

Unit - IV

## Object oriented Programming (OOPs)

{ C++, Java }

object oriented programming language is paradigm that provides many concepts to obj. to design many applications & computer programs.

The programming paradigm where everything is represented as object is called object oriented programming language.

The main aim of oops is to bind the data and different types of function that operate on them. so that no other part of the code can access that data except that function. following are the features of OOPs :—

- \* Object → An entity that has state & behaviour is known as an object it can be a physical or logical
- \* Class → It is a collection of objects and it is logical entity ie a user defined data types which called its data member & member functions.

class < class name >  
{

  Data  
  functions

? ?

`main()`

{

} class manner object names, object name2...;

for eg: There may be many parts with different names of truck but all of them will share some common properties like 4wheels speed limit, mileage, range, etc.

### INHERITENCE

→ when one object acquire all the properties & behaviour of parent object is known as Inheritance

The capability of class to derive the properties from another class. It provide the code reusability & it is used to achieve runtime polymorphism

Polyorphism → It means having many forms and has the ability of msg to be displayed in more than 1 form.

Abstraction → Hiding the internal details & showing the functionality is known as abstraction in C++ we use abstract class & interface to achieve an abstraction.

It refers to providing the essential information about data to the outside world and hiding the background detail or implementation

Encapsulation → the wrapping & binding of code & data into a single unit is known as encapsulation

### Access Modifiers in C++ →

access modifiers is used to identify access right for the data & member function of the class.

there are three main types of access modifiers or access specifier in C++ programming language

- 1) PRIVATE → The private member is inaccessible from outside the class, means only members of same class are allowed to access
- 2) PUBLIC → Everyone is allowed to access
- 3) PROTECTED → It is a stage b/w private & public access if member function define in class are protected they can not be accessed from outside of class but can be accessed from derived class

### Access Modifiers in C++

- ① C++ Data types → char, int, float, bool
- ② Derived data types → array, function, pointer
- ③ User or abstract data types → class, structure, union, enumeration, typedef

## Function Overloading

having two or more  $\rightarrow$  it is defined as same but different function with the same function is redefined by using either different types of arguments or different numbers of arguments.

\* the advantage of function overloading is

- 1) increase readability of program bcoz you do not need to use different names for the same action

~~#include <iostream.h>~~

using namespace std;

class cal

{

public:

static int add (int a, int b)

{

return a+b;

}

static int add (int a, int b, int c)

{

return a+b+c;

}

};

int main (void)

{

cal a;

cout << a.add (10,20) << endl;

cout << a.add (10,20,25);

return 0; }

# Operator overloading in C++

In C++ we can make operator to work for user defined classes. C++ has the ability to provide the operators with a special meaning for a data type this ability is known as operator overloading. An operator is overloaded to give user defined meaning to it.

```
#include <iostream>
```

```
using namespace std;
```

```
class Test
```

```
{
```

```
private : int count;
```

```
public
```

```
Test();
```

```
count(i)
```

```
{
```

```
}
```

```
void operator ++()
```

```
{ count = count + 1; }
```

```
void display()
```

```
{ cout << "count: " << count; }
```

```
};
```

```
int main()
```

```
{ Test t;
```

```
++t;
```

```
t.display();
```

```
return 0;
```

```
Cout << 5
```

```
3 << 8
```

	In C++	In C
Allocation	new	malloc
Deallocation	Delete	free

Friend Function → The friend function of a class is define outside that class scope but it has the right to access all private & protected members of the class, even though the prototype for friend function appear in the class definition.

The advantages of friend function is do not violate encapsulation becoz the class itself decide which functions are it's friend function.

Function Overriding → It is a features that allow us to help us in function in child class which is already present in parent class. A child class inherit the same members & member function of parent class. but when you want to override a functionality in the child class then you can use function overriding.

Constructor → It is a member function of a class which initialize object of class if has the same name as of its class.

constructor is automatically called when object create it is a special member function of class. It is of three types

I Default Constructor →

If has no argument in it for eg.

