

Recursion

Section 3.5



The Recursion Pattern

- ❑ **Recursion**: when a method calls itself
- ❑ Classic example: the **factorial** function:

$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n$$

- ❑ Recursive definition:

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot f(n-1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- ❑ As a C++ method:

// recursive factorial function

```
int recursiveFactorial(int n) {  
    if (n == 0) return 1; // basis case  
    else return n * recursiveFactorial(n-1); // recursive case  
}
```

Content of a Recursive Method

❑ Base case(s)

- Values of the input variables for which we perform no recursive calls are called **base cases** (there should be at least one base case).
- Every possible chain of recursive calls **must** eventually reach a base case.

❑ Recursive calls

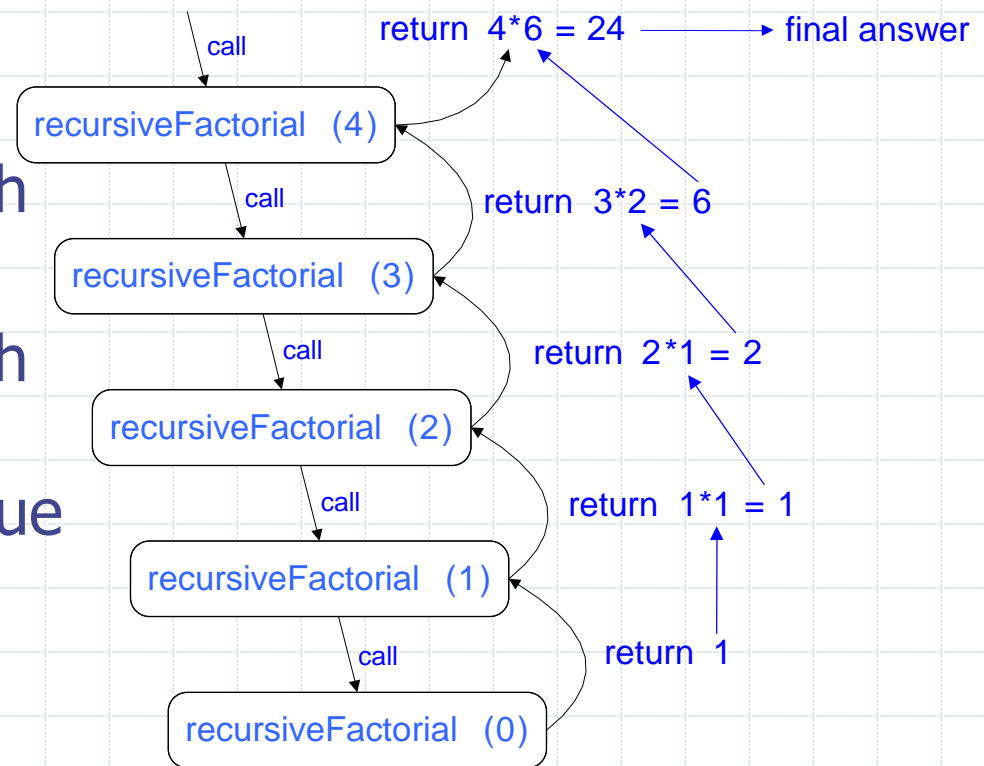
- Calls to the current method.
- Each recursive call should be defined so that it makes progress towards a base case.

