

Computer Programming

Introduction. Recursion

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The C programming language

developed in 1972 at *AT&T Bell Laboratories* by Dennis Ritchie together with the UNIX operating system and its tools

(C first developed under UNIX, then UNIX was rewritten in C)
Brian Kernighan, Dennis Ritchie: *The C Programming Language* (1978)

Mature language, but still evolving

ANSI C standard, 1989 (American National Standards Institute)
then ISO 9899 standard (versions: C90, C99, **C11 - current**)

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Why use C?

versatile: direct access to data representation, freedom in working with memory, good hardware interface

mature, large code base (libraries for many purposes)

efficient: good compilers that generate compact, fast code

WARNING: very easy to make *errors* !

Computations, functions, and programs

A program

reads input data

processes them (through (mathematical) *computations*)

writes (produces) *results*

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In mathematics, computations are expressed by *functions*:

we *know* predefined functions (sin, cos, etc.)

we *define* new functions (for the given problem)

we *combine* functions into more complex computations

In programming, we use functions in a similar way.

Functions are the core of programming

Programs are structured into functions (methods, procedures)

Splitting into functions helps *manage complexity* !

Functions can be *reused*, making development efficient.

Functions are core to defining what is computable
(recursive functions, lambda calculus, functional programming)

Functions in mathematics and C

Squaring for integers:

$$\text{sqr} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{sqr}(x) = x \cdot x$$

function type	function name	parameter type and name
	<code>int</code>	<code>sqr(int x)</code>
	<code>{</code>	
	<code>return</code>	<code>x * x;</code>
	<code>}</code>	

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	<code>sqr</code>	<code>(int x)</code>
		<code>{</code>
		<code>return x * x;</code>
		<code>}</code>

A function *definition* contains:

the function *header*, specifying: the type (range) of function values (int), function name (sqr) and parameters (the integer x)

the function *body*, within `{ }`: here, the return *statement*, with an *expression* that gives the function value from its parameters

There are precise *rules* for writing in the language (the *syntax*):

language elements are written in a given *order*;

separators are used to precisely delimit them: `() ; { }`

Another function

Squaring for *reals*:

$$\text{sqr}f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{sqr}f(x) = x \cdot x$$

```
float sqr(float x)
{
    return x * x;
}
```

Another function domain and range (reals) \Rightarrow a different function
even the $*$ operator is now defined on a different set (type)
To distinguish it from `sqr` in the same program, it needs a
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different name.

`int` and `float` denote *types*.

A *type* is a *set of values* together with a *set of operations* allowed
for these values.

For reals, it is preferable to use the type `double` (double precision)
(used by library functions: `sin`, `cos`, `exp`, etc.)

Integers and reals

Numeric types differ in C and mathematics.

In mathematics: $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}$, both are infinite, \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

In C: `int`, `float`, `double` are finite (have limited range);
reals have finite precision.

Important to remember this! (overflows, precision loss)

The type of numeric *constants* depends on their writing

2 is an integer, 2.0 is a real

scientific notation for reals: 1.0e-3 instead of 0.001

writing 1.0 or 1. is equivalent, same for 0.1 and .1

Mathematical operators

+ - * /

Multiplication is written explicitly !

we can't write $2x$, but $2 * x$ (or $x * 2$)

Some operators have different meanings (and results!) for integers and reals:

Integer division has an *integer result* !!! (division with remainder)

$7 / 2$ is 3, but $7.0 / 2.0$ is 3.5

$-7 / 2$ is -3, likewise $-(7 / 2)$

(integer division truncates towards zero)

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The *modulo* operator % is only defined for integers.

$$\begin{array}{l|l|l|l} 9 / 5 = 1 & 9 \% 5 = 4 & 9 / -5 = -1 & 9 \% -5 = 4 \\ -9 / 5 = -1 & -9 \% 5 = -4 & -9 / -5 = 1 & -9 \% -5 = -4 \end{array}$$

The sign of the remainder is the same as the sign of the dividend.

