

# RECURSION AND ITERATION

## Function calls and Call Stack

- Modularity vs. Efficiency

## Tail Calls and Tail Call Elimination

- Tail Recursion

## Divide-and-Conquer

- Recursive vs. Iterative Implementations

# SPACE COMPLEXITY AND TIME COMPLEXITY

- Relation between *the time taken to run a program* and *the space used by it* is not simple.
  - Each program is allocated Virtual Memory space (i.e. set of logical addresses)
  - These addresses are mapped partially to RAM (primary memory) and partially to disk (secondary memory)
    - Typical ratio of raw access times: 50ns for RAM to 10ms for disk (i.e.  $1 / 10^5$ )
    - In an OS with efficient buffering, I/O scheduling, and disk caching typical ratio of access times can be made 1 : 1000
  - So if space usage crosses the RAM capacity (or available RAM capacity )
    - then increase in space will drastically increase time taken

# MODULARITY VS. EFFICIENCY

- We structure our program into procedures (or functions) to make it modular:
  - and modularity brings in ease of maintenance and reuse.
- Once a procedure is defined
  - it can be used – i.e. called – as many times as needed and
  - its implementation can be changed without affecting its use
- On the other hand, each procedure call has an implementation overhead
  - the cost of pushing and popping call frames on the call stack (or activation stack)
    - typically several instructions (5 to 10) in most modern platforms
    - in addition to store parameters and local variables on the call frame

# PROCEDURE CALLS AND CALL STACK

Consider the following program:

```
int PI = 3;
int a(int n) { return PI*n*n; }
int t(int n) { return a(4*n) + a(2*n); }
void main() { int x = t(5); print(x); return 1; }
```

**Order of Call / Return:** ---> main ---> t ---> a<sub>1</sub>  
 <---  
 ---> a<sub>2</sub>  
 <---  
 <---  
 <---

Returns are reverse order of calls – LIFO order

# PROCEDURE CALLS AND CALL STACK

Consider the following program:

```
int PI = 3;
int a(int n) { return PI*n*n; }
int t(int n) { return a(4*n) + a(2*n); }
void main() { int x = t(5); print(x); return 1; }
```

**For each call there is – possibly - work to do after return;  
this is called a continuation:**

t in main	assignment to x; print;
a <sub>1</sub> in t	multiplication; call a <sub>2</sub> ; addition;
a <sub>2</sub> in t	addition

**For each procedure local variables (including parameters) must  
be saved somewhere –**

**this space is known as a call frame**

# PROCEDURE CALLS AND CALL STACK

Combining the arguments from the two previous slides, we need a call stack (a.k.a activation stack)

- a call results in pushing of a call frame on stack
- a return results in popping of the top of stack frame

Exercise: Draw the call stack at the marked points in the following program.

```
int PI = 3;  
int a(int n) { return PI*n*n; }  
int t(int n) { return a(4*n) + a(2*n); }  
void main() { int x = t(5); print(x); return 1; }
```

## TAIL CALLS AND TAIL-CALL ELIMINATION

- A *tail call* is a procedure call with an empty continuation.
  - i.e. after the call returns the enclosing procedure can also return (immediately, without any further computation).
- What is the implication (for the call stack)?
  - Callee procedure can overwrite the frame of the caller
    - i.e. local variables & parameters of the caller can be overwritten.
- Once the stack operations are taken care of,
  - the call becomes a jump to the start of the callee procedure.
- The combination of these two steps is called tail-call elimination i.e.
  - replacing the call with a jump and
  - overwriting the caller's frame

# TAIL CALLS AND TAIL-CALL ELIMINATION

- Compilers may do automatic tail-call elimination.
- Exercise:
  - Find out the command line option in **gcc** for tail call elimination. (Refer to the man pages).
    - See specifically under the “-f” option, that lists all optimizations related to function calls.
  - Write a program with tail calls and non-tail calls
    - Compile the program separately with and without the tail-call-elimination option
    - Compare the code. (Use **gcc** to generate assembly code in .s files).
      - Question: What is the **gcc** option for this?