~~#include <iostream>~~

using namespace std;

class Test

{ Public

int a,b;

Test ()

{ a=10

b=20

}

}

int main ()

{

Test c;

cout << "a;" << cout << endl;

cout << "b<< c.b << "

}

// WAP for a simple calculator

~~#include <iostream>~~

using namespace std;

class calculator

{ float a,b,ans;

if (a+b)

{ ans = a+b; }

elif (a-b)

{ ans = a-b; }

elif (a\*b)

{ ans = a\*b; }

else (a/b)

{ ans = a/b; }

return c;

}]  
int main ()  
{ printf ("the output is %d", &c);  
getch();  
}

#include <iostream>

puts ("this is program of calculator");  
puts ("enter the value of a and b");  
gets ("%f %f", &a, &b);

~~void~~ ~~main~~

2: Copy Constructor →

It is also called one argument constructor. The main use of copy constructor is to initialize objects while its creation also used to copy an object. It also allows programs to create a new object from existing one by the initialization. The constructor must be defined in public & must be a public member of. Overloading of constructor is possible.

DESTRUCTORS (~) → Destructors are usually used to deallocate memory and do other clean up for class obj. If its class members when the obj. is destroyed. A destructor is called for a class object when that object goes out of the scope or explicitly deleted.

A destructor is a minimal function with the

some name as its class

```
class abc
{
    private
    -----
    public
    abc cs
    {
        -----
    }
    ~abc()
    {-}
}
```

A destructor takes no argument and no ~~return type~~. A destructor can be declared virtual or pure virtual.

Multiple inheritance in C++ →

In C++ it is perfectly possible that a class inherit the members from more than one class this is done by simply separating different base class with commas in derived right class declaration.

for eg. If we had a specific class to print on screen & wanted our class rectangle & triangle to also inherit members in addition to those of polymers.

The direct base class is a class that appears directly as a base specified in the

declaration of its derived class.

An indirect base class is a base class that does not appear directly in the declaration of derived class, but it is available to the derived class through one of its base class.

Virtual function & Pure virtual functions →

Virtual function is a member function i.e. declared within a base class & redefined by the derived class. It is used to support runtime polymorphism. When a virtual function is called by using a base class pointer, the compiler decides at runtime which version of function i.e. base class version or the override derived class version is to be called. It uses the ~~the~~ keyword.

In pure virtual function no definition is there in base class & all the inherit derived class has to redefine it. Pure virtual function is virtual function with no body.

Inline Functions →

We use a keyword `inline`, it is a powerful concept i.e. commonly used in the classes if a function is inline, the compiler places a copy code of that function at each point where the function is called at compile time.

inline void func()

{

function body code inserted at fn call

}

void main()

{

func();

}

Template in C++ →

A template is a powerful tool in C++ the simple idea is to pass the data type as a parameter so that we don't need to write the same code for different data type.

for eg. A soft company need cost() for different data types rather than writing & maintaining the multiple codes we can write one cost() and pass the data types as a parameter.

Templates are expanded at compile time this is like macros in C. the difference is compiler does type checking before template expansion. the source code contain only function of class but compile the code may contain multiple copies of some function or class.

i) Function Template →

we write a generic function that can be used for different data types

# include <iostream>

using namespace std;

template <class T, class U>

class A

{

    T x;

    U y;

public:

    A(T)

    { cout << "constructor called " << endl; }

int main()

{

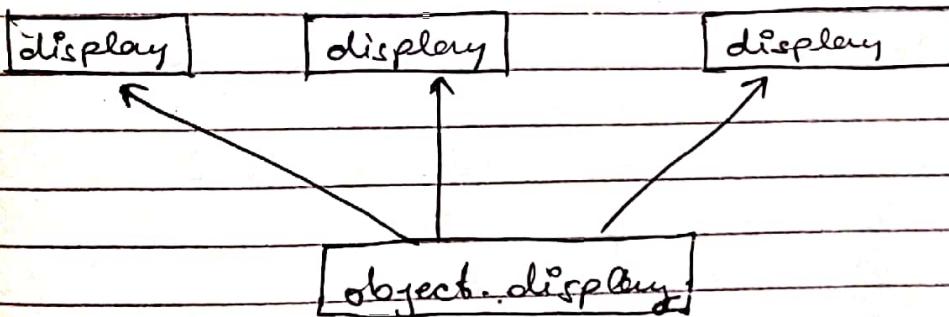
    A class A(char, char) a;  
    A ( int, double ) b;  
    return 0;

}

base  
class

Derived  
class 1

Derived  
class 2



↑ some statement  
different f<sup>n</sup> call

e.g. of virtual function

~~if~~

2) Class Template → It is like function template  
It is useful when a class define something  
ie independent of the data type it  
can be useful for classes like linked list,  
binary tree, string, array, stack

template <class Type> class classname

{

statement 1;

