

Topic 5

Functions and recursion

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Functions

- A way of grouping together a sequence of operations under a common name so we can refer to it multiple times later
- Similar to mathematical functions: cos, exp, log, etc.

Syntax of functions

def used to
define a
function

Same rules for
naming functions
as for variables

0 or more variable names,
which will be assigned to
whatever values the function
caller provides

```
def  name_of_function(list_of_inputs):  
    body_of_function  
    return value_to_return
```

The output to
give back to the
function caller

Body and return
statement have to
be indented

Function parameters

```
def change(target, coins):  
    # some code here  
    return d
```

Formal parameters

```
t = 185  
c = [5, 10, 25, 100, 200]  
change(t, c)
```

Actual parameters

- When a function is defined, the **formal parameters** are included in the function definition
- When the function is invoked (called), the **actual parameters** are provided
 - During invocation, the formal parameters are **bound** to the actual parameters
 - Python uses **pass by assignment** in which each formal parameter is assigned (using =) to the actual parameter

Default parameters

```
def sort(values, ascending = True):  
    # your code here  
    return whatever  
  
sort(L)  
sort(L, True)  
sort(L, False)  
sort(L, ascending = False)
```

- When defining a function, can provide default values for function parameters
 - Need to have parameters with default values after all parameters without default values
- When calling a function, can omit optional parameters which will then be assigned the default value
 - Careful you don't get confused when there are multiple optional values

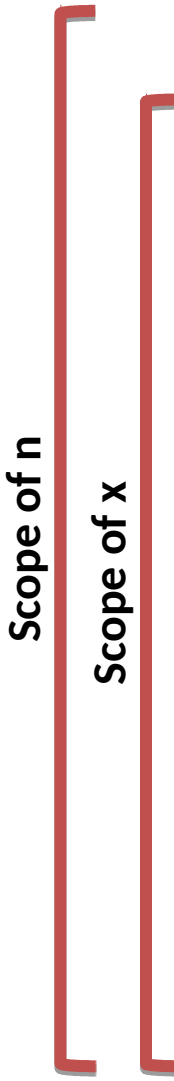
SCOPING

Scoping variables

- **Scope:** where in your code a variable is available
 - **Global variables:** available to the main program and to all functions
 - **Local variables:** only available to the function they're defined in

Example: Computing factorial

No function



```
n = 7
x = 1
for i in range(2,
n+1):
    x *= i

print(x)
```

- All of the code is at the "top level" of our program
- Once this code is run, we can't call it again with a different input
 - No reuse of code
 - No modularity
- All variables are global

Example: Computing factorial Function

Scope of n
Scope of x
Scope of i

```
def factorial(n):  
    x = 1  
    for i in  
    range(2, n+1):  
        x *= i  
    return x  
  
print(factorial(6))  
print(factorial(4))
```

- The definition of factorial and the print statements are "top level" code, but the red lines are local to the function
- We can use the factorial function many times, with different inputs
 - Enables code reuse
 - "Modular design"

