

The series publishes short books on general computer science topics that will appeal to advanced students, researchers, and practitioners in a variety of areas within computer science.

Paul A. Gagniuc

An Introduction to Programming Languages: Simultaneous Learning in Multiple Coding Environments



Paul A. Gagniuc
Department of Engineering in Foreign
Languages
Faculty of Engineering in Foreign Languages
University Politehnica of Bucharest
Bucharest. Romania

ISSN 1932-1228 ISSN 1932-1686 (electronic) Synthesis Lectures on Computer Science ISBN 978-3-031-23276-3 ISBN 978-3-031-23277-0 (eBook) https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-23277-0

© The Editor(s) (if applicable) and The Author(s), under exclusive license to Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2023, corrected publication 2023

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are solely and exclusively licensed by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

The publisher, the authors, and the editors are safe to assume that the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication. Neither the publisher nor the authors or the editors give a warranty, expressed or implied, with respect to the material contained herein or for any errors or omissions that may have been made. The publisher remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Switzerland AG The registered company address is: Gewerbestrasse 11, 6330 Cham, Switzerland

On the occasion of his 85th birthday, I dedicate this work to my best friend, science partner and father figure, Constantin Ionescu-Tirgoviste. You are the greatest man I know! You are intelligence, wisdom, kindness, patience, verticality, diplomacy, morality and inspiration, in one single package.



Acad. Prof. Dr. Constantin Ionescu-Tirgoviste

Preface

This work is an introductory textbook in several computer languages. It describes the most well-known and popular programming environments such as: C#, C++, Java, JavaScript, PERL, PHP, Python, Ruby, and Visual Basic (VB) or Visual Basic for Applications (VBA). Therefore, the main objective of this unique guide is to provide code examples reflected in these nine computer languages. Readers can easily understand the connection and universality between the syntax of different environments and be adept at translating code. This learning experience can be ideal for upper-undergraduate introductory courses, researchers, doctoral students, and sociologists or engineers charged with implementing data analysis. Graphical illustrations are used for technical details about the computation examples to aid in an in-depth understanding of their inner workings. Moreover, the book contains original material that has been class-tested by the author and numerous cases are examined. Readers will also benefit from the inclusion of: (1) Historical and philosophical perspectives on the past, present and future of computer languages. (2) A total of 448 additional files are freely available online, from which a total of 44 files are poster presentations (i.e. PowerPoint and PDF files). (3) A total of 404 code examples reflected in nine computer languages, namely: C#, C++, Java, JavaScript, PERL, PHP, Python, Ruby and VB. This work first begins with a general introduction to history and presents the natural inevitable pathway from mechanical automation to present electronic computers. Following this historical introduction, an in-detail look is made at philosophical questions, implementations, entropy and life. More often than not, there is a genuine amazement of the younger generations regarding the advancement of computer technology. Historical events that led to the development of technologies have been distilled down to the essence. However, the essence of any story is made with a massive loss of detailed information. The essence of essences loses all the more information. Over time, the lack of detail leads to a collective amnesia that can prevent us from understanding the naturalness by which technology has evolved. Thus, new constructs are always built upon older constructs to fit the evolutionary chain of technological progress, which boils down to the same fundamental rules as biological evolution. In the first stage, this book discusses the natural path of programming constructs by starting from time immemorial and ending with examples up to the present times. In the end, naturally driven constructs of all

viii Preface

kinds also drive our society today. In the second part, the emphasis is made on the technical side where a total of nine computer languages are used simultaneously for mirrored examples. Simultaneous learning of multiple computer languages can be regarded as an asset in the world of science and technology. Thus, the reader can get used to the majority of known programming or scripting languages. Moreover, a basic knowledge of software implementation in several computer languages, even in an introductory way, helps the versatility and adaptability of the reader to new situations that may arise in industry, education, or research. Thus, this work is meant to bring a more concrete understanding of the similarities and differences between computer languages.

Ionel Bujorel Păvăloiu
Department of Engineering in Foreign
Languages, Faculty of Engineering
in Foreign Languages
University Politehnica of Bucharest
Bucharest, Romania

Acknowledgements

I wish to thank my friend Andrei Vasilateanu for a wonderful and precise review. His background in programming languages made him the perfect reviewer for this work.

Personal Words

I understand from confirmed sources that 42 is the answer to all things, the universe and everything. Today I start to believe that myself since I rapidly approach this age of wisdom. Much of this book is based on personal experience that comes from a time period of rapid technological change. In my childhood, I have seen punch cards in use on the "FELIX computers" at the very beginning of the 90s, and my personal experience in the world of computer software started with the "Z80" processor. I know what it means to see red after a few hours spent on the phosphorescent green tube of the monitor. I remember the unmistakable sound of software, namely the incoming or outgoing data. I also remember how to save and load the source code to and from a magnetic tape of a cassette. I know what it means to switch from the "Z80" microprocessor and "BASIC" functional keys to "286" computers equipped with DOS operating systems and "Quick-BASIC". I am a first-hand witness of the novelty called the mouse, and the perfection of the rubber sphere that is supposed to be cleaned of dust from time to time. I lived to see and feel the romance portrayed by all stages of the Internet and I was there to see the evolution of programming languages since the mid-90s. When I switched to languages like "C", "Turbo Pascal", or "Delphi", I remember the mystery and the potential I felt in regard to the "486 CPU" computers. Later, on "586", I was amazed by the "Visual Studio 6.0" package, and especially amazed by the "Visual Basic 6.0" programming language. Of this package, I am still amazed to this very day. I was fortunate enough to see the ups and downs of tech companies and the radical changes of the Internet, and because I am a Romanian, I witnessed the highest Internet connection speeds on the planet. I was born at the right time to experience punch cards, magnetic tapes, cassette tapes, floppy disks, songs/sounds of the modem, hard drives, CDs, DVDs, Blu-ray discs, USB drives and SSD drives. Computers shaped me! The journey made me a happy young-old man. But, could four decades encompass so much? It appears so! Well, these were the times, the best times.

