

CMPT 1109

Programming I

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Lecture 11

Plan for Today

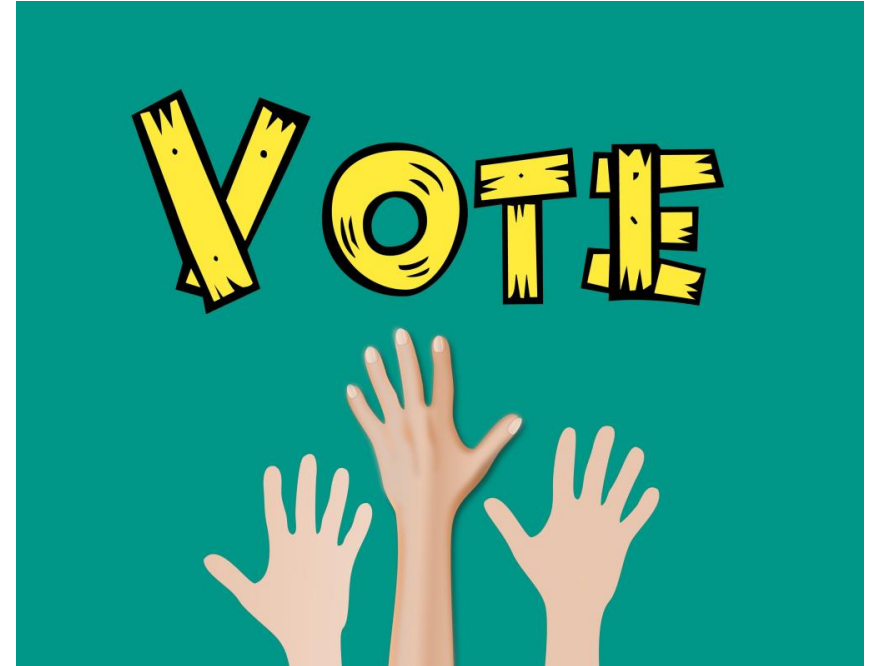
- Introduction to Exceptions
- Introduction to Recursion
- Problem Solving with Recursion

Poll 1 (Extra Credit)

The C++ compiler is able to catch all errors in a program, including run-time errors.

- a) True
- b) False

Please use the “Poll” window to participate for extra credit! One answer only please!





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Introduction to Exceptions

Exceptions

- Error testing is usually a straightforward process involving **if** statements or other control mechanisms.
- For example, the following code segment will trap a division-by-zero error before it occurs:

```
if (denominator == 0)
    cout << "ERROR: Cannot divide by zero.\n";
else
    quotient = numerator / denominator;
```

- What if similar code is part of a function that returns the quotient:

```
double divide(int numerator, int denominator)
{
    if (denominator == 0)
    {
        cout << "ERROR: Cannot divide by zero.\n";
        return 0;
    }
    else
        return static_cast<double>(numerator) / denominator;
}
```

Exceptions

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    if (denominator == 0)
    {
        cout << "ERROR: Cannot divide by zero.\n";
        return 0;
    }
    else
        return static_cast<double>(numerator) / denominator;
}
```

Here, returning **0** is unreliable because **0** could be a valid result of a division operation. So, this if statement is not an ideal way to catch this error before it occurs.

Throwing an Exception

- One way of handling complex error conditions is with **exceptions**.
- An exception is a value (or an object) that signals an error.
- When the error occurs, an exception is “thrown”.

```
double divide(int numerator, int denominator)
{
    if (denominator == 0)
        throw "ERROR: Cannot divide by zero.\n";
    else
        return static_cast<double>(numerator) / denominator;
}
```

- The **throw** keyword is followed by an argument, which can be any value. The line containing a throw statement is known as the **throw point**.
- When a throw statement is executed, control is passed to another part of the program known as an **exception handler**. When an exception is thrown by a function, the function aborts.

Handling an Exception

- To handle an exception, a program must have a **try/catch construct**. The general format of the try/catch construct is:

```
try
{
    // code here calls functions or object member
    // functions that might throw an exception.
}
catch (ExceptionParameter)
{
    // code here handles the exception
}
// Repeat as many catch blocks as needed.
```

- The first part of the construct is the **try block**, which is followed by a block of code executing any statements that might cause an exception.
- The **try** block is immediately followed by one or more **catch blocks**, which are the **exception handlers**.
- A **catch** block is followed by a set of parentheses containing the definition of an exception parameter.

Handling an Exception

- For example, here is a try/catch construct that can be used with the divide function:

```

    try
    {
        quotient = divide(num1, num2);
        cout << "The quotient is " << quotient << endl;
    }
    catch (string exceptionString)
    {
        cout << exceptionString;
    }
    cout << "End of the program.\n";
    return 0;
  
```

If this statement throws an exception...

... then this statement is skipped.

If the exception is a string, the program jumps to this catch clause.

After the catch block is finished, the program resumes here.

- Since the **divide()** function throws an exception whose value is a **string**, there must be an exception handler that catches a **string**.
- The catch block shown catches the error message in the **exceptionString** parameter and then displays it with **cout**.

Uncaught Exceptions

- There are two possible ways for a thrown exception to go “uncaught”.
- The first possibility is for the **try/catch** construct to contain no **catch** blocks with an exception parameter of the correct data type.
- The second possibility is for the exception to be thrown from outside a **try** block.
- In both cases, the exception will cause the entire program to abort execution.

Example

```
// This program demonstrates an exception being thrown and caught.
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;

// Function prototype
double divide(int, int);

int main()
{
    int num1, num2; // To hold two numbers
    double quotient; // To hold the quotient of the numbers

    // Get two numbers.
    cout << "Enter two numbers: ";
    cin >> num1 >> num2;

    // Divide num1 by num2 and catch any
    // potential exceptions.
    try
    {
        quotient = divide(num1, num2);
        cout << "The quotient is " << quotient << endl;
    }
    catch (string exceptionString)
    {
        cout << exceptionString;
    }

    cout << "End of the program.\n";
    return 0;
}

double divide(int numerator, int denominator)
{
    if (denominator == 0)
    {
        string exceptionString = "ERROR: Cannot divide by zero.\n";
        throw exceptionString;
    }

    return static_cast<double>(numerator) / denominator;
}
```




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Introduction to Recursion

Introduction to Recursion

- We have seen instances of functions calling other functions.
- In a program, the **main()** function might call function **A**, which then might call function **B**.
- It is also possible for a function to call itself!
- A function that calls itself is known as a **recursive function**.

```
void message()  
{  
    cout << "This is a recursive function.\n";  
    message();  
}
```



This is a recursive function.
This is a recursive function.
This is a recursive function.
This is a recursive function.
.
.
.


Introduction to Recursion

- Like a loop, a recursive function must have some way to control the number of times it repeats.
- The code below shows a modified version of the **message()** function.
- In this program, the **message()** function receives an argument that specifies the number of times the function should display the message.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <string>
using namespace std;

void message(int times)
{
    if (times > 0)
    {
        cout << "This is a recursive function.\n";
        message(times - 1);
    }
}

int main()
{
    message(5);
    return 0;
}
```



This is a recursive function.
This is a recursive function.
This is a recursive function.
This is a recursive function.
This is a recursive function.

Problem Solving with Recursion

Introduction to Recursion

- In many instances, the use of a recursive function enables an intuitive and simple solution to otherwise complex problems.
- Recursive functions typically have the following form:

```
if this is a simple case
    solve it
else
    redefine the problem using recursion
```

- In order to apply this approach, first, we identify at least one case in which the problem can be solved without recursion. This is known as the **base case**.
- Second, we determine a way to solve the problem in all other circumstances using recursion. This is called the **recursive case**.