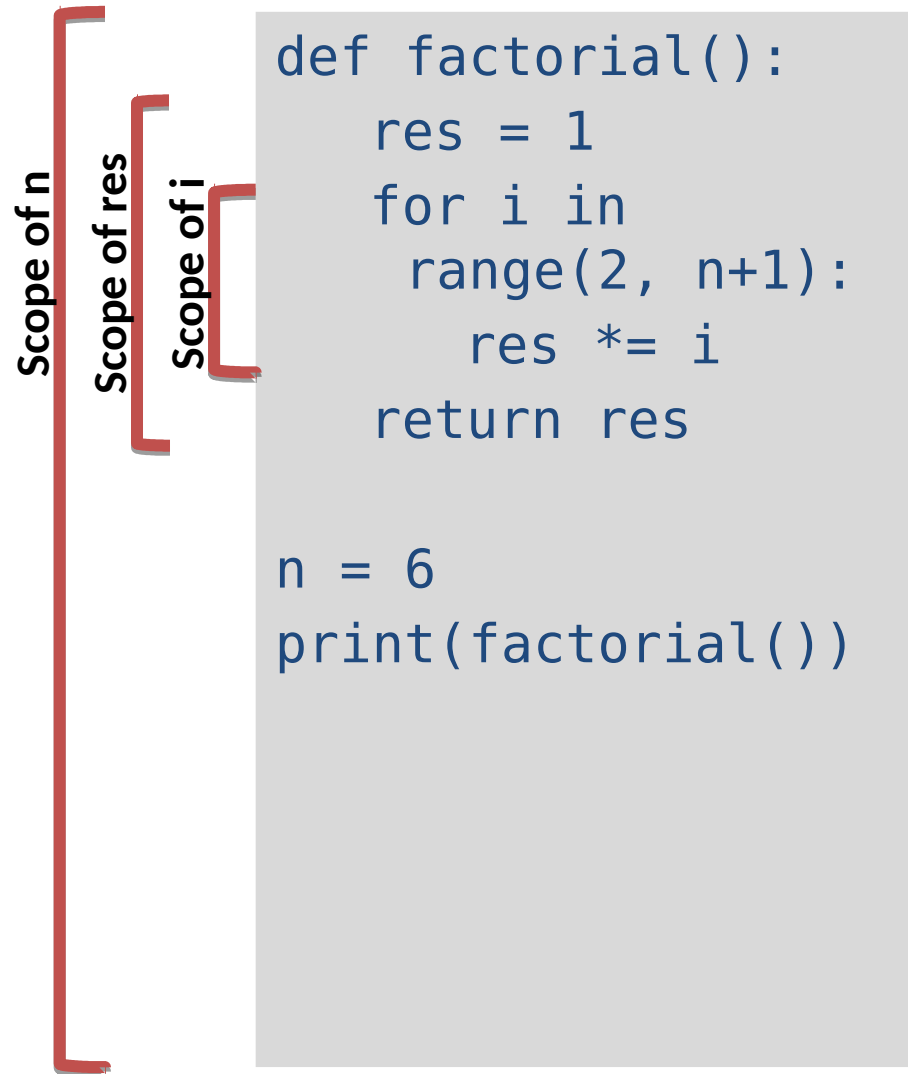
Example: Computing factorial Function

Scope of n
Scope of x
Scope of i

```
def factorial(n):  
    x = 1  
    for i in  
        range(2, n+1):  
        x *= i  
    return x  
  
print(factorial(6))  
print(factorial(4))  
  
print(x)  
print(n)
```

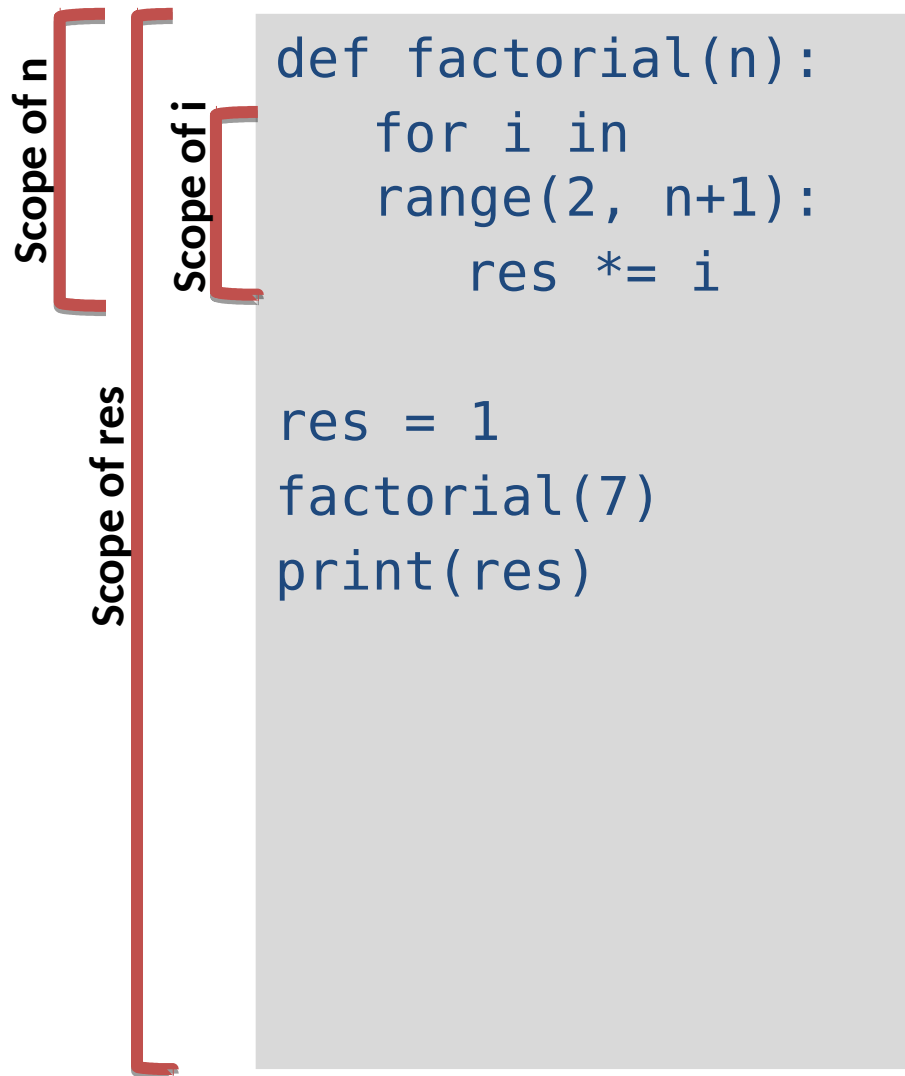
- x and n are **local variables** within the function factorial
- Can't be used outside the function

