

Data Structures

BScCSIT
2nd Semester
Tribhuvan University

Recursion

Readings: Unit 1 Chapter 4

Recursion

- **Recursion:** *a method to define something in terms of itself*
- **Recursive Function:** *A function that calls itself*
- One of the most powerful programming tool
- Natural way to solve many problems
- Makes algorithms and its implementation more **compact** and **simple**



3

The Factorial function

- For a positive integer n , the factorial of n is defined as the product of all integers between n and 1
 - For e.g., 5 factorial equals $5 * 4 * 3 * 2 * 1 = 120$ and 3 factorial equals $3 * 2 * 1 = 6$
 - 0 factorial is defined as 1
- In mathematics, n factorial is denoted by $n!$

4

Factorial Definition

- $n! = 1$, if $n = 0$
 $n! = n * (n - 1) * (n - 2) * \dots * 1$, if $n > 0$
- Hence,
 $0! = 1$
 $1! = 1$
 $2! = 2 * 1$
 $3! = 3 * 2 * 1$
 $4! = 4 * 3 * 2 * 1$

5

Iterative Algorithm for Function

Algorithm to evaluate the product of all integers between n and 1

```
prod = 1;  
for (i = n; i > 0; i --)  
    prod *= i;
```

prod is the required result

- This type of algorithm is called **iterative**
 - Because it calls for the explicit repetition of some process until a certain condition is met

6

Thinking Recursively

- We know, $4! = 4 * 3 * 2 * 1$
- But $3 * 2 * 1$ is $3!$, so we can write $4! = 4 * 3!$
- In fact, for any $n > 0$, we see that $n!$ equals $n * (n - 1)!$
 - Multiplying n by the product of all integers between from $n - 1$ to 1 yields the product of all integers from n to 1

7

Recursive Definition of Factorial

- $n! = 1$ if $n = 0$
 $n! = n * (n - 1)!$ if $n > 0$
- Hence,
 $0! = 1$
 $1! = 1 * 0!$
 $2! = 2 * 1!$
 $3! = 3 * 2!$
 $4! = 4 * 3!$

A definition that defines an object in terms of simpler case of itself is called a recursive definition

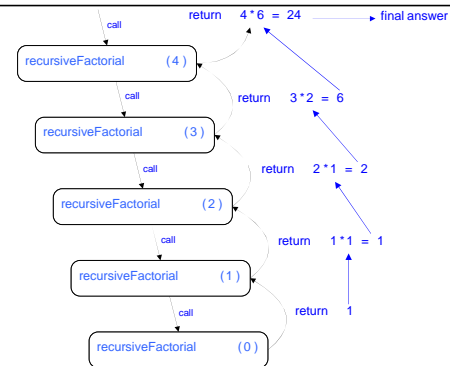
8

Evaluating Factorials from Recursive Definition

- From definition,
 - $5! = 5 * 4!$
 - $4! = 4 * 3!$
 - $3! = 3 * 2!$
 - $2! = 2 * 1!$
 - $1! = 1 * 0!$
 - $0! = 1$
- Each case is reduced to a simpler case until we reach the case of $0!$, which is defined directly as 1
- In line 6, we have evaluated factorial directly, so we backtrack from line 6 to 1, returning the value computed in one line to evaluate the result of the previous line

9

An Example



10

Recursive algorithm for Factorial

- If $(n == 0)$
 $prod = 1$
 Else
 $x = n - 1$
 find the value of $x!$. Call it y
 $prod = n * y$
 End If

Make sure you understand that this algorithm halts
- $prod$ is the required result

11

Properties of Recursion

- Every recursive process consists of two parts:
 - A smallest, base case that is processed without recursion; and
 - A general method that reduces a particular case to one or more of the smaller cases, thereby making progress toward eventually reducing the problem all the way to the base case

12

Fibonacci Numbers

- $fib(n) = n$ if $n = 0$ or $n = 1$
 $fib(n) = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)$ if $n \geq 2$
- Evaluate $fib(5)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= fib(4) + fib(3) \\
 &= (fib(3) + fib(2)) + (fib(2) + fib(1)) \\
 &= ((fib(2) + fib(1)) + (fib(1) + fib(0))) + \\
 &\quad ((fib(1) + fib(0)) + 1) \\
 &= (((fib(1) + fib(0)) + 1) + (1+0)) + ((1+0) + 1) \\
 &= (((1+0) + 1) + (1)) + ((1) + 1) \\
 &= (((1) + 1) + (1)) + ((1) + 1) \\
 &= 5
 \end{aligned}$$

