

Week 4 - Wednesday

**COMP 2400**

# Last time

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- What did we talk about last time?
- Functions

Questions?

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# Project 2

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# Quotes

*Unix never says "please."*

Rob Pike

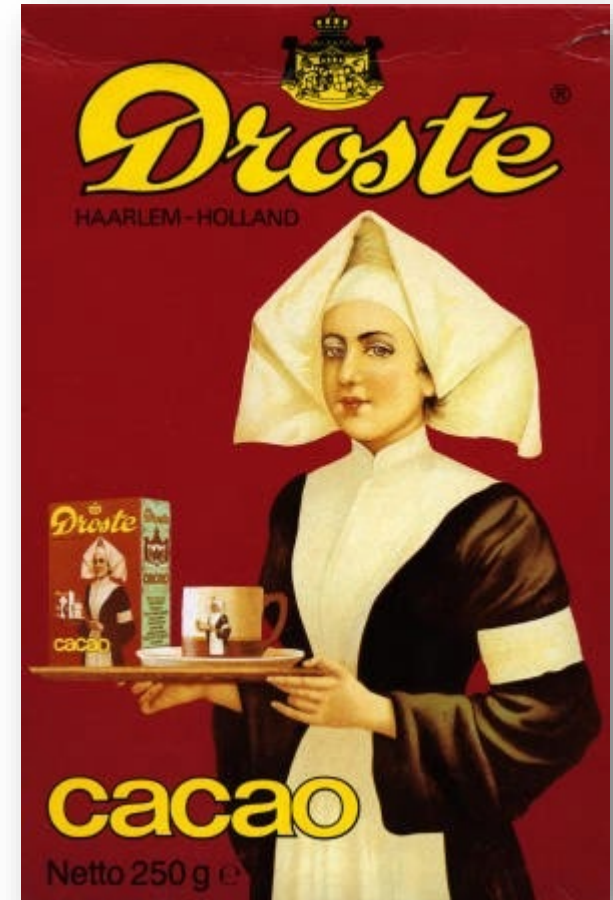
- It also never says:
  - "Thank you"
  - "You're welcome"
  - "I'm sorry"
  - "Are you sure you want to do that?"

# Recursion

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# What is recursion?

- Defining something in terms of itself
- To be useful, the definition must be based on progressively simpler definitions of the thing being defined
- If a function calls itself (directly or indirectly), it's recursive



# Top down

Explicitly:

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

Recursively:

- $n! = (n)(n-1)!$

- $1! = 1$

- $6! = 6 \cdot 5!$

- $5! = 5 \cdot 4!$

- $4! = 4 \cdot 3!$

- $3! = 3 \cdot 2!$

- $2! = 2 \cdot 1!$

- $1! = 1$

- $6! = 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 720$



# Useful recursion

Two parts:

- Base case(s)
  - Tells recursion when to stop
  - For factorial,  $n = 1$  or  $n = 0$  are examples of base cases
- Recursive case(s)
  - Allows recursion to progress
  - "Leap of faith"
  - For factorial,  $n > 1$  is the recursive case

# Approach for problems

- Top down approach
- Don't try to solve the whole problem
- Deal with the next step in the problem
- Then make the "leap of faith"
- Assume that you can solve any smaller part of the problem

# Walking to the door

- Problem: You want to walk to the door
- Base case (if you reach the door):
  - You're done!
- Recursive case (if you aren't there yet):
  - Take a step toward the door



Problem

# Implementing factorial

- Base case ( $n \leq 1$ ):
  - $1! = 0! = 1$
- Recursive case ( $n > 1$ ):
  - $n! = n(n - 1)!$

# Code for factorial

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

 Base Case

  
Recursive  
Case

# Count the zeroes

- Given an integer, count the number of zeroes in its representation
- Example:
  - 13007804
  - 3 zeroes

# Recursion for zeroes

- Base cases (number less than 10):
  - 1 zero if it is 0
  - No zeroes otherwise
- Recursive cases (number greater than or equal to 10):
  - One more zero than the rest of the number if the last digit is 0
  - The same number of zeroes as the rest of the number if the last digit is not 0

# Code for zeroes

```
int zeroes (int n)
```

```
{
```

```
    if (n == 0)
```

```
        return 1;
```

```
    else if (n < 10)
```

```
        return 0;
```

```
    else if (n % 10 == 0)
```

```
        return 1 + zeroes (n / 10);
```

```
    else
```

```
        return zeroes (n / 10);
```

```
}
```

Base Cases



Recursive  
Cases





# Searching in a sorted array

- Given an array of integers in (ascending) sorted order, find the index of the one you are looking for
- Useful problem with practical applications
- Recursion makes an efficient solution obvious
- Play the **High-Low** game

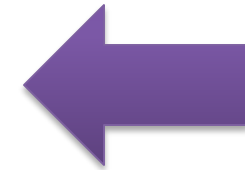
# Recursion for binary search

- Base cases:
  - The number isn't in the range you are looking at. Return -1.
  - The number in the middle of the range is the one you are looking for. Return its index.
- Recursion cases:
  - The number in the middle of the range is too low. Look in the range above it.
  - The number in middle of the range is too high. Look in the range below it.