## TAIL RECURSION

- A recursive procedure call that is also a tail call is referred to as *a tail recursive call*.
  - What is the implication for the call stack?
    - Caller and callee are the same –
      - so overwriting the frame is same as updating the local variables and parameters.
    - One single call frame is enough irrespective of the number of (tail) recursive calls.
- The following procedure should run forever (without stack overflow):
  - `void eternity() { eternity(); }`
- Exercise: Verify this using **gcc**. Of course you need to use the appropriate option.

## CALLS WITH A CONTINUATION

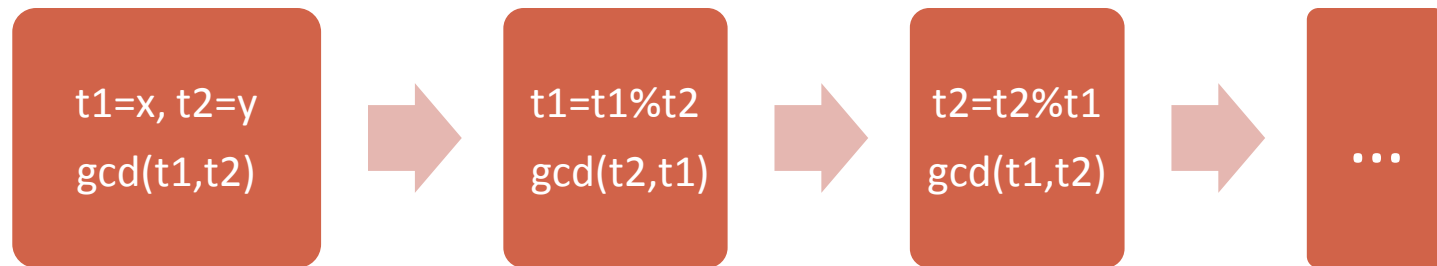
- Non-tail calls can be converted into tail calls:
- E.g. Consider the following code:
  - `f(p1, p2) { S1; g(e); S2; }`
  - `// S1 and S2 are statement w/o calls;`
  - `//S2 uses p2 but not p1 nor other local variables`
  - `g(p3) { S3; }`
- This can be rewritten as
  - `f(p1,p2) { S1; g1(e,p2); }`
  - `g1(p3,p2) { S3; S2; }`
  - `// You need to handle conflicts in local names`
- There are a few other tricks! We'll see them soon!

## RECURSIVE VS. ITERATIVE ALGORITHMS - EXAMPLE

- Problem: Compute the greatest common divisor (gcd) of two natural numbers.
- Known properties:
  - $x \mid 0$  for any  $x$ , so,  $\text{gcd}(x, 0)$  is  $x$
  - $\text{gcd}(x, y)$  is the same as  $\text{gcd}(y, x)$
  - if  $d \mid x$  and  $d \mid y$  then  $d \mid (x - y)$ 
    - By induction  $d \mid (x \% y)$
- Divide-and-Conquer strategy:
  - The sub problem for  $\text{gcd}(x, y)$  is
    - $\text{gcd}(y, x \% y)$
  - The atomic subproblem is
    - $\text{gcd}(x, 0)$

# RECURSIVE VS. ITERATIVE ALGORITHMS - EXAMPLE

## ○ Euclid's Algorithm - Divide and Conquer Design



Recursive Algorithm:

//Precondition:  $x > y \geq 0$

//Postcondition: returns  $z > 0$  such that  $z$  is  $\text{gcd}(x,y)$

```
int gcd(int x, int y)
```

```
{
```

```
    if (y==0) return x; else return gcd(y, x%y);
```

```
}
```

