Programming Paradigms

Lecture 1

Slides are from Prof. Chin Wei-Ngan and Prof. Seif Haridi from NUS

Grading

Seminar activity grade is 40% of the final grade.

- 4 Programming Assignments (group of 1 or 2 students)
- Each assigment has the same weight
- seminar activity grade is the average of the assignments grades

Final exam grade is 60% of the final grade.

- Final Practical Exam will consist of a quizz followed by an oral interview to explain your solutions.

Rules

- seminar activity will be done at the group level
- groups are fixed by me at the first seminar and they cannot be changed later
- in order to get into the final exam you have to get minimum 5 at the seminar activity
- in order to pass the exam you have to get minimum 5 at the final exam

Assignments

- There will be 4 seminar assignments.
- Deadline of each assignment is strict.
- If you delay 2 weeks the assignment the maximum grade is 7.
- If you delay the assignment more than 2 weeks, the assignment deadline is 0.
- The assignment evaluation will be done in class.

Assignments

- You have to start to work on the assigments in class and then to complete them at home
- Mostly programming projects
- Code of conduct
 - " no copying (grade penalty for those caught)
 - " plagiarism is cheating and can lead to expulsion!

About the Slides

- The slides are based on the lectures slides of course CS2104 given by Prof. Chin Wei-Ngan from National University of Singapore and also some slides are taken from Prof. Seif Haridi
- Lectures based of the book:
- Peter Van Roy, Seif Haridi: <u>Concepts, Techniques,</u>
 <u>and Models of Computer Programming</u>, The MIT Press

Lecture Structure

- Reminder of last lecture
- Overview
- Content (new notions + examples)
- Summary
- Reading suggestions

Useful Software

http://mozart.github.io/

" programming language: Oz

system: Mozart

interactive system

Install yourself using the first seminar

Aim

- Knowledge and skills in
 - % Programming languages concepts
 - Corresponding programming techniques
 - Acquaintance with
 - « Key programming concepts/techniques in computer science
 - Focus on concepts and not on a particular language

Overview

- Introduction of main concepts:
- % Computation model
- % Programming model
- % Reasoning model

Programming

Computation model

formal system that defines a language and how sentences (expressions, statements) are executed by an abstract machine

Programming model

a set of programming techniques and design principles used to write programs in the language of the computation model

Reasoning model

a set of reasoning techniques to let you reason about programs, to increase confidence that they behave correctly, and to estimate their efficiency

Computation Models

- Declarative programming (stateless programming)
- functions over partial data structures
- Concurrent programming
- can interact with the environment
- can do independent execution of program parts
- Imperative programming (stateful programming)
- uses states (a state is a sequence of values in time that contains the intermediate results of a desired computation)
- Object-oriented programming
- uses object data abstraction, explicit state, polymorphism, and inheritance

Programming Models

Exception handling

Error management

Concurrency

Dataflow, lazy execution, message passing, active objects, monitors, and transactions

Components

% Programming in the large, software reuse

Capabilities

Encapsulation, security, distribution, fault tolerance

State

% Objects, classes

Reasoning Models

Syntax

- Extended Backus-Naur Form (EBNF)
- Context-free and context-sensitive grammars

Semantics

- Operational: shows how a statement executes as an abstract machine
- Axiomatic: defines a statement as a relation between input state and output state
- Denotational: defines a statement as a function over an abstract domain
- Logical: defines a statement as a model of a logical theory

Programming language

- " Implements a programming model
- Describes programs composed of statements which compute with values and effects

Examples of Programming Languages

Java

- m programming with explicit state
- object-oriented programming
- concurrent programming (threads, monitors)

Oz (multi-paradigm)

- declarative programming
- concurrent programming
- programming with explicit state
- object-oriented programming

Oz

- The focus is on the programming model, techniques and concepts, but **not** the particular language!
- Approach
- informal introduction to important concepts
- introducing the underlying kernel language
- formal semantics based on abstract machine
- in depth study of programming techniques

