# Lecture 26: Recursion, <br> Arrays, and Vectors 

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### 6.20 Example Using Recursion: <br> Filoonacci Series

- The Fibonacci series

- begins with 0 and 1 and has the property that each subsequent Fibonacci number is the sum of the previous two Fibonacci numbers.
- The series occurs in nature and, in particular, describes a form of spiral.
- The ratio of successive Fibonacci numbers converges on a constant value of 1.618....
- This number, too, frequently occurs in nature and has been called the golden ratio or the golden mean.


## Flbonacci Series (cont.)

- The Fibonacci series can be defined recursively as follows:
- fibonacci(D) =
fibonacci(l) = l
fibonacci(n) = fibonacci(n - l) + fibonacci (n - ᄅ)
- The program of Fig. 6.30 calculates the $n t h$ Fibonacci number recursively by using function fibonacci.

```
// Fig. 6.30: fig06_30.cpp
// Testing the recursive fibonacci function.
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
unsigned long fibonacci( unsigned long ); // function prototype
int main()
{
    // calculate the fibonacci values of 0 through 10
    for ( int counter = 0; counter <= 10; counter++ )
        cout << "fibonacci( " << counter << " ) = "
                << fibonacci( counter ) << endl;
    // display higher fibonacci values
        cout << "fibonacci( 20 ) = " << fibonacci( 20 ) << endl;
    cout << "fibonacci( 30 ) = " << fibonacci( 30 ) << endl;
    cout << "fibonacci( 35 ) = " << fibonacci( 35 ) << endl;
    } // end main
```

20

Fig. 6.30 | Demonstrating function fibonacci. (Part I of 2.)

```
2I // recursive function fibonacci
22 unsigned long fibonacci( unsigned long number )
fibonacci( 0 ) \(=0\)
fibonacci( 1 ) = 1
fibonacci( 2 ) = 1
fibonacci( 3 ) = 2
fibonacci( 4 ) = 3
fibonacci( 5 ) = 5
fibonacci( 6 ) \(=8\)
fibonacci( 7 ) \(=13\)
fibonacci( 8 ) = 21
fibonacci( 9 ) = 34
fibonacci( 10 ) = 55
fibonacci( 20 ) = 6765
fibonacci( 30 ) = 832040
fibonacci ( 35 ) \(=9227465\)

Fig. \(6.30 \mid\) Demonstrating function fibonacci. (Part 2 of 2.)

\section*{Flloonacci Series (conti)}
- Figure 6.31 shows how function fibonacci would evaluate fibonacci (3).
- This figure raises some interesting issues about the order in which \(\mathrm{C}++\) compilers evaluate the operands of operators.
- This is a separate issue from the order in which operators are applied to their operands, namely, the order dictated by the rules of operator precedence and associativity.
- Most programmers simply assume that operands are evaluated left to right.
- \(\mathrm{C}++\) does not specify the order in which the operands of most operators (including +) are to be evaluated.
- Therefore, you must make no as-sumption about the order in which these calls execute.


Fig. 6.31 | Set of recursive calls to function fibonacci.

\section*{Performance Tip 6.8}

Avoid Fibonacci-style recursive programs that result in an exponential "explosion" of calls.

\section*{(6.21 Recursion ve. Iteration}
- Both iteration and recursion are based on a control statement: Iteration uses a repetition structure; recursion uses a selection structure.
- Both iteration and recursion involve repetition: Iteration explicitly uses a repetition structure; recursion achieves repetition through repeated function calls.
- Iteration and recursion both involve a termination test: Iteration terminates when the loop-continuation condition fails; recursion terminates when a base case is recognized.

\section*{6. 21 Recursion vs. Iteration (cont)}
- Iteration with counter-controlled repetition and recursion both gradually approach termination: Iteration modifies a counter until the counter assumes a value that makes the loop-continuation condition fail; recursion produces simpler versions of the original problem until the base case is reached.
- Both it-eration and recursion can occur infinitely: An infinite loop occurs with iteration if the loop-continuation test never becomes false; infinite recursion occurs if the recursion step does not reduce the problem during each recursive call in a manner that converges on the base case.
```

