Ve 280

Programming and Introductory Data Structures

Procedural Abstraction;

Recursion;

Function Pointers

Announcement

- Programming project two announced
 - On recursive function and function pointer
 - Due time: 11:59 pm on June 17th, 2016

Outline

Procedural Abstraction

• Recursion

• Function Pointers

Procedural Abstraction: Review

- Abstraction
 - Provides only those details that matter.
 - Eliminates unnecessary details and reduces complexity.

Procedural abstraction: function

- Procedural abstractions, done properly, have two important properties:
 - Local: the **implementation** of an abstraction does not depend on any other abstraction **implementation**.
 - To realize an implementation, you only need to focus <u>locally</u>.
 - Substitutable: you can replace one (correct) **implementation** of an abstraction with another (correct) one, and no callers of that abstraction will need to be modified.

Implementation of square() does not depend on **how**you implement
multi()

int square(int a)
{
 return multi(a,a);
}

We can **change** the implementation of multi(). It won't affect square() as long as it does multiplication

- Locality and substitutability only apply to **implementations** of abstractions, not the **abstractions** themselves.
 - If you change the **abstraction** that is offered, the change is not local.
- It is CRITICALLY IMPORTANT to get the **abstractions** right before you start writing code.

```
int square(int a)
{
    return multi(a,a);
}
We cannot change
the abstraction of
"multi" to 2*a*b.
```

Procedural Abstraction: Summary

- Abstraction and abstraction implementation are <u>different!</u>!
 - Abstraction: tells **what**
 - Implementation: tells **how**
 - Same abstraction could have different implementations
- If you need to change what an **abstraction** itself, it can involve many different changes in the program.
- However, if you only change the **implementation** of an abstraction, then you are guaranteed that no other part of the project needs to change.
 - This is vital for projects that involve many programmers.

Procedural Abstraction and Function

- Function is a way of providing procedure abstractions.
- The **type signature** of a function can be considered as part of the abstraction
 - <u>Recall</u>: type signature includes return type, number of arguments and the type of each argument.
 - If you change type signature, callers must also change.
- Besides type signature, we need some way to describe the abstraction (not implementation) of the function.
 - We use **specifications** to do this.

Specifications

- We describe procedural abstraction by specification. It answers three questions:
 - What pre-conditions must hold to use the function?
 - Does the function change any inputs (even implicit ones, e.g., a global variable)? If so, how?
 - What does the procedure actually do?
- We answer each of these three questions in a **specification comment**, and we **always** include one with **function declaration** (or function definition in case we don' have declaration)

// SPECIFICATION COMMENT

int add(int a, int b);

Specification Comments

- There are three clauses to the specification:
 - **REQUIRES**: the pre-conditions that must hold, if any.
 - MODIFIES: how inputs are modified, if any.
 - **EFFECTS**: what the procedure computes given legal inputs.
- Note that the first two clauses have an "if any", which means they may be empty, in which case you may omit them.

Specification Comment Example

```
bool isEven(int n);
    // EFFECTS: returns true if n is even,
    // false otherwise
```

- This function returns true if and only if its argument is an even number.
- Since the function is Even is well-defined over all inputs (every possible integer is either even or odd) there need be no REQUIRES clause.
- Since is Even modifies no (implicit or explicit) arguments, there need be no MODIFIES clause.

Specification Comment Example

```
int factorial(int n);
   // REQUIRES: n >= 0
   // EFFECTS: returns n!
```

- The mathematical abstraction of factorial is only defined for nonnegative integers. So, there is a **REQUIRE** clause.
- The **EFFECTS** clause is only valid for inputs satisfying the **REQUIRES** clause.
- Importantly, this means that the implementation of factorial DOES NOT HAVE TO CHECK if n < 0! The function specification tells the caller that s/he **must** pass a non-negative integer.

More Function Details

- Functions without REQUIRES clauses are considered **complete**; they are valid for all input.
- Functions with REQUIRES clauses are considered partial
 - Some arguments that are "legal" with respect to the type (e.g., int) are not legal with respect to the function.
- Whenever possible, it is much better to write complete functions than partial ones.
- When we discuss **exceptions**, we will see a way to convert partial functions to complete ones.

