

Programming Paradigms

Vitaly Shmatikov

Reading Assignment

- Mitchell, Chapter 2.1

What Is a Programming Language?

- Formal notation for specifying computations, independent of a specific machine
 - Example: a factorial function takes a single non-negative integer argument and computes a positive integer result
 - Mathematically, written as $\text{fact}: \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$
- Set of imperative commands used to direct computer to do something useful
 - Print to an output device: `printf("hello world\n");`
 - What mathematical function is “computed” by `printf`?

Partial and Total Functions

- Value of an expression may be undefined
 - Undefined operation, e.g., division by zero
 - $3/0$ has no value
 - Implementation may halt with error condition
 - Nontermination
 - $f(x) = \text{if } x=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } f(x-2)$
 - This is a partial function: not defined on all arguments
 - Cannot be detected by inspecting expression (why?)
- These two cases are “mathematically” equivalent, but operationally different (why?)

Subtle: “undefined” is not the name of a function value ...

Partial and Total: Definitions

- **Total function** $f:A \rightarrow B$ is a subset $f \subseteq A \times B$ with
 - $\forall x \in A$, there is some $y \in B$ with $\langle x, y \rangle \in f$
(total)
 - If $\langle x, y \rangle \in f$ and $\langle x, z \rangle \in f$ then $y = z$
(single-valued)
- **Partial function** $f:A \rightarrow B$ is a subset $f \subseteq A \times B$ with
 - If $\langle x, y \rangle \in f$ and $\langle x, z \rangle \in f$ then $y = z$
(single-valued)
- Programs define partial functions for two reasons
 - What are these reasons?

Computability

- Function f is **computable** if some program P computes it
 - For any input x , the computation $P(x)$ halts with output $f(x)$
 - Partial recursive functions: partial functions (int to int) that are computable

Halting Problem

Ettore Bugatti: "I make my cars to go, not to stop"



Halting Function

- Decide whether program halts on input
 - Given program P and input x to P,

$$\underline{\text{Halt}}(P,x) = \begin{cases} \text{yes} & \text{if } P(x) \text{ halts} \\ \text{no} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Clarifications

- Assume program P requires one string input x
- Write $P(x)$ for output of P when run in input x
- Program P is string input to Halt

Fact: There is no program for Halt

Unsolvability of the Halting Problem

- Suppose P solves variant of halting problem
 - On input Q , assume $P(Q) = \begin{cases} \text{yes} & \text{if } Q(Q) \text{ halts} \\ \text{no} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- Build program D
 - $D(Q) = \begin{cases} \text{run forever} & \text{if } Q(Q) \text{ halts} \\ \text{halt} & \text{if } Q(Q) \text{ runs forever} \end{cases}$
- If $D(D)$ halts, then $D(D)$ runs forever
- If $D(D)$ runs forever, then $D(D)$ halts
- **Contradiction!** Thus P cannot exist.

Main Points About Computability

- Some functions are computable, some are not
 - Example: halting problem
- Programming language implementation
 - Can report error if program result is undefined due to an undefined basic operation (e.g., division by zero)
 - Cannot report error if program will not terminate

Computation Rules

- The factorial function type declaration does not convey how the computation is to proceed
- We also need a computation rule
 - $\text{fact}(0) = 1$
 - $\text{fact}(n) = n * \text{fact}(n-1)$
- This notation is more computationally oriented and can almost be executed by a machine

Factorial Functions

- C, C++, Java:

```
int fact (int n) { return (n == 0) ? 1 : n * fact (n-1); }
```

- Scheme:

```
(define fact  
  (lambda (n) (if (= n 0) 1 (* n (fact (- n 1))))))
```

- ML:

```
fun fact n = if n=0 then 1 else n*fact(n-1);
```

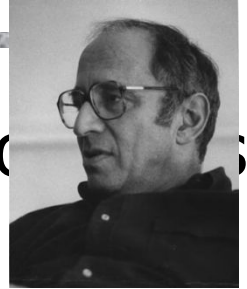
- Haskell:

- `fact :: Integer->Integer`
- `fact 0 = 1`
- `fact n = n*fact(n-1)`

Principal Paradigms

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

Where Do Paradigms Come From?



