

# C# Programming

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Online Course

```
1 class Lecture6
2 {
3     "Methods and Recursion"
4 }
5
6 // Keywords:
7 return, ref, in, out, var, params
```

# Methods

- Methods (or functions) can be used to define **reusable** code, so that it could **organize** and **simplify** the program.
- The concept of methods is similar to math functions, like

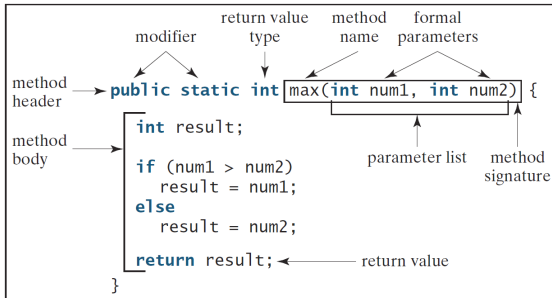
$$f(x, y),$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  denote two input parameters.

- However, each input parameter should be declared with a specific type.
- Moreover, the method should be assigned with a **return type** before the method name!

# Example: Max

## Define a method



## Invoke a method

The diagram shows a C# method invocation. Annotations with arrows point to the arguments:

- actual parameters (arguments)** points to `x` and `y` in `max(x, y)`.

```
int z = max(x, y);
```

- The **method signature** comprises the method name and its parameter list.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> **Method overloading** depends the signatures. We will see it soon.

## Alternatives?

```
1 ...  
2     static int Max(int num1, int num2)  
3     {  
4         if (num1 > num2)  
5             return num1;  
6         else  
7             return num2;  
8     }  
9 ...
```

```
1 ...  
2     static int Max(int num1, int num2)  
3     {  
4         return num1 > num2 ? num1 : num2;  
5     }  
6 ...
```

“All roads lead to Rome.”  
– Anonymous

“但如你根本並無招式，敵人如何來破你的招式？”  
– 風清揚。笑傲江湖。第十回。傳劍

## About return

- The `return` statement is used to end the method.
- We say that a `callee` is the method invoked by a `caller`.
- The caller has obligation to provide inputs to the callee and expect the returned value.
- The callee should guarantee to return a value.
- This establishes the relation (right/obligation) between both.
- Once one specifies the return type (except `void`), this method **should** guarantee to return a value of that type.

# Pitfalls

- The following two methods are incorrect.

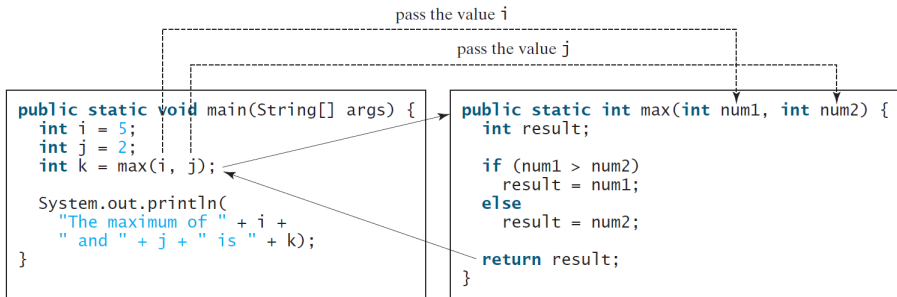
```
1 ...  
2     static int Foo1 ()  
3     {  
4         while (true);  
5         return 0; // Unreachable code. Nonsense?  
6     }  
7  
8     static int Foo2 (int x)  
9     {  
10        if (x > 0)  
11            return x; // What if x <= 0? Not allowed.  
12    }  
13 ...
```