# Code for binary search

```
int search (int array[],
int n, int start, int end)
{
    int midpoint = (start + end) / 2;
    if (start >= end)
        return -1;
    else if (array[midpoint] == n )
        return midpoint;
    else if (array[midpoint] < n)
        return search (array, n,
            midpoint + 1, end);
    else
        return search (array, n, start,
            midpoint);
}
```

Base  
Cases



Recursive  
Cases



# Programming practice

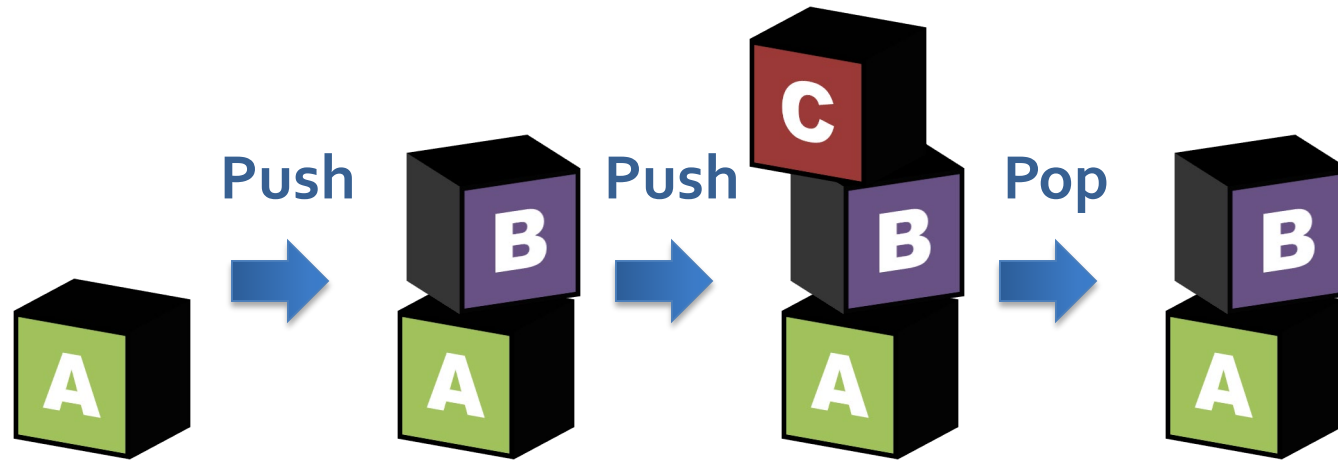
- Write a recursive function to determine the number of digits in a number

# How does recursion work in the computer?

- Is there a problem with calling a function from the same function?
- How does the computer keep track of which function is which?

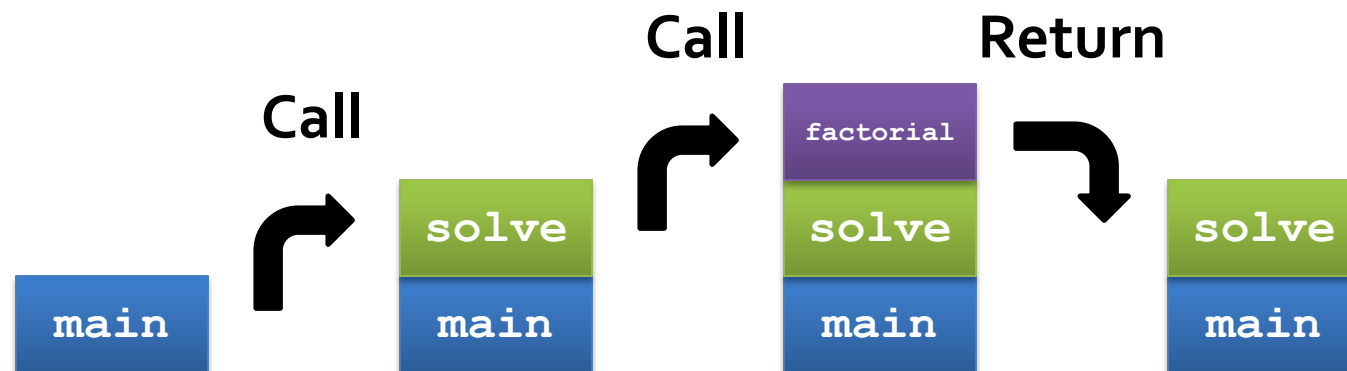
# Stacks

- A stack is a FILO data structure used to store and retrieve items in a particular order
- Just like a stack of blocks:



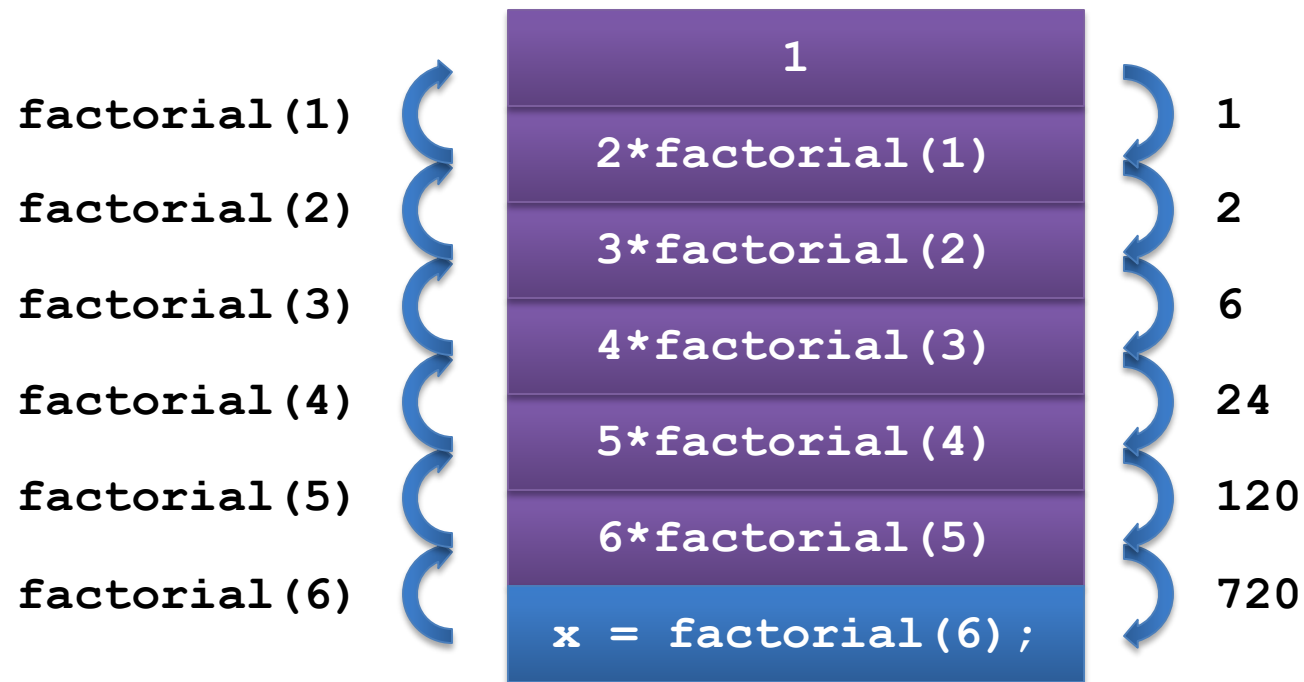
# Call stack

- In the same way, the local variables for each function are stored on the call stack
- When a function is called, a copy of that function is **pushed** onto the stack
- When a function returns, that copy of the function **pops** off the stack



# Example with Factorial

- Each copy of factorial has a value of  $n$  stored as a local variable
- For  $6!$  :





# Efficiency

- Calling functions has overhead, so calling a function 1,000 times is usually much slower than running equivalent code in a loop 1,000 times
- Modern compilers, however, are relatively good at optimizing recursive calls
- Some of the most commonly used recursive algorithms (binary search and binary search tree manipulation) run in  $O(\log n)$ 
  - The overhead is less noticeable since the function isn't called many times
  - People looking for serious performance tuning will usually convert those algorithms to iterative implementations

# Stack overflow

- The segment of memory dedicated to the stack is limited in size
- Too many recursive calls will overflow the stack
- Even if your program would get the right answer with an unlimited stack, it will crash after what's usually tens of thousands of calls
- Be careful when writing recursion that might go thousands deep
  - Another reason to stick to  $O(\log n)$  algorithms

# Stack overflow example

- The following recursive function adds the number from 1 up to **n**
- It follows almost the same shape as **factorial ()**

```
long sumUpTo(int n)
{
    if (n == 1)
        return 1;
    else
        return n + sumUpTo(n - 1);
}
```

- The **sumUpTo ()** function works just fine for values like 100
- It will get a stack overflow on values like 500000

# Ticket Out the Door

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# Upcoming

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# Next time...

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- Scope
- Processes

# Reminders

- Read LPI chapter 6
- Finish Project 2
  - Due Friday by midnight!