

Getting a grip on recursion

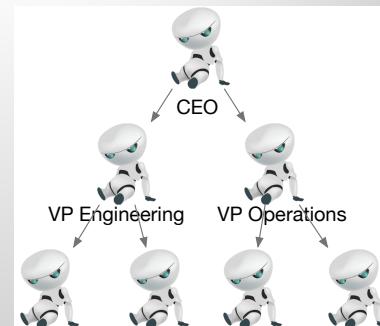
"To understand recursion, one must first understand recursion"

Terence Parr
MSDS program
University of San Francisco

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Recursion is more like startup org chart

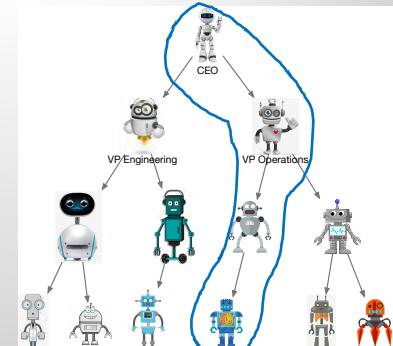
- One person has to play every role, cloning themselves
- Person "pauses" current work, performs subtask(s), then continues where they left off, possibly using subtask results
- Each call or email to worker is analogous to a function call
- (A large company could launch multiple core/employees)



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Recursion is just delegation

- Consider an org chart
- Bosses delegate to subordinates
- CEO wants work done:
 - sends emails to 2 VPs
 - who launch 2 other workers
 - those workers launch emails too
 - until potentially all n contacted
- Max work is n workers times work each worker performs
- Trace from CEO to mailroom cost is just height of org chart: $\log(n)$ in typical case
- Example: phone tree



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Let's start with math recurrence relations

- Factorial definition:
 - Let $0! = 1$
 - Define $n! = n * (n-1)!$ for $n \geq 1$
 - Recurrent math function calls become recursive function call in Python
 - Non-recursive version is harder to understand and less natural
 - This has linear time $O(n)$; more clear in non-recursive version
- $$T(n) = k + T(n-1) = kn$$

```
def fact(n):
    if n==0: return 1
    return n * fact(n-1)
```

```
def factloop(n):
    r = 1
    for i in range(1,n+1):
        r *= i
    return r
```

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Fibonacci sequence

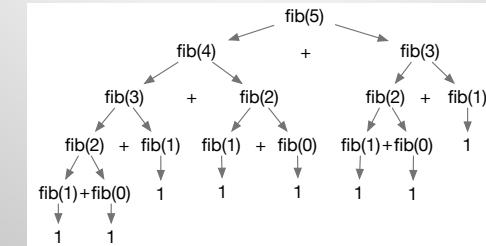
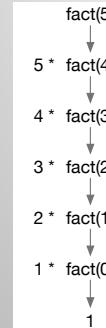
```
def fib(n):
    if n==0 or n==1: return 1
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

- Let $F(0) = F(1) = 1$
- Define $F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2)$ for $n >= 2$
- Recursive implementation is very natural but mucho inefficient!
- We do small bit of work to combine results of two subproblems, and each subproblem is only 1 and 2 elements smaller
- Compare this to $\text{fact}(n)$ where we do small bit of work using result of a **single** subproblem, which has linear time

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Compare fact, fib call trees visually

Difference comes down to two versus one subproblem!
Key idea: recursion traces out a tree of function calls
(meaning recursion is most natural way to walk trees)



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How fast is fib(n)?

```
def fib(n):
    if n==0 or n==1: return 1
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

- Seems like it should linear, right?
- Computation of $\text{fib}(n-1)$ and $\text{fib}(n-2)$ overlap, repeating same redundant computations
- Solving and combining results from two similarly-sized subproblems yields exponential complexity, $O(k^n)$
- $\text{fib}(30)$ takes 0.5s on my fast mac
- $\text{fib}(36)$ takes 9.0s
- $\text{fib}(37)$ takes 16.7s

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Exercise

```
def fib(n):
    if n==0 or n==1: return 1
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

- What is $T(n)$ for $\text{fib}()$ and show it's exponential?
- $T(n) = k + T(n-1) + T(n-2)$
- $T(n) = k + (k + T(n-2) + T(n-3)) + (k + T(n-3) + T(n-4))$
- $T(n) = k + (k + (k + T(n-3) + T(n-4)) + (k + T(n-4) + T(n-5))) + (k + (k + T(n-4) + T(n-5)) + (k + T(n-5) + T(n-6)))$
- $T(n) = 7k + T(n-3) + 3T(n-4) + 3T(n-5) + T(n-6)$
- Yikes! I don't see the pattern, do you?
- We could look at recursion tree; bushy tree height n has 2^n nodes, or...

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Proof by “complete induction”

- Try $T(n) = 2^n$; it's a good bet given the explosion of computations then prove by induction
- Complete induction: Assume $T(i)=2^i$ holds for all $i < n$
- Observe that $T(n+2) = T(n+1) + T(n)$
- Complete induction assumption lets us directly substitute:
- $T(n+2) = 2^{n+1} + 2^n = 2^1 \cdot 2^n + 2^n = 2^n(2 + 1)$
- So $T(n) = 3 \cdot 2^n$, which is $O(2^n)$

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Summary: formula for recursive functions

