

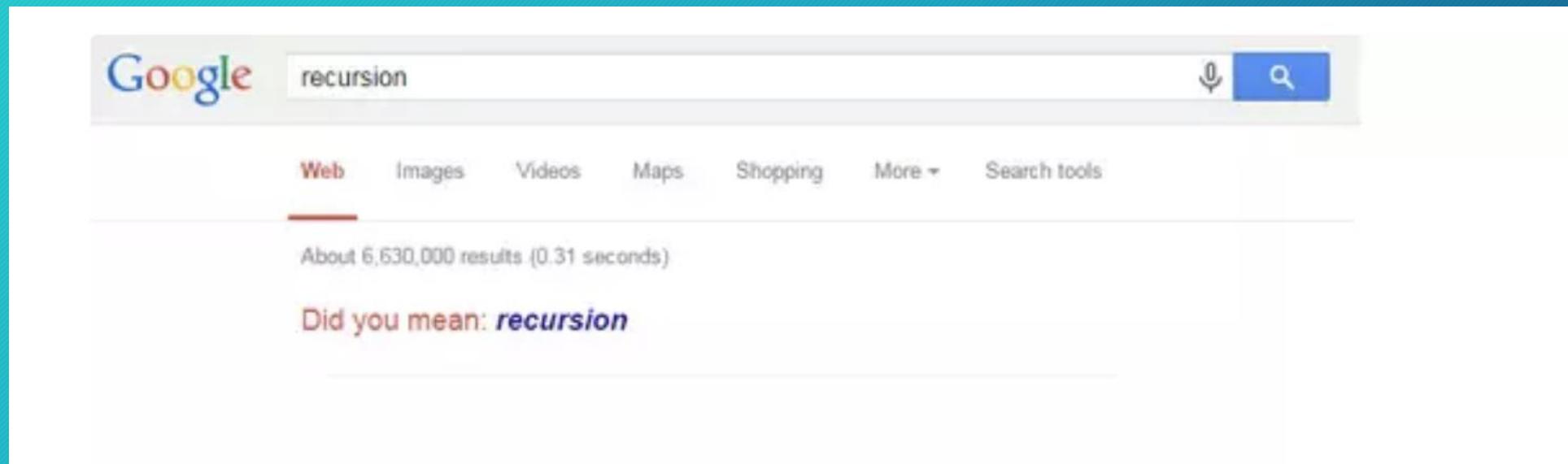
# PROGRAMMING IN HASKELL



Chapter 7.1 - Recursive Functions

# What do we mean by recursion ?

1



Something is recursive if it is defined in terms of itself.

## Recursion v iteration

In both cases we repeat a task.

- Iteration - repeat a task while a given condition holds
- Recursion - repeat a task on (a) smaller part(s) of the problem

## **Recursion example ‘take one, pass them on’**

The teacher comes into the classroom with a pile of pages. Each of the 100 students need to be handed a page. The instructions that the teacher gives to the students are :

1. Take the pile of pages from the previous student
2. Take one for yourself
3. Pass on the (smaller) pile to the next student if there are still some pages left.
4. If there is no page left, inform the teacher.

## Recursion example ‘take one, pass them on’

We need to slightly reword the instructions to the students to be clearer:

1. Take the pile of pages from the previous student
2. Take a page from the pile (your page)
3. Check the number of pages left in the pile
4. **If** the number is zero -> inform the teacher ‘Job is done’  
**Otherwise** -> pass on the (smaller) pile to the next student.

## Recursion - Binary Search

Many algorithms naturally fall into the recursive family,  
e.g., binary search.

‘Look for an element in a sorted list’

Check in the ‘middle’. Now what you’re looking for is one of

- there (found it!!)

- < current element (in this case repeat on the left hand side, ignoring the right-hand side)

- > current element (in this case, repeat on the right hand, ignoring the left-hand side)

- not there at all (when the remaining list is empty)

# Recursion and Iteration

- Recursive definitions are elegant and easy to understand
- THIS DOES NOT MEAN THAT THEY ARE EASY TO WRITE
- Iterative definitions (e.g., loops) are usually more efficient.
- We can mechanically derive an iterative definition from a recursive one.

# Recursion and Haskell

7

- In this course, we use recursion a lot, starting with lists
- But first... try to think of something you do in your everyday life that you could describe recursively.