Rule for integer division: $a = a / b * b + a \% b$

Some terminology

Keywords: have a predefined meaning (cannot be changed)

Examples: statements (`return`), types (`int`, `float`, `double`)

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Identifiers (e.g. `sqr`, `x`) chosen by the programmer to name functions, parameters, variables, etc.

An identifier is a sequence of characters comprised of letters (upper and lower case), underscore `_` and digits which does not start with a digit and is not a keyword.

Examples: `x3`, `a12_34`, `_exit`, `main`, `printf`, `int16_t`

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Constants

integer: -2; floating point: 3.14; character: 'a', string: "a"

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Punctuation signs, with various meanings:

- * is an operator

- ; terminates a statement

- parentheses () around an expression or function parameters

- braces { } group declarations or statements

Functions with several parameters

Example: the discriminant of a quadratic equation:

$$a \cdot x^2 + b \cdot x + c = 0$$

```
float discrim(float a, float b, float c)
{
    return b * b - 4 * a * c;
}
```

Between the parantheses () of the function header there can be arbitrary comma-separated parameters, each with its own type.

Function call (function evaluation)

So far, we have only *defined* functions, without using them.

The value of a function can be *used* in an expression.

Syntax: like in mathematics: *function(param, param, ..., param)*

Example: in the discriminant, we could use the `sqr` function:

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return sqr(b) - 4 * a * c;
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Or, using the previously defined `sqr` function we can define:

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int cube(int x)
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IMPORTANT: In C, any identifier must be *declared before use* (we must know what it represents, including its type)

⇒ The above examples assume that `sqr` and `sqr` are defined *before* `discrim` and `cube` respectively in the program.

A first C program

```
int main(void)
{
    return 0;
}
```

The smallest program: it does not do anything!

Any program contains the *main* function and is executed by calling it at program start. In `main`, other functions may be called.

Here, `main` does not have any parameters (`void`)

`void` is a keyword for the empty type (without any element)

`main` returns an integer, interpreted as exit status by the operating system:

0 = successful termination, $\neq 0$ is an error code

A commented program

```
/* This is a comment */  
int main(void) // comment to end of line  
{  
    /* This is a comment spanning several lines  
       usually, the program code would be here */  
    return 0;  
}
```

Programs may contain comments, placed between `/*` and `*/` or starting with `//` until (and excluding) the end of the line. Comments are stripped by the preprocessor.

They have no effect on code generation or program execution.

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Programs *should be* commented

- so a reader can understand (including the writer, at a later time) as documentation (may specify functionality, restrictions, etc.)
- explain function parameters, result, local variables
- specify preconditions, postconditions, error behavior

Printing (writing)

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    printf("hello, world!\n"); // prints a text
    return 0;
}
```

printf (from "print formatted"): a standard library function
is NOT a *statement* or a *keyword*
is called here with one string parameter
string constants are written with double quotes " "
\n denotes the newline character

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\n denotes the newline character

The first line is a *preprocessing directive*, it includes the `stdio.h`
header file which contains the *declarations* of the standard
input/output functions

Declaration = type, name, parameters: needed to use the function
Implementation (compiled object code): in a *library* which is linked
at compile-time, loaded at execution time

Printing numbers

```
#include <math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    printf("cos(0) = ");
    printf("%f", cos(0));
    return 0;
}
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
int sqr (int x) { return x * x; }
int main(void)
{
    printf("2 times -3 squared is ");
    printf("%d", 2 * sqr(-3));
    return 0;
}
```

To print the value of an expression, `printf` takes two arguments:

- a character string (format specifier):

 - `%d` or `%i` (*decimal integer*), `%f` (*floating point*)

- the expression; type must be compatible with the specified one (programmer must check! compiler may warn or not)

Sequencing: in function, statements are executed in textual order
But: `return` statement ends function execution (no further statement is executed)

Printing

We cannot print a number like this: `printf(5)`

We can write `printf("5")` but this means printing a *string*
(although the effect is the same: one character printed)

The first argument of `printf` must always be a string
with or without format specifiers (special characters)

Understanding how functions work

Two distinct things:

function *definition*: `int sqr(int x) { ... }`

function *call*: `sqr(2)`, `sqr(a)`, etc.

Function definitions use *names* (of parameters, variables, etc.)

Function calls work with *values* (2, the *value* of a, etc.)
(they do *not* compute with symbolic expressions)

Understanding the function call

This program computes $2^6 = (2 \cdot 2^2)^2$

