

PPL

Unit 5

→ imperative lang design → Von Neuman Architecture.

→ functional lang → mathematical func.

Features of FP

- * computation $\xrightarrow{\text{done by applying Maths func}} \xrightarrow{\text{to parameter}}$
- * pure FP $\rightarrow \times$ no variable
- * prov dev func $\xrightarrow{\text{built}} \xrightarrow{\text{complex func}}$ producing (final result for initial data)

Advantages

- * not concerned with variables
- * less labour
- * simple syntax & semantics
- * concurrent prog execution \rightarrow easy to understand
easy to design.
easy to use

Disadvantages

- * less efficient
- * slow

Mathematical functions

- * mapping of domain set with another range set
 - * expression specifies parameters & mapping.
 - * Eg: $\lambda(x) = x * x * x$.
 - * For function: cube(x) = $x * x * x$.
-

Lambda expressions

- * nameless fun. its describes.
 - * applied to \rightarrow parameters
-

Functional forms (2 types)

- * higher order function.
- * takes functions as parameters.
- * Eg: functional composition takes 2 funt as parameters

$$h(x) = F(g(x))$$

$$f(x) = x + 2 \quad \text{so} \quad g(x) = 3 * 2$$

$$f(x) = x + 2$$

$$g(x) = x * x$$

$$i(x) = x/2$$

$$h(x) = x/2$$

$$g(x) = x * x$$

$$f(x) = x + 2$$

$$i(x) = x/2$$

then:

$$[g, h, i](4) = \begin{aligned} g(4) &= 4 * 4 = 16 \\ h(4) &= 2 * 4 = 8 \\ i(4) &= 4/2 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore [16, 8, 2].$$

apply to all
function

1.
single fun can
parameter

$$\text{Eg: } h(x) = x * x$$

$$x(h, (2, 3, 4)).$$

$$(2 * 2, 3 * 3, 4 * 4).$$

$$= (4, 9, 16).$$

Fundamentals of FPL

- * Only of design of FPL is mini Maths func to greatest extent as possible
- * variables & not necessary
- * evaluation of function → same result from same parameters

FPL's uni LISP = INTRO & FEATURES

- * 1st language for — FPL.
- * oldest & widely used ATOMS.
- * 2 types of data only : ~~DATA~~ LISTS.
- * e.g. (A B C D E).
- * Org LISP → typically long.
- * LISP lists stored internally as singly linked list.
- * 2 notations & available.
- * first lisp interpreter appeared as demo.
- * automatic garbage collection.
- * base on expressions
- * Advanced OOPS features.
- * Strong support for recursion.

APPLICATIONS OF LISP

- * AI, games, Pattern recog; apps of today
Real time embedded systm

Expressions in LISP

- * Operands & Operators are used
- * operator operand₁ operand₂.
- * Ex: (+ 10 20) | Eg: (* (+ 23) (+ 56))
30. 155.

Operations performed on ATOM & LISTS in LISP

- (*) Atoms:
- * All exp in LISP are made up of lists.
 - * Lists: linear arr of only space by marks are surrounded by brackets
 - * Only are made up of ATOMS.
 - * Space separated elements of list or old ATOMS
 - * Ex: name
123 a
cd
Abc.

b) LISTS

- * They are parenthesized collection of sublists or atoms.
- * Eg.
(ab (cd)e)
(10 20 30).

LISP Functions

- ① car: (car '(1234)) = 1.
- ② cdr: (cdr '(1234)) = 234.
- ③ cons: (cons 10 '(20 30 40)) = 10 20 30 40
- ④ Length: (length '(10 20 30)) = 3

LISP MANIPULATIVE FUNCTIONS

② Append :- $(\text{append} '(10 20 30) '(40 50))$
 $= (10 20 30 40 50)$

③ Map :- $(\text{map} '+ '(1 2 3) '(4 5 6)) = (5 7 9)$.

④ Associative links :- $(\text{assoc} 'age' ((name aa) (age 30) (S 10)))$
 $= \text{AGE } 30$

conditional statement in LISP

(if ($x > 10$) 20).

\therefore as $10 > 20$ is false, N/C will be returned.

Quoting

$> pi = 3.14159$.

$> (\text{quote} pi).$ or $> (^pi) = pi$.

defining function in LISP

syntax defun (proc-name (arg₁ arg₂)
body (of procedure).

ex $> (\text{defun} \text{ mysum} (a b)$
 $\quad (+ a b))$.

now we can use it.

$> (\text{mysum} \ 2 \ 3)$

5.

Imperative lang support FP²

* In TS : function name (funnel-passam) ?
 body
 ?.

* C# : support lambda expression
 $i \Rightarrow (i \% 2) == 0$.

