

# 2IP15 Programming Methods

## From Small to Large Programs

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# Overview

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- Eliminate recursion by a loop; in general, requires a stack
- Transforming a while loop into (tail) recursion
- Eliminate tail recursion by a loop
- Generating combinatorial objects: backtracking
- Operating on recursive data structures (lists, trees, ...)
- Parsing structured texts
- Generic type definitions, type parameters

## Definition and Classification of Recursion

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In preceding lecture:

- Static call graph concerns program *text*
- Direct, indirect, and mutual recursion (syntactic notions)
- Dynamic call graph concerns program *execution*

Conforms to static call graph.

Is a tree (no cycles).

Can differ from run to run, depending on input/parameters.

- Bound function is used to argue about termination

## Degenerate Recursion

---

```
1 /** @bound 0 */
2 void bogus () {
3     if (false) {
4         bogus (); // never called
5     }
6 }
7
8 /** @bound 0 if 0 <= n else 1 */
9 void printAbs(int n) {
10     if (0 <= n) { // What if condition would be 0 < n ?
11         System.out.println(n);
12     } else { // n < 0
13         printAbs(-n);
14     }
15 }
```

## Further Classification of Recursion

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Given a recursively defined function  $f$ :

- **Linear recursion**: dynamic call graph of  $f$  is linear w.r.t.  $f$   
Each call of  $f$  gives rise to *at most one* direct other call of  $f$ .
- **Branching recursion**: dynamic call graph of  $f$  branches w.r.t.  $f$   
Some calls of  $f$  may give rise to *multiple* direct other calls of  $f$ .

Independent of number of syntactic occurrences of recursive calls.

Multiple syntactic occurrences could be linear recursion (**if else**).

Single syntactic occurrence could be branching recursion (inside loop).

## Tail Recursion

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**Tail recursive call**: A recursive call that occurs as last action before the method body returns.

N.B. `fac` of preceding lecture is *not* tail recursive, because in

```
return n * fac(n - 1);
```

the part `n *` is executed *after* `fac(n - 1)` returns.

**Tail recursion**: when each recursive call is tail recursive.

This is a form of linear recursion.

Tail recursion is special, because it can easily be transformed into a loop without using a stack.

## Eliminating a while loop by recursion

---

```
while (Cond) {  
    Body;  
}  
Fini;
```

can be transformed into the call `whileRec()`; where

```
void whileRec() {  
    if (! Cond) {  
        Fini;  
    } else {  
        Body;  
        whileRec();  
    }  
}
```

This is **tail recursion**: the recursive call is the last action.  
N.B. It is often useful to introduce suitable parameters.

## Trade-off between Loop and Recursion

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- Loops and recursion are 'equally expressive'.  
You can program the same things with them.
- Some problems are easier to solve and implement by recursion.  
For others, a loop is more 'natural'.
- Recursion incurs overhead:  
Method call with parameter/return-value passing costs time.  
Stack frames cost memory; depends on maximum recursion depth.
- In (pure) Functional Programming there are no variables and loops, only parameters and recursion.



## Eliminating void tail recursion by a while loop

---

```
void tailRec() {  
    if (Cond) {  
        Base; // does not call tailRec()  
    } else {  
        Step; // does not call tailRec()  
        tailRec();  
    }  
}
```

The work done looks like: Step; Step; ...; Step; Base;  
The call tailRec(); can be transformed into the loop

```
while (! Cond) {  
    Step;  
}  
Base;
```

## Eliminating parameterized void tail recursion by a while loop

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```
void tailRec(T t) {
    if (Cond(t)) {
        Base(t);
    } else {
        Step(t);
        if (B(t)) tailRec(E); else tailRec(F);
    }
}
```

The call `tailRec(v)`; can be transformed into call `nonRec(v)`, where:

```
void nonRec(T t);
    while (! Cond(t)) {
        Step(t);
        if (B(t)) t = E; else t = F;
    }
    Base(t);
}
```

## Eliminating non-void tail recursion by a while loop

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```
T tailRec(T t) {
    if (Cond(t)) {
        return Base(t);
    } else {
        Step(t);
        if (B(t)) return tailRec(E); else return tailRec(F);
    }
}
```

