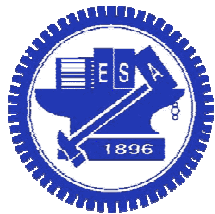


# Programming Languages



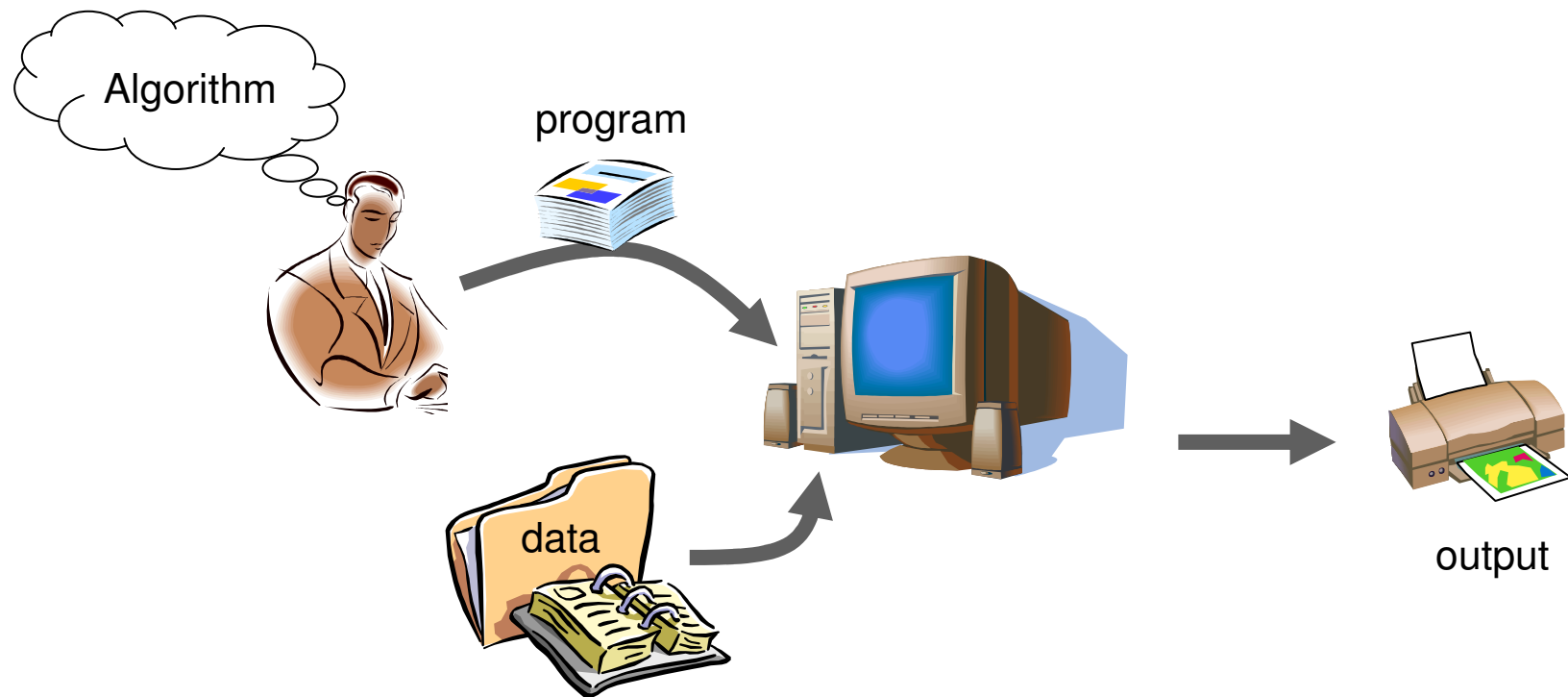
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05/4/2012

# Programming Language

- Programming Language (PL) is a language that can “precisely describe” an algorithm to a computer so that it can execute the algorithm:



# Design Considerations

---

- ❑ There are two extremes in designing a PL:
  - Use human language
  - Use machine code
- ❑ Human languages as programming languages
  - Imprecise
  - Inefficient (for computer as well as human)
  - Easy to use
  - Hard to debug
- ❑ Machine instruction code as programming languages
  - Precise
  - Efficient for computers
  - Verbose to use
  - Hard to debug

# Assembly Language

---

- ❑ Since machine codes are too hard to remember, each processor manufacture designs an “easy-to-remember” names for each op-code
- ❑ Assembly language – a mnemonic system for representing machine instruction codes
  - Mnemonic names for op-codes
  - Names for all registers
  - Identifiers: descriptive names for memory locations, chosen by the programmers
- ❑ Assembly language is referred to as the 2<sup>nd</sup> generation of programming language

# Assembly Language Characteristics

---

- ❑ One-to-one correspondence between machine instructions and assembly instructions
  - Programmer must think like the machine
- ❑ Inherently machine-dependent
- ❑ Before execution by a computer, we must translate a machine language program into machine codes by an assembler

# Assembly Language Example

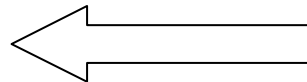
Machine language program

```
156C
166D
5056
30CE
C000
```

Assembly language program

```
LD    R5, [Price]
LD    R6, [ShippingCharge]
ADDI  R0, R5 R6
ST    R0, [TotalCost]
HLT
;
ORG   6Ch
Price                db 25
ShippingCharge       db 5
TotalCost            db 00
```

assembler



**Definition of mnemonics:**

LD	means "load"
ADDI	means "Integer addition"
ST	means "store"
HLT	means "halt"
ORG	means "origin"
db	means "define byte"

# Third Generation Languages

---

- ❑ Uses high-level primitives
- ❑ Machine independent (mostly)
- ❑ Early examples:
  - FORTRAN – for numerical computations
  - COBOL – for financial computations and database systems
- ❑ Each primitive corresponds to a short sequence of machine instruction codes
- ❑ Can be translated into machine codes by a ***compiler***

# Language Translators

---

- ❑ There are several kinds of programming language translators
  - Assemblers
    - perform one-to-one mapping from assembly code to machine code
  - Compilers
    - perform translation from *a high-level (machine-independent) statement* to an equivalent *short sequence of machine codes*
  - Interpreters
    - perform translation and execution of high-level statements at the same time; note that there is no intermediate machine code being generated