// Fig. 6.32: fig06_32.cpp
// Testing the iterative factorial function.
\#include <iostream>
\#include <iomanip>
using namespace std;
unsigned long factorial( unsigned long ); // function prototype
int main()
{
// calculate the factorials of 0 through 10
for ( int counter = 0; counter <= 10; counter++ )
cout << setw( 2 ) << counter << "! = " << factorial( counter )
<< endl;
} // end main

```

Fig. 6.32 | Iterative factorial solution. (Part I of 2.)
```

// iterative function factorial
unsigned long factorial( unsigned long number )
{
unsigned long result = 1;
// iterative factorial calculation
for ( unsigned long i = number; i >= 1; i-- )
result *= i;
return result;
} // end function factorial

```
```

0! = 1
1! = 1
2! = 2
3! = 6
4! = 24
5! = 120
6! = 720
7! = 5040
8! = 40320
9! = 362880
10! = 3628800

```

Fig. 6.32 | Iterative factorial solution. (Part 2 of 2.)

\section*{Software Engineering Observation 6.15}

Any problem that can be solved recursively can also be solved iteratively (nonrecursively). A recursive approach is normally chosen when the recursive approach more naturally mirrors the problem and results in a program that is easier to understand and debug. Another reason to choose a recursive solution is that an iterative solution is not apparent.

\section*{Performance Tip 6.9}

Avoid using recursion in performance situations. Recursive calls take time and consume additional memory.

\subsection*{7.7 Searching Arpays with Linear Search}
- Often it may be necessary to determine whether an array contains a value that matches a certain key value.
- Called searching.
- The linear search compares each element of an array with a search key (line 36).
- Because the array is not in any particular order, it's just as likely that the value will be found in the first element as the last.
- On average, therefore, the program must compare the search key with half the elements of the array.
- To determine that a value is not in the array, the program must compare the search key to every element of the array.
```

// Fig. 7.18: fig07_18.cpp
// Linear search of an array.
\#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
int linearSearch( const int [], int, int ); // prototype
int main()
{
const int arraySize = 100; // size of array a
int a[ arraySize ]; // create array a
int searchKey; // value to locate in array a
for ( int i = 0; i < arraySize; i++ )
a[ i ] = 2 * i; // create some data
cout << "Enter integer search key: ";
cin >> searchKey;
// attempt to locate searchKey in array a
int element = linearSearch( a, searchKey, arraySize );

```

Fig. 7.18 Linear search of an array. (Part I of 3.)
```

    // display results
    if ( element != -1 )
        cout << "Found value in element " << element << endl;
    else
        cout << "Value not found" << endl;
    } // end main
// compare key to every element of array until location is
// found or until end of array is reached; return subscript of
// element if key is found or -1 if key not found
int linearSearch( const int array[], int key, int sizeOfArray )
{
for ( int j = 0; j < sizeOfArray; j++ )
if ( array[ j ] == key ) // if found,
return j; // return location of key
return -1; // key not found
} // end function linearSearch

```
Enter integer search key: 36
Found value in element 18

Fig. 7.18 | Linear search of an array. (Part 2 of 3.)
```

Enter integer search key: 37
Value not found

```

Fig. 7.18 | Linear search of an array. (Part 3 of 3.)

\section*{7.8}
- Sorting data
- placing the data into some particular order such as ascending or descending
- an intriguing prob-lem that has attracted some of the most intense research efforts in the field of computer science.

\section*{Performance Tip 7.3}

Simple algorithms can perform poorly. Their virtue is that they're easy to write, test and debug. More complex algorithms are sometimes needed to realize optimal performance.

\section*{(cont.)}
- Insertion sort—a simple, but inefficient, sorting algorithm.
- The first iteration of this algorithm takes the second element and, if it's less than the first element, swaps it with the first element (i.e., the program inserts the second element in front of the first element).
- The second iteration looks at the third element and inserts it into the correct position with respect to the first two elements, so all three elements are in order.
- At the \(i^{\text {th }}\) iteration of this algorithm, the first \(i\) elements in the original array will be sorted.
```

