

Data Structures I (CPCS-204)

Week # 5: Recursion

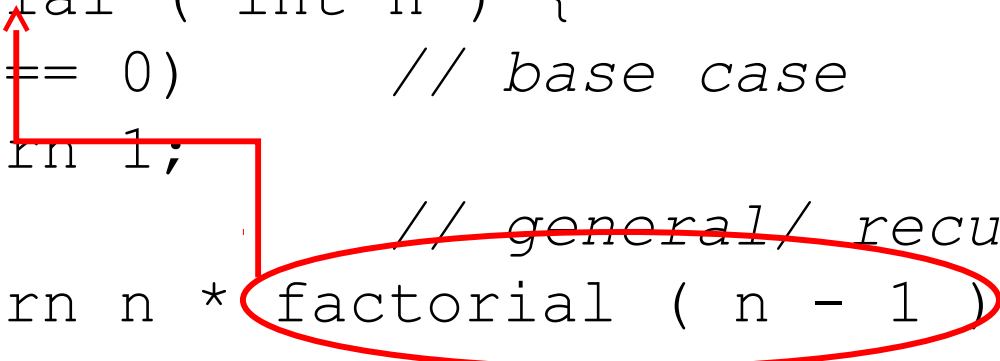
Recursion: Basic idea

- ❑ We have a bigger problem whose solution is difficult to find
- ❑ We divide/decompose the problem into smaller (sub) problems
 - Keep on decomposing until we reach to the smallest sub-problem (base case) for which a solution is known or easy to find
 - Then go back in reverse order and build upon the solutions of the sub-problems
- ❑ Recursion is applied when the solution of a problem depends on the solutions to smaller instances of the same problem

Recursive Function

❑ A function which calls itself

```
int factorial ( int n ) {  
    if ( n == 0)          // base case  
        return 1;  
    else                  // general/ recursive case  
        return n * factorial ( n - 1 );  
}
```



Finding a recursive solution

- ❑ Each successive recursive call should bring you **closer** to a situation in which the answer is **known** (cf. $n-1$ in the previous slide)
- ❑ A case for which the answer is known (and can be expressed without recursion) is called a **base case**
- ❑ Each recursive algorithm must have **at least one base case**, as well as the **general recursive case**

Recursion vs. Iteration: Computing N!

□ The factorial of a positive integer n , denoted $n!$, is defined as the product of the integers from 1 to n . For example, $4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24$.

- Iterative Solution

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n - 1) \cdot (n - 2) \cdot \dots \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 & \text{if } n \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

- Recursive Solution

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

Recursion: Do we really need it?

- ❑ In some programming languages recursion is imperative
 - For example, in declarative/logic languages (LISP, Prolog etc.)
 - Variables can't be updated more than once, so no looping – (think, why no looping?)
 - Heavy backtracking

Recursion in Action: *factorial*(*n*)

```
factorial (5) = 5 x factorial (4)
              = 5 x (4 x factorial (3))
              = 5 x (4 x (3 x factorial (2)))
              = 5 x (4 x (3 x (2 x factorial (1))))
              = 5 x (4 x (3 x (2 x (1 x factorial (0)))))
              = 5 x (4 x (3 x (2 x (1 x 1))))
              = 5 x (4 x (3 x (2 x 1)))
              = 5 x (4 x (3 x 2))
              = 5 x (4 x 6)
              = 5 x 24
              = 120
```

Base case arrived

Some concept
from elementary
maths: Solve the
inner-most
bracket, first, and
then go outward

How to write a recursive function?

- ❑ Determine the size factor (e.g. n in $factorial(n)$)
- ❑ Determine the base case(s)
 - the one for which you know the answer (e.g. $0! = 1$)
- ❑ Determine the general case(s)
 - the one where the problem is expressed as a smaller version of itself (must converge to base case)
- ❑ Verify the algorithm
 - use the "Three-Question-Method" – next slide

Three-Question Verification Method

1. The Base-Case Question

Is there a non-recursive way out of the function, and does the routine work correctly for this "base" case? (cf. `if (n == 0) return 1`)

2. The Smaller-Caller Question

Does each recursive call to the function involve a smaller case of the original problem, leading towards the base case? (cf. `factorial(n-1)`)

- ## The General-Case Question

Assuming that the recursive call(s) work correctly, does the whole function work correctly?