Example: Computing factorial Function with a global variable



- n is a **global variable**
- Even though n isn't defined when we define the function `factorial`, n is defined by the time we first run the function `factorial`
- Functions can read global variables outside the function

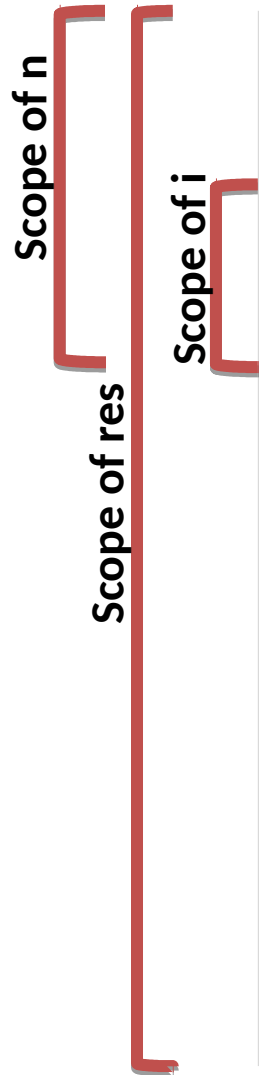
Example: Computing factorial Function with a global variable



- `res` is a **global variable**
- Even though `n` isn't defined when we define the function `factorial`, `n` is defined by the time we first run the function `factorial`
- But we get an error because functions cannot modify global variables (without permission)

