DASF004
Basic and Practice in Programming
Lecture 5

Function 2

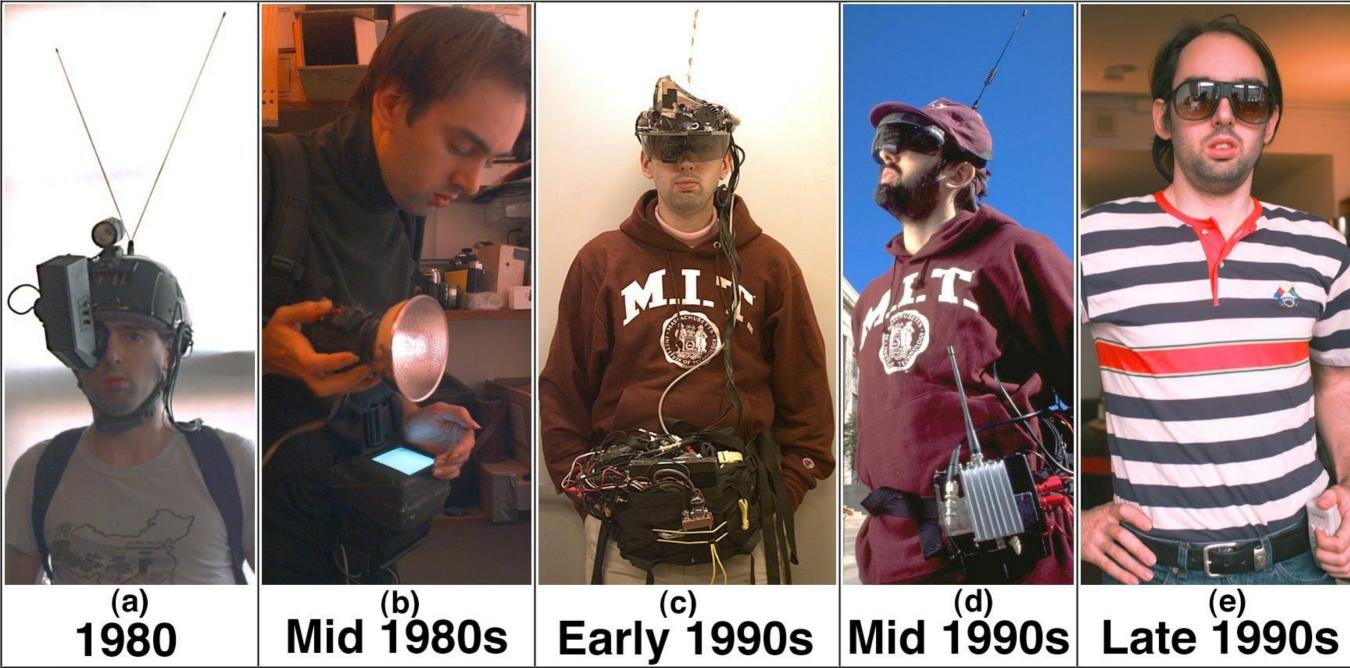
Food for your MIND!

- Augmented Cognition
- Using technologies to enhance human capability
- Cyborg (Cybernetic Organism) 사이보그
- Integration of Artificial Element into Organism
- Iron man?



Wearable Computing

Steve Mann's "wearable computer" and "reality mediator" inventions of the 1970s have evolved into what looks like ordinary eyeglasses.



Food for your MIND

- Cyborg Research and Prosthesis Research
- Robotic and Control



What if you have three hands?

Another project at Georgia Tech University

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fKryPingtww

Agenda

- Function
- Random Variable
- Argument Coercion
- Recursive Function

Function (review)

- Code reuse
- Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int sum4 (int w, int x, int y, int z);
int main (void)
{ int a=3;
  int b=6;
  int c=13;
  int d=492;
  int result = sum4(a,b,c,d)
  printf("Result: %d", result)
int sum4(int w, int x, int y, int z)
{ int result = w+x+y+z;
  return result;
```

Function (review)

#include <stdio.h>

■ Example:

■ Code reuse

```
int sum4(int w,int x,int y,int z);
int main (void)
{ int a=3;
  int b=6;
  int c=13;
  int d=492;
  int result = sum4(a,b,c,d)
  printf("Result: %d", result)
int sum4 (int w, int x, int y, int z)
{ int result = w+x+y+z;
  return result;
```

Function (review)

- Code reuse
- Example:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int sum4 (int w, int x, int y, int z)
{ int result = w+x+y+z;
 return result;
int main (void)
{ int a=3;
 int b=6;
 int c=13;
 int d=492;
 int result = sum4(a,b,c,d)
 printf("Result: %d", result)
```

scanf() Function

- Consider this code segment:
- When user enter "A", the loop

Executed two times.