Visualizing Recursion

❑ Recursion trace

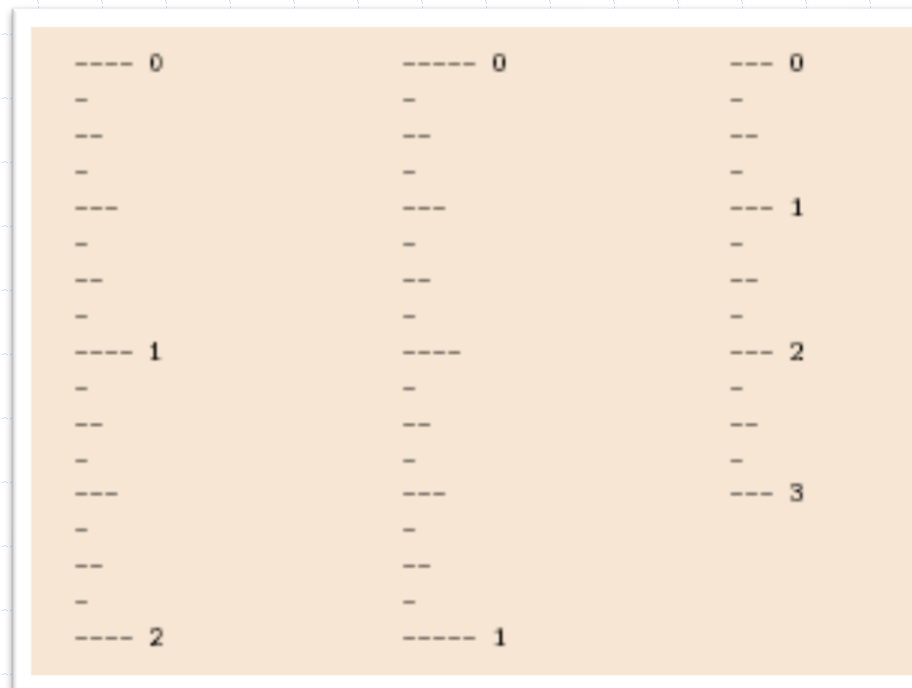
- A box for each recursive call
- An arrow from each caller to callee
- An arrow from each callee to caller showing return value

❑ Example



Example: English Ruler

- Print the ticks and numbers like an English ruler:

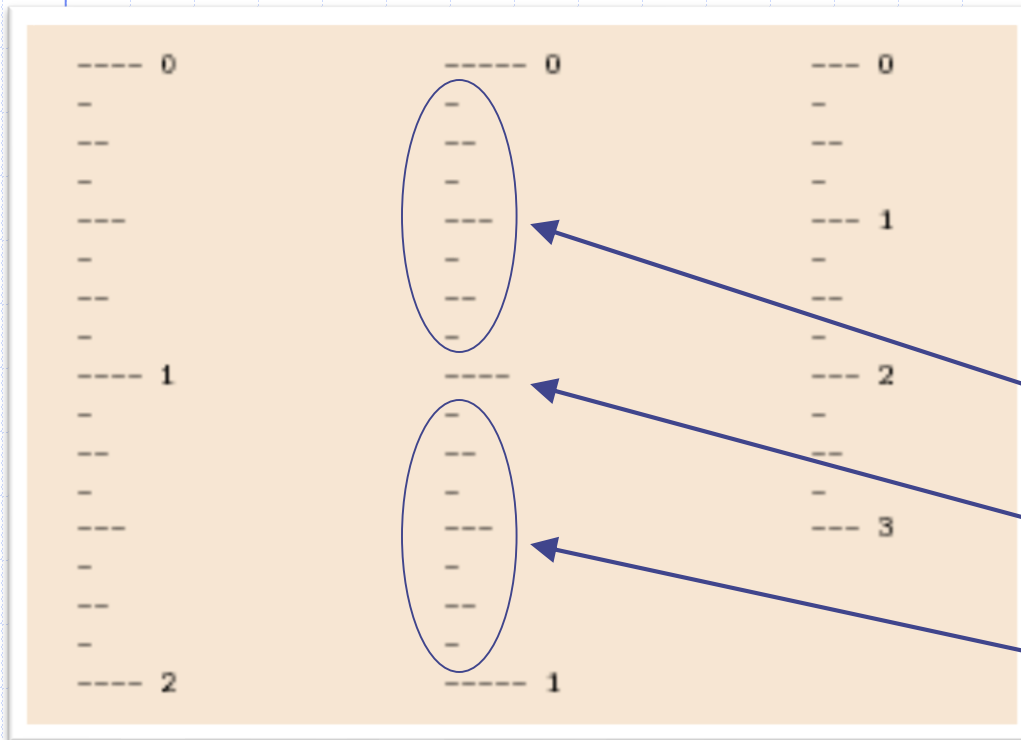


Using Recursion

`drawTicks(length)`

Input: length of a 'tick'

Output: ruler with tick of the given length in the middle and smaller rulers on either side



`drawTicks(length)`

if(length > 0) then

`drawTicks(length - 1)`

draw tick of the given length

`drawTicks(length - 1)`

C++ Implementation (1)