* Py : lambda $a, b : a + b$

Diff b/w Imperative lang & FL

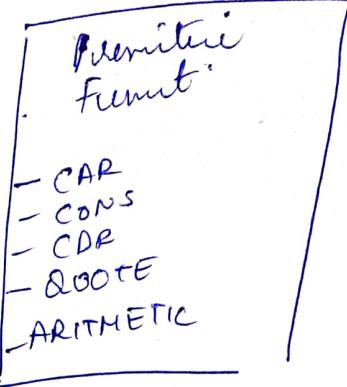
FL

IL

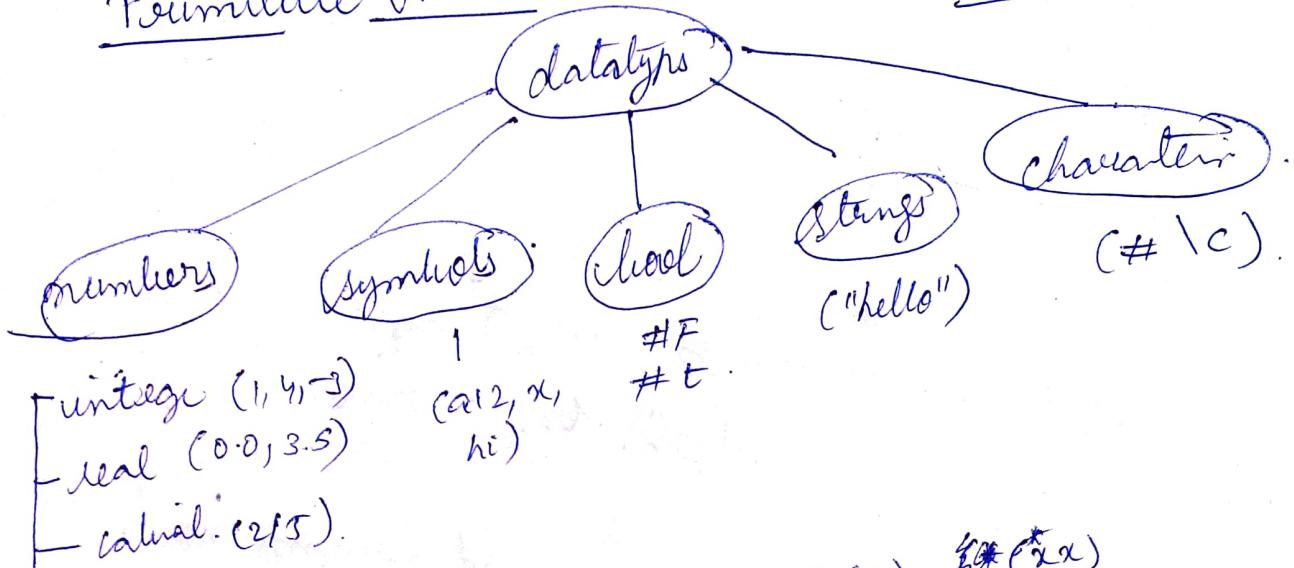
- * need not be concerned with variables
- * must use variables
- * less efficient
- * less elegant
- * simple syntactic structure
- * complex syntactic structure
- * statically typed
- * Order of execution & big
- * CF manipulated by functional calls ac recursive
- * Eg: LISP, Haskell, ML
- * control flow regulated by control statement
- * e.g: C, Java, Py, JS, Ruby etc.

Scheme

- * Used for technical computer concepts
- * LISP is for practical lang



Primitive Numerical Functions



- * nameless funkt - LAMBDA. Eg. $\lambda(x) \frac{y}{x}$
- * output fun - (DISPLAY expression) \in (NEWLINE).

Predicate Numerical Functions

- * Returns boolean value
- * Eg. $=, <, >, <, >=, \leq, \geq, \text{EVEN?}, \text{ODD?}, \text{ZERO}.$
- * control flow.
 - if
 - group of conditions

==

ML

- * Meta lang
- * Syntax is close to pascal.
- * Static typed FL
- * Stronger applicative approach
- * Similar to Scheme
- * Includes Exception Handling
- * Implements abstract Data types

* error parity available
* control flow available
for program execution.
* function:
Fun sub(p,q):
unit P-Q.

- Value declaration

Syntax: val identifier = expression.

ex: val minority = acc * t;

- Expressions

① Arithmetic: *, /, div, mod → multiplication operator
+, - → addition "

② Boolean: and also, or else, not
T F complmt.

③ String expression: "Hi" ^ "Bye" = "Hi Bye".

④ Control flow

- if then - if (exp) then true . else false
- while - while exp1 do exp2

- List Expressions

* ML supports lists as list operations

* lists are rep in square brackets

* as their elements are separated by commas

* [1,2] @ [3,4] = [1,2,3,4]

Haskell

- * purely FP2.
- * has lazy evaluation technique
- * supports static type checking.
- * makes use of functions to define outside rule.
- * uses list comprehension technique
- * supports patterns matching.
- * continue growing community exists.

Haskell vs ML

Haskell

- * Haskell is pure, without side effects or exceptions
- * Haskell has lazy evaluation
- * Haskell functions are curried
- * minimal syntax

ML

- * ML has mutable data structures such as arrays.
- * ML has strict evaluation
- * ML uses tuple args for multi args.
- * heavier syntax

Applications of functional prog

- * APL is used for throwaway prog.
- * LISP is used for AI, ML, NLP....
- * use of ML & Haskell are confined to research labs

Logical Programming Languages

* Intro.

