

# ECE2800J

## Programming and Introductory Data Structures

### **Recursion; Function Pointers; Function Call Mechanism**

#### **Learning Objectives:**

Understand recursion and know how to write recursive functions

Understand how to write more general code with function pointers

Understand function call mechanism

# Outline

- Recursion
- Function Pointers
- Function Call Mechanism

# Recursion

- Recursion is a nice way to solve problems
  - “Recursive” just means “refers to itself”.
  - There is (at least) one “trivial” case 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) {  
    // REQUIRES: n >= 0  
    // EFFECTS: computes n!  
    if (n == 0) return 1; // base case  
    else return n*factorial(n-1); // recursive step  
}
```

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

# 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 substring  
// 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 substring
// 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

- With the helper function, `is_palindrome()` can be realized as

```
bool is_palindrome(string s)
// EFFECTS: return true if s is
// a palindrome.
{
    return is_palindrome_helper(s, 0,
        s.length()-1);
}
```

# Outline

- Recursion
- Function Pointers
- Function Call Mechanism

# Function Pointers

## 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

# Function Pointers

## 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.

# Function Pointers

## Using lists

- Suppose we want to write a **recursive** function to find the smallest element in a list.
  - The function requires the input list to be non-empty.

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

- **Answer:**

smallest(list) = the element (if list has  
only a single element)  
or the minimum of the first  
element and the smallest  
element from the rest of  
the list

# Function Pointers

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;
    return cand;
}
```

# Function Pointers

## Using lists

- Now suppose we want to write a recursive function to find the largest element in a list.
  - The function also requires the input list to be non-empty.
- Recursive definition:

largest(list) = the element (if list has  
only a single element)  
or the maximum of the first  
element and the largest  
element from the rest of  
the list

# Function Pointers

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;
}
```

# Function Pointers

## 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: `<=` vs. `>=`
- It is silly to write almost the same function twice!

Function pointers to rescue!

# Function Pointers

## 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.
```

# Function Pointers

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.**

# Function Pointers

The basic format

- How do you define a **variable** that points to a function that takes two integers, and returns an integer?
- Here's how:

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

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

foo	"foo"
(*foo)	"is a pointer"
(*foo) ( ) ;	"to a function"
(*foo) (int, int) ;	"that takes two integers"
int (*foo) (int, int) ;	"and returns an integer"

# Function Pointers

The basic format

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

- Once we've declared foo, we can **assign** any function with the same type signature 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);
```

- In contrast, for variable pointers:

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

# Function Pointers

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.
```

# Function Pointers

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.
```

# Outline

- Recursion
- Function Pointers
- Function Call Mechanism

# Call Stacks

How a function call really works

- When we call a function, the program does following steps:
  - Evaluate the actual arguments to the function (order is not guaranteed).  
Example:  $y = \text{add}(4-1, 5);$
  - Create an “**activation record**” (sometimes called a “**stack frame**”) to hold the function's **formal parameters** and **local variables**.
    - When call function `int add(int a, int b)`, system creates an activation record: **a, b (formal), result (local)**
  - Copy the actuals' values to the formals' storage space.
  - Evaluate the function in its local scope.
  - Replace the function call with the result.
  - Destroy the activation record.

a=3  
b=5

# Call Stacks

How a function call really works

- It is typical to have multiple function calls. How the activation records are maintained?
  - Answer: stored as a **stack**.
- Stack: a set of objects which is modified as **last in first out**.

Example: a stack of plates in a cafeteria

- Each time you clean a plate, you add it to the top of the stack
- Each time a new plate is needed, the one at the top is taken **first**



# Call Stacks

How a function call really works

- When a function  $f()$  is called, its **activation record** is added to the “top” of the stack.
- When the function  $f()$  returns, its **activation record** is removed from the “top” of the stack.
- In the meantime,  $f()$  may have called **other functions**.
  - These **functions** create corresponding activation records.
  - These **functions** must return (and destroy their corresponding activation records) before  $f()$  can return.

# Call Stacks

## Example

- When a function is called, its **activation record** is added to the “top” of the stack.
- When that function returns, its **activation record** is removed from the “top” of the stack.



double add(double a, double b): `a = 1, b = 0, result = 0`

double sin(double x): `x = 1, result = 0`

int main(): `x = 1, sinResult = 0`

- Note: “top” is placed in quotes, because in reality, stack of activation records grows **down** rather than **up**.

# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}  
  
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}  
  
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Main starts out with an activation record with room only for the local “result”:

main:

result: 0

# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}  
  
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Then, main calls plus\_two,  
passing the literal value "0":

main:

result: 0

plus\_two:

x: 0

# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}  
  
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

Which in turn calls plus\_one:

main:

result: 0

plus\_two:

x: 0

plus\_one:

x: 0

# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}
```