// Fig. 7.19: fig07_19.cpp
// This program sorts an array's values into ascending order.
\#include <iostream>
\#include <iomanip>
using namespace std;
int main()
{
const int arraySize = 10; // size of array a
int data[ arraySize ] = { 34, 56, 4, 10, 77, 51, 93, 30, 5, 52 };
int insert; // temporary variable to hold element to insert
cout << "Unsorted array:\n";
// output original array
for ( int i = 0; i < arraySize; i++ )
cout << setw( 4 ) << data[ i ];

```

Fig. 7.19 | Sorting an array with insertion sort. (Part I of 3.)
```

// insertion sort

```
// insertion sort
// loop over the elements of the array
// loop over the elements of the array
for ( int next = 1; next < arraySize; next++ )
for ( int next = 1; next < arraySize; next++ )
{
{
    insert = data[ next ]; // store the value in the current element
    insert = data[ next ]; // store the value in the current element
    int moveItem = next; // initialize location to place element
    int moveItem = next; // initialize location to place element
    // search for the location in which to put the current element
    // search for the location in which to put the current element
    while ( ( moveItem > 0 ) && ( data[ moveItem - 1 ] > insert ) )
    while ( ( moveItem > 0 ) && ( data[ moveItem - 1 ] > insert ) )
    {
    {
        // shift element one slot to the right
        // shift element one slot to the right
        data[ moveItem ] = data[ moveItem - 1 ];
        data[ moveItem ] = data[ moveItem - 1 ];
        moveItem--;
        moveItem--;
    } // end while
    } // end while
    data[ moveItem ] = insert; // place inserted element into the array
    data[ moveItem ] = insert; // place inserted element into the array
} // end for
```

} // end for

```

Fig. 7.19 | Sorting an array with insertion sort. (Part 2 of 3.)
```

38 cout << "\nSorted array:\n";
39
40 // output sorted array
41 for ( int i = 0; i < arraySize; i++ )
42 cout << setw( 4 ) << data[ i ];
4 3
44 cout << endl;
45 } // end main

```
```

Unsorted array:

```

```

Sorted array:
4

```

Fig. 7.19 | Sorting an array with insertion sort. (Part 3 of 3.)

\subsection*{7.9 Multidimensional Arrays}
- Arrays with two dimensions (i.e., subscripts) often represent tables of values consisting of information arranged in rows and columns.
- To identify a particular table element, we must specify two subscripts.
- By convention, the first identifies the element's row and the second identifies the element's column.
- Often called two-dimensional arrays or 2-D arrays.
- Arrays with two or more dimensions are known as multidimensional arrays.
- Figure 7.20 illustrates a two-dimensional array, a.
- The array contains three rows and four columns, so it's said to be a 3-by-4 array.
- In general, an array with \(m\) rows and \(n\) columns is called an \(m\)-by- \(n\) array.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Row 0} & Column 0 & Column I & Column 2 & Column 3 \\
\hline & \(a[0][0]\) & \(a[0][1]\) & \(a[0][2]\) & \(a[0][3]\) \\
\hline Row I & \(\mathrm{a}[1][0]\) & \(\mathrm{a}[1][1]\) & \(\mathrm{a}[1][2]\) & \(\mathrm{a}[1][3]\) \\
\hline Row 2 & \(a[2][0]\) &  & \begin{tabular}{l}
\(a[2][2]\) \\
- Column subscript \\
- Row subscript \\
- Array name
\end{tabular} & \[
\mathrm{a}[2][3]
\] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Fig. \(\mathbf{7 . 2 0}\) | Two-dimensional array with three rows and four columns.
- A multidimensional array can be initialized in its declaration much like a one-dimensional array.
- The values are grouped by row in braces.
- If there are not enough initializers for a given row, the remaining elements of that row are initialized to 0 .
- Figure 7.21 demonstrates initializing twodimensional arrays in declarations.
```

// Fig. 7.21: fig07_21.cpp
// Initializing multidimensional arrays.
\#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void printArray( const int [][ 3 ] ); // prototype
const int rows = 2;
const int columns = 3;
int main()
{
int array1[ rows ][ columns ] = { { 1, 2, 3 }, { 4, 5, 6 } };
int array2[ rows ][ columns ] = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 };
int array3[ rows ][ columns ] = { { 1, 2 }, { 4 } };
cout << "Values in array1 by row are:" << endl;
printArray( array1 );
cout << "\nValues in array2 by row are:" << endl;
printArray( array2 );
cout << "\nValues in array3 by row are:" << endl;
printArray( array3 );
} // end main

```

Fig. 7.2I | Initializing multidimensional arrays. (Part I of 3.)
```