- * called declarative programming
- * express prog in form of symbolic logic
- * use a logical referencing process to produce res.
- * proposition: A logical statement that may or may not be True
- * symbolic logic: Express proposition
Express relation b/w 2 propositions

* Object representation:
 Constants - same obj
 variables - diff obj

* Compound terms: Atomic proposition consist of constants

* consists facts as rules

* can be viewed as control deduction.

* Algo = Logic + control

* concept of logic program linked up with Prolog

* Prolog is an acronym for Programming Logic

* Applications of Logical Prog Lang

* Prolog is used in AI & expert system to solve complex problems, RDBMS, NLP

* It is used on pattern matching algo

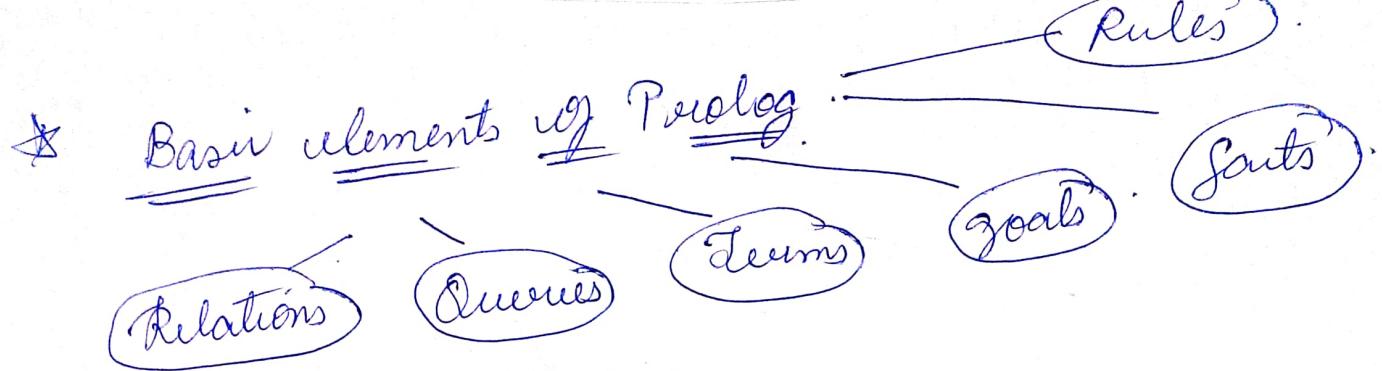
* Used to develop systems based on OOPS concepts

* Prolog is used to build decision support systems

Features

Relations, Unification, Backtracking, Revision

Cuts



① Relations

- * Prolog uses Relations instead of functions.
- * Relations are more flexible.
- * e.g. $[a/b/c]$.
- * As w.r.t [M/T] means Head occurs first in the Tail.
- Hence prolog will treat $[a/b,c]$ as $[a/[b,c]]$.

② Queries

- * Simple queries are created to check whether tuple belongs to a relation.

③ Terms

- * Prolog term is constant, a variable or structure.
- * constant is either an atom or integer.
- * variable is any string of letters, digits.

④ Goals

- * Starts with predicate.
- * for goal to be valid, predicate must have appeared in atleast one fact or rule.
- * All arguments & constants.
- * The purpose of submitting a goal is to find whether the statement represented by the goal is true according to the knowledge database.

⑤ Fact

- * If a goal is hypothesis, the facts are axioms
- * start - predicate
- * end - full stop
- * Args from the constants; no's, variable's, lists
- * Syntax: $\text{Pred}(\text{arg}_1, \text{arg}_2, \text{arg}_3 \dots \text{arg}_n)$

⑥ Rule

- * If a goal is hypothesis, the rules are theorems
- * Rule is intention to fact.
- * Consists 2 parts
- * Syntax: head :- body.

Scripting Languages

Peragmatic

- * Embedded within HTML, adds functionalit
- * Uses interpreter.
- * They run inside another prog.
- * Designed to make coding fast & simple.
- * Does not create .exe file.
- * Scripts are just pieces of code.
- * Easy to learn & write.
- * Flexible dynamic typing
- * High level data types

* Advantages of Scripting languages

- * easy to learn & use.
 - * requires min prog knowledge.
 - * performs complex tasks in few steps.
 - * simple creation & edit in variety of text editors.
 - * allows dynamic activities to web pages.
 - * editing & running code is fast.
-

* Common Characteristics of Scripting language

- * These lang are kept in source form & not in compiled form.
- * Dynamically typed lang.
- * not concerned for underlying machines.
- * These are extensible.
- * They are application specific.
- * Have interactive shell.
- * support event handling.
- * emphasize flexibility.
- * emphasize rapid development.

* Key concepts of scripting lang.