13

Greatest Common Divisor

- $gcd(m, n) = m$ if $n = 0$
 $gcd(m, n) = gcd(n, m \bmod n)$ otherwise
- Find $gcd(1440, 408)$

14

Conversion to Binary

- Algorithm to print the binary representation of N
- Stop if $N = 0$
- Print the binary representation of the integer $N/2$
- Write a '1' if N is odd and a '0' if N is even

15

Recursion in C

- C allows to write functions that call themselves. Such functions are called **recursive**

```

int fact(int n)
{
    int x, y, prod;
    if (n == 0) /* base case */
        prod = 1;
    else {
        x = n-1;
        y = fact(x); /* recursive call */
        prod = n * y;
    }
    return prod;
}
  
```

16

How it works

- `printf("%d", fact(4));`
- When `fact` is called for the first time, the parameter `n` is set to 4
- Since `n` is not 0, `x` is set equal to 3
- Now again `fact` is called but with the parameter `n` equal to 3
- Function `fact` is reentered and the local variables are reallocated, including `n`

17

How it works

- Since execution has not left the first call of `fact`, the first allocation of these variables remains
- However, at any time of execution, only the recent copy of the variables can be referenced
- Each time the function `fact` is called recursively, a new set of local variables and parameters is allocated
- When a return from `fact` to a point in a previous call takes place, the most recent allocation of these variables is freed and the previous copy is **reactivated**

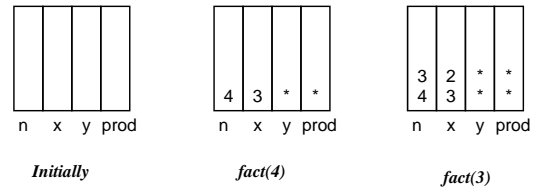
18

Use of Stacks in Function Call

- The description suggests the use of a stack to keep the successive generations of local variables and parameters
- This stack is maintained by the C system and is invisible to the user (Internal stack)
- Each time a function is called, a new allocation of its variables are pushed on top of the stack
 - Any reference to a local variable and parameters is through the current top of the stack
- When a function returns, the stack is popped, the top allocation is freed and the previous allocation becomes the current stack top

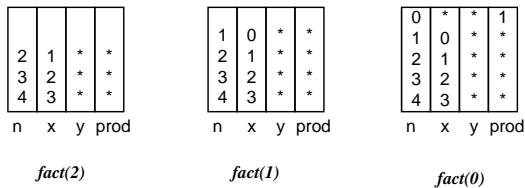
19

Illustration



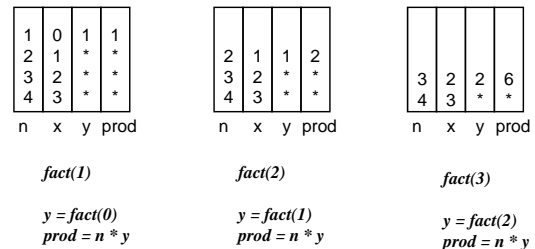
20

Illustration



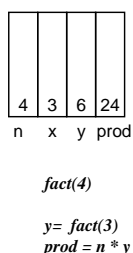
21

Illustration



22

Illustration



23

The Factorial Function Rewritten

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

24

The PrintBinary Function

```
void PrintBinary(int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return;
    PrintBinary(n/2);
    printf("%d", n%2);
}
```

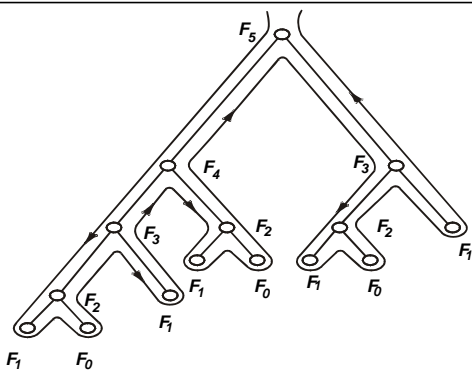
25

The Fibonacci Function

```
int fib(int n)
{
    int a, b, sum;
    if (n == 0 || n == 1)
        return n;
    else
    {
        a = fib(n - 1);
        b = fib(n - 2);
        sum = a + b;
        return sum;
    }
}
```