The call `tailRec(v)` can be transformed into call `nonRec(v)`, where

```
T nonRec(T t) {
    while (! Cond(t)) {
        Step(t);
        if (B(t)) t = E; else t = F;
    }
    return Base(t);
}
```

## Example of transforming non-tail recursion into tail recursion

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre      0 <= n
3  * @return  n factorial
4  * @bound   n
5  */
6 public static long fac(int n) {
7     if (n == 0) {
8         return 1;
9     } else { // 0 < n
10        return n * fac(n - 1);
11    }
12 }
```

Also see `Recursion2.java`.

## Transforming non-tail recursion into tail recursion

---

Generalize the expression  $n * \text{fac}(n - 1)$  as  $b * \text{fac}(a)$

That is, the subexpressions  $n$  and  $n - 1$  are *decoupled*.

Give it a name (*overloading*):  $\text{fac}(a, b) = b * \text{fac}(a)$

The original problem is a *special case*:  $\text{fac}(n) = \text{fac}(n, 1)$

## Derive recurrence relation: Base case

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{fac}(0, b) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Def. of generalized } \text{fac}(\mathbf{int}, \mathbf{int}) \} \\ & b * \text{fac}(0) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Def. of original } \text{fac}(\mathbf{int}), \text{ base case} \} \\ & b * 1 \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Unit of } * \} \\ & b \end{aligned}$$

## Derive recurrence relation: Inductive step

---

For  $0 < n$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{fac}(n, b) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Def. of generalized } \text{fac}(\mathbf{int}, \mathbf{int}) \} \\ & b * \text{fac}(n) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Def. of original } \text{fac}(\mathbf{int}), \text{ inductive step, using } 0 < n \} \\ & b * (n * \text{fac}(n - 1)) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Associativity of } * \} \\ & (b * n) * \text{fac}(n - 1) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{Def. of generalized } \text{fac}(\mathbf{int}, \mathbf{int}) \} \\ & \text{fac}(n - 1, b * n) \end{aligned}$$

The last equality is where we see that the generalization ‘works’.

## Tail recursive version of fac(n, b)

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre      0 <= n
3  * @return  b times (n factorial)
4  * @bound   n
5  */
6 public static long fac(int n, long b) {
7     if (n == 0) {
8         return b;
9     } else { // 0 < n
10        return fac(n - 1, b * n);
11    }
12 }
```

Parameter b is called an **accumulation parameter**.



## Iterative version of fac(n, b)

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre      0 <= n
3  * @return  b times (n factorial)
4  * @bound   n
5  */
6 public static long facIter(int n, long b) {
7     while (n != 0) {
8         b = b * n; // Mind the order!
9         n = n - 1; // No multi-assignment in Java
10    }
11    return b;
12 }
```

## Iterative version of `fac(n) == fac(n, 1)`

---

Turn accumulation parameter into a local variable:

```
1 /**
2  * @pre      0 <= n
3  * @return  n factorial
4  * @bound   n
5  */
6 public static long facIter(int n) {
7     long b = 1;
8     while (n != 0) {
9         b = b * n;
10        n = n - 1;
11    }
12    return b;
13 }
```

## Recursion: Some Observations

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- Recursion is a special case of **Divide & Conquer**:  
Decompose a problem into simpler version(s) of itself
- Recursion cannot be mastered by **operational reasoning**  
about what happens in the machine during execution
- Recursion can be mastered by **contractual reasoning**  
about what the contract requires (`@pre`) and ensures (`@post`)

## Combinatorial Objects: Bit Patterns

---

All bit patterns of length 3:

0 0 0

0 0 1

0 1 0

0 1 1

1 0 0

1 0 1

1 1 0

1 1 1

How to generate with a program?

## Bit Patterns of Length 3: Nested for loops

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre true
3  * @post each 3-bit pattern has been printed exactly once
4  */
5 public static void generateAll3BitPatterns() { // Not recursive
6     for (int b2 = 0; b2 <= 1; ++ b2) {
7         for (int b1 = 0; b1 <= 1; ++ b1) {
8             for (int b0 = 0; b0 <= 1; ++ b0) {
9                 System.out.println ( "" + b2 + b1 + b0 );
10            }
11        }
12    }
13 }
```

How to generate all bit patterns of length  $N$  (parameter)?