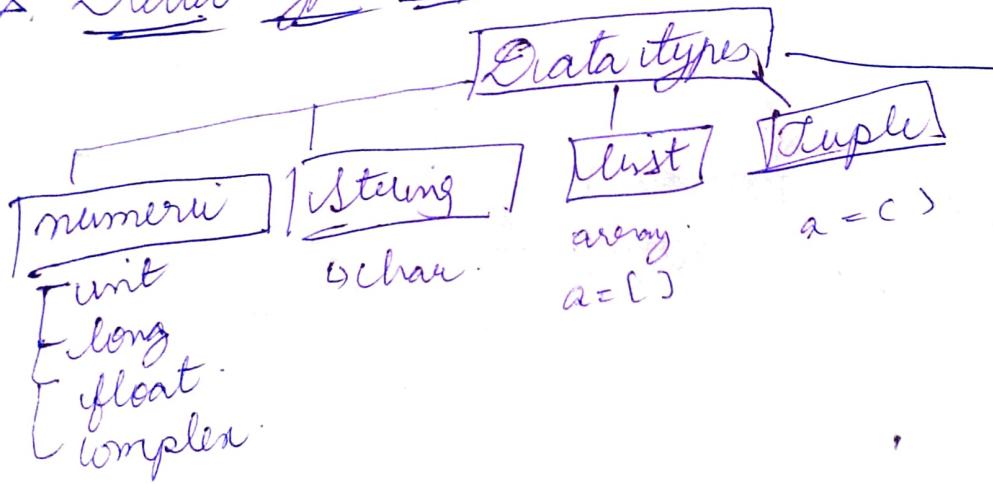
- * simple scripting rules.
- * Direct access to other program.
- * flexible dynamic typing.
- * High level pattern matching.
- * relies on built-in high level data types.
- * Direct access to other program.

case study - Python

Features of PY

- * high level program.
- * easy & simple
- * portable
- * OOPS
- * rich set of functionality
- * built in data types

* Data types supported in Python



Dictionaries
 $a = \{1: R, 2: S\}$

* Storage & Control Statements

① Selection

- if
- if-else
- if-elif-else
- while loop
- for loop

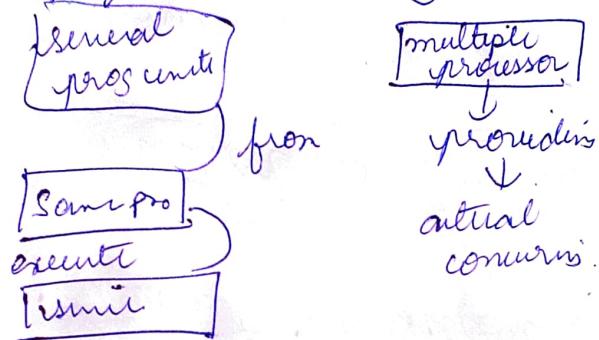
Unit - 4

Subprog level concurrency

levels

- Instruction level - 2 OR MORE Machine instr.
- Statement - 2 OR MORE High level language
- Unit - 2 OR MORE Subprog units

2 conveniences - physical & logical



* Semaphores

- * Shared variable
- * Used to : Synchronize the process of interleaving
- * 2 operations : \downarrow wait $P()$ \downarrow
 \uparrow signal $V()$ \uparrow .

* Working

- ① initialise non-ne value.
- ② wait - \downarrow sema value by 1. \rightarrow
- if value become -ve, process is blocked.
- ③ signal \uparrow sema value by 1.
- if value become +ve, process unblock.

- Q) Ex: Let P_1 & P_2 in a semaphore is initialized to 1,
- * If P_1 enters critical section, value of semaphore 0.
 - * Now P_2 , wants to enter critical section, Then it will wait until $S > 0$.
 - * This can only happen when P_1 finishes critical section & calls Operation on semaphores.
 - * This way mutual exclusion is achieved

* Types of Semaphores



- Binary : * Used when there is only one shared resource.
- * 2 states \uparrow - Acquire
 \downarrow - Take.
 - * no ownership - can be released by any task.
 - * only 1 thread can access the resource at a time

- Counting * To handle more than one shared resource
- * initialized with count (N)
 - * allocates resource as long as count becomes 0.

~~* Binary Semaphore~~ Binary Semaphore problems
solv to competition sync prob with
example Psudo Code

- * Consider an implementation of counting semaphore S
- * The un/p needs to keep a track of value of S, i.e. S.val
- * If a process needs to wait on S, the un/p has to make the process wait.
- * Bcz: binary semaphores are the only sync constant allowed in implementation
- * Consider P(S) & V(S) to denote wait & signal
- * Pseudo code

record S {
 integer value initially K;
 BinarySemaphore wait initially 0.}

g.

P(S)

if S.val = 0
 then { P(S.wait) }
 else { S.val := S.val - 1 }

g.

V(P(S))

if "process are waiting on S.wait"
 then { V(S.wait) }
 else { S.val := S.val + 1 }

g.

* Monitors

- * Monitor type is an extant data type.
- * Its constraint allows one process to activate at a time.
- * Only one process can be active in a monitor at a time.
- * Other process which needs to access shared variables in a monitor have to line up in a queue.
- * They are provided queues when previous process release shared variable.

* Advantages of Monitors over Semaphores

	M	S
① Mutual Exclusion	automatic	manual
② Shared Variables	global to all processes	hidden
③ Synchronization priority	conditional variables	no conditional variables
④ Access to shared through	protected	not protected
⑤		

* Message Passing Prior in ADA

Reagmar Priority.

pragma Priority (static expression);

The priority of a task applies to it only when it is in task ready queue

Java threads

thread - light weight program.