Reason:

- When "A" is entered, a new line character is also entered.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{    char option;

for(;;)
{       printf("Enter: ");
       scanf("%c", &option);
       if(option == 'A')
            printf("\nOption A\n");
       else if(option == 'B')
            printf("\nOption B\n");
       else
            printf("\nNot A nor B.\n");
}
```

```
C:\X\PortableApps\De
Enter: A

Option A
Enter:
Not A nor B.
Enter: B
```

scanf() Function

■ Consider this code segment: #include <stdio.h>

■ When user enter "A", the loop int main(void)

Char option;

Executed two times.

Reason:

- When "A" is entered, a new lir character is also entered.

```
for(;;)
                                    "A\n"
    printf("Enter: ");
                                    entered
    scanf("%c", &option);
    if(option == 'A')
                                    ^{7}A==A
                                               n==A
        printf("\nOption A\n")
                                     True
                                               False
    else if(option == 'B')
                                               n==B
        printf("\nOption B\n");
                                               False
    else
        printf("\nNot A nor B.\n");
                                   Loop black
```

```
C:\X\PortableApps\De
Enter: A

Option A
Enter:
Not A nor B.
Enter: B
```

scanf() Function

- How to fix this???
- You may take string as input
 - scanf("%s",&option);
- Or you may use the getche() function:
 - option = getche();

```
#include <stdio.h>
 2
     int main(void)
         char option;
 4 ⊟ {
 6
         for(;;)
             printf("Enter: ");
 7
             scanf("%s", &option);
 8
             if(option == 'A')
                 printf("\nOption A\n");
10
             else if(option == 'B')
11
                 printf("\nOption B\n");
12
             else
13
                  printf("\nNot A nor B.\n");
14
15
16
    #include <stdio.h>
     #include <comio.h>
     int main(void)
 5 ⊟ {
         char option;
 6
         for(;;)
 8
             printf("Enter: ");
             option = qetche();
             if(option == 'A')
10
                 printf("\nOption A\n");
11
             else if(option == 'B')
12
                 printf("\nOption B\n");
13
             else
14
                 printf("\nNot A nor B.\n");
15
16
17
```

rand(): "pseudo" random function

```
▶rand() function
  - int rand(void);

    Returns an integer value randomly between 0 and 32,767 (max of int type)

  - Include the <stdlib.h> and <time.h> library
  - #include <stdlib.h>
  - #include <time.h>
  - Initialize random seed with srand(time(NULL)) before calling rand()
➤ How do you use the rand() function to generate the random number you want?
  e.g. the roll of a die [1,6]
  e.g. pick a random number from 1-45 [1,45]
srand(time(NULL));  // initialize random seed
int die = rand() % 6 + 1;
rand() % 6; // result is a random number between [0,5]
```

rand() % 6 + 1; // result is a random number between [1,6]

Function for rolling a die

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <time.h>
int RollDie(void)
  return rand() %6 + 1;
int main(void)
{ srand(time(NULL)); // initialize random seed
 printf("Roll a die: %d\n",RollDie());
 printf("Roll a die: %d\n", RollDie());
  printf("Roll a die: %d\n", RollDie());
  printf("Roll a die: %d\n",RollDie());
  printf("Roll a die: %d\n", RollDie());
  printf("Roll a die: %d\n", RollDie());
  return 0;
```

Function's Arguments

- > Function prototype:
 - int MyFunction(int x, int y)
 - This function has two arguments, both are integers
- ➤ When you call this function, for example:

```
int x = 10;
int y = x + 2;
int result = MyFunction(x, y);
```

➤ What if you pass arguments with a wrong type, for example:

```
double x = 10;
double y = x + 2;
int result = MyFunction(x, y);
```

Arguments Coercion

- >Argument Coercion: forcing the arguments into the correct types
 - Consider the square root sqrt() function in the <math.h> library
 - The sqrt() function has the function prototype: double sqrt(double x);
 - You are expected to pass a double variable as the argument:

```
double x = 4.0;
double result = sqrt(x); //result = 2.0
```

• If you pass an integer variable as argument, it will still work properly; it will be "coerced" into double

```
int x = 4;
double result = sqrt(x); //result = 2.0
Variable x is correct into double and then passed as argument
```

- Variable \times is coerced into <code>double</code>, and then passed as argument
- The function prototype causes the compiler to convert a copy of the integer value 4 to the double value 4.0 before it is passed to sqrt.