Contents

1	Histo	rical No	otes	1
	1.1	Introdu	action	1
	1.2	The U	ltimate Foundation	2
		1.2.1	Closer to Our Times	2
		1.2.2	Universality at the Crossroads	2
	1.3	On the	Recent Origin of Computers	3
		1.3.1	Automatons and the Memory of the Soul	4
		1.3.2	Mechanical Computers	5
		1.3.3	Electronic Computers	5
		1.3.4	American Standard Code for Information Interchange	6
		1.3.5	A Conspiracy for Convergence	7
	1.4	Histor	y of Programming Languages	7
		1.4.1	The Making of an Advanced Civilization	8
		1.4.2	The Dark Age of Computer Languages	9
		1.4.3	The Extraordinary Story of ActiveX	11
		1.4.4	Killed on Duty by Friendly Fire	11
		1.4.5	The Browser: Resistance is Futile, You Will be Assimilated	12
	1.5	Conclu	isions	12
2	Philo	sophy a	and Discussions	15
	2.1		action	15
	2.2	The E	ntropy of Software	16
		2.2.1	Entropy of Codes and Human Nature	16
		2.2.2	Raw Versus Fine-Grained Entropy	16
		2.2.3	How Does Software Entropy Increase?	17
	2.3	The O	perating Systems and Entropy	17
		2.3.1	The Twins	18
		2.3.2	Rejection of Equilibrium	18
		2.3.3	The Third Party Software	18
		2.3.4	Examples of Universality	19

xiv Contents

	2.4	Softwa	re Updates and Aging	20
	2.5		sality Supports Self-reflection	21
		2.5.1	The Evolution of Large Brains Versus Entropy	21
	2.6	From C	Computer Languages to Art and Sports	22
		2.6.1	The Art	23
		2.6.2	The Sport	24
	2.7	Compil	led Versus Interpreted	25
		2.7.1	Programming Languages	25
		2.7.2	Scripting Languages	27
		2.7.3	Source Code Encryption	27
		2.7.4	The Executable File	28
		2.7.5	Executable Files and Scripting Languages	28
	2.8	The Ur	nseen and Unspoken	29
		2.8.1	Witch Hunting Shows Weakness	30
		2.8.2	No Secrets for the Emeritus	30
		2.8.3	The War Against the Executable File	31
		2.8.4	We Decide What Product Comes About	31
	2.9	Psvcho	ological Warfare	32
		2.9.1	Removal by Threat	32
		2.9.2	Removal by Advertising	33
		2.9.3	Handling of Terms	33
		2.9.4	Battle of Computer Languages	34
		2.9.5	Uniformity Means Death	35
		2.9.6	Modern Does Not Mean Better	35
		2.9.7	Market Share Demands Responsibility	36
	2.10	Human	Roles and Dilemmas	37
		2.10.1	The Identity Crisis	37
		2.10.2	Work Environments	38
		2.10.3	Genus: Homo	38
	2.11		Professors Are Those Who Assume	39
	2.12		isions	40
3			nd Concepts	41
	3.1		action	41
	3.2		ory of Programming Paradigms	42
		3.2.1	Imperative Programming	42
		3.2.2	Declarative Programming	45
		3.2.3	The in Between	46
		3.2.4	The Foundation	46
	3.3		iter Languages Used Here	47
		3.3.1	C#	47
		3.3.2	C++	47

Contents xv

		3.3.3	Java
		3.3.4	JavaScript
		3.3.5	Perl
		3.3.6	PHP
		3.3.7	Python
		3.3.8	Ruby
		3.3.9	Visual Basic
	3.4	Classif	ication Can be Misleading
		3.4.1	A Critique
		3.4.2	Which Computer Language is Better?
		3.4.3	The Operating System Versus the Application Makeup
		3.4.4	The Virtual Machine: A CPU for Bytecode
		3.4.5	Compiled Languages
		3.4.6	Interpreted Languages
		3.4.7	Just in Time Compilation
		3.4.8	Another Critique
		3.4.9	A Security Thought Experiment
		3.4.10	About Security Privileges
	3.5	The Ou	nick Fix
	3.6	_	sions
ı	0		
۱	4.1		d Expressions
	4.1		action
	4.2	Operate	
		4.2.1	Arithmetic Operators
		4.2.2	Assignment Operators
		4.2.3	Relational Operators
		4.2.4	Concatenation Operators
	4.2	4.2.5	Logical Operators
	4.3		or Symbols
		4.3.1	Power Operator: The Curious Case of Exponentiation
		4.3.2	The Modulo Operator
		4.3.3	Unitary Operators
		4.3.4	The String Operator
		4.3.5	The Repetition Operator
		4.3.6	The Concatenation Operator
		4.3.7	Relational and Logical Operators
	4.4	Assign	ments
		4.4.1	Simple Assignments
		4.4.1 4.4.2 4.4.3	Simple Assignments Aggregate Assignments Multiple Assignments

xvi Contents

	4.5	Operator Precedence and Associativity		73		
	4.6	Conclusions		78		
5	Data	ata Types and Statements				
	5.1	Introduction		79		
	5.2	Data		79		
		5.2.1 Bits and Bytes		80		
		5.2.2 Symbol Frequency Matters		82		
		5.2.3 The Encoding		85		
		5.2.4 A Hypothetical System of Reference		85		
		5.2.5 The Bytes of an Alien World		86		
	5.3	Data Type		88		
		5.3.1 The Curious Case of the String Data Type		89		
		5.3.2 Experimental Constructs		91		
	5.4	Statements		92		
		5.4.1 ASCII Symbols		92		
		5.4.2 Unicode Transformation Format		92		
		5.4.3 Sentences are Made of Constructs		93		
		5.4.4 The Root of Behavior		93		
		5.4.5 The End of the Line		93		
		5.4.6 Statements and Lines		94		
		5.4.7 Multiple Statements and Line Continuation		96		
		5.4.8 Recommended Versus Acceptable Statements		98		
	5.5	The Source Code		101		
		5.5.1 Indentations		101		
		5.5.2 Comments		102		
	5.6	Conclusions		104		
6	Class	ic and Modern Variables		105		
	6.1	Introduction		105		
	6.2	Variables		105		
		6.2.1 Literals		106		
		6.2.2 Naming Variables		109		
		6.2.3 Variables: Explicit and Implicit		110		
		6.2.4 Statically Versus Dynamically Typed Languages		110		
	6.3	Evaluations of Expressions		115		
		6.3.1 Details by Language		116		
	6.4	Constants		118		
	6.5	Classes and Objects		120		
		6.5.1 About Design Patterns		120		