Declarative Programming Model Philosophy

Ideal of declarative programming

- say what you want to compute
- let computer find how to compute it

More pragmatically

- Let the computer provide more support
- free the programmer from some burden

Properties of Declarative Models

- Focus on <u>functions</u> which compute when given data structures as inputs
- Widely used
- ‰ functional languages: LISP, Scheme, OCaml, Haskell, ...
- " logic languages: Prolog, Mercury, …
- " representation languages: XML, XSL, ...
- Stateless programming
- m no update of data structures
- Simple data transformer

The Mozart System

- Built by Mozart Consortium (<u>Universität des</u> <u>Saarlandes</u>, <u>Swedish Institute of Computer Science</u>, <u>Université catholique de Louvain</u>)
- Interactive interface (the declare statement)
- Mathematical Allows introducing program fragments incrementally and execute them
- Mas a tool (Browser), which allows looking into the store using the procedure Browse
 - Browse 21 * 10} -> display 210
- Standalone application
- It consists of a main function, evaluated when the program starts
- Oz source files can be compiled and linked

- It is a set of variables that are initially unbound and that can be bound to one value
- A value is a mathematical constant that does not change.

For e.g: 2, ~4, true, 'a', [1 2 3]

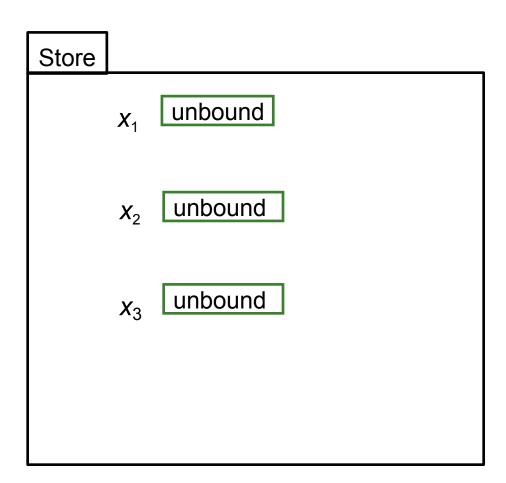
- Examples:
- $x_1=2, x_2=true, x_3$ has only one unbound variable

 A store where all variables are bound to values is called a value store:

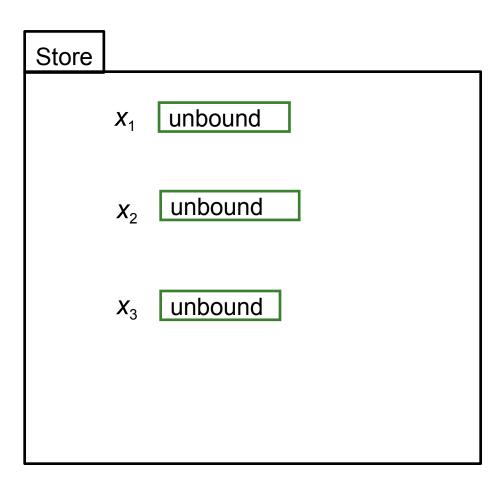
```
\{x_1=2, x_2=true, x_3=[1 2 3]\}
```

- Once bound, a variable stays bound to that value
- So, a value store is a persistent mapping from variables to values
- A store entity is a store variable and its value (which can be unbound).

- Single-assignment store is set of (store) variables
- Initially variables are unbound
- Example: store with three variables, x₁, x₂, and x₃

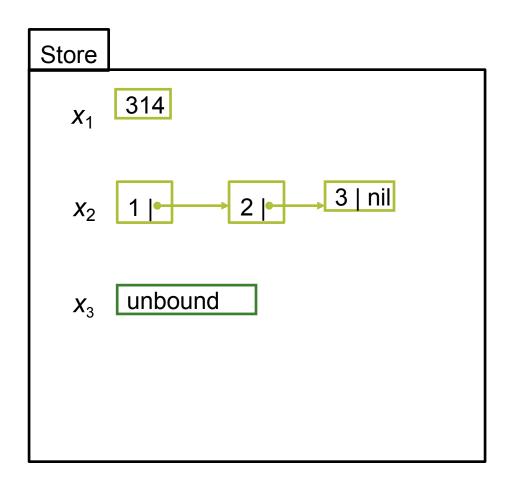


- Variables in store may be bound to values
- Example: assume we allow values of type integers and lists of integers



