Recursion

CS 16: Solving Problems with Computers I Lecture #16

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Announcements

Lab #9 is due on the last day of classes: Friday, 12/2

Homework #15 is due on Tuesday, 11/29

Lecture Outline

- A Word About Lab 9 / Lab 10
- The Point of Pointers!

CH. 14

Recursive Functions

About Lab9 / Lab10

- Lab 9 is a equal to the last 2 labs for the quarter
- It is worth 2x the other individual labs
 - 5 exercises utilizing vectors, dynamic arrays, and recursive functions
- Pair programming is REQUIRED!
 - Will not grade labs that are not from a pair
 - Deadline to pair up is Monday 11/28
 - The only deviations from this requirement are:
 - You are the last person to pair-up and everyone else has
 - You have *extenuating* circumstances if so, the **instructor has to approve**.
- Lab is due on FRIDAY, Dec. 2nd

Remaining To-Dos

M	Т	w	Th	F
11/21	11/22	11/23	11/24	11/25
	HW #14 Recursive functions		THANKSGIVING BREAK	
11/28	11/29	11/30	12/1	12/2
	HW #15		HW #16	LAB #9
	Structures		Structures + Review for Final Exam	
12/5	12/6			
	FINAL EXAM At 4 PM			

Why Pointers?

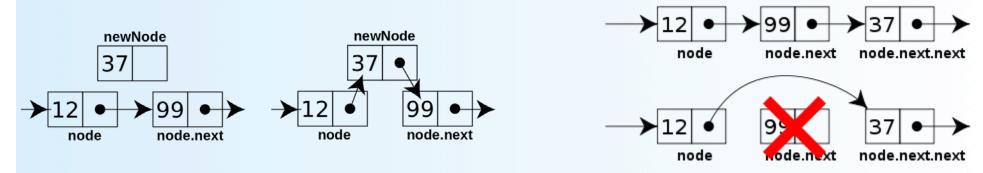
- With the creation of object-oriented programming, using pointers is not as useful as it used to be
- Use pointers mostly if you're writing a C++ program that references C libraries or older C programs
- Pointers/references are very useful when passing variables in a function that you want changed outside the function
 - a.k.a call-by-reference functions

Pointers and Linked Lists

- Pointers are very useful when creating linked lists
- Linear collection of data elements, called nodes, each pointing to the next node by means of a pointer
- List elements can easily be inserted or removed without reorganization of the entire structure (unlike arrays)
- Data items in a linked list do not have to be stored in one large memory block (again, unlike arrays)

Linked Lists

- You can build a list of "nodes" which are made up of variables and pointers to create a chain.
- Adding and deleting nodes in the link can be done by "re-routing" pointer links.
- Chapter 13 in your books explains this further, but we won't cover it in CS16



Recursive Fuctions

Recursive Functions for Tasks

- Recursive: (adj.) Repeating unto itself
- A recursive function contains a call to itself
- When breaking a task into subtasks, it may be that the subtask is a smaller example of the same task
- For example: Searching an array
 - Could be divided into searching the 1st, then 2nd halves of array
 - Searching each half is a smaller version
 of searching the whole array

Example: The Factorial Function

Recall: x! = 1 * 2 * 3 ... * x

You could code this out as either (the following is pseudocode):

A for-loop:

```
(for k=1; k < x; k++) { factorial *= k; }
```

Or a recursion/repetition:

Example: Recursive Formulas

Recall from Math, that you can create a recursive formula from a sequence

Example:

Consider the arithmetic sequence:

• If I call $a_1 = 5$, then I can write the formula as:

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + 5$$

Problem Definition:
 Write a function that takes an integer number and prints it out one digit at a time vertically:

```
write_vertical(3):
3
write_vertical(12):
1
2
write_vertical(123):
1
2
3
```

```
void write_vertical( int n );
//Precondition: n >= 0
//Postcondition: n is written to the screen vertically
// with each digit on a separate line
```

Analysis:

- Take a number, like 543.
- How do I separate the digits from each other?
 - So that I can print out 5, then 4, then 3?