Contents xvii

	6.6	Arrays		121
		6.6.1	Creating an Empty Array	121
		6.6.2	Creating an Array with Values	123
		6.6.3	Adding Elements	123
		6.6.4	Accessing Array Elements	126
		6.6.5	Changing Values in Array Elements	131
		6.6.6	Array Length	131
		6.6.7	Nested Arrays	137
		6.6.8	Multidimensional Arrays	139
	6.7	Conclu	sions	139
7	Cont	rol Stru	ctures	147
	7.1		ction	147
	7.2	Conditi	ional Statements	148
	7.3	Repeat	Loops	153
		7.3.1	The While Loop	153
		7.3.2	The For Loop	159
		7.3.3	Nested Loops	170
		7.3.4	Multidimensional Traversal by One For-Loop	170
	7.4	Conclu	sions	184
8	Func	tions		187
Ŭ	8.1		ction	187
	8.2		g Functions	187
	0.2	8.2.1	Simple Arguments	189
		8.2.2	Complex Arguments	192
		8.2.3	Nested Function Calls	196
		8.2.4	Chained Function Calls	200
		8.2.5	Relative Positioning of Functions	200
		8.2.6	Recursive Calls	208
		8.2.7	Global Versus Local Variables	214
		8.2.8	Functions: Pure and Impure	218
		8.2.9	Function Versus Procedure	218
		8.2.10	Built-In Functions	223
	8.3	Conclu	sions	228
9	Impl	ementati	ions and Experiments	233
	9.1		ction	233
	9.2		ion Experiments	234
		9.2.1	Repeat String <i>n</i> Times	234
		9.2.2	Sum from 0 to n	234
		9.2.3	Factorial from 0 to <i>n</i>	254
		9.2.4	Simple Sequence Generator	254
			1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	

	9.2.5	Fibonacci Sequence	255
	9.2.6	Sum All Integers from Array	255
9.3	Interva	1 Scanning	256
9.4	Spectra	d Forecast	265
9.5	Conclu	sions	274
Correct	ion to: H	listorical Notes	C 1
Referen	ces		275

List of Figures

Fig. 2.1	From entropy to art and back. The word "entropy" is written	
	on the beaches of Golden Sands in Bulgaria. The word written	
	in the sand indicates low entropy, which is quickly increased by noise	
	represented by the waves of the Black Sea. The top-right panel shows	
	a viral capsid close to a cell wall, which is portrayed by ASCII art	24
Fig. 2.2	Types of computer languages and their relationship to terms. It	
	presents the relationship between scripting languages and programming	
	languages and tries to highlight the relationship with the notions	
	of interpreters and compilers. The first column from the left shows	
	the classic case of a scripting language in which the source code	
	is directly interpreted by an interpreter application. The middle	
	column shows the situation often encountered today, where the source	
	code is converted to bytecode, and then the bytecode is interpreted	
	by an interpreter application for compatibility with the operating system	
	and then compiled into machine code. On the right column, the classic	
	programming languages are OS-specific, where the source code is	
	directly converted into machine code. Note that Bytecode is a form	
	of P-code, and it means pseudo code. Also, JIT is the Just-In-Time	
	interpretation and compilation that a virtual machine does depending	
	on the operating system	27
Fig. 3.1	Paradigms, computer languages and their syntax. It shows the link	
	between hardware, computer languages, paradigms and syntax	
	styles. Notice that low level computer languages are imperative	
	and unstructured. Some older high-level computer languages that are	
	equiped with the absolute jump commands, are in fact imperative	
	and unstructured (ex. QBASIC). The bridge from unstructured	
	to structured also exists. Some of the most recent higher-level computer	
	languages, are equipped with absolute jump commands and functions	
	at the same time (ex. VB6). Note that absolute jump commands are	

List of Figures XX

> known as "GOTO" in most high-level computer languages of the past, where this keyword was able to move execution from the current line to an arbitrary line (eg. Inside a 100-line implementation, "GOTO 10" can move execution to line 10, regardless of where the statement is made). In the assembly language, the most well-known unconditional jump command is the "JMP" mnemonic of Intel CPU's. There are other types of jumps that represent conditional jumps, and these represent a myriad of mnemonics in groups of two to four characters that all begin with the letter "J" (eg. "JL"—Jump if Less, "JGE"—Jump if Greater or Equal, "JNLE"-Jump if Not Less or Equal, and so on). In other CPUs, like Z80, the mnemonic for the absolute jump command is "JP". From firmware to firmware, these notations, or mnemonics, can be represented by different sets of characters. However, because the world works on Intel CPU designs, the word Assembly language is often associated with Intel CPUs. Note that mnemonics means "memoria technica" or "technical memory", and it refers to how information is written in the shortest way in order to be remembered without information loss. In short, it is optimization

Fig. 3.2 Bytecode portability and compilation versus interpretation. In an abstract fashion, it shows how most interpreted computer languages work today. It starts from the source code written by the programmer, which is assumed to be compiled to bytecode. The bytecode represents an abstraction of the initial source code. Bytecode is then used as it is on any platform, because there, whatever the platform is, it is met by an adaptation of the same virtual machine. This virtual machine makes a combination between interpretation and sporadic compilation (Just In Time compilation—JIT) to increase the execution speed of the software implementation. Note that "native code" and "machine code" have the exact same meaning across all figures that are alike. This particular figure contains the words "Native code" instead of "Machine code" in order to fit the text inside the horizontal compressed shapes. Note also that in a different context, "native code" may refer to the only language understood by some abstract object. For instance, Java bytecode is the "native code" to the Java Virtual Machine. As it was the case in the old days, some interpreters of lower performance (not necessarily VMs) made a direct interpretation of source code, without an intermediate step like the use of bytecode. In principle, virtual machines could be designed to directly interpret high-level source code, short circuiting the source code security

List of Figures xxi

	through obscurity or the multi-step optimization, or both. Thus, in such	
	a case the "native code" would be the Java high-level source code.	
	Also, please note that the abstract representation of the modules shown	
	in the figure indicates a lack of extreme contrast between what is	
	commonly called an interpreter or a compiler. That is, the compiler	
	also does a little bit of interpreting and the interpreter also does a little	
	bit of compiling	53
Fig. 4.1	Operator precedence and associativity symbols by computer	
Ü	language. In this table, operators enclosed in the same border have	
	equal precedence and their associativity is shown on the column	
	next to the symbols. The pink color of a cell indicates a group	
	of operators and the light yellowish color indicates single operators	
	per level. Note that the abbreviation OP means Order of Precedence;	
	A = Associativity; N = Order of direction is not applicable	
	here—non-associative; $L = left$ -to-right; $R = right$ -to-left. Some	
	lesser known and used operator symbols are not shown here. The	
	plus and minus signs belonging to addition and subtraction can	
	be seen immediately below multiplication and division. Other plus	
	or minus symbols present either above or below that position have	
	dual roles, such as the plus sign in JavaScript which uses the symbol	
	for both concatenation and addition. Other interesting observations are:	
	In VB the "\" means integer division; in Ruby "=~" means matching	
	operator; also in Ruby "!~" means NOT match. In C# the "^" means	
	bitwise XOR, whereas in VB it means exponentiation	75
Fig. 4.2	Examples of operator precedence and associativity. At the top,	
	the two panels show one example each for operator precedence	
	or operator associativity. A mixed example is given at the bottom	
	of the figure showing the relationship between operator precedence	
	and operator associativity. In the lower right part there is a short list	
	with symbols for only a few operators. In this list, the vertical order	
	of the operators indicates operator precedence and the symbols found	
	on the same level have equal precedence. Notice that in all panels there	
	is a well-established and numbered sequence of computations that is	
	based on precedence and associativity	76
Fig. 5.1	ASCII and UTF-8. It shows the back compatibility of UTF-8. On	
	the vertical axis, the first half of the figure shows the structure	
	of ASCII, which encodes for symbols using 8-bit sequences (1 byte).	
	A schematic of UTF-8 is unrivaled in the second half of the figure. The	
	UTF-8 relationship with ASCII is preserved for encoding positions	
	starting from 0 to 127. However, starting from position 128 up to 255.	