## So, show me some Haskell

8

As we have seen, many functions can naturally be defined in terms of other functions.

```
fac :: Int → Int  
fac n = product [1..n]
```

fac maps any integer n to the product of the integers between 1 and n.

## Evaluation of expressions

Expressions are evaluated by a stepwise process of applying functions to their arguments.

For example:

```
fac 4  
= product [1..4]  
= product [1,2,3,4]  
= 1*2*3*4  
= 24
```

And now, recursive definition

Let us look at the factorial function using recursion

```
fac 0 = 1  
fac n = n * fac (n-1)
```

fac maps 0 to 1, and any other integer to the product of itself and the factorial of its predecessor.

For example:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{fac } 3 \\ = & 3 * \text{fac } 2 \\ = & 3 * (2 * \text{fac } 1) \\ = & 3 * (2 * (1 * \text{fac } 0)) \\ = & 3 * (2 * (1 * 1)) \\ = & 3 * (2 * 1) \\ = & 3 * 2 \quad = \quad 6 \end{aligned}$$

- $\text{fac } 0 = 1$  is appropriate because 1 is the identity for multiplication:  $1 \cdot x = x = x \cdot 1$ .
- The recursive definition diverges on integers  $< 0$  because the base case is never reached:

```
> fac (-1)
```

```
*** Exception: stack overflow
```

## Why is Recursion Useful?

- Some functions, such as factorial, are simpler to define in terms of other functions.
- As we shall see, however, many functions can naturally be defined in terms of themselves.
- Properties of functions defined using recursion can be proved using the simple but powerful mathematical technique of induction.

# Recursion on Lists

14

Recursion is not restricted to numbers, but can also be used to define functions on lists.

```
product :: Num a => [a] -> a
product []      = 1
product (n:ns) = n * product ns
```

product maps the empty list to 1, and any non-empty list to its head multiplied by the product of its tail.

## Example - product

15

For example:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{product } [2, 3, 4] \\ = & 2 * \text{product } [3, 4] \\ = & 2 * (3 * \text{product } [4]) \\ = & 2 * (3 * (4 * \text{product } [])) \\ = & 2 * (3 * (4 * 1)) \\ = & 24 \end{aligned}$$

## length function

16

Using the same pattern of recursion as in product we can define the length function on lists.

```
length :: [a] → Int  
length []      = 0  
length (_:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

length maps the empty list to 0, and any non-empty list to the successor of the length of its tail.

## Evaluation of length

For example:

$$\begin{aligned}& \text{length } [1, 2, 3] \\&= 1 + \text{length } [2, 3] \\&= 1 + (1 + \text{length } [3]) \\&= 1 + (1 + (1 + \text{length } [])) \\&= 1 + (1 + (1 + 0)) \\&= 3\end{aligned}$$

## reverse function

18

Using a similar pattern of recursion we can define the reverse function on lists.

```
reverse :: [a] → [a]
reverse []      = []
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]
```

reverse maps the empty list to the empty list, and any non-empty list to the reverse of its tail appended to its head.

## Call of reverse function

For example:

```
reverse [1,2,3]
=
reverse [2,3] ++ [1]
=
(reverse [3] ++ [2]) ++ [1]
=
((reverse [] ++ [3]) ++ [2]) ++ [1]
=
(([[] ++ [3]]) ++ [2]) ++ [1]
=
[3,2,1]
```

# In General..

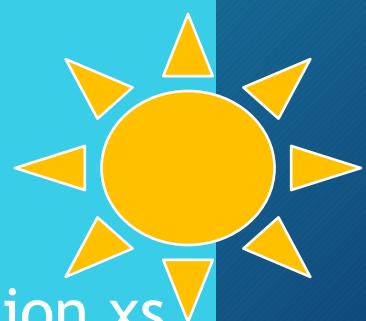
20



When applying recursion to lists, it usually takes on the following structure:

```
recursiveFunction [] = []
```

```
recursiveFunction (x : xs) =  
    doSomethingWith x : recursiveFunction xs
```



Looking at insertion sort, we first look at a function that inserts a new element of any Ordered type into a sorted list to return another sorted list.

```
insert :: Ord a => a -> [a] → [a]
insert x []      = [x]
insert x (y:ys)
  | x <= y    = x : y : ys
  | otherwise = y: insert x ys
```

Now, using `insert`, we can define a function that implements  
*Insertion sort*

in which the empty list is already sorted and any non-empty list  
is sorted by inserting its head into the list that results from  
sorting its tail.