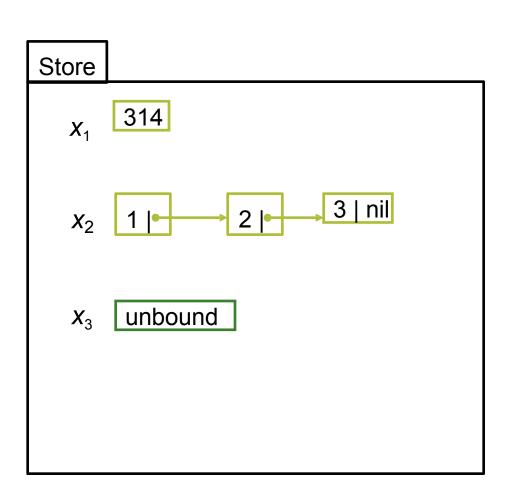
Examples:

- $_{\infty}$ x_{1} is bound to integer 314
- x_2 is bound to list [1 2 3]
- x_3 is still unbound



Concept of Declarative Variable

- It is a variable in the singleassignment store
- Created as being unbound
- Can be bound to exactly one value
- Once bound, stays bound
- indistinguishable from its value

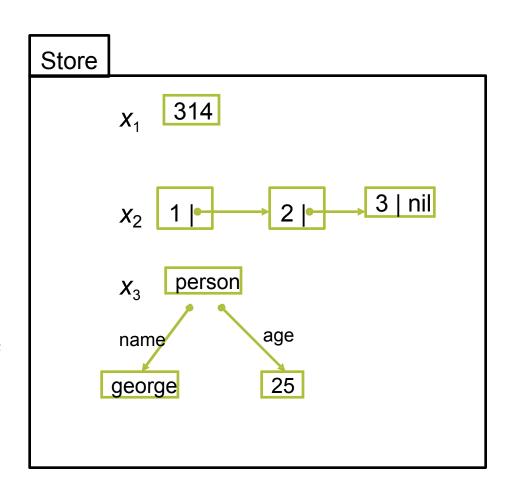


Concept of Value Store

- Store where all variables are bound to values is called a value store
- Examples:
- x_1 bound to integer 314
 - ‰ **x**₂ bound to list [1 2 3]
 - x_3 bound to record

person(name: george
 age:25)

Functional programming computes functions on values



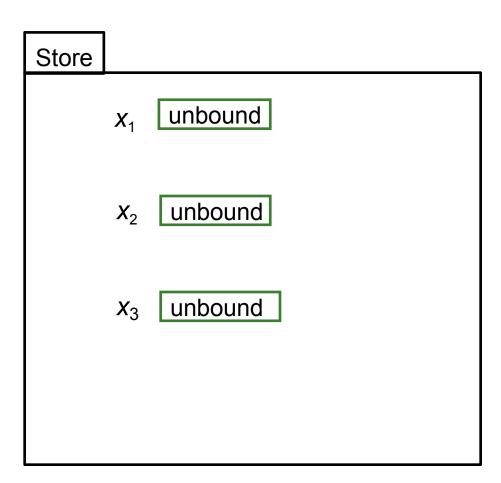
Concept of Single-Assignment Operation

x = value

- It is also called "value creation"
- Assumes that x is unbound
- Examples:

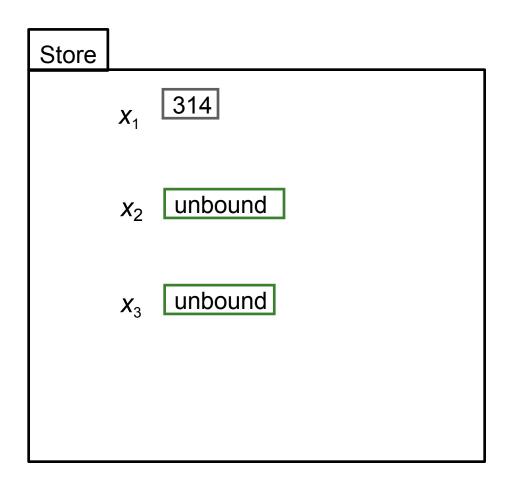
$$x_1 = 314$$

$$x_2 = [1 \ 2 \ 3]$$



Concept of Single-Assignment Operation

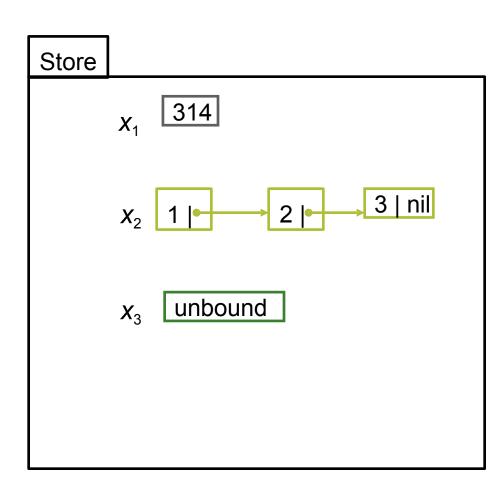
$$x = value$$
 $x_1 = 314$
 $X_2 = [1 2 3]$



Concept of Single-Assignment Operation

x = value

- Single assignment operation ('=')
- constructs value in store
- binds variable x to this value
- If the variable is already bound, operation tests compatibility of values
- if the value being bound is different from that already bound, an error is raised



Concept of Variable Identifier

- Variable identifiers start with capital letter: x, y2
- The environment is a mapping from variable identifiers to store entities
- declare X = <value>
- creates a new store variable x and binds it to <value>
- maps variable identifier X in environment to store variable x, e.g. $\{X \rightarrow -> x\}$
- declare

$$X = Y$$

$$Y = 2$$

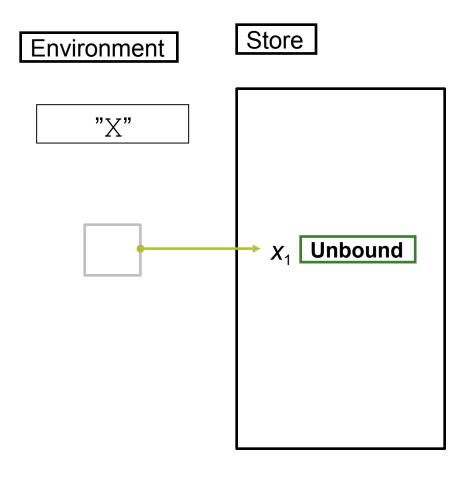
- The environment: $E=\{x \rightarrow x, y \rightarrow y\}$
- The single-assignment store: $\sigma = \{x = y, y = 2\}$

Concept of Variable Identifier

- Refer to store entities
- Environment maps variable identifiers to store variables

```
% declare X
% local X in ... end
```

- X is variable identifier
- Corresponds to 'environment' $\{X \rightarrow x_1\}$