• Note that 543 = 500 + 40 + 3

Algorithm design

- Simplest case:
 If n is 1 digit long, just write the number
- More typical case:
 - 1) Output all but the last digit vertically (recursion!)
 - 2) Write the last digit
 - Step 1 is a smaller version of the original task
 - The recursive case
 - Step 2 is the simplest case
 - The base case

The write_vertical algorithm (in pseudocode):

```
void write_vertical( int n ) {
   if (n < 10)     cout << n << endl;
   // n < 10     means n is only one digit

else   // n is two or more digits long
   {
      write_vertical(n with the last digit removed);
      cout << the last digit of n << endl;
   }
}</pre>
```

Note that: n / 10 returns n

with the least-significant digit removed

- So, for example, 124 / 10 = 12
- Whereas: n % 10 returns the last digit of n
 - In this example, 124 % 10 = 4

I've separated the last digit from the other digits!

- Another way to do this:
 Remove the first (most-significant) digit would be just as valid for defining a recursive solution
 - However, this would be more difficult to translate into C++



A Closer Look at Recursion

- The function write_vertical uses recursion
 - Used no new keywords or anything "new"
 - It simply called itself with a different argument
- If you want to track a recursive call:
 - Temporarily stop the execution at the recursive call
 - Show or save the result of the call before proceeding
 - Evaluate the recursive call
 - Resume the stopped execution

How Recursion Ends

- Recursive functions have to stop eventually
 - One of the recursive calls must not depend on another recursive call
 - Usually, it's the last recursive call
- Recursive functions are defined as
 - One or more cases where the task is accomplished by using recursive calls to do a smaller version of the task
 - One or more cases where the task is accomplished without the use of any recursive calls
 - These are called base cases or stopping cases

"Infinite" Recursion

 A function that never reaches a base case, in theory, will run forever

 In practice, the computer will often run out of resources (i.e. memory usually) and the program will terminate abnormally

Example: Infinite Recursion

What if we wrote the function write_vertical,
 without the base case

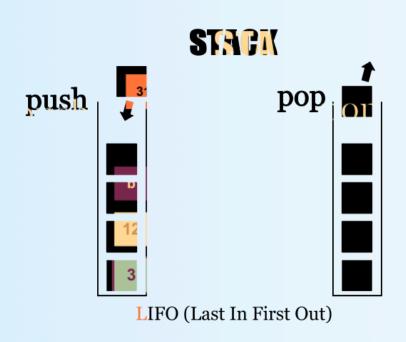
```
void write_vertical(int n) {
    write_vertical (n / 10);
    cout << n % 10 << endl; }</pre>
```

Will eventually call write_vertical(0),
 which will call write_vertical(0),
 which will call write_vertical(0),
 which will call write vertical(0), ...etc...

Stacks for Recursion

- Computers use a structure called a stack
 to keep track of recursion
- Stack:
 - a memory structure analogous to a stack of paper
 - To place information on the stack,
 write it on a piece of paper and place it on top of the stack
 - To insert more information on the stack,
 use a clean sheet of paper,
 write the information, and place it on the top of the stack
 - To retrieve information, only the top sheet of paper can be read,
 and then thrown away when it is no longer needed

LIFO



 This scheme of handling sequential data in a stack is called:

Last In-First Out (LIFO)

 The other common scheme in CS data organization is FIFO (First In-First Out)

Stacks & Making the Recursive Call

- When execution of a function definition reaches a recursive call
 - Execution is halted
 - 2. Then, data is saved on a "clean sheet of paper" to enable resumption of execution later
 - 3. This sheet of paper is placed on top of the stack
 - 4. Then a *new* sheet is used for the recursive call
 - a) A new function definition is written, and arguments are plugged into parameters
 - b) Execution of the recursive call begins
 - 5. And it goes on...