Arguments Coercion: A Deeper Look

- ➤ You need to be very careful if you're passing arguments with a different type to a function:
 - These conversions can lead to incorrect results
 - For example, consider the following function:

```
int square(int x); // returns the square value
```

If you pass a double variable to this function

```
double x = 4.5;
int result = square(x);
```

- Variable result will be 16 (4 2); not 20.25 (4.5 2)
- Converting large integer types to small integer types (e.g., long to short) may also result in changed values.
 - For example, consider the following function:

```
short square(short x); // returns the square value
```

- If you pass a long variable to this function

```
long x = 60000;
long result = square(x);
```

Variable result will not be correct

Functions calling functions

```
#include <stdio.h>

void a(void);
void b(void);
void c(void);
void d(void);

int main(void) {
// your code goes here
a();
return 0;
}
```

```
void a() {
printf("a\n");
b();
return;
void b() {
printf("b\n");
c();
return;
void c() {
printf("c\n");
d();
return;
void d() {
printf("d\n");
return;
```

Functions calling functions

```
#include <stdio.h>

void a(void);
void b(void);
void c(void);
void d(void);

int main(void) {
// your code goes here
a();
return 0;
}
```

```
void a() {
printf("a\n");
b();
return;
void b() {
printf("b\n");
c();
return;
void c() {
printf("c\n");
d();
return;
void d() {
printf("d\n");
a();
return;
```

Functions calling functions

```
#include <stdio.h>

void a(void);
void b(void);
void c(void);
void d(void);

int main(void) {
// your code goes here
a();
return 0;
}
```

```
void a() {
printf("a\n");
a();
return;
void b() {
printf("b\n");
c();
return;
void c() {
printf("c\n");
d();
return;
void d() {
printf("d\n");
return;
```

Recursion

- ■Recursion is "A programming technique whereby a function calls itself either directly or indirectly."
- Recursion is a powerful method that is a key component to functional programming

```
int MyFunction(int x)
{ return MyFunction(x-1);
}

int MyFunction1(int x)
{ return MyFunction2(x-1);
}

int MyFunction2(int x)
{ return MyFunction1(x-1);
}
```

Problem...

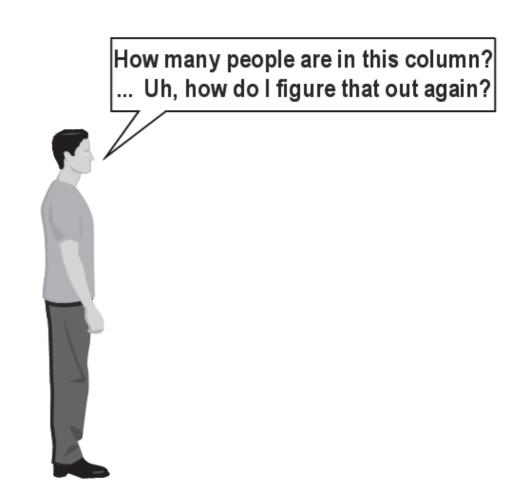
(To a student in the front row)

How many students total are directly behind you in your "column" of the classroom?

You have poor vision, so you can see only the people right next to you. So you can't just look back and count.

But you are allowed to ask questions of the person next to you.

How can we solve this problem? (recursively)

