

① Basic Concepts -

- (1) Exception → It is any unusual event, erroneous or not, that is detectable by either hardware or software & that may require special processing.
- (2) Exception Handling - The special processing that may be required when an exception is detected.
- (3) Exception Handler - Special processing done by a code unit or segment. An exception is raised when its associated event occurs.

→ Advantages of Exception Handling -

- (1) Detect error.
- (2) Exception propagation - It allows an exception raised in one program unit to be handled in some other unit in its dynamic or static ancestry.
- (3) Unusual situations can be simplified.
- (4) Encourage users to consider all of the events that could occur during program execution and how they can be handled.

② Design Issues of Exception Handling

- (1) How and where are exception handlers specified, and what is their scope?
- (2) How is an exception occurrence bound to an exception handler?
- (3) Can information about an exception be passed to the handler?
- (4) Where does execution continue, if at all, after an exception handler completes its execution? 
- (5) Is some form of finalization provided?
- (6) How are user-defined exceptions specified?
- (7) If there are predefined exceptions, should there be default exception handlers for programs that do not provide their own?
- (8) Can predefined exceptions be explicitly raised?
- (9) Are hardware-detectable errors treated as exceptions that may be handled?
- (10) Are there any predefined exceptions?
- (11) Should it be possible to disable predefined exceptions?

### ③ Exception Handling in C++ -

In C++, exceptions are user or library defined and explicitly raised.

#### → Exception Handling -

##### try - catch clause -

```
try {
```

```
// ** Code that might raise an exception.
```

```
}
```

```
catch ( formal parameter ) {
```

// Each catch function is an exception  
handler.

```
// ** A handler body
```

```
}
```

```
catch ( formal parameter ) {
```

// Catch function can have only one  
parameter

```
// ** A handler body
```

```
}
```

→ C++ exceptions are raised only by the explicit statement throw,  
throw [expression];

→ A C++ function can list the types of the exceptions (the types of  
the throw expression) that it could raise. This is done by attaching  
the reserved word throw, followed by a parenthesized list of these  
types, to the function header.

Eg - int fun() throw (int, char \*) { ... }

### ④ Exception Handling in Java -

Java includes a collection of predefined exceptions that are  
implicitly raised by the Java Virtual Machine (JVM).

#### → Classes of Exceptions -

All Java exceptions are objects of classes that are descendants  
of the Throwable class.

Subclasses of Throwable class are Error and Exception.

Subclass of Exception is any user-defined exception. and has  
Exception class has two system-defined direct descendants that  
are RuntimeException and IOException.

## Exception Handlers -

- same form as those of C++, except that every catch must have a parameter and the class of the parameter must be a descendant of the predefined class Throwable.
- Exceptions of class Error and Runtime Exception and their descendants are called unchecked exceptions. All other exceptions are called checked exceptions.
- There is no default exception handler, and it is not possible to disable exceptions.
- finally clause - It is used when some situations in which a process must be executed regardless of whether a try clause throws an exception and regardless of whether a thrown exception is caught in a method.

e.g:- try {

}

catch (...) {

...

// \*\* more handlers

finally {

}

→ Assertions → Two possible forms -

assert condition; // condition is listed. If true, nothing happens.

assert condition: expression; If false Assertion Error exception is thrown.

assert condition: expression; // same as above, but expression is converted to the Assertion Error constructor as a string and becomes debugging output.

## LOGIC PROGRAMMING LANGUAGE :-

- ① Programming that uses a form of symbolic logic as a programming language is often called logic programming, and languages based on symbolic logic are called logic programming languages, or declarative languages. Eg:- Prolog
- ② Overview of logic programming → advantage / characteristic
  - The basic concept of declarative semantics is that there is a simple way to determine the meaning of each statement, and it does not depend on how the statement might be used to solve a problem.
  - Programming in a logic programming language is nonprocedural.
- ③ Basic elements of prolog -
  - Term → A Prolog term is a constant, a variable, or a structure.
  - A constant is either an atom or an integer. Atoms are symbolic values of Prolog.
  - Instantiation - The binding of a value, and thus a type, to a variable.
  - Uninstantiated - A variable that has not been assigned a value.
  - A variable is anything of letters, digits, and underscores that begins with an uppercase letter or an underscore(\_).
  - Structures represent the atomic propositions of predicate calculus, and their general form is the same: functor (parameter list)
  - The functor is any atom and is used to identify the structure.
  - A parameter list can be any list of atoms, variables, or other structures.