```
isort :: Ord a => [a] → [a]
isort []      = []
isort (x:xs) = insert x (isort xs)
```

# Multiple Arguments

23

Functions with more than one argument can also be defined using recursion. For example:

- Zipping the elements of two lists:

```
zip :: [a] → [b] → [(a,b)]
zip []      _      = []
zip _      []      = []
zip (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x,y) : zip xs ys
```

# Multiple Arguments

24

- Remove the first n elements from a list:

```
drop :: Int → [a] → [a]
drop 0 xs      = xs
drop _ []      = []
drop n (_:xs) = drop (n-1) xs
```

- Appending two lists:

```
(++) :: [a] → [a] → [a]
[]      ++ ys = ys
(x:xs) ++ ys = x : (xs ++ ys)
```

The quicksort algorithm for sorting a list of values can be specified by the following two rules:

- The empty list is already sorted;
- Non-empty lists can be sorted by sorting the tail values  $\leq$  the head, sorting the tail values  $>$  the head, and then appending the resulting lists on either side of the head value.

# Quicksort

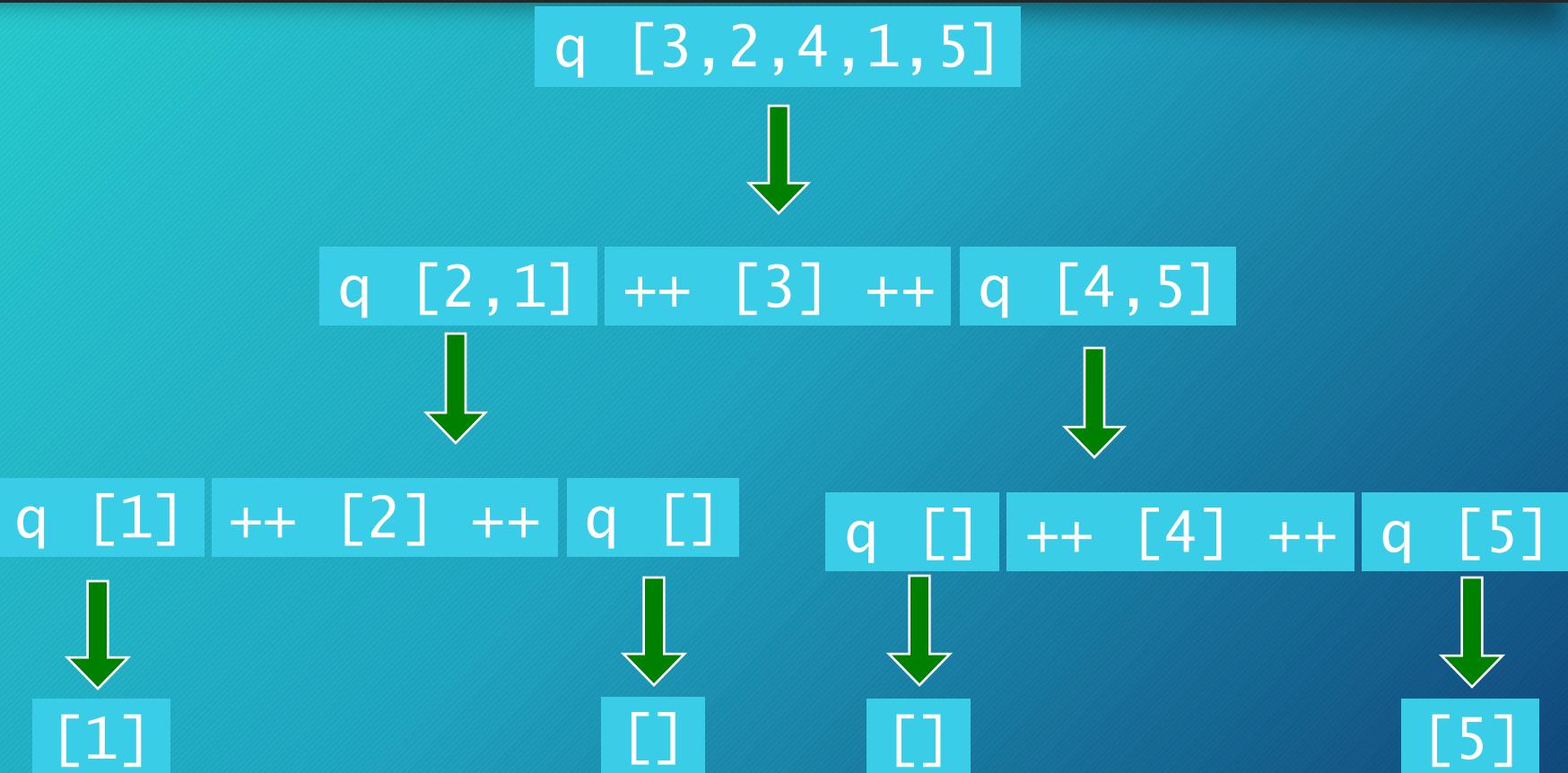
26

Using recursion, this specification can be translated directly into an implementation:

```
qsort :: Ord a ⇒ [a] → [a]
qsort []      = []
qsort (x:xs) =
    qsort smaller ++ [x] ++ qsort
  larger
  where
    smaller = [a | a ← xs, a ≤ x]
    larger  = [b | b ← xs, b > x]
```

Note: This is probably the simplest implementation of quicksort in any programming language!

For example (abbreviating qsort as q):



- Step 1 - Define the type,
- Step 2 - Enumerate the cases,
- Step 3 - Define the simple case,
- Step 4 - Define the other cases,
- Step 5 - Generalise and simplify.

## Example 1 - product using steps - Step 1

**product** - the function that takes a list and returns the product of the numbers.

Step 1 - Define the type

```
product :: [Int] -> Int
```

(Use the simplest type possible)

## Step 2 - Enumerate the cases

30

For most types, there are a number of standard cases to consider.

For lists, these are

- the empty list and

- the non-empty list

```
product []      =
```

```
product (n:ns)  =
```

## Step 3 - Define the simple case

31

By definition, the product of zero integers is one, because one is the identity for multiplication.

So:

```
product []      = 1  
product (n:ns)  =
```

## Step 4 - Define other cases

32

Consider the ingredients that can be used, e.g.

- the function itself (product) and
- the arguments (n and ns) and
- library functions of the relevant types (+, -, \*, /)

```
product []      = 1
product (n:ns)  = n * product ns
```

The other cases are often recursive cases.

## Step 5 - Generalise and Simplify

33

We can generalise from integers to any numeric type

```
product :: [Int] -> Int
product []      = 1
product (n:ns)  = n * product ns
```



```
product :: Num a => [a] -> a
product []      = 1
product (n:ns)  = n * product ns
```

We will see how to simplify the definition later

## Example 2 - drop using steps - Step 1

**drop** - the function that takes an integer ( $n$ ) and a list of values of some type  $a$  and returns a list with the first  $n$  elements dropped.

Step 1 - Define the type

```
drop :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
```

(Use the simplest type possible)

## Step 2 - Enumerate the cases

35

For integer type, the two standard cases are:

- 0 and
- n

For lists, these are

- the empty list and
- the non-empty list

```
drop 0 []      =
drop 0 (x:xs)  =
drop n []      =
drop n (x:xs)  =
```

## Step 3 - Define the simple case

36

- By definition, removing zero elements from the start of a list gives the same list.
- Removing n elements from an empty list can return an empty list (for safety).

So:

```
drop 0 []      = []
drop 0 (x:xs)  = x:xs
drop n []      = []
drop n (x:xs)  =
```

## Step 4 - Define other cases

Consider the ingredients that can be used, e.g.

- the function itself (`drop`) and
- the arguments (`x` and `xs`) and
- library functions of the relevant types (`+, -, *, /`)

```
drop 0 []      = []
drop 0 (x:xs)  =  x:xs
drop n []      = []
drop n (x:xs)  =  drop (n-1) xs
```

## Step 5 - Generalise and Simplify

38

```
drop :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
drop 0 []      = []
drop 0 (x:xs)  = x:xs
drop n []      = []
drop n (x:xs)  = drop (n-1) xs
```

We can generalise from integers to any integral type and simplify otherwise:

```
drop :: Integral b => b -> [a] -> [a]
drop _ []      = []
drop 0 xs     = xs
drop n (_:xs) = drop (n-1) xs
```



ANY  
QUESTIONS?