```
#include <stdio.h>
int sqr(int x)
{
    printf("the square of %d is %d\n", x, x*x);
    return x * x;
}
int main(void)
{
    printf("2 to the 6th is %d\n", sqr(2 * sqr(2)));
    return 0;
}
```

What is the order of printed statements ?

the square of 2 is 4

the square of 8 is 64

2 to the 6th is 64

C uses call by value

In C, function arguments are passed *by value*.

all function arguments are *evaluated* (their value is computed)
values are assigned to the *formal parameters* (names from the
function header)

then, function is *called* and executes with these values

This type of argument passing is named *call by value*.

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The program starts executing main. The first statement:

```
printf("2 to the 6th is %d\n", sqr(2 * sqr(2)));
```

Before doing the call, printf needs the *values of its arguments*

first argument: the value is known (a *string constant*)

second argument: need to call `sqr(2 * sqr(2))`

BUT: the outer `sqr` also needs the value of its argument

`2 * sqr(2)` \Rightarrow need to call `sqr(2)` first

\Rightarrow call order: first `sqr(2)`, then `sqr(8)`, then `printf`

Errors in understanding function evaluation

C does **NOT** do the following (other languages might...)

Functions do **NOT** start execution without computer arguments

`printf` would print 2 to the 6th is , then need the value
it would call the outer `sqr` that writes the square of,
then would need `x`

it would call `sqr(2)`, write the square of 2 is 4, return 4,
etc.

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etc.

Function parameters are **NOT** substituted with *expressions*

`printf` would call the outer `sqr` with the *expression* `2 * sqr(2)`
`sqr(2)` would be called twice for `(2*sqr(2))*(2*sqr(2))`

⇒ in C, a function computes with *values*, never with *expressions*

Functions defined by cases

$$abs : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \quad abs(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{otherwise } (x < 0) \end{cases}$$

The function value is not given by a *single* expression, but by one of two different expressions (x or $-x$), depending on a condition ($x \geq 0$)

\Rightarrow need a language construct that to *decide* which expression to evaluate, based on a *condition* (true/false)

The conditional operator ? :

Syntax of *conditional expression*: *condition ? expr1 : expr2*

– if the condition is true, only *expr1* is evaluated, its value becomes the result of the entire expression

– if the condition is false, only *expr2* is evaluated and its value becomes the value of the expression

```
int abs(int x)
{
    return x >= 0 ? x : -x;    // unary minus operator
}
```

Comparison operators: == (equality), != (different), <, <=, >, >=

IMPORTANT! The equality test in C is == and not simple = !!!

Note: abs exists as standard function, declared in `stdlib.h`

Functions defined by several cases

$$\text{sgn} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \{-1, 0, 1\} \quad \text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & x < 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \\ 1 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

The conditional operator has only *one* condition, and *two* branches

But: either of the expressions can be arbitrarily complex

⇒ must decompose the decision based on the value of x

⇒ *decompose into smaller subproblems*: key in problem solving

We rewrite the function with a single decision at any given point:

$$\text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} \text{if } x < 0 & -1 \\ \text{else } (x \geq 0) & \begin{cases} \text{if } x = 0 & 0 \\ \text{else } (x > 0) & 1 \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

Writing the case-based function in C

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```
int sgn (int x)
{
    return x < 0 ? -1
           : x == 0 ? 0 : 1;
}
```

