

Week 11

Recursion

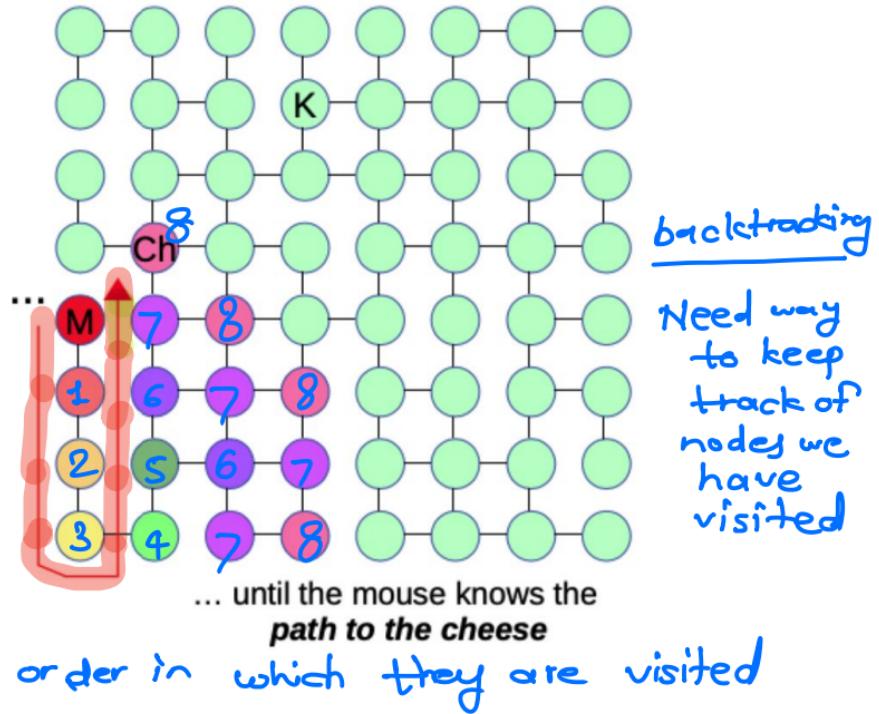
same number on nodes \Rightarrow

visited at same time / same iteration

Recursive graph search



finding path from mouse to cheese
 \Rightarrow multiple path



Recursive Approach

find path to cheese:

neighbours

Ask my neighbours: What is the path from you to cheese

They ask their neighbours: What is the path from you to cheese

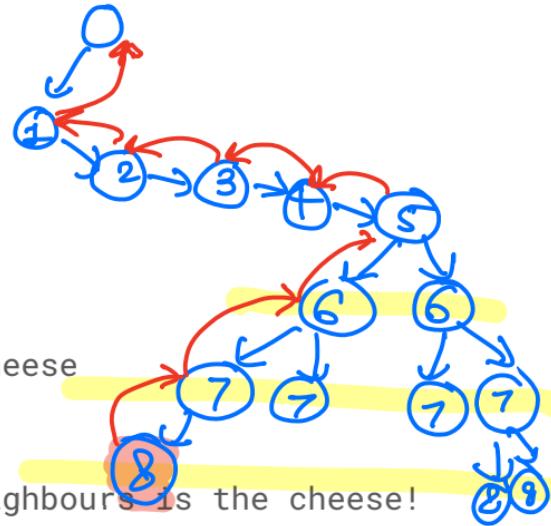
They ask their neighbours

... until { one of the neighbours-neighbours...neighbours is the cheese!

Now one of the cheese's neighbour knows where to go

Then a cheese's neighbour's neighbour knows where to go

... until, the mouse knows where to go!



What is Recursion?



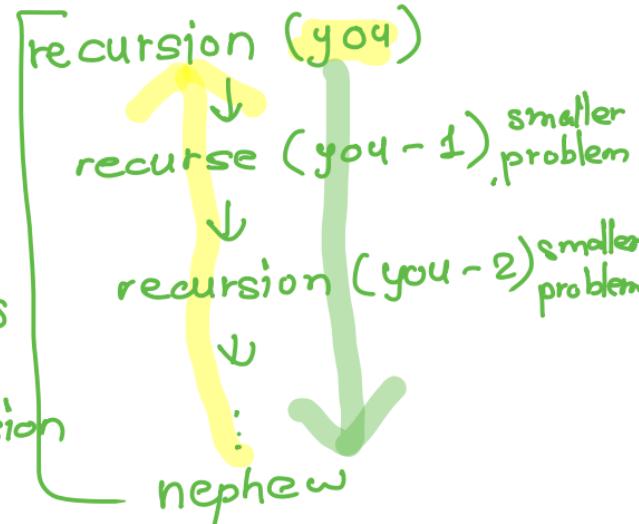
- Function calling itself!!

splitting

merging

```
int f1()
{
    ...
    f1();
    ...
}
```

in
terms
of
recursion



- One of the common interview question:
- How would you explain recursion to your 5 year old nephew?

Why Use Recursion?

Intuitive understanding

- Fewer Lines of Code
 - usually results in a solution with fewer lines of code than a solution that does not utilize recursion.
- More Elegant Code
 - Intuitively easy to understand
- Increased Readability

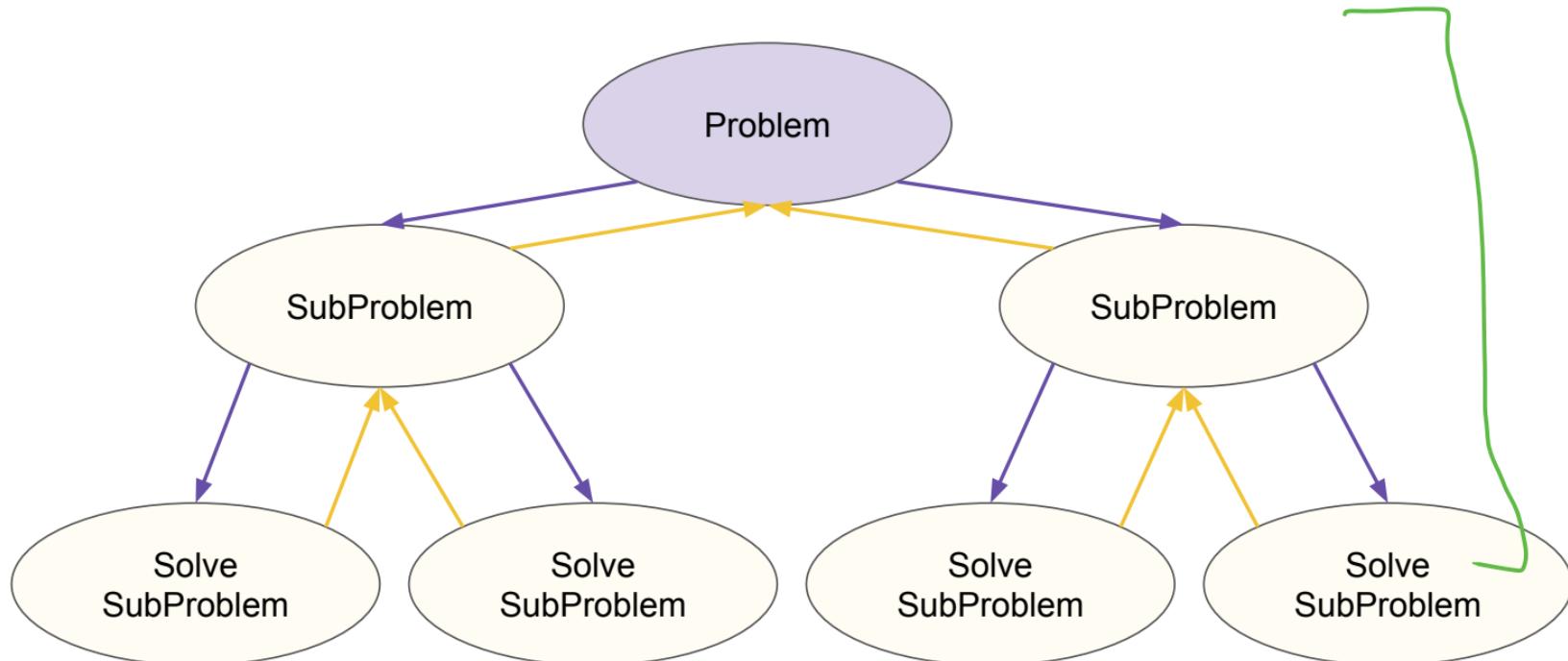
When to use recursion?

For kind of problems where

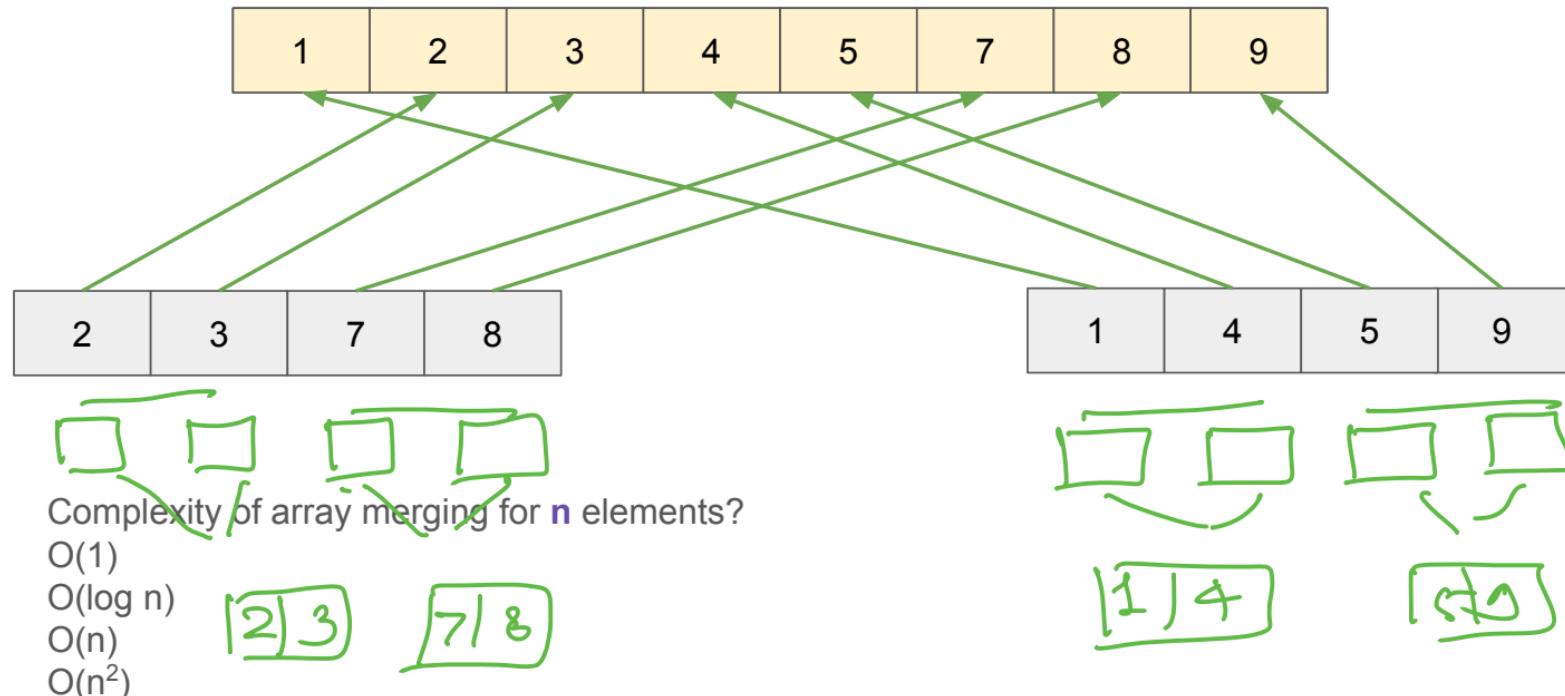
- The problem is progressively broken down, made smaller, or otherwise simplified at each step.
- Then information needed to form the solution is passed back one step at a time, until the solution for the original problem is obtained.

