

# Programming Paradigms

## Unit 1 — Introduction and Basic Concepts

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# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Basics of Programming Languages

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## 1 Introduction

## 2 Basics of Programming Languages

# Programming Languages and HCI

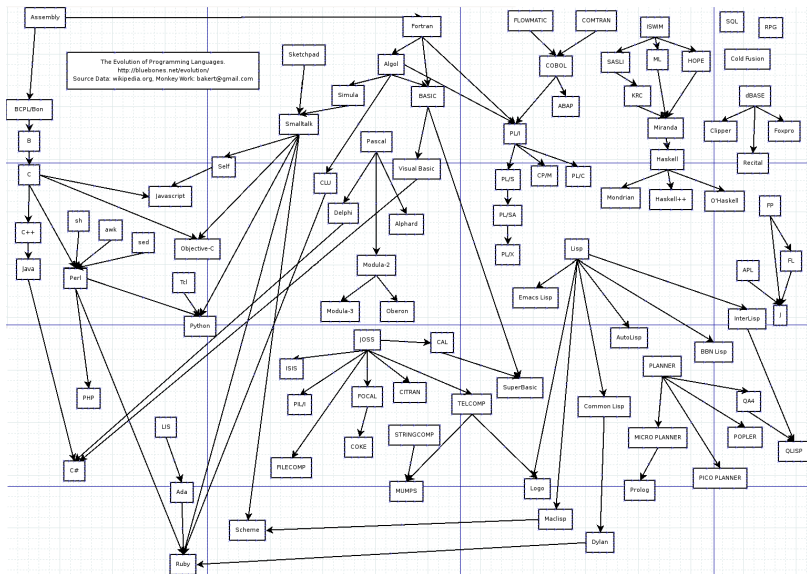
- A **programming language** is an **artificial language** designed to communicate instructions to a machine, e.g., computer
- The earliest programming languages preceded the invention of the computer
  - e.g., used to direct the behavior of machines such as Jacquard looms and player pianos.
- *“Programming languages are the **least usable, but most powerful** **human-computer interfaces** ever invented”*  
Any Ko, <http://bit.ly/1iVxF3A>
  - The difference between a programming language and a GUI comes down to just a few key differences



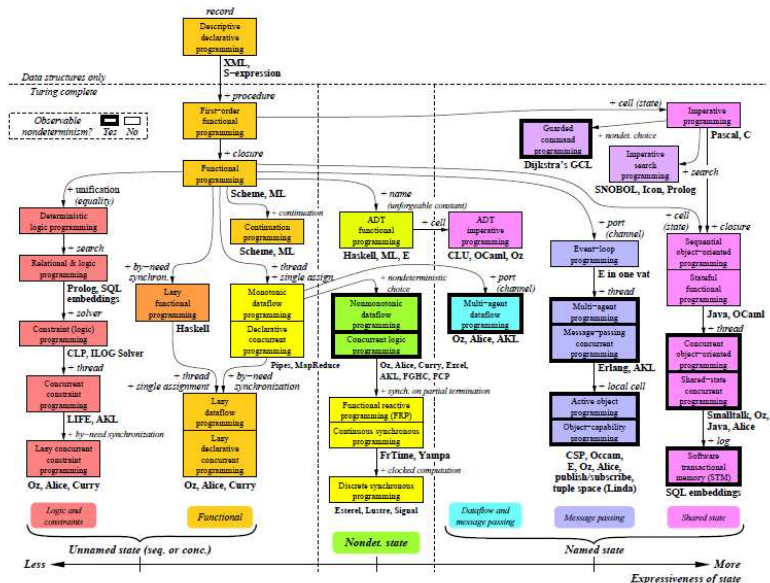
# How Many Programming Languages Exist?/1

- There are **thousands of programming languages**
  - The encyclopaedia britannica mentions over 2,000 computer languages
  - As of May 2006 Diarmuid Pigott's Encyclopedia of Computer Languages hosted at Murdoch University, Australia lists over 8,000 computer languages
  - Still many new ones are created every year
  - (there are approximately 7,000 current human languages)
- Few languages ever become sufficiently popular that they are used by more than a few people
- But professional programmers may use dozens of languages in a career

# How Many Programming Languages Exist?/2



# How Many Programming Languages Exist?/3



# Programming Languages and Abstraction

- Programming languages provide an **abstraction** from a computer's instruction set architecture
- **Low-level programming languages** provide little or no abstraction, e.g., machine code and assembly language
  - Difficult to use
  - Allows to program efficiently and with a low memory footprint
- **High-level programming languages** isolate the execution semantics of a computer architecture from the specification of the program
  - Simplifies program development