Example – Integer Multiplication

- Integer multiplication is a simple example of recursion:
- $$4 \times 3 = 4 + (4 \times 2)$$

$$= 4 + (4 + (4 \times 1))$$
- Each $(4 \times n)$ may be replaced with a function call:
- $$\text{mult}(4, 3) = 4 + \text{mult}(4, 2)$$

$$= 4 + 4 + \text{mult}(4, 1)$$

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int mult(int num1, int num2)
{
    int ans;

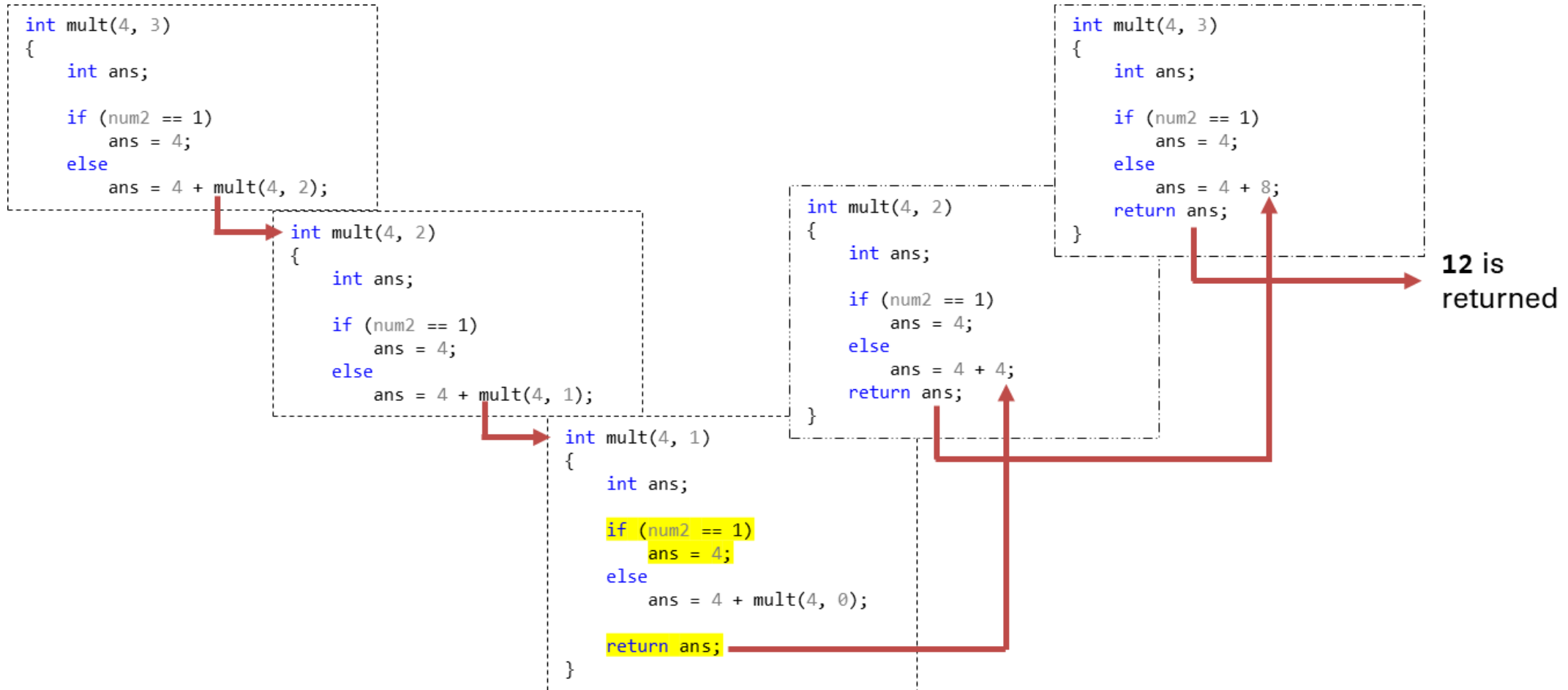
    if (num2 == 1)
        ans = num1;
    else
        ans = num1 + mult(num1, num2 - 1);

    return ans;
}

void main()
{
    int a = 2;
    int b = 3;

