

PROGRAMMING IN HASKELL



Chapter 6 - Recursive Functions

Introduction

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 .

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
```

Recursive Functions

In Haskell, functions can also be defined in terms of themselves. Such functions are called recursive.

```
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:

= fac 3
= 3 * fac 2
= 3 * (2 * fac 1)
= 3 * (2 * (1 * fac 0))
= 3 * (2 * (1 * 1))
= 3 * (2 * 1)
= 3 * 2
= 6

Note:

- z `fac 0 = 1` is appropriate because 1 is the identity for multiplication: $1 * x = x = x * 1$.
- z The recursive definition diverges on integers < 0 because the base case is never reached:

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

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

Why is Recursion Useful?

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

Recursion on Lists

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.

For example:

`product [2,3,4]`
=
`2 * product [3,4]`
=
`2 * (3 * product [4])`
=
`2 * (3 * (4 * product []))`
=
`2 * (3 * (4 * 1))`
=
`24`

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.

For example:

```
length [1,2,3]
=
1 + length [2,3]
=
1 + (1 + length [3])
=
1 + (1 + (1 + length []))
=
1 + (1 + (1 + 0))
=
3
```

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.

For example:

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

Problem of reverse: it is slow.

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

- It is NOT tail-recursive
- (++) for each element!

Can we do better?

A fast reverse

```
fastRev :: [a] → [a]
fastRev xs = fastRev' xs []
  where
    fastRev' :: [a] → [a] → [a]
    fastRev' [] acc = acc
    fastRev' (x:xs) acc = fastRev' xs x:acc
```

- ✓ It is tail-recursive
- ✓ Avoids (++) for each element, uses cons (:)

Testing timing in GHCi

Turn on timing with `:set s+` command

```
ghci Reverse.hs
Prelude>:set +s
Prelude>head $ reverse [1..10000000]
(9.11 secs, 2,904,957,752 bytes)
Prelude>head $ fastRev [1..10000000]
(6.38 secs, 1,840,072,168 bytes)
```


Multiple Arguments

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

z Zipping the elements of two lists:

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

z Remove the first n elements from a list:

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

z Appending two lists:

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

Mutual Recursion

We can define recursion also mutually with more than one function. For example:

z Testing for even / odd

```
even :: Int -> Bool
even 0 = True
even n = odd  (n-1)
```

```
odd  :: Int -> Bool
odd  0 = False
odd  n = even  (n-1)
```

Quicksort

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

- z The empty list is already sorted;
- z 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.

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:

- z This is probably the simplest implementation of quicksort in any programming language!

For example (abbreviating qsort as q):

q [3, 2, 4, 1, 5]



q [2, 1] ++ [3] ++ q [4, 5]



q [1] ++ [2] ++ q []

q [] ++ [4] ++ q [5]



[1]

[]

[]

[5]

Exercises

(1) Without looking at the standard prelude, define the following library functions using recursion:

z Decide if all logical values in a list are true:

```
and :: [Bool] → Bool
```

z Concatenate a list of lists:

```
concat :: [[a]] → [a]
```

- z Produce a list with n identical elements:

```
replicate :: Int → a → [a]
```

- z Select the nth element of a list:

```
(!!) :: [a] → Int → a
```

- z Decide if a value is an element of a list:

```
elem :: Eq a ⇒ a → [a] → Bool
```


(2) Define a recursive function

```
merge :: Ord a => [a] -> [a] -> [a]
```

that merges two sorted lists of values to give a single sorted list. For example:

```
> merge [2,5,6] [1,3,4]
```

```
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

(3) Define a recursive function

```
msort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
```

that implements merge sort, which can be specified by the following two rules:

- z Lists of length ≤ 1 are already sorted;
- z Other lists can be sorted by sorting the two halves and merging the resulting lists.