Example: Computing factorial

Function with a global variable

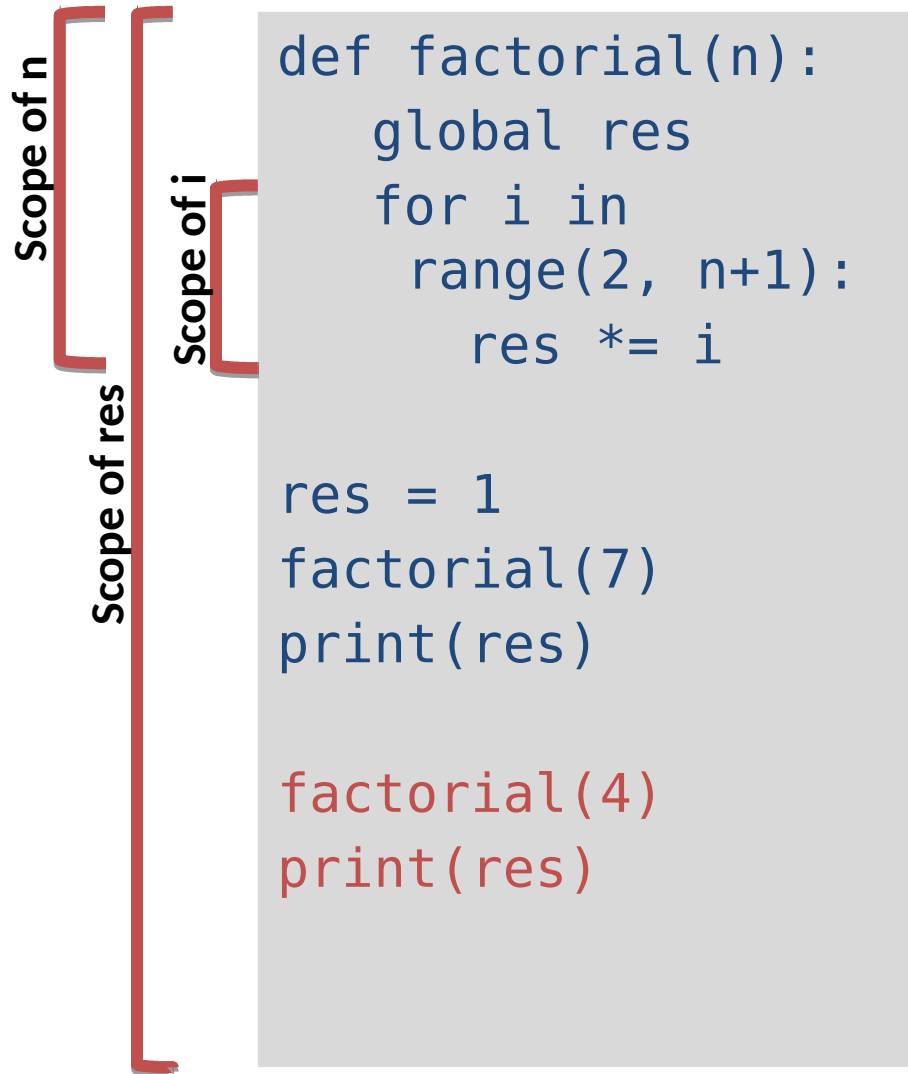


```
def factorial(n):  
    global res  
    for i in  
        range(2, n+1):  
        res *= i  
  
res = 1  
factorial(7)  
print(res)
```

- We can use the **global** keyword to allow a function to modify global variables

Example: Computing factorial

Function with a global variable



- Have to be careful of **side-effects** when using global variables
- Generally you should try to avoid using global variables
- Functions are best when they can be run and tested in isolation, "communicating" with other code only via their explicit inputs and outputs (return)

SOFTWARE DESIGN

Software design principles

- **Modularity / decomposition:** a program is broken into parts (functions) that are
 - reasonably self-contained
 - achieve a clear purpose, and
 - can be reused
- **Abstraction:** a component (function) of a program can be used without knowing how it achieves its goal

Functions in large programs

- Large programs will have many functions
- Each function should be relatively small and be designed to do one thing only
- Example: Twitter
 - 1 function to store a user's new tweet in the database
 - 1 function to record a user liking a tweet
 - 1 function to delete a user's tweet from the database
 - ...

Documenting functions

- We can provide a **docstring** when we define a function that describes how the function should be used
- Two components:
 - **Assumptions / requirements / preconditions:**
what conditions the **input** must satisfy for the function to work correctly
 - **Guarantees / postconditions:**
what conditions the **output** will satisfy (as long as the assumptions were satisfied)

Docstring example

```
def makingChange(target, coins):  
    """Assumes target is an int and that  
        coins is a sequence of ints in  
        decreasing order.  
        Returns a dictionary with a key for each  
        entry in coins and a corresponding int for  
        the number of coins of that denomination."""  
    change = {}  
    for c in coins:  
        change[c] = target // c  
        target %= c  
    return change  
  
makingChange(185, (200, 100, 25, 10, 5))
```

Getting docstring help

```
help(makingChange)
```

```
Help on function makingChange in module  
__main__:
```

```
makingChange(target, coins)
```

```
    Assumes target is an int and that coins is  
    a sequence of ints in decreasing order.
```

```
    Returns a dictionary with a key for  
    each entry in coins and a corresponding int  
    for the number of coins of that denomination.
```