    cout << a << " * " << b
         << " = " << mult(a, b) << endl;
}
```

Example – Integer Multiplication



Example – Factorial

- Factorial is another example of recursion:
- $4! = 4 \times 3!$
 $= 4 \times 3 \times 2!$
 $= 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1!$
- Each $n!$ may be replaced with a function call:
- $\text{fact}(4) = 4 \times \text{fact}(3)$
 $= 4 \times 3 \times \text{fact}(2)$
 $= 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times \text{fact}(1)$

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

long int fact(int num)
{
    long int ans;

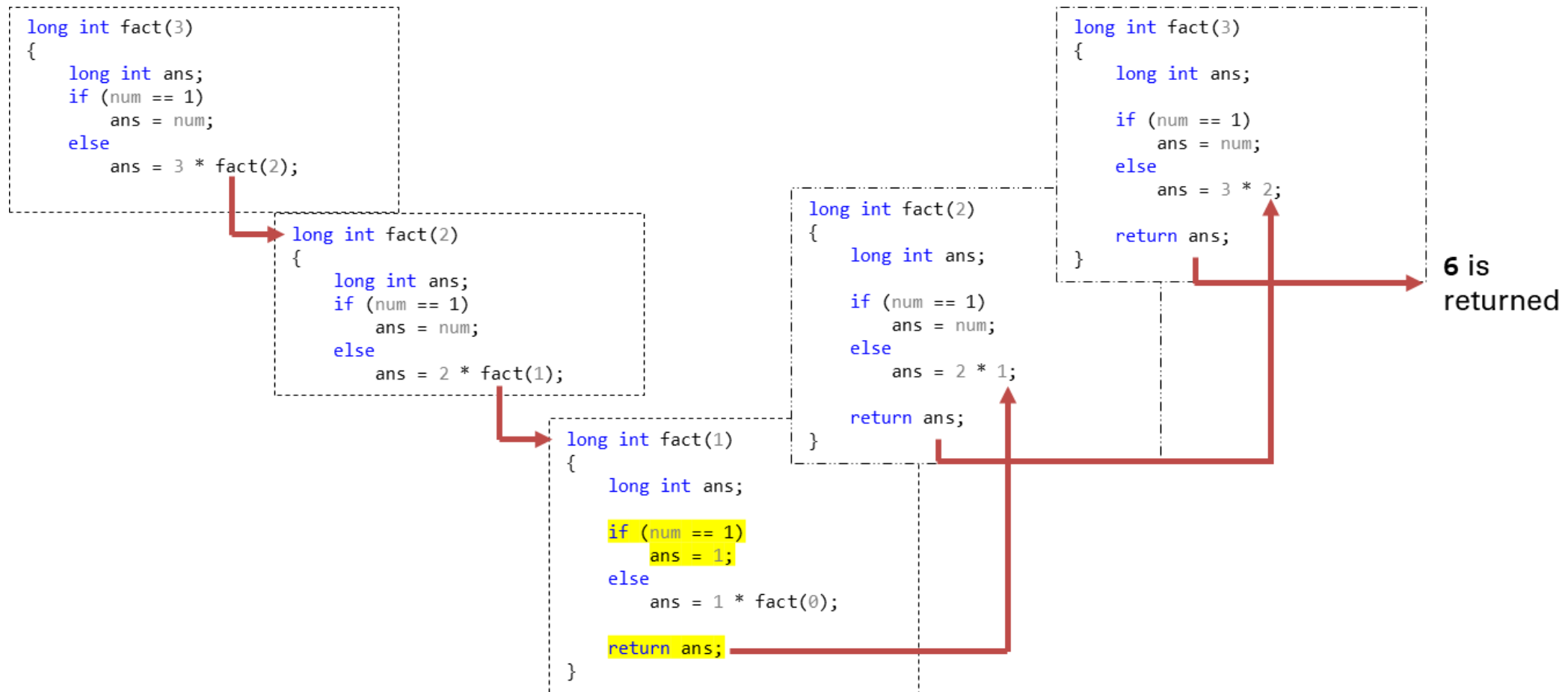
    if (num == 1)
        ans = num;
    else
        ans = num * fact(num - 1);

    return ans;
}

int main()
{
    int a = 6;

    cout << a << "! = " << fact(a) << endl;
}
```

Example – Factorial



Example – Summing a Range of List Elements

- Function receives a list containing range of elements to be summed, index of starting item in the range, and index of ending item in the range.
- Base case:
if `start_index > end_index`:
 return 0
- Recursive case:
return `current_number + sum(list, start+1, end)`
- In essence, this statement says “return the value of the first item in the range plus the sum of the rest of the items in the range.”

