

Introduction to Computer Science

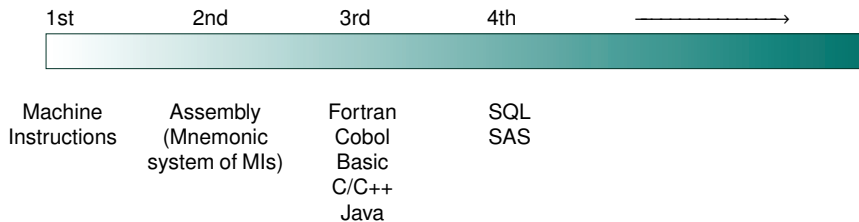
Lecture 6: PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

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PL Generations



Assembler: Translating MIs to Assembly

- 1st

Machine instructions

156C



166D



5056



306E



C000



- 2nd

Assembly

LD R5, Price

LD R6, ShippingCharge

ADDI R0, R5, R6

ST R0, TotalCost

HTL

- Mnemonic names for op-codes
- Identifiers: Descriptive names for memory locations, chosen by the programmer

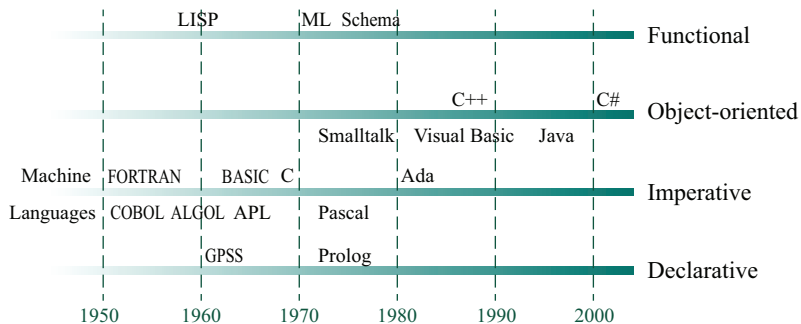
3rd Generation Languages (3GL)

- Characteristics of assembly
 - Machine dependent
 - One-to-one mapping
 - Assembler
- High-level primitives
- Machines independent (virtually)
- One primitive to many MI mapping
- Compiler & interpreter

Languages and Issues

- Natural vs. formal languages
 - Formal language → formal grammar
- Portability
 - Theoretically: different compilers
 - Reality: Minor modifications

Programming Paradigms



Imperative vs. Declarative

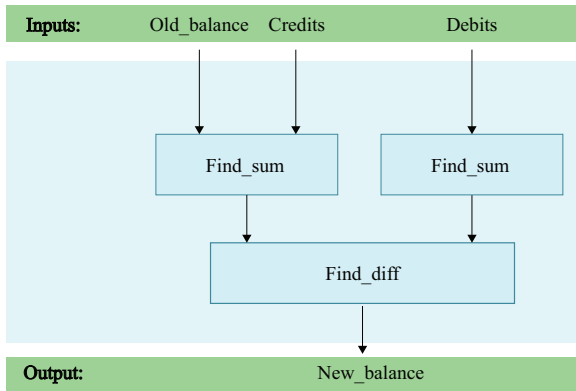
- Imperative paradigm

- Procedural
- Approaching a problem by finding an algorithm to solve the problem.

- Declarative paradigm

- Implemented a general problem solver
- Approaching a problem by finding a formal description of the problem.
- Will talk more about this later.

Functional Paradigm



Functional vs. Imperative

(Find_diff (Find_sum Old_balance Credits) (Find_sum Debits))

Temp_balance \leftarrow Old_balance + Credit
Total_debits \leftarrow sum of all Debits
Balance \leftarrow Temp_balance – Total_debits

(Find_Quotient (Find_sum Numbers) (Find_count Numbers))

Sum \leftarrow sum of all Numbers
Count \leftarrow # of Numbers
Quotient \leftarrow Sum / Count

Object-Oriented Paradigm

- OOP (object-oriented programming)
- Abstraction
- Information hiding
 - Encapsulation
 - Polymorphism
- Inheritance
- References:
 - http://www.codeproject.com/KB/architecture/OOP_Concepts_and_more.aspx
 - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Object-oriented_programming