More Function Details

• What about the MODIFIES clause?

- A MODIFIES clause identifies any function argument or global state that **might** change if this function is called.
 - For example, it can happen with call-by-reference as opposed to call-by-value inputs.

Specification Comment Example

```
void swap(int &x, int &y);
// MODIFIES: x, y
// EFFECTS: exchanges the values of
// x and y
```

• NOTE: If the function **could** change a reference argument, the argument must go in the MODIFIES clause. Leave it out only if the function can **never** change it.

Outline

• Procedural Abstraction

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Recursion

- Recursion is a nice way to solve problems
 - "Recursive" just means "refers to itself".
 - There is (at least) one "trivial" base or "stopping" case.
 - All other cases can be solved by first solving one smaller case, and then combining the solution with a simple step.
- Example: calculate factorial *n*!

```
int factorial (int n) {  n! = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)! & n > 0 \end{cases}  // REQUIRES: n >= 0 
// EFFECTS: computes n! if (n == 0) return 1; // base case else return n*factorial(n-1); // recursive step
```

Recursive Helper Function

• Sometimes it is easier to find a recursive solution to a problem if you change the original problem slightly, and then solve that problem using a recursive helper function.

```
soln()
{
    ...
    soln_helper();
    ...
}
```

```
soln_helper()
{
    ...
    soln_helper();
    ...
}
```

Recursive Helper Function

Example

- A palindrome is a string that is equal to itself when you reverse all characters.
 - For example: rotor, racecar
- Write a function to test if a string is a palindrome.

```
bool is_palindrome(string s);
// EFFECTS: return true if s is
// a palindrome.
```

Palindrome Example

- If a string is empty, it is a palindrome.
- If a string is of length one, it is a palindrome.
- Given a string of length more than one, it is a palindrome, if
 - its first character equals its last one, and
 - the substring without the first and the last characters is a palindrome.
- In order to test whether a substring is a palindrome, we define a **helper** function

```
bool is_palindrome_helper(string s,
  int begin, int end);
// EFFECTS: return true if the subtring
// of s starting at begin and ending at
// end is a palindrome.
```

Palindrome Example

```
bool is palindrome helper (string s,
  int begin, int end)
// EFFECTS: return true if the subtring
// of s starting at begin and ending at
// end is a palindrome.
  if (begin >= end) return true;
  if(s[begin] == s[end])
    return is palindrome helper(s,
      begin+1, end-1);
  else return false;
```

Palindrome Example

Outline

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Motivation

- If you were asked to write a function to add all the elements in a list, and another to multiply all the elements in a list, your functions would be almost exactly **the same**.
- Writing almost the exact same function twice is a bad idea! Why?
 - 1. It's wasteful of your time!!
 - 2. If you find a better way to implement some common parts, you have to change **many different** places; this is prone to error.

Our Example: list_t type

- A list can hold a sequence of zero or more integers.
- There is a recursive definition for the values that a list can take:
 - A valid list is:

```
either an empty list
or an integer followed by another valid list
```

Background on lists

Here are some examples of valid lists:

```
( 1 2 3 4 ) // a list of four elements
( 2 5 2 ) // a list of three elements
( ) // an empty list
```

- There are also several operations that can be applied to lists. We will use the following three:
 - list_first() takes a list, and returns the first element (an integer) from the list.

 REQUIRES: non-empty list!
 - list_rest() takes a list and returns the list comprising all but the first element. REQUIRES: non-empty list!
 - list_isEmpty() takes a list and returns the Boolean "true" if the argument is an empty list, and "false" otherwise.

Using lists

• Suppose we want to write a recursive function to find the smallest element in a list.

Question: how do you do it **recursively**?

• Answer:

• Note: This implies that smallest is not defined for the empty list, just like list_first is not.