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int range_sum(int* num_arr, int start, int end);

int main()
{
    int numbers[] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 };

    int my_sum = range_sum(numbers, 2, 5);

    cout << "The sum of items 2 through 5 is " << my_sum << endl;

    return 0;
}

int range_sum(int* num_arr, int start, int end)
{
    if (start > end)
        return 0;
    else
        return num_arr[start] + range_sum(num_arr, start + 1, end);
}
```

Example – The Fibonacci Series

- The Fibonacci Series (Leonardo Fibonacci, circa 1170):
0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, ...
- Notice after the second number, each number in the series is the sum of the two previous numbers.
- Fibonacci series: has two base cases:
if $n = 0$ then $\text{Fib}(n) = 0$
if $n = 1$ then $\text{Fib}(n) = 1$
- The recursive case is:
if $n > 1$ then $\text{Fib}(n) = \text{Fib}(n-1) + \text{Fib}(n-2)$

```
// This program demonstrates a recursive function
// that calculates Fibonacci numbers.
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

// Function prototype
int fib(int);

int main()
{
    cout << "The first 10 Fibonacci numbers are:\n";
    for (int x = 0; x < 10; x++)
        cout << fib(x) << " ";
    cout << endl;
    return 0;
}

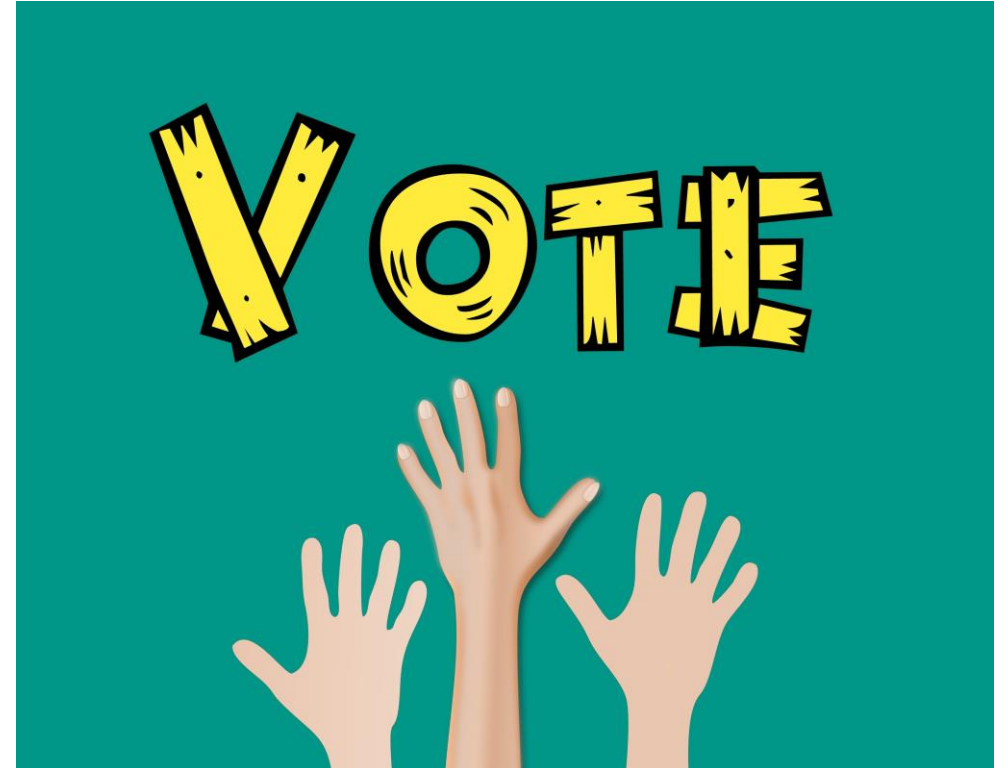
int fib(int n)
{
    if (n <= 0)
        return 0; // Base case
    else if (n == 1)
        return 1; // Base case
    else
        return fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2); // Recursive case
}
```

Poll 2 (Extra Credit)

In general, recursive algorithms are more efficient in terms of compute time than their iterative counterparts.

- a) TRUE
- b) FALSE

Please use the Poll window to participate for extra credit!



In-Class Exercise #1

Implement a recursive function in C++ for calculating the greatest common divisor (GCD) of two numbers. The GCD of two positive integers x and y is determined as follows:

If x can be evenly divided by y , then $\text{gcd}(x, y) = y$

Otherwise, $\text{gcd}(x, y) = \text{gcd}(y, \text{remainder of } x/y)$



In-Class Exercise #1

