



# EECS 280

## Programming and Introductory Data Structures

Recursion, Function Pointers and Testing

# Review: recursion

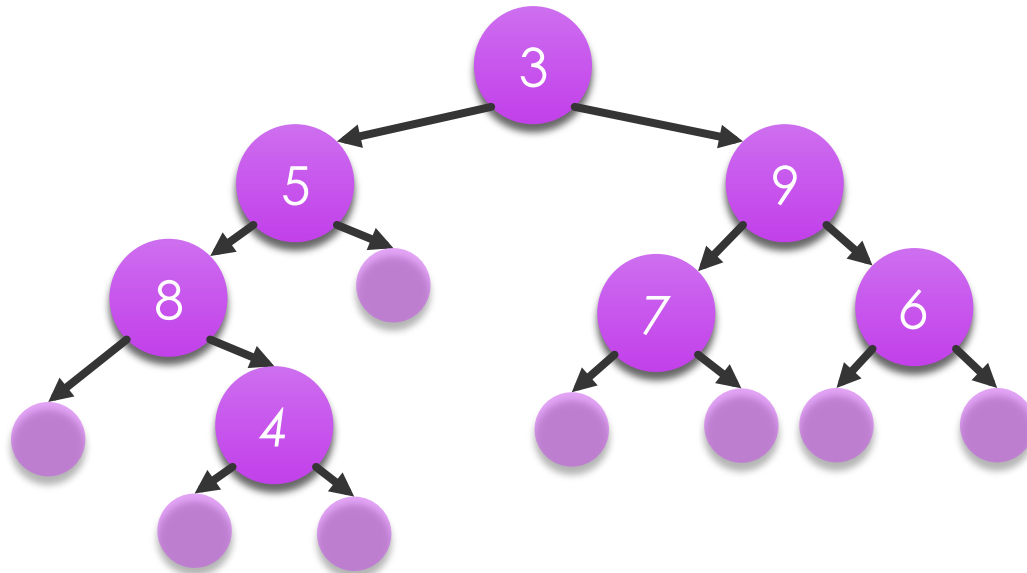
- Tail recursion and iteration are the same
  - We proved this last time with a *constructive* proof
  - Should you ever use tail recursion?
    - Pro: Compiler handles update dependencies
    - Pro: Sometimes tail recursion (base/rec. cases) is more intuitive
    - Con: Sometimes iteration is more intuitive
    - Con: Can be tricky to ensure tail call optimization
- “General” recursion is expensive
  - Stack frames sit and store pending work
  - Why would you ever use this??
  - Sometimes you need it

# Review: recursive data structures

- List (last time)

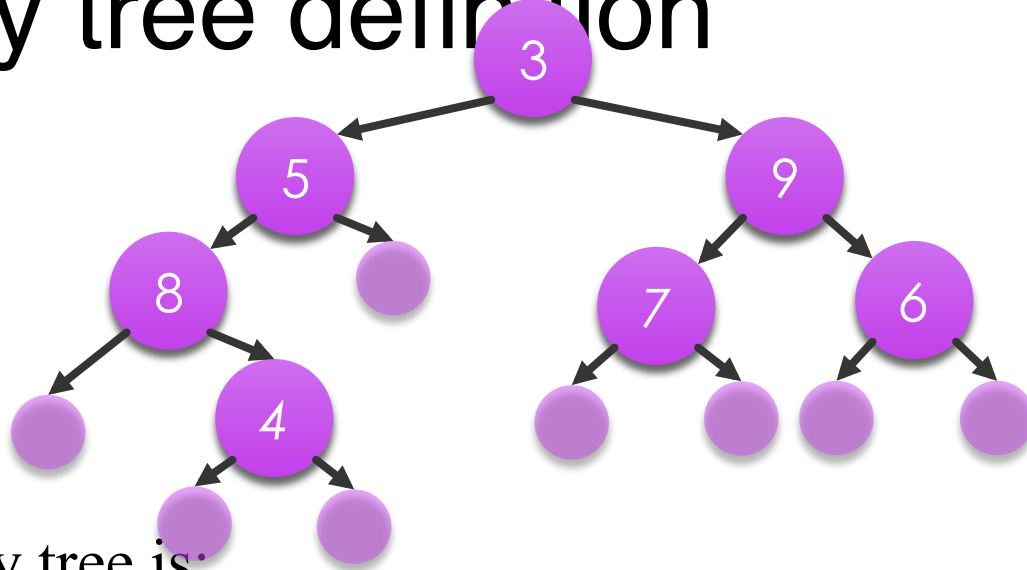


- Tree (today)



