backus • Alan Kay

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Machine and assembly languages are “low-level,” requiring a programmer to manage explicitly all of a computer’s idiosyncratic features of data storage and operation. In contrast, high-level languages shield a programmer from worrying about such considerations and provide a notation that is more easily written and read by programmers.

Language types

Machine and assembly languages

A machine language consists of the numeric codes for the operations that a particular computer can execute directly. The codes are strings of os and is, or **binary** digits (“bits”), which are frequently converted both from and to hexadecimal (base 16) for human viewing and modification. Machine language instructions typically use some bits to represent operations, such as addition, and some to represent operands, or perhaps the location of the next instruction. Machine language is difficult to read and write, since it does not resemble conventional mathematical notation or human language, and its codes vary from computer to computer.

Assembly language is one level above machine language. It uses short **mnemonic** codes for instructions and allows the programmer to introduce names for blocks of memory that hold data. One might thus write “add pay, total” instead of “0110101100101000” for an instruction that adds two numbers.

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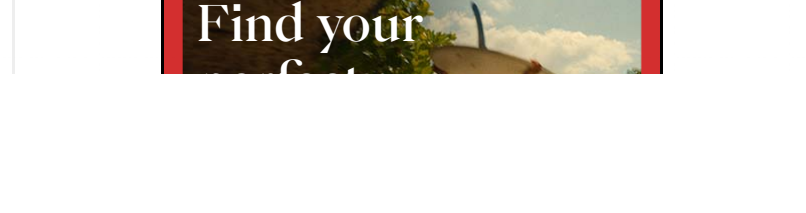
Assembly language is designed to be easily translated into machine language. Although blocks of data may be referred to by name instead of by their machine addresses, assembly language does not provide more sophisticated means of organizing complex information. Like machine language, assembly language requires detailed knowledge of internal **computer architecture**. It is useful when such details are important, as in **programming** a computer to interact with **peripheral devices** (printers, scanners, storage devices, and so forth).

Algorithmic languages

Algorithmic languages are designed to express mathematical or symbolic computations. They can express algebraic operations in notation similar to mathematics and allow the use of subprograms that package commonly used operations for reuse. They were the first high-level languages.

FORTRAN

The first important algorithmic language was **FORTRAN** (*formula translation*), designed in 1957 by an **IBM** team led by **John Backus**. It was intended for scientific computations with **real numbers** and collections of them organized as one- or multidimensional arrays. Its control structures included conditional IF statements, repetitive loops (so-called DO loops), and a GOTO statement that allowed nonsequential execution of program code. FORTRAN made it convenient to have subprograms for common mathematical operations, and built libraries of them.



FORTRAN was also designed to translate into efficient machine language. It was immediately successful and continues to evolve.

ALGOL

ALGOL (*algorithmic language*) was designed by a committee of American and European computer scientists during 1958–60 for publishing **algorithms**, as well as for doing computations. Like **LISP** (described in the next section), ALGOL had recursive subprograms—procedures that could **invoke** themselves to solve a problem by reducing it to a smaller problem of the same kind. ALGOL introduced block structure, in which a program is composed of blocks that might contain both data and instructions and have the same structure as an entire program. Block structure became a powerful tool for building large programs out of small components.

ALGOL contributed a notation for describing the structure of a programming language, Backus–Naur Form, which in some variation became the standard tool for stating the **syntax** (grammar) of programming languages. ALGOL was widely used in Europe, and for many years it remained the language in which computer algorithms were published. Many important languages, such as **Pascal** and Ada (both described later), are its descendants.

C

The C programming language was developed in 1972 by **Dennis Ritchie** and Brian Kernighan at the **AT&T Corporation** for programming computer **operating systems**. Its capacity to structure data and programs through the **composition** of smaller units is comparable to that of ALGOL. It uses a compact notation and provides the programmer with the ability to operate with the addresses of data as well as with their values. This ability is important in **systems programming**, and C shares with assembly language the power to exploit all the features of a computer’s internal architecture. C, along with its descendant C++, remains one of the most common languages.

Business-oriented languages

COBOL

COBOL (common business oriented language) has been heavily used by businesses since its inception in 1959. A committee of computer manufacturers and users and U.S. government organizations established CODASYL (Committee on *Data Systems and Languages*) to develop and oversee the language standard in order to ensure its portability across **diverse** systems.



COBOL uses an English-like notation—novel when introduced. Business computations organize and manipulate large quantities of data, and COBOL introduced the **record data structure** for such tasks. A record clusters **heterogeneous** data—such as a name, an ID number, an age, and an address—into a single unit. This contrasts with scientific languages, in which **homogeneous** arrays of numbers are common. Records are an important example of “chunking” data into a single object, and they appear in nearly all modern languages.

SQL

SQL (structured query language) is a language for specifying the organization of **databases** (collections of records). Databases organized with SQL are called relational, because SQL provides the ability to query a database for information that falls in a given relation. For example, a query might be “find all records with both **last name** Smith and city **New York**.” Commercial database programs commonly use an SQL-like language for their queries.