Stacks & Ending Recursive Calls

- When a recursive function call is able to complete its computation with no recursive calls:
- The computer retrieves the top "sheet of paper" from the stack
 - Resumes computation based on the information on the sheet
- When that computation ends, that sheet of paper is discarded
- The next sheet of paper on the stack is retrieved so that processing can resume
- The process continues until no sheets remain in the stack

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Activation Frames

- Instead of "paper", think "memory"....
- Portions of memory are used for the stack
 - The contents of these portions of memory is called an activation frame
- The activation frame does not actually contain a copy of the function definition, but references a single copy (instantiation) of the function

Stack Overflow

- Because each recursive call causes an activation frame to be placed on the stack
 - Infinite recursions can force the stack to grow beyond its limits
- The result of this erroneous operation is called a stack overflow
 - This causes abnormal termination of the program

Recursion versus Iteration

Algorithmic Truism:

- Any task that can be accomplished using recursion can also be done without recursion
 - Recall the 2 demos I showed you...
- A non-recursive version of a function typically contains loop(s)
- A non-recursive version of a function is usually called an iterative-version
- A recursive version of a function
 - Usually runs slower
 - Uses more storage
 - May use code that is easier to write and understand

Recursive Functions for Values

Recursive Functions for Values

- Recursive functions don't have to be void types
 - They can also return values
- The technique to design a recursive function that returns a value is basically the same...
 - One or more cases in which the value returned is computed in terms of calls to the same function with (usually) smaller arguments
 - One or more cases in which the value returned is computed without any recursive calls (base case)

Program Example: A Powers Function

Example: Define a new **power** function (not the one in <cmath>)

- Let it return an integer, 2³, when we call the function as:
 int y = power(2,3);
 - Use the following definition:

$$X_n = X_{n-1} * X$$
 i.e. $2^3 = 2^2 * 2$

- Note that this only works if n is a positive number
- Translating the right side of that equation into C++ gives: power(x, n-1) * x
- The base/stopping case:
 when n is 0, then power() should return 1

```
int power(int x, int n);
//Precondition: n >= 0.
//Returns x to the power n.

int main()
{
    for (int n = 0; n < 4; n++)
        cout << "3 to the power " << n
        << " is " << power(3, n) << end];</pre>
```

return 0;

}

Sample Dialogue

```
3 to the power 0 is 1
3 to the power 1 is 3
3 to the power 2 is 9
3 to the power 3 is 27
```

Stopping case

```
int power(int x, int n);
                                            Sample Dialogue
//Precondition: n \ge 0.
                                                 3 to the power 0 is 1
//Returns x to the power n.
                                                 3 to the power 1 is 3
                                                 3 to the power 2 is 9
int main()
                                                 3 to the power 3 is 27
{
    for (int n = 0; n < 4; n++)
        cout << "3 to the power " << n
              << " is " << power(3, n) << endl;</pre>
    return 0;
//uses iostream and cstdlib:
int power(int x, int n)
    if (n < 0)
        cout << "Illegal argument to power.\n";</pre>
        exit(1);
    if (n > 0)
        return ( power(x, n - 1)*x );
    e1se // n == 0
        return (1);
```

Stopping case

Tracing power(2, 3)

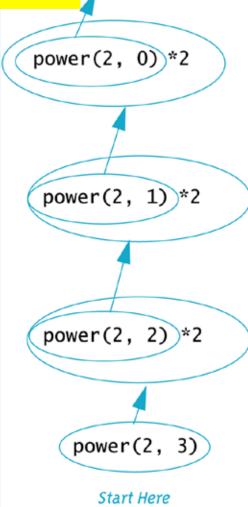
power(2, 3) results in the following recursive calls:

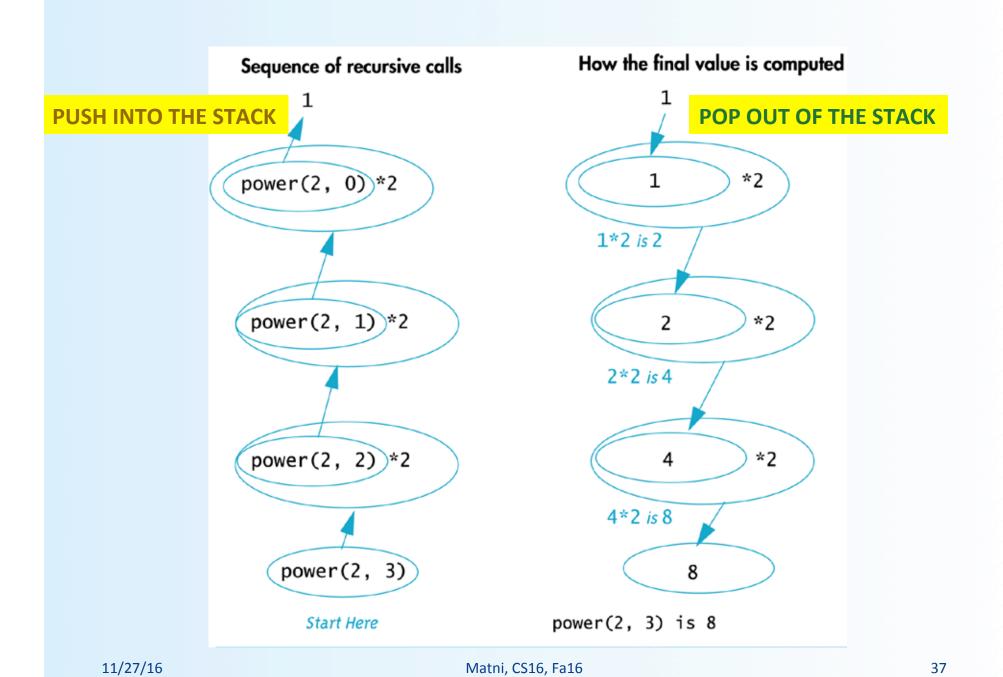
- power(2, 3) is power(2, 2) * 2
- power(2, 2) is power(2, 1) * 2
- power(2, 1) is power(2, 0) * 2
- power (2, 0) is 1 (stopping case)

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Sequence of recursive calls

PUSH INTO THE STACK





Thinking Recursively

Thinking Recursively

- When designing a recursive function, you do not need to trace out the entire sequence of calls
 - Check that there is no infinite recursion:
 i.e. that, eventually, a stopping case is reached
 - Check that each stopping case returns the correct value
 - For cases involving recursion: if all recursive calls return the correct value, then the final value returned is the correct value

Reviewing the power function

There is no infinite recursion in that function



Notice that the 2nd argument is decreased at each call.



Eventually, the 2nd argument must reach 0, the stopping case

```
int power(int x, int n)
{
    ...
    if (n > 0)
       return ( power(x, n-1) * x);
    else
       return (1);
}
```

- Each stopping case returns the correct value
 - Example: Does **power(x, 0)** return $x^0 = 1$?



Case Study: Binary Search

- A binary search (not to be confused with binary numbers)
 can be used to search a sorted array to determine if it
 contains a specified value
- The array indexes will be 0 through final_index
- Because the array is sorted, we know
 a[0] <= a[1] <= a[2] <= ... <= a[final_index]
- If the item is in the list,
 we want to know where it is in the list.

Binary Search: Problem Definition

- The function will use 2 call-by-reference parameters to return the outcome of the search
 - One parameter, *found*, will be type **bool**.
 - If the value is found, found will be set to true.
 - If the value is found, the parameter, *location*, will be set to the index of the value
- A call-by-value parameter is used to pass the value to find
 - We will call this parameter: key

Binary Search: Problem Definition

Pre and Postconditions for the function:

```
//precondition: a[0] through a[final_index] are
// sorted in increasing order

//postcondition: if key is not in a[0] thru a[final_index]
// found == false; otherwise found == true
```

Our algorithm:

N1 N2 N3 N4 N5 N6 N7 N8 N10 N11 N9 N12 N13 middle last first

- Start by looking at the item in the middle of the list:
 - If it is the number we are looking for, we are done!
 - If it is greater than the number we are looking for,
 look in the 1st half of the list
 - If it is less than the number we are looking for,
 look in the 2nd half of the list

1st attempt at the algorithm:

```
found = false;
mid = approx. midpoint between 0 and final_index;

if (key == a[mid]) {
    found = true;
    location = mid;
}

else if (key < a[mid])
    search a[0] through a[mid -1]

else if (key > a[mid])
    search a[mid +1] through a[final_index];
```

- Since searching each of the shorter lists is a smaller version of the task we are working on, a recursive approach is natural
 - Keep dividing list in half and go again until you find it
- We must refine the recursive calls in our algorithm
 - Because we will be searching sub-ranges of the array, we need additional parameters to specify the sub-range to search
 - We will add parameters *first* and *last* to indicate the first and last indices of the sub-range

Here is our first refinement:

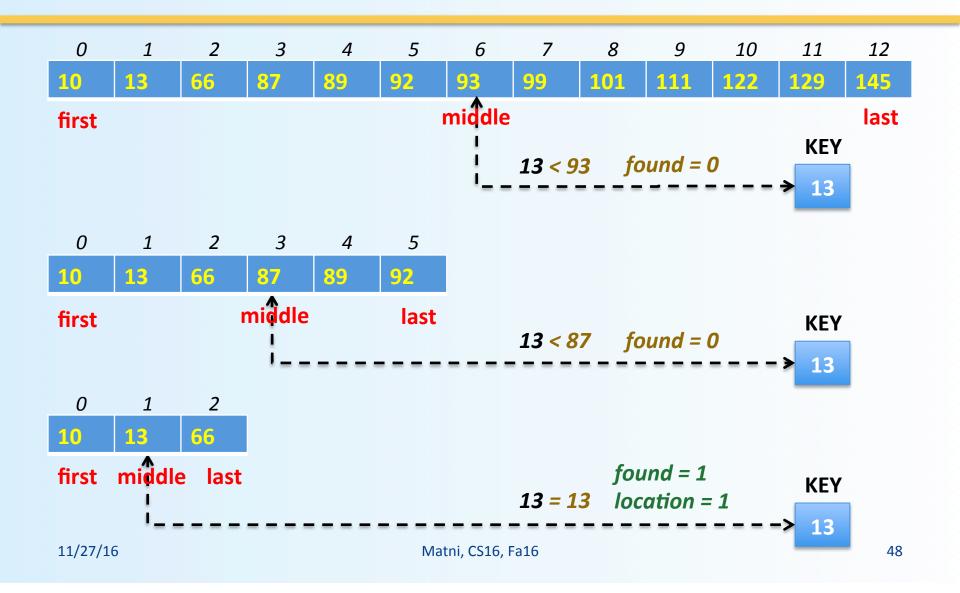
```
found = false;
mid = approx. midpoint between 0 and final_index;

if (key == a[mid]) {
    found = true;
    location = mid;
}

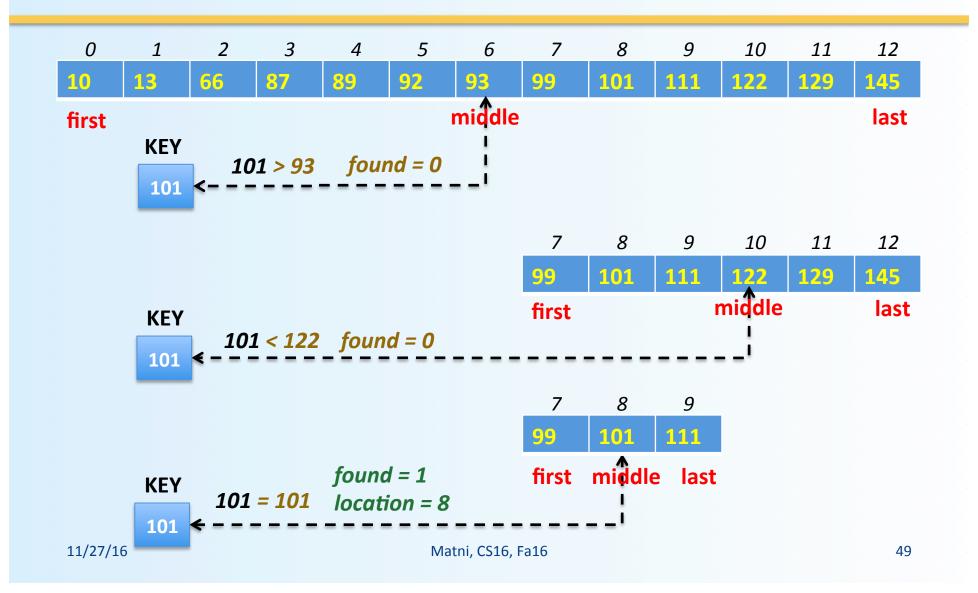
else if (key < a[mid])
    search a[first] through a[mid -1]

else if (key > a[mid])
    search a[mid +1] through a[last];
```