Linear Recursion

- ❑ The simplest form of recursion is *linear recursion*, where a method is defined so that it makes at most one recursive call each time it is invoked
- ❑ This type of recursion is useful when we view an algorithmic problem in terms of a first or last element plus a remaining set that has the same structure as the original set

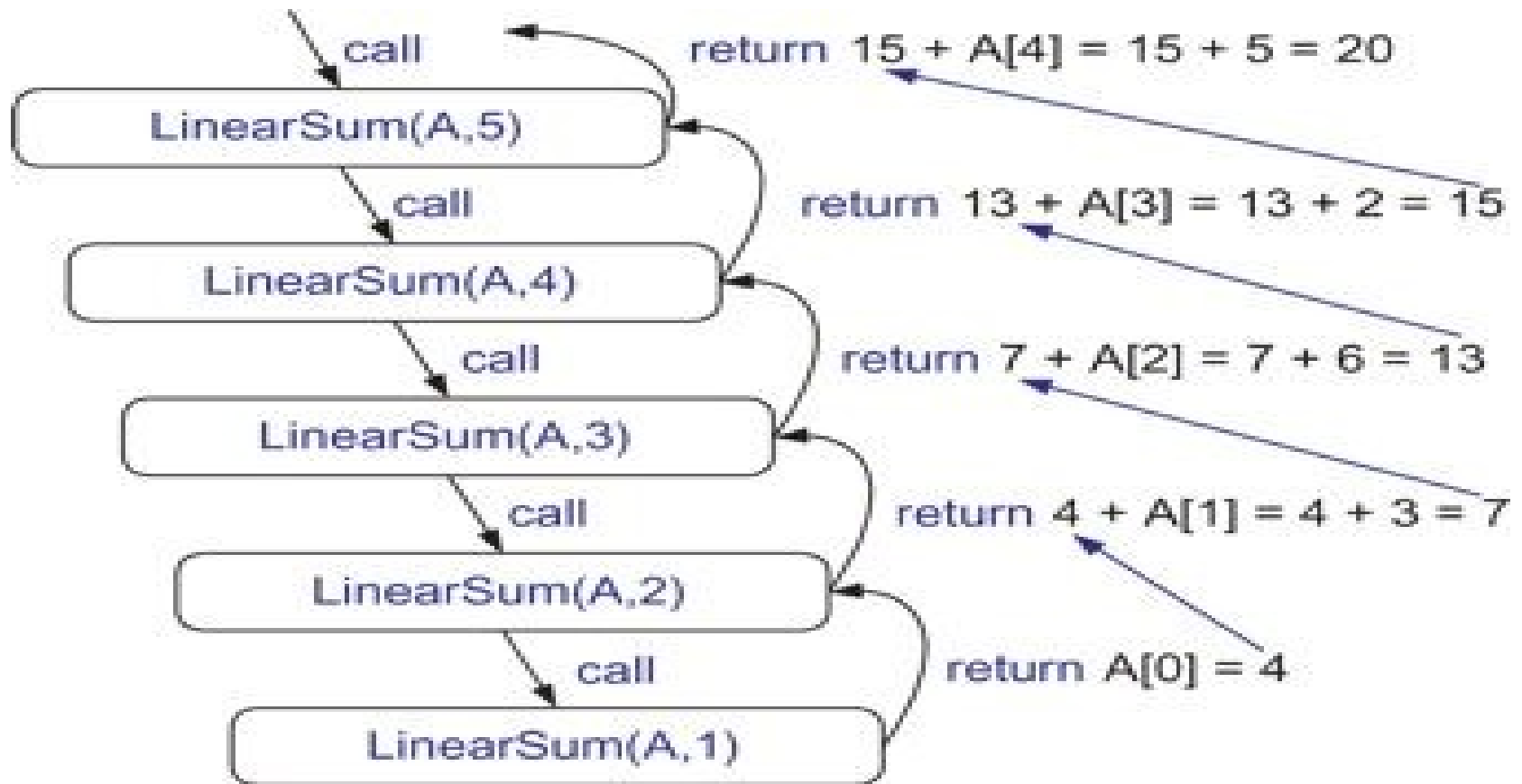
Summing the Elements of an Array

- We can solve this summation problem using linear recursion by observing that the sum of all n integers in an array A is:
 - Equal to $A[0]$, if $n = 1$, or
 - The sum of the first $n - 1$ integers in A plus the last element