```
def f(input):
    1. check termination condition
    2. process the active input region / current node, etc...
    3. invoke f on subregion(s)
    4. combine and return results
```

Steps 2 and 4 are optional

```
def fact(n):
    if n==0: return 1
    return n * fact(n-1)
```

```
def fib(n):
    if n==0 or n==1: return 1
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

Terminology: *currently-active region* or *element* is what function is currently trying to process. Here, that is argument n (the “region” is the numbers $0..n$)

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An aside: Trade memory for speed

- Use *dynamic programming* to solve Fibonacci in $O(n)$ not $O(k^n)$

```
def cachefib(n):
    F = [0 for i in range(n+1)]
    F[0] = F[1] = 1
    for i in range(2,n+1): # work up not down
        F[i] = F[i-1] + F[i-2]
    return F[n]
```

- `cachefib(1000)` take 0.3s compared to `fib(37)` at 16.7s (wow)
- Algorithmic changes matter much more than code optimizations

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Recursion at its finest: Divide and conquer

- The big idea: break a big problem down into smaller subproblems via recursion until subproblems are so small we can solve in constant time; then, merge partial results in linear time as you climb back up the recursive calls
- Examples: merge sort, quick sort, decision tree construction
- Recursion is easiest way to describe algorithms that break problems into multiple subproblems
- In contrast, algorithms that use a single recursive call are easy to convert to loops, and loops are usually more efficient

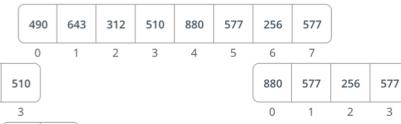
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The nature of divide and conquer alg's

- Divide and conquer algorithms make 2 or more recursive calls where each subproblem is a **fraction** of the size of the currently active problem
- (Binary search splits problem in half each step but it descends into just one half with one recursive call not two and it doesn't merge results; technically, not divide and conquer...just divide)
- The cost of any recursive algorithms depends on:
 - the number of recursive subproblem calls per active region
 - the size of the subproblems; for example, $n-1$ or $n/2$ for active size n ?
 - the work required for each active region

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Merge sort $O(n \log n)$



- The idea is to split currently active region in half, sorting both the left and right subregions, then merge two sorted subregions
- Eventually, the regions are so small we can sort in constant time; i.e., sorting 2 nums is easy
- Merging two sorted lists can be done in linear time

<https://www.hackerearth.com/practice/algorithms/sorting/merge-sort/visualize/>  UNIVERSITY OF SAN FRANCISCO

Algorithm is simple but efficient ($n\log n$)

```
def msort(A):
    if len(A)==1:
        return A
    if len(A)==2:
        return A if A[0]<A[1] else [A[1],A[0]]
    mid = int(len(A)/2)
    left = msort(A[:mid])
    right = msort(A[mid:])
    return sorted(left + right)
```

- “sorted(left + right)” is cheating but used for simplicity here; merging two sorted lists is $O(n)$
- (Note: constant on this is huge)

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Exercise: write $\text{pow2}(n)$

- Compute 2^n recursively by multiplying 2 together n times

```
def pow2(n):
    if n==0: return 1
    return 2 * pow2(n-1)
```

- Now do iterative version

```
def pow2(n):
    v = 1
    for i in range(n): v *= 2
    return v
```

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Can we do pow2 more efficiently?

- Divide and conquer; hint $2^n = 2^{(n/2)} * 2^{(n/2)}$ if n is even
If n odd, it's 2 times $2^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}$

```
def pow2(n):
    if n==0: return 1
    half = pow2(int(n/2))
    if n % 2==0: # if even
        return half * half
    return 2 * half * half
```

- A non-recursive version would be awkward and hard to write!



Recursion summary

- Use recursion when implementing a recurrence relation (not always for efficiency reasons, such as gradient descent)
- Use recursion when you can break problem down into subproblems whose results can be merged to solve overall problem; divide and conquer
- Use recursion when the same operation and navigation procedure applies to any element of a data structure; binary search, walking trees and graphs; self-similar structures
- Recursion traces out a function call tree