## More Examples

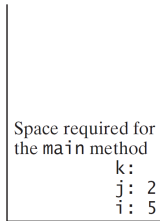
```
1 ...
2 // Method w/o return.
3 static void Display(int[] A)
4 {
5     foreach (int item in A)
6         Console.Write("{0} ", item);
7     Console.WriteLine();
8 }
9
10 // Method returning array (reference)!
11 static int[] ArrayFactory(int size, int low, int high)
12 {
13     int[] A = new int[size];
14     Random rng = new Random();
15     for (int i = 0; i < A.Length; i++)
16         A[i] = rng.Next(low, high + 1);
17     return A;
18 }
19 ...
```

# Method Invocation

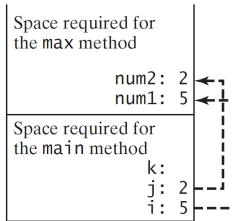


- Note that the input parameters are sort of variables declared within the method as **placeholders**.
- When calling the method, it's the obligation of callers to provide arguments in **order**, **number**, and **compatible type**, as defined in the method signature.

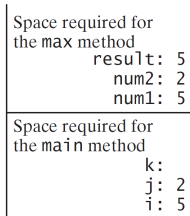
- This mechanism is called **pass-by-value**.
- When the callee is invoked, the **program control** is transferred from the caller to the callee.
- For each invocation, CLR pushes a **frame** which stores necessary information in the **call stack**.
- The caller resumes its work once the callee finishes its routine.



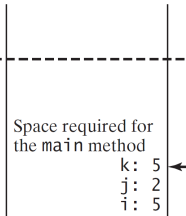
(a) The main method is invoked.



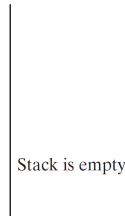
(b) The max method is invoked.



(c) The max method is being executed.



(d) The max method is finished and the return value is sent to k.



(e) The main method is finished.

# Variable Scope

- A variable scope refers to the **region** where a variable can be referenced.
- A pair of balanced curly braces defines the variable scope.
- In general, variables can be declared in **class level**, **method level**, or **loop level**.
- If one local variable has its identifier identical to the class variable, then the local one is more preferable than the class one (i.e. ignore the latter).
  - This is called the **shadow effect**.

# Example

```
1 ...
2     static int x = 10; // Class level; global variable.
3
4     static void Main(string[] args)
5     {
6         int x = 100; // Method level, aka local variable.
7         x = x + 1;
8         Console.WriteLine(x); // Output 101.
9         AddOne();
10        Console.WriteLine(x); // Output ?
11    }
12
13    static void AddOne()
14    {
15        x = x + 1;
16        Console.WriteLine(x); // Output ?
17    }
18 ...
```

## Alternative: Pass-By-Reference<sup>2</sup>

- The `ref` keyword indicates a value that is passed by reference.
- This makes the formal parameter an alias for the argument.
- Any operation on this formal parameter is directly applied to the referencee!

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<sup>2</sup>See <https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/language-reference/keywords/ref>.

```
1  ...
2      static void Main(string[] args)
3      {
4          int x = 100;
5          x = x + 1;
6          Console.WriteLine(x); // Output 101.
7          AddOne(ref x);
8          Console.WriteLine(x); // Output 102.
9      }
10
11     static void AddOne(ref int x)
12     {
13         x = x + 1;
14         Console.WriteLine(x); // Output 102.
15     }
16  ...
```



## About ref & out

- Using the `in` keyword does not allow the callee to modify the argument value, as known as `read-only` protection!
- The `out` keyword is similar to `ref` and `in`, except that both require variable initialization before they are passed.
- However, the called method using `out` is required to assign a value before the method returns.

## Exercise

```
1 ...  
2 static void Main(string[] args)  
3 {  
4     string text = "528";  
5  
6     int number;  
7     if (Int32.TryParse(text, out number))  
8         Console.WriteLine("Converted {0} to {1}.", text, number);  
9     else  
10        Console.WriteLine("Unable to convert {0}.", text);  
11 }  
12 ...
```

- The variable *number* is used as the output variable from the method.
- In this sense, this syntax offers one possibility for multiple returns!