```
int LinearSum(int A[], n) {  
    if n = 1 then  
        return A[0];  
    else  
        return A[n-1] + LinearSum(A, n-1)  
}
```

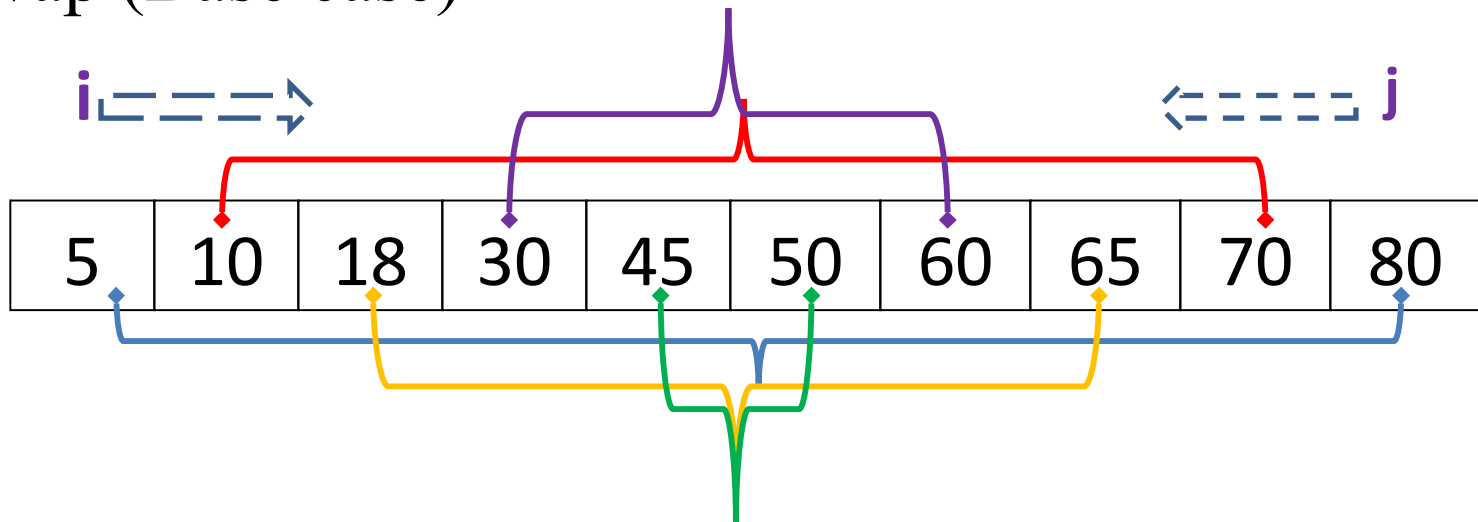
Analyzing Recursive Algorithms using Recursion Traces

- ❑ Recursion trace for an execution of $LinearSum(A, n)$ with input parameters $A = [4, 3, 6, 2, 5]$ and $n = 5$



Linear recursion: Reversing an Array

- ❑ Swap 1st and last elements, 2nd and second to last, 3rd and third to last, and so on
- ❑ If an array contains only one element no need to swap (Base case)



- ❑ Update i and j in such a way that they converge to the base case ($i = j$)

