PHYSICS 210 – Fall 2009

OVERVIEW OF PROGRAMMING

Tuesday, September 22

Programming Paradigms

- Procedural / Imperative (our primary focus in this course)
 - Programmer specifies sequence of steps needed to complete task
 - Two key components: Data (Structures) & Algorithms
 - Also typically involves decomposition of large program into smaller modules (procedures, functions)
 - Examples: C, Pascal, MATLAB, Fortran, ...
- Functional (our secondary focus)
 - Treats programming as evaluation of mathematical functions
 - Role of data structures downplayed, functions should have no "side effects"; e.g. shouldn't *change* data per se
 - Examples: LISP, Scheme, Haskell, ...
 - Will see some elements of functional programming in Maple, MATLAB

Programming Paradigms (cont.)

- Object-Oriented (will not use in class / homework, but you can use it in your term project)
 - Uses "objects" which combine data (datafields) and algorithms/procedures/functions (methods) which operate on the datafields
 - Relative to procedural & functional programming, focus is more on the data itself, rather than the processes with manipulate the data
 - Has become a very popular mode of programming since the 1990's, particularly for large projects involving many programmers
 - Examples: C++, Java, Smalltalk, and many others that have support for objects (Python, Perl, ...)
 - Arguably less intuitive that procedural programming, and can be "overkill" for many task in scientific computing

Basic Constructs for Procedural Programs

 Given the notion of a statement in a programming language, which we will take as an elementary operation (such as assignment of a value to a variable, or a call to a sub-program / function ...), there are essentially only 3 fundamental constructs that a procedural programming language need supply (note, in bash a statement is typically a command).

1. Sequence

- 2. Selection
- 3. Iteration

Sequence

- Ability to execute an arbitrary number of statements, in the order in which they occur in the code
- Straightforward in all procedural languages
- bash example

command 1 command 2 command 3



Selection

- Ability to evaluate logical (i.e. true/false / binary / boolean) expressions, and then follow one of two branches of code that eventually merge into a single branch
- **bash** example:

if logical-expr ; then commands 1 else commands 2 fi



Iteration

- Ability to repeatedly execute some arbitrary statement sequence (looping):
 - With some loop parameter ranging over specified values
 - 2. While some logical expression remains true
 - 3. Until some logical expression becomes true
- **bash** example (type 1)

for loopvar in values ; do commands done



Case Statement

- Can always be implemented using sufficiently general if statement (such as that in bash), but often provided in language for convenience
- Essentially a multi-valued (i.e. non- true/false / binary / boolean) decision statement
- **bash** example

case word in
pattern 1) commands 1 ;;
pattern 2) commands 2 ;;
pattern 3) commands 3 ;;



1. DESIGN IS IMPORTANT!

- Think carefully about what you need to do, and how you are going to do it, before you start programming ("coding")
- Resist the urge to "make it up as you go along" while sitting in front of the computer (except for very simple programs, or if you need to experiment)

2. IMPLEMENT INCREMENTALLY

- If possible, adopt a top-down approach, get "skeleton" of program working, then add to it gradually
- Avoid temptation to write large blocks of code in one go, and then debug
- Difficulty in debugging tends **not** to be linear in the number of bugs (i.e. more than twice as hard to find and fix two bugs than to find and fix one, etc.)

3. MODULARIZE LARGE CODES

- When a code gets lengthy (more than a 100 lines or so), try to decompose into a set of sub-programs (routines, functions, procedures), each of which can be tested individually
- Try to identify commonality in sections of code, or important basic operations that are used repeatedly on your data (structures) and implement them as functions/procedures ...

4. ERROR CHECKING & (EXHAUSTIVE) TESTING ARE VITAL

- Ensure that program does the correct thing with (all) valid input
- Ensure that program handles invalid input gracefully, e.g. exit with an appropriate error message
 - Worst possible situation: invalid input not detected, and program proceeds to compute something (GIGO principle – "garbage in, garbage out")

5. LEARN HOW TO DEBUG EFFECTIVELY

- Debugging is a rather unique type of mental activity
 - First and foremost, you must accept that you **have** made a mistake; especially for novices it is natural/easy to assume that "the computer" is at fault, but 99.999...% of the time, **the fault will be yours!**
- Look at the values of your data as the program proceeds, i.e. by outputting the data to the terminal (or files if it will be convenient, e.g., to plot the data) at key points in the code i.e. use tracing statements
- Put the tracing statements into your code as you write it; this adds a little more time to the coding, but, counter-intuitively, tends to save time in the end
- Code tracing statements so that they can be enabled and disabled easily (i.e. without; removing / re-inserting / commenting-out the statements); e.g. put the tracing statements within if debug-on then tracing-statements end if constructs

6. DOCUMENT YOUR CODE

- Add comments to your code, but don't go overboard!
- Do not add comments which explain what one or two lines are doing, unless the code is tricky; document blocks of code
- Do document purposes of main program and sub-programs (functions, procedures ...) including
 - inputs
 - outputs
 - main data (structures) used