

# Method overloading

# Example: method overloading

```
public class SquaresApp {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        int n = 6;  
        for (int i=2; i<=n; i++){  
            System.out.println(i + " " + MyMath.squre(i));  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
public class SquaresDoubleApp {  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        int n = 6;  
        double x = 0.5;  
        for (int i=2; i<=n; i++){  
            double y = x + i;  
            System.out.println(i + " " + MyMath.square(y));  
        }  
    }  
}
```

```
public class MyMath  
  
    public static int random(int N)  
    public static int square(int N)  
    public static double square(double N)
```

```
public class MyMath {  
    public static int randomInt(int N) {  
        double x = Math.random();  
        int rndInt = (int) (x*N)+1;  
        return rndInt;  
    }  
    public static int square(int N) {  
        return N*N;  
    }  
    public static double square(double N) {  
        return N*N;  
    }  
}
```

# Method overloading

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- The **same method name** with **different arguments**
  - Compiler understands the meanings from their different arguments

```
public class MyMath  
  
    public static int random(int N)  
    public static int square(int N)  
    public static double square(double N)
```

- We overload words in natural languages all the time
  - The 3 “open” attributes to different **actions** using different **methods** to produce different **results**

*Open the door*

*Open the book*

*Open the computer file*

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```
1 //          MethodOverload.java
2 // Overloaded method declarations.
3
4 public class MethodOverload
5 {
6     // test overloaded square methods
7     public static void main(String[] args)
8     {
9         System.out.printf("Square of integer 7 is %d\n", square(7));
10        System.out.printf("Square of double 7.5 is %f\n", square(7.5));
11    }
12
13    // square method with int argument
14    public static int square(int intValue)
15    {
16        System.out.printf("%nCalled square with int argument: %d\n",
17                           intValue);
18        return intValue * intValue;
19    }
20
```

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| Overloaded method declarations. (Part I of 2.)

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```
21 // square method with double argument
22 public static double square(double doubleValue)
23 {
24     System.out.printf("%nCalled square with double argument: %f%n",
25         doubleValue);
26     return doubleValue * doubleValue;
27 }
28 } // end class MethodOverload
```

Called square with int argument: 7  
Square of integer 7 is 49

Called square with double argument: 7.500000  
Square of double 7.5 is 56.250000

| Overloaded method declarations. (Part 2 of 2.)

# Method Overloading

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- Method overloading
  - Methods of the same name declared in the same class
  - Must have different sets of parameters
- Compiler selects the appropriate method to call by examining the number, types and order of the arguments in the call.
- Used to create several methods with the same name that perform the same or similar tasks, but on different types or different numbers of arguments.
- In the example
  - Literal integer values are treated as type int, so the method call in line 9 invokes the version of square that specifies an int parameter.
  - Literal floating-point values are treated as type double, so the method call in line 10 invokes the version of square that specifies a double parameter.

# Method Overloading

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## ***Distinguishing Between Overloaded Methods***

- The compiler distinguishes overloaded methods by their **signatures**—the methods' *name* and the *number, types* and *order* of its parameters.
- Return types of overloaded methods
  - *Method calls cannot be distinguished by return type.*
- Overloaded methods can have different return types if the methods have different parameter lists.
- Overloaded methods need not have the same number of parameters.

# Method-Call Stack and Stack Frames

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- **Stack** data structure
  - Analogous to a pile of dishes
  - A dish is placed on the pile at the top (referred to as **pushing** the dish onto the stack).
  - A dish is removed from the pile from the top (referred to as **popping** the dish off the stack).
- **Last-in, first-out (LIFO) data structures**
  - The *last* item pushed onto the stack is the *first* item popped from the stack.



# Method-Call Stack and Activation Records

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- When a program *calls* a method, the called method must know how to *return* to its caller
  - The *return address* of the calling method is *pushed* onto the **method-call stack**.
- If a series of method calls occurs, the successive return addresses are pushed onto the stack in last-in, first-out order.
- The method call stack also contains the memory for the *local variables* (including the method parameters) used in each invocation of a method during a program's execution.
  - Stored as a portion of the method call stack known as the **stack frame** (or **activation record**) of the method call.