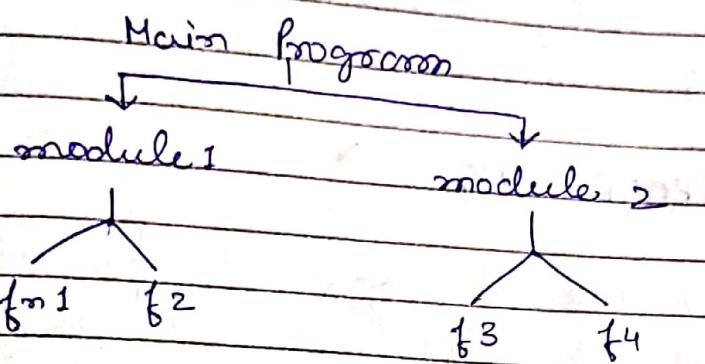
statement 2;

}

Program's design with modulus (modular programming)

Structure programming

- \* selection (if | then | else)
- \* Repetition (while | for)
- \* Subroutine (Divide into parts)
- \* Block



Task level concurrency

Statement level "

Unit level "

Program level "

Program's design with modulus (modular programming) → it is a design technique that separates the function into program in two independent, interchangeable modules such that each with everything.

following are the advantage for modular programming

→ ease of use :- This approach allow simplicity clarity for each & every subroutine

→ Reusability :- It allows the user to reuse the

functionality with different interface.

③ Ease of Maintenance :- It helps in less collision at the time of working with modules. It is concern with the subdivision of program into small units. These are usually arrange in a hierarchy of abstraction.

## STRUCTURE PROGRAMMING →

It is initiated the development of what become known as structure language. The aim of structure programming is to create the programs that are easy to understand & error free. It is basically a lower level aspect of coding while modular programming is a higher level aspect.

Structure programming contains the elements like control structures, subroutines that has the procedure functions & methods & blocks that contains the group of statements.

## Possible Levels in Concurrency →

The two execution can occur at different levels

### ① Instructions level →

Two or more instructions can be executed in parallel computing.

### ② Statement level → HLL statement can (high level language)

execute simultaneously

Object level →

It execute the two or more sub program simultaneously

Program level →

The complete program can execute to perform the desired functionality of each & every modules

## Grouping of DATA & OPERATIONS →

① Array }  
② Structure }

## Exception Handling in C++

① Try      ② Throw      ③ Catch

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
double division (int a, int b)
if (b == 0)
{ throw "Division by zero condition"; }
return (a/b); }
```

```
int main()
{ int x=50, y=0; double z=0;
try
{ z = division (x,y);
cout << z << endl;
}
```

}

```
catch (const char *message)
{
    cout << message << endl;
}
return 0;
```

## Monitor of Semaphore

```
Monitor (monitor name)
{
    //data variables
    Procedure Pi (- -)
    { --- }
}
```