## Machine code

```
8B542408 83FA0077 06B80000 0000C383
C9010000 008D0419 83FA0376 078BD98B
B84AEBF1 5BC3
```

## Assembly language

```
mov edx, [esp+8]
cmp edx, 0
ja @f
mov eax, 0
ret
```

## High-level language

```
unsigned int fib(unsigned int n) {
    if (n <= 0)
        return 0;
    else if (n <= 2)
        return 1;
    else
        ...
}
```



# Programming Paradigms/1

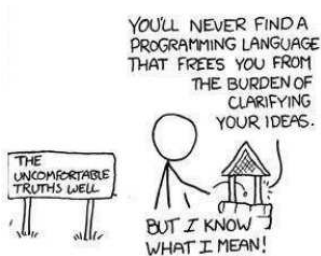
- Programming languages can be categorized into **programming paradigms**
- Meaning of the word '**paradigm**'
  - *"An example that serves as pattern or model"*  
The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language
  - *"**Paradigms** emerge as the result of social processes in which people develop ideas and create principles and practices that embody those ideas"*  
Thomas Kuhn, "The Structure of Scientific Revolutions"
- Programming paradigms are the result of people's ideas about how computer programs should be constructed
  - Patterns that serves as a "**school of thoughts**" for programming of computers

# Programming Paradigms/2

Language	Intended use	Paradigm(s)	Standardized?
ActionScript 3.0	Application, client-side, Web	event-driven, imperative, object-oriented	1996, ECMA
Ada	Application, embedded, realtime, system	concurrent, <sup>[2]</sup> distributed, <sup>[3]</sup> generic, <sup>[4]</sup> imperative object-oriented, <sup>[5]</sup> procedural, <sup>[6]</sup>	1983, ANSI, ISO, GOST 27831-88 <sup>[7]</sup>
Aldor	Highly domain-specific, symbolic computing	imperative, functional, object-oriented	No
ALGOL 58	Application	imperative	No
ALGOL 60	Application	imperative	1960, IFIP WG 2.1, ISO <sup>[8]</sup>
ALGOL 68	Application	concurrent, imperative	1968, IFIP WG 2.1, GOST 27974-88, <sup>[9]</sup>
Ateji PX	Parallel application	object-oriented, pi calculus	No
APL	Application, data processing	array-oriented, tacit	1989, ISO
Assembly language	General	any, imperative	No
AutoHotkey	GUI automation (macros), highly domain-specific	imperative	No
Autolt	GUI automation (macros), highly domain-specific	event-driven, imperative, procedural	No
BASIC	Application, education	imperative, procedural	1983, ANSI <sup>†</sup> , ISO
BBj	Application, business, Web	object-oriented, procedural	No
BeanShell	Application, scripting	functional, imperative, object-oriented, reflective	In progress, JCP <sup>[10]</sup>
BLISS	System	procedural	No
BlitzMax	Application, game	imperative, object-oriented, procedural	No
Boo	Application		No
C	System <sup>[11]</sup>	imperative, procedural	1989, ANSI C89, ISO C90/C99
C++	Application, system	generic, imperative, object-oriented, procedural	2011, ISO
C#	Application, business, client-side, general, server-side, Web	functional <sup>[12]</sup> generic, imperative, object-oriented, reflective	2000, ECMA, ISO <sup>[13]</sup>
Clarion	General, business, Web	functional <sup>[14]</sup> imperative, object-oriented	Unknown
Clean	General	functional, generic	No

# Programming Paradigms/3

- Once you have understood the **general concepts** of programming paradigms, it becomes easier to learn new programming languages
- However, this does not mean that by just picking the right paradigm all problems vanish into thin air



- Or put more elegantly:

*"There does not now, nor will there ever exist, a programming language in which it is the least bit hard to write bad programs."*

*L. Flon*

# Principal Programming Paradigms

- Imperative / Procedural
- Functional
- Object-Oriented
- Concurrent
- Logic
- Scripting
- In reality, very few languages are “pure”
  - Most combine features of different paradigms

# Brief Overview of the Course Content

- Brief recapitulation
  - Elements of programming languages
  - Imperative/procedural paradigm
- Paradigms and languages
  - Object-oriented: Ruby
  - Logic programming: Prolog
  - Functional: Haskell
  - Concurrent: Erlang
- We will highlight strengths and weaknesses of each paradigm
- This will be done in a practical way using concrete languages:

*“Learning to program is like learning to swim. No amount of theory is a substitute for diving into the pool.”*

*Joe Armstrong*

# Books/Literature

- The main book used for this lecture is
  - Bruce A. Tate: Seven Languages in Seven Weeks, Pragmatic Bookshelf, 2010
- Additional material taken from
  - Maurizio Gabrielli, Simone Martini: Programming Languages: Principles and Paradigms, Springer, 2010 (also available in Italian)
  - Allen B. Tucker, Robert E. Noonan: Programming Languages – Principles and Paradigms (2nd ed.), McGraw-Hill, 2007