Education-oriented languages

BASIC

BASIC (beginner’s all-purpose symbolic instruction code) was designed at **Dartmouth College** in the mid-1960s by **John Kemeny** and Thomas Kurtz. It was intended to be easy to learn by **novices**, particularly non-computer science majors, and to run well on a **time-sharing computer** with many users. It had simple **data structures** and notation and it was interpreted: a BASIC program was translated line-by-line and executed as it was translated, which made it easy to locate programming errors.

Its small size and simplicity also made BASIC a popular language for early personal computers. Its recent forms have adopted many of the data and control structures of other contemporary languages, which makes it more powerful but less convenient for beginners.

Pascal

About 1970 **Niklaus Wirth** of **Switzerland** designed **Pascal** to teach structured programming, which **emphasized** the orderly use of conditional and loop control structures without **GOTO** statements. Although Pascal resembled **ALGOL** in notation, it provided the ability to define data types with which to organize complex information, a feature beyond the capabilities of ALGOL as well as **FORTRAN** and **COBOL**. User-defined data types allowed the programmer to introduce names for complex data, which the language translator could then check for correct usage before running a program.

During the late 1970s and ’80s, Pascal was one of the most widely used languages for programming instruction. It was available on nearly all computers, and, because of its familiarity, clarity, and security, it was used for production **software** as well as for education.

Logo

Logo originated in the late 1960s as a simplified **LISP dialect** for education; **Seymour Papert** and others used it at MIT to teach mathematical thinking to schoolchildren. It had a more conventional **syntax** than LISP and featured “turtle graphics,” a simple method for generating **computer graphics**. (The name came from an early project to program a turtlelike robot.) Turtle graphics used body-centred instructions, in which an object was moved around a screen by commands, such as “left 90” and “forward,” that specified actions relative to the current position and orientation of the object rather than in terms of a fixed framework. Together with recursive routines, this technique made it easy to program intricate and attractive patterns.

Hypertalk

Hypertalk was designed as “programming for the rest of us” by Bill Atkinson for **Apple’s** Macintosh. Using a simple English-like syntax, Hypertalk enabled anyone to **combine** text, graphics, and audio quickly into “linked stacks” that could be navigated by clicking with a **mouse** on standard buttons supplied by the program. Hypertalk was particularly popular among educators in the 1980s and early ’90s for classroom multimedia presentations. Although Hypertalk had many features of object-oriented languages (described in the next section), Apple did not develop it for other computer platforms and let it languish; as Apple’s market share declined in the 1990s, a new cross-platform way of displaying multimedia left Hypertalk all but obsolete (see the section **World Wide Web display languages**).

Object-oriented languages

Object-oriented languages help to manage complexity in large programs. Objects package data and the operations on them so that only the operations are publicly accessible and internal details of the data structures are hidden. This information hiding made large-scale programming easier by allowing a programmer to think about each part of the program in isolation. In addition, objects may be derived from more general ones, “inheriting” their capabilities. Such an object **hierarchy** made it possible to define specialized objects without repeating all that is in the more general ones.

Object-oriented programming began with the Simula language (1967), which added information hiding to ALGOL. Another influential object-oriented language was Smalltalk (1980), in which a program was a set of objects that interacted by sending messages to one another.

C++

The **C++ language**, developed by Bjarne Stroustrup at AT&T in the mid-1980s, extended C by adding objects to it while preserving the **efficiency** of C programs. It has been one of the most important languages for both education and industrial programming. Large parts of many operating systems were written in C++. C++, along with Java, has become popular for developing commercial software packages that incorporate multiple interrelated applications. C++ is considered one of the fastest languages and is very close to low-level languages, thus allowing complete control over memory allocation and management. This very feature and its many other capabilities also make it one of the most difficult languages to learn and handle on a large scale.

C#

C# (pronounced *C sharp* like the musical note) was developed by Anders Hejlsberg at Microsoft in 2000. C# has a syntax similar to that of C and C++ and is often used for developing games and applications for the **Microsoft Windows operating system**.

Ada

Ada was named for **Augusta Ada King, countess of Lovelace**, who was an assistant to the 19th-century English inventor **Charles Babbage**, and is sometimes called the first computer programmer. Ada, the language, was developed in the early 1980s for the U.S. **Department of Defense** for large-scale programming. It combined Pascal-like notation with the ability to package operations and data into independent modules. Its first form, Ada 83, was not fully object-oriented, but the subsequent Ada 95 provided objects and the ability to construct **hierarchies** of them. While no longer **mandated** for use in work for the Department of Defense, Ada remains an effective language for engineering large programs.

Java

In the early 1990s **Java** was designed by **Sun Microsystems, Inc.**, as a programming language for the **World Wide Web** (WWW). Although it resembled C++ in appearance, it was object-oriented. In particular, Java dispensed with lower-level features, including the ability to manipulate data addresses, a capability that is neither desirable nor useful in programs for distributed systems. In order to be portable, Java programs are translated by a Java Virtual Machine specific to each computer platform, which then executes the Java program. In addition to adding interactive **capabilities** to the **Internet** through Web “applets,” Java has been widely used for programming small and portable devices, such as mobile **telephones**.

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