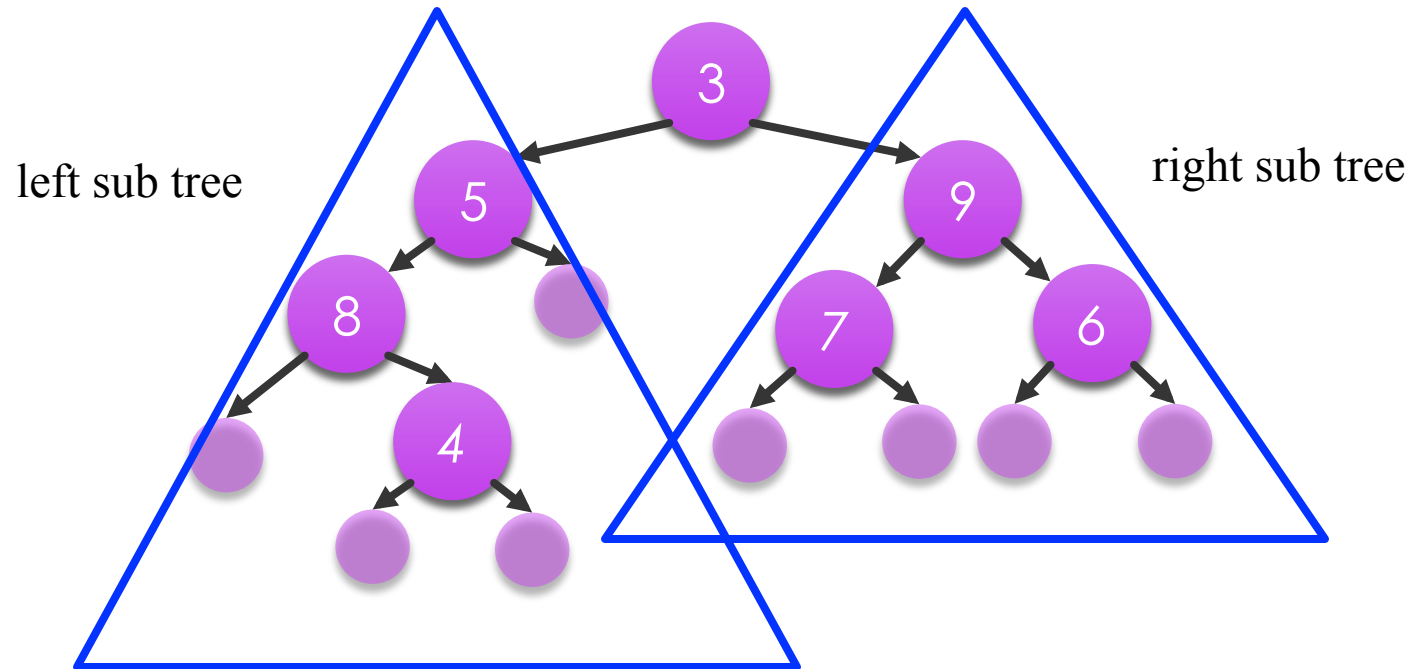
# Binary tree definition

- Tree

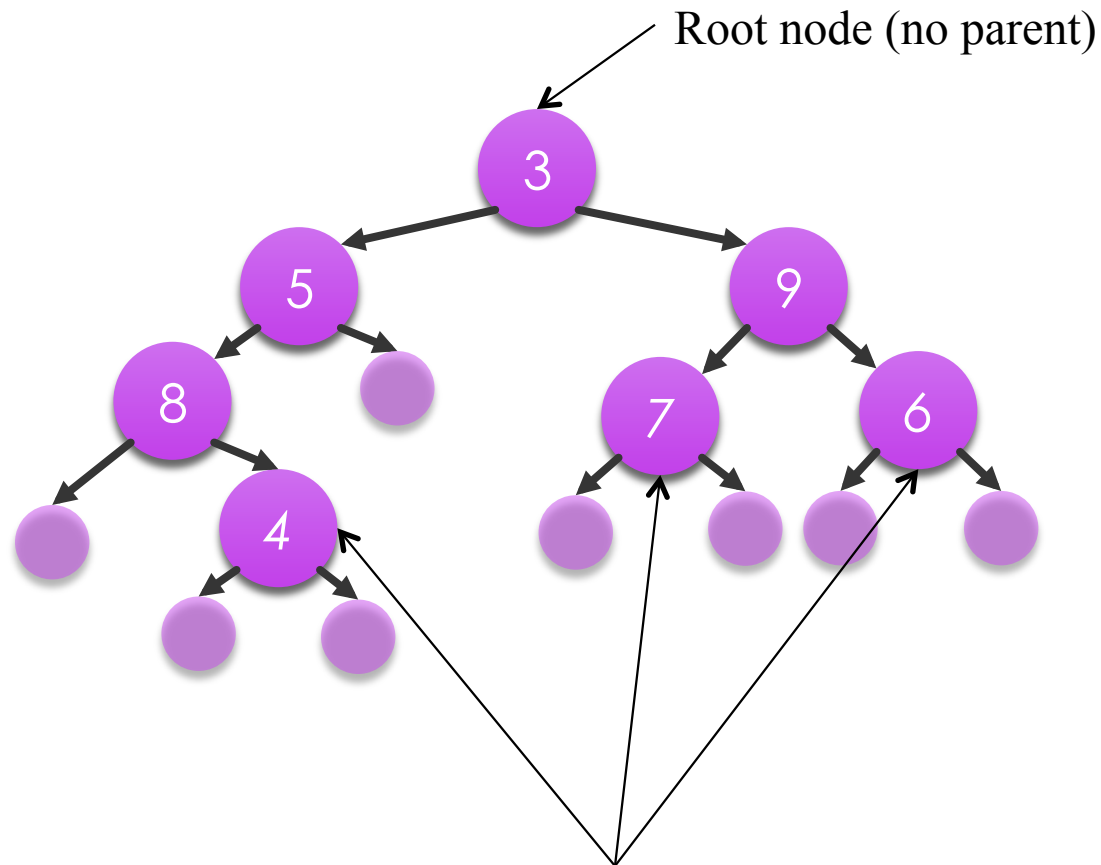


- A binary tree is:
  - The empty tree, or
  - An integer element, plus two children, called the left subtree and the right subtree, both binary trees
- Recursively defined data structure

# Tree terminology



# Tree terminology

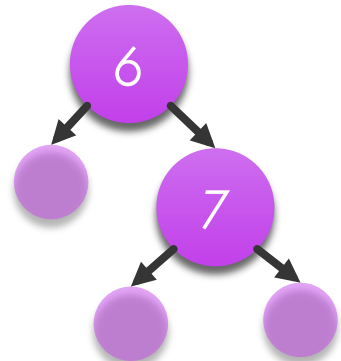
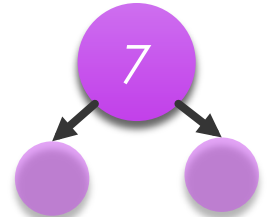


# Tree type provided in project 2

- In addition to `list_t`, the type `tree_t` is provided in project 2
- `tree_t empty = tree_make();`

```
tree_t tree1 = tree_make(7,  
                          empty,  
                          empty);
```

```
tree_t tree2 = tree_make(6,  
                          empty,  
                          tree1);
```

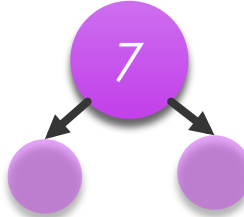


# Tree type provided in project 2

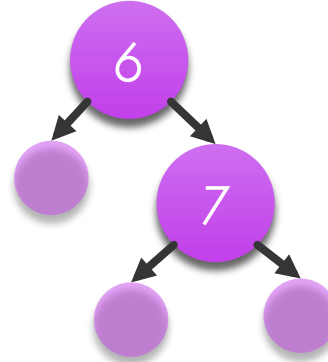
empty



tree1



tree2



```
tree_isEmpty(empty) //true
tree_isEmpty(tree1) //false
tree_isEmpty(tree2) //false
```