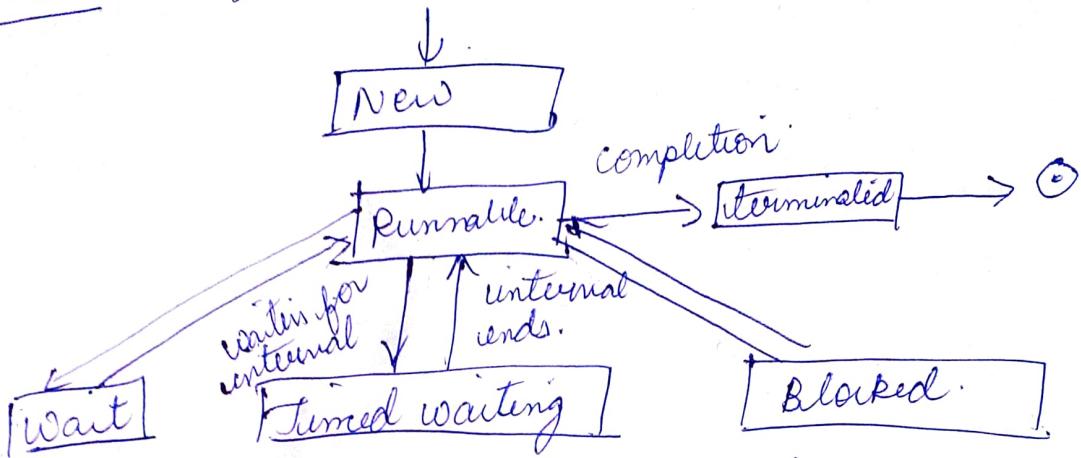
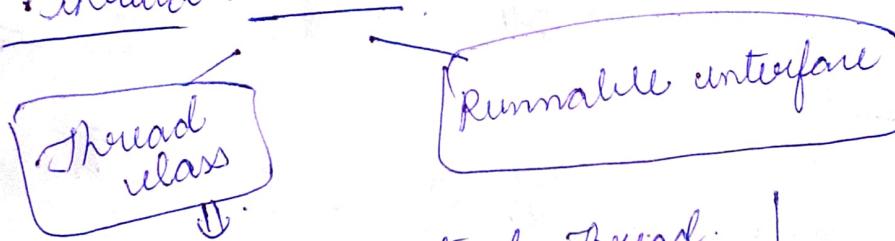


fig: life cycle of thread

Thread creation



class MyThread extends Thread.

```

    {
        public void run()
        {
            System.out.println("Thread");
        }
    }
  
```

- class implements Runnable

class ThreadProg.

```

    {
        public static void main(String args[])
        {
            MyThread t = new MyThread();
            t.start();
        }
    }
  
```

obj = new

Methods to control threads

Sleep

Terminate thread

join

Delay execution

Thread Priority

- default NORM-PRIORITY.

MIN-PRIORITY
MAX-PRIORITY

SetPriority

getPriority

Thread-Name.setPriority(priority-val)

Thread-Name.getPriority()

Sync in thread execution

Using sync methods

Rising sync blocks

Co-operative sync achieved by
wait(), notify(), notifyAll()

#thread

System.Threading.Thread

JAVA

To start a thread
we write t.start()

To kill the thread
we write t = null;

To interrupt thread.
t.stop();

Creation :

Make a class
extend Thread RI

Thread t = new Thread(cl);

C#

t.Start();

t.Abort();

t.Interrupt();

Thread t = new
Thread (new ThreadS
tart (method));

Status of Thread in C#

Unstarted

Runnable

Running

Not
Runnable

Dead

* Design Issues of Exceptional Handling

- * How and where are exception handles specified & what is their scope?
- * How is an exception outcome bound to an exception handler?
- * Can info about the exception be passed to the handler?
- * Where does execution continue, if at all, after an exception handler completes its execution?
- * Is some form of finalization provided?

* Exception Handling Exception in C++

- * When run time errors occur in our prog, then exceptions are raised by handing control to special functions called Handlers.
- * This provides built-in error handling mechanism which is known as exceptions handling.
- * 3 keyword, try catch, throw.

```
try
{
    throw exception;
}
catch (argument)
{
}
```

- * try block - error detection
- * error recover - throws.
- * using catch, error is caught
- * catch should be immediate followed by try block.

Ex: divide by zero

int main()

```

    {
        double i, j;
        void divide(double, double);
        cout << "Enter numerator : ";
        cin >> i;
        cout << "Enter denominator : ";
        cin >> j;
        divide(i, j)
    }

```

void divide(double a, double b)

```

    {
        try {
            if (b == 0)
                throw b // divide 0.
            cout << "Result : " << a/b << endl.
        }
    }

```

catch (double b)

```

    {
        cout << "can't divide by zero ! n"
    }
}

```

* Exception Handling in Java

Class Demo:

{
public static void main (String [] args) {

{
int a, b;
a = 10;
b = 0;

try {

c = a/b

}

catch (ArithmaticException e) {

Sysout ("In Divide by 0");

}

Sysout ("The value of a: " + a);

Sysout ("The value of b: " + b);

}

}

Output:-

Divide by zero.

The value of a : 10.

The value of b : 0.

* Exception Handling in ADA

Pg 96.

Exception:

- * The frame of an exception handler in ADA is either a subprogram, a package body or task, not a block.
- * Block exception handlers are usually local. The exception variable does not have parameters.