## Special Issue: Implicitly Typed Local Variables<sup>4</sup>

- Local variables can be declared without an explicit type.<sup>3</sup>
- The `var` keyword means that the compiler **infers** and assigns the most appropriate type, for example,

```
1 ...  
2     var i = 5;                                // i is compiled as an int.  
3     var A = new[] { 0, 1, 2 };                // A is compiled as int[].  
4     foreach (var item in A)  
5     {  
6         Console.WriteLine("{0}", item);  
7     }  
8 ...
```

---

<sup>3</sup>You could use `var` only in methods and loops.

<sup>4</sup>See <https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/programming-guide/classes-and-structs/implicitly-typed-local-variables>.

## Special Issue: Method Overloading

- Name conflict is fine.
- Methods with the same name can coexist and be identified by **method signatures**.
- This can make programs clearer and more readable.
- Note that methods cannot have signatures that differ only by **ref**, **in**, or **out**.

```
1 ...  
2     static int Max(int x, int y) { ... }  
3  
4     // Different types.  
5     static double Max(double x, double y) { ... }  
6  
7     // Different numbers of inputs.  
8     static int Max(int x, int y, int z) { ... }  
9 ...
```

## Special Issue: params

```
1 ...  
2 // You don't need to do these below.  
3 // static int Max(int n1, int n2) { ... }  
4 // static int Max(int n1, int n2, int n3) { ... }  
5  
6 static int Max(params int[] nums) { ... }  
7  
8 static void Main(string[] args)  
9 {  
10     int x = max(100, 200, 300);  
11     int y = max(100, 200, 300, 400);  
12 }  
13 ...
```

## Special Issue: Optional Arguments

- Any call must provide arguments for all required parameters, but **can omit arguments for optional parameters**.
- Each optional parameter has a default value as part of its definition.
- If no argument is sent for that parameter, the default value is used.

```
1 ...  
2     static void DoAction(int a,  
3                           double b = 10.0,  
4                           string c = "default") { ... }  
5 ...
```

## Special Issue: Main() & Command-Line Arguments<sup>6</sup>

- Recall that the Main method is the entry point of C# applications.
- Note that there can only be one entry point in C# programs.
- You may use PowerShell to start your C# program with some parameters.<sup>5</sup>

```
1 ...  
2     static void Main(string[] args)  
3     {  
4         foreach (var arg in args)  
5             Console.WriteLine(arg);  
6     }  
7 ...
```

---

<sup>5</sup>See <https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/powershell/>.

<sup>6</sup>See <https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/dotnet/csharp/programming-guide/main-and-command-args/>.

# Recursion<sup>7</sup>

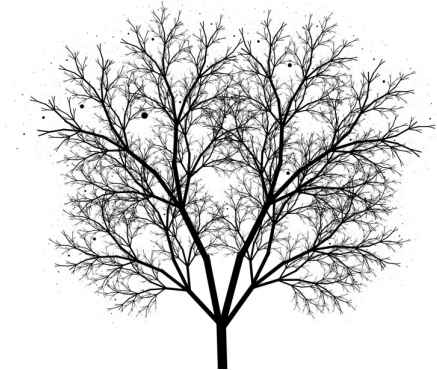
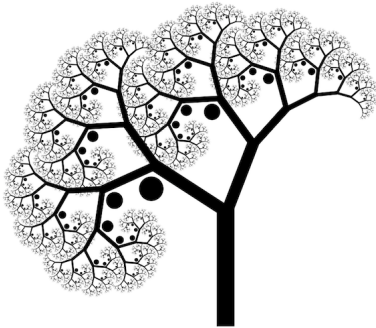
Recursion is a process of defining something in terms of itself.

- A method that calls itself is said to be **recursive**.
- Recursion is an alternative form of flow control.
- It is repetition without any loop.

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<sup>7</sup>[Recursion](#) is a common pattern in nature.





- Try [Fractal](#).