# Outline

1 Introduction

**2 Basics of Programming Languages**

# Elements of Programming Languages

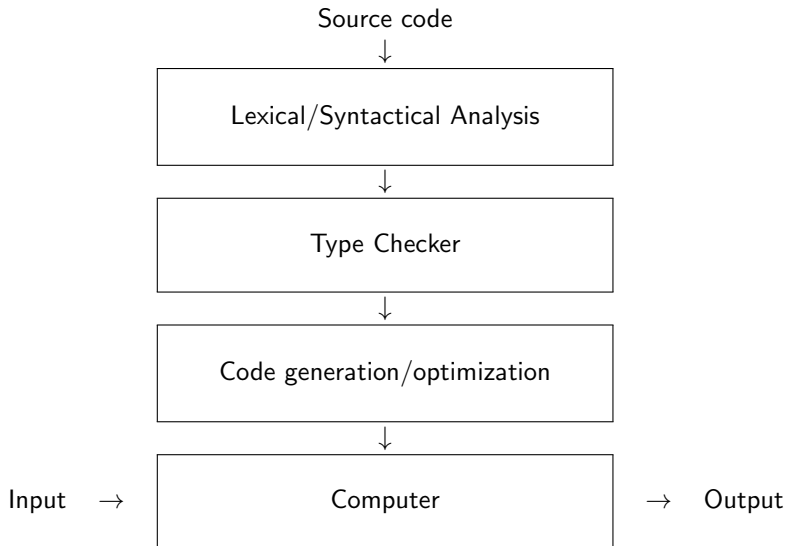
- Programming languages have many similarities with natural languages
  - e.g., they conform to rules for syntax and semantics, there are many dialects, etc.
- We are going to have a quick look at the following concepts
  - Compiled/Interpreted
  - Syntax
  - Semantics
  - Typing



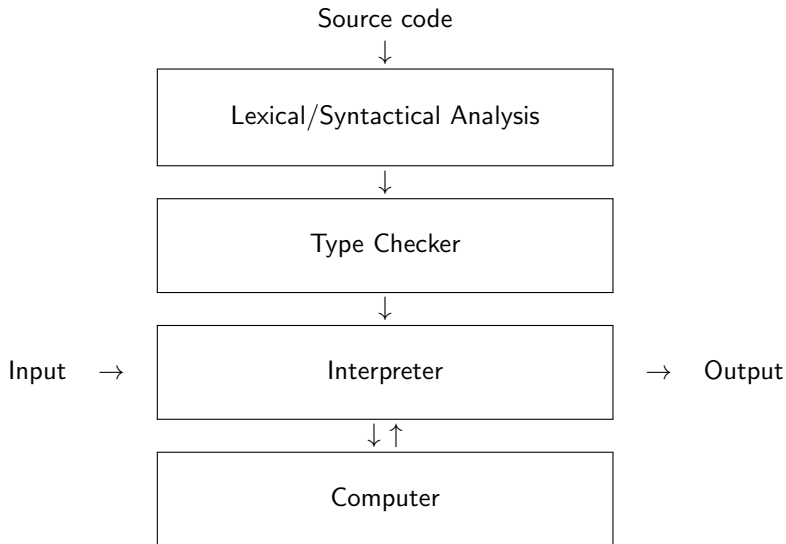
# Compiled vs. Interpreted Languages

- **Compiled languages** are translated into machine code that can be run directly on a computer's processor
  - Usually the whole program is translated before it is run
- **Interpreted languages** are processed by a higher-level virtual machine
  - Usually a program is translated on the fly, i.e., a statement is translated and then immediately executed

# Compiled Languages



# Interpreted Languages



# Syntax/1

- The **syntax** of a language describes how well-formed expressions should look like
  - This includes putting together symbols to form valid **tokens**
  - As well as stringing together tokens to form valid **expressions**
- For example, the following (English) sentence is not correct:

*“Furiously slqxp ideas grn colorless.”*
- In contrast, the sentence

*“Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.”*

is syntactically correct (but it does not make any sense).

