22c:111 Programming Language Concepts

Fall 2008

Introduction and Overview

Copyright 2007-08, The McGraw-Hill Company and Cesare Tinelli.

These notes were originally developed by Allen Tucker, Robert Noonan and modified by Cesare Tinelli. They are copyrighted materials and may not be used in other course settings outside of the University of Iowa in their current form or modified form without the express written permission of one of the copyright holders. During this course, students are prohibited from selling notes to or being paid for taking notes by any person or commercial firm without the express written permission.

Contents

- 1.1 Principles
- 1.2 Paradigms
- **1.3 Special Topics**
- 1.4 A Brief History
- 1.5 On Language Design
 - 1.5.1 Design Constraints
 - 1.5.2 Outcomes and Goals
- **1.6 Compilers and Virtual Machines**

1.1 Principles

Programming languages have four properties:

- Syntax
- Names
- Types
- Semantics

For any language:

- Its designers must define these properties
- Its programmers must master these properties

Syntax

The *syntax* of a programming language is a precise description of all its grammatically correct programs.When studying syntax, we ask questions like:

- What is the grammar for the language?
- What is the basic vocabulary?
- *How are syntax errors detected?*

Names

Various kinds of entities in a program have names: *variables, types, functions, parameters, classes, objects, ...*Named entities are bound in a running program to:

- Scope
- Visibility
- Туре
- Lifetime

Types

A *type* is a collection of values and a collection of operations on those values.

• Simple types

– numbers, characters, booleans, ...

• Structured types

- Strings, lists, trees, hash tables, ...

- A language's *type system* can help to:
 - Determine legal operations
 - Detect type errors
 - Optimize certain operations

Semantics

The meaning of a program is called its *semantics*. In studying semantics, we ask questions like:

- When a program is running, what happens to the values of the variables?
- What does each statement mean?
- What underlying model governs run-time behavior, such as function call?
- *How are objects allocated to memory at run-time?*

1.2 Paradigms

A programming *paradigm* is a pattern of problemsolving thought that underlies a particular genre of programs and languages.

There are several main programming paradigms:

- Imperative
- Object-oriented
- Functional
- Logic
- Dataflow

Focus of this course

Imperative Paradigm

Follows the classic von Neumann-Eckert model:

- Program and data are indistinguishable in memory
- *Program* = *sequence of commands modifying current state*
- State = values of all variables when program runs
- Large programs use procedural abstraction

Example imperative languages:

– Cobol, Fortran, C, Ada, Perl, ...

The von Neumann-Eckert Model

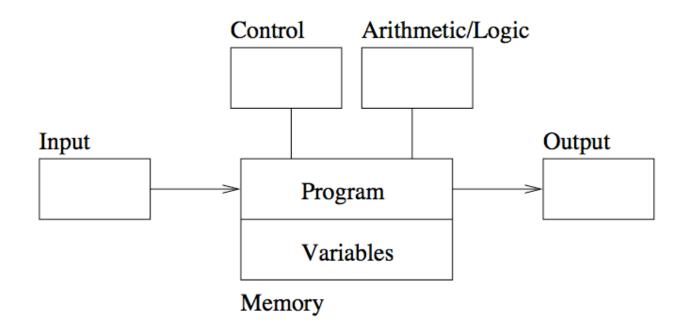


Figure 1.1: The von Neumann-Eckert Computer Model

Object-oriented (OO) Paradigm

An OO Program is a collection of objects that interact by passing messages that transform the state.

When studying OO, we learn about:

- Encapsulated State
- Sending Messages
- Inheritance
- Subtype Polymorphism

Example OO languages:

Smalltalk, Java, C++, C#, and Python

Functional Paradigm

Functional programming models a computation as a collection of mathematical functions.

- Input = domain
- *Output* = *range*

Functional languages are characterized by:

- Functional composition
- Recursion

Example functional languages:

- Lisp, Scheme, ML, Haskell, OCaml,...

Functional Paradigm

Functional programming models a computation as a collection of mathematical functions.

- Input = domain
- *Output* = *range*

Notable features of modern functional languages:

- Functions as values
- Symbolic data types
- Pattern matching
- Sophisticated type system and module system

Logic Paradigm

Logic programming declares what outcome the program should accomplish, rather than how it should be accomplished.

When studying logic programming we see:

- Programs as sets of constraints on a problem
- Programs that achieve all possible solutions
- *Programs that are nondeterministic*

Example logic programming languages:

- Prolog

1.3 Special Topics

- Event handling
 - E.g., GUIs, home security systems
- Concurrency
 - E.g., Client-server programs
- Correctness
 - How can we prove that a program does what it is supposed to do under all circumstances?
 - Why is this important?

1.4 A Brief History

How and when did programming languages evolve? What communities have developed and used them?