### → Fact Statements -

Two basic statement forms - Headless and Headed horn clause.

- ② Headless Horn clause - Single structure, which is interpreted as an unconditional assertion, or fact. Eg:- male(jake).

### → Rule statements -

→ Headed Horn clause - It can be related to a known theorem in mathematics from which a conclusion can be drawn if the set of given conditions is satisfied. They called rules.  
consequence :- antecedent expression.

Eg:- ancestor(mary, shelley) :- mother(mary, shelley).

If mary is the mother of shelley, then mary is an ancestor of shelley.

→ Headed Horn clause are called rules, because they state rules of implication between propositions.

### → Goal statements -

The theorem is in the form of a proposition that we want the system to either prove or disprove. In Prolog, these propositions are called goals, or queries. Eg - man(fred)

→ Conjunctive propositions, and propositions with variables are also legal goals.

### → Inferring Powers of Prolog -

→ When a goal is a compound proposition, each of the facts (subterms) is called a subgoal.

→ Matching - Proposition matching power.

→ Satisfying - Proving a subgoal.

→ Forward Chaining (bottom-up resolution) -

System begins with the facts and rules of the database and attempt to find a sequence of matches that lead to a goal.

→ Backward Chaining (top-down resolution) -

System begins with the goal and attempt to find a sequence of matching propositions that lead to some set of original facts in the database.

Eg - man(bob), database contains :- father(bob),

man(X) :- father(X).

- A depth-first search finds a complete sequence of propositions - a proof - for the first subgoal before working on the others.
- A breadth-first search works on all subgoals of a given goal in parallel.
- Backtracking - Backing up in the goal to the reconsideration of a previously proven subgoal

### → Simple arithmetic -

$+ (7, n) \rightarrow$  sum of 7 and the variable  $X$ .

$$A \text{ is } B / 17 + C \rightarrow A = B / 17 + C.$$

### → Prolog example -

speed (ford, 100).

speed (chevy, 105),

time (ford, 20),

time (chevy, 21).

distance ( $X, Y$ ) :- speed ( $X, speed$ ), time ( $X, Time$ ),  $Y$  is Speed \* Time.

### → Tracing model -

model for execution of Prolog programs. The tracing model describes Prolog execution in terms of four events:-

- (1) call, which occurs at the beginning of an attempt to satisfy a goal.
- (2) exit, which occurs when a goal has been satisfied.
- (3) redo, which occurs when backtrace causes an attempt to resatisfy a goal.
- (4) fail, which occurs when a goal fails.

### → list structures -

[apple, prune, grape, kumquat]

Ex [X] → list with head X and tail Y

Creating list → new\_list ([apple, prune, grape, kumquat]).

④

### Applications of logic programming -

(1) RDBMS (Relational Database Management Systems)

(2) Expert systems → designed to emulate human expertise Eg - APES

(3) Natural Language Processing

## FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES -

① The functional programming paradigm, which is based on mathematical functions, is the design basis of the most important non-imperative styles of languages. This style of programming is supported by functional programming languages.

→ One characterizing feature of a pure functional programming language is that neither expressions nor functions have side effects.

Eg:- LISP developed in 1959

② Fundamentals of functional programming languages -

→ Objective is to mimic mathematical functions to the greatest extent possible.

→ A purely functional programming language does not use variables or assignment statements therefore programs are function definitions and function application specifications, and executions consist of evaluating function applications.

→ The execution of a function always produces the same result when given the same parameters. This feature is called referential transparency.

③ Introduction to 4GL - (fourth Generation languages)

They are closer to human languages. Eg - Oracle, VB, VC++, SQL  
Most 4GL are used to access databases. They allow the programmes to define 'what' is required without telling the computer 'how' to implement it.

→ Features of 4GL languages are -

- ① Ease of use
- ② limited range of functions.
- ③ Availability of options.
- ④ Default Options.