// draw ruler

```
void drawRuler(int nInches, int majorLength) {  
    drawOneTick(majorLength, 0);           // draw tick 0 and its label  
    for (int i = 1; i <= nInches; i++) {  
        drawTicks(majorLength- 1);         // draw ticks for this inch  
        drawOneTick(majorLength, i);       // draw tick i and its label  
    }  
}
```

// draw ticks of given length

```
void drawTicks(int tickLength) {  
    if (tickLength > 0) {  
        drawTicks(tickLength- 1);           // stop when length drops to 0  
        drawOneTick(tickLength);           // recursively draw left ticks  
        drawTicks(tickLength- 1);           // draw center tick  
    }                                       // recursively draw right ticks  
}
```


C++ Implementation (2)

// draw a tick with no label

```
void drawOneTick(int tickLength) {  
    drawOneTick(tickLength, - 1);  
}
```

// draw one tick

```
void drawOneTick(int tickLength, int tickLabel) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < tickLength; i++)  
        cout << "-";  
    if (tickLabel >= 0) cout << " " << tickLabel;  
    cout << "\n";  
}
```

Recursion Examples

Example 3.2 in the text: Programming languages are often defined in a recursive way. We can define an argument list in C++ as follows:

argument-list: ϵ
 nonempty-argument-list

nonempty-argument-list: *argument*
 nonempty-argument-list , *argument*

That is, an argument list consists of either (i) the empty string, (ii) an argument, or (iii) a nonempty argument list followed by a comma and an argument.

foo();

bar(14);

bletch(23.1, 'a', 14);

Example of Linear Recursion

Algorithm LinearSum(A, n):

Input:

A integer array A and an integer $n = 1$, such that A has at least n elements

Output:

The sum of the first n integers in A

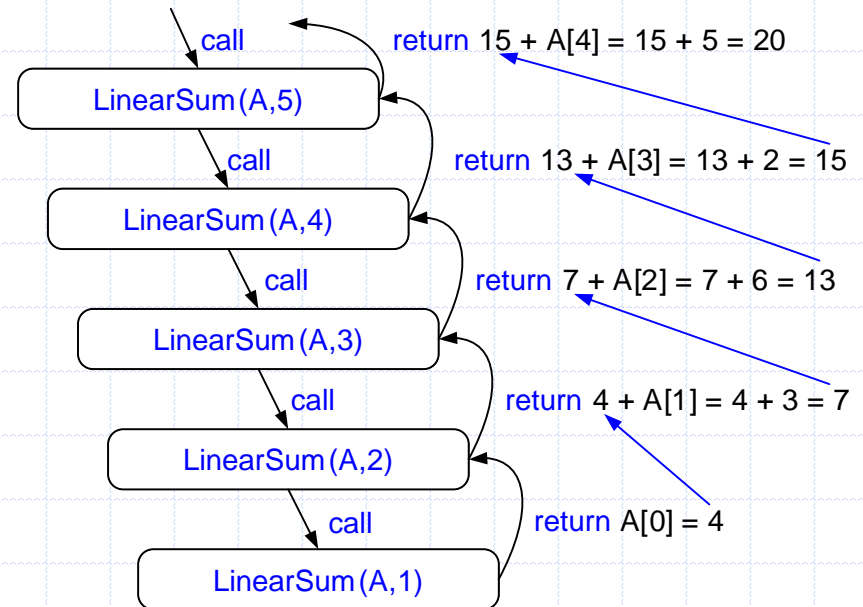
if $n = 1$ **then**

return $A[0]$

else

return LinearSum($A, n - 1$) + $A[n - 1]$

Example recursion trace:



Reversing an Array

Algorithm ReverseArray(A, i, j):

Input: An array A and nonnegative integer indices i and j

Output: The reversal of the elements in A starting at index i and ending at j

if $i < j$ **then**

 Swap $A[i]$ and $A[j]$

 ReverseArray($A, i + 1, j - 1$)

return

Defining Arguments for Recursion

- ❑ In creating recursive methods, it is important to define the methods in ways that facilitate recursion.
- ❑ This sometimes requires we define additional parameters that are passed to the method.
- ❑ For example, we defined the array reversal method as `ReverseArray(A , i , j)`, not `ReverseArray(A)`.