# Method-Call Stack and Activation Records

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- When a method call is made, the stack frame for that method call is *pushed* onto the method call stack.
- When the method returns to its caller, the stack frame is *popped* off the stack and those local variables are no longer known to the program.
- If more method calls occur than can have their stack frames stored on the program-execution stack, an error known as a **stack overflow** occurs.

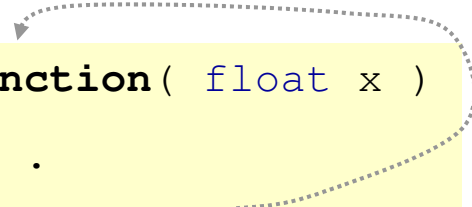
# Recursion

# Repetitive Processes

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- Is it possible to implement a repetitive process without `while`, `do`, `for` loops?
- For example, using a solution where a function calls itself

```
float myFunction( float x )  
{  
    . . .  
    temp = myFunction( y );  
    . . .  
    return result;  
}
```



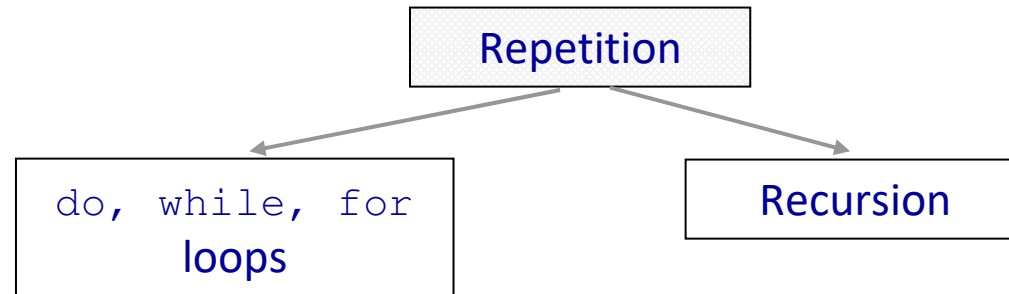
This may result in repetition, but...

Can this approach create an infinite loop as the function cannot reach return ?

Yes, unless implemented according to certain rules

# Recursion

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- Recursion is not a trivial function call of itself
- The idea is that a problem can be solved by reducing it to smaller versions of itself

# Iteration

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- ▶ Consider the calculation of  $n!$ , factorial  $n$ :

Given  $n \geq 0$ :

$$n! = n \times (n - 1) \times (n - 2) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1$$

$$0! = 1, 1! = 1$$


*Example:*

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120$$

# Iteration

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- Consider a factorial function, that uses a loop to calculate factorial iteratively

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 \times 1$$


1.  $0! = 1$

2. Loop

$$1 * 2 = 2 \quad : \text{first iteration}$$

$$2 * 3 = 6 \quad : \text{second iteration}$$

$$6 * 4 = 24 \quad : \text{third iteration}$$

$$24 * 5 = 120 \quad : \text{forth iteration}$$

# Iteration

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```
int factorial (int num)
{
    int i;
    int factN = 1;  /* 0! = 1 */