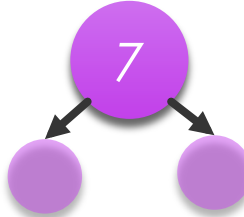


# Tree type provided in project 2

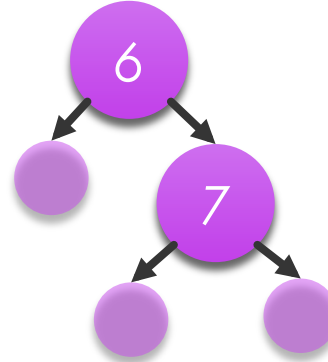
empty



tree1



tree2



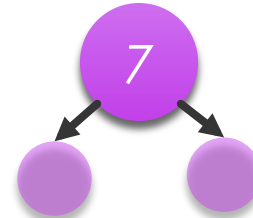
```
tree_elt(tree1); // 7
```

```
tree_elt(empty); // BAD!
```

```
tree_left(tree2);
```



```
tree_right(tree2);
```



# Tree properties

- Trees are *immutable*
  - There is no `tree_setElement`
- Think of lists as values
  - To “modify” a tree, you just have to “compute” a new one with desired changes
  - This means putting the three parts of the tree back together using `tree_make()` ...
    - element, left subtree, right subtree

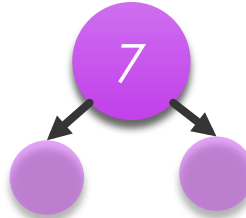
# Exercise: tree\_depth()

empty



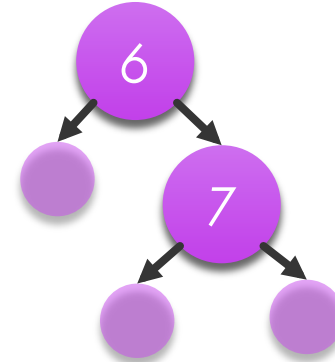
`tree_depth(empty) //0`

tree1



`tree_depth(tree1) //1`

tree2



`tree_depth(tree2) //2`

`//EFFECTS: Returns the depth of tree`  
`int tree_depth (tree_t tree){`

`//use general recursion`

`//you can use the max(a, b) function from`

`//last time`

`}`

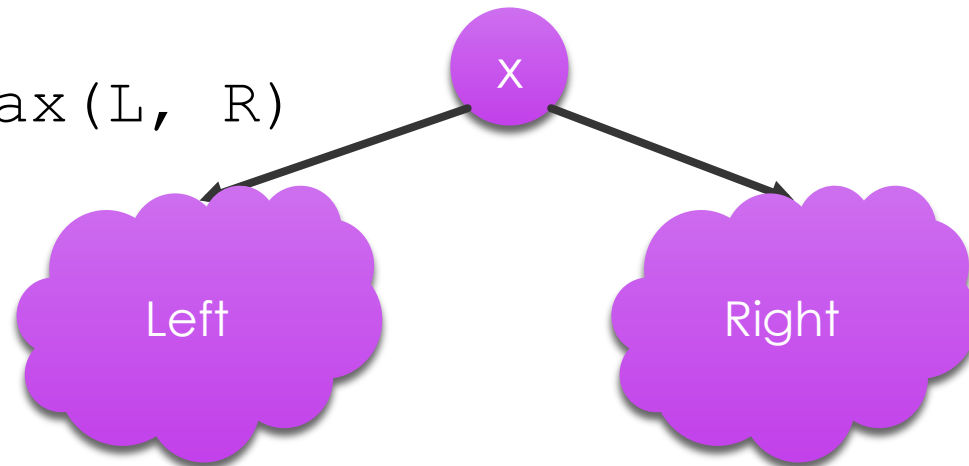
# Hint

- Base case

```
if (tree_isEmpty(tree)) {  
    return 0;  
}
```

- Recursive case

```
depth = 1 + max(L, R)
```



```
L = depth(tree_left(tree))    R = depth(tree_right(tree))
```

# Solution: tree\_depth()

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }

//EFFECTS: Returns the depth of tree.
int tree_depth (tree_t tree){

    if (tree_isEmpty(tree)) return 0; // BASE CASE

    // RECURSIVE CASE
    int L = tree_depth(tree_left(tree));
    int R = tree_depth(tree_right(tree));
    return 1 + max(L, R);
}
```

# Exercise: tree\_depth() tail