We can group arbitrarily many conditional operators `?` `:`
`expr1` and `expr2` can be in turn conditional expressions
A correctly written expression has a `:` for any `?`
(think of `:` as linking a *pair* of answers)

Decomposing into simpler problems

The minimum of two numbers is easily written:

```
double min2(double x, double y)
{
    return x < y ? x : y;
}
```

For the minimum of *three* numbers, the comparisons multiply:

$$\min3(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} \text{if } x < y & \begin{cases} \text{if } x < z & \mathbf{x} \\ \text{else } (x \geq z) & \mathbf{z} \end{cases} \\ \text{else } (x \geq y) & \begin{cases} \text{if } y < z & \mathbf{y} \\ \text{else } (y \geq z) & \mathbf{z} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

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We notice the structure of `min2` is repeated \Rightarrow can do it simpler:
The result is the minimum between the minimum of the first two numbers and the third. \Rightarrow just apply `min2` twice!

```
double min3(double x, double y, double z)
{
    return min2(min2(x, y), z); // or min2(x, min2(y, z))
}
```


Recursion

Recursion: definition, examples

From mathematics, we know recurrence relations for *sequences*:

arithmetic sequence:
$$\begin{cases} x_0 = b & \text{(i.e.: } x_n = b \text{ for } n = 0) \\ x_n = x_{n-1} + r & \text{for } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

Example: 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, ... ($b = 1, r = 3$)

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geometric sequence:
$$\begin{cases} x_0 = b & \text{(i.e.: } x_n = b \text{ for } n = 0) \\ x_n = x_{n-1} \cdot r & \text{for } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

Example: 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, ... ($b = 3, r = 2$)

x_n is not computed *directly*, but *step by step*, using x_{n-1} .

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A notion is *recursive* if it is *used in its own definition*.

Exercise: write recurrences for: C_n^k , Fibonacci sequence, ...

Recursion: definition, examples

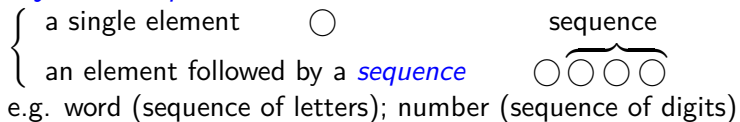
Recursion is fundamental in computer science:
it reduces a problem to a simpler case of the *same* problem

objects: a *sequence* is

{ a single element ○

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e.g. word (sequence of letters); number (sequence of digits)



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An *expression*:

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{number (7)} \\ \text{identifier (x)} \\ \textit{expression} + \textit{expression} \\ \textit{expression} - \textit{expression} \\ (\textit{expression}), \text{ etc} \end{array} \right.$

Example: power function

$$x^n = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0 \\ x \cdot x^{n-1} & \text{otherwise } (n > 0) \end{cases}$$

```
#include <stdio.h>
double pwr(double x, unsigned n)
{
    return n==0 ? 1 : x * pwr(x, n-1);
}
int main(void)
{
    printf("-2 raised to 3 = %f\n", pwr(-2.0, 3));
    return 0;
}
```


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}
```

unsigned: type of nonnegative integers (natural numbers)

The *header* of `pwr` is a *declaration* of the function
so it can be used in its own function body (recursive call)

Even if we write `pwr(-2, 3)`, `-2` (int) will be *converted* to float
(the type declared for each parameter is known)

The mechanism of a recursive call

The `pwr` function does two computations:

- a *test* (`n == 0` ? *base case* ?) if so, return 1
- else, a multiply; the right operand requires a *new recursive call*

```
pwr(5, 3)
  call↓↑125
    5 * pwr(5, 2)
      call↓↑25
        5 * pwr(5, 1)
          call↓↑5
            5 * pwr(5, 0)
              call↓↑1
                1
```

The mechanism of a recursive call

In the recursive computation of the power function:

Every call makes *a new call*, until the base case it reached

Every call executes *the same code*, but with *other data*
(own values for parameters)

When reaching the base case, all started calls are still *unfinished*
(each has to perform the multiplication with the result of the call)

Returning is done *in opposite order* of the calls
(call with exponent 0 returns, then the one with exponent 1, etc.)

Recursion: power by repeated squaring

Recursion = reduction to a *simpler* case of the *same* problem

Base case is simple enough for direct computation

(can / need no longer be reduced)

$$x^n = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0 \\ (x^2)^{n/2} & n > 0 \text{ even} \\ x \cdot (x^2)^{n/2} & n > 0 \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