Concept of Variable Identifier

declare

$$X = 21$$

$$X = 22$$

% raise an error

$$X = 21$$

% do nothing

declare

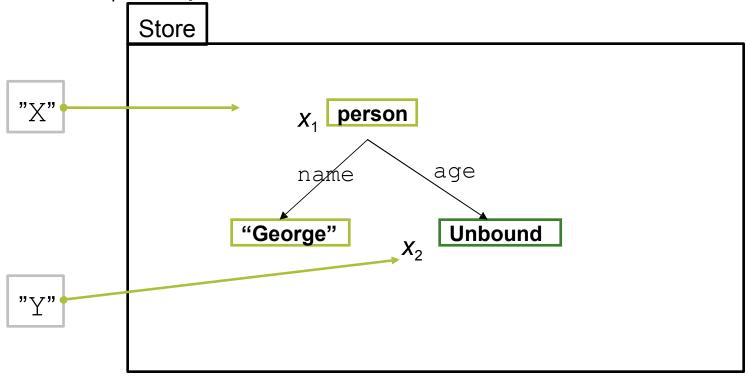
$$X = 22$$

% from now on, X will be bound to 22

Partial Value

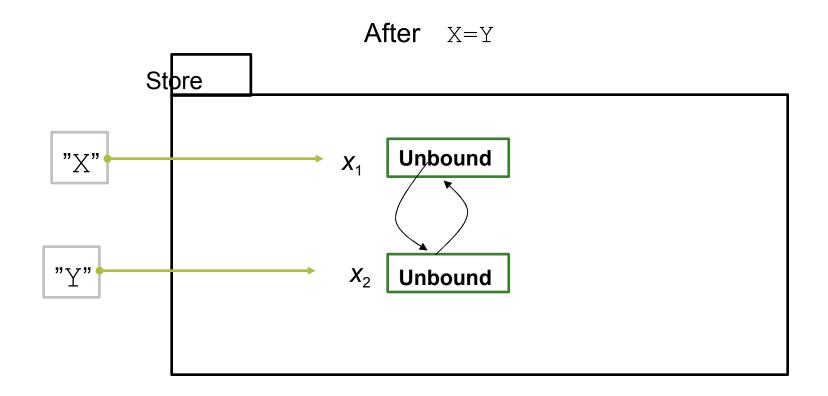
 A partial value is a data structure that may contain unbound variables. For example, x₂ is unbound.

Hence, x_1 is a partial value.



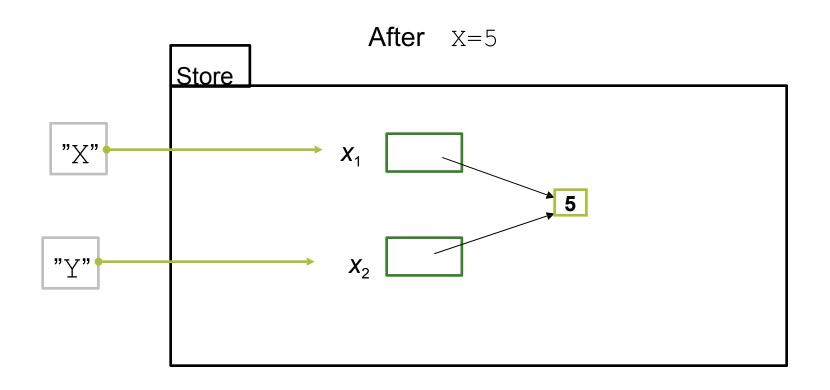
Variable-Variable Binding

- Variables can be bound to variables. They form an equivalence set of store variables after such binding.
- They throw exception if their values are different.



Variable-Variable Binding

After binding one of the variables.



Concept of Dataflow Variables

- Variable creation and binding can be separated.
 What happens if we use a variable before it is bound?
 Scenario is known as variable use error.
- Possible solutions:
 - 1. Create and bind variables in one step (use error cannot occur): functional programming languages
 - Execution continues and no error message is given (variable's content is "garbage"): C/C++
 - Execution continues and no error message is given (variable's content is initialized with a default value): Java

Concept of Dataflow Variables

* * * * *

- Execution stops with error message (or an exception is raised): Prolog
- Execution is not possible; the compiler detects that there is an execution path to the variable's use that does not initialize it: Java local

variables

Execution waits until the variable is bound and then continues (dataflow programming): Oz