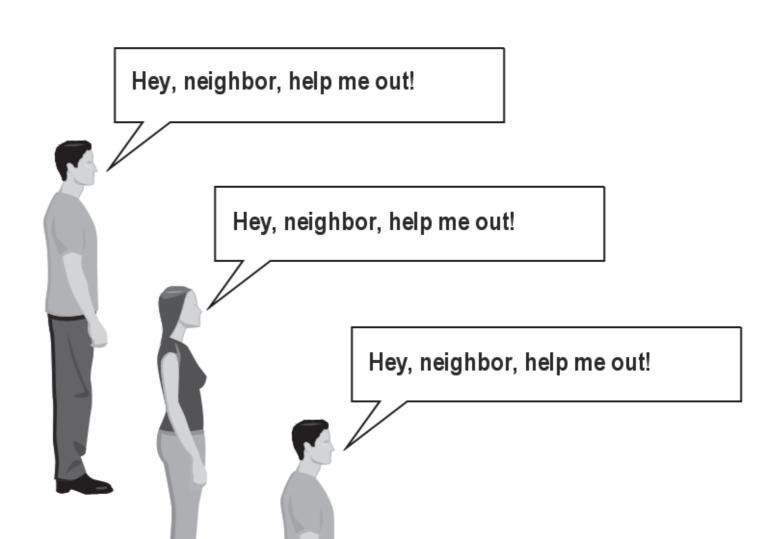


The idea

Recursion is all about breaking a big problem into smaller occurrences of that same problem.

Each person can solve a small part of the problem.

- What is a small version of the problem that would be easy to answer?
- What information from a neighbor might help me?



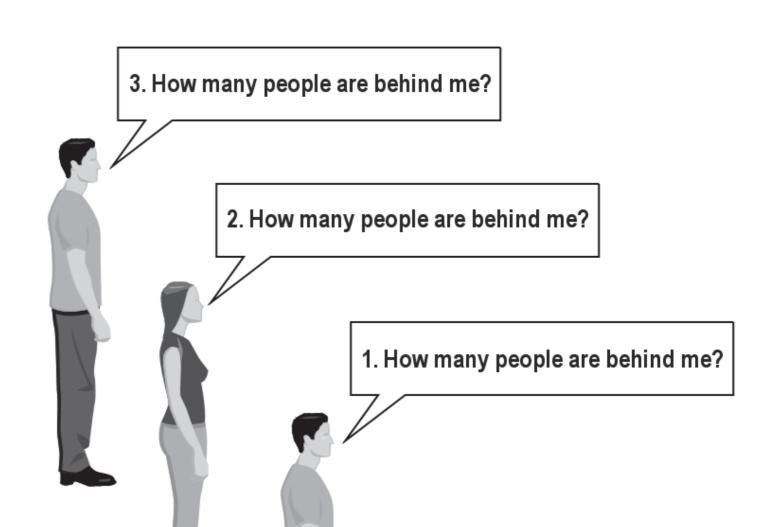
Recursive algorithm

Number of people behind me:

If there is someone behind me, ask him/her how many people are behind him/her.

When they respond with a value N, then I will answer N + 1.

If there is nobody behind me, I will answer 0.



Recursion and cases

Every recursive algorithm involves at least 2 cases:

base case: A simple occurrence that can be answered directly.

recursive case: A more complex occurrence of the problem that cannot be directly answered, but can instead be described in terms of smaller occurrences of the same problem.

Some recursive algorithms have more than one base or recursive case, but all have at least one of each.

A crucial part of recursive programming is identifying these cases.

Recursion – Write a Function Calculating: n + (n-1) + (n-2) + ... + 2 + 1

First Trail (a wrong answer): Recursion without a base case

```
int h(n):

{ return n + h(n - 1);

}

h(4)

4 + h(3)

4 + 3 + h(2)

4 + 3 + 2 + h(1)

4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + h(0)

4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + 0 + h(-1)

4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + 0 + -1 + h(-2)

...
```

Evaluating h leads to an infinite loop!

Recursion – Write a Function Calculating: n + (n-1) + (n-2) + ... + 2 + 1

Second Trail (the correct answer)

```
int h(n):
{    if n == 1:
        return 1
    else:
        return n + h(n - 1)
}

h(4)
4 + h(3)
4 + 3 + h(2)
4 + 3 + 2 + h(1)
4 + 3 + 2 + 1
```

Terminology

```
int f(int n)

{ if (n == 1) base case return 1; else return n+f(n-1); recursive case
```

"Useful" recursive functions have: at least one *recursive case* at least one *base case* so that the computation terminates

Factorial

$$n! = n x (n-1) x (n-2) x ... x 3 x 2 x 1$$

$$4! = 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 24$$

Factorial

The value of 9! = 362,880

Does anyone know the value of 10! ???

How did you know?

Factorial

$$9! = 9 \times 8 \times 7 \times 6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$$

$$10! = 10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7 \times 6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$$

$$10! = 10 \times 9!$$

$$n! = n \times (n - 1)!$$

That's a recursive definition!

Recursive Definitions

In other words,

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n(n-1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This definition says that 0! is 1, while the factorial of any other number is that number times the factorial of one less than that number.