xxii List of Figures

	ASCII and UTF-8 use different encodings. Namely, ASCII uses 1 byte	
	for this range, whereas UTF-8 uses 2 bytes. Outside the ASCII range,	
	UTF-8 uses 2 bytes up to 4 bytes to encode new arrivals in the symbol	
	set. UTF-8 may stop at 32 bit (4 bytes) representations, as all symbols	
	with meaning in all human history, does not exceed 4.3 billion, as 4	
		02
T: 50	·	83
Fig. 5.2	Size of text according to UTF-8. It shows the size of text "*sunny"	
	under UTF-8. This further includes the code points (the whole	
	number associated with a symbol), the corresponding bit sequences	
	and the actual symbols associated with these abstract representations.	
	Note that boxes indicate abstract regions of physical memory. The	
	space character and the letters that make up the word "sunny" take	
	up a total of 6 bytes, however, the sun symbol is new and is encoded	
	in 3 bytes instead of 1 byte. This observation is in fact very important.	
	Usually, the most necessary symbols were those that were first	
	introduced as characters in the development of computers over time.	
	Consequently, time precedence of characters is directly proportional	
	to their frequency of occurrence in data. Thus, preservation of the initial	
	encoding for the most frequent symbols dictates the conservation	
	of file size. UTF-8 characters can be represented by 1 byte for older	
	legacy symbols, up to 4 bytes for newer symbols. This is one	
	of the main reasons why UTF-8 is crucial to the future of technology	0.4
T	when compared to other character encodings	84
Fig. 5.3	The alien text measured in alien bytes. The top of the figure	
	shows five hypothetical characters in a 2D formation of 5×6 bits.	
	Below the representations are the 3-bit codes that can be associated	
	with these object characters. Just below the 3-bit codes, the characters	
	are displayed using colors instead of 0 and 1s. The abstract box	
	representation shows the 3-bit code and the character code associated	
	with the symbols. On the bottom of the figure, an "alien" phrase of 20	
	characters is shown. The meaning of the phrase is not important.	
	There, the comparison is made between the size of the 20 characters	
	(200 bytes) and the size of the encoding (20 bytes). Thus, the "alien"	
	example indicates the role of character encoding in reducing size	
	without information loss. Note that in this example, an "alien" byte	
	•	87
	represents a 5 of sequence	57

List of Figures xxiii

Fig. 5.4	Data Type representation. It describes the general constructs used
	by computer languages to represent data. The data type constructs
	shown here are normally divided into two, primitive data types
	and non-primitive data types. Primitive data types in turn are divided
	into two other categories, namely numeric and non-numeric data. Non
	numeric data contains the character type and the boolean type, whereas
	the numeric category contains the weight of the constructs. Namely,
	for integers, there is the byte type, the integer type, the long type
	and the short type. In the case of the floating point category there is
	double type and the float type. Among the non-primitive categories
	the array type, the string type and the object type are listed. The object
	type also implies the possibility of creating other new data types. Note:
	there are many computer languages today that no longer use primitives
	in the true sense of the word, but objects that simulate primitives, such
	as pure object-oriented languages, like Ruby
Fig. 5.5	Examples of multiline comments are presented in the case of Python,
	which show the connection between the one-dimensional patterns
	from the previous table and the two-dimensional representation
	from the source code. Note that the source code is in context and works
	with copy/paste
Fig. 6.1	One-dimensional array variables. It presents two different
	representations of array variables. The first approach from above shows
	how the lower bound starts from zero $(0 \dots n)$. Notice that the total
	number of elements in the array is $n + 1$. This is the case with many
	modern computer languages. The second approach shows the case
	of VB, were the index of an array variable may start from any value
	and end with any value that is bigger than the first $(n \dots n + m; m > m)$
	n). Notice that the total number of elements in the array is $m + 1 \dots 137$
Fig. 6.2	Multi-dimensional arrays. It shows two diagrams that represent array
8	variables with two dimensions. The first diagram shows a lower
	bound that starts at zero for both dimensions, and the second (bottom)
	diagram representing an array variable with an arbitrary lower bound
	position for each dimension. These two representations can be given
	in three dimensions by providing another row in the diagram. This is
	true for any dimensions, in wich each dimension can be represented
	by boxes positioned linearly in this figure
	by boacs positioned inicarry in this light

List of Tables

Table 4.1	Critical Arithmetic Operators. These operators can be safely called	
	the primitive operators as they are fundamental to every operation	
	(especially addition and subtraction). The symbols for Addition,	
	Subtraction, Multiplication, Division and Exponentiation, are shown	
	for each computer language used in this work	64
Table 4.2	Concatenation, repetition and non-critical arithmetic operators. Some	
	of these operators can be considered advanced operators because they	
	are borderline constructs with built-in functions (notably these	
	operators are: Modulus, Concatenation, Repetition). The Increment	
	and Decrement operators are part of the list of primitive operators	
	continued from the previous table. Briefly, symbols for Modulus,	
	Concatenation, Repetition, Increment, Decrement, are shown for each	
	computer language used in this work	65
Table 4.3	Relational operators. Relational operators which are also known	
	as comparision operators, are used for comparing the values of two	
	operands. Briefly, symbols for equality, inequality, less than, greater	
	than, less than or equal to, greater than or equal to, are shown	
	for each computer language used in this work. The square brackets	
	in the table cells indicate the optional representation of the operands	69
Table 4.4	Logical operators. Relational operations can only be linked together	
	by using logical operators. Briefly, symbols for Logical Not, Logical	
	And, Logical Or, are shown for each computer language used in this	
	work. The square brackets in the table cells indicate the optional	
	representation of the operands	7 0
Table 5.1	From bits to encoding possibilities and bytes. It shows the number	
	of encoding possibilities for bit sequences between 1 and 64.	
	For each bit sequence considered here, the number of bytes is shown	
	from the octet perspective. Namely, the last column in the table shows	