# EUCLID'S ALGORITHM – TIME COMPLEXITY

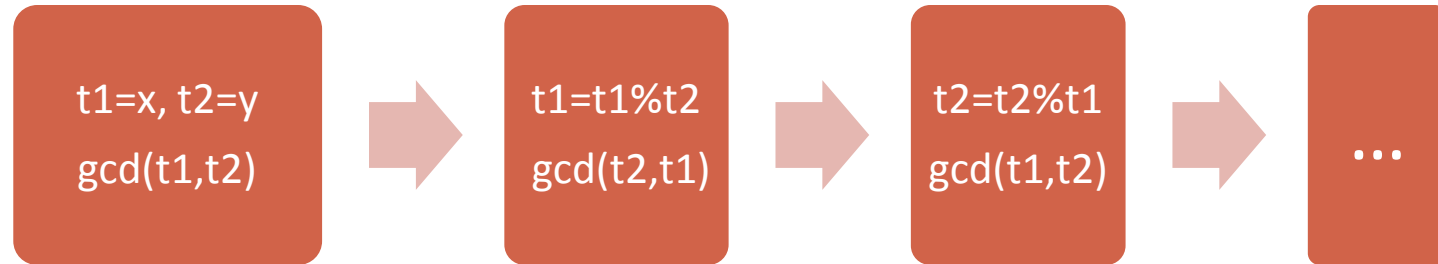
- When does the worst case happen?
  - Consider the case:  $x \approx y$ , then  $(x \% y) \ll y$
  - Consider the case:  $x \gg y$ , then  $(x \% y) \approx y \ll x$ 
    - i.e. either will lead to quick convergence of problem size to 0
    - i.e. they will not result in worst case behavior
- The worst case will happen when
  - neither of the above (conditions) is true for  $x$  and  $y$
  - and that is also the case for the sub-problem inputs
    - i.e.  $y$  and  $x \% y$
- Fibonacci numbers fit the bill:
  - Consider  $x == F_n$  and  $y == F_{n-1}$ , then the call sequence is:
  - $\text{gcd}(F_n, F_{n-1}) \rightarrow \text{gcd}(F_{n-1}, F_{n-2}) \rightarrow \text{gcd}(F_{n-2}, F_{n-3}) \rightarrow \dots$

# EUCLID'S ALGORITHM – TIME COMPLEXITY

- Fibonacci numbers fit the bill:
  - Consider  $x = F_n$  and  $y = F_{n-1}$ , then the call sequence is:
  - $\text{gcd}(F_n, F_{n-1}) \rightarrow \text{gcd}(F_{n-1}, F_{n-2}) \rightarrow \text{gcd}(F_{n-2}, F_{n-3}) \rightarrow \dots$
- So  $\text{gcd}(x, y)$  will terminate in  $k$  steps (worst case) where
  - $F_k \leq x < F_{k+1}$
- What is the value of  $k$ ?
  - By solving the Fibonacci recurrence:  $k = \text{ceil}(\log(x))$
- Time Complexity of Euclid's algorithm is  $O(\log(x))$ 
  - This is true assuming the uniform cost model.
  - What is the complexity using the logarithmic cost model?
- Space Complexity (due to call stack) is  $O(\log(x))$

# RECURSIVE VS. ITERATIVE ALGORITHMS - EXAMPLE

## ○ Euclid's Algorithm - Divide and Conquer Design



Iterative Algorithm:

//Precondition:  $x > y \geq 0$

//Postcondition: returns  $z > 0$  such that  $z$  is  $\text{gcd}(x,y)$

```
int gcd(int x, int y)
```

```
{
```

```
    int a=x, b=y, t;
```

```
    while (b!=0) { // Loop Invariant: gcd(x,y) == gcd(a,b)
```

```
        t=a;  a=b;  b=t%b;
```

```
    }
```

```
    // Post-condition: gcd(x,y)=gcd(a,b) and b=0
```

```
    return a;
```

```
}
```

Time & Space  
Complexities?