Computing Powers

- The power function, $p(x,n)=x^n$, can be defined recursively:

$$p(x,n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ x \cdot p(x,n-1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- This leads to an power function that runs in $O(n)$ time (for we make n recursive calls).
- We can do better than this, however.

Recursive Squaring

- We can derive a more efficient linearly recursive algorithm by using repeated squaring:

$$p(x, n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x \cdot p(x, (n-1)/2)^2 & \text{if } x > 0 \text{ is odd} \\ p(x, n/2)^2 & \text{if } x > 0 \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

- For example,

$$2^4 = 2^{(4/2)^2} = (2^{4/2})^2 = (2^2)^2 = 4^2 = 16$$

$$2^5 = 2^{1+(4/2)^2} = 2(2^{4/2})^2 = 2(2^2)^2 = 2(4^2) = 32$$

$$2^6 = 2^{(6/2)^2} = (2^{6/2})^2 = (2^3)^2 = 8^2 = 64$$

$$2^7 = 2^{1+(6/2)^2} = 2(2^{6/2})^2 = 2(2^3)^2 = 2(8^2) = 128.$$

Recursive Squaring Method

Algorithm **Power**(x, n):

Input: A number x and integer $n = 0$

Output: The value x^n

if $n = 0$ **then**

return 1

if n is odd **then**

$y = \text{Power}(x, (n - 1)/2)$

return $x \cdot y \cdot y$

else

$y = \text{Power}(x, n/2)$

return $y \cdot y$

Analysis

Algorithm **Power**(x , n):

Input: A number x and integer $n = 0$

Output: The value x^n

if $n = 0$ **then**

return 1

if n is odd **then**

$y = \text{Power}(x, (n - 1)/2)$

return $x \cdot y \cdot y$

else

$y = \text{Power}(x, n/2)$

return $y \cdot y$

Each time we make a recursive call we halve the value of n ; hence, we make $\log n$ recursive calls. That is, this method runs in $O(\log n)$ time.

It is important that we use a variable twice here rather than calling the method twice.

Tail Recursion

- ❑ Tail recursion occurs when a linearly recursive method makes its recursive call as its last step.
- ❑ The array reversal method is an example.
- ❑ Such methods can be easily converted to non-recursive methods (which saves on some resources).
- ❑ Example:

Algorithm IterativeReverseArray(A, i, j):

Input: An array A and nonnegative integer indices i and j

Output: The reversal of the elements in A starting at index i and ending at j

while $i < j$ **do**

 Swap $A[i]$ and $A[j]$

$i = i + 1$

$j = j - 1$

return

Binary Recursion

- ❑ Binary recursion occurs whenever there are **two** recursive calls for each non-base case.
- ❑ Example: the DrawTicks method for drawing ticks on an English ruler.



A Binary Recursive Method for Drawing Ticks

```
// draw a tick with no label
public static void drawOneTick(int tickLength) { drawOneTick(tickLength, -1); }
// draw one tick
public static void drawOneTick(int tickLength, int tickLabel) {
    for (int i = 0; i < tickLength; i++)
        System.out.print("-");
    if (tickLabel >= 0) System.out.print(" " + tickLabel);
    System.out.print("\n");
}
public static void drawTicks(int tickLength) { // draw ticks of given length
    if (tickLength > 0) {
        drawTicks(tickLength-1); // stop when length drops to 0
        drawOneTick(tickLength); // recursively draw left ticks
        drawTicks(tickLength-1); // draw center tick
    }
}
public static void drawRuler(int nInches, int majorLength) { // draw ruler
    drawOneTick(majorLength, 0); // draw tick 0 and its label
    for (int i = 1; i <= nInches; i++) {
        drawTicks(majorLength-1); // draw ticks for this inch
        drawOneTick(majorLength, i); // draw tick i and its label
    }
}
```

Note the two
recursive calls

Another Binary Recursive Method

- Problem: add all the numbers in an integer array A:

Algorithm BinarySum(A, i, n):