```
// This program demonstrates a recursive function to calculate
// the greatest common divisor (gcd) of two numbers.
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

// Function prototype
int gcd(int, int);

int main()
{
    int num1, num2;

    // Get two numbers.
    cout << "Enter two integers: ";
    cin >> num1 >> num2;

    // Display the GCD of the numbers.
    cout << "The greatest common divisor of " << num1;
    cout << " and " << num2 << " is ";
    cout << gcd(num1, num2) << endl;
    return 0;
}

int gcd(int x, int y)
{
    if (x % y == 0)
        return y;           // Base case
    else
        return gcd(y, x % y); // Recursive case
}
```

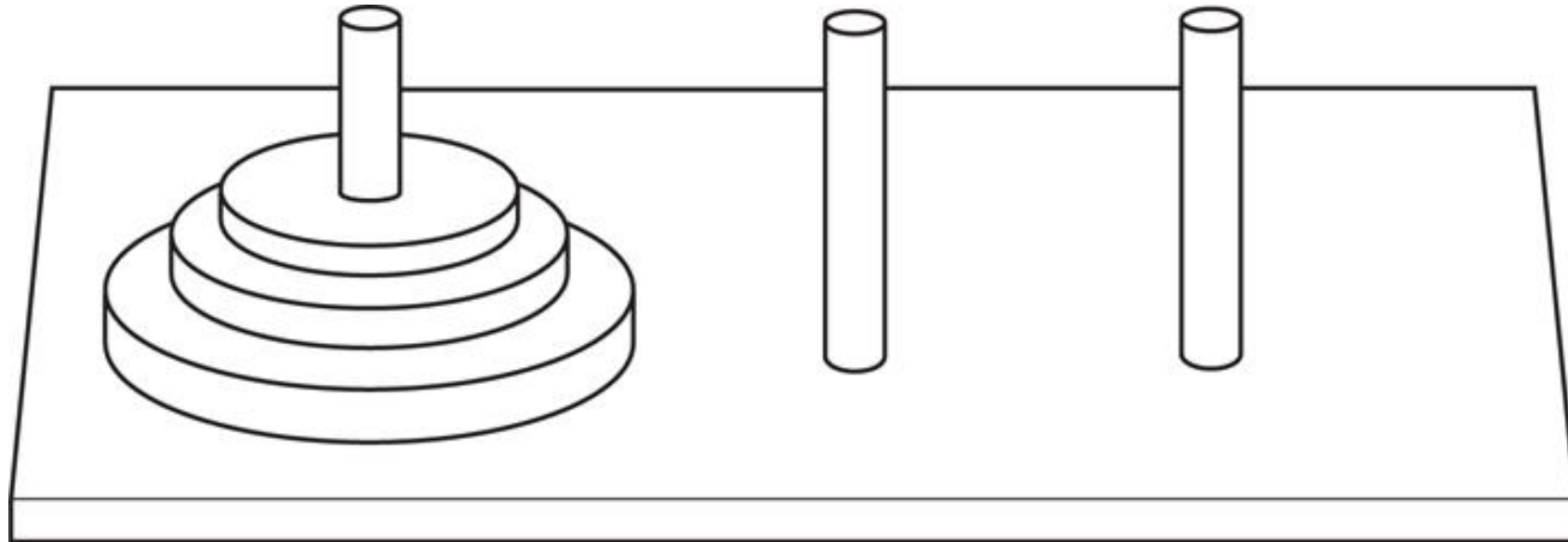


Recursion vs. Looping

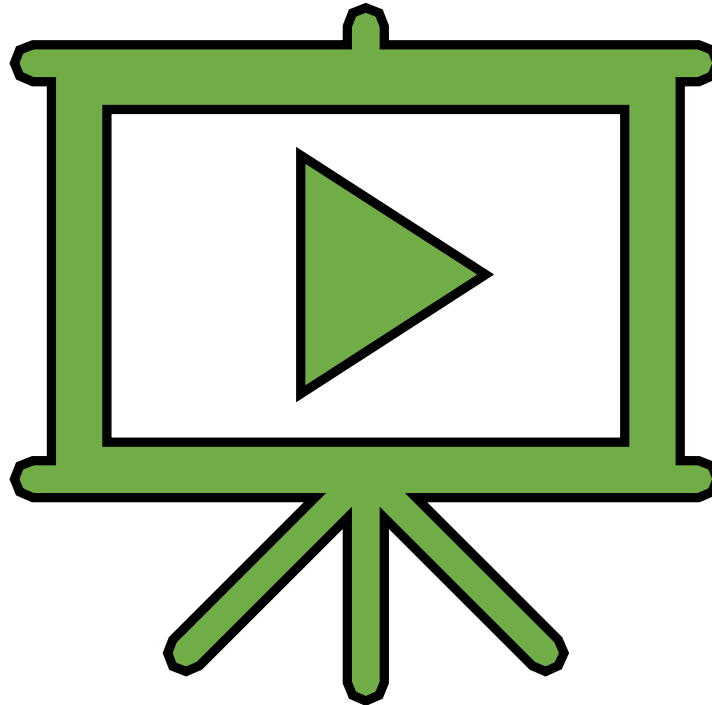
- Reasons not to use recursion:
 - Less efficient: entails function calling overhead that is not necessary with a loop.
 - Usually a solution using a loop is more intuitive than a recursive solution.
- Some problems are more easily solved with recursion than with a loop.
 - Example: Fibonacci, where the mathematical definition lends itself to recursion.
- If a recursive solution is evident for a particular problem, and the recursive algorithm does not slow system performance an intolerable amount, then recursion would be a good design choice.

The Towers of Hanoi

- Mathematical game commonly used to illustrate the power of recursion.
 - Uses three pegs and a set of discs in decreasing sizes.