More about Imperative Paradigm

- Variables and data types
- Data structure
- Constants and literals
- Assignment and operators
- Control
- Comments

Variables and Data Types

- Integer
- Real (floating-point)
- Character
- Boolean

FORTRAN

```
INTEGER  a, b  
REAL    c, d  
BYTE    e, f  
LOGICAL g, h
```

Pascal

```
a, b: integer;  
c, d: real;  
e, f: char;  
g, h: boolean;
```

C/C++ (Java)

```
int a, b;  
float c, d;  
char e, f;  
bool g, h;
```

Data Structure

- Homogeneous array
- Heterogeneous array

FORTRAN `INTEGER a(6,3)`

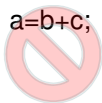
Pascal `a: array[0..5,0..2] of integer;`

C/C++ `int a[5][2];`

```
C/C++
struct{
    char  Name[25];
    int   Age;
    float SkillRating;
} Employee;
```

Constant and Literals

- $a \leftarrow b + 645;$
 - 645 is a literal
- `const int a=645;`
- `final int a=645;`
- A constant cannot be a l-value.
 - `a=b+c;`



Assignment and Operators

APL

```
a ← b + c;
```

Ada, Pascal

```
a := b + c;
```

C/C++ (Java)

```
a = b + c;
```

- Operator precedence
- Operator overloading

Control

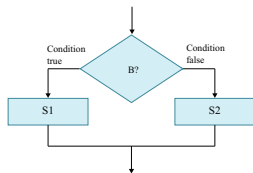
- Old-fashion: goto

```
        goto 40
20      print "passed."
        goto 70
40      if (grade < 60) goto 60
        goto 20
60      print "failed."
70      stop
```

- Not recommended in modern programming
 - Modern programming

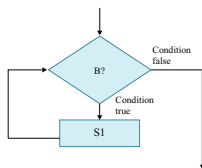
```
if (grade < 60)
    then print "failed."
    else print "passed."
```


Control Structures



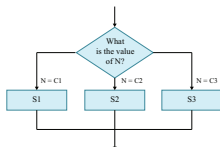
```

if (B) S1
  else S2;
  
```



```

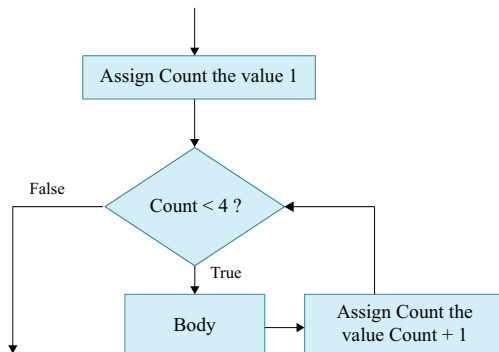
while (B)
  S1;
  
```



```

switch (N)
{ case C1: S1;break;
  case C2: S2;break;
  case C3: S3;break;
};
  
```

Control Structures (contd.)



```
for (int Count = 1; Count < 4; Count++)  
    body;
```

Comments

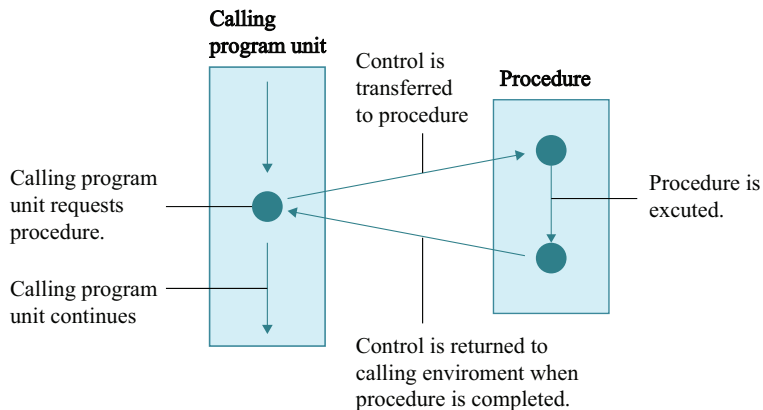
- C/C++, Java

```
a = b + c; // This is an end-of-line comment
```

```
/*  
    This is a  
    block comment  
*/  
a = b + c;
```

```
/**  
    This is a  
    documentation  
    comment  
*/  
a = b + c;
```