- **Paradigms** emerge as the result of social processes in which people develop ideas and create principles and practices that embody those ideas
 - Thomas Kuhn. "The Structure of Scientific Revolutions."
- Programming paradigms are the result of people's ideas about how programs should be constructed
 - ... and formal linguistic mechanisms for expressing them
 - ... and software engineering principles and practices for using the resulting programming language to solve problems

Imperative Paradigm

- Imperative (procedural) programs consists of actions to effect **state change**, principally through assignment operations or side effects
 - Fortran, Algol, Cobol, PL/I, Pascal, Modula-2, Ada, C
 - Why does imperative programming dominate in practice?
- OO programming is not always imperative, but most OO languages have been imperative
 - Simula, Smalltalk, C++, Modula-3, Java
 - Notable exception: CLOS (Common Lisp Object System)

Functional and Logic Paradigms

- Focuses on function evaluation; avoids updates, assignment, mutable state, side effects
- Not all functional languages are “pure”
 - In practice, rely on non-pure functions for input/output and some permit assignment-like operators
 - E.g., (set! x 1) in Scheme
- Logic programming is based on predicate logic
 - Targeted at theorem-proving languages, automated reasoning, database applications
 - Recent trend: declarative programming

Concurrent and Scripting Languages

- Concurrent programming cuts across imperative, object-oriented, and functional paradigms
- Scripting is a very “high” level of programming
 - Rapid development; glue together different programs
 - Often dynamically typed, with only int, float, string, and array as the data types; no user-defined types
 - Weakly typed: a variable 'x' can be assigned a value of any type at any time during execution
- Very popular in Web development
 - Especially scripting active Web pages

Unifying Concepts

- Unifying language concepts
 - Types (both built-in and user-defined)
 - Specify constraints on functions and data
 - Static vs. dynamic typing
 - Expressions (e.g., arithmetic, boolean, strings)
 - Functions/procedures
 - Commands
- We will study how these are defined syntactically, used semantically, and implemented pragmatically

Design Choices

- **C**: Efficient imperative programming with static types
- **C++**: Object-oriented programming with static types and ad hoc, subtype and parametric polymorphism
- **Java**: Imperative, object-oriented, and concurrent programming with static types and garbage collection
- **Scheme**: Lexically scoped, applicative-style recursive programming with dynamic types
- **Standard ML**: Practical functional programming with strict (eager) evaluation and polymorphic type inference
- **Haskell**: Pure functional programming with non-strict (lazy) evaluation.

Abstraction and Modularization

- Re-use, sharing, extension of code are critically important in software engineering
- Big idea: **detect errors at compile-time**, not when program is executed
- **Type** definitions and declarations
 - Define intent for both functions/procedures and data
- **Abstract data types** (ADT)
 - Access to local data only via a well-defined interface
- Lexical **scope**

Static vs. Dynamic Typing

- Static typing
 - Common in compiled languages, considered “safer”
 - Type of each variable determined at compile-time; constrains the set of values it can hold at run-time
- Dynamic typing
 - Common in interpreted languages
 - Types are associated with a variable at run-time; may change dynamically to conform to the type of the value currently referenced by the variable
 - Type errors not detected until a piece of code is executed

Billion-Dollar Mistake



Failed launch of Ariane 5 rocket (1996)

- \$500 million payload; \$7 billion spent on development

Cause: software error in inertial reference system

- Re-used Ariane 4 code, but flight path was different
- 64-bit floating point number related to horizontal velocity converted to 16-bit signed integer; the number was larger than 32,767; inertial guidance crashed

Program Correctness

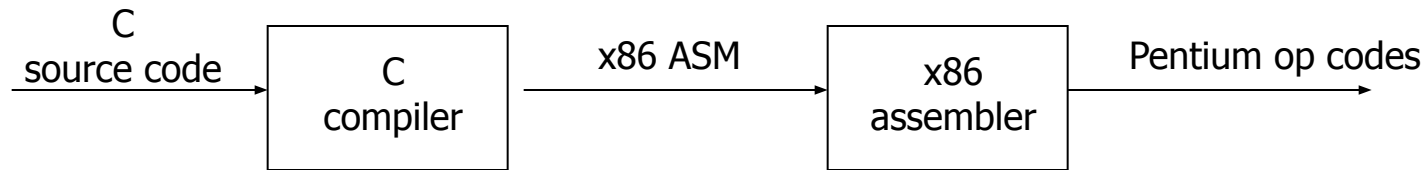
- Assert formal correctness statements about critical parts of a program and reason effectively
 - A program is intended to carry out a specific computation, but a programmer can fail to adequately address all data value ranges, input conditions, system resource constraints, memory limitations, etc.
- Language features and their interaction should be clearly specified and understandable
 - If you do not or can not clearly understand the semantics of the language, your ability to accurately predict the behavior of your program is limited