xxvi List of Tables

	that bytes are no longer represented by an integer value when bit sequences are smaller or larger than multiples of 8. It can be seen that 32-bit sequences allow close to 4.3 billion coding possibilities ($2^{32} = 4.294967296e + 9$). Likewise, 64-bit sequences cover the unthinkable, because there are not enough meanings in this world to fill the space of coding possibilities ($2^{64} = 1.84467440737e + 19$)	82
Table 5.2	Example of primitive data types in Java. A primitive data type specifies the size and type of information the variable will store. There are eight primitive data types that are fundamental	02
	to programing. Note that 1 byte is 8 bits. Also, short is the inherited integer. Depending on the computer language, the integer data type may be either the old one $(-32,768 \text{ to } 32,767)$ or the new one $(-2,147,483,648 \text{ to } 2,147,483,647)$. Note that from one computer	
	language to another, the ranges of the values associated with these data types vary greatly. Due to the increase in hardware capabilities over time, the range of values for data type constructs has naturally	
	increased as well	86
Table 5.3	List of primitive data types and composite data types. The table lists primitive data types and composite data types for each computer language used in this work. Note that in one way or another all computer languages have data types that lend themselves into modern	
	programming by necessity because of the inheritance from the past,	
	such as array, string, integer, boolean and so on. Without these, the paradigm changes automatically	91
Table 5.4	Line feed, carriage return and the ASCII conversions. Representations for some of the non-printable ASCII characters are shown here for all computer languages used in this work. Note that "LF" stands for line feed, "CR" stands for carriage return, and "CR & LF" represents	
	the two ASCII characters as a unit. The last two columns show	
	the methods by which a character can be obtained based on the ASCII	
	code or, how the ASCII code can be obtained based on a given	
	character. The statements in the fifth column return a character,	
	while those in the last column return an integer. Letter "a" represents an integer between 0 and 255, while "b" represents one character	05
	an integer between 0 and 255, while 0 represents one character	73

List of Tables xxvii

Table 5.5	Multiple statements and Line continuation. Continuing a statement	
	over multiple lines or putting multiple statements on one line is	
	critical in some instances were complexity is high. The second	
	column shows the pattern of positioning the code lines, labeled a,	
	b and c, one after the other through a delimiter, namely the ":"	
	symbol, or more frequently the ";" symbol. The third column shows	
	a pattern that indicates the rules according to which a very long	
	statement can be broken into multiple lines. In this case the example	
	is made for assignments, namely on expressions placed at the right	
	of the equal operator. The letters a , b , and c represent values	
	of different data types. Note that, only in this example, the ""	
	character indicates the action of pressing the <i>Enter</i> key	97
Table 5.6	Comments and symbols. For exemplification, ASCII characters used	
	to start a line of comment are shown for each computer language.	
	Perhaps because of historical reasons, some characters are shared	
	between languages. On the third column, a series of one-dimensional	
	models show ways to write multi-line comments for each computer	
	language. In these patterns, the letters a , b and c may represent	
	any line of text. Only in this example, the "a" character indicates	

List of Additional Algorithm

Additional algorithm 3.1	It shows the "Hello world" example for all computer	
	languages used in this work. This is intended	
	as a positive first introduction. Note that the source	
	code is in context and works with copy/paste	57
Additional algorithm 4.1	Examples of assignments are shown for multiple	
	computer languages. An important observation is	
	that VB refers to Visual Basic 6.0 (VB6) and VBA	
	syntax, namely the last version of Visual Basic.	
	Thus VB6 lacks aggregate assignment as this style is	
	a relatively new addition to computer languages. VB6	
	can explicitly declare multiple variables for a certain	
	data type (Dim a, b, c As Integer), however, it	
	lacks the posibility for multiple assignment. Note	
	that the source code is out of context and is intended	
	for explanation of the method	71
Additional algorithm 5.1	The first line of each computer language	
	in the above list, shows an extraction of an ASCII	
	character on the basis of an ASCII code. The	
	second line shows the extraction of the ASCII	
	code based on a given ASCII character. The output	
	for any of the above statements is "Code 65 is	
	the: 'A' letter" and "Letter A has the code: '65".	
	Note that the source code is in context and works	
	with copy/paste	95
Additional algorithm 5.2	It shows basic good practices in JavaScript, such as:	
	what is recommended, acceptable, and wrong. Note	
	that the source code is out of context and is intended	
	for explanation of the method	98

Additional algorithm 5.3	It demonstrates multiple statements made on one	
	line, and a line continuation for long statements. The	
	statements shown here are very short, but the point	
	of the exercise remains valid. Note that the source	
	code is out of context and is intended for explanation	
	•	99
Additional algorithm 6.1	It shows a few examples of literals. The examples	
U	bring a series of known data types, namely an integer	
	literal (42), a floating point literal (3.1415), and two	
	string literals ("a" and "this text"). Thus, anything	
	that is written data is a literal. Note that the text	
	is out of context and is intended for explanation	
	of the method	106
Additional algorithm 6.2	It shows how values (literals) of different data types	100
Additional algorithm 0.2	are assigned to variables. Please note that C#, C++,	
	Java and VB use the data type explicitly, i.e. the type	
	of the variable is declared before assignment. On	
	the other hand, notice that all the other environments	
	use implicit data type, that is, the value is able	
	to explicitly declare the variable type. Judging	
	by the trends, it is possible that in the future	
	explicit assignments may be less frequent. Note	
	that the source code is in context and works	107
A 1150 1 -1	with copy/paste	107
Additional algorithm 6.3	It shows explicit and implicit declarations	
	of variables as well as examples of expressions	
	and their evaluations for all computer languages	
	used here. It mainly shows the connection	
	between operators and data types. Note	
	that the source code is in context and works	
	with copy/paste	112
Additional algorithm 6.4	Example of interesting evaluations in PERL showing	
	that concatenations that use the "+" operator	
	instead of the "." operator, lead to the elimination	
	of the string value from the result, with no error	
	in sight. Note that the source code is out of context	
	and is intended for explanation of the method	117
Additional algorithm 6.5	It shows how constants are declared in different	
	computer languages. Moreover, it shows	
	the difference between constant declaration (second	
	column) and variable declaration	