    for( i = 1; i <= num; i++)
        factN *= i;  /* iterations */
    return factN;
}
```



# Recursion

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- Recursive definition for factorial function:
  - $\text{factorial}(n) = 1$ , if  $n = 0$ .
  - $\text{factorial}(n) = n * \text{factorial}(n-1)$ , if  $n > 0$ .

`factorial(5) = 5* factorial(4)`

**where** `factorial(4) = 4*factorial(3)`

**where** `factorial(3) = 3*factorial(2)`

**where** `factorial(2) = 2*factorial(1)`

**where** `factorial(1) = 1*factorial(0)`

**where** `factorial(0) = 1`

# Recursion

$$\text{Factorial}(3) = 3 * \text{Factorial}(2)$$

$$\text{Factorial}(2) = 2 * \text{Factorial}(1)$$

$$\text{Factorial}(1) = 1 * \text{Factorial}(0)$$

$$\text{Factorial}(0) = 1$$

$$\text{Factorial}(3) = 3 * 2 = 6$$

$$\text{Factorial}(2) = 2 * 1 = 2$$

$$\text{Factorial}(1) = 1 * 1 = 1$$

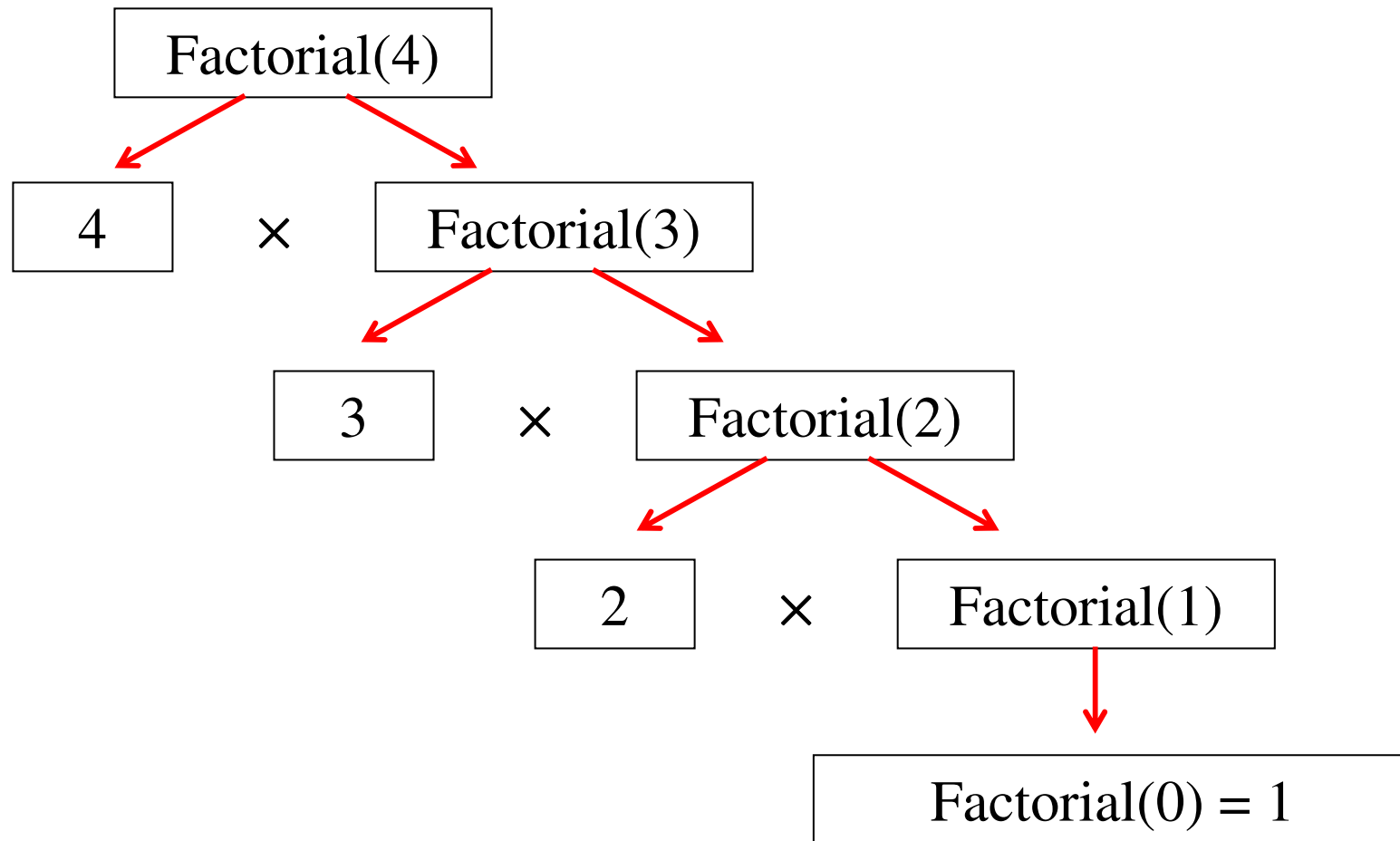
# Recursion

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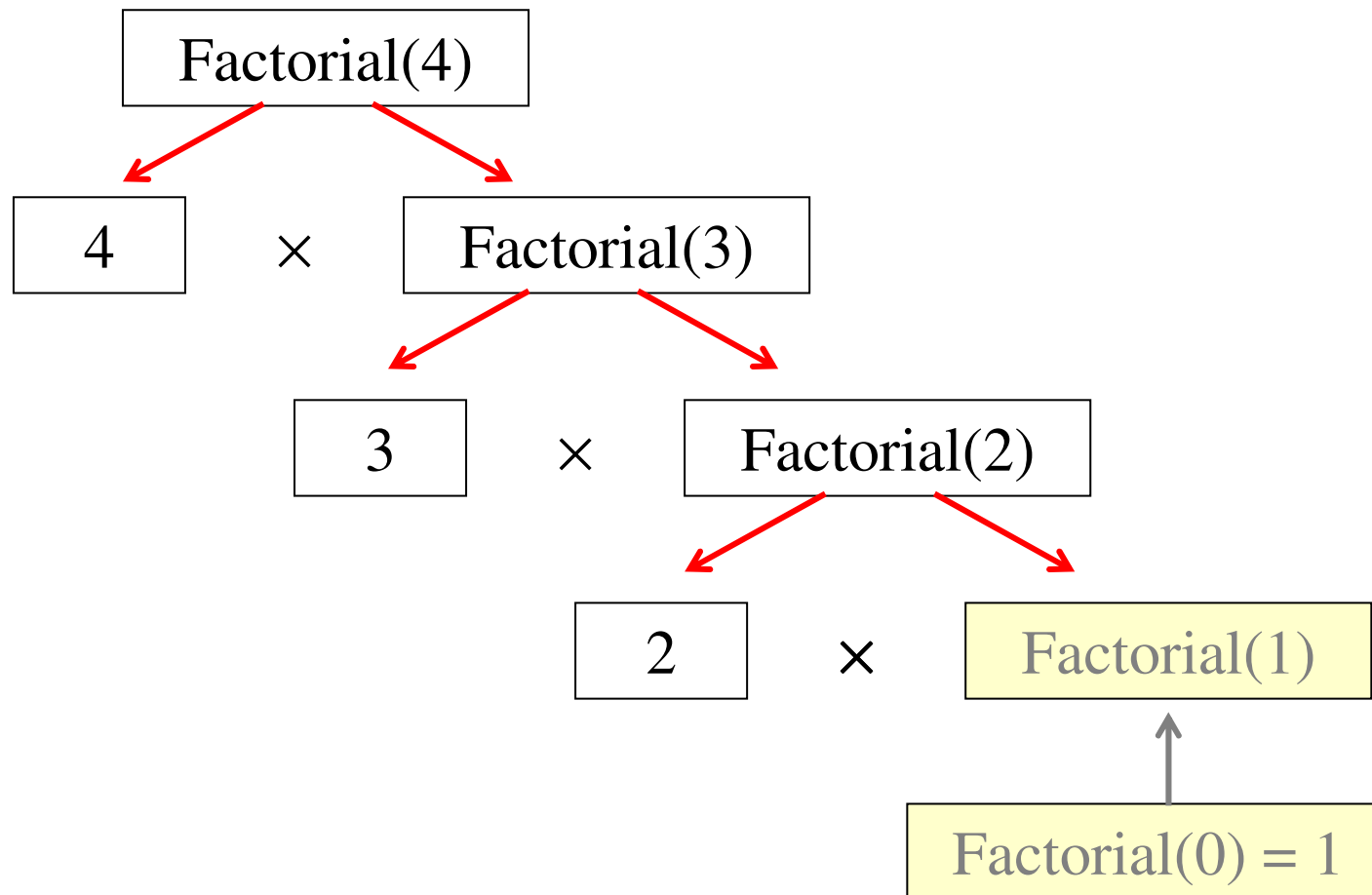
```
int factorial( int num )
{
    if (num == 0)
        return 1;
    else
        return ( num * factorial(num-1) );
}
```

# Recursion

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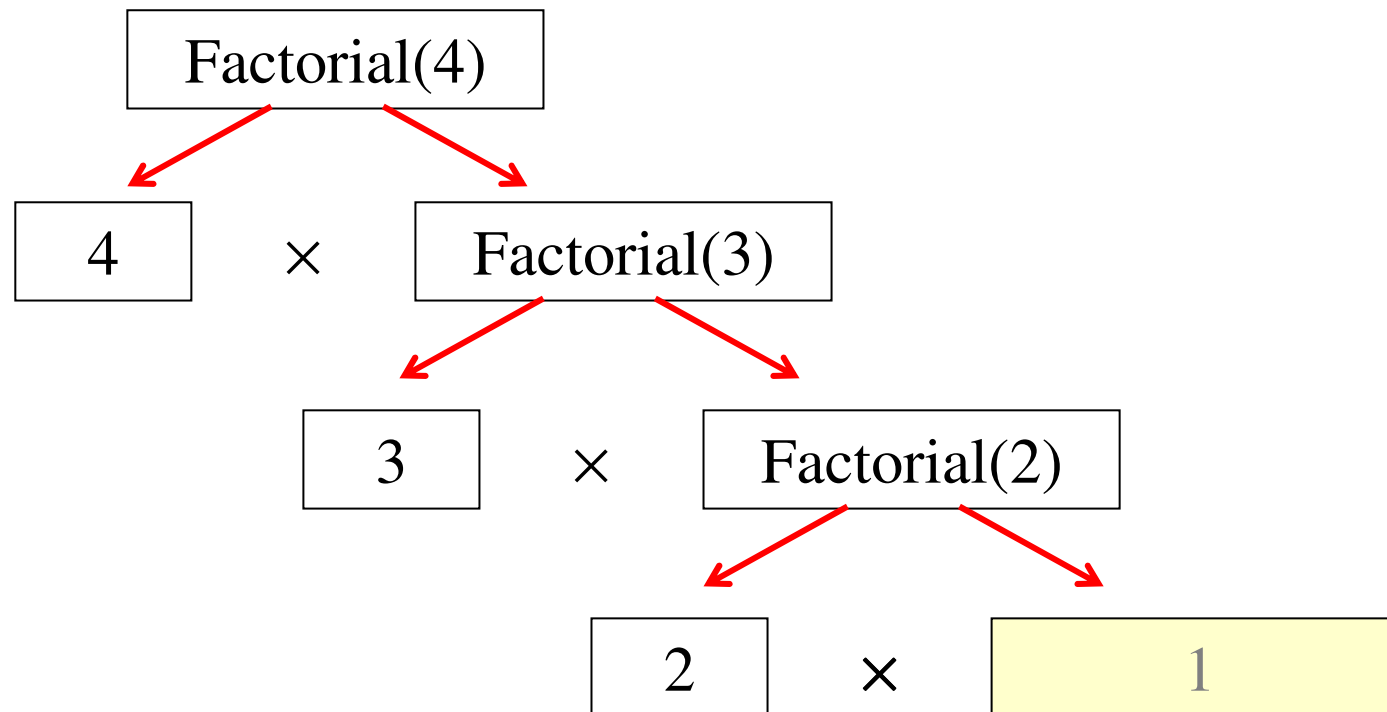


# Recursion



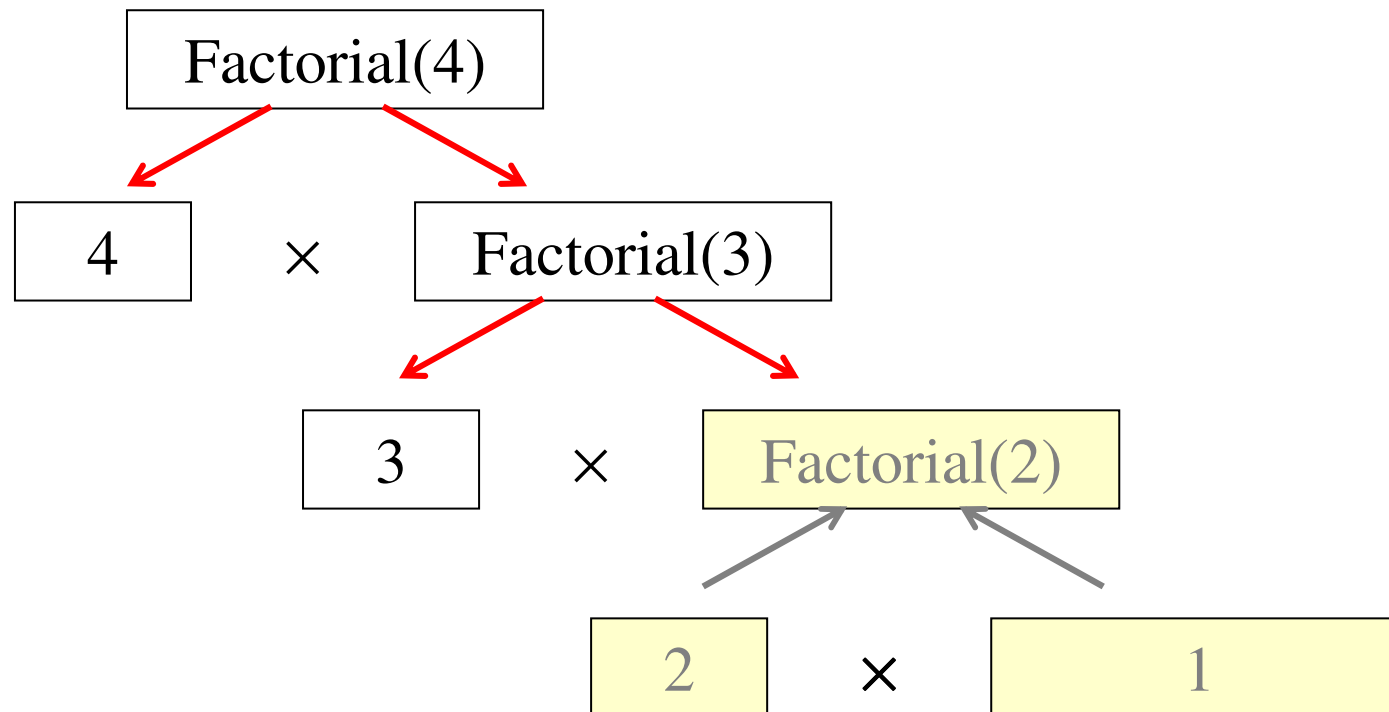