```
double pow2(double x, unsigned n)
{
    return n == 0 ? 1
        : n % 2 == 0 ? pow2(x*x, n/2)
        : x * pow2(x*x, n/2);
}
```

Let's follow the recursive calls

```
#include <stdio.h>

double pow2(double x, unsigned n)
{
    printf("base %f exponent %u\n", x, n);
    return n == 0 ? 1
           : n % 2 == 0 ? pow2(x*x, n/2)
           : x * pow2(x*x, n/2);
}

int main(void)
{
    printf("5 to the 6th = %f\n", pow2(5, 6));
    return 0;
}
```

Each call halves the exponent $\Rightarrow 1 + \lceil \log_2 n \rceil$ calls
 $\text{pow2}(5, 6) \rightarrow \text{pow2}(25, 3) \rightarrow \text{pow2}(625, 1)$

How to use recursion

Recursion solves a problem by reducing it to a simpler case of the same problem.

To use recursion, we must express the problem as a *function*
things given/known to the function are *parameters*
(index of recursive sequence; problem size; etc.)
the answer to the problem is the function *result*

Sometimes, the problem asks to *produce an effect* (print)
rather than compute a result.

Block statements and sequencing

A function body may have several statements *in sequence*

```
{
  printf("This is a line\n");
  printf("Line 2: ");
  printf("cos(0)=%f\n", cos(0));
  return 0;
}
```

{
statement
...
statement
}

Function returns on reaching closing brace OR **return** statement.

More generally, a *block* (compound statement) can appear in place of any statement.

This is an example of *recursion* in the *definition of statements*:

```
statement ::= return expressionoptional ;  
           expressionoptional ;      (incl. function call)  
           { statement ... statement }
```

The if statement

Conditional operator ? : selects from two *expressions* to evaluate

Conditional statement selects between two *statements* to execute

Syntax:

```
if ( expression )           or   if ( expression )
    statement1                statement1
else
    statement2
```

Effect:

If the expression is *true* (nonzero) *statement1* is executed,
else *statement2* is executed (or nothing, if the latter is missing)

Each branch has only *one* statement. If several statements are
needed, these must be grouped in a *compound statement* { }

The *parentheses* () around the condition are mandatory.

Example with the if statement

Printing roots of a quadratic equation:

```
void printsol(double a, double b, double c)
{
    double delta = b * b - 4 * a * c;
    if (delta >= 0) {
        printf("root 1: %f\n", (-b-sqrt(delta))/2/a);
        printf("root 2: %f\n", (-b+sqrt(delta))/2/a);
    } else printf("no solution\n"); // puts("no solution");
}
```

Can rewrite the *conditional operator* ? : using the *if statement*

```
int abs(int x)
{
    return x > 0 ? x : -x;
}

int abs(int x)
{
    if (x > 0) return x;
    else return -x;
}
```

Recursion: Fibonacci words

Fibonacci sequence: $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ for $n > 1$
inefficient to do direct recursion (exercise: how many calls?)

Can define Fibonacci words (strings):

$S_0 = 0, S_1 = 01, S_n = S_{n-1}S_{n-2}$
(formed by string *concatenation*)

Write a function that prints S_n

problem = function; effect = print; concatenation = ???

More recursion: fractals

Fractals are *self-similar* figures

(a part of the figure looks like the whole figure = recursion!)

Box fractal:



More recursion: fractals

Fractals are *self-similar* figures

(a part of the figure looks like the whole figure = recursion!)

Box fractal:



What is the base case?

What defines a part of the figure?