RECURSION

Factorial recursively

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

Base case

Iterative case (recursion)

```
def factorial(n):  
    if n == 0:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return n * factorial(n-1)
```

```
factorial(5)
```

Base case

Iterative case (recursion)

Factorial recursively

```
def factorial(n):  
    print("entered factorial with n = " + str(n))  
    if n == 0:  
        print("about to return from base case")  
        return 1  
    else:  
        f = factorial(n-1)  
        print("about to return from iterative case in n = " + str(n))  
        return n * f
```

```
factorial(5)
```

```
entered factorial with n = 5  
entered factorial with n = 4  
entered factorial with n = 3  
entered factorial with n = 2  
entered factorial with n = 1  
entered factorial with n = 0  
about to return from base case  
about to return from iterative case in n = 1  
about to return from iterative case in n = 2  
about to return from iterative case in n = 3  
about to return from iterative case in n = 4  
about to return from iterative case in n = 5  
120
```

Recursion

- Every time we recurse the interpreter creates a new **scope** for the variables in the function

Problem solving with recursion

- Recursion is a natural technique for solving problems with an inductive structure
- But depending on the structure of the problem, recursion can be inefficient

Fibonacci sequence, recursively

$$\text{fib}(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \text{ or } 1 \\ \text{fib}(n-1) + \text{fib}(n-2) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Base case

Iterative case

```
def fib(n):  
    if (n == 0) or (n == 1):  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

```
fib(4)
```

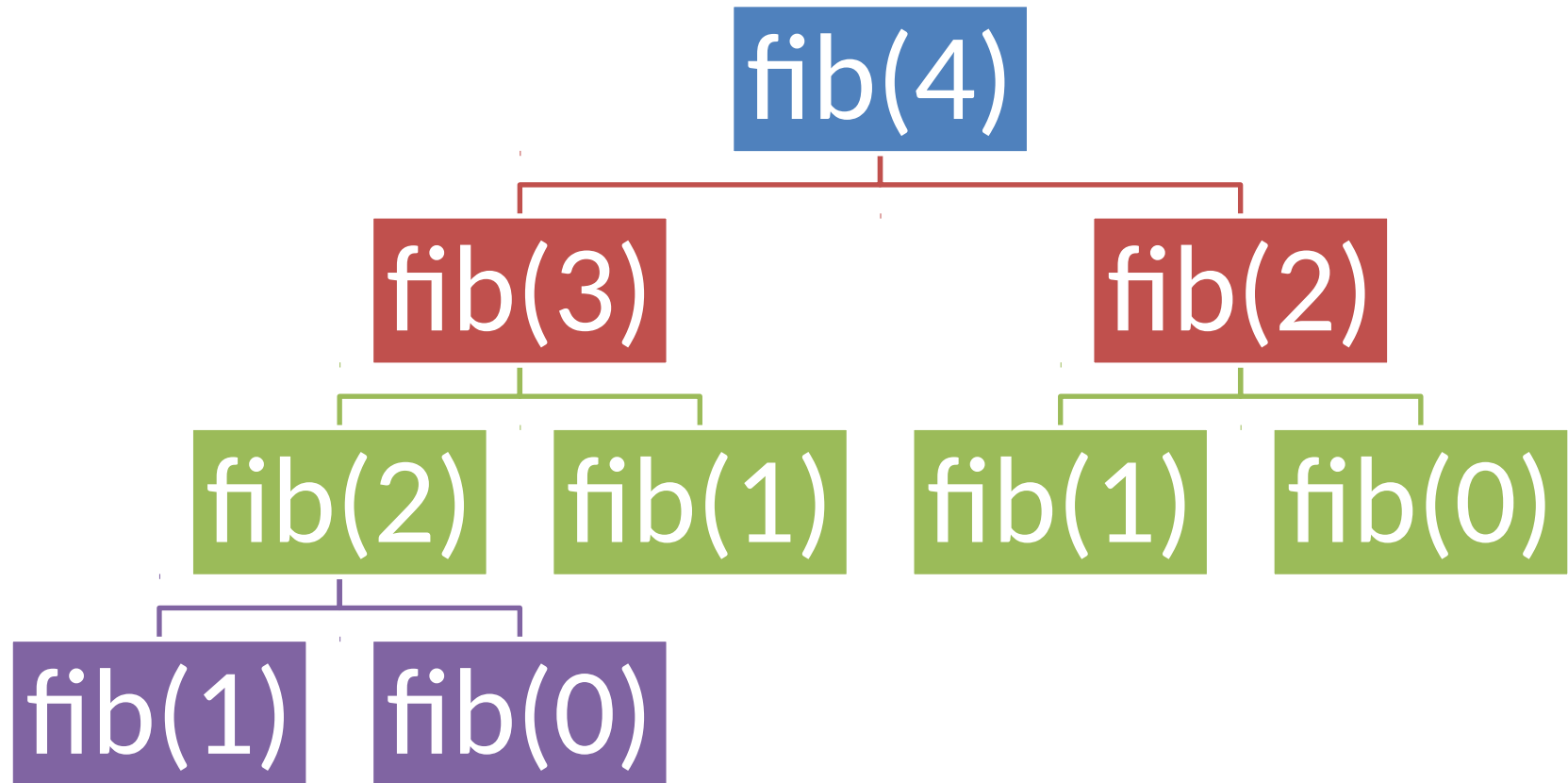
Counting amount of recursion in Fibonacci