Divide-and-Conquer Strategy

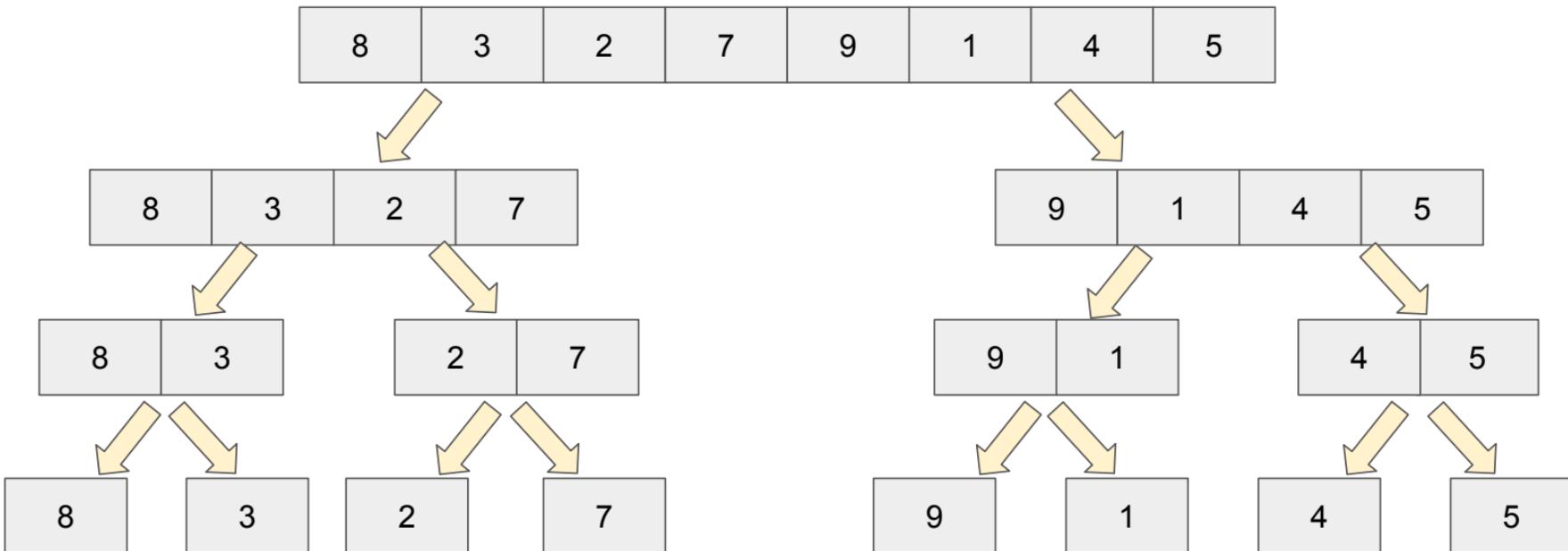
complexity of
recursive algo.



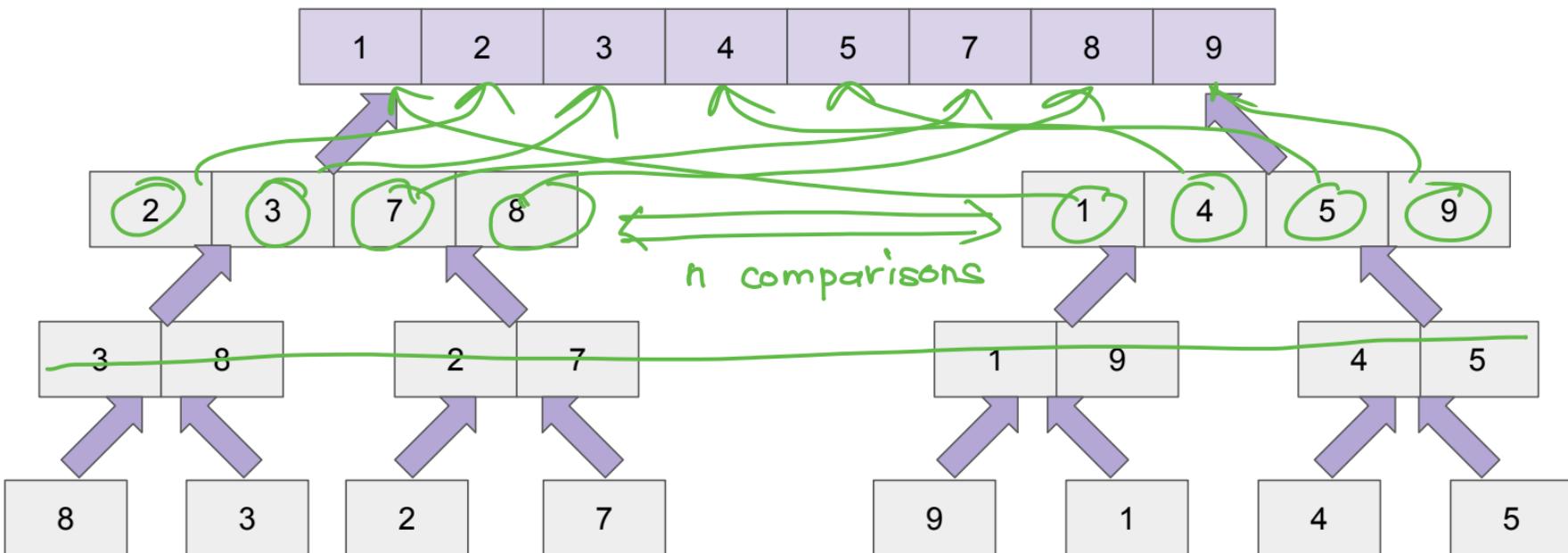
Merge Sort - Array Merging



Merge Sort - Splitting



Merge Sort - Merging

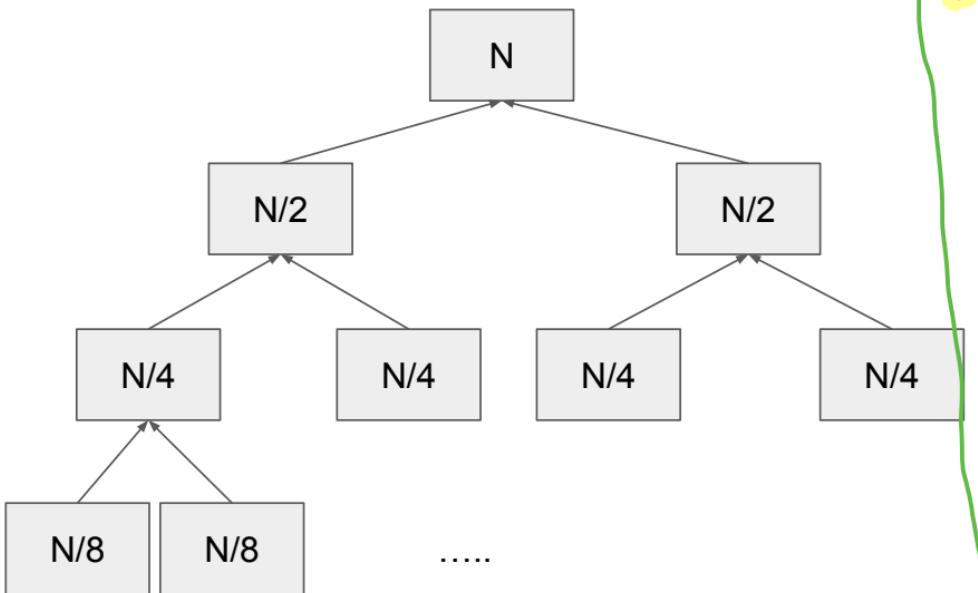


Merge Sort : Order of Growth

splitting $\Rightarrow O(\log N)$

merging $\Rightarrow O(N * H)$
no. of levels

$$= O(N \log N)$$



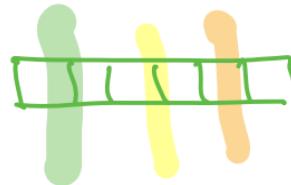
General Principle of Recursion

```
int f1()
{
    //Base case:
        //terminating condition
    //Recursive case:
        f1();
    ...
}
```

Structure of Recursive Solution

- Base Case:
 - simplest form of the problem where recursion is not required (terminating condition)
 - Strings: empty string
 - Numeric arrays: array with 1 entry /array with 0 entry
 - Graphs: single node
 - Search problems: empty node/subtree/ or node with item
- Recursive Case:
 - Make the problem smaller, closer to the base case
 - This includes split, simplify, recursively calling with smaller subproblems
 - Merging/re-constructing solution to original problem
 - Strings: breaking string into chunks
 - Numeric arrays: splitting arrays into sub-arrays
 - Graphs: processing on subsets of the graph
 - Trees: splitting into subsets of tree
 - Search: searching on subsets of data structure

Designing Recursive solution



- Base case:
 - Think of the smallest version of the problem and write down the solution
 - Think of the case when the solution to the problem is not found
- Recursive case:
 - Split the problem into subproblems that will get you closer to the base case
 - Many possible ways to do this
 - Choose the splitting solution that will make the recursive case simpler(fewer steps)
- Combine base case and recursive case
- Things to keep in mind:
 - Cover all the instances for all input sizes user i/p's something with 0 elements
 - Base case should not make recursive calls
 - Recursive calls should call a smaller instance of original input
 - Take that “Recursive leap of faith”

Sorting an array

7	9	4	8	3	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Base Case:

- Empty array
- Array with 1 value ✓

Recursive Case:

- Split the problem
- How?