* Syntax:

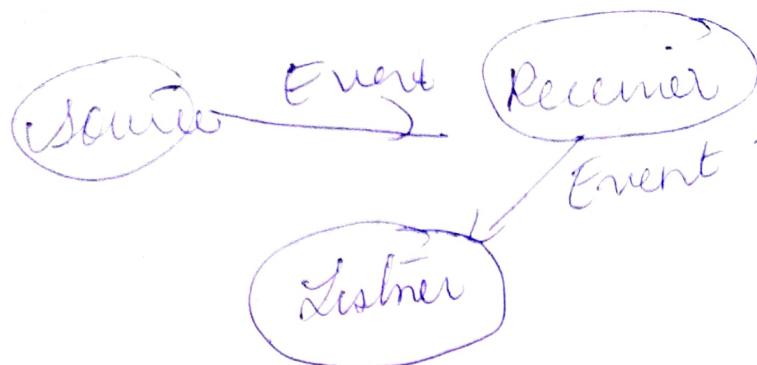
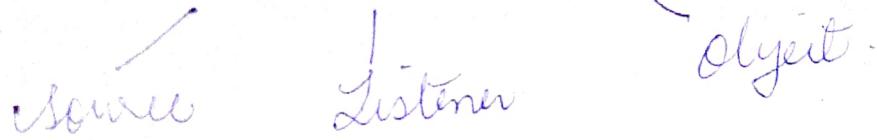
User-defined exception form:

exception-name list: exception;

Raising exception form:

raise [exception name].

Event Model



Event Handling - 90

Unit 3

Subprogram: Small programs written with a larger main program.

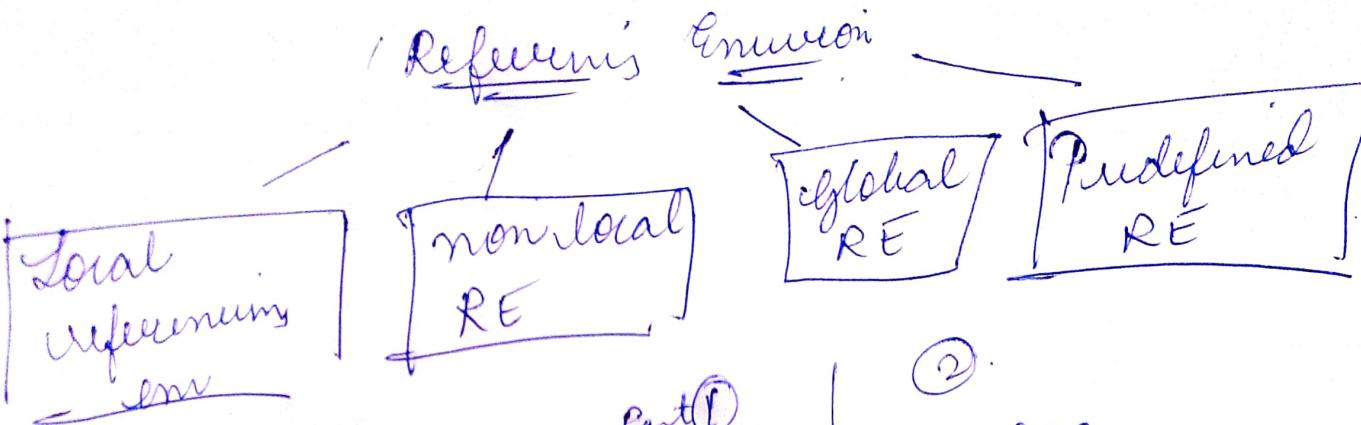


* Subprog char

- * Each subprog has a single entry point.
- * The calling program is suspended during execution.
- * control always returns to the caller when the caller subprog terminates.

* Design Issues of subprog

- * Are local variables static or dynamic?
- * Can subprog definitions appear in other file
- * What parameter passing methods & procedures?
- * Are parameter types checked?
- * If subprogs can be passed as parameters to subprogs, can they be nested, what is reference environment of passed subprog?
- * Can subprogs be overloaded?
- * Can " " generic.
- * If lang allows nested subprogs, are closures supported?



PPM - 58
 PSP - 62.
 OSP - 63. Q27
 QSP - 64 Q28
 DIF - Q31
 VDOO - Q33, Q34
 C - Q35
 CR - Q36.
 QISS - Q39
 ID3 - 46, 52.
 Q57.
 ZE - 61, 62

Part ①	②.
Q1	Q20
Q2	Q21
Q3	Q22
Q4	Q28
Q5	Q19
Q7	Q84
Q16	Q29
Q20	Q30
Q31	Q34
Q33	Q38
Q36	Q40
*Q46	Q45
Q51	Q60
Q54	Q54
.	Q63

Syntax: set of rules that defines what sequences of symbols or considered to be valid (expression).

* some prog → obj. prog.

Valid exp - $x = y + z$.

Invalid $xy + - *$

Ex $2 + 3 * 4$ ↑
 high. ↑
 high

Semantics: meaning of a expression [program] in programming lang.

Ex: `int a[10]`
defines an array.

