

## CHAPTER

## 2



# RECURSION AND BACKTRACKING

## 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will look at one of the important topics “*recursion*”, which will be used in almost every chapter and also its relative “*backtracking*”.

## 2.2 What is Recursion?

Any function which calls itself is called *recursive*. A recursive method solves a problem by calling a copy of itself to work on a smaller problem. This is called the recursion step. The recursion step can result in many more such recursive calls.

It is important to ensure that the recursion terminates. Each time the function calls itself with a slightly simpler version of the original problem. The sequence of smaller problems must eventually converge on the base case.

## 2.3 Why Recursion?

Recursion is a useful technique borrowed from mathematics. Recursive code is generally shorter and easier to write than iterative code. Generally, loops are turned into recursive functions when they are compiled or interpreted.

Recursion is most useful for tasks that can be defined in terms of similar subtasks. For example, sort, search, and traversal problems often have simple recursive solutions.

## 2.4 Format of a Recursive Function

A recursive function performs a task in part by calling itself to perform the subtasks. At some point, the function encounters a subtask that it can perform without calling itself. This case, where the function does not recur, is called the *base case*, the former, where the function calls itself to perform a subtask, is referred to as the *recursive case*. We can write all recursive functions using the format:

```
if(test for the base case)
    return some base case value
else if(test for another base case)
    return some other base case value
// the recursive case
else
    return (some work and then a recursive call)
```

As an example consider the factorial function:  $n!$  is the product of all integers between  $n$  and 1. Definition of recursive factorial looks like:

$$\begin{array}{ll} n! = 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n! = n * (n-1)! & \text{if } n > 0 \end{array}$$

This definition can easily be converted to recursive implementation. Here the problem is determining the value of  $n!$ , and the subproblem is determining the value of  $(n-1)!$ . In the recursive case, when  $n$  is greater than 1, the function calls itself to determine the value of  $(n-1)!$  and multiplies that with  $n$ .

In the base case, when  $n$  is 0 or 1, the function simply returns 1. This looks like the following:

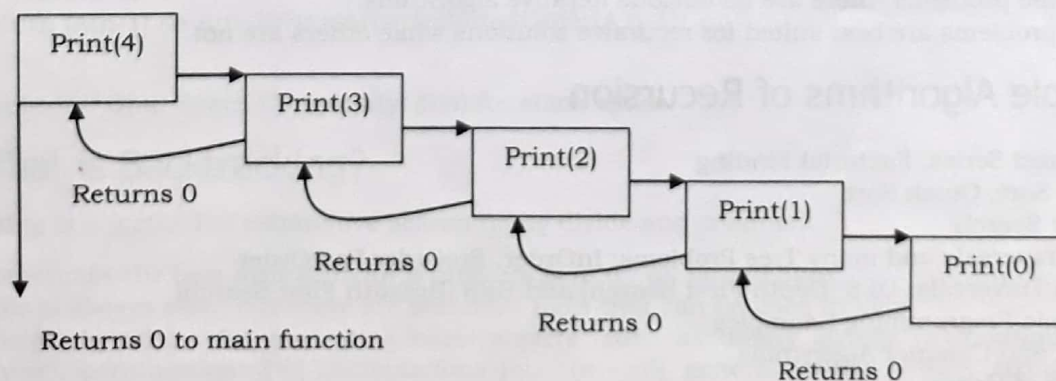
```
// calculates factorial of a positive integer
int Fact(int n) {
    // base cases: fact of 0 or 1 is 1
    if(n == 1)
        return 1;
    else if(n == 0)
        return 1;
    // recursive case: multiply n by (n - 1) factorial
    else
        return n*Fact(n-1);
}
```

## 2.5 Recursion and Memory (Visualization)

Each recursive call makes a new copy of that method (actually only the variables) in memory. Once a method ends (that is, returns some data), the copy of that returning method is removed from memory. The recursive solutions look simple but visualization and tracing takes times. For better understanding, let us consider the following example.

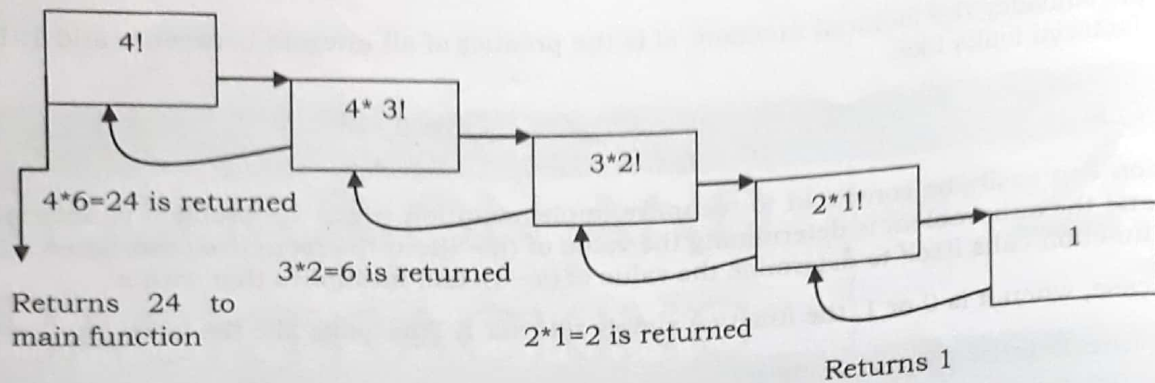
```
//print numbers 1 to n backward
int Print(int n) {
    // this is the terminating base case
    if( n == 0)
        return 0;
    else {
        printf ("%d",n);
        // recursive call to itself again
        return Print(n-1);
    }
}
```