```
def fib(n):  
    global counter  
    counter += 1  
    if (n == 0) or (n == 1):  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)  
  
counter = 0  
fib(4)  
print(counter)
```

Question: How many times does fib get called? In other words, what is the value of counter at the end?

- A: 4 B: 5 C: 7 D: 9 E: Don't know

Counting amount of recursion in Fibonacci



Counting amount of recursion in Fibonacci

```
def fib(n):  
    global counter  
    counter += 1  
    if (n == 0) or (n == 1):  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)  
  
counter = 0  
fib(4)  
print(counter)
```

A purely recursive solution to computing the Fibonacci sequence is inefficient because it has to recompute the same values many times.

A more advanced technique called **dynamic programming** remembers intermediate solutions to save on recursion.

fib(n)	counter
fib(4)	9
fib(6)	25
fib(8)	67
fib(10)	177

Infinite recursion

- Just like infinite loops, have to be careful for infinite recursion
- Can occur when a base case is missing
 - Or accidentally gets bypassed
- Need to be confident our recursion terminates

```
def twofib(n):  
    if (n == 0) or (n == 1):  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return twofib(n-1) + \  
            twofib(n-3)  
  
twofib(4)
```

$$\text{twofib}(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \text{ or } 1 \\ \text{twofib}(n-1) + \text{twofib}(n-3) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Measuring efficiency

Theoretical

- **Runtime complexity:** what is the approximate number of basic operations the algorithm will perform for a certain set of inputs?
- **Memory complexity:** what is the approximate number of entries that the algorithm will read/write for a certain set of inputs?

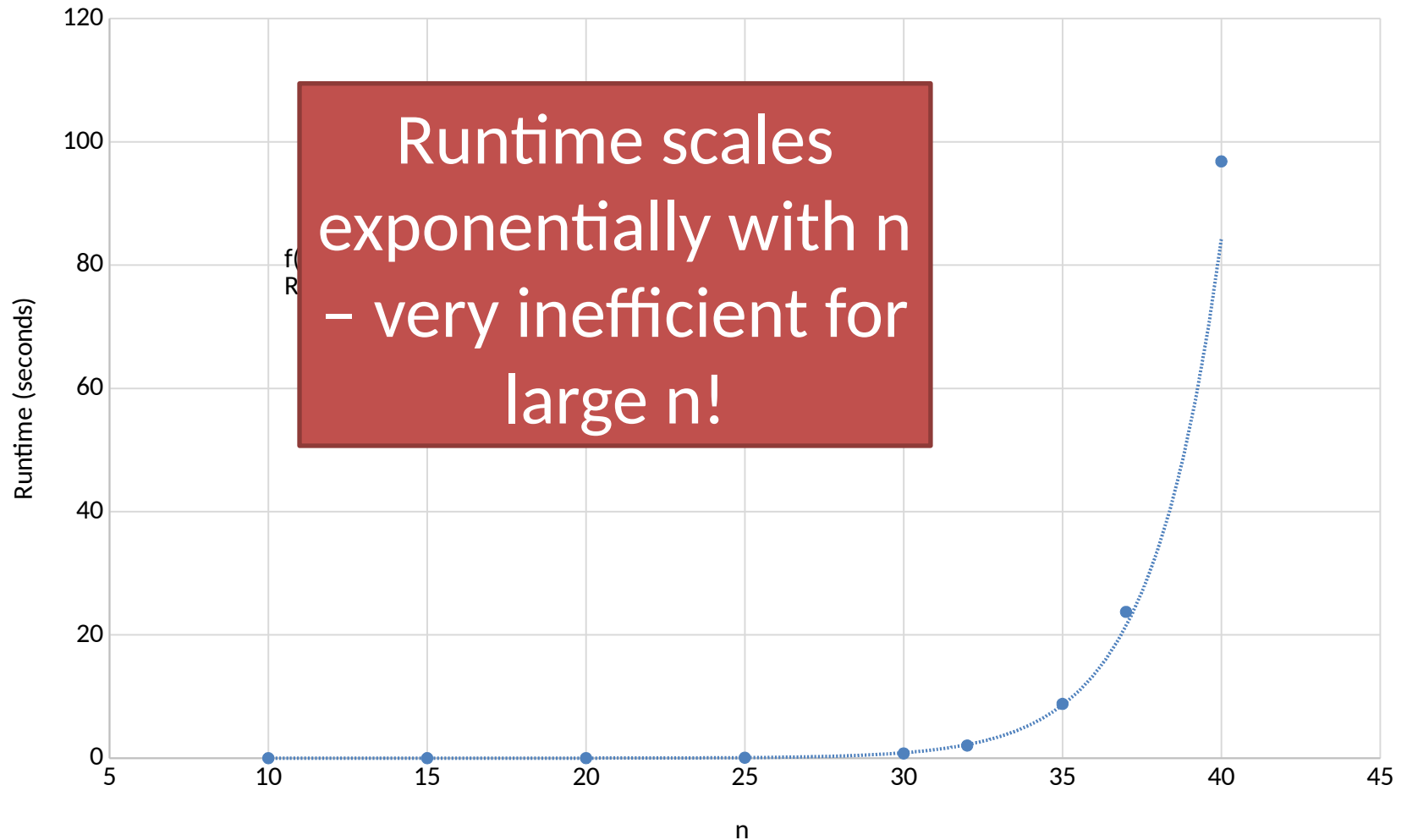
Practical

- **Runtime:** how many seconds does this implementation run for on a particular computer with a particular input?
- **Memory:** how many megabytes of RAM does this implementation use on a particular computer with a particular input?