 - **Goal of the game:** move the discs from leftmost peg to rightmost peg.
 - Only one disc can be moved at a time.
 - A disc cannot be placed on top of a smaller disc.
 - All discs must be on a peg except while being moved.



Video Illustration



The Towers of Hanoi

- **Problem statement:** move n discs from peg A to peg C using peg B as a temporary peg.
- **Recursive solution:**
 - If $n == 1$:
 - Move disc from peg A to peg C
 - Otherwise:
 - Move $n-1$ discs from peg A to peg B, using peg C
 - Move remaining disc from peg A to peg C
 - Move $n-1$ discs from peg B to peg C, using peg A

The Towers of Hanoi

```
// This program displays a solution to the Towers of
// Hanoi game.
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

// Function prototype
void moveDiscs(int, int, int, int);

int main()
{
    const int NUM_DISCS = 3;    // Number of discs to move
    const int FROM_PEG = 1;     // Initial "from" peg
    const int TO_PEG = 3;       // Initial "to" peg
    const int TEMP_PEG = 2;     // Initial "temp" peg

    // Play the game.
    moveDiscs(NUM_DISCS, FROM_PEG, TO_PEG, TEMP_PEG);
    cout << "All the pegs are moved!\n";
    return 0;
}

void moveDiscs(int num, int fromPeg, int toPeg, int tempPeg)
{
    if (num > 0)
    {
        moveDiscs(num - 1, fromPeg, tempPeg, toPeg);
        cout << "Move a disc from peg " << fromPeg
              << " to peg " << toPeg << endl;
        moveDiscs(num - 1, tempPeg, toPeg, fromPeg);
    }
}
```



Thank you.
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