## Example: Factorial (Revisited)

- For example,

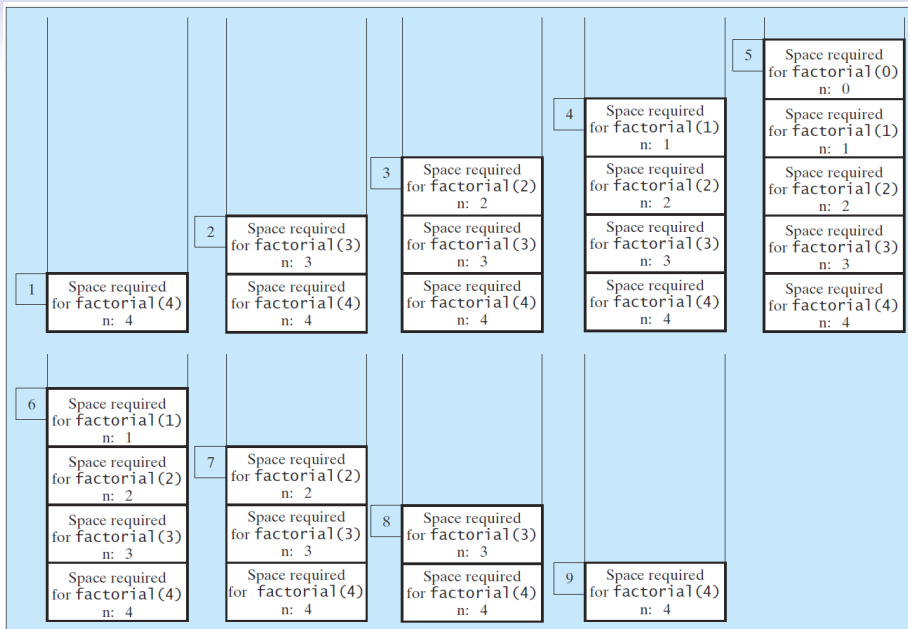
$$\begin{aligned}4! &= 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 \text{ (in view of loops)} \\ &= 4 \times 3! \text{ (in view of recursion)} \\ &= 4 \times (3 \times 2!) \\ &= 4 \times (3 \times (2 \times 1!)) \\ &= 4 \times (3 \times (2 \times (1 \times 0!))) \\ &= 4 \times (3 \times (2 \times (1 \times 1))) \\ &= 24.\end{aligned}$$

- Find the pattern?

Write a program to determine  $n!$  by recursion.

```
1 ...  
2 static int Factorial(int n)  
3 {  
4     if (n < 2)  
5         return 1; // Base case.  
6     else  
7         return n * Factorial(n - 1); // Recurrence relation.  
8 }  
9 ...
```

- Remember to set a **base case** in recursion. (Why?)
- What is the time complexity?



```

1 ...
2     int s = 1;
3     for (int i = n; i > 1; i--)
4     {
5         s *= i;
6     }
7 ...

```

- Both run in  $O(n)$  time.
- One intriguing question is, Can we always turn a recursive method into a loop version of that?
- Affirmative.
- Church and Turing<sup>8</sup> proved that the loops and the recursions are equivalent.

<sup>8</sup>See <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/church-turing/>.

## Remarks

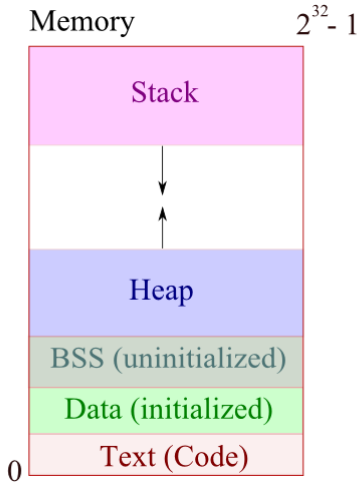
- Recursion bears substantial **overhead**.
- So the recursive algorithm may execute a bit more slowly than the iterative equivalent.
- Moreover, a deep recursion depletes the call stack, which is limited, and causes a **stack overflow**<sup>9</sup> error.