Practical runtime of recursive Fibonacci fib(n)

n	Runtime (seconds)
10	0.000117
15	0.000918
20	0.008939
25	0.075447
30	0.767061
35	8.806806
40	96.826460

Practical runtime of recursive Fibonacci fib(n)



Memoization

- Idea: during recursion, save intermediate results, and use them if available to avoid recursion

Fibonacci with memoization

```
def fib_fast(n, memo):  
    global counter  
    counter += 1  
    if (n == 0) or (n == 1):  
        return 1  
    else:  
        if n-1 not in memo:  
            memo[n-1] = fib_fast(n-1, memo)  
        if n-2 not in memo:  
            memo[n-2] = fib_fast(n-2, memo)  
        return memo[n-1] + memo[n-2]  
  
counter = 0  
fib_fast(4, {})  
print(counter)
```

Practical runtime of recursive Fibonacci with memoization `fib_fast(n)`

n	Runtime (seconds)
100	0.000172
200	0.000285
300	0.000416
400	0.000591
500	0.000720
600	0.000950
700	0.001159

A scatter plot illustrating the relationship between the number of nodes (n) and the runtime in seconds. The x-axis represents n (ranging from 0 to 10), and the y-axis represents Runtime (seconds) (ranging from 0 to 0.00012). A green box highlights the text: "Runtime scales linearly with n – efficient even for large n !". The data points show a clear linear trend, fitted by a dotted line.

n	Runtime (seconds)
1	0.00001
2	0.00002
3	0.00003
4	0.00004
5	0.00005
6	0.00006
7	0.00007

SEARCH

Search

- Suppose we have a sequence of length n and we want to know if a particular element is in the sequence
- How many entries of the sequence do we have to check to find it or know that it is not in the list?
 - If the sequence is not organized in any way, then in the worst case we have to check every one of the n entries
 - Maybe we can do better if the list is sorted.

Unstructured search

- Idea: Go through the entries in the sequence one at a time, checking if each one is the target element
- Inputs: a sequence and a target element
- Output: True or False

Unstructured search