Linear recursion: Reversing an Array

```
void reverseArray(int A[], i, j){  
    if (i < j){  
        int temp = A[i];  
        A[i] = A[j];  
        A[j] = temp;  
        reverseArray(A, i+1, j-1)  
    }  
    // in base case, do nothing  
}
```

Linear recursion: run-time analysis

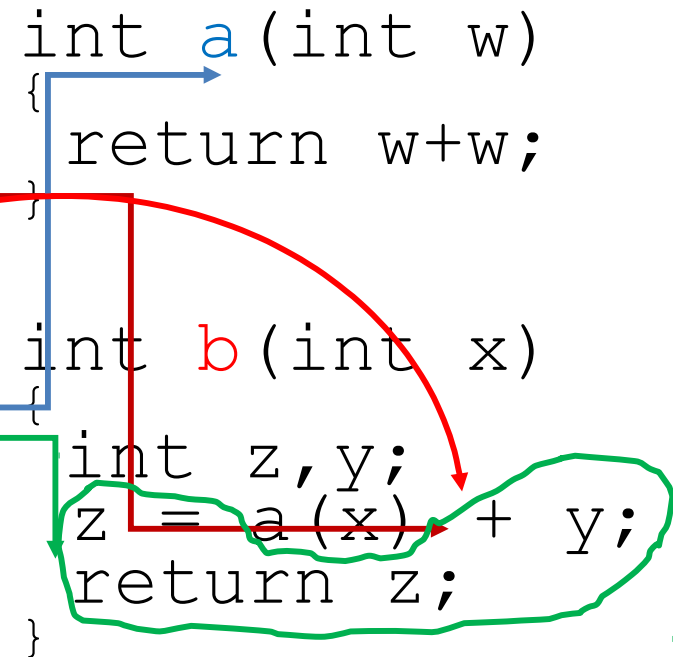
- ❑ Time complexity of linear recursion is proportional to the problem size
 - Normally, it is equal to the number of times the function calls itself
- ❑ In terms of Big-O notation time complexity of a linear recursive function/algorithm is $O(n)$

Recursion and stack management

- ❑ A quick overview of stack
 - Last in first out (LIFO) data structure
 - Push operation adds new element at the top
 - Pop operation removes the top element

What happens when a function is called?