26

Trace of Evaluation of Fib (5)



27

The Towers of Hanoi Problem

- Three pegs, L, C, and R, exists
- Disks of different diameters are placed on peg L so that a larger disk is always below a smaller disk
- The object is to move the disks to peg R, using C as auxiliary
 - Only the top disk on any peg may be moved to any other peg
 - A larger disk may never rest on a smaller one

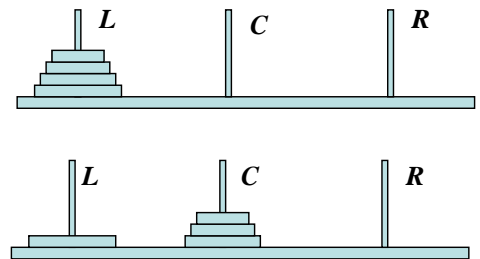
28

The Idea

- The idea that gives a solution is to concentrate our attention not on the first step (which must be to move the top disk somewhere), but rather on the hardest step: moving the bottom disk
- There is no way to reach the bottom disk until all the disks above the bottom have been moved, and, furthermore they must all be on peg C so that we can move the bottom disk from peg R to L

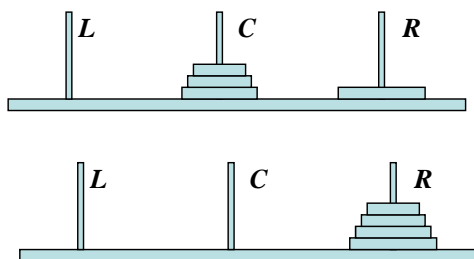
29

Demonstration



30

Demonstration



31

Algorithm for Towers of Hanoi

- **Algorithm, move n disks from R to L, using C as auxiliary**
 1. If $n == 1$, move the single disk from L to R and stop
 2. Move the top $n - 1$ disks recursively from L to C, using R as auxiliary
 3. Move the n th disk from L to R
 4. Move the $n - 1$ disks recursively from C to R, using C as auxiliary

32

The Move Function

```
void Transfer(int n, char from, char to, char aux)
{
    if (n == 1) {
        printf("Move disk %d from peg %c to peg %c\n",
            n, from, to);
        return;
    }

    Transfer(n-1, from, aux, to);
    printf("Move disk %d from peg %c to peg %c",
        n, from, to);
    Transfer(n-1, aux, to, from);
}
```

33

Recursion tree for 3 disks

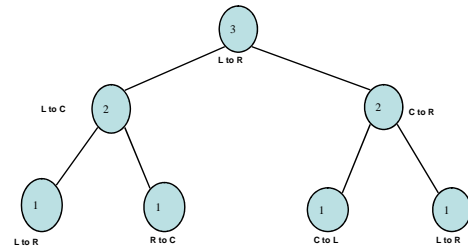


Fig: Working of TOH disk transfer as a binary tree

34

Constructing Recursive Algorithms

- Find a way to divide the whole task, so that it becomes manageable
- **Identify the base case:** What is the trivial solution step and what is its associated condition?
- **Identify the recursion step:** How can the problem be made (slightly) smaller?
- Make sure that the problem reduction eventually leads to the trivial case

35

Iteration and Recursion

- **Iteration**
 - as long as the condition is true the loop body is executed
 - when the loop body has been executed for the last time, the loop completely terminates
- **Recursion**
 - as long as the recursion condition is true the method is called again
 - when the base case has been reached, no further recursion occurs
 - however, all recursive calls then unfold backwards, possibly leading to the execution of further code

36

Recursion and Efficiency

- Some recursive solutions are so inefficient that they should not be used
- Factors that contribute to the inefficiency of some recursive solutions
 - Overhead associated with method calls
 - It consumes more storage space, all the automatic (local) variables are stored on the stack
 - If the condition is not checked during recursion, computer may run out of memory.
 - If proper care is not taken, recursion may result in non-terminating iterations.

37

The End