```
def search1(L, e):  
    for i in range(0, len(L)):  
        if L[i] == e:  
            return True  
    return False
```

Unstructured search

- Unstructured search is sometimes called **linear search** because
 - It goes through the sequence in a linear fashion
 - Its runtime is a linear function of the list size

Searching a sorted list

- If the list is sorted, then we can make use of this organization to make the job easier
- Idea:
 - Assume the list is sorted in increasing order
 - Look at the entry in the middle of the list
 - If the middle entry is equal to the target entry, then we found it!
 - If the middle entry is bigger than the target entry, then we only need to look in the first half of the list
 - Recurse on the left half of the list
 - If the middle entry is smaller than the target entry, then we only need to look in the second half of the list

Example: searching a sorted list for 33

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	4	6	8	9	14	16	17	22	23	29	32	43	44	51	63
									23	29	32	43	44	51	63
									23	29	32				
											32				

- Current list: [0:15]
Middle entry: 22; smaller than target
Recurse on right half
- Current list: [9:15]
Middle entry: 43; larger than target
Recurse on left half
- Current list [9:11]
Middle entry: 29; smaller than target
Recurse on right half
- Current list: [11:11]
Only entry: not equal to target

Binary search using recursion

```
def search2(L, e):  
    """Assume L is in increasing order"""  
    if len(L) == 0:  
        return False  
    if len(L) == 1:  
        return (L[0] == e)  
    mid = len(L) // 2  
    if L[mid] == e:  
        return True  
    elif L[mid] < e:  
        return search2(L[mid+1:], e)  
    else:  
        return search2(L[:mid], e)
```

Binary search using recursion

- Binary search using recursion is much faster because it only has to look at a small number of items in the list
- If the list has length n , then binary search using recursion looks at approximately $\log_2(n)$ elements of the list
- But the version on the previous slide is still somewhat inefficient since it creates a new list every time by slicing
- Next slide shows binary search using recursion by keeping track of start and end points of the sub-list, rather than making a new list every time

Binary search using recursion

```
def search3(L, e):  
    """Assume L is a list sorted in increasing order"""  
  
    def search3Helper(L, e, low, high):  
        if high == low:  
            return (L[low] == e)  
        mid = low + ((high - low) // 2)  
        if L[mid] == e:  
            return True  
        elif L[mid] < e:  
            return search3Helper(L, e, mid+1, high)  
        else:  
            return search3Helper(L, e, low, mid)  
  
    return search3Helper(L, e, 0, len(L))
```

Notice we defined one function inside another. `search3Helper` is a local function, only available within the scope of `search3` but not globally available.

FUNCTIONS AS OBJECTS

Functions as objects

- In Python, functions as **first-class objects**
- We can use functions like objects of other types
- In particular, we can pass functions as arguments to other functions
- This is why we say Python can behave like a functional programming language
 - Python is multi-paradigm: procedural, functional, ...

Passing functions to functions

```
def map (L, f):  
    """Assumes L is a list and f is a function.  
    Modifies L by replacing each entry of L with  
    f applied to that entry."""  
  
    for i in range(0, len(L)):  
        L[i] = f(L[i])  
  
import math  
L = [1,2,3]  
map (L, math.cos)  
print(L)  
L = [1,2,3]  
map (L, fib)  
print(L)
```

Anonymous functions

- We can also make "anonymous" functions right when we need them

- Notation:

`lambda <variable names>: <expression>`

- Examples:

`lambda x, y: x** y`

`lambda x: x ** 2`

```
L = [1,2,3]
```

```
applyToEach(L, lambda x: x**2)
```

```
print(L)
```