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<sup>9</sup>See <https://stackoverflow.com/>, <https://www.oreilly.com/>, and <https://www.quora.com/>

Does-reading-Copying-and-Pasting-from-Stack-Overflow-make-you-a-better

# Memory Layout



## Exercise: Summation (Revisited)

Write a function to calculate the sum from 1 to  $n$  by recursion.

- For example,  $n = 100$  and so we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sum}(100) &= 100 + \text{sum}(99) \\ &= 100 + 99 + \text{sum}(98) \\ &= 100 + 99 + 98 + \text{sum}(97) \\ &\vdots \\ &= 100 + 99 + 98 + \cdots + 1. \end{aligned}$$

- Can you find the recurrence relation?



```
1 ...
2     static int Sum(int n)
3     {
4         if (n == 0)
5             return 0;
6         else
7             return n + Sum(n - 1);
8     }
9 ...
```

```
1 ...
2     static int Sum(int n)
3     {
4         return n == 0 ? 0 : n + Sum(n - 1);
5     }
6 ...
```

- Time complexity?

## Exercise: Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

Let  $a$  and  $b$  be two positive integers. Calculate  $\text{GCD}(a, b)$  by recursion.

- We proceed to implement the Euclidean algorithm.<sup>10</sup>
- For example,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{GCD}(54, 32) &= \text{GCD}(32, 22) \\ &= \text{GCD}(22, 10) \\ &= \text{GCD}(10, 2) \\ &= 2.\end{aligned}$$

---

<sup>10</sup>See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euclidean\\_algorithm](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euclidean_algorithm).

```
1 ...
2     static int Gcd_by_recursion(int a, int b)
3     {
4         int r = a % b;
5         if (r == 0)
6             return b;
7         return Gcd_by_recursion(b, r); // Straightforward?!
8     }
9 ...
```

```
1 ...
2     static int Gcd_by_loop(int a, int b)
3     {
4         int r = a % b;
5         while (r > 0)
6         {
7             a = b;
8             b = r;
9             r = a % b;
10        }
11        return b;
12    }
13 ...
```

## Example: Fibonacci Numbers<sup>11</sup>

Let  $n \geq 0$  be an integer. Calculate the  $n$ -th Fibonacci number  $F_n$ .

- Set  $F_0 = 0$  and  $F_1 = 1$ .
- For  $n > 1$ , Fibonacci numbers can be found by

$$F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}.$$

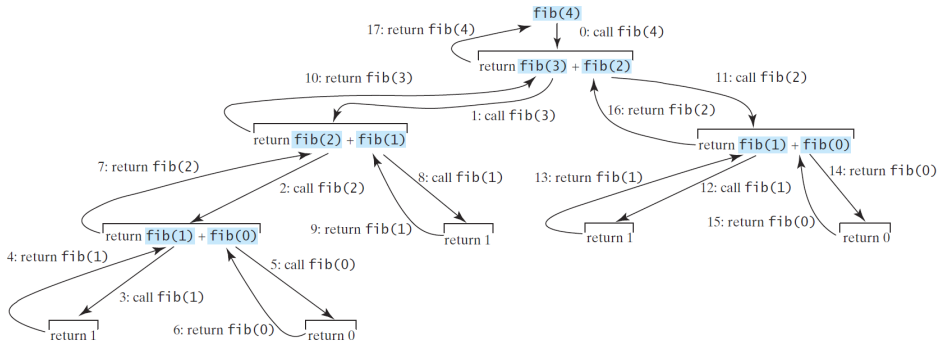
- The first 10 numbers are as follows: 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, and 34.