# RECURSION AND ITERATION

## Divide-and-Conquer

- Recursive vs. Iterative Implementations

## Recursive, Tail-Recursive and Iterative Procedures

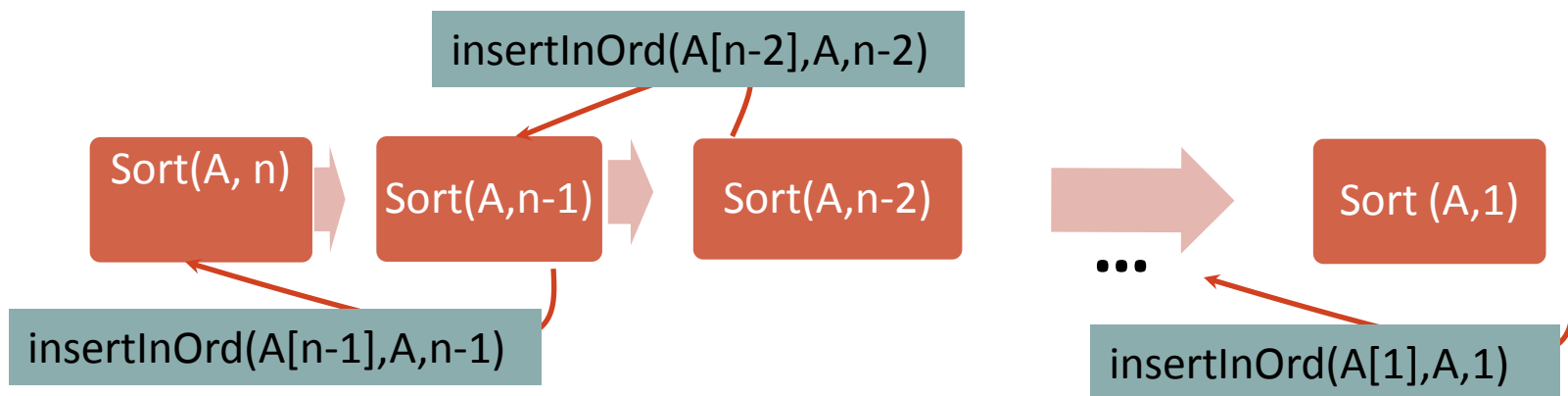
## QuickSort – Space Complexity,

- Iterative Procedure with explicit stack
- Controlling Stack Size.

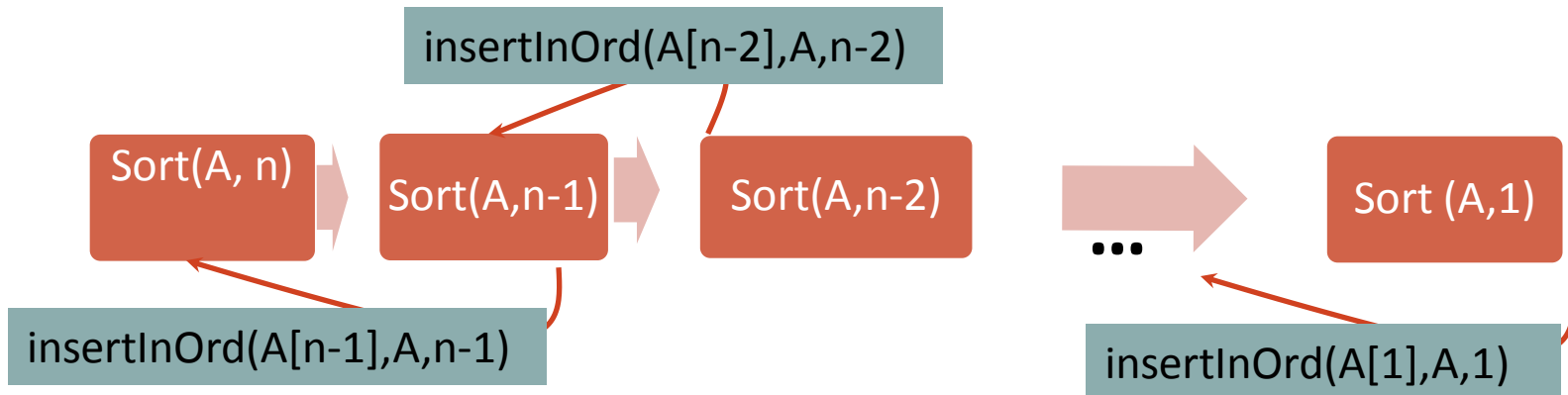


## RECURSIVE VS. ITERATIVE ALGORITHMS – EXAMPLE 2

- Problem: Sort, in-place, a list of  $N$  elements.
  - Assume list is stored as an array  $A[0], A[1], \dots A[n-1]$
- Design : Divide-And-Conquer
  - Sub-problem: Sort a list of size  $N-1$  ( $A[0], A[1], \dots A[n-2]$ )
  - Combination: Insert  $A[n-1]$  in order (i.e. in the right position)
  - Termination: Stop when size is  $\leq 1$ .