Calling Procedures



Terminology

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 former 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;
```

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

This declares a local variable named Year.

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

Terminology (contd.)

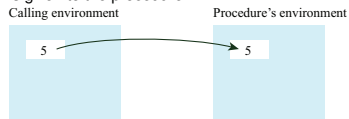
- Procedure's header
- Local vs. global variables
- Formal vs. actual parameters
- Passing parameters
 - Call by value (passed by value)
 - Call by reference (passed by reference)
 - Call by address: variant of call-by-reference.

Call by Value

```
procedure Demo(Formal )
  Formal  $\leftarrow$  Formal + 1;
```

```
Demo(Actual);
```

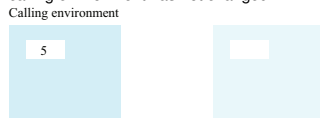
a. When the procedure is called, a copy of data is given to the procedure



b. and the procedure manipulates its copy.



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



Call by Reference

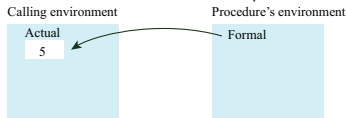
```
procedure Demo(Formal )
  Formal ← Formal + 1;
```

```
Demo(Actual);
```

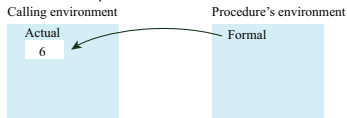
C/C++

```
void Demo(int& Formal){
  Formal = Formal + 1;
}
```

- 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.



Functions vs. Procedures

- A program unit similar to a procedure unit except that a value is transferred back to the calling program unit as “the value of the function.”

The function header begins with the type of the data that will be returned.

```
float CylinderVolumn (float Radius, float Height){
```

```
float Volume;
```

```
Volume = 3.14 * Radius * Radius * Height;
```

```
return Volume;
```

```
}
```

Terminate the function and return the value of the variable Volume

This declares a local variable named Volume.

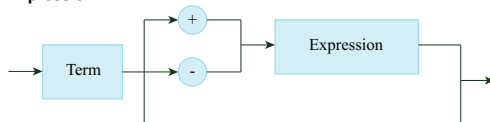
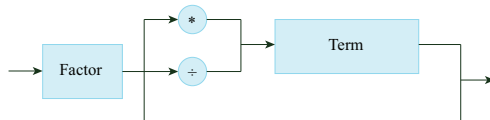
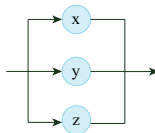
Compute the volume of the cylinder

The Translation Process

- Lexical analyzer: identifying tokens.
- Parser: identifying syntax & semantics.



Syntax Diagrams for Algebra

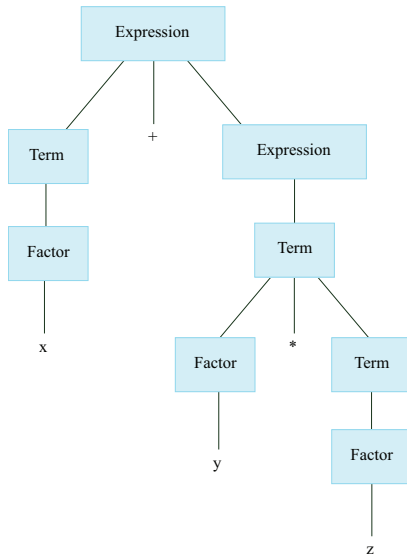
Expression**Term****Factor**

Grammar for Algebra

- Expression \rightarrow Term | Term + Expression
| Term - Expression
Term \rightarrow Factor | Factor * Term | Factor / Term
Factor \rightarrow **x** | **y** | **z**
- Starting: Expression
- Nonterminals: Expression, Term, Factor
- Terminals: **+**, **-**, *****, **/**, **x**, **y**, **z**

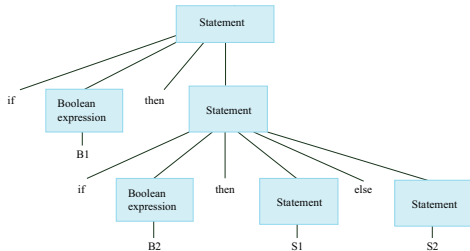
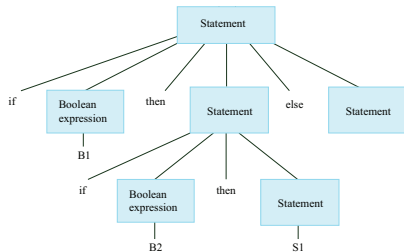
Parse Tree

• $x + y * z$



Ambiguity

- if B1 then if B2 then S1 else S2



Code Generation

- Coercion: implicit conversion between data types
- Strongly typed: no coercion, data types have to agree with each other.
- Code optimization
 - $x = y + z;$
 - $w = x + z;$
 - $w = y + (z \ll 1);$

OOP

- Object
 - Active program unit containing both data and procedures
- Class
 - A template from which objects are constructed
 - An object is an instance of the class.
- Instance variables & methods (member functions)
- Constructors
 - Special method used to initialize a new object when it is first constructed.
- Destructors vs. garbage collection

An Example of Class

Instance variable

Constructor assigns a value to Remaining Power when an object is created.