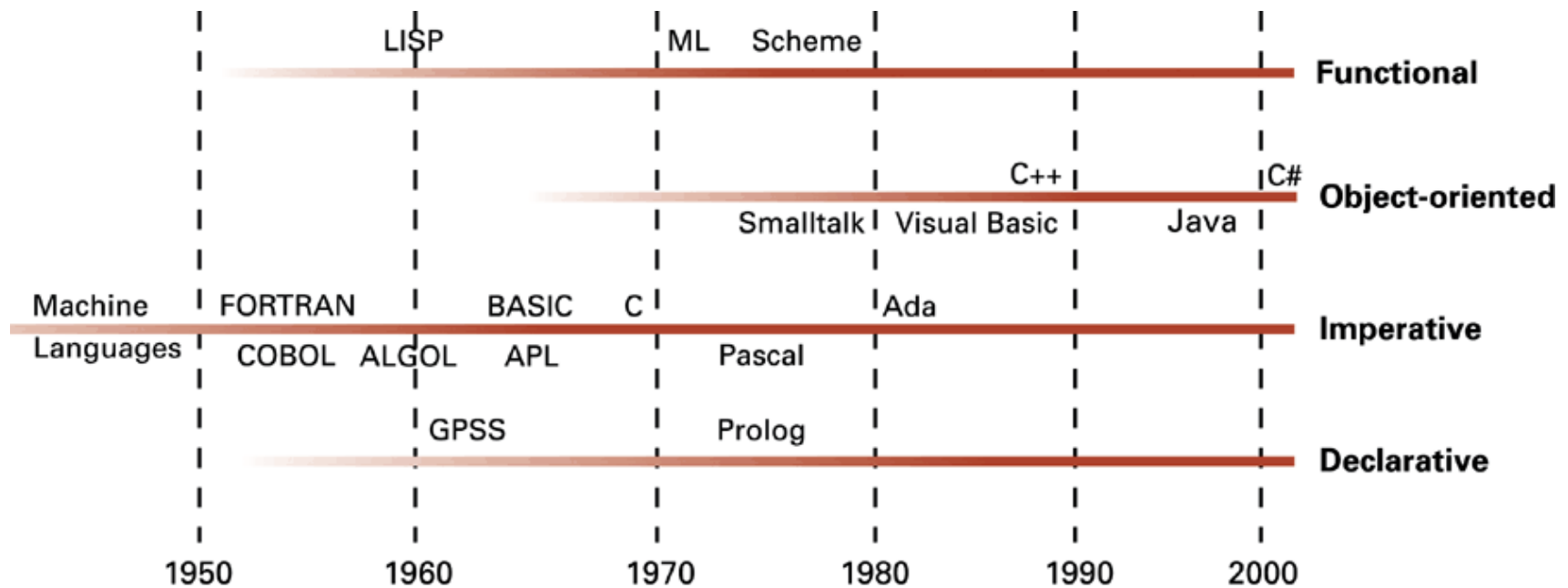


# Formal Languages

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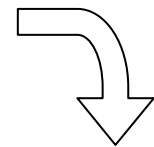
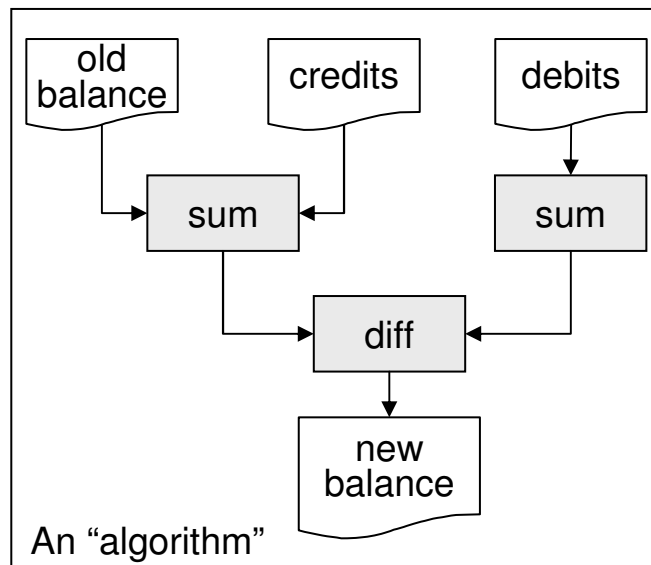
- ❑ Programming languages are “formal languages” since they are artificial languages defined precisely by grammars
- ❑ Natural (human) languages are not precisely defined by grammars, instead, grammars are created afterwards to “summarize” the language usage
  - Esperanto is an “formal” human language artificially developed in late 1870s.

# Timeline of Programming Languages



# Programming Paradigms (1/2)

- ❑ Imperative (procedural) programming language
  - A program is a sequence of commands
  - Earliest way of programming
- ❑ Functional programming language
  - A program is a description of a data flow (connections of functional units)



A program in LISP programming language:

```
(diff (sum old_balance credits) (sum debits))
```

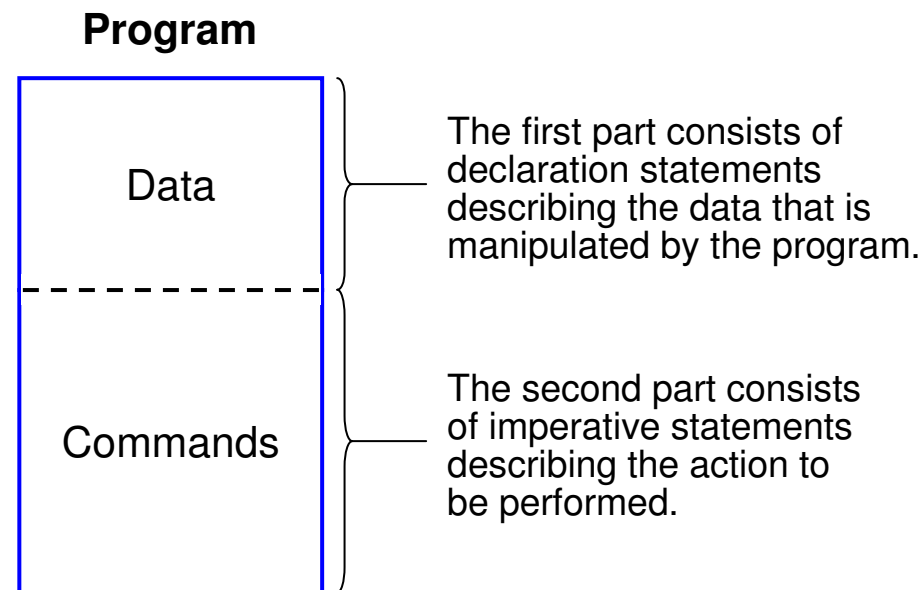
# Programming Paradigms (2/2)

---

- ❑ Declarative programming language
  - Describes conditions that satisfy the intended solution; the specific steps needed to arrive at that solution are up to an unspecified interpreter
  - Only works for a specific domain of problems (e.g. for knowledge-based inference)
- ❑ Object-oriented programming language
  - A “data-centric” programming language
  - Operations are attached to data
  - A program is composed of a list of objects, each annotated by a list of permissible operations of that object

# Imperative Programming Language

- ❑ The imperative programming paradigm is the most intuitive and effective way of expressing our commands to computers



# Example of Data Declaration

❑ Variable (data) declarations in C, C++, C#, and Java are as follows:

■ Scalar data declaration:

```
float Length, Width;  
int Price, Tax, Total;  
char Symbol;
```