Insertion Sort NOT A GREAT ALGO

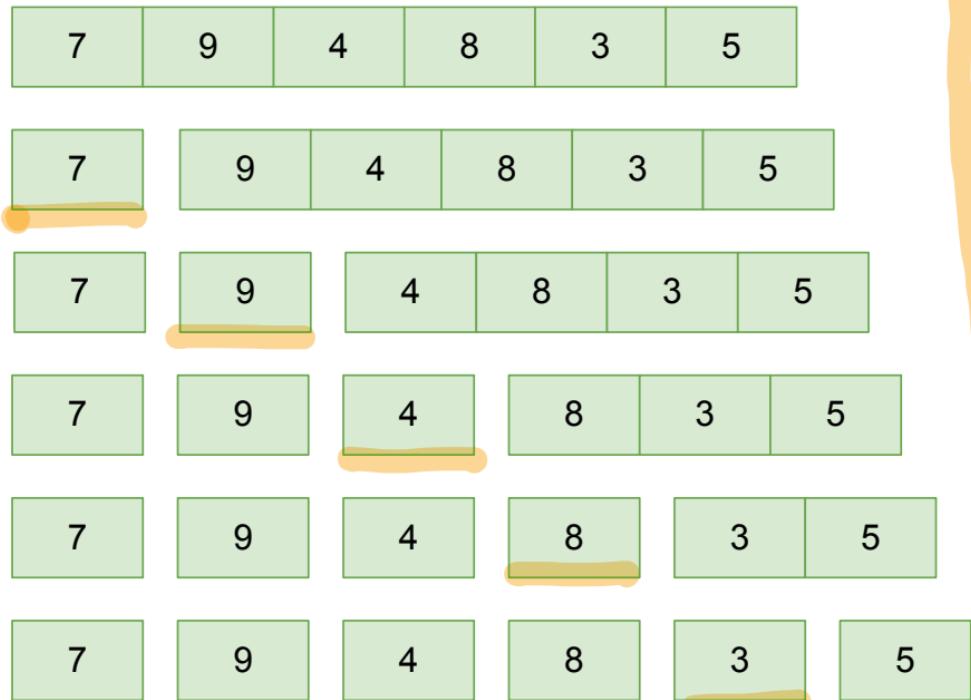
7	9	4	8	3	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Recursive Case:  **Splitting + merging**

- **Split** the array such that first entry into first subarray
- Remaining into second subarray
- Recursively **sort** each subarray
- **Merge** sorted subarrays to build larger subarrays

Insertion Sort

Insertion Sort



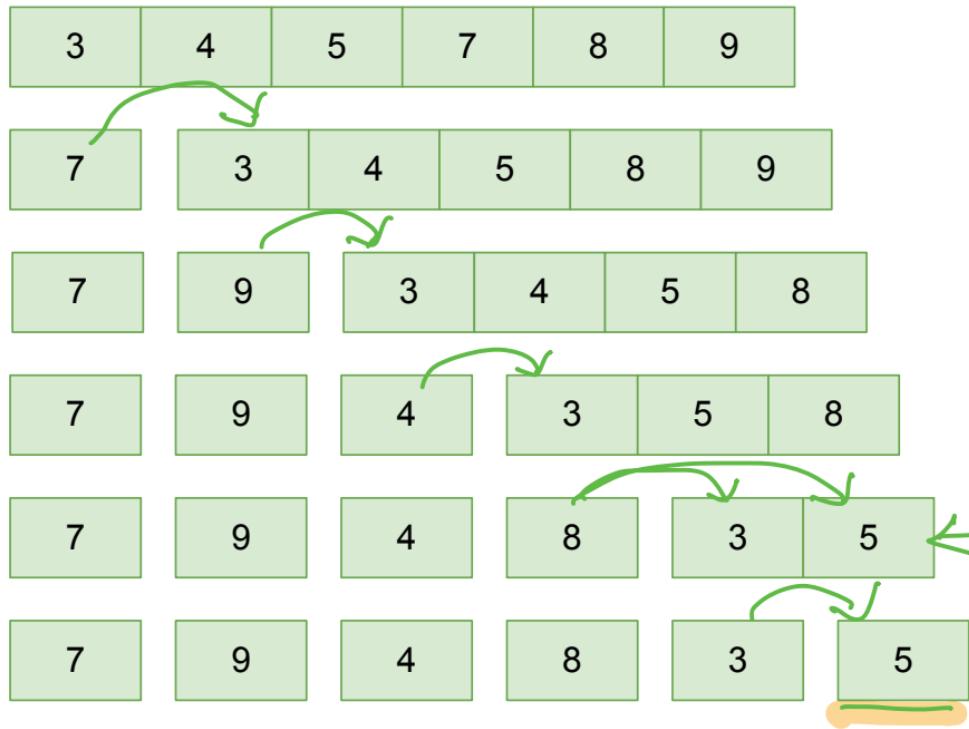
Recursive Case:

- **Split** the array such that
 - first entry into first subarray
 - Remaining into second subarray
- Recursively **sort** each subarray
- **Merge** sorted subarrays to build larger subarrays

Base case

⇒ Splitting

Insertion Sort



Recursive Case:

- **Split** the array such that
 - first entry into first subarray
 - Remaining into second subarray
- Recursively **sort** each subarray
- **Merge** sorted subarrays to build larger subarrays

merge [3] 5 Insert 8

5 is already sorted
Insert 3 into already sorted

sorted array

Complexity of Insertion Sort

Splitting or merging (more work)

max no. of comparisons at each level ??

N (less than N)
 \therefore least upper bound

How many levels ? N

$$O(N * N) = O(N^2)$$

Best case

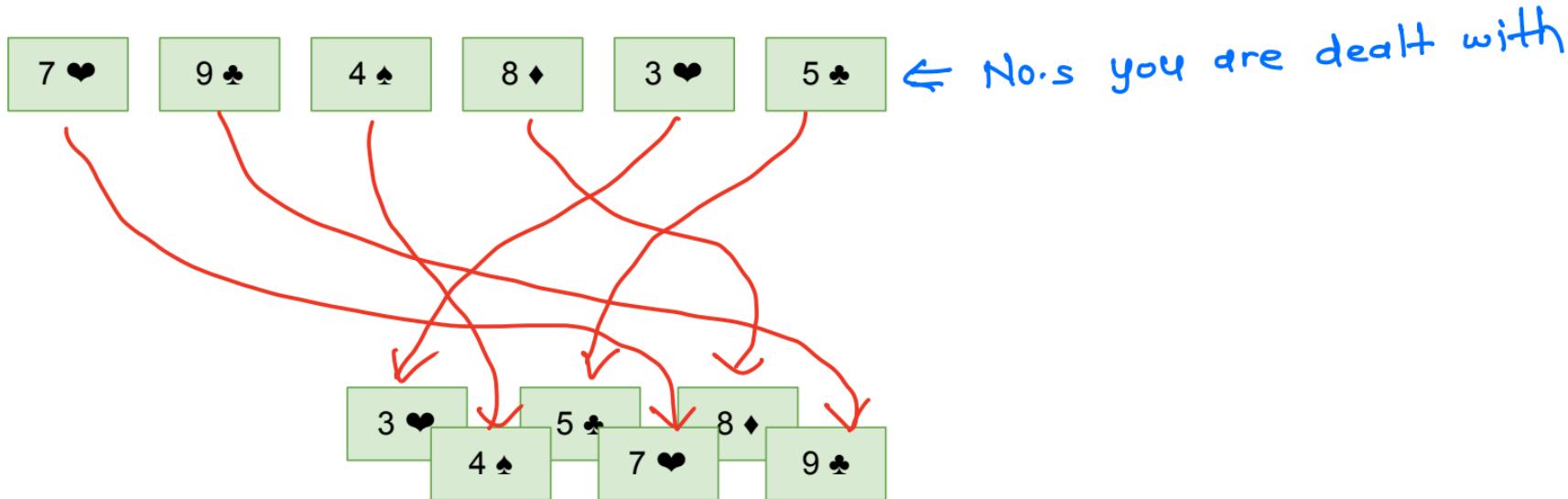


1 2 3 $O(N)$

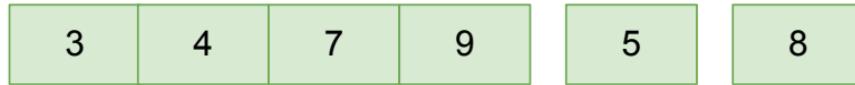
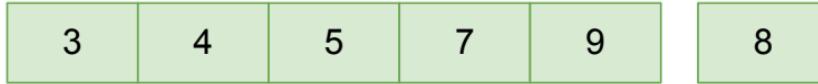
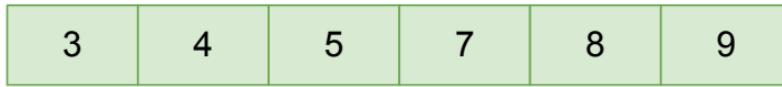
Insertion sort intuitive idea

why do we still study it?
Easy to understand

Sorting set of cards in our hand



Insertion Sort



7 is sorted, Insert 9

sort from beginning

(In place algorithm)

Insertion Sort Pseudocode

$\Rightarrow IS(A, 1) \Rightarrow$ Go to st ③

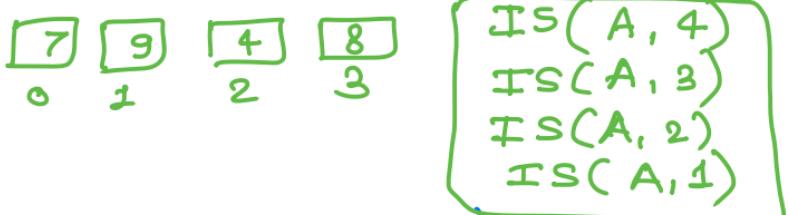
key = $A[1] // 9$

pos = 0 // $A[pos] = 7$

$A[0+1] = 9$

Solution Steps

- Base Case:
 - If array size is 1 or smaller, return.
- Recursive case:
 - Recursively sort first $n-1$ elements.
 - Insert the last element at its correct position in the sorted array.



```
name    size
↓      ↓
InsertionSort(int arr [], int n)
{
    // Base case
    if (n <= 1)
        return control
    // Sort first n-1 elements
    InsertionSort( arr, n-1 )
    int key = arr[n-1]
    int pos = n-2
    while (pos >= 0 && arr[pos] > key)
    {
        arr[pos+1] = arr[pos]
        pos = pos - 1
    }
    arr[pos+1] = key
}
```

progressively small

7 > 9

value is inserted into sorted array

$n-1 =$
1

Example - splitting the array

```
arr = [ 7, 9, 4, 8, 3, 5 ], size = 6
```

```
insertion-sort(arr, 6)
```

```
insertion-sort(arr, 5)
```



```
insertion-sort(arr, 4)
```



```
insertion-sort(arr, 3)
```



```
insertion-sort(arr, 2)
```



```
insertion-sort(arr, 1)
```



.

```
InsertionSort(int arr [], int n)
{
    // Base case
    if (n <= 1)
        return
    // Sort first n-1 elements
    InsertionSort( arr, n-1 )
    int key = arr[n-1]
    int pos = n-2
    while (pos >= 0 && arr[pos] > key)
    {
        arr[pos+1] = arr[pos]
        pos = pos - 1
    }
    arr[pos+1] = key
}
main()
{
    InsertionSort(arr = [ 7, 9, 4, 8, 3, 5 ], 6)
}
```

$\text{Is}(A, n) \Rightarrow (n-1)$ sorted elements. Enter the n th element in sorted array

Example:

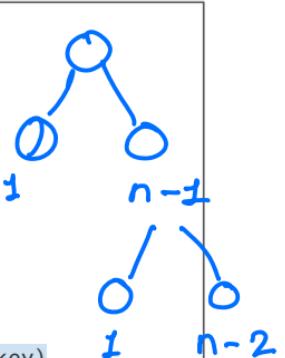
```
arr = [ 7, 9, 4, 8, 3, 5 ], size = 6
insertion-sort(arr, 1) [7]
    insert 9
    return arr = [7, 9]
insertion-sort(arr, 2) [7|9]
    insert 4
    return arr = [4, 7, 9]
insertion-sort(arr, 3) ..
    insert 8
    return arr = [4, 7, 8, 9]
insertion-sort(arr, 4)
    insert 3
    return arr = [3, 4, 7, 8, 9]
insertion-sort(arr, 5)
    insert 5
    return arr = [3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9]
insertion-sort(arr, 6)
```

```
InsertionSort(int arr [], int n)
{
    // Base case
    if (n <= 1)
        return
    // Sort first n-1 elements
    InsertionSort( arr, n-1 )
    int key = arr[n-1]
    int pos = n-2
    while (pos >= 0 && arr[pos] > key)
    {
        arr[pos+1] = arr[pos]
        pos = pos - 1
    }
    arr[pos+1] = key
}
main()
{
    InsertionSort(arr = [ 7, 9, 4, 8, 3, 5 ], 6)
}
```

Insertion sort

```
on hold → insertion-sort(arr, 6)
on hold → insertion-sort(arr, 5)
on hold → insertion-sort(arr, 4)
on hold → insertion-sort(arr, 3)
on hold → insertion-sort(arr, 2)
on hold → insertion-sort(arr, 1)
```

```
InsertionSort(int arr [], int n)
{
    // Base case
    if (n <= 1)
        return
    // Sort first n-1 elements
    InsertionSort( arr, n-1 )
    int key = arr[n-1]
    int pos = n-2
    while (pos >= 0 && arr[pos] > key)
    {
        arr[pos+1] = arr[pos]
        pos = pos - 1
    }
    arr[pos+1] = key
}
main()
{
    InsertionSort(arr = [ 7, 9, 4, 8, 3, 5 ], 6)
}
```



function call stack

arr = [7, 9, 4, 8, 3, 5], size = 6

insertion-sort(arr, 1)

```
key = arr[1] = 9 ← Trying to place key into the sorted array
pos = 0
while (0 >= 0 && arr[0] > 9)
{
}
arr[0+1] = 9
arr = [7, 9]
```

insertion-sort(arr, 2)

```
key = arr[2] = 4
pos = 1
while (pos >= 0 && arr[pos] > 4)
{
    arr[pos+1] = arr[pos]
    pos = pos - 1
}
arr[-1+1] = 4
arr = [4, 7, 9]
```

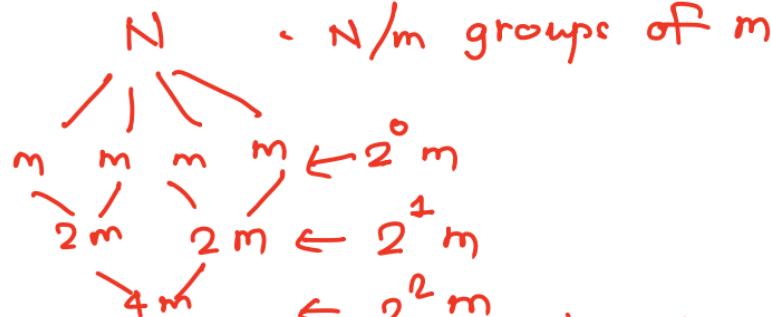
Advantages of IS \Rightarrow size of list to be sorted is small, runs faster

Takes $O(N)$ time when elements are already sorted
In-place algo

Advantages of Mergesort \Rightarrow division of main prob. into subproblems, no major cost

Quick Sort

Combine IS + MS $\Rightarrow O(N(m + \log N/m))$



Divide
m is small, best case
 $O(m) * \frac{N}{m} = O(N)$
worst $O(m^2) * \frac{N}{m} = O(Nm)$

Merge

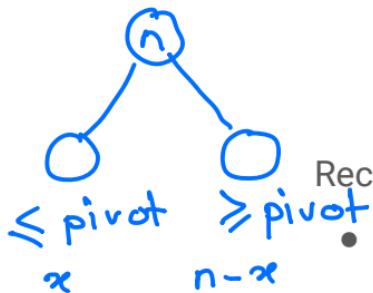
to step i $? * m = N$

$$i = \log\left(\frac{N}{m}\right)$$

Quicksort

nearly sorted
size m $m < N$

Cost of merging = No. iterations * cost of it
 $= (N * \log \frac{N}{m})$



Recursive Case:

- Pivot is chosen at random
- Two subarrays are created:
 - One subarray with all entries \leq Pivot
 - Another subarray with entries $>$ Pivot



- Recursively sort each subarray until the base case is reached
- Merge sorted subarrays to build larger subarrays

depending on pivot

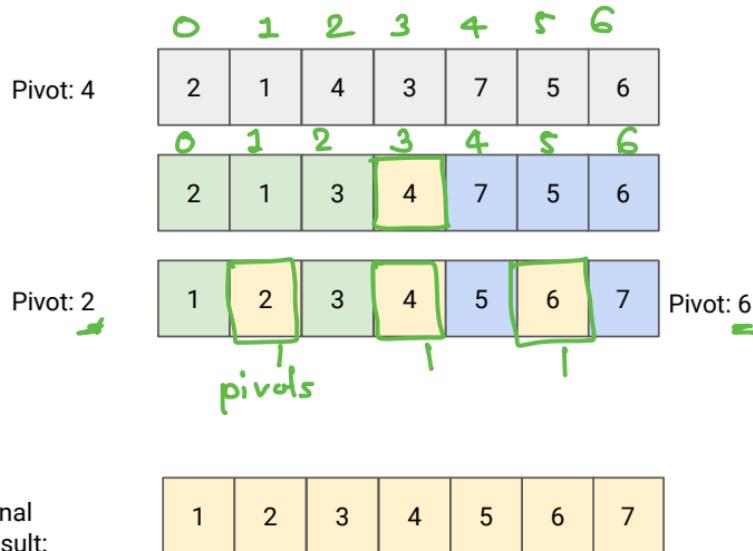
divide + merging
 $O(N) + O(N * \log \frac{N}{m})$
 $O(Nm) + O(N * \log \frac{N}{m})$

Quicksort

- Idea of Quicksort
 - Partition array A into A[1..q - 1], A[q], and A[q + 1..n] such that
 - Each element in A[1..q - 1] is \leq A[q].
 - Each element in A[q + 1..n] is $>$ A[q].
 - The element A[q] is called **pivot**.
 - Recursively sort (in place) each subarray.
- Average complexity:
 - $O(n \log n)$ ✓
- Worst case complexity:
 - $O(n^2)$ ✓

In-place algo.

Quicksort Example

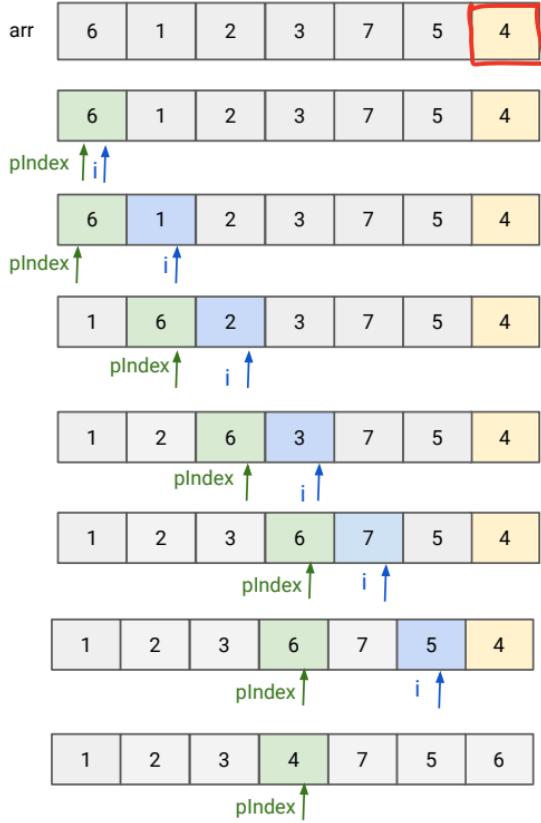


2 functions

```
quickSort(arr[], start, end)
{
    if (start < end) ← base condition
    {
        /* pIndex partitioning index, arr[pIndex] is now at right place */
        3 pIndex = partition(arr, start, end);

        quickSort(arr, start, pIndex - 1); // Before pIndex
        quickSort(arr, pIndex + 1, end); // After pIndex
    }
}
```

Quicksort Example

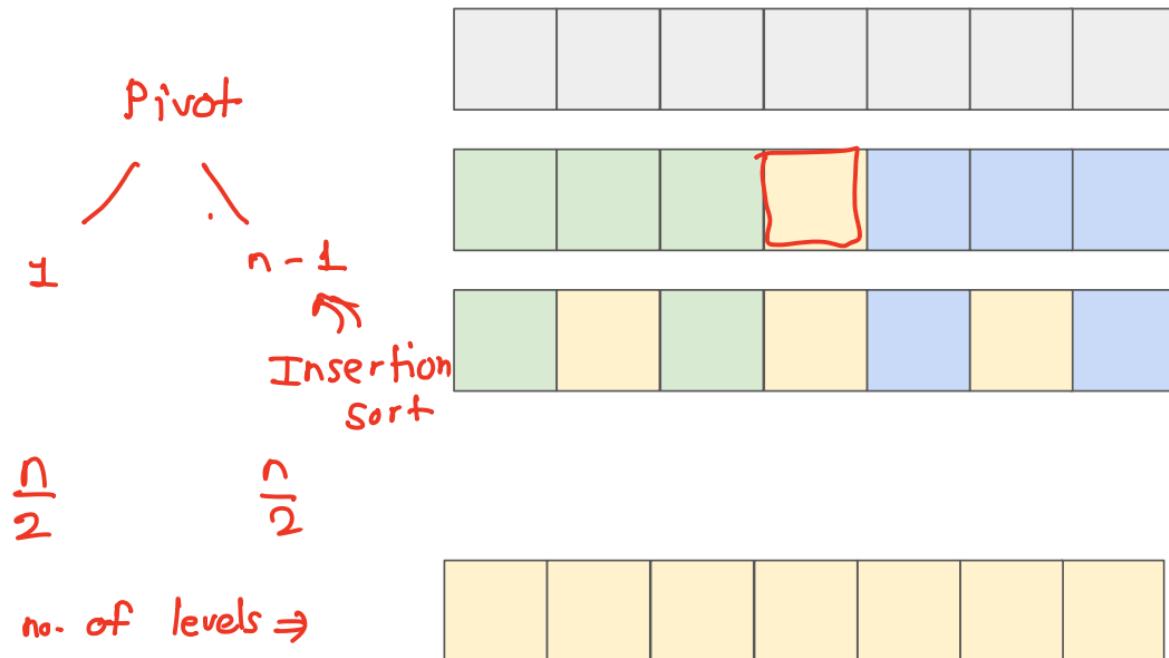


```
quickSort(arr[], start, end)
{
    if (start < end)
    {
        /* pIndex partitioning index, arr[pIndex] is now at right place */
        pIndex = partition(arr, start, end);

        quickSort(arr, start, pIndex - 1); // Before pIndex
        quickSort(arr, pIndex + 1, end); // After pIndex
    }
}
```

```
partition (arr[], start, end)
{
    4 pivot = arr[end]
    0 pIndex = start      5
    for (i = start; i < end - 1; i++)
    {
        // If current element is smaller than the pivot
        if (arr[i] < pivot)  6 < 4, 2 < 4, 3 < 4, 7 < 4,
        {                    5 < 4
            swap arr[pIndex] and arr[i]
            pIndex ++ 1
        }
    }
    swap arr[pIndex] and pivot
    return pIndex
}
3
```