## RECURSIVE VS. ITERATIVE ALGORITHMS – EXAMPLE 2



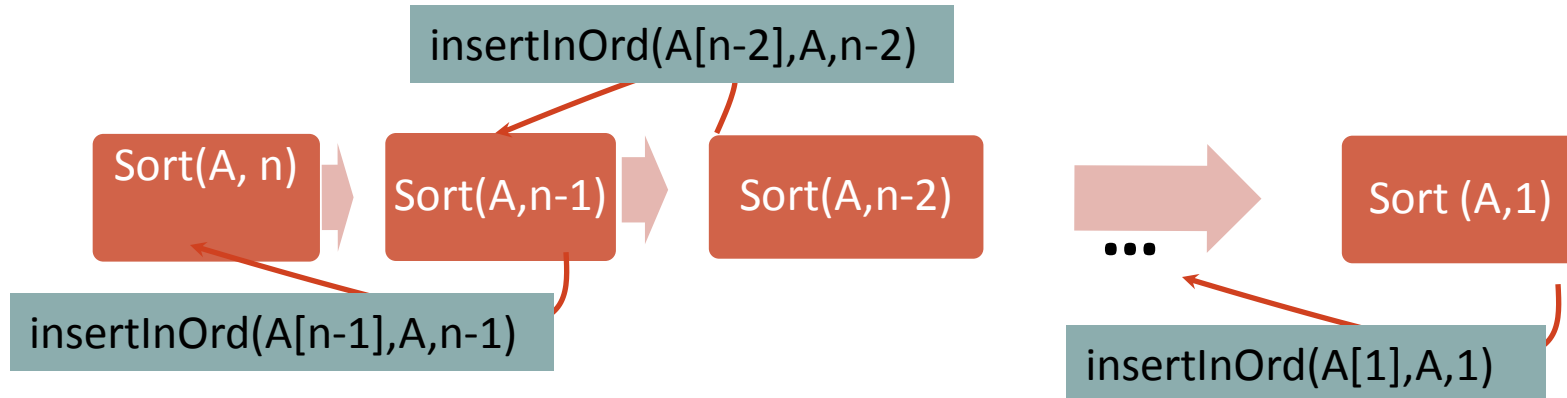
### Recursive Algorithm

- // Precondition: A is an array of size n
- // Postcondition: A is ordered in place

```
insertionSort(A, n) {
    if (n > 1) { insertionSort(A, n-1);
                  insertInOrd(A[n-1], A, n-1); }
}
```

**Space Complexity?**

# RECURSIVE VS. ITERATIVE ALGORITHMS – EXAMPLE 2



## Iterative Algorithm

```
insertionSort(A,n) {
  for j := 1 to n-1  insertInOrder(A[j],A,j)  ;
}
```

Can be  
inlined.

→ Find out  
option in  
**gcc**.

```
// Pre-condition size of A is > last and A[last] can be overwritten
insertInOrder(v,A,last) {
  j := last;
  while (j>0) { if (v<A[j]) { A[j] := A[j-1]; } else { A[j] := v; return; }}
  A[0] := v;
}
```

# DIVIDE-AND-CONQUER

- Recursive vs. Iterative Implementations
  - Is it possible / straight-forward to derive an iterative implementation from a divide-and-conquer design?
    - Under what conditions is this so?

# RECURSIVE AND TAIL-RECURSIVE PROCEDURES — EXAMPLE

Problem: Find the length of an acyclic linked list.