Binary Search: A Visualization 1



Binary Search: A Visualization 2



- We must ensure that our algorithm eventually ends
 - No infinite recursions!
- If key is found in the array, there is no recursive call and the process terminates
- What if key is not found in the array?
 - At each recursive call, either the value of first is increased or the value of last is decreased
 - If first ever becomes larger than last, we know that there are no more indices to check and key is not in the array

Binary Search: Writing the Code

Function search implements the algorithm:

See Display 14.6 in Chapter 14 for full program

Binary Search: Checking the Recursion

There is no infinite recursion



 On each recursive call, the value of first is increased or the value of last is decreased.
 Eventually, if nothing else stops the recursion, the stopping case of first > last will be called

Binary Search: Checking the Recursion

- Each stopping case performs the correct action
 - If first > last, then there are no more elements between a[first] and a[last]
 - So, key is not in this segment and it is correct to set found to false
 - If k == a[mid], the algorithm correctly sets found to true and location equal to mid
- Therefore both stopping cases are correct



Binary Search: Checking the Recursion

- For each case that involves recursion, if all recursive calls perform their actions correctly, then the entire case performs correctly.
- Since the array is sorted...
 - If key < a[mid], then key is in one of elements
 a[first] through a[mid-1] if it is in the array.
 No other elements need be searched & the recursive call is correct
 - If key > a[mid], key is in one of elements
 a[mid+1] through a[last] if it is in the array.
 No other elements must be searched & the recursive call is correct

Binary Search Efficiency

- The binary search algorithm is extremely fast compared to an algorithm that checks each item in order
- The binary search eliminates about half the elements between a[first] and a[last] from consideration at each recursive call
- For an array of 100 items, a simple serial search will average
 50 comparisons and may do as many as 100!
 - N items, N max. comparisons
- For an array of 100 items, the binary search algorithm never compares more than 7 elements to the key!
 - N items, log₂N max. comparisons

Binary Search: An Iterative Version

- The iterative version of the binary search may run faster on some systems
 - Iterative vs Recursive is not always a decisive speed decision
- The algorithm for the iterative version is shown in Display 14.8 of the textbook
 - It was created by mirroring the recursive function
- Even if you plan an iterative function, it may be helpful to start with the recursive approach

Function Declaration

Function Definition

}

```
void search(const int a[], int low_end, int high_end,
                           int key, bool& found, int& location)
{
    int first = low_end;
    int last = high_end;
    int mid;
    found = false;//so far
    while ( (first <= last) && !(found) )
        mid = (first + last)/2;
        if (key == a[mid])
            found = true;
            location = mid;
        else if (key < a[mid])
            last = mid - 1;
        else if (key > a[mid])
            first = mid + 1;
```

To Dos

Homework #15 for next Tuesday

Lab #9:
 Make sure you pick your partner by Monday!!

HAPPY THANKSGNING!