* Explain various primitive data types with examples:-

* Primitive data types are elementary data types which are not built from other types.

* The value of Primitive DT is atomic & can't be decomposed further.

* The primitive data type reflects the behavior of the hardware.

① boolean - T or F
Boolean algebra - and, or, not

② character : char

for C, - char choice;

③ integer : max/min limit

for C, int, short, long, char

④ real : Real no - mantissa exponent model
for C, floating point - float

Context free grammars

* It is simply a grammar

* collection of 4 things

① set of (tokens) or terminals,

② set of non-terminals (variables).

③ set of rules called production.

④ starting non terminal

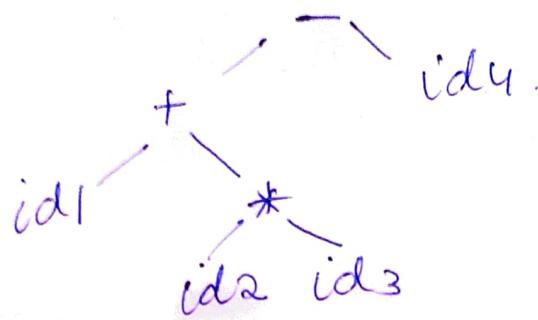
log:

$E ::= E + T \mid E - T \mid T$

$T ::= T * F \mid T / F \mid F$

$F ::= (E) \mid id$

parse tree for $id_1 + id_2 * id_3 - id_4$.



* ~~CDG~~ CFG is a formal grammar which is used to generate all possible strings in a formal lang.

$$G = (V, T, P, S)$$

* Ambiguity

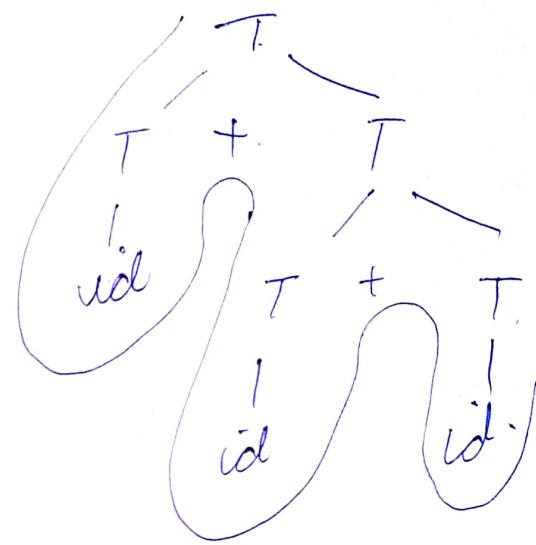
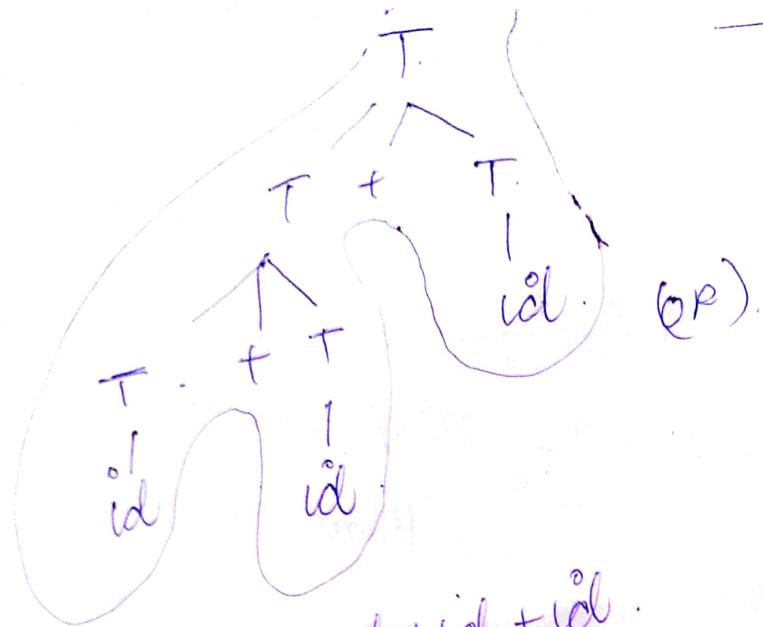
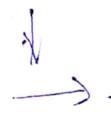
A grammar is said to be ambiguous if there exists more than one leftmost derivation or more than one rightmost derivation or more than 1 parse tree for the given input string.

* If a grammar is not ambiguous, its unambiguous.

Ex $T \rightarrow T + T / id$.

$\rightarrow id + id + id$.

LMPT



exists more than 1, derivation tree for a given input str.

Unambiguous - unique derivation tree.