- Artificial Intelligence
- Computer Science Education
- Science and Engineering
- Information Systems
- Systems and Networks
- World Wide Web

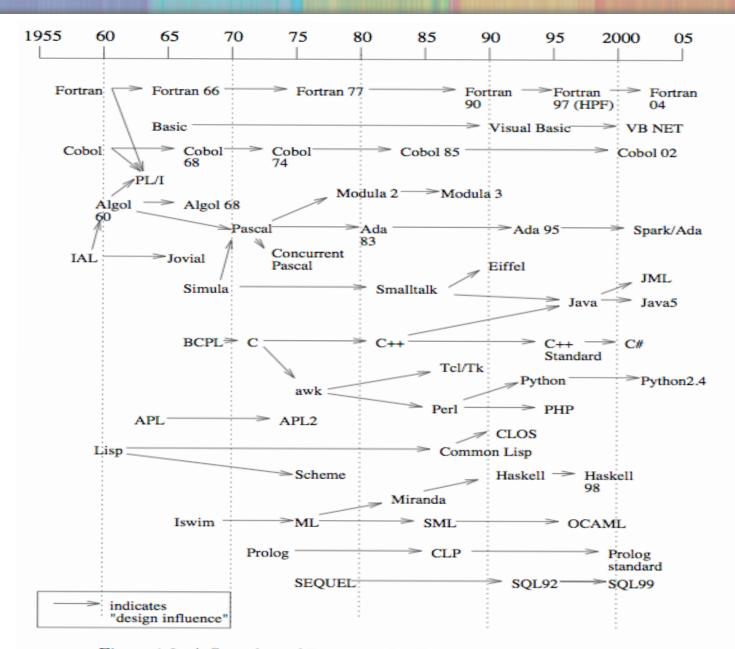


Figure 1.2: A Snapshot of Programming Language History

1.5 On Language Design

Design Constraints

- *Computer architecture*
- Technical setting
- Standards
- Legacy systems

Design Outcomes and Goals

What makes a successful language?

Key characteristics:

- *Simplicity and readability*
- Clarity about binding
- Reliability
- Support
- Abstraction
- Orthogonality
- Efficient implementation

Simplicity and Readability

- Small instruction set
 - E.g., Java vs Scheme
- Simple syntax
 - E.g., C/C++/Java vs Python
- Benefits:
 - Ease of learning
 - Ease of programming

Clarity about Binding

A language element is bound to a property at the time that property is defined for it.

So a *binding* is the association between an object and a property of that object

- Examples:
 - a variable and its type
 - a variable and its value
- *Early binding* takes place at compile-time
- Late binding takes place at run time

Reliability

A language is *reliable* if:

- Program behavior is the same on different platforms
 - E.g., early versions of Fortran
- Type errors are detected
 - E.g., C vs Haskell
- Semantic errors are properly trapped
 - E.g., C vs C++
- Memory leaks are prevented
 - E.g., C vs Java

Language Support

- Accessible (public domain) compilers/interpreters
- Good texts and tutorials
- Wide community of users
- Integrated with development environments (IDEs)

Abstraction in Programming

- Data
 - Programmer-defined types/classes
 - Class libraries
- Procedural
 - Programmer-defined functions
 - Standard function libraries

Orthogonality

- A language is *orthogonal* if its features are built upon a small, mutually independent set of primitive operations.
- Fewer exceptional rules = conceptual simplicity
 E.g., restricting types of arguments to a function
- Tradeoffs with efficiency

Efficient implementation

- Embedded systems
 - *Real-time responsiveness (e.g., navigation)*
 - Failures of early Ada implementations
- Web applications
 - Responsiveness to users (e.g., Google search)
- Corporate database applications
 - Efficient search and updating
- AI applications
 - Modeling human behaviors

1.6 Compilers and Virtual Machines

Compiler – produces machine code

Interpreter – executes instructions on a virtual machine

- Example compiled languages:
 - Fortran, Cobol, C, C++
- Example interpreted languages:
 - Scheme, Haskell, Python
- Hybrid compilation/interpretation
 - The Java Virtual Machine (JVM)
 - OCaml

The Compiling Process

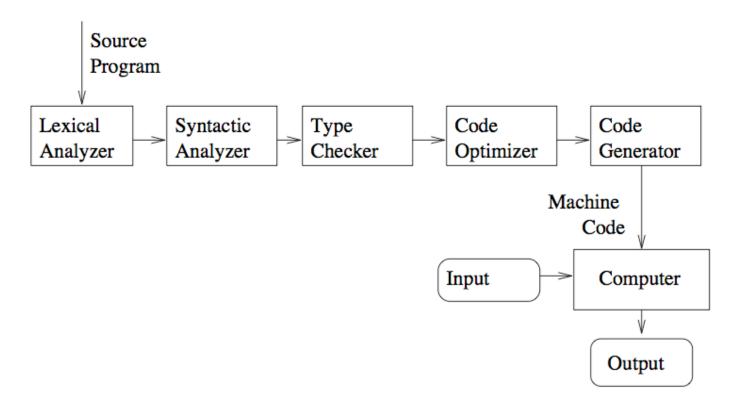


Figure 1.4: The Compile-and-Run Process

The Interpreting Process

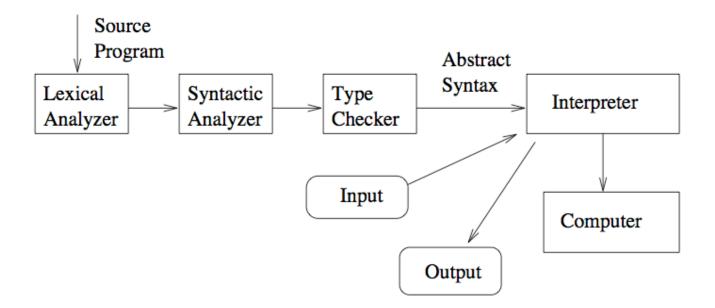


Figure 1.5: Virtual Machines and Interpreters

Discussion Questions

1. Comment on the following quotation:

It is practically impossible to teach good programming to students that have had a prior exposure to BASIC; as potential programmers they are mentally mutilated beyond hope of regeneration. - E. Dijkstra

2. Give an example statement in your favorite language that is particularly unreadable. E.g., what does the C expression while (*p++ = *q++) mean?