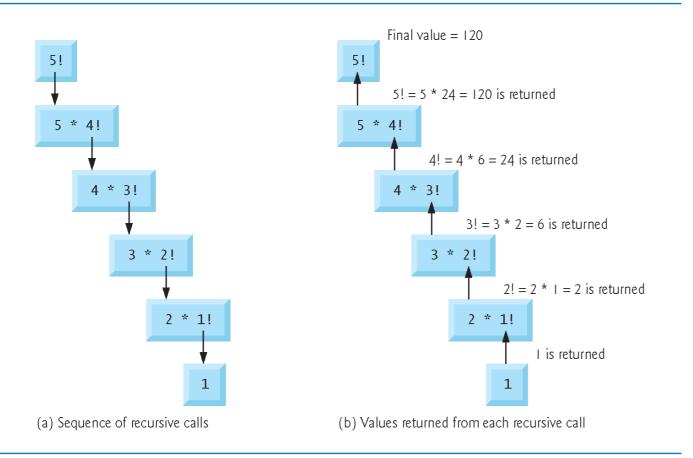


Fig. 5.17 | Recursive evaluation of 5!.

```
// Fig. 5.18: fig05_18.c
   // Recursive factorial function.
    #include <stdio.h>
5
    unsigned long long int factorial( unsigned int number );
    // function main begins program execution
    int main( void )
9
       unsigned int i; // counter
10
11
12
       // during each iteration, calculate
      // factorial( i ) and display result
13
       for (i = 0; i \le 21; ++i)
14
          printf( "u! = 1u n", i, factorial( i ) );
15
       } // end for
16
    } // end main
17
18
    // recursive definition of function factorial
19
    unsigned long long int factorial( unsigned int number )
20
21
22
       // base case
       if ( number <= 1 ) {
23
          return 1:
24
       } // end if
25
       else { // recursive step
26
          return ( number * factorial( number - 1 ) );
27
       } // end else
28
    } // end function factorial
29
```

Fig. 5.18 | Recursive factorial function. (Part 2 of 3.)

```
0! = 1
1! = 1
2! = 2
3! = 6
4! = 24
5! = 120
6! = 720
7! = 5040
8! = 40320
9! = 362880
10! = 3628800
11! = 39916800
12! = 479001600
13! = 6227020800
14! = 87178291200
15! = 1307674368000
16! = 20922789888000
17! = 355687428096000
18! = 6402373705728000
19! = 121645100408832000
20! = 2432902008176640000
21! = 14197454024290336768
```

Fig. 5.18 | Recursive factorial function. (Part 3 of 3.)

The recursive factorial function first tests whether a *terminating condition* is true, i.e., whether number is less than or equal to 1.

The conversion specifier %11u is used to print unsigned long long int values.

Unfortunately, the factorial function produces large values so quickly that even unsigned long long int does not help us print very many factorial values before the maximum value of an unsigned long long int variable is exceeded.

Even when we use unsigned long long int, we still can't calculate factorials beyond 21!

- The Fibonacci series
 - **0**, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ...
- begins with 0 and 1 and has the property that each subsequent Fibonacci number is the sum of the previous two Fibonacci numbers.
- The series occurs in nature and, in particular, describes a form of spiral.
- The ratio of successive Fibonacci numbers converges to a constant value of 1.618....

This number, too, repeatedly occurs in nature and has been called the golden ratio or the golden mean.

Humans tend to find the golden mean aesthetically pleasing.

Architects often design windows, rooms, and buildings whose length and width are in the ratio of the golden mean.

Postcards are often designed with a golden mean length/width ratio.

The Fibonacci series may be defined recursively as follows:

```
fibonacci(0) = 0

fibonacci(1) = 1

fibonacci(n) = fibonacci(n – 1) + fibonacci(n – 2)
```

Figure 5.19 calculates the n^{th} Fibonacci number recursively using function fibonacci.

Notice that Fibonacci numbers tend to become large quickly.

Therefore, we've chosen the data type unsigned int for the parameter type and the data type unsigned long long int for the return type in function fibonacci.