Quicksort Example - Best Case \Rightarrow Pivot always ends up
in the middle of
the array



Quicksort Example - Best Case

ar

Pivot: 4

2	1	4	3	7	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Pivot: 3

2	1	3	4	7	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Pivot: 2

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

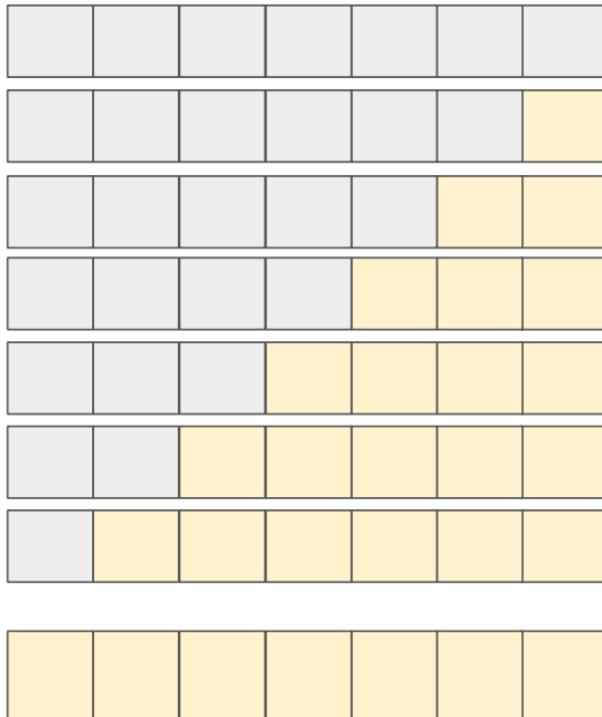
Pivot: 6

Final result:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Quicksort Example - Worst Case

array is sorted in
[ascending] or
descending order



Quicksort Example - Worst Case

Pivot: 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Pivot: 6

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Pivot: 5

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Pivot: 4

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Pivot: 3

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Pivot: 2

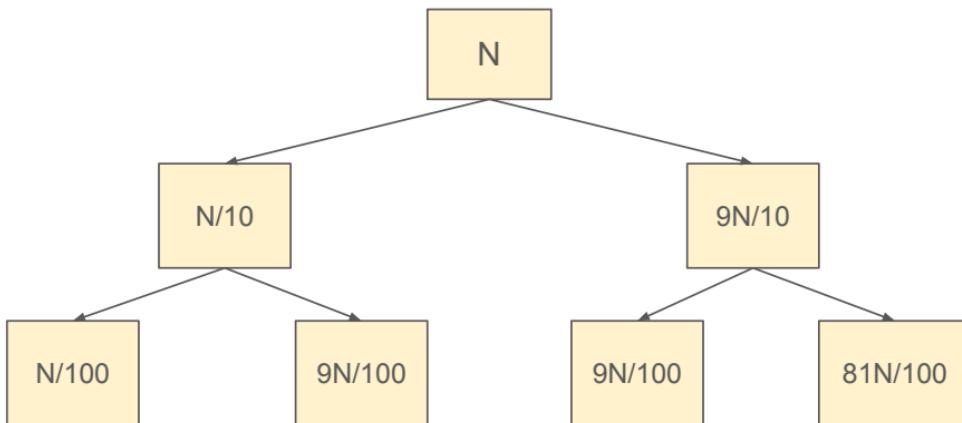
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Final result:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Quicksort Example - Average case



~~10%~~ Pivot always falls in the first 10% of the array

- Complexity: $O(N * H)$
- Height
 - $\log_{10/9} N$
- Complexity on Average:
 - $O(N \log N)$

Randomization of Pivot

Randomization of array

Merge Sort

Merge Sort

Not In - Place algo

Requires extra Space

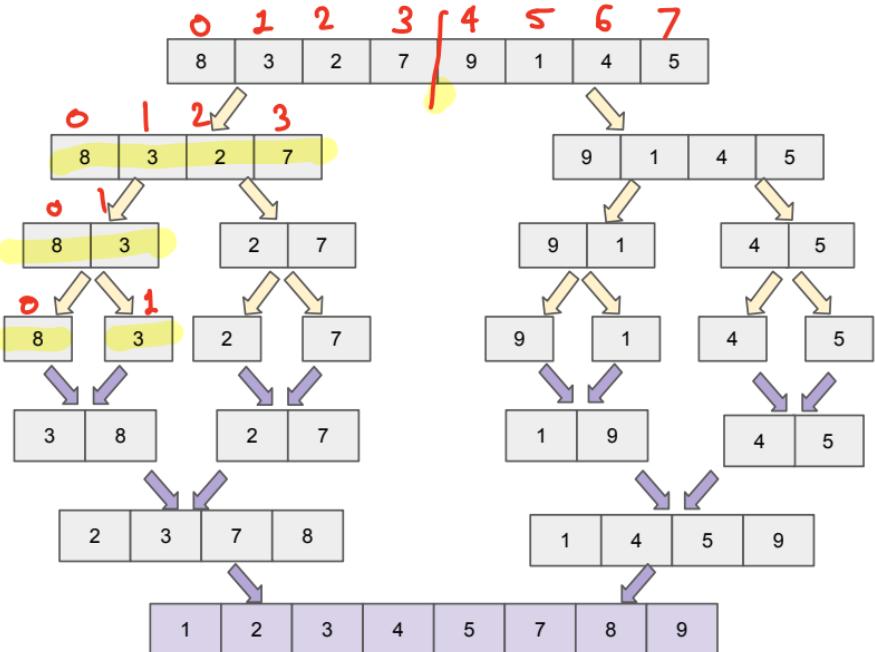
7	9	4	8	3	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Recursive Case:



- **Split** the input array such that
- Each subarray has half entries of the original
- Recursively **sort** each subarray until the base case is reached
- **Merge** sorted subarrays to build larger subarrays

Pseudocode



$\text{mid} = 3$ MS($A, 0, 7$) on hold
 $\text{mid} = 2$ MS($A, 0, 3$) on hold
 $\text{mid} = 0$ MS($A, 0, 1$) on hold (ongoing)
MS($A, 0, 0$) done!
MS($A, 1, 1$) done!
merge($A, 0, 0, 1$) indices

```

void mergeSort(int arr[], int left, int right)
{
    //Base case
    if left > right
        return;
    //Recursive case
    mid = (left+right)/2
    // Sort first and second halves
    mergeSort(arr, left, mid);
    mergeSort(arr, mid + 1, right);
    merge(arr, left, mid, right);
}

```

Sorting is done in merge function

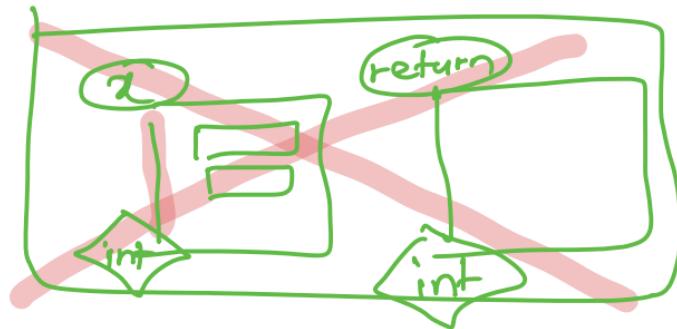
Performance

- Merge Sort:
 - Best case: $O(N \log N)$
 - Worst case: $O(N \log N)$
- Quick Sort:
 - Best case: $O(N \log N)$
 - Worst case: $O(N^2)$
 - Randomly chosen array size: (Average Case) $O(N \log N)$
- Which one is faster?
 - Quicksort
 - Requires empirical analysis.

Implementation considerations for recursive methods

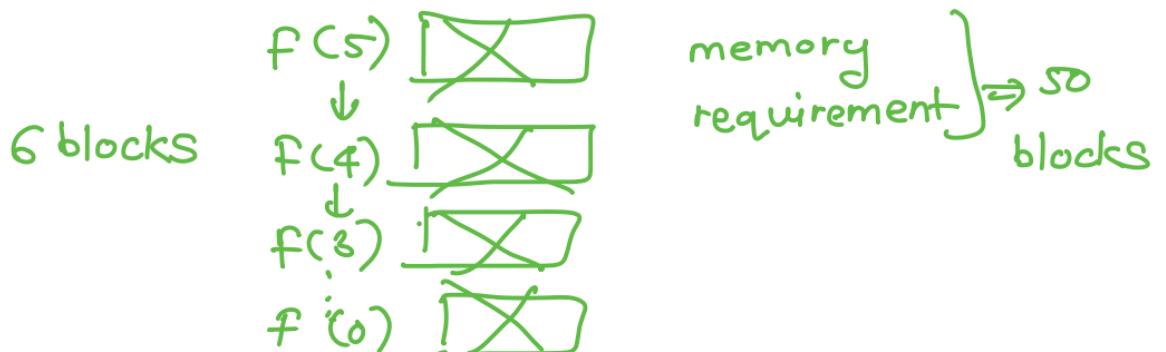
Memory Model

- Memory model of functions:
 - Non-recursive functions: Calling a function
 - Reserves space for function's parameters, variables, and return value
 - Release the space after the return value is obtained
 - Recursive functions: Calling function
 - Reserves space for function's parameters, variables, and return value
 - Release the space after each recursive call is completed