Input: An array A and integers i and n

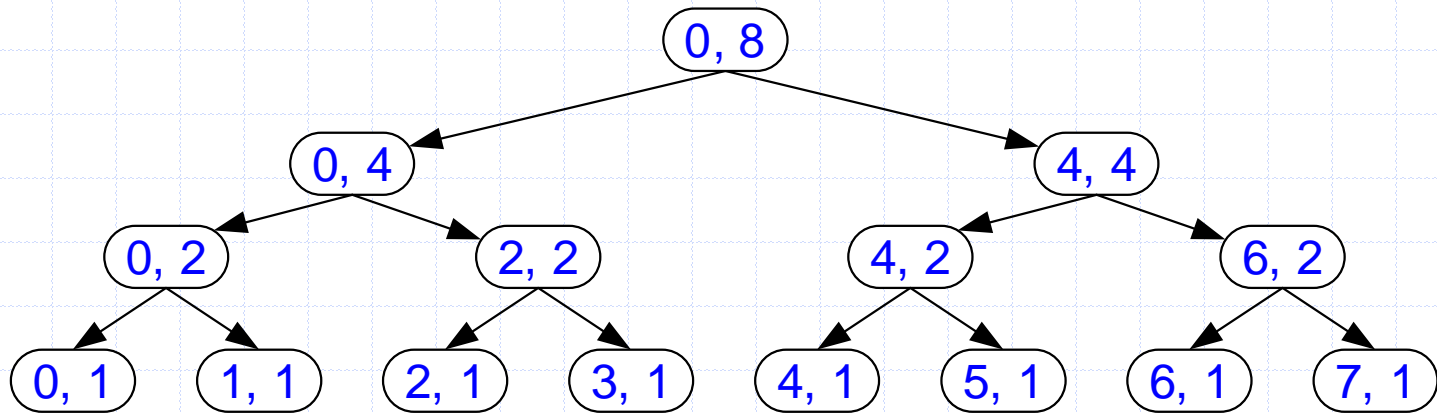
Output: The sum of the n integers in A starting at index i

if $n = 1$ **then**

return $A[i]$

return BinarySum($A, i, n/2$) + BinarySum($A, i + n/2, n/2$)

- Example trace:



Computing Fibonacci Numbers

- Fibonacci numbers are defined recursively:

$$F_0 = 0$$

$$F_1 = 1$$

$$F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2} \quad \text{for } i > 1.$$

- Recursive algorithm (first attempt):

Algorithm BinaryFib(k):

Input: Nonnegative integer k

Output: The k th Fibonacci number F_k

if $k = 1$ **then**

return k

else

return BinaryFib($k - 1$) + BinaryFib($k - 2$)

Analysis

- Let n_k be the number of recursive calls by **BinaryFib**(k)
 - $n_0 = 1$
 - $n_1 = 1$
 - $n_2 = n_1 + n_0 + 1 = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$
 - $n_3 = n_2 + n_1 + 1 = 3 + 1 + 1 = 5$
 - $n_4 = n_3 + n_2 + 1 = 5 + 3 + 1 = 9$
 - $n_5 = n_4 + n_3 + 1 = 9 + 5 + 1 = 15$
 - $n_6 = n_5 + n_4 + 1 = 15 + 9 + 1 = 25$
 - $n_7 = n_6 + n_5 + 1 = 25 + 15 + 1 = 41$
 - $n_8 = n_7 + n_6 + 1 = 41 + 25 + 1 = 67.$
- Note that n_k at least doubles every other time
- That is, $n_k > 2^{k/2}$. It is exponential!

A Better Fibonacci Algorithm

- Use linear recursion instead

Algorithm **LinearFibonacci**(k):

Input: A nonnegative integer k

Output: Pair of Fibonacci numbers (F_k, F_{k-1})

if $k = 1$ **then**

return $(k, 0)$

else

$(i, j) = \text{LinearFibonacci}(k - 1)$

return $(i + j, i)$

- **LinearFibonacci** makes $k-1$ recursive calls

Multiple Recursion

□ Motivating example:

■ summation puzzles

- ◆ *pot + pan = bib*
- ◆ *dog + cat = pig*
- ◆ *boy + girl = baby*

□ Multiple recursion:

- makes potentially many recursive calls
- not just one or two

Algorithm for Multiple Recursion

Algorithm `PuzzleSolve(k,S,U):`

Input: Integer k, sequence S, and set U (universe of elements to test)

