

CS2010: ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES

Lecture 12: Recursion vs Iteration

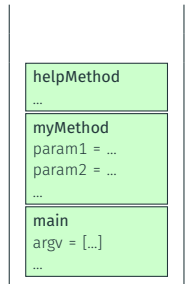
Vasileios Koutavas



School of Computer Science and Statistics
Trinity College Dublin

HOW METHODS EXECUTE

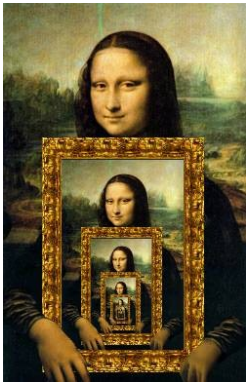
- **Call stack**: is a stack maintained by the Java runtime system
- One **call stack frame** (aka activation record) for each **running instance** of a method: contains all information necessary to execute the method
 - **references** to parameter values and local objects, return address etc.
- Objects themselves are stored in another part of memory: the **heap**
- every time a method is called, a new stack frame is pushed on the call stack.
- every time a method returns, the top-most stack frame is popped.



RECURSION

Recursion: when something is defined in terms of itself.

Infinite Recursion



Well-founded Recursion



RECURSION

Principle: A method is **recursive** when its definition **calls the method itself**.

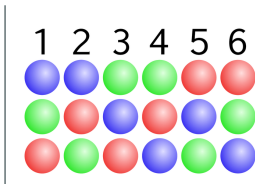
A correct recursive method should be **well-founded**: it should terminate.

Classic example: factorial – in math written as: **$n!$**

Math definition:

$$0! = 1$$

$$n! = n \cdot (n - 1)! \quad \text{when } n > 0$$



RECURSION

Principle: A method is **recursive** when its definition calls the method itself.

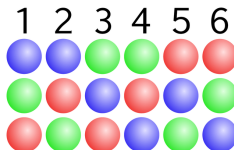
A correct recursive method should be **well-founded**: it should terminate.

Classic example: factorial – in math written as: $n!$

Math definition:

$$0! = 1$$

$$n! = n \cdot (n - 1)! \quad \text{when } n > 0$$



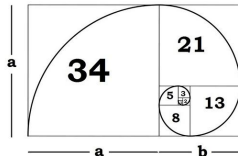
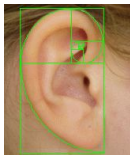
Classic example: Fibonacci numbers

Math definition:

$$fib(0) = 1$$

$$fib(1) = 1$$

$$fib(n) = fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$



RECURSION

Principle: A method is **recursive** when its definition calls the method itself.

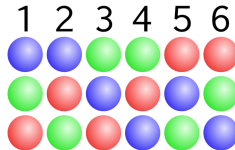
A correct recursive method should be **well-founded**: it should terminate.

Classic example: factorial – in math written as: $n!$

Math definition:

$$0! = 1$$

$$n! = n \cdot (n - 1)! \quad \text{when } n > 0$$



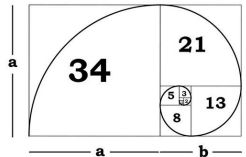
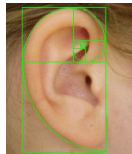
Classic example: Fibonacci numbers

Math definition:

$$\text{fib}(0) = 1$$

$$\text{fib}(1) = 1$$

$$\text{fib}(n) = \text{fib}(n - 1) + \text{fib}(n - 2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$



It is convenient to implement recursive math definitions using recursive methods.

Recursive implementation:

```
int fac(int n) {
```

```
}
```

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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


IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ follows the **divide and conquer** approach:

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ follows the **divide and conquer** approach:

→ break the implementation of **fac(n)** into smaller and smaller parts: **fac(n-1)**

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ follows the **divide and conquer** approach:

- break the implementation of **fac(n)** into smaller and smaller parts: **fac(n-1)**
- only deal with the **smallest possible cases** (here when $n = 0$): the **base cases**

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ follows the **divide and conquer** approach:

- break the implementation of **fac(n)** into smaller and smaller parts: **fac(n-1)**
- only deal with the **smallest possible cases** (here when $n = 0$): the **base cases**
- the rest of the cases are the **recursive cases** (here when $n > 0$)

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ follows the **divide and conquer** approach:

- break the implementation of $\text{fac}(n)$ into smaller and smaller parts: $\text{fac}(n-1)$
- only deal with the **smallest possible cases** (here when $n = 0$): the **base cases**
- the rest of the cases are the **recursive cases** (here when $n > 0$)
- specify how smaller solutions **compose** into the solutions of recursive cases
- it is usually a **top-down calculation**

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ Q: asymptotic worst-case running time?