25
26 // output array with two rows and three columns
27 void printArray( const int a[][ columns ] )
28 {
29 // loop through array's rows
30 for ( int i = 0; i < rows; i++ )
31
32
3 3
34
35
36 cout << endl; // start new line of output
37 } // end outer for
38 } // end function printArray

```

Fig. 7.2 I | Initializing multidimensional arrays. (Part 2 of 3.)
```

Values in array1 by row are:
12 3
4 5
Values in array2 by row are:
123
4 0
Values in array3 by row are:
120
400

```

Fig. 7.21 | Initializing multidimensional arrays. (Part 3 of 3.)

\section*{7. 11 Introduction to Cゅt Standard Lilopary Class Template vector}
- C++ Standard Library class template vector represents a more robust type of array featuring many additional capabilities.
- C-style pointer-based arrays have great potential for errors and are not flexible
- A program can easily "walk off" either end of an array, because C++ does not check whether subscripts fall outside the range of an array.
- Two ar-rays cannot be meaningfully compared with equality operators or relational operators.
- When an array is passed to a general-purpose function designed to handle arrays of any size, the size of the array must be passed as an additional argument.
- One array cannot be assigned to another with the assignment operator(s).
- Class template vector allows you to create a more powerful and less error-prone alternative to arrays.

\section*{Libpary Class Tomplate vector (cont.)}
- The program of Fig. 7.25 demonstrates capabilities provided by class template vector that are not available for C-style pointer-based arrays.
- Standard class template vector is defined in header <vector> and belongs to namespace std.
```

// Fig. 7.25: fig07_25.cpp
// Demonstrating C++ Standard Library class template vector.
\#include <iostream>
\#include <iomanip>
\#include <vector>
using namespace std;
void outputVector( const vector< int > \& ); // display the vector
void inputVector( vector< int > \& ); // input values into the vector
int main()
{
vector< int > integers1( 7 ); // 7-element vector< int >
vector< int > integers2( 10 ); // 10-element vector< int >
// print integers1 size and contents
cout << "Size of vector integers1 is " << integers1.size()
<< "\nvector after initialization:" << end7;
outputVector( integers1 );

```

Fig. 7.25 | C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part I of 8.)
```

// print integers2 size and contents
cout << "\nSize of vector integers2 is " << integers2.size()
<< "\nvector after initialization:" << endl;
outputVector( integers2 );
// input and print integers1 and integers2
cout << "\nEnter 17 integers:" << endl;
inputVector( integers1 );
inputVector( integers2 );
cout << "\nAfter input, the vectors contain:\n"
<< "integers1:" << endl;
outputVector( integers1 );
cout << "integers2:" << endl;
outputVector( integers2 );
// use inequality (!=) operator with vector objects
cout << "\nEvaluating: integers1 != integers2" << endl;
if ( integers1 != integers2 )
cout << "integers1 and integers2 are not equal" << endl;
4 2

```

Fig. 7.25 | C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part 2 of 8.)
4 5
4 6
4 7
4 8
4 9
5 0
5I
52
5 3
5 4
5 5
5 6
5 7
58
5 9
6 0
6 1
6 2
6 3
6 4
```

```
```

43 // create vector integers3 using integers1 as an

```
```

43 // create vector integers3 using integers1 as an
44 // initializer; print size and contents
44 // initializer; print size and contents

```
vector< int > integers3( integers1 ); // copy constructor
```

vector< int > integers3( integers1 ); // copy constructor
cout << "\nSize of vector integers3 is " << integers3.size()
cout << "\nSize of vector integers3 is " << integers3.size()
<< "\nvector after initialization:" << endl;
<< "\nvector after initialization:" << endl;
outputVector( integers3 );
outputVector( integers3 );
// use overloaded assignment (=) operator
// use overloaded assignment (=) operator
cout << "\nAssigning integers2 to integers1:" << end1;
cout << "\nAssigning integers2 to integers1:" << end1;
integers1 = integers2; // assign integers2 to integers1
integers1 = integers2; // assign integers2 to integers1
cout << "integers1:" << endl;
cout << "integers1:" << endl;
outputVector( integers1 );
outputVector( integers1 );
cout << "integers2:" << endl;
cout << "integers2:" << endl;
outputVector( integers2 );
outputVector( integers2 );
// use equality (==) operator with vector objects
// use equality (==) operator with vector objects
cout << "\nEvaluating: integers1 == integers2" << end1;
cout << "\nEvaluating: integers1 == integers2" << end1;
if ( integers1 == integers2 )
if ( integers1 == integers2 )
cout << "integers1 and integers2 are equa1" << endl;

```
    cout << "integers1 and integers2 are equa1" << endl;
```