```
//EFFECTS: Returns the depth of tree
int tree_depth (tree_t tree){

    // Use tail recursion OR iteration

}
```

# Solution: tree\_depth() tail

```
//EFFECTS: Returns the depth of tree
int tree_depth (tree_t tree){

    // Use tail recursion OR iteration

}
```

- You can't do it!!!!

# Function pointers

- On to function pointers



# Recall tail recursive list\_max()

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
```

```
int list_max_h(list_t list, int so_far){  
    if (list_isEmpty(list)) return so_far;  
    return list_max_h(  
        list_rest(list),  
        max(list_first(list), so_far)  
    );  
}
```

```
int list_max (list_t list){  
    assert(!list_isEmpty(list));  
    return list_max_h(list, list_first(list));  
}
```

**Exercise:** how would you change this code to implement list\_min()?

# Solution: list\_min()

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }  
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }  
int list_min_h(list_t list, int so_far){  
    if (list_isEmpty(list)) return so_far;  
    return list_min_h(  
        list_rest(list),  
max min(list_first(list), so_far)  
    );  
}  
  
int list_min (list_t list){  
    assert(!list_isEmpty(list));  
    return list_min_h(list, list_first(list));  
}
```

# Rewriting `list_min()` and `list_max()`

- We've copy pasted our code for `list_max()` to write `list_min()`
- Let's make one new function that can do the work of both

```
int list_extreme(list_t list, int so_far);
```

# Rewriting list\_min() and list\_max()

- Now we need to pass the behavior of min and max as an input to list\_extreme

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }
int list_extreme(list_t list, int so_far, /* min or max */) {
    //...
}
```

- How can we make a function behave like a variable so we can make it an input to list\_extreme()?

# Function Pointers

- Function pointers are variables
- Function pointers are like a second name for a function
- Function pointers let us decide between two (or more) functions at run time

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }
int main() {
    int (*comp)(int,int);
    comp = max;
    cout << comp(-42, 42); //42
}
```

# Function Pointers

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }
int main() {
    int (*comp) (int,int) ;
    comp = max;
    cout << comp(-42, 42); //42
}
```

- What does this mean?

```
comp                //comp is a variable
(*comp) (           )//the type is function pointer
int (*comp) (        )//... to fxn that returns an int
int (*comp) (int,int)//... and takes 2 ints as input
```

# Function Pointers

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }
int main() {
    int (*comp)(int,int);
    comp = max;
    cout << comp(-42, 42); //42
}
```

- We can assign a value to our new variable
- The value is the name of a function
- The instructions for executing a function are stored somewhere...a function pointer actually stores the **address** where the function is stored

# Function Pointers

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }
int main() {
    int (*comp)(int,int);
    comp = max;
    cout << comp(-42, 42); //42
}
```

- Then, we can use our `comp` variable just like a function
- It will do the same thing as `max` in this example



# Rewriting list\_min() and list\_max()

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }  
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }  
int list_extreme(list_t list, int so_far, int (*comp)(int,int)) {  
    //...  
}
```

- Now we'll add an input to list\_extreme using our new type

# Rewriting list\_min() and list\_max()

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }
int list_extreme(list_t list, int so_far, int (*comp)(int,int)) {
    if (list_isEmpty(list)) return so_far;
    return list_extreme(
        list_rest(list),
        comp(list_first(list), so_far)
    ); }
```

- And use comp instead of min or max

# Rewriting list\_min() and list\_max()

```
int max(int x, int y){ return x > y ? x : y; }
int min(int x, int y){ return x < y ? x : y; }
int list_extreme(list_t list, int so_far, int (*comp)(int,int)) {
    if (list_isEmpty(list)) return so_far;
    return list_extreme(
        list_rest(list),
        comp(list_first(list), so_far)
    );
}
```

- Finally, we can write list\_min() and list\_max()

```
int list_max(list_t list){ return list_extreme(list, 1, max); }
int list_min(list_t list){ return list_extreme(list, 1, min); }
```

# Why function pointers?

- Avoid code duplication
- We can use a simple function, like `min` or `max` to change the behavior of a more complicated function, like `list_extreme`

# Exercise

```
bool all_of(list_t list, bool(*predicate)(int)) {  
    //EFFECTS: returns true if predicate returns true  
    // for all elements in list  
  
    if (list_isEmpty(list)) //base case  
        return true;  
    if (!predicate(list_first(list))) //check first  
        return false;  
    return all_of(list_rest(list), fn); //rec. case  
}
```