(the number of recursive calls)

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ Q: asymptotic worst-case running time?

(the number of recursive calls)

A: $\Theta(n)$ time

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

→ Q: asymptotic worst-case running time?

A: $\Theta(n)$ time

(the number of recursive calls)

→ Q: memory space for call stack frames?

(max frames on call stack)

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation:

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

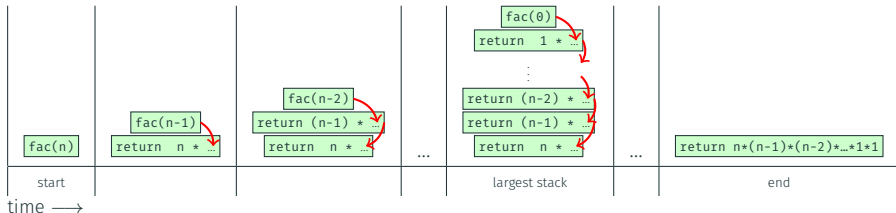
→ Q: asymptotic worst-case running time? (the number of recursive calls)

A: $\Theta(n)$ time

→ Q: memory space for call stack frames? (max frames on call stack)

A: $\Theta(n)$ space

All this call stack space is needed because of the `return n * ...`



IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation using accumulator:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }

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

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation using accumulator:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }

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

→ Q: asymptotic worst-case running time?

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation using accumulator:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }  
  
int facAcc(int n, int acc) {  
    if (n == 0)  
        return acc;  
    else  
        return facAcc(n-1, acc * n);  
}
```

→ Q: asymptotic worst-case running time?

$\Theta(n)$

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation using accumulator:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }

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

- Q: asymptotic worst-case running time?
- Q: memory space for call stack frames?

$\Theta(n)$

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation using **accumulator**:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }

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

- Q: asymptotic worst-case running time? $\Theta(n)$
- Q: memory space for call stack frames?
 - In Java $\Theta(n)$ for stack space
 - In other, mainly functional, languages (ML, Lisp, Haskell, ...) the compiler runs this using $\Theta(1)$ stack space.
Only the top-most stack frame is necessary because every function call simply returns the inner result: `return facAcc(n-1, acc * n)`
This is called **tail recursion**

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

Recursive implementation using **accumulator**:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }

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

→ Q: asymptotic worst-case running time?

$\Theta(n)$

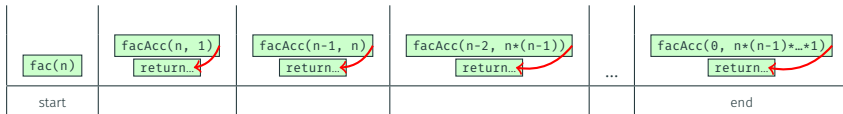
→ Q: memory space for call stack frames?

→ In Java $\Theta(n)$ for stack space

→ In other, mainly functional, languages (ML, Lisp, Haskell, ...) the compiler runs this using $\Theta(1)$ stack space.

Only the top-most stack frame is necessary because every function call simply returns the inner result: `return facAcc(n-1, acc * n)`

This is called **tail recursion**



IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

From recursive implementation w/ accumulator → iterative implementation:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }
```

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

```
int fac(int n) {  
    int acc = 1;  
    for ( ; !(n == 0); n--) {  
  
        acc = acc * n;  
    }  
    return acc;  
}
```


IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

From recursive implementation w/ accumulator \longrightarrow iterative implementation:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }
```

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

```
int fac(int n) {  
    int acc = 1;  
    for ( ; !(n == 0); n--) {  
  
        acc = acc * n;  
    }  
    return acc;  
}
```

\rightarrow Running time of iterative implementation: $\Theta(n)$

IMPLEMENTATION OF FACTORIAL

From recursive implementation w/ accumulator \longrightarrow iterative implementation:

```
int fac(int n) { return facAcc(n, 1); }
```

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

```
int fac(int n) {  
    int acc = 1;  
    for ( ; !(n == 0); n--) {  
  
        acc = acc * n;  
    }  
    return acc;  
}
```

\rightarrow Running time of iterative implementation: $\Theta(n)$

\rightarrow Stack space of iterative implementation: $\Theta(1)$

In functional languages this simple translation is done by the compiler!

FIBONACCI NUMBERS

Math definition:

$$fib(0) = 1$$

$$fib(1) = 1$$

$$fib(n) = fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$

Recursive implementation:

FIBONACCI NUMBERS

Math definition:

$$fib(0) = 1$$

$$fib(1) = 1$$

$$fib(n) = fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$

Recursive implementation:

```
int fib(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1) return 1;  
    else return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);  
}
```

FIBONACCI NUMBERS

Math definition:

$$fib(0) = 1$$

$$fib(1) = 1$$

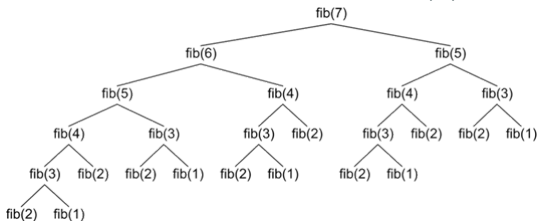
$$fin(n) = fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$

Recursive implementation:

```
int fib(int n) {
    if (n <= 1) return 1;
    else return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

→ Running time: non-tight upper bound: $O(2^n)$ tight bound: $\Theta(\text{fib}(n))$

→ # of recursive calls of fib(n) is the size of the binary tree of recursive calls with n levels ($< 2^n$); however this is not a complete tree; thus $O(2^n)$.



FIBONACCI NUMBERS

Math definition:

$$\text{fib}(0) = 1$$

$$\text{fib}(1) = 1$$

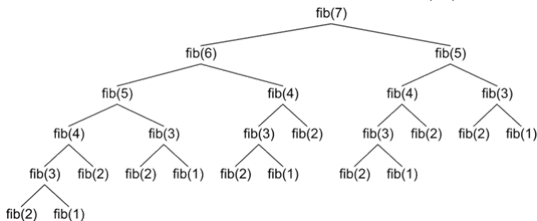
$$\text{fib}(n) = \text{fib}(n-1) + \text{fib}(n-2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$

Recursive implementation:

```
int fib(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1) return 1;  
    else return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);  
}
```

→ Running time: non-tight upper bound: $O(2^n)$ tight bound: $\Theta(\text{fib}(n))$

→ # of recursive calls of $\text{fib}(n)$ is the size of the binary tree of recursive calls with n levels ($\leq 2^n$); however this is not a complete tree; thus $O(2^n)$.



→ Call stack space: $\Theta(n)$

Math definition:

$$fib(0) = 1$$

$$fib(1) = 1$$

$$fib(n) = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$

Recursive implementation with accumulator (tail recursion):

```
int fib(int n) { return fibAcc(n, 1, 1); }

int fibAcc(int n, int last, int secondToLast) {
    if (n <= 1) return last;
    else return fibAcc(n-1, last + secondToLast, last);
}
```

- This is much trickier! Read it again off-line and understand why it works.
- It is a **bottom-up calculation** using two accumulators.

Math definition:

$$fib(0) = 1$$

$$fib(1) = 1$$

$$fib(n) = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2) \quad \text{when } n > 1$$

Recursive implementation with accumulator (tail recursion):

```
int fib(int n) { return fibAcc(n, 1, 1); }

int fibAcc(int n, int last, int secondToLast) {
    if (n <= 1) return last;
    else return fibAcc(n-1, last + secondToLast, last);
}
```

- This is much trickier! Read it again off-line and understand why it works.
- It is a **bottom-up calculation** using two accumulators.
- Running time: $\Theta(n)$
- Call stack space: $\Theta(n)$ in Java and $\Theta(1)$ in other languages.

FIBONACCI NUMBERS

Tail-recursive implementation \rightarrow iterative implementation

```
int fib(int n) { return fibAcc(n, 1, 1); }

int fibAcc(int n, int last, int secondToLast) {
    if (n <= 1) return last;
    else
        return fibAcc(n-1, last + secondToLast, last);
}

int fib(int n) {
    int last = 1; int secondToLast = 1;
    for ( ; !(n <= 1); n--) {
        int tmpLast = last;
        last = last + secondToLast;
        secondToLast = tmpLast;
    }
    return last;
}
```

\rightarrow Worst Case Asymptotic Running time: $\Theta(n)$

\rightarrow Call stack space: $\Theta(1)$

GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR (GCD)

$\text{gcd}(x,y)$ is the largest number n such that $x \% n = y \% n = 0$.

For simplicity assume $x \leq y$.

GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR (GCD)

$\text{gcd}(x,y)$ is the largest number n such that $x \% n = y \% n = 0$.

For simplicity assume $x \leq y$.

Attempt 1: try all numbers n from **+inf** down to 1 until you find one that has the above property.

GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR (GCD)

$\text{gcd}(x,y)$ is the largest number n such that $x\%n = y\%n = 0$.

For simplicity assume $x \leq y$.

Attempt 1: try all numbers n from **+inf** down to 1 until you find one that has the above property.