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<sup>11</sup>See <https://www.mathsisfun.com/numbers/fibonacci-sequence.html> and [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fibonacci\\_number](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fibonacci_number).

```
1 ...  
2     static int Fib(int n)  
3     {  
4         if (n < 2)  
5             return n;  
6         else  
7             return Fib(n - 1) + Fib(n - 2);  
8     }  
9 ...
```

- Short and clear!
- However, this algorithm suffers from poor performance!!
- Time complexity:  $O(2^n)$ . (Why!!!)



```

1  ...
2  static double Fib2(int n)
3  {
4      if (n < 2) return n;
5
6      int x = 0, y = 1;
7      for (int i = 2; i <= n; i++)
8      {
9          int z = x + y;
10         x = y;
11         y = z;
12     }
13     return y; // Why not z?
14 }
15 ...

```

- So it can be done in  $O(n)$  time!
- The previous one (by recursion) is not optimal in time.
- Could you find a **linear** recursion for Fibonacci numbers?
- In fact, this problem can be done in  $O(\log n)$  time!

# Divide & Conquer

- We often use the divide-and-conquer strategy<sup>12</sup> to **decompose** the original problem into subproblems, which are more **manageable**.
  - For example, bubble sort.
- This benefits the program development as follows: easier to write, reuse, debug, modify, maintain, and also better to facilitate teamwork.

---

<sup>12</sup>Aka the stepwise refinement.



# COMPUTATIONAL THINKING

## DECOMPOSITION

Breaking big problems into smaller, easier to manage problems



## PATTERN RECOGNITION

Analyze & look for a repeating sequence



Remove parts of a problem that are unnecessary and make one solution work for multiple problems

## ABSTRACTION



Step-by-Step instructions on how to do something

## ALGORITHM DESIGN

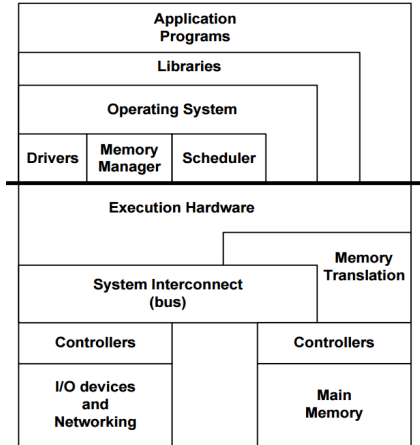


# Concept: Abstraction

- The abstraction process is to decide what details we need to highlight and what details we can ignore.
- **Abstraction is everywhere.**
  - An algorithm is an abstraction of a step-by-step procedure for taking input and producing output.
  - A programming language is an abstraction of a set of strings, each of which is interpreted to some computation.
  - And more.
- The abstraction process also introduces **layers**.
- Well-defined **interfaces** between layers enable us to build large and complex systems.

# Example: Computer Systems

## **Software**



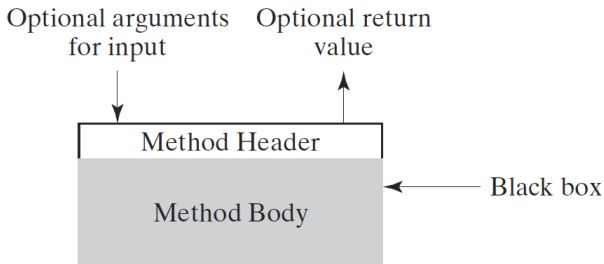
## **Hardware**

## Example: Graphical User Interface (GUI)



- You have no idea about EM theory and communication systems; you know how to use the phone because you are familiar to the interface!

## Example: Application Programming Interface (API)



- In building applications, an API **simplifies** programming by abstracting the underlying implementation and only exposing objects or actions the developer needs.

## Concept: Abstraction (Concluded)

- As we have seen, methods/functions are **control abstractions**.
- Moreover, data structures like **Array** (denoted by []) are **data abstractions**.
- One can view the notion of an **object** as a way to combine abstractions of data and actions.
- **Objects are everywhere.**
- For example, describe about your cellphone.
  - Attributes: battery status, 4G signal, phonebook, album, music library, clips, and so on.
  - Functions? You can name it.