Language Translation

- **Native-code compiler:** produces machine code
 - Compiled languages: Fortran, C, C++, SML ...
- **Interpreter:** translates into internal form and immediately executes (read-eval-print loop)
 - Interpreted languages: Scheme, Haskell, Python ...
- **Byte-code compiler:** produces portable bytecode, which is executed on virtual machine (e.g., Java)
- Hybrid approaches
 - Source-to-source translation (early C++ → C → compile)
 - Just-in-time Java compilers convert bytecode into native machine code when first executed

Language Compilation

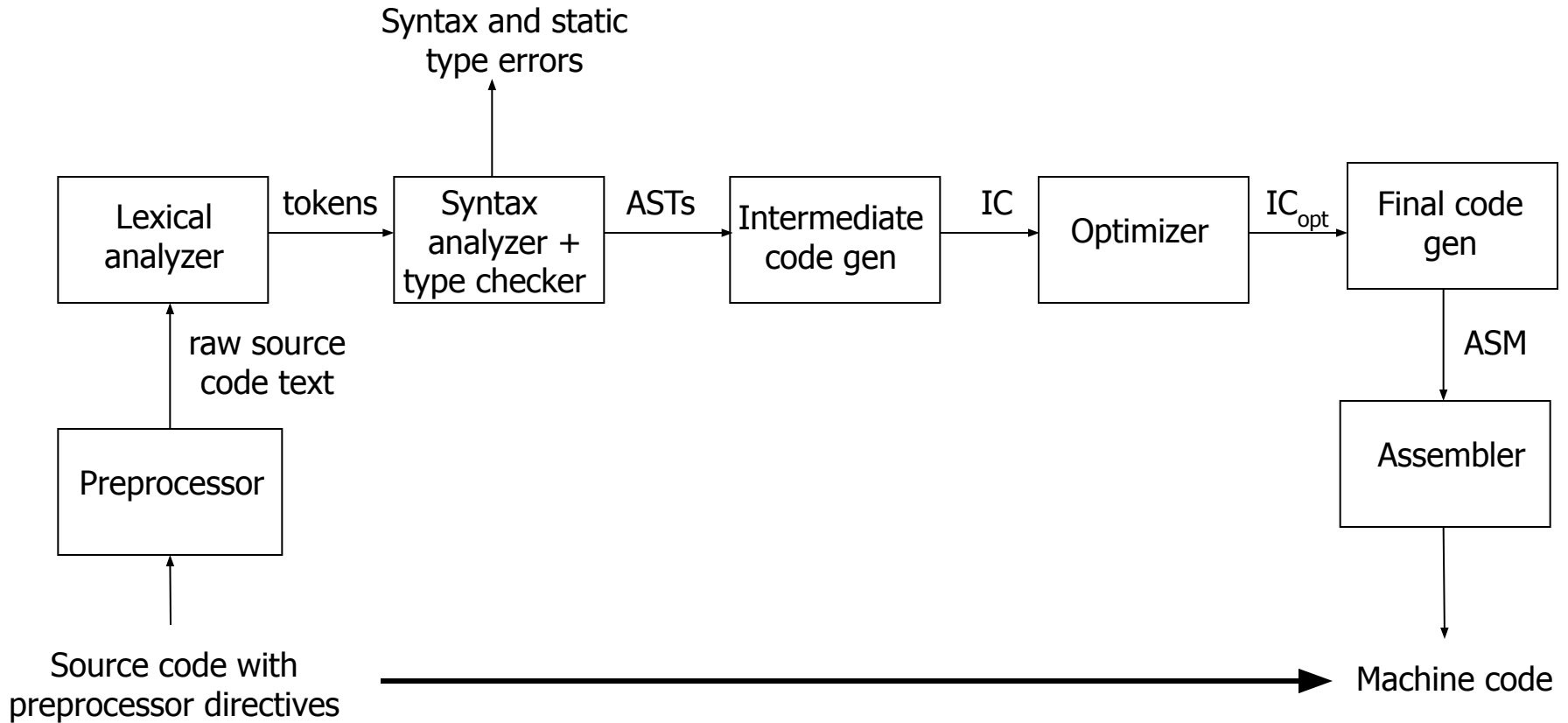
- **Compiler:** program that translates a source language into a target language
 - Target language is often, but not always, the assembly language for a particular machine