# Recursion

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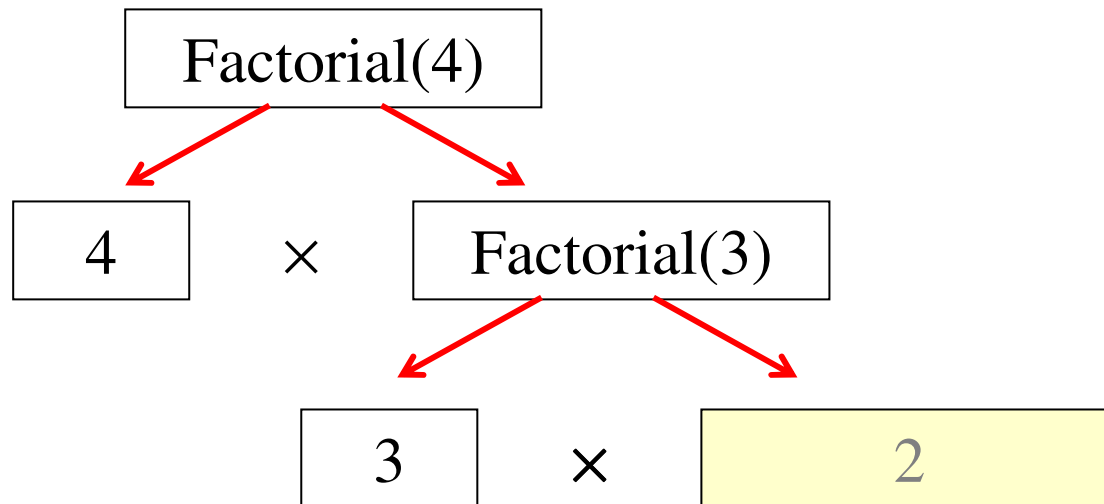
# Recursion

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# Recursion

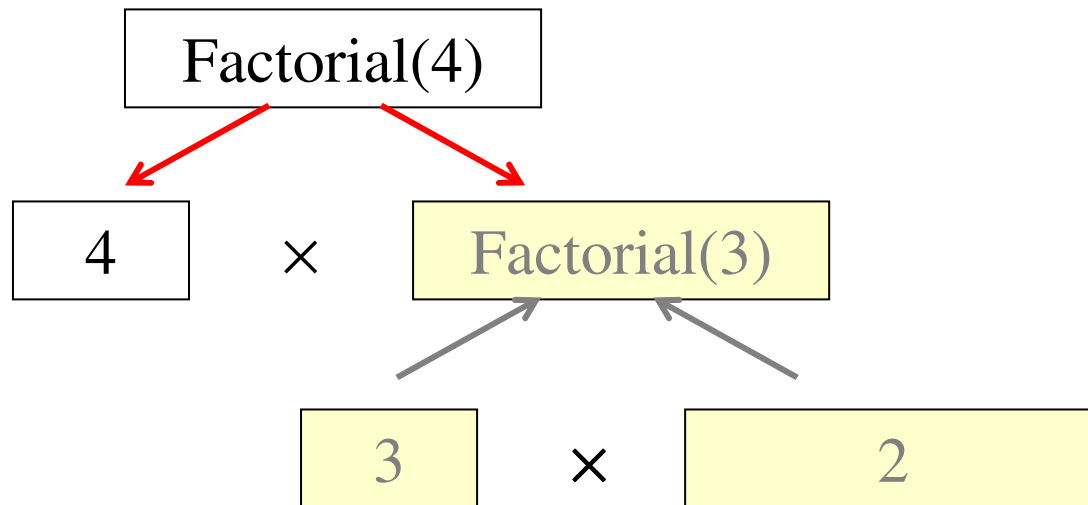
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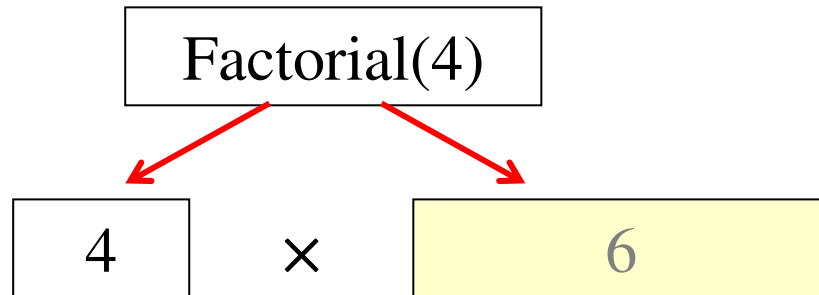
# Recursion

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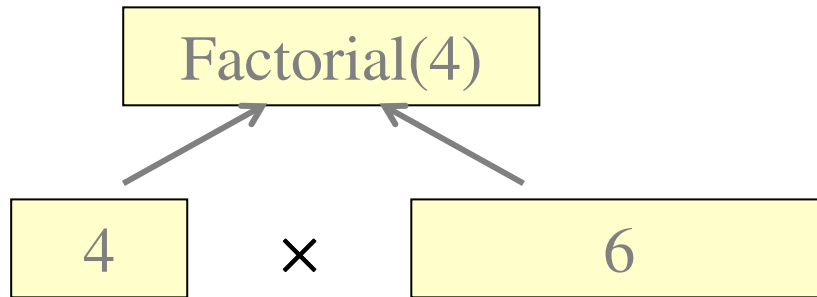
# Recursion

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# Recursion

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# Recursion

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# Recursive Function Structure

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- Every recursive function has two components:
  - 1 The *base case* : the statement that “solves” the problem. The *base case* is also known as the *stopping condition*.

*Example:* `if (n==0) factN = 1;`

- 2 The *recursion step (recursive call)*: the statement that reduces the size of the problem

*Example:*

`if (n != 0) factN = n * factorial(n-1);`

# Recursive function design

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1. Determine the *base case*.
2. Then determine the *recursive step*.
3. Combine the base case and recursive step into a function.
4. In combining the base case and recursive step into a function, you must pay careful attention to the logic.
  - Each call must reduce the size of the problem and move it toward the base case.
  - The base case, when reached, must terminate without a function call. It must execute a *return*.

# Recursion Examples

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- Task: Create a function `power()` to compute  $x^n$ . Where  $n$  is a positive number
  1. Create an iterative version of the function
  2. Create a recursive version of the function
  3. Compare two solutions

# Iterative solution

$$x^n = \underbrace{x * x * x \dots * x}_{n \text{ times}}$$