■ Aggregate data declarations:

```
int Scores[2][9];
```

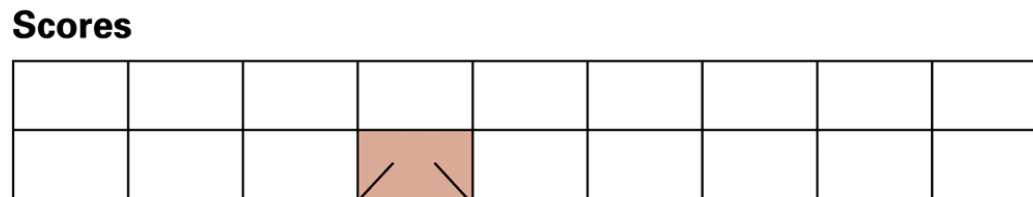
⇒ array

```
Struct {  
    char Name[8];  
    int Age;  
    float SkillRating;  
} Employee;
```

⇒ structure (heterogeneous array)

# Memory Layout of Aggregate Data

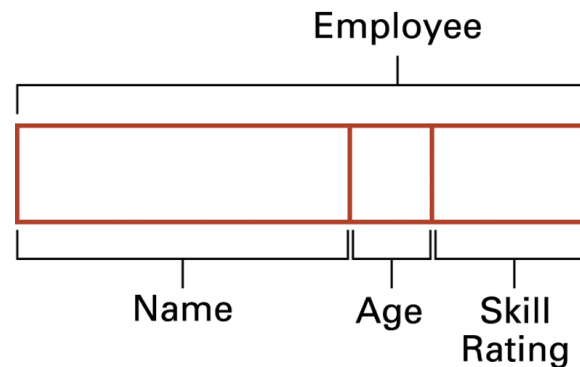
- ❑ A two-dimensional array with two rows and nine columns:



Scores (2, 4) in FORTRAN where indices start at one.

Scores [1][3] in C and its derivatives where indices start at zero.

- ❑ A structure:



# Elements of an Imperative PL

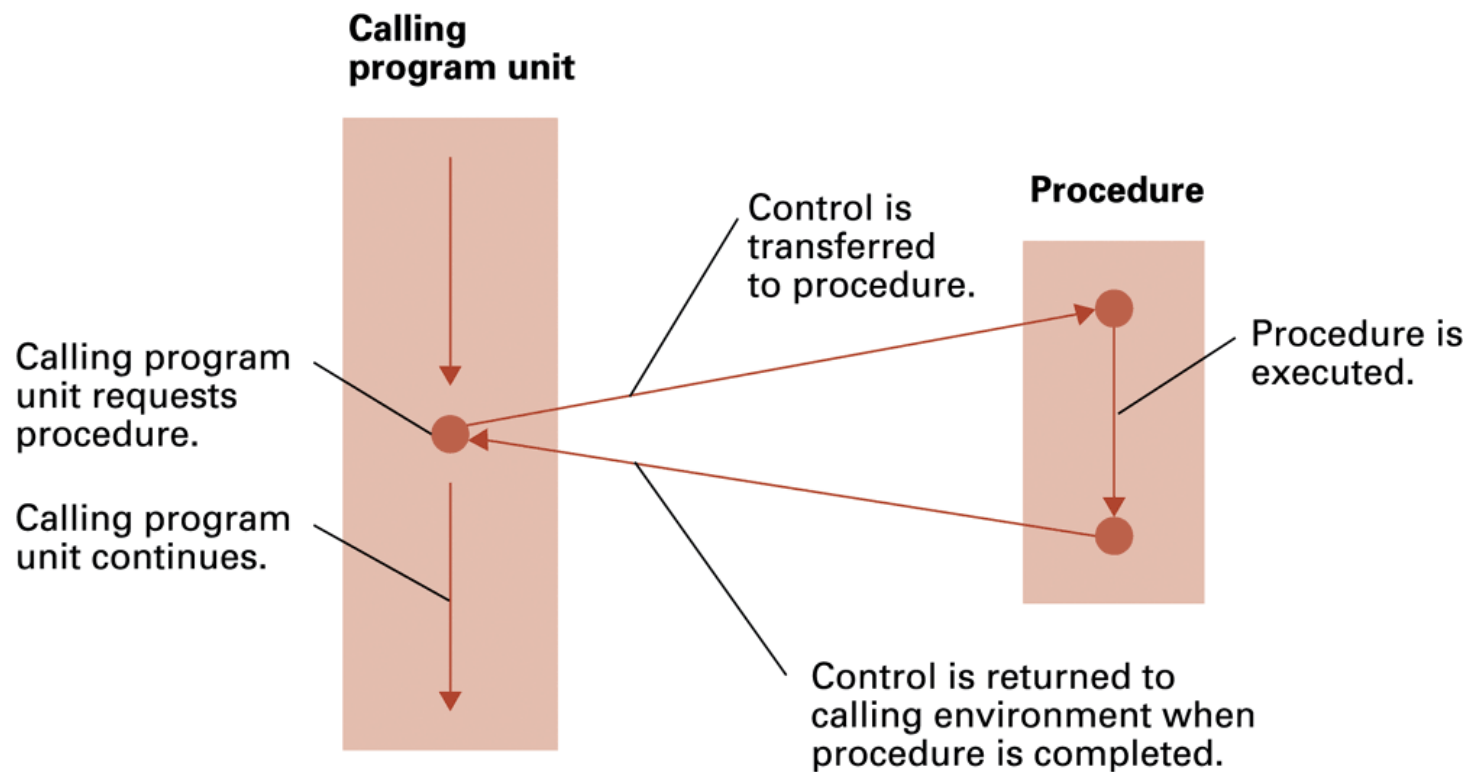
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- ❑ An imperative programming language provides statements to:
  - Express constants and literals
  - Assign values to variables
  - Control the execution sequence of the program
    - Conditional control
    - Looping control
  - Commenting the program
  - Call procedural units



# Procedural Calls (1/2)

- Procedural calls for imperative languages:



# Procedural Calls (2/2)

## □ Description of a procedure in C:

Starting the head with the term "void" is the way that a C programmer specifies that the program unit is a procedure rather than a function. We will learn about functions shortly.

The formal parameter list. Note that C, as with many programming languages, requires that the data type of each parameter be specified.

```
void ProjectPopulation (float GrowthRate)
```

```
{ int Year;
```

This declares a local variable named Year.

```
Population[0] = 100.0;  
for (Year = 0; Year <= 10; Year++)  
Population[Year+1] = Population[Year] + (Population[Year] * GrowthRate);  
}
```

These statements describe how the populations are to be computed and stored in the global array named Population.