For this example, if we call the print function with  $n=4$ , visually our memory assignments may look like:



Now, let us consider our factorial function. The visualization of factorial function with  $n=4$  will look like:





## 2.6 Recursion versus Iteration

While discussing recursion the basic question that comes in mind is, which way is better? – Iteration or recursion? Answer to this question depends on what we are trying to do. A recursive approach mirrors the problem that we are trying to solve. A recursive approach makes it simpler to solve a problem, which may not have the most obvious of answers. But, recursion adds overhead for each recursive call (needs space on the stack frame).

### Recursion

- Terminates when a base case is reached.
- Each recursive call requires extra space on the stack frame (memory).
- If we get infinite recursion, the program may run out of memory and gives stack overflow.
- Solutions to some problems are easier to formulate recursively.

### Iteration

- Terminates when a condition is proven to be false.
- Each iteration does not require extra space.
- An infinite loop could loop forever since there is no extra memory being created.
- Iterative solutions to a problem may not always be as obvious as a recursive solution.

## 2.7 Notes on Recursion

- Recursive algorithms have two types of cases, recursive cases and base cases.
- Every recursive function case must terminate at base case.
- Generally iterative solutions are more efficient than recursive solutions [due to the overhead of function calls].
- A recursive algorithm can be implemented without recursive function calls using a stack, but it's usually more trouble than its worth. That means any problem that can be solved recursively can also be solved iteratively.
- For some problems, there are no obvious iterative algorithms.
- Some problems are best suited for recursive solutions while others are not.

## 2.8 Example Algorithms of Recursion

- Fibonacci Series, Factorial Finding
- Merge Sort, Quick Sort
- Binary Search
- Tree Traversals and many Tree Problems: InOrder, PreOrder PostOrder
- Graph Traversals: DFS [Depth First Search] and BFS [Breadth First Search]
- Dynamic Programming Examples
- Divide and Conquer Algorithms
- Towers of Hanoi
- Backtracking algorithms [we will discuss in next section]

## 2.9 Problems on Recursion

In this chapter we cover few problems on recursion and will discuss the rest in other chapters. By the time you complete the reading of entire book you will encounter many problems on recursion.

**Problem-1** Discuss Towers of Hanoi puzzle.

**Solution:** The Tower of Hanoi is a mathematical puzzle. It consists of three rods (or pegs or towers), and a number of disks of different sizes which can slide onto any rod. The puzzle starts with the disks on one rod in ascending order of size, the smallest at the top, thus making a conical shape. The objective of the puzzle is to move the entire stack to another rod, satisfying the following rules:

- Only one disk may be moved at a time.
- Each move consists of taking the upper disk from one of the rods and sliding it onto another rod, on top of the other disks that may already be present on that rod.
- No disk may be placed on top of a smaller disk.

**Algorithm:**

- Move the top  $n - 1$  disks from *Source* to *Auxiliary* tower,
- Move the  $n^{\text{th}}$  disk from *Source* to *Destination* tower,
- Move the  $n - 1$  disks from *Auxiliary* tower to *Destination* tower.
- Transferring the top  $n - 1$  disks from *Source* to *Auxiliary* tower can again be thought as a fresh problem and can be solved in the same manner. Once we solve *Tower of Hanoi* with three disks, we can solve it with any number of disks with the above algorithm.

```
void TowersOfHanoi(int n, char frompeg, char topeg, char auxpeg) {
    /* If only 1 disk, make the move and return */
    if(n==1) {
        printf("Move disk 1 from peg %c to peg %c",frompeg, topeg);
        return;
    }
    /* Move top n-1 disks from A to B, using C as auxiliary */
    TowersOfHanoi(n-1, frompeg, auxpeg, topeg);

    /* Move remaining disks from A to C */
    printf("\nMove disk %d from peg %c to peg %c", n, frompeg, topeg);

    /* Move n-1 disks from B to C using A as auxiliary */
    TowersOfHanoi(n-1, auxpeg, topeg, frompeg);
}
```

**Problem-2** Given an array, check whether the array is in sorted order with recursion.

**Solution:**

```
int isArrayInSortedOrder(int A[],int n){
    if(n == 1)
        return 1;
    return (A[n-1] <= A[n-2])?0:isArrayInSortedOrder(A,n-1);
}
```

Time Complexity:  $O(n)$ . Space Complexity:  $O(n)$  for stack space.