Variable number of nested **for** loops?

## Recursive Nature of Bit Patterns of Length $n$

---

0		0	0			1		0	0
0		0	1			1		0	1
0		1	0			1		1	0
0		1	1			1		1	1

**Base case:** When  $n = 0$ , there is one such pattern (empty string)

**Step:** When  $0 < n$ , all  $n$ -bit patterns are the union of:

- a 0 followed by each of the  $(n - 1)$ -bit patterns
- a 1 followed by each of the  $(n - 1)$ -bit patterns

Generalized problem: print `String s` followed by each  $n$ -bit pattern.  
(`s` is an accumulation parameter)

## Bit Patterns of Length $n$ : Recursive Routine

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre    0 <= n
3  * @post  each bit pattern with prefix s and n additional bits
4  *        (that is, s.length()+n bits) has been printed exactly once
5  * @bound n
6  */
7 public static void generate(String s, int n) {
8     if (n == 0) { // base case
9         System.out.println(s);
10    } else { // 0 < n, inductive step
11        for (int b = 0; b <= 1; ++ b) {
12            // pre: 0 <= n - 1; bound: n - 1 < n
13            generate(s + b, n - 1);
14        }
15    }
16 }
```

Branching recursion with single syntactic occurrence of recursive call

## Bit Patterns of Length $n$ : Initial Call

---

```
generate ( "", 5 )
```

In a way, this involves a variable number of nested **for** loops.

Running time grows **exponentially** with recursion depth.

Memory overhead (in stack frames) grows **linearly**.

---

Note that the string and integer parameter are repeatedly passed on.

This involves a lot of superfluous copying, which can be suppressed (via global variables, but that falls outside the scope of this course).

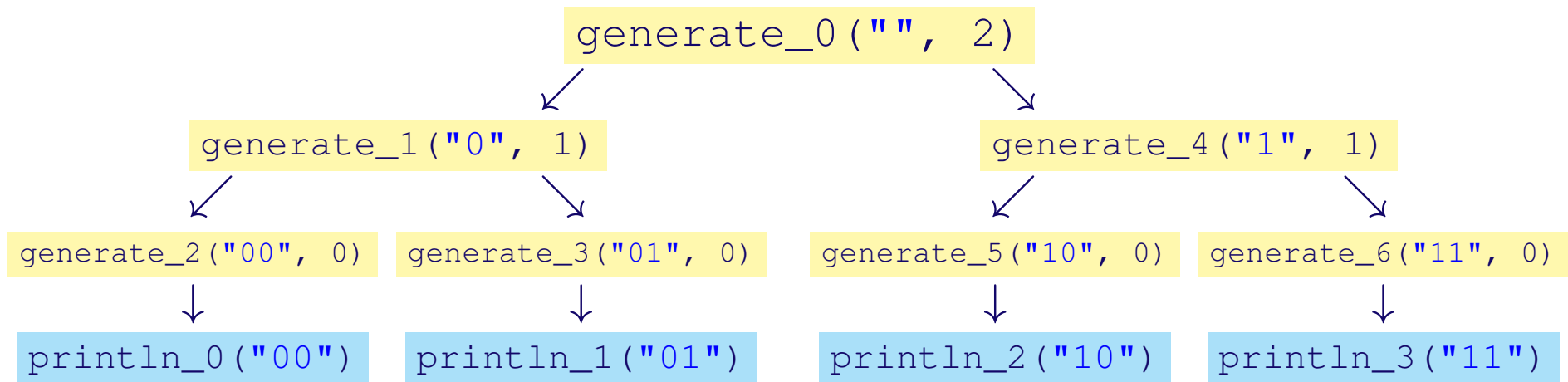


# Dynamic Call Tree

**Dynamic call tree** of an *execution* of program  $P$ :

- **Nodes**: routine *calls* in execution of  $P$ .
- **Arrows**:  $q \rightarrow r$  where execution of call  $q$  results in execution of call  $r$ .

Example for bit patterns with  $n = 2$ :



## Bit Patterns of Length $n$ with $k \leq n$ 1's by Filtering

---

Generate all  $n$ -bit patterns and *filter* out unwanted patterns.