```
Procedure Pn (- - -)
{ --- }
```

```
Procedure Pm (- - -)
{ --- }
```

```
Initialization code (- -)
{ --- }
```

## Semaphore wait operation

```
wait (s)
{ while (s <= 0);
    s = - - - ;
}
```

## Signal operation

```
signal (s)
{ s = s + + ; }
```

## Unit IV

### Lambda Calculus (2)

In mathematical logic, λ-calculus is a formal system designed to investigate function, function applications and recursion. A calculus can be used to define what a computation function is. λ-calculus has great influence functional programming language such as lisp, ml & etc.

Following are the important properties of λ-calculus

- (i) It is a universal model of computation that can be used to simulate any turing machine.
- (ii) λ-calculus can be called the smallest universal programming language. It consists of a single transformation rule of single function definition scheme.
- (iii) λ-calculus emphasizes the use of transformation rules & does not care about the actual machine implementing them.
- (iv) This is an approach more related to math than h/p
- (v) It consists of constructing & performing reductions operations on them.
- (vi) In λ-calculus every expression stand for a function with a single i/p called its argument. The argument of the function is in turn a function with a single argument, values of function is another function with a single argument. for eg.

Add two functions f such that  $f(n) = n+2$  would be expressing λ-calculus as

$\lambda$  no. n+2.

A lambda expression is defined as one of the following

- (a)  $\alpha$  (variable)  $\rightarrow$  a character or string representing a parameter or logical value
- (b)  $(\lambda x, M)$  (Abstraction)  $\rightarrow$  The function definition ('M' is a term), variable x become bound in the expression
- (c)  $(M, N)$  (Application)  $\rightarrow$  Applying a function to an argument (N & M are the  $\lambda$  terms)

## # Reduction in $\lambda$ calculus

$\lambda$  expression is defined by how expression can be reduced three types of reductions are

- (a) Alpha conversion  $\rightarrow$  It allows bound variable names to be changed for eg. An alpha conversion of  $\lambda x.x$  would be  $\lambda y.y$
- (b)  $\beta$  reduction  $\rightarrow$  Applying function to their arguments
- (c)  $\eta$  conversion  $\rightarrow$  It expresses idea of extensibility in which this context is that two functions are same if & only if they give same result for all the arguments

How to write a calculus function in Python programming language :-

lambda < a Parameter list > : < a python expression using parameters >

$\text{add} := \lambda i, j : i + j$   
 $\text{point reduce} (\lambda i, j : i + j, \text{number})$   
 $l = \text{map} (\lambda i : i, \text{spans})$   
 $\text{points } l$

## Arithmetic in $\lambda$ calculus

There are several ways to define natural no. in  $\lambda$  calculus but by far the most common are the church numerals which can be defined as follows

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= \lambda f x \\
 1 &= \lambda f x . f(x) \\
 2 &= \lambda f (x) . f(f(x)) \\
 3 &= \lambda f (x) . f(f(f(x))) \\
 &\vdots \text{so on} \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

The no.  $n$  in  $\lambda$  calculus is a function that takes a function  $f$  as argument and  $\rightarrow$  returns the  $n^{th}$  composition of  $f$ .

Addition is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{PLUS} &:= \lambda m n f x . m f(nf x) \\
 \text{PLUS } 2 &= 3 \text{ and } 5
 \end{aligned}$$

## Logic and predicates in lambda Calculus

By convention the following two definitions are used for the boolean values true, False ie.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{TRUE} &:= \lambda x y . x \\
 \text{FALSE} &:= \lambda x y . y
 \end{aligned}$$

NOTE → FALSE is equivalent church numerals 0 defined as ~~whatever~~ above.

with these two  $\lambda$  terms as TRUE & FALSE we can define some logic operators

- ① AND :=  $\lambda Pq. Pq$  FALSE
- ② OR :=  $\lambda P_2. P \text{TRUE} q$
- ③ NOT :=  $\lambda P. \text{FALSE} \ P \text{TRUE}$
- ④ IFTHENELSE :=  $\lambda Pqy. p q y$

A predicate is a function which return a Boolean value the most fundamental predicate is ZERO which return TRUE . If it's argument is church numerals ZERO if false if it's argument is any other church numerals

Recursion in a calculus :-

recursion is definition of function using the function itself as the face of it the  $\lambda$  calculus does not allow this however this impression is misleading.

Consider for instance the factorial function  $f(n)$  recursively defined by  $f(n) = 1$  if  $n=0$  and  $n \cdot f(n-1)$  if  $n>0$

In a calculus one can not be defined a function which include itself to get around this one may exert by defining a function called  $g$ , which takes a function  $f$  as an argument and ~~writer~~ return another function that

takes  $n$  as a argument i.e

$$g := \lambda f n. (n, \text{if } n=0; \text{ and } n \cdot f(n-1), \text{if } n > 0)$$

the function that  $g$  return is either constant one or sometimes the application of function  $f$  to  $n-1$

Using the ZERO predicate in boolean in algebraic definitions the function  $g$  can be defined in  $\lambda$  calculus