plus\_one adds one to x,  
returning the value 1:

```
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}
```

main:

result: 0

```
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

plus\_two:

x: 0

1

plus\_one:

x: 0

# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}
```

plus\_one's activation record  
is destroyed:

```
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

main:

result: 0

plus\_two:

x: 0

plus\_one:

x: 0

1

# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}
```

plus\_two adds one to the result,  
and returns the value 2:

```
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

main:

result: 2

plus\_two:

x: 0



# Call Stacks

## Example

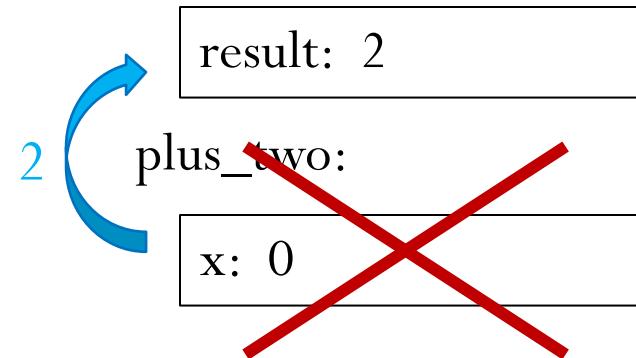
```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}
```

```
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}
```

```
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

plus\_two's activation record  
is destroyed:

main:



# Call Stacks

## Example

```
int plus_one(int x) {  
    return (x+1);  
}
```

main then prints the result:

**2**

```
int plus_two(int x) {  
    return (1 + plus_one(x));  
}
```

main:

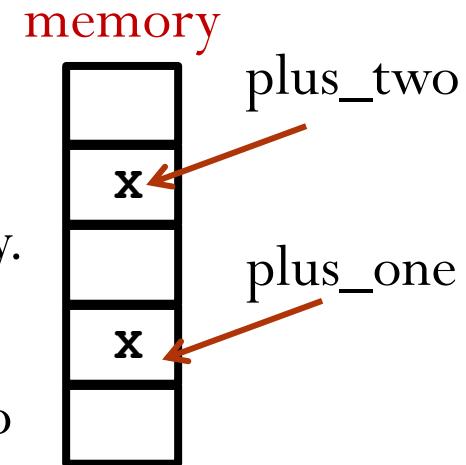
result: 2

```
int main() {  
    int result = 0;  
  
    result = plus_two(0);  
    cout << result;  
    return 0;  
}
```

# Call Stacks

Example: Some things to note

- Even though `plus_one` and `plus_two` both have formal parameters called “`x`”, there is no problem.
  - These two `x`’s are at different locations in memory.
  - `plus_one` cannot see `plus_two`’s `x`.
  - Instead, the **value** of `plus_two`’s `x` is passed to `plus_one`, and stored in `plus_one`’s `x`.



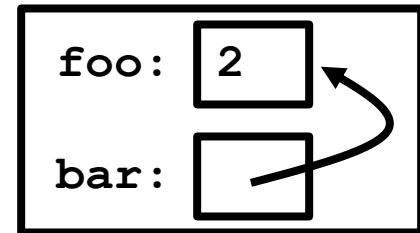
# Call Stack

Example: Using Pointers

```
void add_one(int *x) {  
    *x = *x + 1;  
}
```

Activation record of main:

```
int main() {  
    int foo = 2;  
    int *bar = &foo;  
    add_one(bar);  
    return 0;  
}
```