## 2.10 What is Backtracking?

Backtracking is a method of exhaustive search using divide and conquer.

- Sometimes the best algorithm for a problem is to try all possibilities.
- This is always slow, but there are standard tools that can be used to help.
- Tools: algorithms for generating basic objects, such as binary strings [ $2^n$  possibilities for  $n$ -bit string], permutations [ $n!$ ], combinations [ $n!/r!(n-r)!$ ], general strings [ $k$ -ary strings of length  $n$  has  $k^n$  possibilities], etc...
- Backtracking speeds the exhaustive search by pruning.



## 2.11 Example Algorithms of Backtracking

- Binary Strings: generating all binary strings
- Generating  $k$ -ary Strings
- The Knapsack Problem
- Generalized Strings
- Hamiltonian Cycles [refer *Graphs* chapter]
- Graph Coloring Problem

## 2.12 Problems on Backtracking

**Problem-3** Generate all the strings of  $n$  bits. Assume  $A[0..n-1]$  is an array of size  $n$ .

**Solution:**

```
void Binary(int n) {
    if(n < 1)
        printf("%s", A);           // Assume array A is a global variable
    else {
        A[n-1] = 0;
        Binary(n-1);
        A[n-1] = 1;
        Binary(n-1);
    }
}
```

Let  $T(n)$  be the running time of *binary*( $n$ ). Assume function *printf* takes time  $O(1)$ .

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c, & \text{if } n < 0 \\ 2T(n-1) + d, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Using Subtraction and Conquer Master theorem we get,  $T(n) = O(2^n)$ . This means the algorithm for generating bit-strings is optimal.

**Problem-4** Generate all the strings of length  $n$  drawn from  $0 \dots k-1$ .

**Solution:** Let us assume we keep current  $k$ -ary string in an array  $A[0..n-1]$ . Call function *k-string*( $n, k$ ):

```
void k-string(int n, int k) {
    // process all k-ary strings of length m
    if(n < 1)
        printf("%s", A);           // Assume array A is a global variable
    else {
        for(int j = 0; j < k; j++) {
            A[n-1] = j;
            k-string(n-1, k);
        }
    }
}
```

Let  $T(n)$  be the running time of *k-string*( $n$ ). Then,

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c, & \text{if } n < 0 \\ kT(n-1) + d, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Using Subtraction and Conquer Master theorem we get,  $T(n) = O(k^n)$ .

**Note:** For more problems, refer *String Algorithms* chapter.

**Problem-5** **Finding the length of connected cells of 1s (regions) in an matrix of 0s and 1s:** Given a matrix, each of which may be 1 or 0. The filled cells that are connected form a region. Two cells are said to be connected if they are adjacent to each other horizontally, vertically or diagonally. There may

be several regions in the matrix. How do you find the largest region (in terms of number of cells) in the matrix?

Sample Input: 11000    Sample Output: 5  
 01100  
 00101  
 10001  
 01011

**Solution:** The simplest idea is, for each location traverse in all 8 directions and in each of those directions keep track of maximum region found.

```
int getval(int (*A)[5],int i,int j,int L, int H){
    if (i< 0 || i >= L || j< 0 || j >= H)
        return 0;
    else
        return A[i][j];
}

void findMaxBlock(int (*A)[5], int r, int c,int L,int H,int size, bool **cntarr,int &maxsize){
    if ( r >= L || c >= H)
        return;
    cntarr[r][c]=true;
    size++;
    if (size > maxsize)
        maxsize = size;
    //search in eight directions
    int direction[][2]={{-1,0},{-1,-1},{0,-1},{1,-1},{1,0},{1,1},{0,1},{-1,1}};
    for(int i=0; i<8; i++) {
        int newi=r+direction[i][0];
        int newj=c+direction[i][1];
        int val=getval (A,newi,newj,L,H);
        if (val>0 && (cntarr[newi][newj]==false)){
            findMaxBlock(A,newi,newj,L,H,size,cntarr,maxsize);
        }
    }
    cntarr[r][c]=false;
}

int getMaxOnes(int (*A)[5], int rmax, int colmax){
    int maxsize=0;
    int size=0;
    bool **cntarr=create2darr(rmax,colmax);
    for(int i=0; i< rmax; i++){
        for(int j=0; j< colmax; j++){
            if (A[i][j] == 1){
                findMaxBlock(A,i,j,rmax,colmax, 0,cntarr,maxsize);
            }
        }
    }
    return maxsize;
}
```

**Sample Call:**

```
int zarr[][5]={{1,1,0,0,0},{0,1,1,0,1},{0,0,0,1,1},{1,0,0,1,1},{0,1,0,1,1}};
cout << "Number of maximum 1s are " << getMaxOnes(zarr,5,5) << endl;
```