Example of Dataflow Variables

```
declare X Y

Y = X + 1

{Browse Y}
```

Running this Oz code, the Oz Browser does not display anything

$$X = 2$$

Running the previous line, the Oz Browser displays 3

Dynamic Typing in Oz

- A variable type is known only after the variable is bound
- For an unbound variable, its type checking is left for run time.
- An operation with values of wrong type will raise exceptions
- This setting is dynamically typed.
- In contrast, Java is a static type language, as the types of all variables can be determined at compile time
- Examples: Types of X maybe Int, Float, ...

```
% X < 1
% X < 1.0
```

Concept of Cell

- A cell is a multiple-assignment variable
- A memory cell is also called explicit state
- Three functions operate on cells:
- % NewCell creates a new cell
- := (assignment) puts a new value in a cell
- % @ (access) gets the current value stored in the cell

```
declare
C = {NewCell 0}
{Browse @C}
C := @C + 1
{Browse @C}
```

Concept of Function

Function definition

```
fun {<Identifier> <Arguments>}
  [<Declaration Part> in]
  [<Statement>]
  <Expression>
end
```

The value of the **last expression in the body** is the **returned value** of the function

Function application (call)

```
X={ < Identifier> < Arguments>}
```

Concept of Function. Examples

```
declare
  fun {Minus X}
   \sim X
   end
   {Browse {Minus 15}}
declare
  fun {Max X Y}
     if X>Y then X else Y end
  end
  declare
  X = \{Max 22 18\}
  Y = \{Max X 43\}
  {Browse Y}
```

Recursive Functions

- Direct recursion: the function is calling itself
 Indirect (or mutual) recursion: e.g. F is calling
 G, and G is calling F
- General structure
- % base case
- " recursive case
- Typically, for a natural number n
 - % base case: n is zero
 - " recursive case:
 - is different from zero
 - is greater than zero

Inductive Function Definition

• Factorial function: n! = 1*2*3*...*n

inductively defined as

$$0! = 1$$
 $n! = n * ((n-1)!)$

% program as function Fact

Inductive Function Definition

Factorial function definition in Oz

```
fun {Fact N}
  if N == 0 then 1

  else N * {Fact N-1}
end
end
{Browse {Fact 5}}
```

Correctness

- The most popular reasoning techniques is mathematical induction:
- % Show that for the simplest (initial) case the program is correct
- Show that, if the program is correct for a given case, then it is correct for the next case
- {Fact 0} returns the correct answer, namely 1
- Assume {Fact N-1} is correct. Suppose N>0, then Fact N returns N*{Fact N-1}, which is correct according to the Oz inductive hypothesis!
- Fact N for negative N goes into an infinite number of recursive calls, so it is wrong!

Complexity

 The execution time of a program as a function of input size, up to a constant factor, is called the program's time complexity.

```
declare
fun {Fibo N}
  case N of
    1 then 1
  [] 2 then 1
  [] M then {Fibo (M-1)} + {Fibo (M-2)}
  end
end
{Browse {Fibo 100}}
```

The time complexity of {Fibo N} is proportional to 2^N.

Complexity

```
declare
fun {FiboTwo N A1 A2}
  case N of
     1 then A1
  [] 2 then A2
  [] M then {FiboTwo (M-1) A2 (A1+A2)}
  end end

{Browse {FiboTwo 100 1 1}}
```

■ The time complexity of {FiboTwo N} is proportional to N.

Concept of Lazy Evaluation

- Eager (supply-driven, or data-driven) evaluation: calculations are done as soon as they are called
- Lazy (demand-driven) evaluation: a calculation is done only when the result is needed

declare

```
fun lazy {F1 X} X*X end
fun lazy {Ints N} N|{Ints N+1} end
A = {F1 5}

{Browse A}
  % it will display: A
```

Note that {F1 5} does not execute until it is demanded!