- Write these two functions. Use `all_of()` and helper functions

```
bool all_even(list_t list);
```

```
bool all_odd(list_t list);
```

# Solution

```
bool is_even(int i) {  
    //EFFECTS: returns true if i is even  
    return (i % 2) == 0;  
}
```

```
bool all_even(list_t list) {  
    //EFFECTS: returns true if all elements are even  
    return all_of(list, is_even);  
}
```

# Solution

```
bool is_odd(int i) {  
    //EFFECTS: returns true if i is odd  
    return (i % 2) == 1;  
}
```

```
bool all_odd(list_t list) {  
    //EFFECTS: returns true if all elements are odd  
    return all_of(list, is_odd);  
}
```

# Testing

- The goals of testing:
- Ensure that code works as expected
- Meet the requirements of the spec



# When Testing Goes Wrong

- Patriot missile bug
  - Persian Gulf war
  - Missile defense system to detect an incoming missile, then deploy a counter-missile to destroy it.
    - Needs to happen fast
  - Bug in floating point time conversion code
- System failed to intercept a missile
  - 28 killed, 98 injured



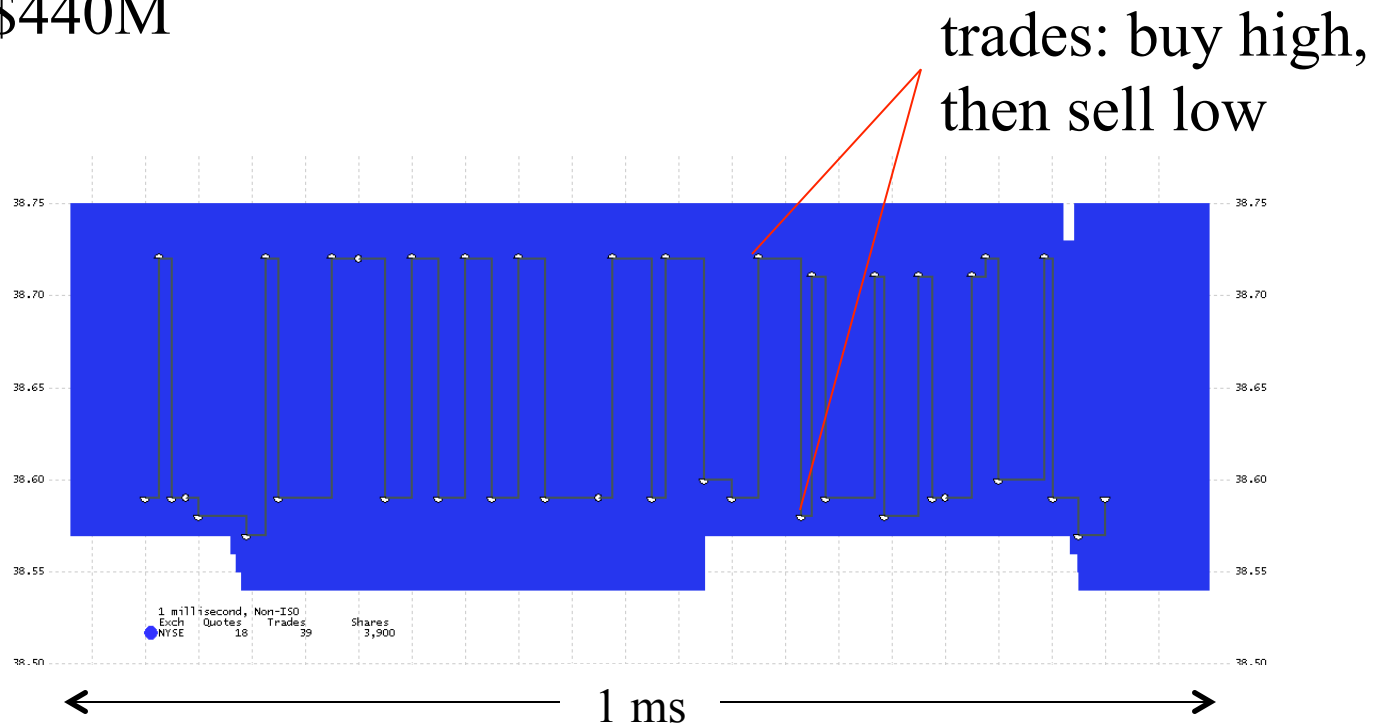
# When Testing Goes Wrong

- Therac-25 Radiation Therapy Machine (1980's)
- Radiation therapy
  - Low-power direct electron beam or megavolt X-ray
- Bug in software caused megavolt X-ray instead of low-power
  - Race condition
- Patients died of radiation poisoning