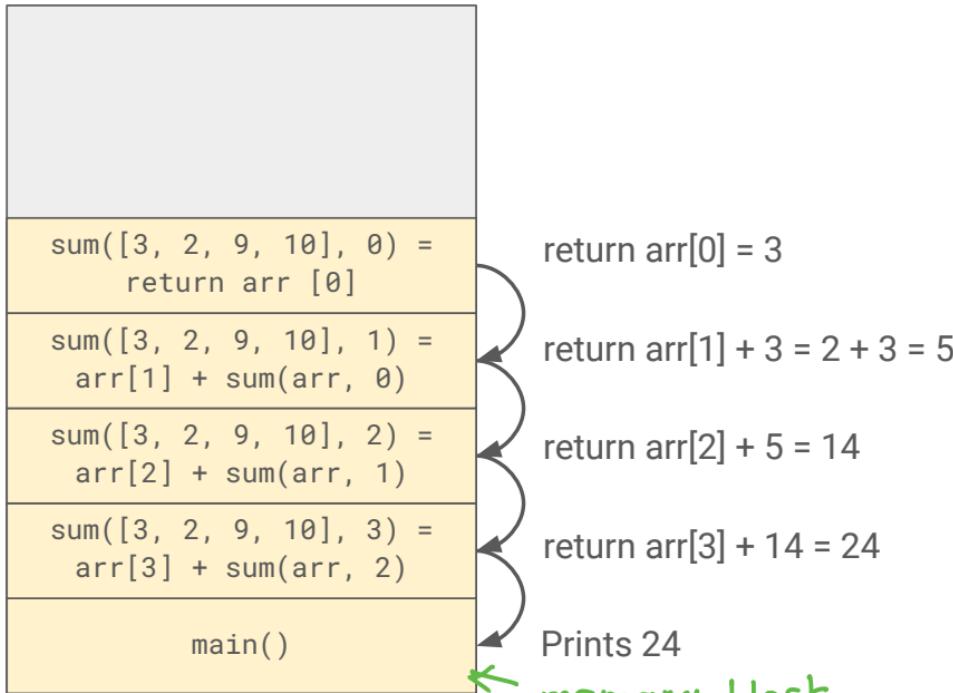


$f()$ {

$f()$



Example function call stack



stack \Rightarrow data structure

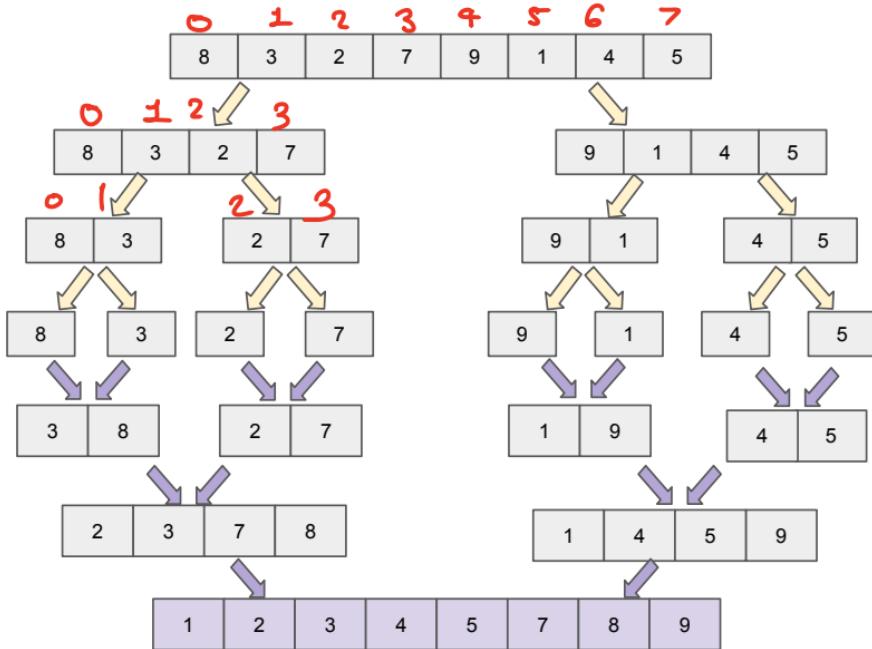


```
void sum(int arr[], int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return arr[0];
    else
        return arr[n] + sum(arr, n-1);
}

int main()
{
    int arr = [3, 2, 9, 10];
    printf("%d", sum(arr, 3));
}
```

↑
Index of last
position

Call Stack for Merge Sort



```

void mergeSort(int arr[], int left, int right)
{
    //Base case
    if left > right
        return
    //Recursive case
    mid = (left+right)/2
    // Sort first and second halves
    mergeSort(arr, left, mid);
    mergeSort(arr, mid + 1, right);

    merge(arr, left, mid, right);
}

```

If $0 > 0 \rightarrow$ No, so control returns to next call to mergeSort

Call mergeSort ([3], 1, 1)

If $1 > 1 \rightarrow$ No, so control returns to next call to mergeSort

Call merge ([8, 3], 0, 0, 1)

merge([8, 3], 0, 0, 1) returns sorted array arr [3, 8]

merge([2, 7], 2, 2, 3)

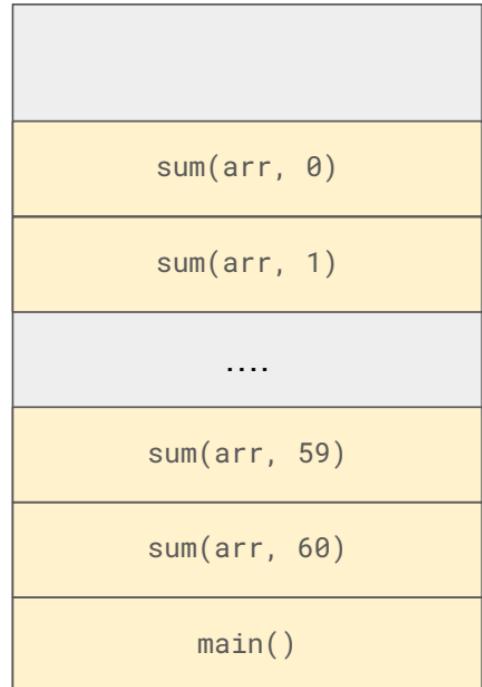
merge([8, 3, 2, 7], 0, 1, 3)

mergeSort([8, 3, 2, 7], 0, 3)

mergeSort([8, 3, 2, 7, 9, 1, 4, 5], 0, 7)

Things to consider

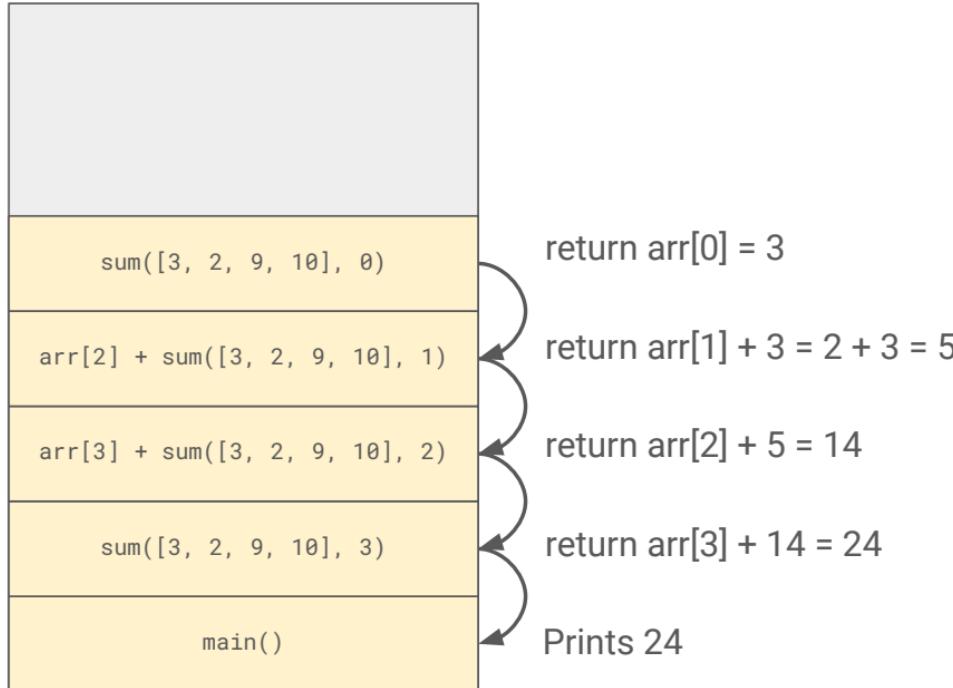
- Recursion call stack grows upwards
- Depending on the input size, call stacks with individual stack frames for each recursive call can grow large!
- Code can run out of stack space
- Program can terminate abruptly!
- Solution:
 - **Tail-recursive optimization**
- What is tail recursion?
 - A tail recursive function is a function where recursive call is the last thing executed by the function.



Function call stack

Non-tail recursive

Tail recursive

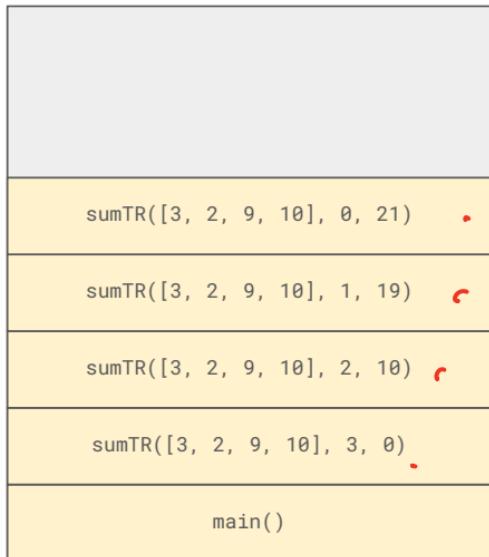


Function call stack

```
void sum(int arr[], int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return arr[0];
    else
        return arr[n] + sum(arr, n-1);
}

int main()
{
    int arr = [3, 2, 9, 10];
    printf("%d", sum(arr, 3));
}
```

Tail Recursive Optimization



Function call stack

A tail recursive function is a function where recursive call is the last thing executed by the function.

*acts like an
accumulator*

```
void sumTR(int arr[], int n, part_sum)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return part_sum + arr[0];
    else
        return sum(arr, n-1, part_sum+arr[n]);
}

int main()
{
    int arr = [3, 2, 9, 10];
    printf("%d", sumTR(arr, 3, 0));
}
```

Compilers recognize tail-recursive functions and optimize use of stack frames

Tail Recursive Optimization

sumTR([3, 2, 9, 10], 0, 21)

main()

part_sum = 0 + 10 = 10

Function call stack

A tail recursive function is a function where recursive call is the last thing executed by the function.

```
void sumTR(int arr[], int n, part_sum)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return part_sum + arr[0];
    else
        return sumTR(arr, n-1, part_sum+arr[n]);
}

int main()
{
    int arr = [3, 2, 9, 10];
    printf("%d", sumTR(arr, 3, 0));
}
```

Factorial

base case

$n=0$

recursive case

$n * \text{fact}(n - 1)$

$\text{fact}(n)$
 $= n * \text{fact}(n - 1)$

$$n! = n \times (n - 1) \times (n - 2) \times \dots \times 1$$

$$1! = 1$$

$$2! = 2 \times 1 = 2$$

$$3! = 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$4! = 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 24$$

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120$$

Iteration vs Recursion vs Tail recursion

Iteration

Every recursive program can be modeled into iterative program

Recursion

- Advantage:
 - More elegant
 - Shorter code
 - Intuitive approach
- Disadvantage:
 - Larger problems can occupy more space
 - Function call stack can grow large

```
int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact = 1, i;
    for (i = 2; i <= n; i++)
        fact *= i; fact = fact * i
    return fact;
}
```