Concept of Lazy Evaluation

- F1 and Ints created "stopped executions" that continue when their results are needed.
- After demanding value of A (function * is not lazy!), we get:

% it will display: 25

{Browse B}

% it will display: B

case B of X|Y|Z| then {Browse X+Y+Z} end

% it will cause only first three elements of B to be evaluated and then display: 12

% previous B is also refined to: 3 | 4 | 5 |

Concept of Higher-Order Programming

- Ability to pass functions as arguments or results
- We want to write a function for 1+2+...+n (GaussSum)
- It is similar to Fact, except that:

```
% "*" is "+"
```

- the initial case value is not "0" but "1"
- The two operators are written as functions; they will be arguments for the generic function

```
fun {Add X Y} X+Y end
fun {Mul X Y} X*Y end
```

Concept of Higher-Order Programming

The generic function is:

Concept of Higher-Order Programming

The instances of this generic function may be:

```
fun {FactUsingGeneric N}
{GenericFact Mul 1 N}
end
fun {GaussSumUsingGeneric N}
{GenericFact Add 0 N}
end
```

They can be called as:

```
{Browse {FactUsingGeneric 5}} {Browse {GaussSumUsingGeneric 5}}
```

Concept of Concurrency

- Is the ability of a program to run independent activities (not necessarily to communicate)
- A thread is an executing program
- Concurrency is introduced by creating threads

```
thread P1 in
P1 = {FactUsingGeneric 5}
{Browse P1}
end
thread P2 in
P2 = {GaussSumUsingGeneric 5}
{Browse P2}
end
```

Concept of Dataflow

 Is the ability of an operation to wait until all its variables become bounded

```
declare Xin
thread {Delay 5000} X = 10 end
thread {Browse X * X} end
thread {Browse 'start'} end
```

- The second Browse waits for x to become bound
- X = 10 and X * X can be done in any order, so dataflow execution will always give the same result

```
declare Xin
thread {Delay 5000} {Browse X * X} end
thread X = 10 end
thread {Browse 'start'} end
```

Concept of Object

It is a function with internal memory (cell)

```
declare
local C in
C = {NewCell 0}
fun {Incr}
C := @C + 1
    @C
end
fun {Read} @C end
end
```

C is a counter object, Incr and Read are its interface
The declare statement makes the variables Incr and Read
globally available. Incr and Read are bounded to functions

Concept of Object-Oriented Programming

Encapsulation

- Wariable C is visible only between local and last end
- Will work correctly conly through Incr function (the counter will work correctly)
- We will be seen used to be

```
{Browse {Incr}} 
{Browse {Read}}
```

- Data abstraction
- Separation between interface and implementation
- We will be seen to be seen to
- Inheritance

Concept of Class

It is a "factory" which creates objects

```
declare
fun {ClassCounter} C
                       Incr Read in
   C = \{NewCell 0\}
   fun {Incr}
      C := @C + 1
      G C
      end
      fun {Read}
      G C
      end
      counter(incr:Incr read:Read)
  end
```

Concept of Class

- ClassCounter is a function that creates a new cell and returns new functions: Incr and Read (recall higher-order programming)
- The record result groups the methods so that they can be accessed by its fields.

```
declare
Counter1 = {ClassCounter}
Counter2 = {ClassCounter}
```

• The methods can be accessed by "." (dot) operator {Browse {Counter1.incr}}
{Browse {Counter2.read}}

Concept of Nondeterminism

- It is concurrency + state
- The order in which threads access the state can change from one execution to the next
- The time when operations are executed is not known
- Interleaving (mixed order of threads statements) is dangerous (one of most famous concurrent programming error :
- [N.Leveson, C.Turner: An investigation of the Therac-25 accidents. *IEEE Computer*, 26(7):18-41, 1993])
- Solution: An operation is atomic if no intermediate states can be observed

Summary

- Oz, Mozart
- Variable, Type, Cell
- Function, Recursion, Induction
- Correctness, Complexity
- Lazy Evaluation
- Higher-Order Programming
- Concurrency, Dataflow
- Object, Classes
- Nondeterminism