(third column). Some computer languages use special keywords and data type declarations, while other computer languages do not. Notice how in certain computer languages where there are no special keywords for defining constants, the difference between constant and variable is made by convention; namely a variable written with an uppercase letter means a constant and a variable written with a lowercase letter means a simple variable whose content can be changed at will. Note that the source code is out of context and is intended for explanation of the method 119 It shows two methods of declaring an empty array. For declaration purposes, computer languages use either square brackets or round brackets to indicate that the variable represents a group of "internal subvariables". On the second column is the array square parentheses type of declaration. On the third column is the array constructor type of declaration. Most computer languages that use the array constructor statement are usually object-oriented. But not all of them; for example Python does not have a special keyword of this kind, preferring the array square parentheses notation. Those declarations that explicitly write the data type for the array, can obviously take any data type. Here the example was given on a string data type for computer languages such as C++, C#, Java or VB6. Note that the source code is out of context and is intended for explanation of the method 122 It shows how to create a multi-valued one-dimensional array variable using literals. In this example an array variable A is used to store only string literals and an array variable B is used to store integer literals. In languages such as Javascript, PHP, PERL, Ruby or Python, array variables can store several types of literals, including objects. In languages such as C++, C#, Java or VB6, array variables can store only one type of literal. Note that the source code is in context and works

Additional algorithm 6.6

Additional algorithm 6.7

Additional algorithm 6.8 It shows the statements by which an array variable A is declared and the statements by which literal values are subsequently inserted into the elements of the array variable. It should be noted that some computer languages such as Javascript, PHP, PERL or Ruby allow the declaration of an empty array variable, after which the values can be inserted into newly declared elements. On the other hand, in other computer languages such as C++, C#, Java, VB6 and Python, the number of elements in the array variable must be declared before the assignment of values. Note that the source code is in context It shows how to access the values stored Additional algorithm 6.9 in the elements of an array variable. An array literal is declared, in which three string values (three separate characters, namely "a", "b", "c") are stored. Then, two variables x and y are declared, which take values from the elements of the array variable A. Then, once assigned to the x and y variables, the string values are displayed in the output for visualization. As it can be observed, the result obtained after the execution is "bc". Note that the source code is in context and works Additional algorithm 6.10 It shows how to change values in existing array elements. An array variable A is declared. String literals are assigned to each element of A. The value from the first element of the array variable A, is assigned to a variable x. Then, a literal string value (i.e. "d") is assigned to the second element of variable array A, thus erasing the previous value (i.e. "a") from this element. Next, the value from the third element of A is assigned to the second element of A, thus deleting the initial value (i.e. "b") from the second element. The value stored in variable x is assigned to the third element

of array A. At the end, the values from each element are displayed in the output for inspection. Here, the initial sequence "abc" was transformed

into the sequence "dcb". Note that the source code is It shows how to get the total number of elements Additional algorithm 6.11 from an array. First an array literal A is declared, that contains three elements, each with a string literal (one character). Next, a variable x is declared and a value is assigned to it. The value in question represents the number of elements in array A and is provided either by an in-built function or by a method of the array object, depending on the computer language used. Finally, the content of variable x is displayed in the output for inspection. One thing to note is that in VB, the ubound internal function returns the last index in the array and not the total number of elements as expected from the other examples. Note that the source code is in context and works with copy/paste 135 It presents nested arrays in Javascript, Ruby Additional algorithm 6.12 and Python. Three array variables A, B and C are declared here, each with three literal values. To represent the notion of nested, three other array variables are declared, namely D, E and F, each with three elements that hold one of the arrays A, B or C. To provide yet another level in the nest, a last three-element array variable is declared (i.e. G), in which each element takes one of the recently mentioned arrays (i.e. D, E or F). Note that the source code is in context and works Additional algorithm 6.13 It shows the way in which multidimensional array variables can be declared. An interesting difference can be observed between two groups of computer languages. A group involving Javascript, PHP, PERL, Ruby or Python and another group involving classic computer languages, namely C++, C#, Java or VB6. The first group (i.e. Javascript, PHP, PERL, Ruby or Python) uses largely the same type of declaration for several dimensions. The Javascript example shows how to declare two-dimensional and three-dimensional array variables, where the pattern can be followed for any

PHP. PERL. Ruby or Python, the exemplification is only repeated for two dimensions and it assumes that for more than two dimensions the declarations can be made in the same way as in Javascript. The second group is more different, where Java, C# and VB are radically different in the way statements are made. Obviously, Java and C# have common syntax elements, but they differ a little in the way the declarations for arrays are made. In VB, the number of dimensions and the number of elements in each dimension are initially declared. Only then these elements in their respective dimensions can receive values by assignment. VB is so radically different when compared to other computer languages, that array variables have a lower bound (read through the *LBound* function) and an upper bound (read through the *UBound* function), a property that can open paths in prototyping (especially in science). In the VB examples, each Debug.Print statement line corresponds to a row in the output. Note that the source code is in context and works with copy/paste Demonstrates the implementation of conditional statements. Three variables a, b and c are declared and assigned to different values. A condition triggers a statement to increment the value of variable c, only if the value of variable a is less than the value of variable b, otherwise a decrement is applied to the value of c. Note that the source code is in context and works with copy/paste 149 Demonstrates the implementation of conditional

higher dimensions (i.e. 4D, 5D, 6D, and so on). In

Additional algorithm 7.1

Additional algorithm 7.2

statements on array variables. Three elements of an array variable (*A*) are declared and filled with values. A condition triggers a statment to increment the value of the last element of the array (i.e. "A[2]"), only if the value of the first element (i.e. "A[0]") is less than the value of the second

element (i.e. "A[1]"), otherwise a decrement is

applied to the value

	of the last element of the array. Note that the source
	code is in context and works with copy/paste 151
Additional algorithm 7.3	Here the positive increment while-loop structure
	is demonstrated. A variable i is declared and set
	to zero. A while loop structure increments variable i
	from its initial value to its upper limit (number five).
	At each iteration, variable i is printed in the output.
	The result is an enumeration of values from 0 to 4.
	Note that the source code is in context and works
	with copy/paste
Additional algorithm 7.4	It demonstrates the traversal of a one-dimensional
	array. An array variable is declared with string
	literals. The implementation also uses two
	other variables. A variable t stores string values
	and is initially set to empty. Another variable
	(i.e. i) initialized with value zero is the counter
	of a while-loop. The while-loop traverses
	the elements of array A by using the counter
	<i>i</i> as an index. At each iteration, the value
	from an element is added together with other
	string characters to the variable t. Once the end
	of the while-loop cycle is reached, the value
	collected in the variable t is printed in the output
	for inspection. Note that the source code is in context
	and works with copy/paste
Additional algorithm 7.5	The for-loop cycle for incrementing some simple
C	variables is demonstrated. Specifically, two variables
	a and b are declared and initialized. The variable
	a is initialized to the integer five and the variable
	b is set to zero. The for-loop is then declared
	to start at the initial value of i and end at the value
	indicated by variable a. At each increment, the value
	in variable i is added to the numeric value stored
	in variable b. At the end of the loop, the final
	value stored in variable b is printed to the output
	for inspection. Note that the source code is in context
	•
	and works with copy/paste