// Pre-condition:

// ls is the head of an

// acyclic, singly linked list

```
len(ls) {
    if (ls == null) return 0;
    else return
        1 + len(ls->next);
}
```

(Non-tail) Recursive Call

//Tail Recursive version of *len*

```
len(ls) {
    return len_tl(ls, 0);
}

// Pre-condition:
// acc == # nodes before ls
len_tl(ls, acc) {
    if (ls==null) return acc;
    else return
        len_tl(ls->next, acc+1);
}
```

Tail-Recursive Call

## TAIL RECURSION ELIMINATION - EXAMPLE

```
len_tl(ls, acc) {
```

```
  if (ls==null) return acc;
```

```
  else return
```

```
    len_tl(ls->next, acc+1)
```

```
len_tl(ls, acc) {
```

```
  while (ls!=null) {
```

```
    ls = ls->next;
```

```
    acc = acc+1;
```

```
  }
```

```
  return acc;
```

```
}
```

```
len_tl(ls, acc) {
```

```
  B: if (ls==null) return acc;
```

```
  else { // ls != NULL
```

```
    ls = ls->next; acc = acc+1;
```

```
    goto B;
```

```
  }
```

```
}
```

**Exercise: Argue that these 3 procedures are equivalent. End of Exercise.**

[Hint: Use induction for formal proof. Use a flowchart for an informal argument. End of Hint.]

## QUICKSORT - CALL STACK OVERHEAD

- QuickSort (recursive version)

```
void qSort(Element ls[],
            int st, int en)
{
    if (st < en) {
        p = pivot(ls, en+1-st);
        pPos = part(ls, p, st, en);
        qSort(ls, st, pPos-1);
        qSort(ls, pPos+1, en);
    }
}
```

- Tail call elimination

```
void qSort(Element ls[],
            int st, int en)
{
    while (st < en) {
        p = pivot(ls, en+1-st);
        pPos = part(ls, p, st, en);
        qSort(ls, st, pPos-1);
        st = pPos+1;
    }
}
```

# QUICKSORT – RECURSION ELIMINATION

## QuicSort w/o tail call

```
void qSort(Element ls[],
            int st, int en)
{
    while (st<en) {
        p=pivot(ls, en+1-st),
        pPos=part(ls, p,st, en);
        qSort(ls, st, pPos-1);
        st = pPos+1;
    }
}
```

## QuickSort with Explicit Stack

```
void qSort(Element ls[], int st, int en)
{
    //?????? What goes here????
    while (st<en) {
        p = pivot(ls, en+1-st);
        pPos=part( ls, p,start, end);
        s = push(s, (st, pPos-1));
        st = pPos+1;
    }
}
```



# QUICKSORT – RECURSION ELIMINATION

## QuicSort w/o tail call

```
void qSort(Element ls[],
           int st, int en)
{
    while (st<en) {
        p=pivot(ls, en+1-st),
        pPos=part(ls, p,st, en);
        qSort(ls, st, pPos-1);
        st = pPos+1;
    }
}
```

## QuickSort with Explicit Stack

```
void qSort(Element ls[], int st, int en)
{
    s = newStack();
    s = push(s, (st,en));
    while (!isEmptyStack(s)) {
        (st,en)=top(s); s=pop(s);
        while (st<en) {
            p = pivot(ls, en+1-st);
            pPos=part( ls, p,start, end);
            s = push(s, (st, pPos-1));
            st = pPos+1;
        }
    }
}
```

## QUICKSORT – SPACE COMPLEXITY

- 1. Avoid putting trivial lists on stack:
  - i.e. push only if  $start < end$
- 2. Put the smaller list on top of the larger list after each partitioning
  - Every list is above a list that is (at least) twice as large
    - i.e. at most  $\log N$  items on stack at any time if  $N$  is initial size.

## QUICKSORT – CONTROLLING STACK SIZE

- QuickSort – Small Lists on Top

```
void qSort(Element ls[], int st, int en)
{
    s = newStack(); s = push(s, (st, en));
    while (!isEmptyStack(s)) {
        (st,en) = top(s); s = pop(s);
        while (st<en) { p = pivot(ls, en+1-st);
            pPos = part(ls, p, st, en);
            if (pPos-st > en-pPos) {
                s = push(s, (st, pPos-1));
                st = pPos+1; // end = end;
            } else {
                s = push(s, (pPos+1, en));
                en = pPos-1; // start = start;
            }
        }
    }
}
```