```
/* Iterative solution */
double power(double x, int n)
{
    int i;
    double result = x;

    if (n == 0) return 1.0;

    for ( i=1; i < n; i++ )
        result *= x;

    return result;
}
```



# Recursive solution

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1. Base case

$$x^0 = 1.0$$

`power(x, 0) = 1.0, if (n == 0)`

2. Repetition step / General case

$$x^n = x * x^{n-1}$$

`power(x, n) = x * power(x, n-1)`

```
/* Recursive solution */
double power(double x, int n)
{
    if (n == 0)           /* base case */
        return 1.0;

    else                  /* repetition step */
        return ( x * power(x, n-1) );
}
```

# Example: Calculate the sum

Write a program to calculate the sum from 1 to 10.

Loop solutions:

```
public void calculateSumFor() {  
    int sum=0;  
    for (int i=1;i<=10;i++){  
        sum = sum + i;  
    }  
    System.out.println("The sum from 1 to 10 is "+sum);  
}
```

```
public void calculateSumWhile() {  
    int sum=0, i=1;  
    while(i <= 10){  
        sum = sum +i;  
        i = i + 1;  
    }  
    System.out.println("The sum from 1 to 10 is "+sum);  
}
```

```
public void calculateSumDoWhile() {  
    int sum=0, i=1;  
    do{  
        sum = sum + i;  
        i= i + 1;  
    }while(i <= 10)  
    System.out.println("The sum from 1 to 10 is "+sum);  
}
```

# Example: Calculate the sum

Write a program to calculate the sum from 1 to 10.

Recursion solution:

```
public static int calculateSumRecursion(int n) {
    if (n==1)
        return 1;
    else
        return (n + calculateSumRecursion(n-1));
}

public static void main(String args[]){
    System.out.println("The sum from 1 to 10 is " + calculateSumRecursion (10));
}
```

The sum from 1 to 10 is 55

```
-----
n=10, calculateSumRecursion(10) Return (10+calculateSumRecurision(9));
n=9, calculateSumRecursion(9) Return (9+calculateSumRecurision(8));
n=8, calculateSumRecursion(8) Return (8+calculateSumRecurision(7));
n=7, calculateSumRecursion(7) Return (7+calculateSumRecurision(6));
n=6, calculateSumRecursion(6) Return (6+calculateSumRecurision(5));
n=5, calculateSumRecursion(5) Return (5+calculateSumRecurision(4));
n=4, calculateSumRecursion(4) Return (4+calculateSumRecurision(3));
n=3, calculateSumRecursion(3) Return (3+calculateSumRecurision(2));
n=2, calculateSumRecursion(2) Return (2+calculateSumRecurision(1));
n=1, calculateSumRecursion(1) Return 1;
```

# Iterative vs. Recursive

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- In general, recursive solutions are shorter and look more “elegant”
- Recursion can considerably simplify implementation of some commonly used algorithms
- If an iterative solution is more obvious and easier to understand than a recursive solution, use the iterative solution
- There is overhead associated with executing a recursive function both in terms of memory space and execution time.
- A recursive function executes more slowly than its iterative counterpart

# Suggested reading

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*Java: How to Program (Early Objects)*, 10th Edition

- Chapter 6: Methods: A Deeper Look
  - 6.6
- Chapter 18: recursion
  - 18.1-18.3