Additional algorithm 7.6

Additional algorithm 7.7

It demonstrates the use of nested for-loops. It shows the traversal of a two-dimensional array by a nested for-loop structure. A 2D-array variable (A) is declared with mixed datatypes, namely with string literals and number literals. A string variable t is initially set to empty. Another two variables (i.e. i and i) are initialized with value zero and are the main counters of nested for-loops. The upper limit of each for-loop is established by the two dimensions, namely the number of rows and columns from matrix A. The two for-loops traverse the elements of array A by using the counters i and j as an index. At each iteration, the value from an element is added to the content of variable t. Once the end of the nested for-loops is reached, the value collected in variable t is printed in the output for inspection. The end result is the enumeration of each value in the output, in a linear manner. Note that the source code is in context and works with copy/paste 174

Additional algorithm 7.8

It demonstrates the use of a single for-loop for two-dimensional arrays. It shows the traversal of a two-dimensional array by one for-loop structure. A 2D-array variable (A) is declared with mixed datatypes as before, namely with string literals and number literals. A string variable t is initially set to empty. A variable v is set to zero and it represents the main counter of the for-loop. Another two variables (i.e. i and i) are initialized with value zero and are the main coordinates for element identification. Each dimension of array A is stored in variables n and m, namely the number of rows in nand the number of columns in m. The upper limit of the for-loop is calculated based on the two known dimensions n and m. Thus, m times n establishes the upper limit of the for-loop. Here, the value of the counter v from the for-loop is used to calculate the *i* and *j* values that are used as an index to traverse the array variable A. The value of variable j is computed as the v % m and the result of this expression indicates the reminder (ex. 5 mod 3 is 2). The secret to this implementation is a condition that increments a variable i (rows) each time j(columns) equals zero. Thus, in this manner this approach provides the i and j values that a nested for-loop provides. At each iteration, the value from an element is added to the content of variable t. Once the end of the for-loop is reached, the value collected in variable t is printed in the output for inspection. The end result is the enumeration of each value in the output, in a linear manner. Note that the source code is in context and works

Additional algorithm 7.9

It demonstrates the use of a single for-loop for three-dimensional arrays, with an extrapolation to multidimensional arrays. Note that the example shown here is done only for Javascript in order to preserve paper. One can port this in any other

language as previously shown. The traversal of a 3D array using only one for-loop structure. is based on the previous example. A 3D-array variable (A) is declared with mixed datatypes, namely with string literals and number literals. The 3D-array is represented by five matrices, in which the columns represent one dimension, the rows represent the second dimension, and the number of matrices, represents the third dimension. Thus, this array can be understood as a cube-like structure. A string variable t is initially set to empty. A variable v is set to zero and it represents the main counter of the for-loop. Another three variables (i.e. i, j and d) are initialized with a value of zero and are the main coordinates for array element identification. Each dimension of array A is stored in variables s, m and n, namely the number of matrices in s, the number of rows in m and the number of columns in n. The upper limit of the for-loop is calculated as $s \times m \times n$. Here, the value of the counter v from the for-loop is used, as before, to calculate the i, j and d values that are used as an index to traverse the array variable A. The value of variable j is computed as the v % m. A condition increments a variable i (rows) each time j (columns) equals zero. Thus, both i and j values are computed. However, the value for variable *d* (matrix number) is calculated as $v \% (m \times n)$, which provides a value of zero each time a matrix was traversed. Thus, a condition increments variable d and resets variable i, each time the value of k equals zero. At each iteration, the value from an element (d, i, j) is added to the content of variable t. Once the end of the for-loop is reached, the string value collected in variable t is printed in the output for inspection. The end result is the enumeration of each value in the output, in a linear manner. Note that the source code is in context and works with copy/paste 185

Additional algorithm 8.1	It shows the use of functions that take simple
	arguments. An integer literal is assigned to a variable
	a. Variable a is then used as an argument
	for a function called "compute". Function
	"compute" takes the argument and uses its value
	in a mathematical expression. The returned value
	of function "compute" is then assigned to a variable
	b, which is then printed into the output for inspection.
	Note that the source code is in context and works
	with copy/paste
Additional algorithm 8.2	It shows the use of functions by considering
	complex arguments. Such complex arguments can
	be strings, array variables, or complex objects. In
	this specific case, a string and an array variable are
	used as arguments to a function called "compute".
	An array variable containing five elements is
	declared using string literals. Then a string variable
	t is declared and set to empty. The two variables
	are passed to the "compute" function. Inside
	the "compute" function, a for-loop traverses each
	element of the array a , and it adds the value
	from it to the accumulator variable t. At the end
	of the for-loop, the "compute" function returns
	the value of t, which is assigned to a string
	variable b, that is further printed onto the output
	for inspection. Note that the source code is in context
A 1199 1 1 1 1 0 0 0	and works with copy/paste
Additional algorithm 8.3	It shows the principle of nested function calls
	in which the return value of the most inner function
	becomes the argument for the most immediate outer
	function call, and so on. An integer literal is assigned
	to variable a. Then, the final return value of a group
	of nested function calls is assigned to a variable b ,
	which in turn is printed to the output for inspection.
	Initially, the value stored in variable b is a negative
	value (i.e. -756029). Thus, for demonstration
	purposes, the minus sign is inserted in front
	of variable b in order to change the sign of the stored
	integer value (i.e. $b = -b$). Note that the source
	code is in context and works with copy/paste 197