```
1 /**
2  * @pre    0 <= n && 0 <= k && m == (\num_of i; s.has(i); s.charAt(i) == '1')
3  * @post   each bit pattern with prefix s and n additional bits,
4  *         having k 1's, has been printed exactly once
5  * @bound n
6  */
7 public static void generate(String s, int n, int k, int m) { // Inefficient
8     if (n == 0) { // base case: all bits are there
9         if (m == k) { // keep the desired patterns
10            System.out.println(s);
11        } else { /* m != k: drop the others */ }
12    } else { // 0 < n, inductive step: extend by one bit b
13        for (int b = 0; b <= 1; ++ b) {
14            generate(s + b, n - 1, k, m + b);
15        }
16    }
17 }
```

## Bit Patterns of Length $n$ with $k \leq n$ 1's by Filtering

---

In general, filtering is inefficient:

- The number of  $n$ -bit patterns is  $2^n$ .

This is exponential in  $n$ .

- The number of  $n$ -bit patterns with  $k$  1's is  $\binom{n}{k}$ .

This is polynomial in  $n$  for fixed  $k$ .

E.g.  $\binom{n}{2} = n(n-1)/2$  is quadratic; much less than exponential

Better: filter earlier, and generate only useful prefixes.

Cf. **Branch & Bound**

## Bit Patterns of Length $n$ with $k \leq n$ 1's: Filter Earlier

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre    0 <= k <= n
3  * @post  each bit pattern with prefix s and n additional bits,
4  *        of which k 1's, has been printed exactly once
5  * @bound n
6  */
7 public static void generateA(String s, int n, int k) {
8     if (n == 0) { // k == 0, base case
9         System.out.println(s);
10    } else { // 0 < n, inductive step
11        if (k <= n - 1) { // can afford a 0
12            generate(s + 0, n - 1, k);
13        }
14        if (1 <= k) { // can afford a 1
15            generate(s + 1, n - 1, k - 1);
16        }
17    }
18 }
```

## Bit Patterns of Length $n$ with $k \leq n$ 1's: Filter Earlier (2)

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre    0 <= k <= n
3  * @post  each bit pattern with prefix s and n additional bits,
4  *        of which k 1's, has been printed exactly once
5  * @bound n
6  */
7 public static void generate(String s, int n, int k) {
8     if (n == 0) { // k == 0, base case
9         System.out.println(s);
10    } else { // 0 < n, inductive step
11        for (int b = 0; b <= 1; ++ b) {
12            if (0 <= k - b && k - b <= n - 1) {
13                generate(s + b, n - 1, k - b);
14            }
15        }
16    }
17 }
```

## Recursive methods on recursive data structures

---

A natural use of recursive methods is on recursive data structures.

**List**: a list is either empty, or a pair of a value and a list

**Tree**: a tree is either empty, or a value and a tuple of trees

Java allows recursive data type definitions:

```
1 public class BinaryTree<E> {  
2     BinaryTree<E> left;  
3     BinaryTree<E> right;  
4     E value;  
5 }
```

**null** can serve as base case, representing the empty tree Rep invariant should exclude cycles and sharing (aliasing)

## Backtracking

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- Speculative technique to search through a state space.
- Recursive implementation for Binary Puzzle Assistant:
  1. Find an open cell  $c$ . If not found: solved (base case).
  2. For each possible cell state  $s$ , set  $c$  to  $s$ , apply “strategies”, and if state still valid, solve remainder recursively.  
Bound: number of open cells
- Implementation variations:
  - Copy entire state (onto the stack) for each recursive call.  
Undo is “automatic” by falling back to earlier stored state.
  - Maintain state in global variable, and modify it: do-undo.  
Here, the Command Pattern can be used.

## Parsing nested parentheses

---

( ( ) )

( ( ) ( ) ) ( )

) (

( ( ) ( )

Iterative solution: count number of unclosed parentheses read so far

This count may never be *negative* and should end at *zero*.

The counter can be viewed as a very primitive stack (with *tallies*).



## Parsing nested parentheses recursively

---

A well-nested parenthesis expression  $E$  is

- either `empty`,
- or `( E ) E`

See `Recursion2.java`