## Syntax/2

- The syntax of a programming language is usually described by a formalism called **grammar**
- The following very simple grammar recognizes arithmetic expressions

```
<exp> ::= <exp> "+" <exp>
<exp> ::= <exp> "*" <exp>
<exp> ::= "(" <exp> ")"
<exp> ::= "a"
<exp> ::= "b"
<exp> ::= "c"
```
- A program in this language is the product or the sum of 'a', 'b' and 'c'
  - e.g.,  $a * (b + c)$
- More details on this in the Compiler module

# Semantics

- **Semantics** is concerned with the meaning of (programming) languages
  - Usually much more difficult to define than syntax
- A programmer should be able to anticipate what will happen **before** actually running a program
- An accurate description of the **meaning of language constructs** is needed
- There are different ways of describing semantics of programming languages
- Main approaches are:
  - Operational semantics
  - Axiomatic semantics
  - Denotational semantics

# Operational Semantics

- In **operational semantics** the behavior is formally defined by an interpreter
  - This can be an abstract machine, a formal automaton, a transition system, etc.
  - In the extreme case, a specific implementation on a certain machine (1950s: first version of Fortran on an IBM 709)

# Axiomatic Semantics

- **Axiomatic semantics** uses logical inference to define a language
- An example is **Hoare logic** (named after the British computer scientist and logician C. A. R. Hoare)
  - Hoare triple:  $\{P\}C\{Q\}$ ;
    - Describes how the execution of a piece of code changes the state of the computation
    - If precondition  $P$  is true, then the execution of command  $C$  will lead to postcondition  $Q$
  - Hoare logic provides **axioms and inference rules for all constructs** of a simple imperative programming language
  - Some examples of rules:
    - An axiomatic rule: 
$$\frac{}{\{P\} \text{ skip } \{P\}}$$
    - Composition rule: 
$$\frac{\{P\}S\{Q\}, \{Q\}T\{R\}}{\{P\}S;T\{R\}}$$



# Denotational Semantics

- **Denotational semantics** defines the meaning of each phrase by translating it into a phrase in another language
  - Clearly, assumes that we know the semantics of this target language
- Target language is often a mathematical formalism

# Typing

- A programming language needs to organize data in some way
- The constructs and mechanisms to do this are called **type system**
- Types help in
  - designing programs
  - checking correctness
  - determining storage requirements

# Type System

- The **type system** of a language usually includes
  - a set of **predefined data types**, e.g., integer, string
  - a mechanism to create **new types**, e.g., typedef
  - mechanisms for **controlling types**:
    - equivalence rules: when are two types the same?
    - compatibility rules: when can one type be substituted for another?
    - inference rules: how is a type assigned to a complex expression?
  - rules for checking types, e.g., static vs. dynamic

# Data Types

- A language is **typed** if it specifies for every operation to which data it can be applied
- Languages such as assembly or machine languages can be **untyped**
  - Assembly language: all data is represented by bitstrings (to which all operations can be applied)
- Languages such as markup or scripting languages can have very few types
  - XML with DTDs: elements can contain other elements or parsed character data (`#PCDATA`)

# Strong and Weak Typing

- There is a distinction between **weak typing** and **strong typing**
- In **strongly typed languages**, applying the wrong operation to typed data will raise an error
  - Languages supporting strong typing are also called **type-safe**
- **Weakly typed languages** perform implicit type conversion if data do not perfectly match, i.e., one type can be interpreted as another
  - e.g., the string “3.4028E+12” representing a number might be treated as a number
  - May produce unpredictable results

# Type Casting

- In some languages it is possible to bypass implicit type conversion done by the compiler
- **Type casting** is an explicit type conversion defined within a program

- Example of type casting

```
double da = 3.3;
```

```
double db = 3.3;
```

```
double dc = 3.4;
```

```
int result1 = (int)da + (int)db + (int)dc; //result == 9
```

- Implicit type conversion gives a different result (conversion is after addition)

```
int result2 = da + db + dc; //result == 10
```

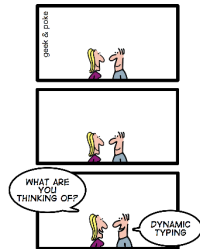


# Static vs. Dynamic Type Checking/1

- We also distinguish between languages depending on **when** they check typing constraints
- In **static typing** we check the types and their constraints **before** executing the program
  - Can be done during the compilation of a program
- When using **dynamic typing**, we check the typing **during** program execution

# Static vs. Dynamic Type Checking/2

- Although some people feel quite strongly about this, each approach has pros and cons
- Static typing:
  - + less error-prone
  - sometimes too restrictive
- Dynamic typing:
  - + more flexible
  - harder to debug (if things go wrong)





# Summary

- Programming languages are **artificial languages** designed to communicate with computers
  - Provide **most powerful** human-computer interface
- There are **thousands** of different languages, which are more or less appropriate for different problems
- Can be classified according to **programming paradigms** and **abstraction level**
- There are many similarities to natural languages, e.g., syntax, semantics
  - **Syntax** determines whether a program is well-formed
  - **Semantic** determines the meaning of language concepts/programs, and can be defined in different ways (operational, axiomatic, denotational semantics)
- **Type system** in a programming language is needed to **organize data** and helps to **check the correctness** of programs
- Different forms of **type checking**, all having pros and cons
  - Weak typing vs. strong typing
  - Static vs. dynamic type checking
  - Type casting