# Parameter Passing Methods

- ❑ There are several ways to pass a parameter from the calling program unit to the called procedure:
  - Call-by-value (passed by value in the textbook)
  - Call-by-reference (passed by reference in the textbook)
  - Call-by-name
    - not mentioned in the textbook, and not popular anymore
    - similar to macro expansion in C/C++, but it's a real function call

```
int x = 1, y = 2;  
  
my_func()  
{  
    f1(x, x+y);  
}  
  
f1(p, q)  
{  
    int s;  
    p = q;  
    s = q;  
}
```

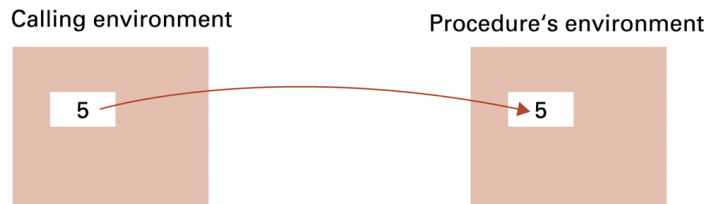
This is equal to  $x = x+y$ ;  
and 3 will be assigned to **p** and **x**.

Here, 5 will be assigned to **s**.

# Call by Value & Call by Reference

## □ Call by value

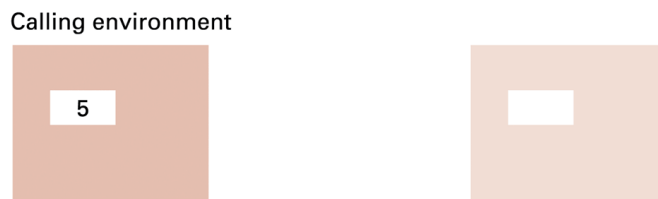
a. When the procedure is called, a copy of the data is given to the procedure



b. and the procedure manipulates its copy.

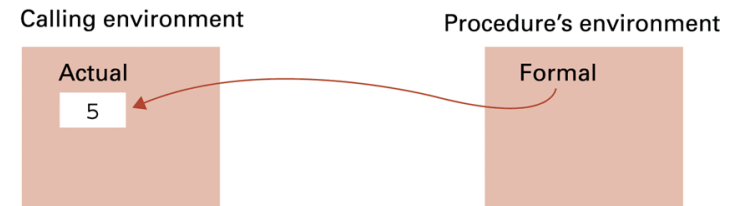


c. Thus, when the procedure has terminated, the calling environment has not been changed.

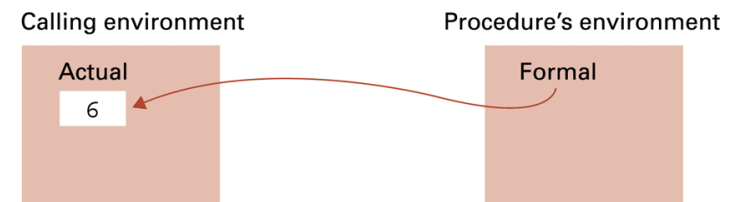


## □ Call by reference

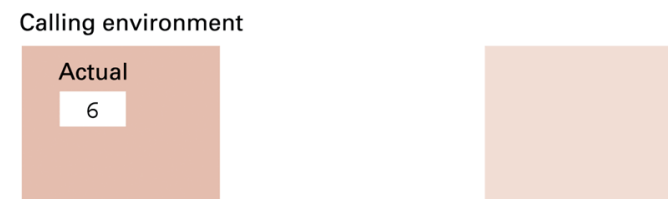
a. When the procedure is called, the formal parameter becomes a reference to the actual parameter.



b. Thus, changes directed by the procedure are made to the actual parameter

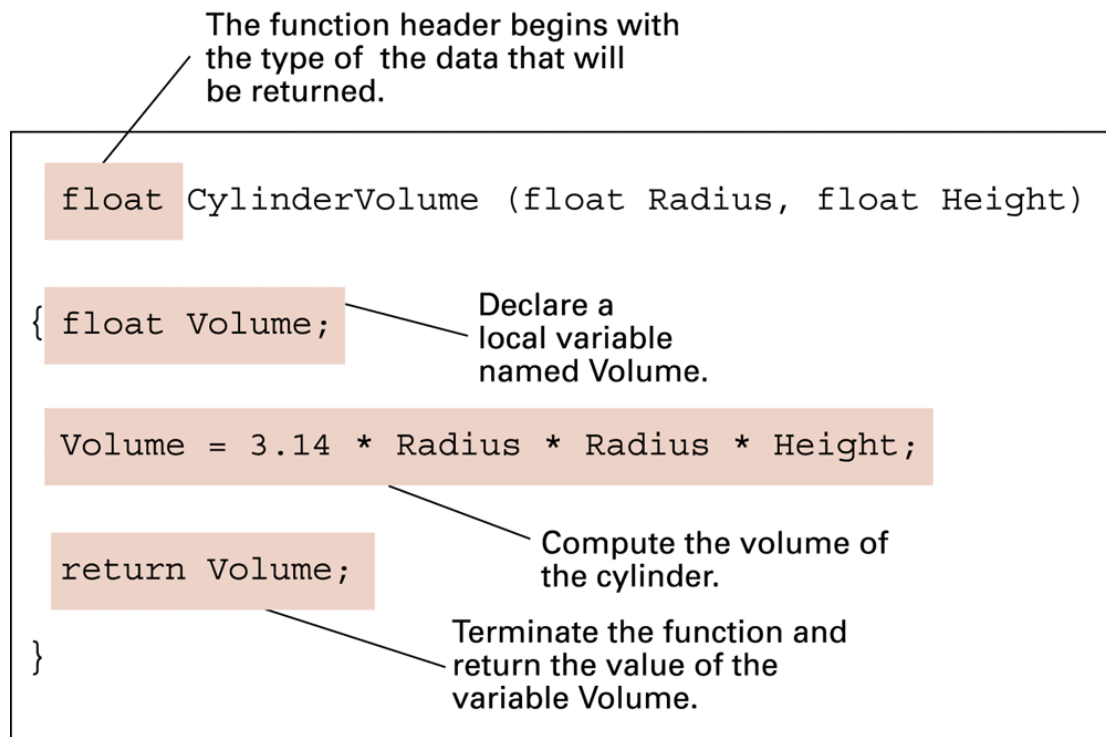


c. and are, therefore, preserved after the procedure has terminated.



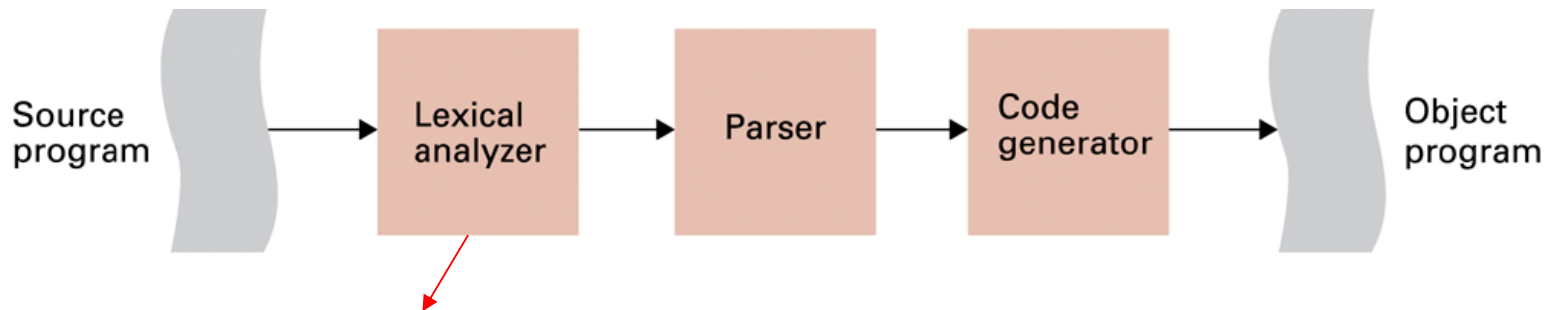
# Function Calls

- ❑ A function is a special type of procedure that returns a value:



# Translating Program to Executable

- ❑ A compiler translates a program into machine codes via the following steps:



Lexical analyzer converts alpha-numerical symbols in the source program to tokens; for example, if each token is specified by a 16-bit number, a lexical analyzer may perform the following conversion:

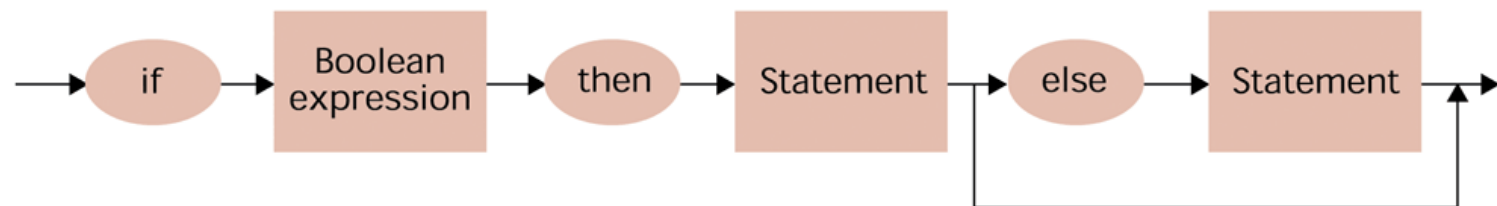
`position = x_coord + y_coord * 7` → 0003 1001 0001 1002 0002 1003 2001

The first byte specifies the type of token,  
0 – variables, 1 – operators, 2 – constants

The remaining bytes compose an  
index to the token value tables

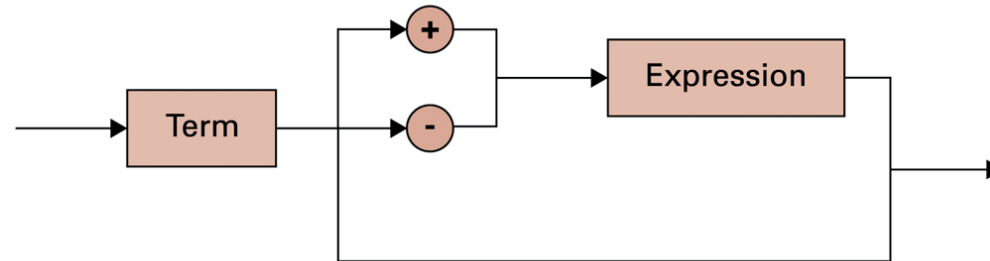
# Syntax Diagram

- ❑ The parsing process is based on a set of rules that define the syntax of the programming language
  - The rules are called grammar
  - The rules can be expressed by syntax diagrams
- ❑ A syntax diagram of the “if-then-else” statement is as follows:

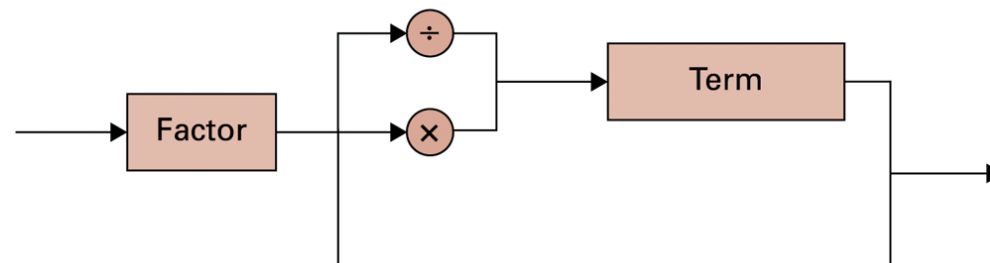


# Algebraic Expression Syntax

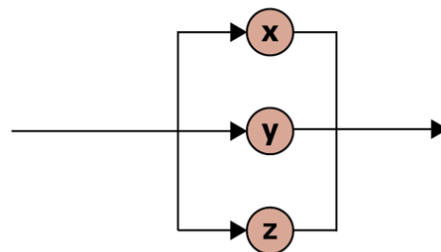
**Expression**



**Term**



**Factor**

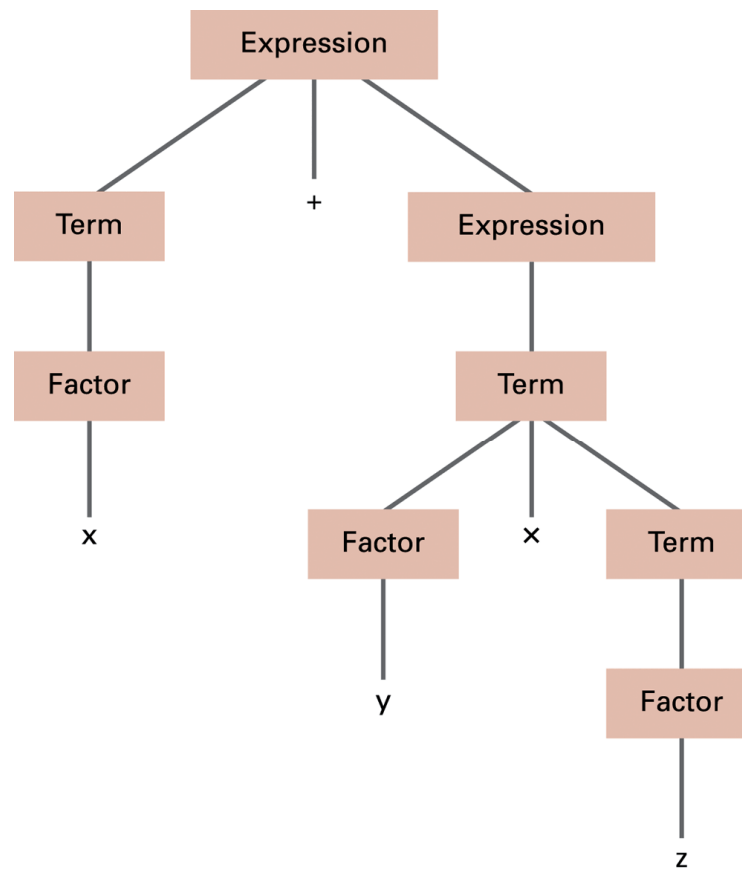




# Example of Parsing An Expression

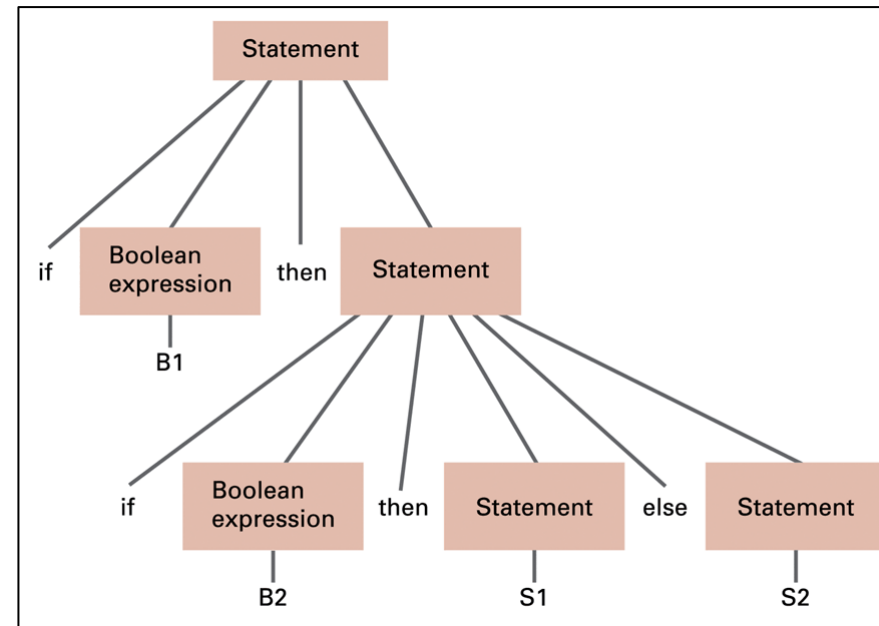
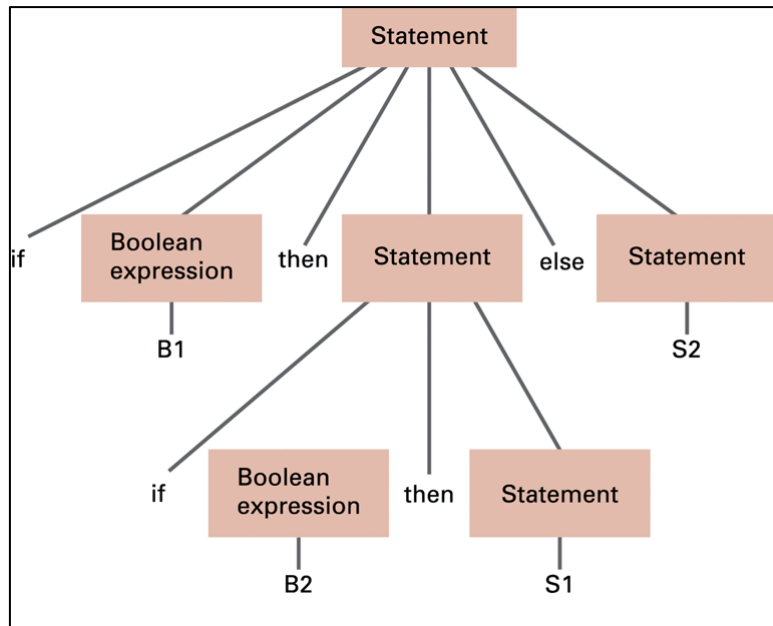
- The parser generates a parse tree for a statements

$x + y \times z$ :



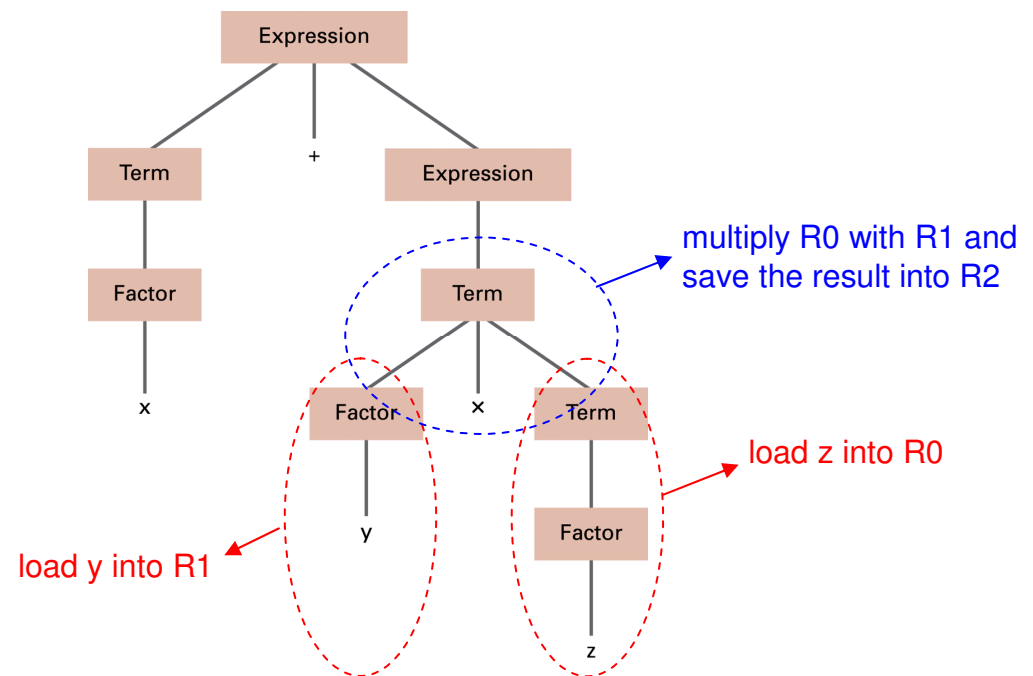
# Ambiguous Parse Trees

- For “if B1 then if B2 then S1 else S2” we could have two possible parse trees:



# Code Generation and Optimization

- Once the parse tree is done, one must generate machine codes for each sub-tree or node, for example, in bottom-up manner