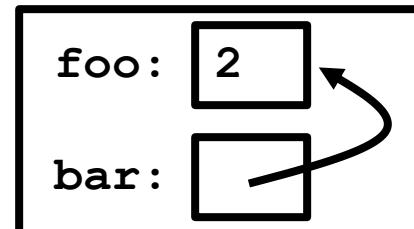
# Call Stack

Example: Using Pointers

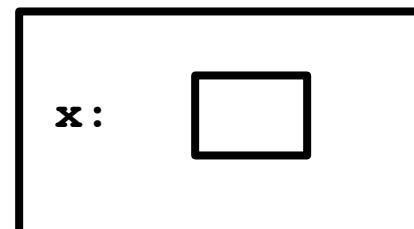
```
void add_one(int *x) {  
    *x = *x + 1;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int foo = 2;  
    int *bar = &foo;  
    add_one(bar);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Main calls add\_one,  
creating an activation  
record for add\_one

main:



add\_one:



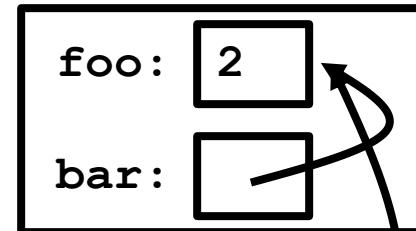
# Call Stack

Example: Using Pointers

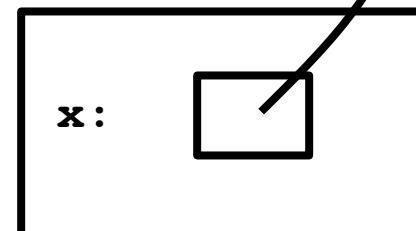
```
void add_one(int *x) {  
    *x = *x + 1;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int foo = 2;  
    int *bar = &foo;  
    add_one(bar);  
    return 0;  
}
```

Copy the value of bar to add\_one's formal parameter x.

main:



add\_one:



Both x and bar point to foo.

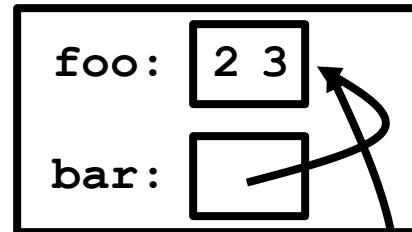
# Call Stack

Example: Using Pointers

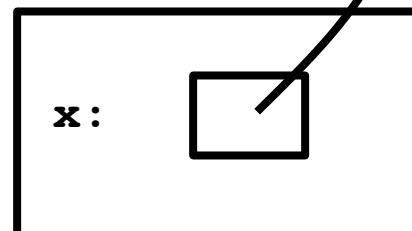
```
void add_one(int *x) {  
    *x = *x + 1;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    int foo = 2;  
    int *bar = &foo;  
    add_one(bar);  
    return 0;  
}
```

add\_one adds 1 to the object pointed to by x.

main:



add\_one:



# Call Stack

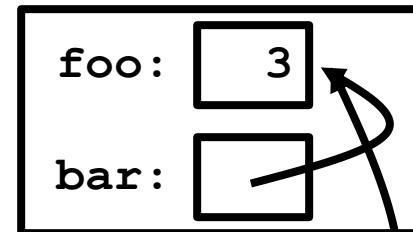
Example: Using Pointers

```
void add_one(int *x) {  
    *x = *x + 1;  
}
```

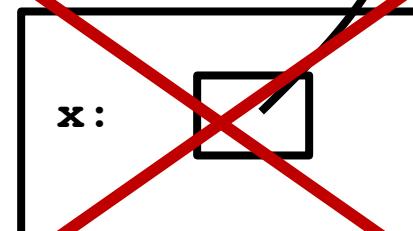
```
int main() {  
    int foo = 2;  
    int *bar = &foo;  
    add_one(bar);  
    return 0;  
}
```

add\_one's activation record is destroyed.

main:



add\_one:



# Call Stack

Example: Recursion

- Suppose we call our function as follows:

```
void main()
1. {
2. int x;
3. x = factorial(3);
4. }
```

main

x:

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

# Call Stack

## Example: Recursion

- main() calls factorial with an argument 3.
- We evaluate the actual argument, create an activation record, and copy the actual value to the formal.

main

x:

factorial

n:  3

RA: main line #3

RA = "Return Address"

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

# Call Stack

## Example: Recursion

- Now we evaluate the body of factorial:

- n is not zero, so we evaluate the **else** arm of the if statement:

```
return 3 * factorial(2)
```

- So, factorial must call factorial. We will create a **new** activation record for a **new** instance of factorial.

main

x:

factorial

n:  3

RA: main line #3

factorial

n:  2

RA: factorial line #2

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

# Call Stack

## Example: Recursion

- Again, n is not zero, so we evaluate the **else** arm again:

```
return 2 * factorial(1)
```

- This creates a new activation record for factorial

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

main

x:

factorial

n:  3

RA: main line #3

factorial

n:  2

RA: factorial line #2

factorial

n:  1

RA: factorial line #2

# Call Stack

## Example: Recursion

- And again, we evaluate the **else** arm:

```
return 1*factorial(0)
```

- This creates a new activation record for factorial

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

main

x:

factorial

n:  3

RA: main line #3

factorial

n:  2

RA: factorial line #2

factorial

n:  1

RA: factorial line #2

factorial

n:  0

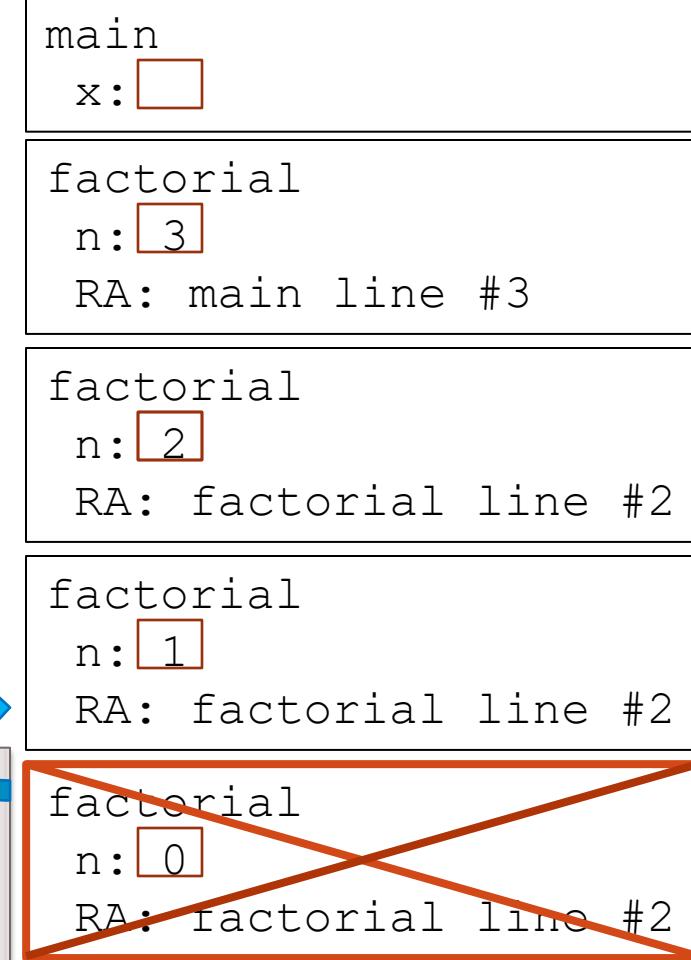
RA: factorial line #2

# Call Stack

## Example: Recursion

- In evaluating factorial(0), n is zero, so we evaluate the **if** arm rather than **else** arm.
- Return the value “1”
- Popping the most recent activation record off the stack.

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



# Call Stack

Example: Recursion

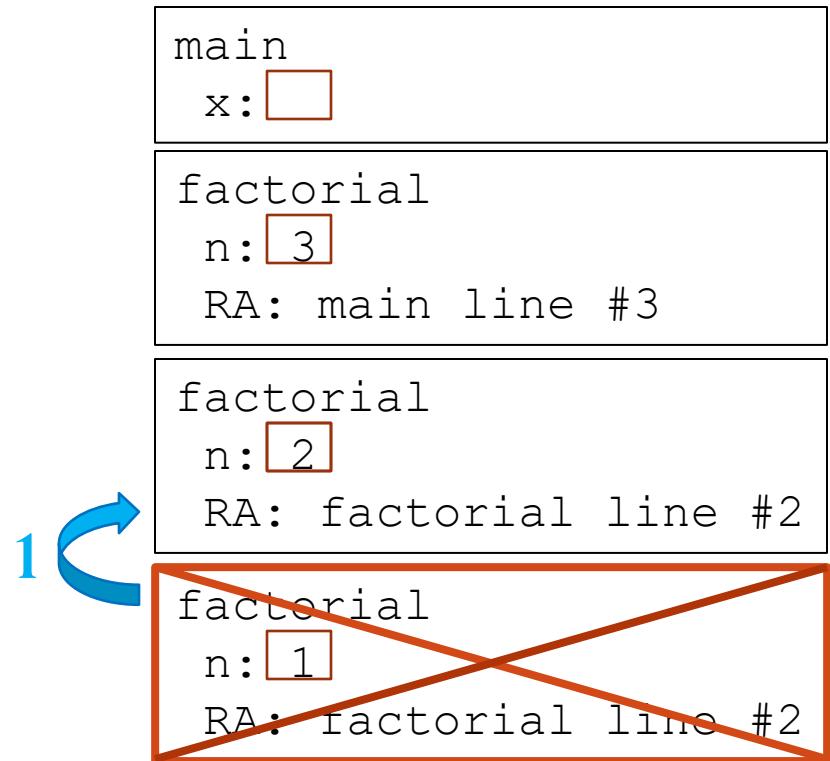
- In `factorial(1)`, we called `factorial(0)` as follows:

```
return 1 * factorial(0)
```

- Now we know the value of `factorial(0)`, so we complete `factorial(1)`:

```
return 1 * 1  => return 1;  
from factorial(1)
```

- This pops another activation record off the stack



# Call Stack

## Example: Recursion

- Now it allows us to complete evaluating `factorial(2)`:

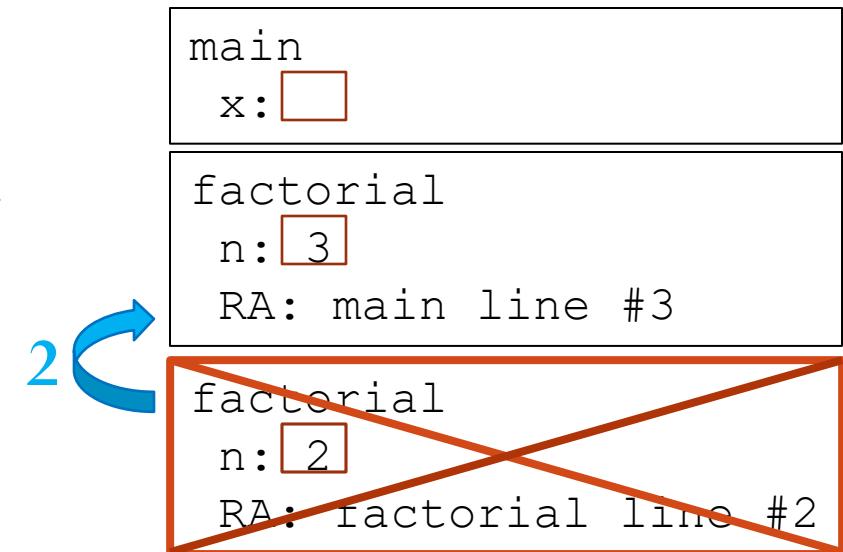
```
return 2 * factorial(1) =>
```

```
return 2 * 1 =>
```

```
return 2
```

from `factorial(2)`

- Now pop off another activation record.



# Call Stack

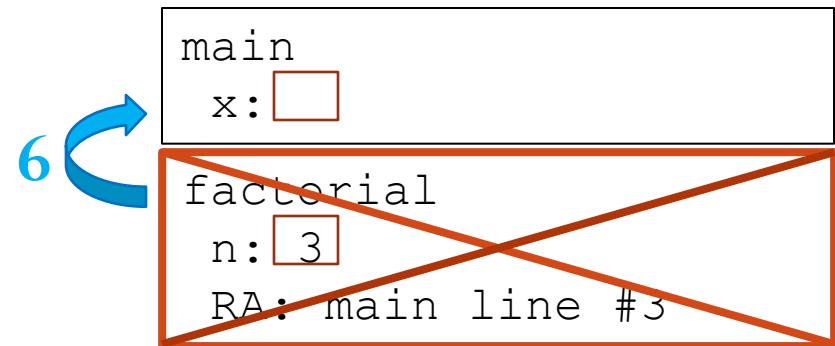
## Example: Recursion

- Now we can complete evaluating `factorial(3)`:

`return 3 * factorial(2) =>`

`return 3 * 2 =>`

`return 6`



- That is the correct answer.
- Don't forget that last pop!



# Which Statements Are True?

Select all the correct answers.

- **A.** The number of recursive calls of factorial can be as high as we want.
- **B.** The number of calls of factorial could be just 1.
- **C.** We can change the function factorial so that the number of calls of factorial could be **reduced** by 1 in general case.
- **D.** None of the above.

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



# Reference

- Recursion
  - Problem Solving with C++, 8<sup>th</sup> Edition, Chapter 14
- Function pointers
  - C++ Primer (4<sup>th</sup> Edision), Chapter 7.9