However,  $g$  by itself is still not recursive in order to use  $g$  to create recursive factorial function. the function pass to  $g$  as  $f$  must have specific properties. The function pass as  $f$  must expand to function  $g^*$  with  $\overset{\text{called}}{=} 1$  argument and that argument must be the the function that was passed as  $f$  again.

In other words.  $f$  must expand to  $g(f)$  this call to  $g$  will then expand to the factorial function  $f$  calculate down another level of recursion.

# Functional programming Languages

LISP, Prolog

LISP :— It stands for list processing. It allows updation of program dynamically & provide high level debugging.

Applications built in LISP

- Emacs
- Auto Cad
- Yahoo store

Basic building blocks in LISP

① Atom → It is a no. or string or contiguous characters.

- eg. — Name  
— 1230119  
— abc123  
— b#123

② List → Sequences of atoms &/or other list enclosed in parenthesis

- eg. — (I am a list)  
— (a(abc) def gh)

③ String → group of characters enclosed in double quotation marks

- eg. ("Hello world")  
("I am here")

## Lisp data types categories :-

① Scalars

e.g. no., character, symbol

② Data structure :-

e.g. list, string, vector

## Type specifiers in LISP

array	list	number	
atom	string	integer	
bit	symbol		
character			
float			

## A simple program in LISP :-

# sum of 3 numbers :-

(+ 7 9 11)

27

## Global Variables

(defun n (234))

(writer n)

top 234

## Operations in LISP

① Arithmetic :- if  $A = 10; B = 20$

$$(+ A B) = 30, \quad (A \times B) = 200, \quad (B \mod A) = 0$$

$$(- A B) = 10, \quad (B / A) = 2$$

## ② Comparison :-

= ( $= A B$ )

> ( $> A B$ )

\* ( $< A B$ )

max (max A B)

min (min A B)

## ③ Logical

And (and A B)

or (or A B)

not (not A B)

## ④ Bitwise

(logical-and

(logand ab)

(log-or ab)

(log-nor ab)

(log-eqv ab)

## Defining function in LISP

(define average even (m1 m2 m3 m4))

(/ (+ m1 m2 m3 m4) 4)

((write (average even 10 20 30 40)))

O/P 25

\*/ (defun append n y)

(cond (null n) y)

(+ (cons (car n) (append (cdr n) y))))

# factorial

(defun factorial (num)  
 (cond ((= zero num) 1)

(+ (\* num (factorial (- num 1))))  
 ))

(set q1 #'6)

(format t "Value of factorial ~d is : ~d" n (factorial n))

Ques 1 WAP in lisp to find cube of no.

2. WAP in lisp to reverse a list

3. WAP in lisp to search an element in list

~~defun~~ (cube

1. (defun cube (num))

(~~lambda~~ (\* num num num))

(defun <sup>cube</sup> ~~cube~~ (num))

(\* num num num))

# Prolog (Logic in programming)

Declarative paradigm :-  
what is to be done rather than how to do it

Logic → relations  
↓  
(fact & rules)

In prolog logic is expressed as relations called facts and rules. It is a pure declarative language. A programmer specifies a goal to be achieved & a prolog system works out to achieve the same.

- A prolog program specifies relationships among objects. Relationships can also be rules such as two peoples are sisters if they both are female & have same parents.
- Rules allow us to find out about a relationship given if the relationship is not stated as fact.
- fact has the properties of objects
- prolog is essentially a query language for db like SQL (structured query language). It is a query language for matching complicating patterns against a db of simple facts.
- All prolog programs consist of three parts a list of facts, a list of pattern matching rules (predicates) and a list of queries.

Prolog fact → fact in prolog are predefined patterns that store in prolog internal db usually in a manner to make searching them more efficient.

There are essentially three types of values in prolog

- ① Numbers :- 1, 2.0, -5 etc
- ② Symbols :- which are for all intent & purposes, immutable string of lowercase letters without special characters or space for eg hello
- ③ List/Link list :- linklist of symbols or numbers list are untyped for eg. [1, 2, 3] & [hello, world]

Prolog that defines several facts →

hello.

world.

f(hello, world).

g([hello, world])

standard greeting([hello, world], 2)

when several patterns are defined with some more & some no. of arguments prolog will run through them one after another in a top to down fashion when trying to match them.

Defining patterns matching rules for prolog →

f(hello, world) :- g([hello, world]).

whenever prolog see the special symbol (:-) prolog creates a new pattern matching rule the basic meaning of this (:-) is to match whatever is to left of this symbol & part to right must be matched this allow to decompose pattern into smaller & more manageable one.

To make task practical prolog defines many operator that help us in the task of composing matching rules some of those imp & useful are  
Comma (,) a comma denotes sequential matching of patterns this is eq to a short circuit and in many Imperative programming languages for eg.

f :- a, b, c.

Semicolon (;) → It denotes the choice ie equivalent to a short circuit or in many Imperative programming language for eg

f :- p; q; r.

(→) An arrow denotes a conditional pattern rule, in other words this ie if then else rule eg.

(eg → h; i)

(+) this is equivalent to the negation operator in programming language.

$$f :- l + g$$

this rule means pattern of match whenever pattern  $g$  cannot be matched.

Variables in Prolog.  $\rightarrow$  symbols that begin with capital letter for eg.

Var, A, MATCH ME

whenever prolog comes upon a variable it starts searching in its internal db of fact & pattern matching rules for substitution such that substituting a value match the variable some facts.