65

Fig. 7.25 $\mid$ C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part 3 of 8.)

```
66 // use square brackets to create rvalue
    cout << "\nintegers1[5] is " << integers1[ 5 ];
    // use square brackets to create lvalue
    cout << "\n\nAssigning 1000 to integers1[5]" << end1;
    integers1[ 5 ] = 1000;
    cout << "integers1:" << endl;
    outputVector( integers1 );
    // attempt to use out-of-range subscript
    cout << "\nAttempt to assign 1000 to integers1.at( 15 )" << end7;
    integers1.at( 15 ) = 1000; // ERROR: out of range
} // end main
```

Fig. 7.25 $\mid$ C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part 4 of 8.)

```
// output vector contents
void outputVector( const vector< int > &array )
{
        size_t i; // declare control variable
        for ( i = 0; i < array.size(); i++ )
        {
            cout << setw( 12 ) << array[ i ];
            if ( ( i + 1 ) % 4 == 0 ) // 4 numbers per row of output
                        cout << endl;
        } // end for
        if ( i % 4 != 0 )
            cout << end7;
    } // end function outputVector
// input vector contents
void inputVector( vector< int > &array )
{
    for ( size_t i = 0; i < array.size(); i++ )
            cin >> array[ i ];
    } // end function inputVector
```

Fig. 7.25 | C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part 5 of 8.)

```
Size of vector integers1 is 7
vector after initialization:
\begin{tabular}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 &
\end{tabular}
Size of vector integers2 is 10
vector after initialization:
\begin{tabular}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & &
\end{tabular}
Enter 17 integers:
\(\begin{array}{llllllllllllll}1 & 2 & 4 & 5 & 7 & 8 & 10 & 11 & 12 & 13 & 14 & 15 & 16 & 17\end{array}\)
After input, the vectors contain: integers1:
\begin{tabular}{rrrr}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
5 & 6 & 7 & \\
8 & 9 & 10 & 11 \\
12 & 13 & 14 & 15 \\
16 & 17 & &
\end{tabular}
```

Fig. 7.25 | C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part 6 of 8.)

```
Evaluating: integers1 != integers2
integers1 and integers2 are not equal
Size of vector integers3 is 7
vector after initialization:
    1 2
Assigning integers2 to integers1:
integers1:
            8 9
                    1 1
            12 13
            16 17
integers2:
            8 9
                    9
                            1 0
                            1 1
                            12 13 14
                    1 5
                        16
                    1 7
```

Evaluating: integers1 == integers2
integers1 and integers2 are equal
integers1[5] is 13

Fig. 7.25 | C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part 7 of 8.)

```
Assigning 1000 to integers1[5]
integers1:
\(8 \quad 9 \quad 10\)
    12 1000
    1 617
```

Attempt to assign 1000 to integers1.at( 15 )
abnormal program termination

Fig. 7.25 $\quad$ C++ Standard Library class template vector. (Part 8 of 8.)

## Lilopary Clase Tomplato vector (cont.)

- By default, all the elements of a vector object are set to 0.
- vectors can be defined to store any data type.
- vector member function size obtain the number of elements in the vector.
- You can use square brackets, [], to access the elements in a vector.
- vector objects can be compared with one another using the equality operators.
- You can create a new vector object that is initialized with the contents of an existing vector by using its copy constructor.


## Lilopary Class Template vector (cont.)

- You can use the assignment (=) operator with vector objects.
- As with C-style pointer-based arrays, C++ does not perform any bounds checking when vector elements are accessed with square brackets.
- Standard class template vector provides bounds checking in its member function at, which "throws an exception" (see Chapter 16, Exception Handling) if its argument is an invalid subscript.


## Questions