Checks During Compilation

- Syntactically invalid constructs
- Invalid type conversions
 - A value is used in the “wrong” context, e.g., assigning a float to an int
- Static determination of type information is also used to generate more efficient code
 - Know what kind of values will be stored in a given memory region during program execution
- Some programmer logic errors
 - Can be subtle: `if (a = b) ...` instead of `if (a == b) ...`

Compilation Process

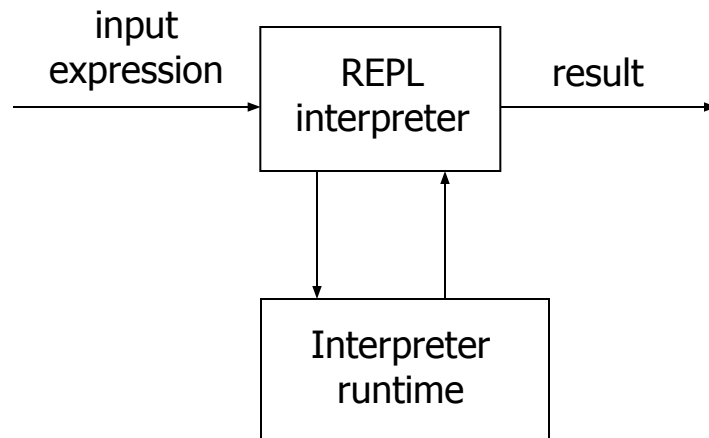


Phases of Compilation

- **Preprocessing:** conditional macro text substitution
- **Lexical analysis:** convert keywords, identifiers, constants into a sequence of tokens
- **Syntactic analysis:** check that token sequence is syntactically correct
 - Generate abstract syntax trees (AST), check types
- **Intermediate code generation:** “walk” the ASTs and generate intermediate code
 - Apply optimizations to produce efficient code
- **Final code generation:** produce machine code

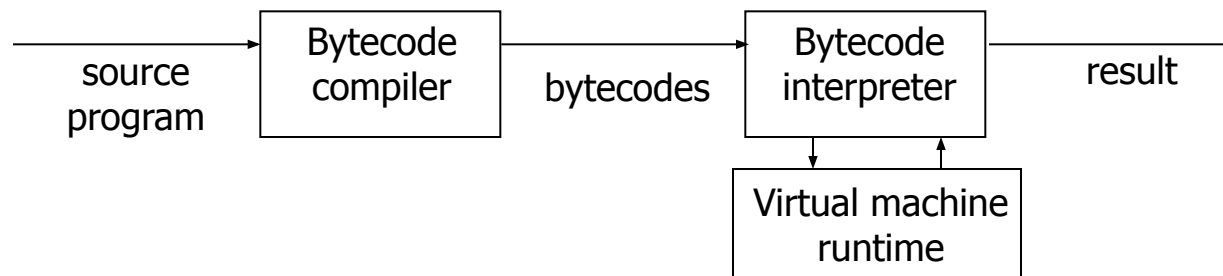
Language Interpretation

- Read-eval-print loop
 - Read in an expression, translate into internal form
 - Evaluate internal form
 - This requires an abstract machine and a “run-time” component (usually a compiled program that runs on the native machine)
 - Print the result of evaluation
 - Loop back to read the next expression



Bytecode Compilation

- Combine compilation with interpretation
 - Idea: remove inefficiencies of read-eval-print loop
- Bytecodes are conceptually similar to real machine opcodes, but they represent compiled instructions to a virtual machine instead of a real machine
 - Source code statically compiled into a set of bytecodes
 - Bytecode interpreter implements the virtual machine
 - In what way are bytecodes “better” than real opcodes?



Binding

- **Binding** = association between an object and a property of that object
 - Example: a variable and its type
 - Example: a variable and its value
- A language element is bound to a property at the time that property is defined for it
 - **Early binding** takes place at compile-time
 - **Late binding** takes place at run-time