In Fig. 5.19, each pair of output lines shows a separate run of the program.

```
// Fig. 5.19: fig05_19.c
 2 // Recursive fibonacci function
 3 #include <stdio.h>
    unsigned long long int fibonacci( unsigned int n ); // function prototype
 5
   // function main begins program execution
    int main( void )
    {
 9
       unsigned long long int result; // fibonacci value
10
       unsigned int number; // number input by user
11
12
       // obtain integer from user
13
       printf( "%s", "Enter an integer: " );
14
       scanf( "%u", &number );
15
16
       // calculate fibonacci value for number input by user
17
       result = fibonacci( number );
18
19
       // display result
20
       printf( "Fibonacci( %u ) = %llu\n", number, result );
21
    } // end main
22
23
   // Recursive definition of function fibonacci
24
```

Fig. 5.19 | Recursive fibonacci function. (Part 1 of 3.)

```
unsigned long long int fibonacci( unsigned int n )
25
26
     // base case
27
     if ( 0 == n || 1 == n ) {
28
        return n;
29
    } // end if
30
    else { // recursive step
31
         return fibonacci( n - 1 ) + fibonacci( n - 2 );
32
      } // end else
33
34 } // end function fibonacci
```

```
Enter an integer: 0
Fibonacci( 0 ) = 0
```

```
Enter an integer: 1
Fibonacci( 1 ) = 1
```

```
Enter an integer: 2
Fibonacci( 2 ) = 1
```

Fig. 5.19 | Recursive fibonacci function. (Part 2 of 3.)

```
Enter an integer: 3
Fibonacci(3) = 2
Enter an integer: 10
Fibonacci (10) = 55
Enter an integer: 20
Fibonacci (20) = 6765
Enter an integer: 30
Fibonacci(30) = 832040
Enter an integer: 40
Fibonacci (40) = 102334155
```

Fig. 5.19 | Recursive fibonacci function. (Part 3 of 3.)

The call to fibonacci from main is not a recursive call (line 18), but all subsequent calls to fibonacci are recursive (line 32).

Each time fibonacci is invoked, it immediately tests for the base case—n is equal to 0 or 1. If this is true, n is returned.

Interestingly, if n is greater than 1, the recursion step generates two recursive calls, each a slightly simpler problem than the original call to fibonacci.

Figure 5.20 shows how function fibonacci would evaluate fibonacci (3).

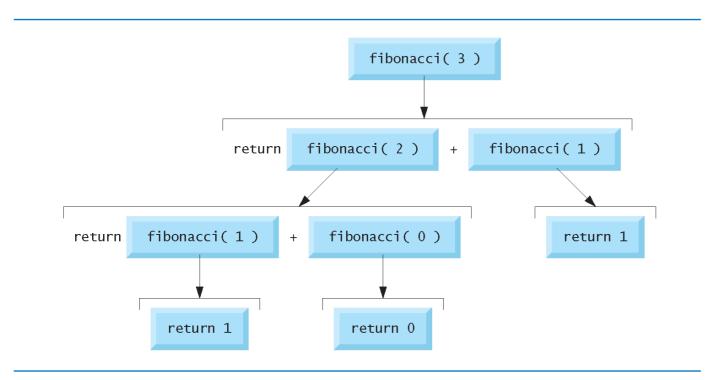


Fig. 5.20 | Set of recursive calls for fibonacci(3).

Order of Evaluation of Operands

- This figure raises some interesting issues about the order in which C compilers will evaluate the operands of operators.
- This is a different issue from the order in which operators are applied to their operands, namely the order dictated by the rules of operator precedence.
- Fig. 5.20 shows that while evaluating fibonacci(3), two recursive calls will be made, namely fibonacci(2) and fibonacci(1).
- But in what order will these calls be made? You might simply assume the operands will be evaluated left to right.

For optimization reasons, C does not specify the order in which the operands of most operators (including +) are to be evaluated.

Therefore, you should make no assumption about the order in which these calls will execute.

The calls could in fact execute fibonacci(2) first and then fibonacci(1), or the calls could execute in the reverse order, fibonacci(1) then fibonacci(2).

In this program and in most other programs, the final result would be the same.

Exponential Complexity

A word of caution is in order about recursive programs like the one we use here to generate Fibonacci numbers.

Each level of recursion in the fibonacci function has a doubling effect on the number of calls—the number of recursive calls that will be executed to calculate the n^{th} Fibonacci number is on the order of 2^n .

This rapidly gets out of hand.

Calculating only the 20th Fibonacci number would require on the order of 2²⁰ or about a million calls, calculating the 30th Fibonacci number would require on the order of 2³⁰ or about a billion calls, and so on.

The example we showed in this section used an intuitively appealing solution to calculate Fibonacci numbers, but there are better approaches.