Tail Recursion

Better performance since stack space is saved by the compiler

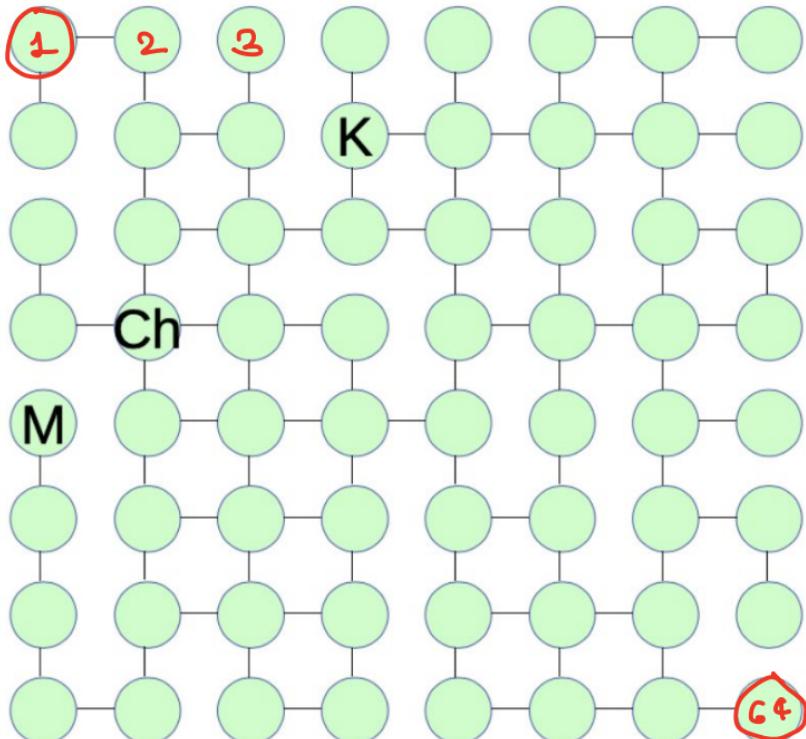
```
int fact(int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return 1;
    return n * fact(n-1);
}
```

```
int factTR(int n, int part_fact)
{
    if (n == 1)
        return part_fact;
    return factTR(n-1, n * part_fact);
}
```

accumular

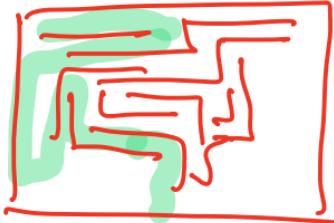
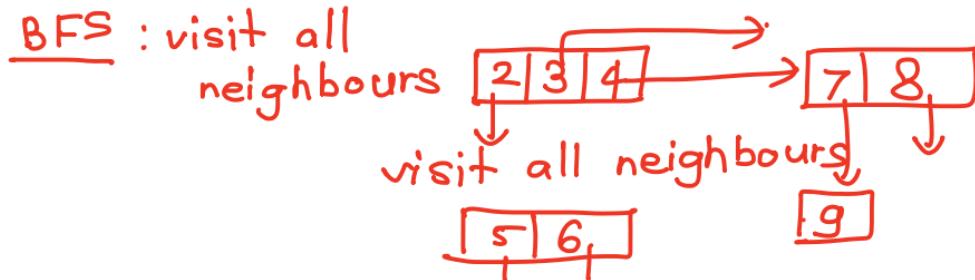
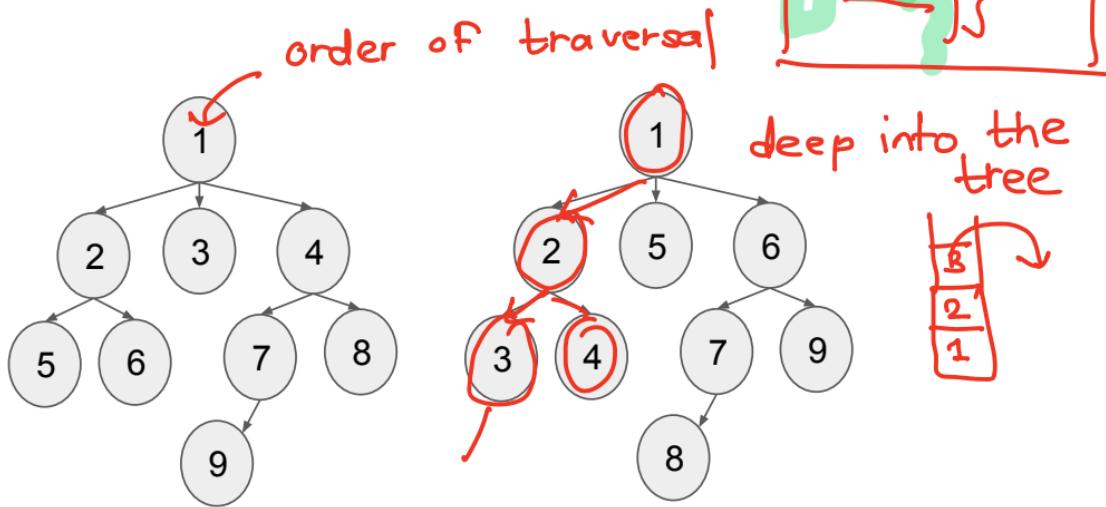


Back to Graphs

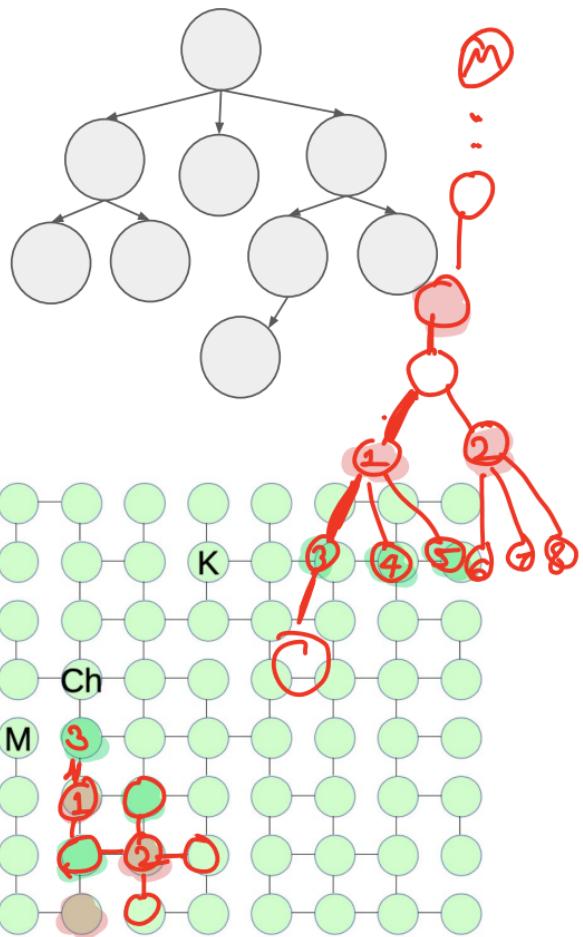


- Represent with Adjacency Matrix:
 - Size 64×64
- Problem: Find a path, which consists of a sequence of connected nodes, leading from the start node to the destination.
- Base Case:
 - Reached destination node
 - No nodes left
- Recursive Case:
 - Finding the path from given node
 - Removing current node
 - Finding path from each neighbour of the current node to the destination
 - Once destination is identified, Attach current node to start of path

Graph Traversal

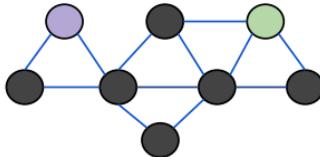


Given G

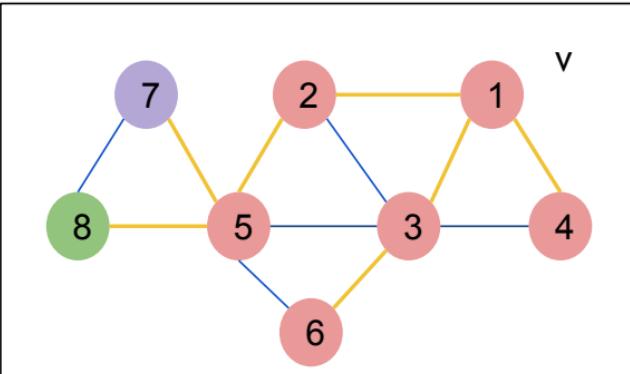
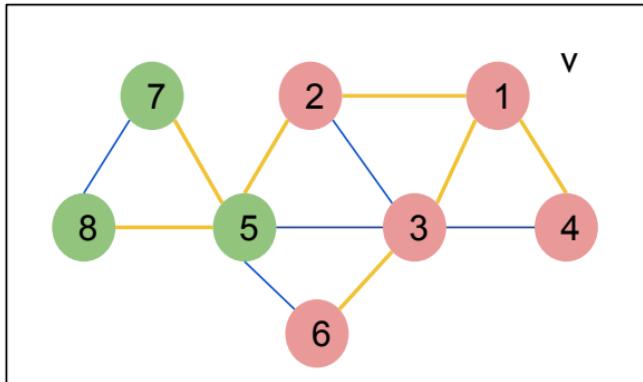
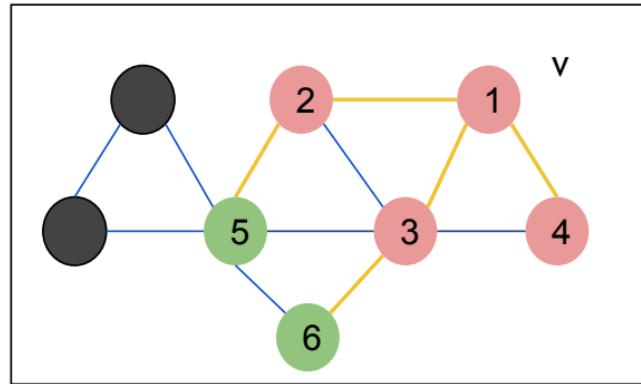
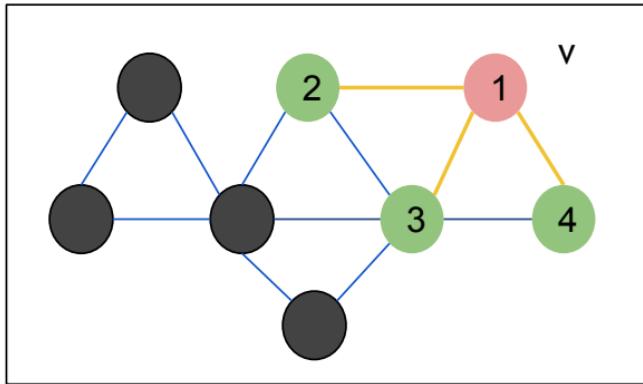


Graph Traversal

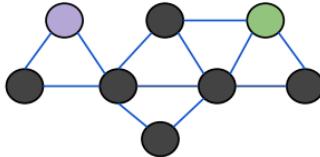
For search



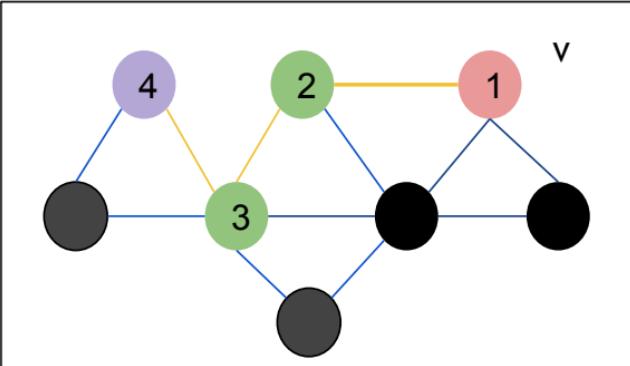
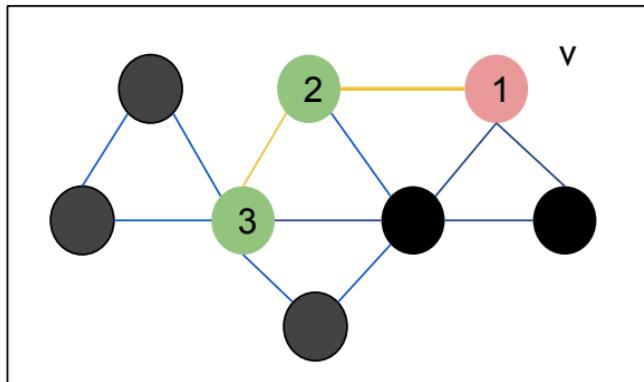
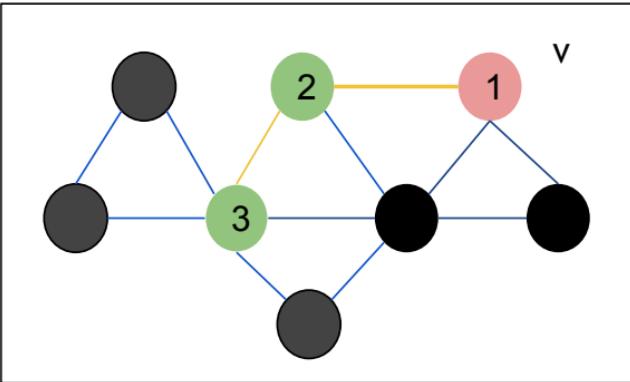
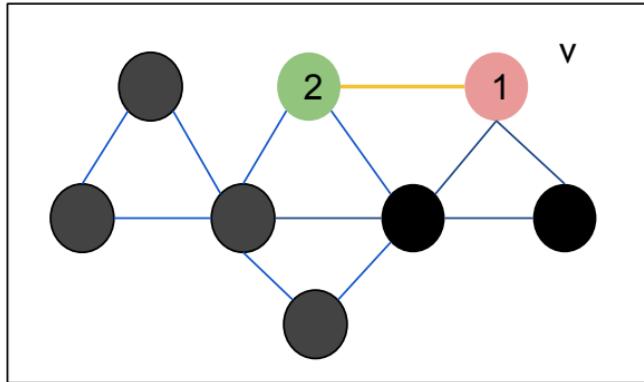
Breadth First Search