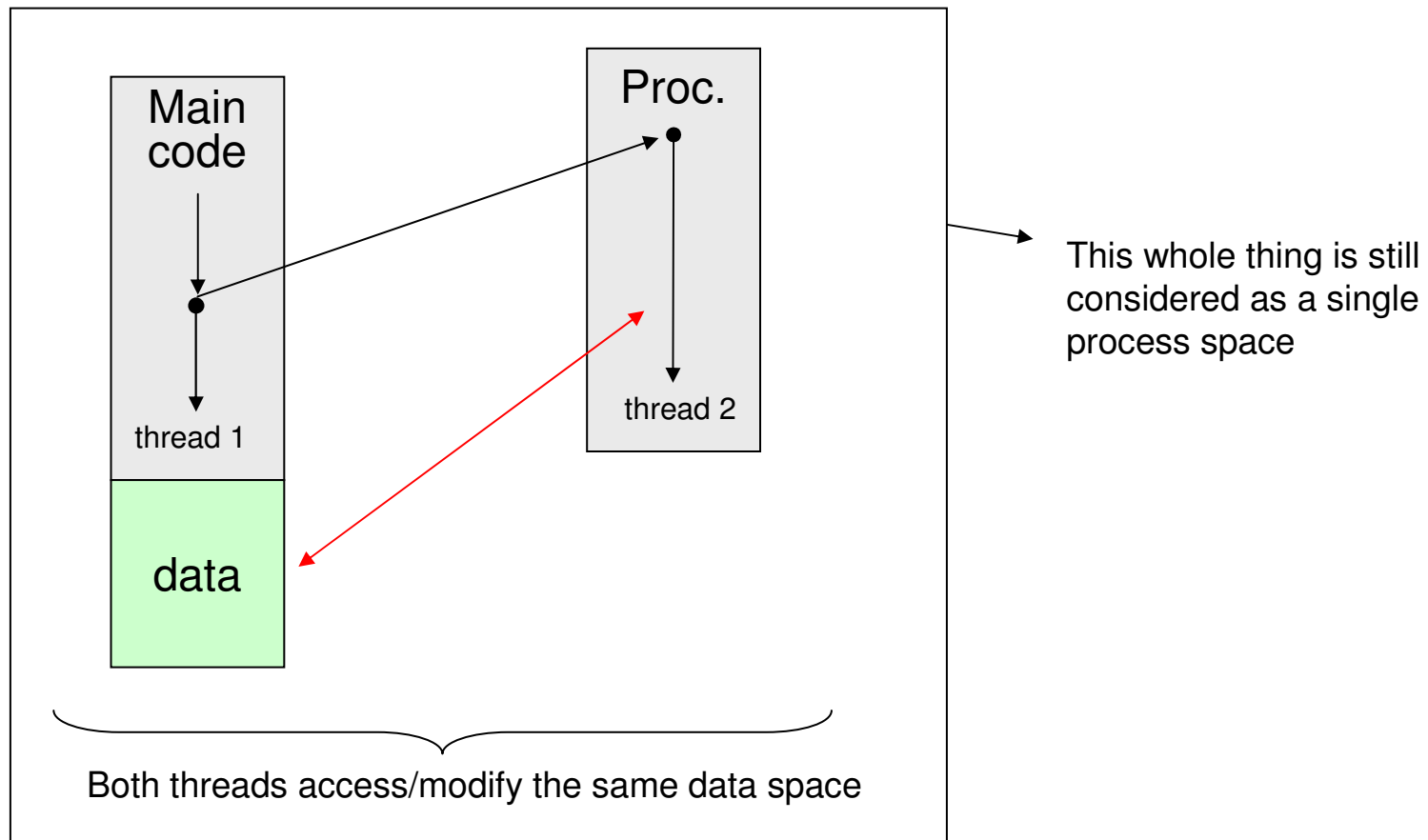


- Code optimization is a technique for finding the best way to generate codes

# Concurrent Programming

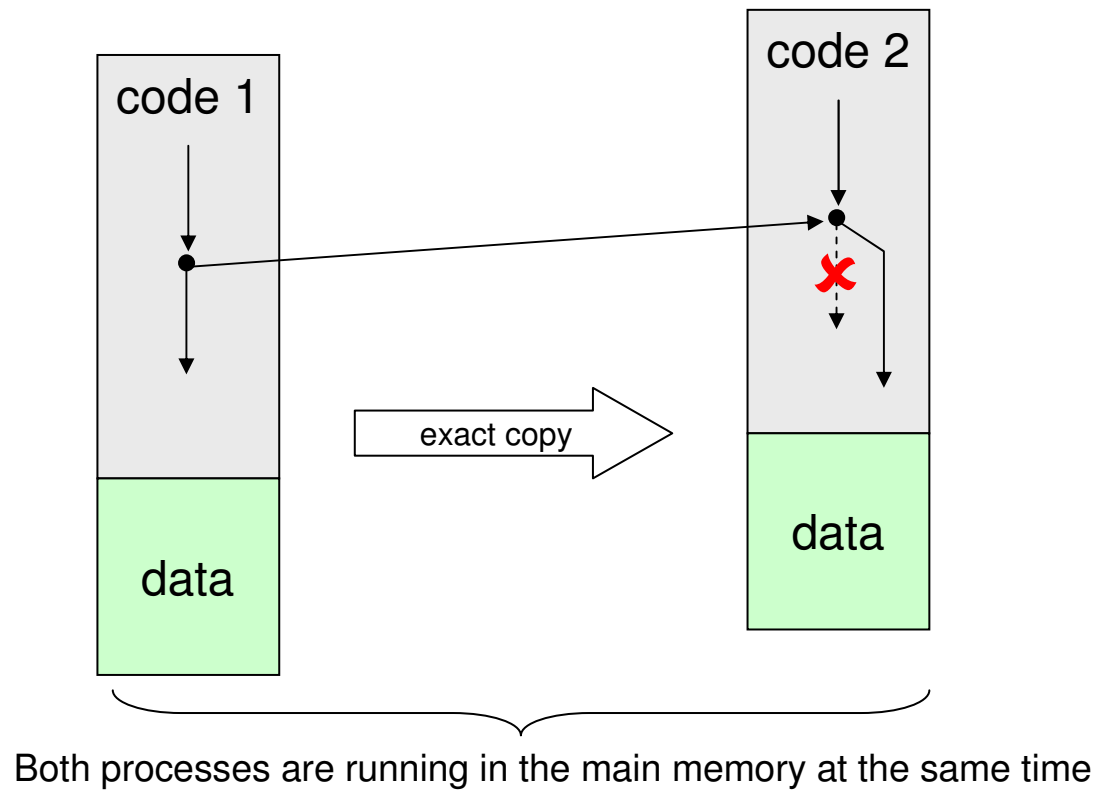
- ❑ Concurrent programming is the simultaneous execution of multiple processes/threads
  - If the computing system has only one CPU, simultaneous execution can be simulated using time-sharing techniques
  - If the computing system has multiple CPUs, each process/threads will be assigned to one CPU for execution
- ❑ The difference between processes and threads can be loosely defined as follows:
  - Program (static) → Process (runtime)
  - Procedure (static) → Thread (runtime)

# Spawning A Thread (in a Process)



# Spawning A Process

- ❑ Spawning (or forking) of a process is done as follows:

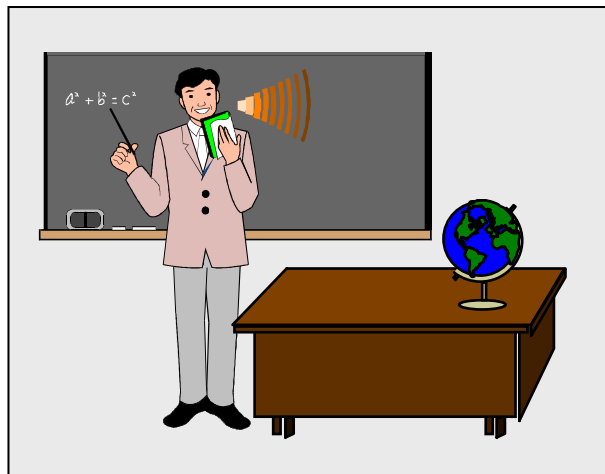


# Object-Oriented Programming

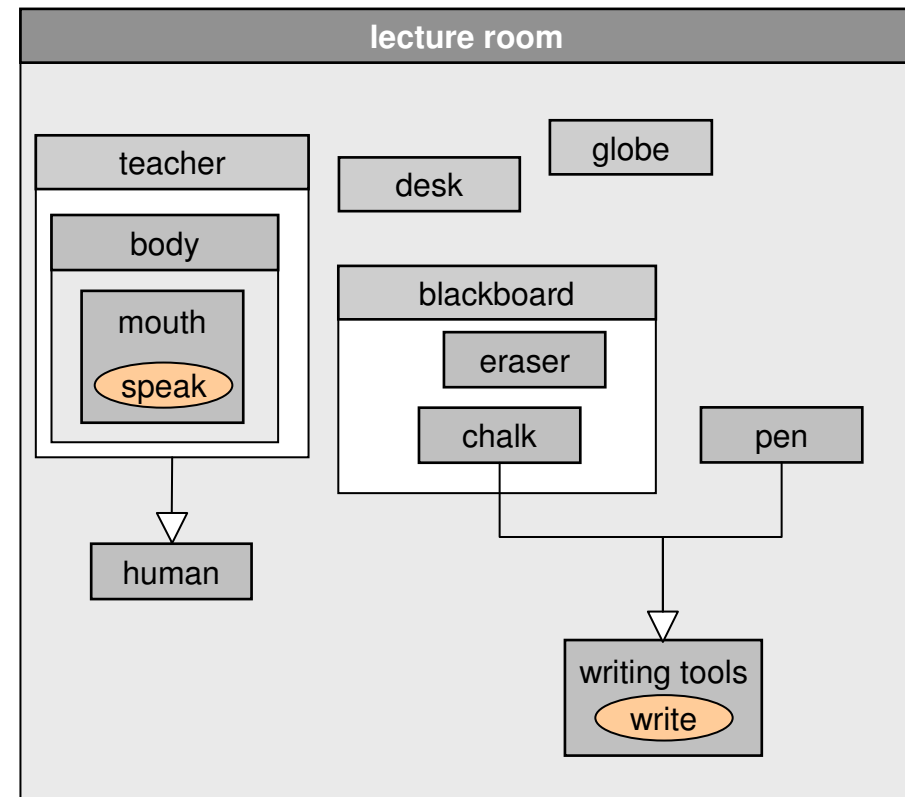
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- ❑ An object-oriented (OO) language composed of a hierarchical structure of objects
  - Class: the static definition of an objects
  - Object: an active substance inside a running process
- ❑ An OO program is composed of the declaration of different types of static description of substances (i.e. classes), and how these substances are created (become active) and interact with each others
- ❑ In OO terminology, an object is an instance of a class

# OO View of Physical World



An object-oriented  
description of the lecturing process





# Object-Oriented Terminologies

---

## ❑ Data Encapsulation

- Access to the internal components of an object are restricted
- You can use an object, but you cannot modify its behavior and internal data

## ❑ Inheritance

- Define new classes in terms of previously defined classes
- Facilitate hierarchical structure of an object-oriented process

## ❑ Polymorphism

- Implementation details of the behaviors (or operators) of an object are interpreted by the object that perform that behavior

# Functional Programming

---

- ❑ Principle of functional programming:
  - The value of an expression depends only on the values of its sub-expressions, if any
- ❑ Any language must be defined in some sort of notation, called meta-language or defining language
  - Meta-language tends to be a functional description
- ❑ Functional programming becomes popular due to the invention of LISP, a list processing language, by John McCarthy in 1958

# Features of a Functional Language

---

- ❑ In functional language, program and data can be treated almost the same:
  - (it seems that you liked me)
  - Unification of code and data is an important concept in many modern languages
- ❑ Lots of parentheses are used to modify the structure of a program:
  - (it seems that you liked me)  
and  
((it seems that) you (liked) me)  
are different
  - Some people jokingly call LISP: Lots of Silly Parentheses

# Example: Differentiation

- Differentiation can be computed in LISP as follows:

```
(define s (make-sum '(u v w)))  
(d 'v 'v) -----> 1  
(d 'v 'w) -----> 0  
(d 'v 's) -----> (+ 0 1 0)  
(d 'v '(* v (+ u v w)))  
-----> (+ (* 1 (+ u v w)) (* v (+ 0 1 0)))
```

- The function “d” is defined using the rules:

```
d(x, x) = 1  
d(x, not x) = 0  
d(x, E1 + E2) = d(x, E1) + d(x, E2)  
d(x, E1 * E2) = d(x, E1) * E2 + E1 * d(x, E2)
```

# Declarative Programming

---

- ❑ Declarative programming is also referred to as Logic programming:
  - The use of facts and rules to represent information
  - The use of deduction to answer queries
- ❑ In declarative programming, the programmer supplies facts and rules; while the computer use deduction to find the answer
- ❑ The language that makes declarative programming well-known is Prolog, developed in 1972
  - The application domain for Prolog is similar to that for LISP: artificial intelligence, expert systems, etc.

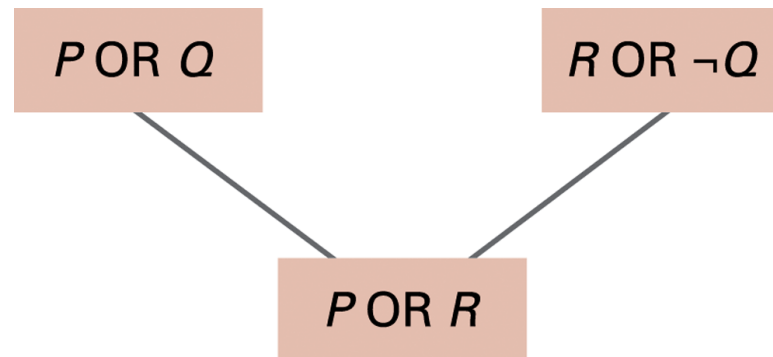
# Prolog Language Elements

- ❑ In Prolog, all statements must be facts or rules
- ❑ Fact:
  - *predicateName*(arguments)
  - Example: `parent(Bill, Mary)`
- ❑ Rule:
  - *conclusion* :- *premise* (note that :- stands for “if”)
  - Example: `wise(x) :- old(x)`
  - Example: `faster(x, z) :- faster(x, y), faster(y, z)`

# Deduction Methods

## □ Resolution

- Combining two or more statements to produce a new, logically equivalent statement



## □ Unification

- Assigning a value to a variable in a statement

# Example of Deduction

- Resolving the statements:  
 $(P \text{ OR } Q), (R \text{ OR } \neg Q), \neg R, \neg P$