Attempt 2: try all numbers n from **x** down to 1 until you find one that has the above property (because gcd will necessarily be $\leq \min(x,y)$).

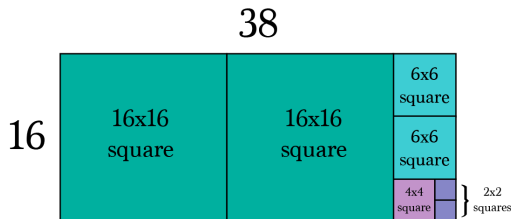
GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR (GCD)

$\text{gcd}(x,y)$ is the largest number n such that $x \% n = y \% n = 0$.

For simplicity assume $x \leq y$.

Attempt 3: Euclid's algorithm a **Divide & Conquer** approach:

Euclid's Theorem: $\text{gcd}(x,y) = \text{gcd}(y, x \% y)$.



The base case here is $\text{gcd}(x,0) = x$ (why is this the base case?).

→ Q: How many iterations in the worst case?

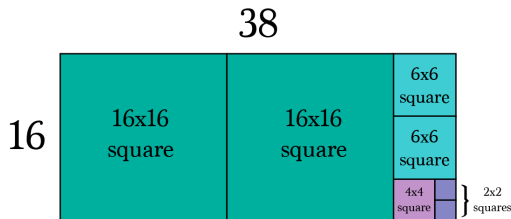
GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR (GCD)

$\text{gcd}(x,y)$ is the largest number n such that $x \% n = y \% n = 0$.

For simplicity assume $x \leq y$.

Attempt 3: Euclid's algorithm a **Divide & Conquer** approach:

Euclid's Theorem: $\text{gcd}(x,y) = \text{gcd}(y, x \% y)$.



The base case here is $\text{gcd}(x,0) = x$ (why is this the base case?).

→ Q: How many iterations in the worst case?

→ **Gabriel Lamé's Theorem (1844):** $\text{\#iterations} < 5 \cdot h$

Where $h = \text{digits of } \min(x,y)$ (here this is x) in base 10.

→ A: $O(\lg(x))$

RECURSION VS ITERATION: WHICH ONE TO CHOOSE?

RECURSION VS ITERATION: WHICH ONE TO CHOOSE?

- It **depends** on the benefits vs the drawbacks each implementation gives us in each case.

RECURSION VS ITERATION: WHICH ONE TO CHOOSE?

- It **depends** on the benefits vs the drawbacks each implementation gives us in each case.
- Recursive algorithms usually have easier proofs of **correctness** (Divide and Conquer is more obvious and similar to mathematical induction)

RECURSION VS ITERATION: WHICH ONE TO CHOOSE?

- It **depends** on the benefits vs the drawbacks each implementation gives us in each case.
- Recursive algorithms usually have easier proofs of **correctness** (Divide and Conquer is more obvious and similar to mathematical induction)
- Iterative algorithms usually have easier proofs of **memory usage** (and in Java use less memory)

RECURSION VS ITERATION: WHICH ONE TO CHOOSE?

- It **depends** on the benefits vs the drawbacks each implementation gives us in each case.
- Recursive algorithms usually have easier proofs of **correctness** (Divide and Conquer is more obvious and similar to mathematical induction)
- Iterative algorithms usually have easier proofs of **memory usage** (and in Java use less memory)
- Recursive algorithms are **sometimes easier to implement** when we have complex data structures.
 - because the compiler maintains a stack of previous calls for us.
 - We will use recursive implementations for most operations over **trees**.

RECURSION VS ITERATION: WHICH ONE TO CHOOSE?

- It **depends** on the benefits vs the drawbacks each implementation gives us in each case.
- Recursive algorithms usually have easier proofs of **correctness** (Divide and Conquer is more obvious and similar to mathematical induction)
- Iterative algorithms usually have easier proofs of **memory usage** (and in Java use less memory)
- Recursive algorithms are **sometimes easier to implement** when we have complex data structures.
 - because the compiler maintains a stack of previous calls for us.
 - We will use recursive implementations for most operations over **trees**.
- We *could* have used recursive implementations for operations over lists & arrays but:
 - they are not simpler than the iterative implementations
 - Java will need $O(n)$ call stack space to execute them.

HOMEWORK (OPTIONAL)

Homework 1: Implement Euclid's algorithm using

- A recursive method.
- An iterative method.

Homework 2: give recursive implementations for:

- binary search over an array
- linear search over a linked list

Homework 3: Implement **search** on a Binary Search Tree (next lecture) using recursion and compare with the iterative version in the book.

Homework 4:** give an iterative implementation for method **put** on binary search tree.