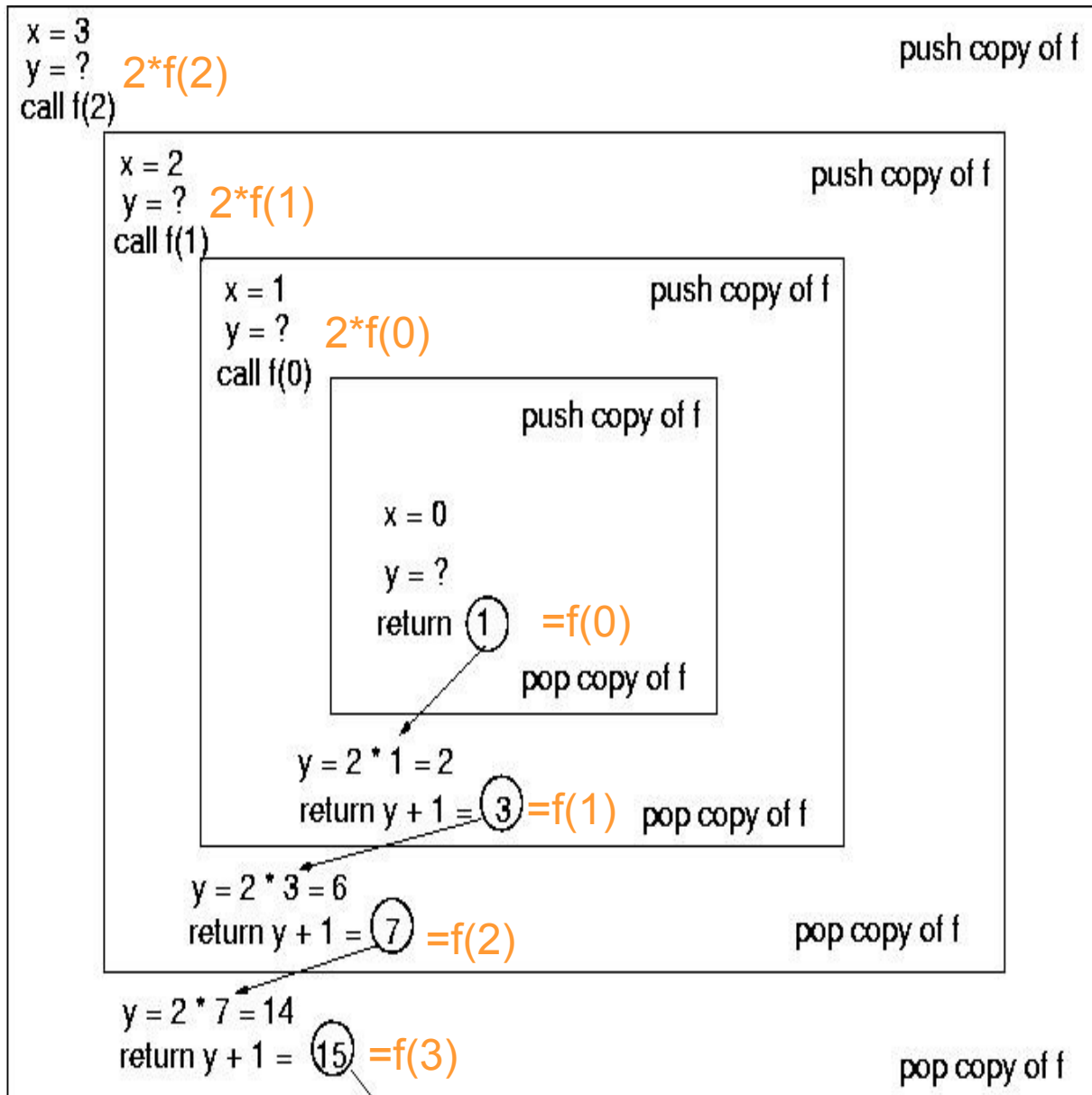
- ❑ The rest of the execution in “**caller**” is suspended
- ❑ An activation record is created on stack, containing
 - Return address (in the caller code)
 - Current (suspended) status of the caller
- ❑ Control is transferred to the “**called**” function
- ❑ The called function is executed
- ❑ Once the called function finishes its execution, the activation record is popped of, and the suspended activity resumes



What happens when a recursive function is called?

- ❑ Except the fact that the calling and called functions have the same name, there is really no difference between recursive and non-recursive calls

```
int f(int x) {  
    {  
        int y;  
        if(x==0)  
            return 1;  
        else{  
            y = 2 * f(x-1) ;  
            return y+1;  
        }  
    }  
}
```



Recursion: Run-time stack tracing

Let the function is called with parameter value 3, i.e. $f(3)$

```
int f(int x){  
    {  
        int y;  
        if(x==0)  
            return 1;  
        else{  
            y = 2 * f(x-1);  
            return y+1;  
        }  
    }  
}
```

Recursion and stack management

- ❑ A quick overview of stack
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Binary recursion