Calculating an using recursive function

■ Calculate aⁿ

```
\begin{array}{ll} \text{int power(int a, int n);} & \text{int power(int a, int n) } \{ \\ \text{int main( void )} & \text{if (n==0)} \\ \text{return 1;} \\ \text{int result=power(2,10);} & \text{return a*power(a,n-1);} \\ \text{printf("%d\n", result);} & \text{} \} \\ \text{return 0;} \\ \} \end{array}
```

Recursion vs. iteration

In the previous sections, we studied functions that can easily be implemented either recursively or iteratively.

In this section, we compare the two approaches and discuss why you might choose one approach over the other in a particular situation.

Both iteration and recursion involve repetition: Iteration explicitly uses a repetition structure; recursion achieves repetition through *repeated function calls*.

In fact, anything that can be done with a loop can be done with a simple recursive function!

Some problems that are simple to solve with recursion are quite difficult to solve with loops (e.g. tree traversal)

Recursion solution is usually shorter (less lines of code)

Performance: Sometimes recursion solution is faster than iteration solution (but sometimes it is slower)

Recursion is another tool in your problem-solving toolbox.

Recursion vs. iteration

Iteration and recursion each involve a termination test:

- Iteration terminates when the *loop-continuation condition fails*;
- Recursion when a base case is recognized.

Iteration with counter-controlled repetition and recursion each *gradually approach termination*:

- Iteration keeps modifying a counter until the counter assumes a value that makes the *loop-continuation* condition fail;
- Recursion keeps producing simpler versions of the original problem until the base case is reached.

Recursion vs. iteration

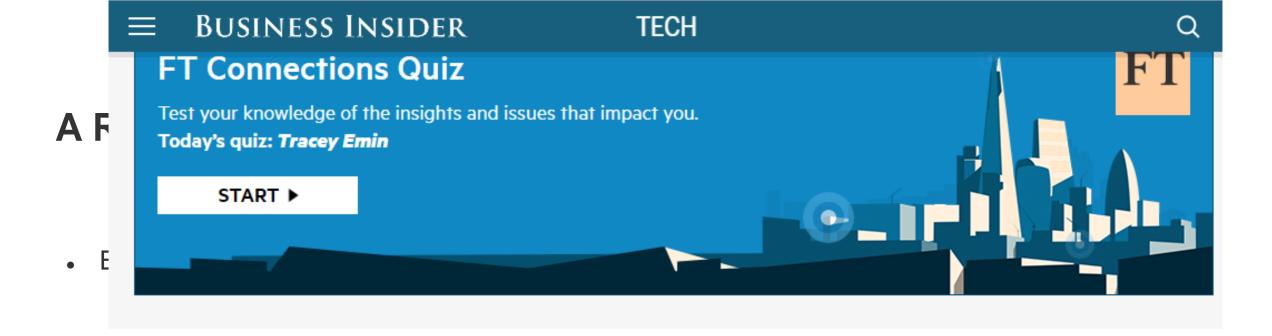
Both iteration and recursion can occur *infinitely*:

- An infinite loop occurs with iteration if the loop-continuation test never becomes false;
- Infinite recursion occurs if the recursion step does *not* reduce the problem each time in a manner that converges on the base case.

Recursion has many negatives.

It repeatedly invokes the mechanism, and consequently the overhead, of function calls.

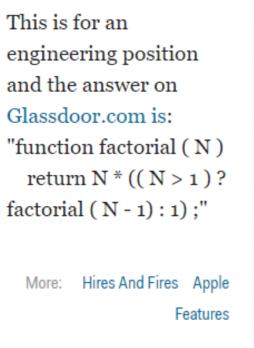
This can be expensive in both processor time and memory space.

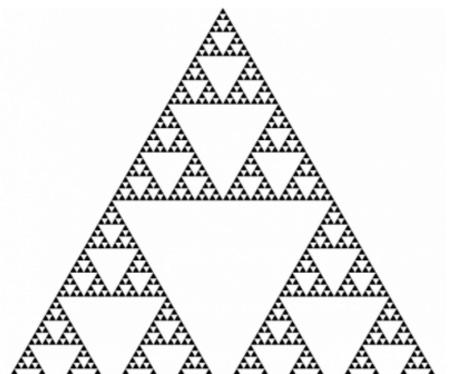


What It's Like Being Interviewed For A Job At Apple



"Write a function that calculates a number's factorial using recursion."





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