Output: Enumeration of all k-length extensions to S using elements in U without repetitions

for all e in U **do**

Remove e from U {e is now being used}

Add e to the end of S

if k = 1 **then**

Test whether S is a configuration that solves the puzzle

if S solves the puzzle **then**

return "Solution found: " S

else

`PuzzleSolve(k - 1, S,U)`

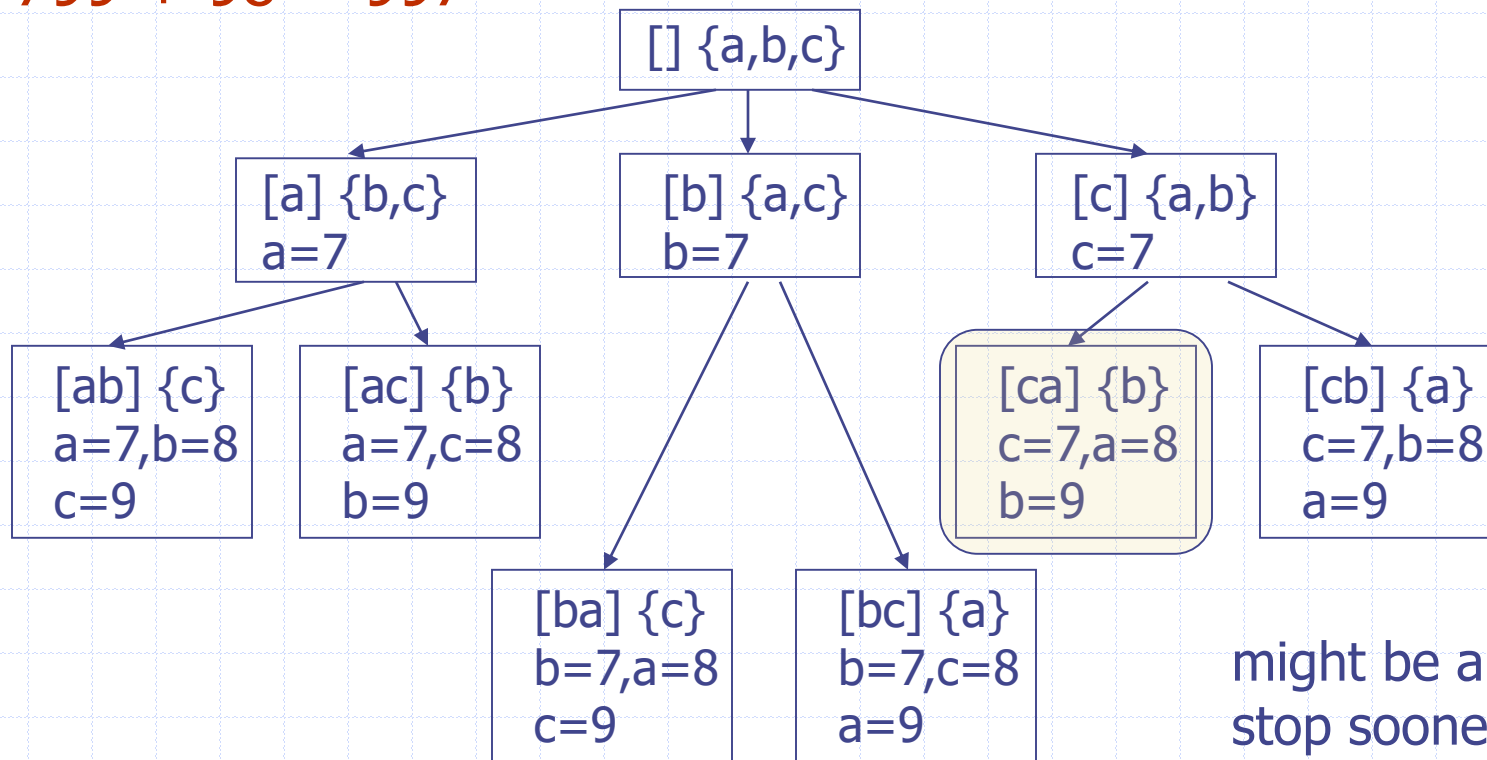
Add e back to U {e is now unused}

Remove e from the end of S

Example

$$\begin{aligned}cbb + ba &= abc \\ 799 + 98 &= 997\end{aligned}$$

a, b, c stand for 7, 8, 9; not necessarily in that order



might be able to
stop sooner

Visualizing PuzzleSolve