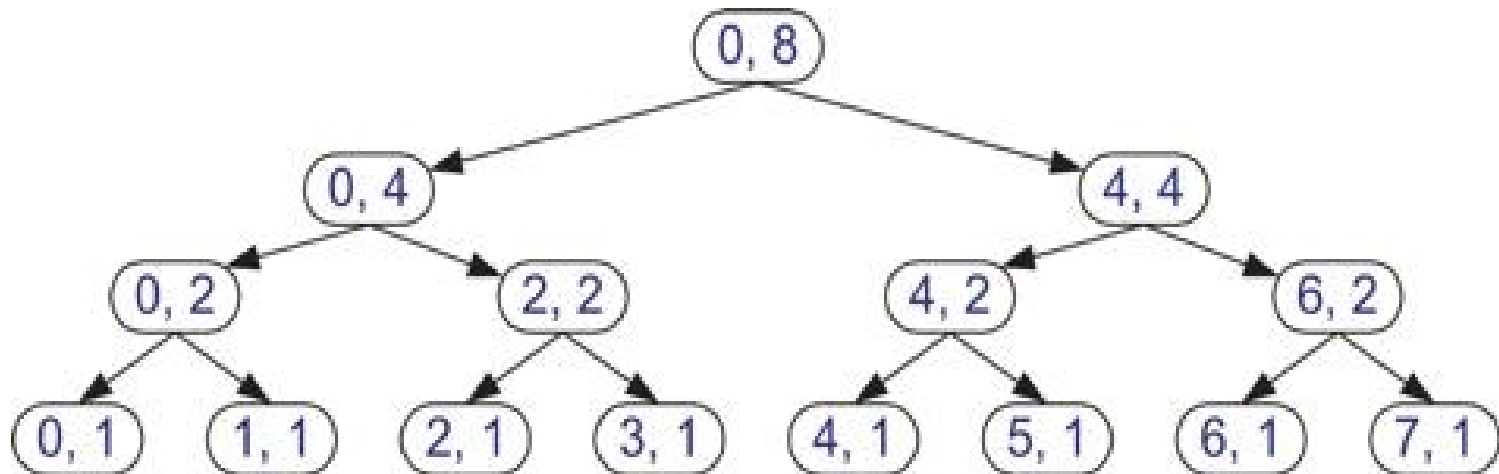
- ❑ Binary recursion occurs whenever there are **two** recursive calls for each non-base case
- ❑ These two calls can, for example, be used to solve two similar halves of some problem
- ❑ For example, the LinearSum program can be modified as:
 - recursively summing the elements in the first half of the Array
 - recursively summing the elements in the second half of the Array
 - adding these two sums/values together

Binary Recursion: Array Sum

□ A is an array, i is initialised as 0, and n is initialised as array size

```
int BinarySum(int A[], int i, int n){  
    if (n == 1) then                // base case  
        return A[i];  
    else                            // recursive case I  
        return BinarySum(A, i, n/2) + BinarySum(A, i+n/2, n/2);  
}
```

□ Recursion trace for BinarySum, for $n = 8$ [Solve step-by-step]



Binary Search using Binary Recursion

□ A is an array, key is the element to be found, LI is initialised as 0, and HI is initialised as array size - 1

```
int BinarySearch(int key, int A[], int LI, int HI){  
    if (LI > HI) then                // key does not exist  
        return -1;  
    if (key == A[mid])                // base case  
        return mid;  
    else if (key < A[mid])            // recursive case I  
        BinarySearch(key, A, LI, mid - 1);  
    else                             // recursive case II  
        BinarySearch(key, A, mid + 1, HI);  
}
```

Tail Recursion

- ❑ An algorithm uses tail recursion if it uses linear recursion and the algorithm makes a recursive call as its very last operation
- ❑ For instance, our reverseArray algorithm is an example of tail recursion
- ❑ Tail recursion can easily be replaced by iterative code
 - Embed the recursive code in a loop
 - Remove the recursive call statement

Efficiency of recursion

- ❑ Recursion is not efficient because:
 - It may involve much more operations than necessary (Time complexity)
 - It uses the run-time stack, which involves pushing and popping a lot of data in and out of the stack, some of it may be unnecessary (Time and Space complexity)
- ❑ Both the time and space complexities of recursive functions may be considerably higher than their iterative alternatives

Recursion: general remarks

□ Use recursion when:

- The depth of recursive calls is relatively “shallow” compared to the size of the problem. (factorial is deep)
- The recursive version does about the same amount of work as the non-recursive version. (fibonacci does more work)
- The recursive version is shorter and simpler than the non-recursive solution (towers of hanoi)

Home work

- ❑ Write a recursive function to compute first N Fibonacci numbers. Test and trace for $N = 6$

1 1 2 3 5 8

- ❑ Write a recursive function to compute power of a number (x^n). Test and trace for 4^5 .

Outlook

Next week, we'll discuss recursive sort