# When Testing Goes Wrong

- Knight Capital Group: high-speed stock trading
  - Goal: buy low, sell high
- August 1, 2012: upgraded software algorithm
  - Bug: buy high, sell low!
- Cost \$440M



# Motivation for testing

- Good testing yields correctly working software products
- Good testing yields good scores on projects
  - Typically, the difference between a good and bad score on a project doesn't have very much to do with your talent as a programmer.  
**It has much more to do with your talents as a tester!**
- Testing is not the same as debugging
  - Testing: Discovering that something is broken
  - Debugging: Fixing something once you know it's broken

# Psychology of a Good Tester

- Adversarial frame of mind.
- You must be convinced that the code you are testing is broken and your task is to find out where.
- You can NEVER REST and must ALWAYS BE DILIGENT, because the code is NEVER FINISHED!
- Everyone makes mistakes, and one essential nature of a mistake is that the person who made it (i.e. YOU) didn't realize it was wrong in the first place – you thought it was perfect!

# Types of testing

- Unit testing
  - One piece at a time (e.g., a function)
  - Find and fix bugs early! **Less work.**
    - Test smaller, less complex, easier to understand units.
    - You just wrote the code: easier to debug
- System testing
  - Entire project (code base)
  - Do this *after* unit testing
- Regression testing
  - Automatically run all unit and system tests after a code change

# How to test

1. Understand the specification
  - Identify the required behaviors
2. Write tests
  - Code to run your other code
  - Try to test only one behavior per test
3. Check the results
  - Know the answers in advance

# Debugging Hint for Recursion

- Add a `cout` statement to the top of your recursive function
  - Watch the recursion in action
  - Very helpful for trees!

```
int countdown4(int i, int n){
    cout << "countdown4 ("
         << i << ", "
         << n << ") " << endl;
    if (i > n) return 0;
    countdown4(i+1, n);
    cout << i << endl;
    return i;
}
```

```
$ ./a.out
countdown4 (1, 3)
countdown4 (2, 3)
countdown4 (3, 3)
countdown4 (4, 3)
3
2
1
```



# Kinds of test cases

Imagine we are writing test cases for the chop function from project 2.<sup>1</sup>

```
// REQUIRES n >= 0 and list has at least n elements
// EFFECTS: returns the list equal to list without its last n elements
list_t chop(list_t list, int n);
```

Don't  
write these

<b>Type Prohibited</b>	("cat", 2)	(1, 5)	(3, [1,2])	(true, 0)
<b>REQUIRES Prohibited</b>	([], 1)	([42], -1)	([1,2,3,4,5], 4)	
<b>Simple</b>	([1,2,3], 2)		([1,2,3,4,5], 1)	
<b>(Edge) Special</b>	([], 0)	([42], 0)	([42], 1)	([1,2], 2)
<b>Nonsense</b>	Sorry, no good examples for chop.			
<b>Stress</b>	([1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,...,100000], 50000)			

# “Guard against Murphy, not Machiavelli!”

## 1

- Do: Try to write test cases to catch bugs that people would realistically make
  - ([1,2,3,4,5],5)
  - “Tricky because it chops everything. Could expose a bug.”
- Don’t: Try to write test cases to catch bugs introduced by a devious coder
  - ([4,4,4,4,4],3)
  - “Tricky because maybe it crashes when the list has all fours.”
- Think about what makes test cases meaningfully different.
  - chop doesn’t use element values, so these aren’t meaningfully different.
- ([V,W,X,Y,Z],5) vs. ([A,B,C,D,E],5)

“Thorough testing with  
“small” test cases is  
sufficient to find all bugs  
within a system.”

The Small Scope Hypothesis

- Think about what makes two test cases meaningfully different for the function's behavior
- Beyond a small size, just making test cases bigger doesn't make them meaningfully different
  - $([1,2,3,4,5],3)$  vs.  $([1,2,3,4,5,6],3)$