Ex 2 Consider a grammar G is

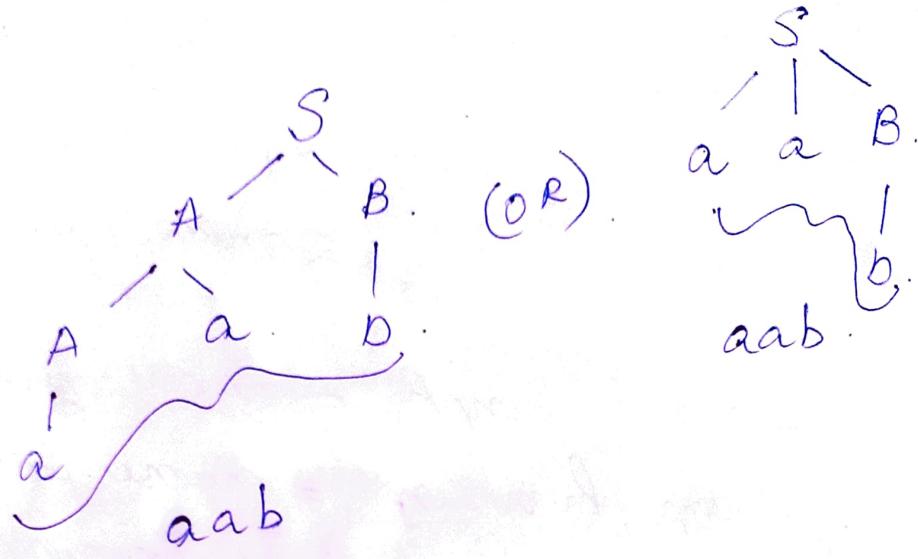
$$S \rightarrow AB / aAB.$$

$$A \rightarrow a / Aa.$$

$$B \rightarrow b.$$

Determine whether the grammar is ambiguous or not. If G is ambiguous, construct an unambiguous grammar for G .

ist "aab".
Input istung



∴ grammar is ambiguous.

production

$$S \rightarrow AB / a a B \quad \} \text{ ambiguous}$$

$$A \rightarrow a / A a \quad \}$$

$$B \rightarrow b$$

↓
unambiguous

left recursion.

$$S \rightarrow AB.$$

$$A \rightarrow a / A a / a.$$

$$B \rightarrow b.$$

Arrays

① Static Array

- * An array whose size is known at compile time, whose storage is allocated at compile time.
eg int static_array [7];

② Fixed stack Dynamic Array

- * You know the size of your array at compile time, but allow it to be allocated automatically on stack.

void foo();

{
int fixed-stack-dyn-arr [7];
/* --- */

3.

③ Stack dynamic Array

- * you dont know the size until runtime

void foo (int n)

{
int stack-dyn-arr [n];

3.

④ fixed heap dynamic array : same as ② but explicit heap allocation
 $\text{int } * \text{f-h-d-a} = \text{malloc}(\text{7 * sizeof(int)});$

⑤ Heap dynamic array:

`void foo(int n)`

{
 $\text{int } * h-d-a = \text{malloc}(\text{n * sizeof(int)});$
}

=
* Nested subprog.

- * Organizing program by nesting code subprogram definitions inside the logically tangent subprograms that use them.
- * It is used in ADA, Fortran, Python, Ruley.
- * Encapsulation is possible in C and C++

=
* Design issues for OOPS.

when we design a program along a no of issues must be considered to support inheritance & cloning.

- ① Exclusivity of objects ?
- ② Are subclasses subtypes?
- ③ Type checking & polymorphism.
- ④ Single & multiple inheritance.
- ⑤ Object allocation & deallocation.
- ⑥ Dynamic binding & static binding.
- ⑦ Nested classes.
- ⑧ Initialization of objects.

Parameter Passing Techniques.

- ① call by value
- ② call by reference.
- ③ copy restore.
- ④ call by name.

① * caller evaluates the actual parameters.
 * passes α -values up call " to formal.

Ex. main swap (int x, int y).

{
 int t;

t = x;

x = y;

y = t;

}

void main()

{
int a=1, b=2;

swap(a,b);

printf("a = %d, b = %d", a,b);

}

o/p = 2,1.

call by reference (location)

Ex:- void uswap(int*x, int*y)

{
int t;
t = *x;
*x = *y;
*y = t;

}

o/p = 2,1.

void main()

{
int a=1, b=2;

swap(&a, &b);

cout << "a = " << a << "b = " << b;

.

copy const

hybrid

unit y;
copy restore (untrap).

$$\sum_{x=2}^y$$

3
main()

Σ $y = 10.$
copy $ustore(y),$
 $print(y);$

$$O/P = 2$$

call by name.

* more expansion.

```
unt i = 100;  
void callByValue (int x)
```

$\{y_{unit}(x);$
 $y_{unit}(x)\}$

g
main().

call lymome (i++)

3

~~definitions in sinaphes~~

* semantics in schemes

* functions are diff in Scheme & ML

Predicate Calculus

Predicate calculus provides a method of expressing collection of proposition.

Resolution :- on interface example that allows unfixed proposition to be computed for a given proposition

$$\text{Ex: } P_1 \subset P_2 \\ Q_1 \subset Q_2$$

Meaning :- P_2 implements P_1 & Q_2 implements Q_1 .

if $P_1 \equiv Q_2$.

$$\Rightarrow Q_2 \subset P_2$$

$$Q_1 \subset Q_2$$

$$\therefore Q_1 \subset Q_2 \subset P_2$$

$$\therefore Q_1 \subset P_2$$

* LISP (List Structure programs).

Significance :-

- * It is machine independent.
- * Uses iterative designing methodology
- * It allows updating the program dynamically.
- * It provides aduance log.
- * It prefers prefix notation