```
1 /**
2  * @pre true
3  * @return whether s is a well-nested () expression
4  */
5 public static boolean isWellNested(String s)
```

## Parsing nested parentheses: Generalized specification

---

```
1 /**
2  * @pre    0 <= i <= s.length()
3  * @post   i <= \result <= s.length() &&
4  *        s.substring(i, \result) is a maximal well-nested () expression,
5  *        appearing from index i onward in s, if no exception
6  * @throw  ParseException if maximal parsed prefix cannot be completed
7  * @bound  s.length() - i
8  */
9 public static int parseNested(String s, int i)
10         throws ParseException
```

## Parsing nested parentheses: Using the Generalization

---

```
1 public static boolean isWellNested(String s)
2 {
3     try {
4         int i = parseNested(s, 0);
5         System.out.println("Correct up to index " + i);
6         return i == s.length();
7     } catch (ParseException e) {
8         System.out.println(e);
9         return false;
10    }
11 }
```

## Recursive implementation of `parseNested(String s, int i)`

---

```
1  if (s.length() == i) { // nothing remains beyond i
2      return i;
3  }
4  // 0 <= i < s.length()
5  if (s.charAt(i) == '(') {
6      char exp = ')'; // next character expected
7      // bound: s.length() - (i + 1) < \old(s.length() - i)
8      i = parseNested(s, i + 1);
9      if (i == s.length() || s.charAt(i) != exp) {
10         throw new ParseException("Expected " + exp + " at index " + i);
11     }
12     // i < s.length() && s.charAt(i) == exp, skip and parse remainder
13     // bound: s.length() - (i + 1) < \old(s.length() - i)
14     return parseNested(s, i + 1);
15 } else { // s.charAt(i) != '('
16     return i;
17 }
```

## Parsing multiple kinds of nested parentheses

---

( [ ] )

[ ( ) ]

( [ ] )

A well-nested multi-parenthesis expression  $E$  is one of

- $empty$
- $( E ) E$
- $[ E ] E$
- $\{ E \} E$

## Generic Type Definitions: Overview

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- Example in JCF: `List<E>` is a generic type definition

`E` is a formal type parameter

- Usage: Substitute concrete type for formal type parameter

Examples: `List<String>`, `List<Set<Integer>>`

Auto boxing, unboxing: `int` ↔ `Integer`

- Definition: formal type parameter is used in definition as a type

```
public class Pair<A, B> {  
    public A a;  
    public B b;  
}
```

## Generic Type Definitions: Motivation

---

- Pre-Java 5: List involves list of Object

User responsible for proper typing

```
List list = new ArrayList(); // intended as list of integers
list.add( "okay" ); // no complaint, but unintended
list.add( 42 );
int i = (Integer)list.get(1); // cast needed
```

Java 5 and beyond: User can indicate intention to compiler

- `List<Integer> list = new ArrayList<Integer>();`  
`list.add( "okay" ); // compile error`  
`list.add( 42 );`  
`int i = list.get(1); // no cast needed`

## Generic Type Definitions: Complications

---

- If  $U$  is a subtype of  $T$ , then  $C\langle U \rangle$  is *not* a subtype of  $C\langle T \rangle$

Method **void** `m(List<Object> list)`

cannot be called as `m(new ArrayList<String>)`

- Wildcards:

- $C\langle ? \rangle$ : any  $C\langle U \rangle$  is a subtype

- $C\langle ? \text{ extends } T \rangle$ :  $C\langle U \rangle$  is subtype if  $U \text{ extends } T$

- $C\langle ? \text{ super } T \rangle$ :  $C\langle S \rangle$  is subtype if  $T \text{ extends } S$

See: [docs.oracle.com/javase/tutorial/extra/generics/morefun.html](https://docs.oracle.com/javase/tutorial/extra/generics/morefun.html)



## Assignment: Define Generic Relation<A, B>

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Not required, see peach<sup>3</sup>

# Summary

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- Linear, Tail, Branching recursion
- Transformations between tail recursion and loops
- Generate combinatorial objects: backtracking
- Parse structured text
- Generic type definitions, type parameters