Additional algorithm 8.4

It shows how functions may use other functions in a chain of calls. Another important observation made here, is related to the position of functions relative to the main program. In some computer languages function must be declared before the main program, whereas in other computer languages the order of the functions or the position of the functions relative to main, is not important. This fact indicates how the source code is treated by the compiler. That is, in some computer languages, execution is immediate, regardless of whether the functions are loaded or not, while in other computer languages, execution begins once all the code is loaded. The example from above shows how two variables become the arguments of a function c1, which pass their values to other functions in a chain that ends in a function c5. This trip of the arguments shows different types of additions until the last level is reached, such as additions of values, either literals, returned values from other functions or values from new variables. Function c5 uses a for-loop to traverse the elements of the array variable in order to sum up the values in the accumulator variable t. Once the for-loop finishes the iterations, the value from variable t is returned to function c4, which adds some other value to the this response. In turn, function c4 returnes the value to function c3, until it reaches the path to function c1, which assigns the final response value to a variable b. Variable b in turn is printed into the output for inspection. Notice that, in the case of C++. variable t holds the total number of elements of array a, until the chain of calls reaches function c5. There, the content of variable t is assigned to a new variable (i.e. l), and variable t is set to zero to take the role of an accumulator variable for calculating the sum. It should be noted that pointers can be used, namely, the parameter "int a[]" can be written as a pointer, namely "*a", which will provide the same result because the number of elements

in array a is calculated before any function is called. Note that the source code is in context and works It shows how a recursive function call can be Additional algorithm 8.5 a replacement of a for-loop statement. Thus, a function called "for-loop" is capable of receiving three arguments. An argument for a, which is the counter for the number of self-calls, another argument for b, which indicates the upper limit of recursive calls (self-calls), and finally an argument for r, which accumulates an integer literal (i.e. 5) at each iteration/recursion. Inside the function a condition checks if the value of a is higher or equal to the value of the limit, namely b. In cases that a is less than b, the recursion continues, whereas if a is higher or equal to b, the value of ris returned back to the original caller. Once the final return value arrives to the caller, it is immediately assigned to variable a in the main program, an then the content of the a variable is printed into the output for inspection. Note that the source code is in context Additional algorithm 8.6 This example shows the meaning of constants and global variables. A constant (i.e. a) and a global variable (i.e. b) are declared, either in the main routine (e.g. in Javascript, PHP, PERL, Ruby and Python) or outside the main routine/program (e.g. like in C++, C#, Java and VB/VBA). In the main routine a function named "compute" is called to provide a return value for a variable named b. Once the thread of execution moves to the "compute" function, the value from the global variable b is visible inside the function and is assigned to a local variable x. The content of variable x is then used inside a mathematical expression and the result is returned to the caller. Once the returned value is assigned to variable b, the content of the variable and that of the constant is then printed into the output for inspection. In the C++ computer language, one can see a comment

declaring the constant and the global variable

between the two functions. For testing, the activation of those declarations will result in an error because in C++ or VB, constants and global variables are written at the beginning of the program because the compiler needs to know the context before execution. In PHP and Python, global variables have visibility inside a function only if they have a special declaration (i.e. Global \$name of variable:). Also notice that in Ruby. global variables are denoted using the dollar sign in front of the name of the variable (ex. \$b). Note that the source code is in context and works It shows the meaning of pure and impure functions. A function named "pure" receives an argument for x and returns a value that is the result of the evaluation of a mathematical expression. This function is pure because it does not change anything outside the function. On

Additional algorithm 8.7

the other hand, a function called "impure" receives the same argument for x that is used in the same mathematical expression as in the "pure" function. However, the "impure" function, modifies the value of a global variable a. This modification made outside the function makes the function impure. Notice that both functions return the same result in the initial call. However, in the third call the returned value differs, as the global variable a that is modified by the "impure" function is in fact the argument for the next calls. Note that the source code is in context and works with copy/paste 219 It shows the difference between functions and procedures. A pure function named f takes an argument and returns a value based on a mathematical expression. A procedure named "p" that takes no arguments and gives no return values, is used to assign the result of a subtraction to a local variable x (i.e. x = a - 11). Next,

the result of a mathematical expression is assigned to a global variable *b*, after which the execution thread returns automatically to the caller. Notice

Additional algorithm 8.8

visibility inside a function only if a special declaration exists (i.e. Global \$name of variable;). Also, notice that VB has a special keyword for procedures. The distinction between functions and procedures is made by using the keyword "function" and the keyword "Sub", respectively. Moreover, in VB, a sub is not called by using the round parenthesis as "p()", but the name of the procedure is simply stated, like "p". Single letter names for procedures can be confusing in case of VB, and procedure names with more than two characters are adviseable. Note that the source code is in context and works with copy/paste 224 This shows an example of using the built-in functions. In this specific case, it shows how to check for the presence of a string above another string. A string literal is assigned to variable "a" and a string literal representing the target is assigned to a variable "q". The number of characters found in a, is assigned to a variable b. Next, in a function chain all q encounters found in the string of a, are replaced with nothing. If the q string exists in variable athan the result is a shorter string than the original. Next in this function chain, the result is passed directly to the length function, which provides the total number of characters in the procesed string. This last result is then assigned to variable c. In a condition statement the value of c is compared with the value from a. If the two values are different, it means that q was present in the original string of a. Note that the replacement is made by using two methods: (1) The *split* function that uses q as a delimiter, provides an array wich in turn is converted into a normal string again, without any instances of q (this can be seen in Javascript and VB). (2) The replace function which is able to replace all instances of q found in a, with an empty string (eg. it deletes q from a). Note that the source

code is in context and works with copy/paste 229

that in PHP and Python, global variables have

Additional algorithm 8.9

Additional algorithm 9.1

Additional algorithm 9.2

It shows how a distribution can be calculated for a range of integers. This example uses a mathematical expression shown across the chapters. The mathematical expression takes an input value and, as expected, provides an output value. In this particular example, an implementation takes a range of integers and returns a corresponding range of values calculated using the mathematical expression. For each computer language there are two examples. One example that uses a string variable to store the results, and another example that uses an array variable to store the results. The two examples per computer language show the malleability of code, that points out the possibility of multiple solutions to one problem. Note that the source code is in context

Additional algorithm 9.3

It shows the implementation of the Spectral Forecast equation on two signals. Two signals are represented by a sequence of numbers each. This sequence of numbers is stored as a string value in two variables A and B. These two values are then decoded into individual numbers inside the elements of the array variables (tA and tB). The maximum value found over the elements of the two array variables is calculated and stored before switching to the computation of Spectral Forecast. The array variables tA and tB are then used inside a for-loop to calculate a third signal M using the Spectral Forecast equation for a predefined index d. The index d determines how similar the third signal is to signal A or signal B. The method shown here allows for a useful protocol to manage and process numeric data stored as simple text, a case that is often encountered in science and engineering. Note that in the case of C++ some new built-in functions can be applied to a value inside a variable v. such as: the "substr" function that cuts a certain portion of a string, or the "strtof(v)" which converts a string to float. Other functions of interest not used here are: the "strtod(c)" function that converts a string to a double, or the "v.c str()" method that converts a numeric value to a string. Also, in C++ the example uses vectors, and the number of components is given by the "size()" method. Again, the source code is in context and works