Using recursion to find the smallest element in a list

```
int smallest(list t list)
 // REQUIRES: list is not empty
 // EFFECTS: returns smallest element
 // in the list
  int first = list first(list);
  list t rest = list rest(list);
  if(list isEmpty(rest)) return first;
  int cand = smallest(rest);
  if(first <= cand) return first;</pre>
  return cand;
```

Using lists

• Now suppose we want to write a recursive function to find the largest element in a list. The recursive definition is:

• Note: This implies that largest is not defined for the empty list.

Using recursion to find the largest element in a list

```
int largest(list t list)
 // REQUIRES: list is not empty
 // EFFECTS: returns largest element
 // in the list
  int first = list first(list);
  list t rest = list rest(list);
  if(list isEmpty(rest)) return first;
  int cand = largest(rest);
  if(first >= cand) return first;
  return cand;
```

More Motivation

- largest is almost identical to the definition of smallest.
- Unsurprisingly the solution is almost identical, too.
- In fact, the **only** differences between smallest and largest are:
 - 1. The names of the function
 - 2. The comment in the EFFECTS list
 - 3. The polarity of the comparison: $\leq vs. \geq =$
- It is silly to write almost the same function twice!

Function pointers to the rescue!

A first look

- So far, we've only defined functions as entities that can be called. However, functions can also be referred to by **variables**, and passed as **arguments** to functions.
- Suppose there are two functions we want to pick between: min() and max(). They are defined as follows:

```
int min(int a, int b);
  // EFFECTS: returns the smaller of a and b.
int max(int a, int b);
  // EFFECTS: returns the larger of a and b.
```

A first look

```
int min(int a, int b);
  // EFFECTS: returns the smaller of a and b.
int max(int a, int b);
  // EFFECTS: returns the larger of a and b.
```

- These two functions have precisely the same type signature:
 - They both take two integers, and return an integer.
- Of course, they do completely different things:
 - One returns a min and one returns a max.
 - However, from a syntactic point of view, you call either of them the same way.

The basic format

• How do you define a **variable** that points to a function taking two integers, and returns an integer?

• Here's how:

```
int (*foo)(int, int);
```

• You read this from "inside out". In other words:

The basic format

```
int (*foo)(int, int);
```

• Once we've declared foo, we can assign any function to it:

```
foo = min;
```

• Furthermore, after assigning min to foo, we can just call it as follows:

```
foo(3, 5)
```

• ...and we'll get back 3!

Function Pointers v.s. Variable Pointers

• For function pointers, the compiler allows us to **ignore** the "address-of" and "dereference" operators.

```
int (*foo)(int, int);
foo = min; // min() is predefined
foo(5,3);
```

```
We don't write:

foo = &min;
(*foo) (5, 3);
```

• This's not true with variable pointers.

```
int foo;
int *bar;
bar = &foo;
*bar = 2;
```

Re-write smallest in terms of function pointers

```
int compare_help(list_t list, int (*fn)(int, int))
   int first = list first(list);
   list t rest = list rest(list);
   if(list isEmpty(rest)) return first;
   int cand = compare help(rest, fn);
   return fn(first, cand);
int smallest(list t list)
  // REQUIRES: list is not empty
  // EFFECTS: returns smallest element in list
  return compare help(list, min);
                              int min(int a, int b);
                                  // EFFECTS: returns the
                                  // smaller of a and b.
```

Re-write largest in terms of function pointers

```
int compare_help(list_t list, int (*fn)(int, int))
   int first = list first(list);
   list t rest = list rest(list);
   if(list isEmpty(rest)) return first;
   int cand = compare help(rest, fn);
   return fn(first, cand);
int largest(list t list)
  // REQUIRES: list is not empty
  // EFFECTS: returns largest element in list
  return compare help(list, max);
                              int max(int a, int b);
                                  // EFFECTS: returns the
                                  // larger of a and b.
```

Reference

- Procedural abstraction
 - Problem Solving with C++, 8th Edition, Chapter 4.4 and 5.3
- Recursion
 - Problem Solving with C++, 8th Edition, Chapter 14
- Function pointers
 - C++ Primer (4th Edision), Chapter 7.9