```
class LaserClass
{ int RemainingPower;

  LaserClass (InitialPower)
  { RemainingPower = InitialPower;
  }

  void turnRight ( )
  { ... }

  void turnLeft ( )
  { ... }

  void fire ( )
  { ... }

}
```

methods

Encapsulation

- Encapsulation
 - A way of restricting access to the internal components of an object
 - Bundling of data with the methods operating on that data.
- Examples: private vs. public, getter & setter

Polymorphism

- Polymorphism

- Allows method calls to be interpreted by the object that receives the call.
- Allows different data types to be handled using a uniform interface.

```
Circle();  
Rectangle();
```

```
Circle circle;  
Rectangle rect;  
  
circle.draw();  
rect.draw();
```

Inheritance

- Inheritance

- Allows new classes to be defined in terms of previously defined classes.

```
Class Base;  
Class Circle : Base;  
Class Rectangle : Base;
```

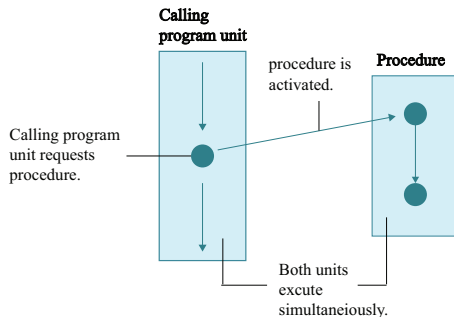
```
Base *base;  
Circle circle;  
Rectangle rect;
```