Graph Traversal for search



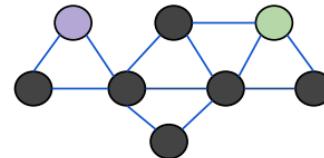
Depth First Search



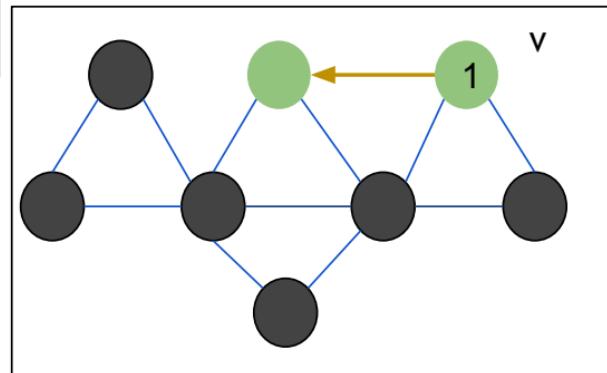
DFS - finding path

```
// Inputs: current node (its index in the graph)
// destination node (its index in the graph)
// Adjacency matrix (to figure out a node's neighbours)

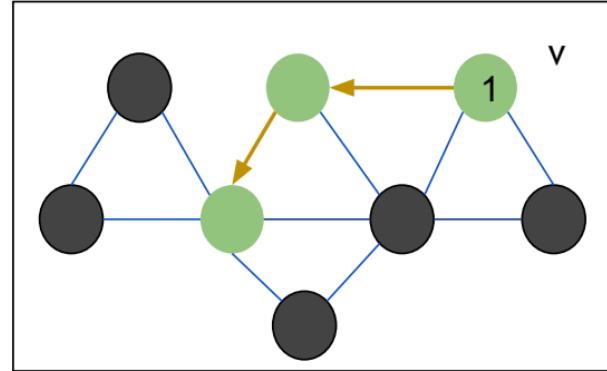
DFS(current, destination, A)
    if current==destination
        return destination // We got to base case!
    else
        for each neighbour of current
            subpath = DFS(neighbour, destination, A)
            if subpath found
                // prepend current to subpath to build full path
                return {current -> subpath}
        return (nil) // Second base case, no subpath from current
```



1



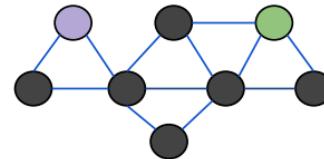
2



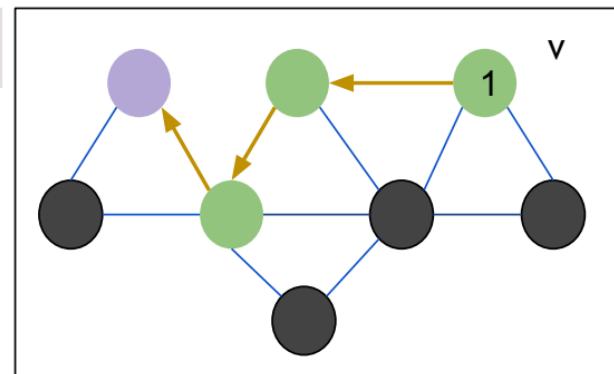
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3

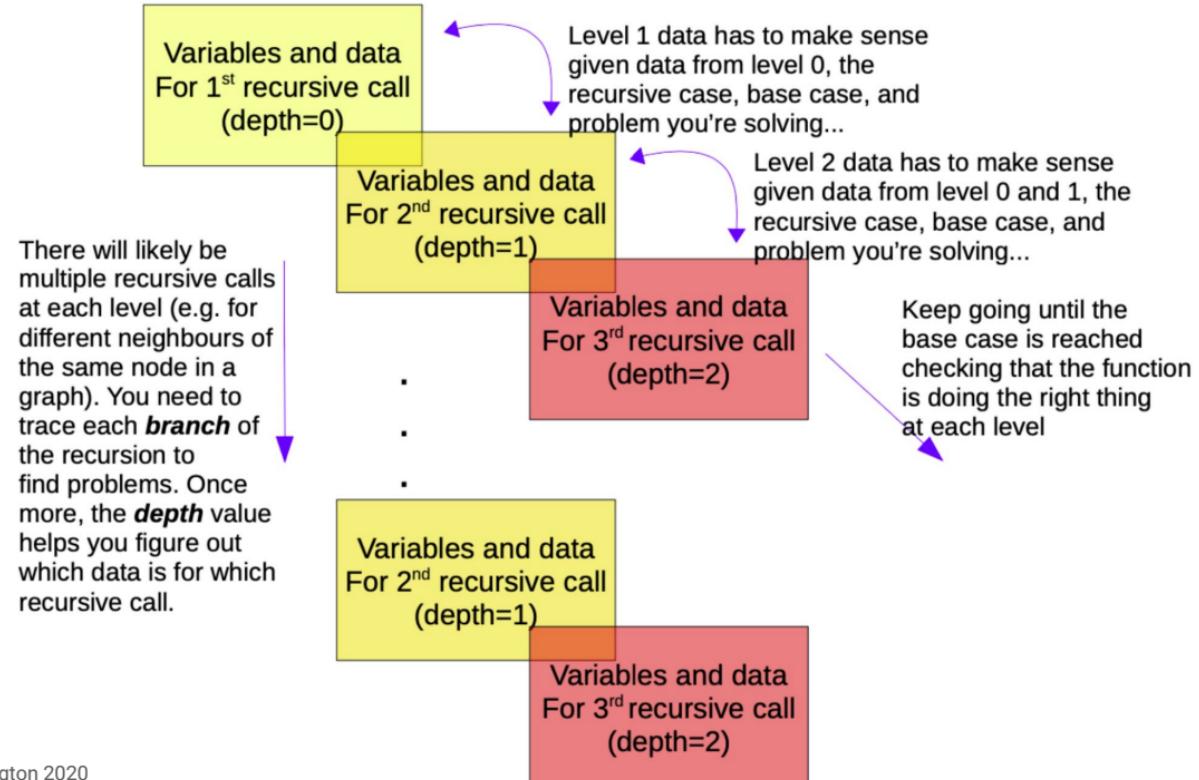


Tracing recursive calls

- Which recursive call is not doing the right thing?
- Add another variable (depth or level) for tracing the recursive calls at each level
- Function definition:
 - $\text{DFS}(\text{current}, \text{destination}, \text{Adj}, \text{depth})$
- The first call to DFS will look like this:
 - $\text{DFS}(15, 1, \text{Adj}, 0);$
 - (Find a path from node 15 to node 1, with adjacency matrix Adj, initial recursion depth is 0).
- Within the DFS code, the recursive calls will look like this:
 - $\text{subpath}=\text{DFS}(\text{neighbour}, \text{destination}, \text{Adj}, \text{depth}+1);$
- Use either gdb or printf() to trace which recursion level these variables belong to

auxiliary variable

How does this help?



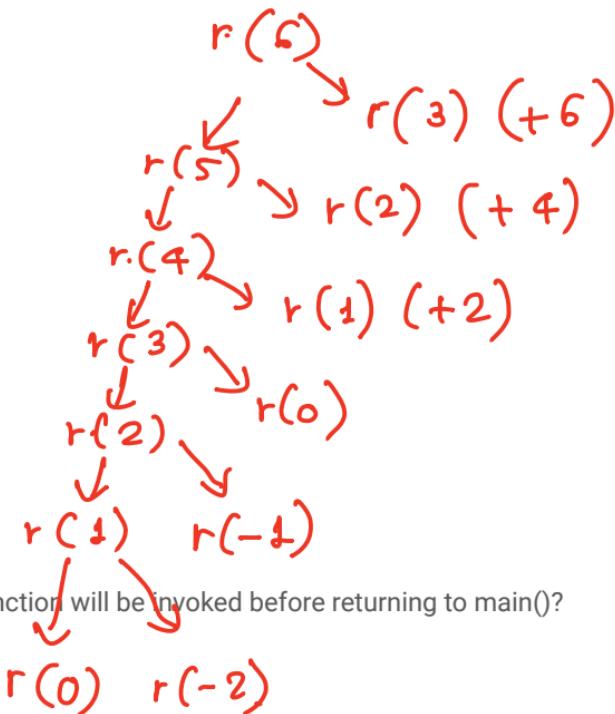
Recursion Practice Problem

Consider following recursive function:

```
void recur(int n)
{
    if(n<1)
        return;
    recur(n-1);
    recur(n-3);
}
```



If $\text{recur}(6)$ is called from $\text{main}()$ function, how many calls to $\text{recur}()$ function will be invoked before returning to $\text{main}()$?



Recursion Practice Problem

Consider following recursive function:

```
void recur(int n)
{
    int i = 0;
    if(n>1)
        recur(n-1);
    for(i=0; i<n; i++)  
        printf("*");
}
```

How many times * is printed for recur(n)?

Generalize o/p

$$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$n \times n$

for $n = 2$

$r(2)$

$r(1)$

$r(0)$

*
* *

3

$n=3$

$r(3)$

$r(2)$

$r(1)$

$r(0)$

*
* *
* * *

3

$n=4$

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

$n=5$

*

**

$$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

for $n=k$
 $1+2+3+4+\dots+k$
 $- k(k+1)$

Take Away from Unit 5

- Recursion is an intuitive approach
 - Utilize when problem can be broken down in self similar manner
 - Optimize stack space using tail recursion
- Common recursion errors
 - Never reaches base case
 - Runs out of stack space
 - Doesn't return the correct solution
 - Avoid such errors with the help of auxiliary variables
- Recursion might look challenging, but more examples you practice, more comfortable you will get with the idea!