```
base = & circle;  
base -> draw();  
base = & rect;  
base -> draw();
```

Concurrency

Mutual Exclusion: A method for ensuring that data can be accessed by only one process at a time.

Monitor: A data item augmented with the ability to control access to itself



Declarative Programming

● Resolution

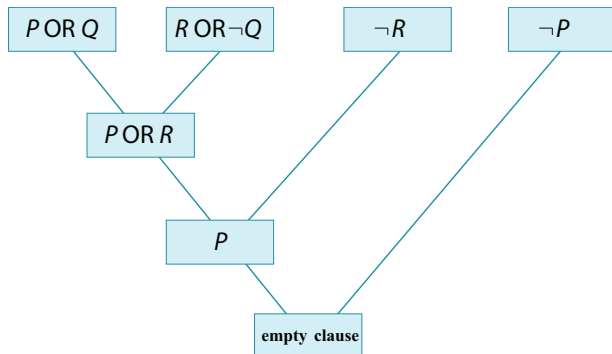
- Combining two or more statements to produce a new statement (that is a logical consequence of the originals).
- $(P \text{ OR } Q) \text{ AND } (R \text{ OR } \neg Q)$ resolves to $(P \text{ OR } R)$
- **Resolvent**: A new statement deduced by resolution
- **Clause form**: A statement whose elementary components are connected by OR

● Unification

- Assigning a value to a variable so that two clauses would be the same.
- $\text{Unify}(\text{Father}(\text{Mark}, \text{John}), \text{Father}(x, \text{John}))$ results in $x \text{ is Mark}$.

Proof by Resolution (Refutation)

- We know that $(P \text{ OR } Q) \text{ AND } (R \text{ OR } \neg Q) \text{ AND } (\neg R)$ is true (KB , knowledge base).
- We want to prove that P is true.
- Prove by showing that $KB \text{ AND } \neg P$ is **unsatisfiable** (empty clause).



Prolog

- **Variables:** first letter capitalized (exactly contrary to common logics).
- **Constants:** first letter uncapitalized.
- **Facts:**
 - Consists of a single **predicate**
 - *predicateName(arguments).*
 - *parent(bill, mary).*
- **Rules:**
 - conclusion :- premise.
 - :- means “if”
 - *faster(X,Z) :- faster(X,Y), faster(Y,Z).*

- = (unification: term=term)

$1 + X = Y + 2 \rightarrow X = 2 \text{ and } Y = 1$

$X = 1 + 3 \rightarrow X = 1 + 3$

$2 + 2 = 1 + 3 \rightarrow \text{no}$

- is (assignment: term is evaluable)

$X \text{ is } 1 + 3 \rightarrow X = 4$

$1 + X \text{ is } 4 \rightarrow \text{no}$

- == (text comparison: term == term)

$X == 1 + 3 \rightarrow \text{no}$

$1 + X == 1 + X \rightarrow \text{yes}$

$2 + 2 == 1 + 3 \rightarrow \text{no}$

- := (comparison: evaluable := evaluable)

$2 + 2 := 1 + 3 \rightarrow \text{yes}$

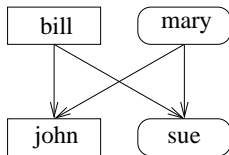
- Other operators:

$\backslash=, =\backslash, <, >, +, -, *, /, >=, =<$

Gnu Prolog

- Gnu prolog <http://www.gprolog.org/>
- Interactive mode
 - Under the prompt `| ?-` , type `[user].`
 - When finished, type `Ctrl-D`
- Comments
 - `/* */` or `%`
- Chinese incompatible.
- You may consult `*.pl` (a pure text file)

Prolog Examples



```
female(mary).  
female(sue).  
male(bill).  
male(john).
```

```
parent(mary,john).  
parent(bill,john).  
parent(mary,sue).  
parent(bill,sue).
```

```
mother(X,Y):-female(X),parent(X,Y).  
father(X,Y):-male(X),parent(X,Y).
```

```
son(X,Y):-male(X),parent(Y,X).  
daughter(X,Y):-female(X),parent(Y,X).
```

```
sibling(X,Y):-X\=Y,parent(Z,X),parent(Z,Y).
```

Prolog Examples

- Factorial again.
- If we want Prolog to compute factorials, we need to tell it what factorials are.

```
factorial(0,1).
```

```
factorial(N,F) :-  
    N>0,  
    N1 is N-1,  
    factorial(N1,F1),  
    F is N * F1.
```

```
| ?- factorial(5,W).  
W=120 ?
```

Fibonacci Revisited

```
f(0,1).  
f(1,1).  
  
f(N,F) :-  
    N>0,  
    N1 is N-1,  
    N2 is N-2,  
    f(N1,F1),  
    f(N2,F2),  
    F is F1 + F2.
```

```
f(N,F) :-c(N,-,-,F).  
  
c(0,0,0,1).  
c(1,0,1,1).  
c(2,1,1,2).  
c(N,P1,P2,P3):-  
    N>2,  
    N1 is N-1,  
    c(N1, P0, P1, P2),  
    P2 is P0+P1,  
    P3 is P1+P2.
```

How about $f(40,W)$?

Ordered Clauses

```
factorial(0,1).
```

```
factorial(N,F) :-  
    N>0,  
    factorial(N1,F1),  
    N1 is N-1,  
    F is N * F1.
```

```
?-factorial(3,W).
```

Try these commands:

- `listing.`
- `trace.`
- `notrace.`

This wouldn't work, why?