# CS201: Data Structures and Discrete Mathematics I

Recursion

#### **Recursive Definitions**

- Recursive definition (or inductive definition): A
  definition in which the item being defined
  appears as part of the definition.
- Contain two parts:
  - A base, where some simple cases of the item being defined are given
  - An recursive step, where new cases of the item being defined are given in terms of previous cases.

# Examples

Fibonacci numbers

```
F(1) = 1, F(2) = 1

F(n) = F(n-2) + F(n-1) for n > 2.

(1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21...)
```

- Recurrence relation: A rule like F(n), which define a sequence value in terms of one or more earlier values.
- Define n! recursively

```
1! = 1
 n! = n(n-1)! for n > 1
```

### Recursively defined sequences

 A sequence S represents a list of objects that are enumerated in some order.

```
- E.g, 1. S(1) = 2
2. S(n) = 2S(n-1) for n \ge 2
```

- **–** 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, ...
- Another sequence T
  - 1. T(1) = 1
  - 2. T(n) = T(n-1) + 3 for  $n \ge 2$

#### Recursively defined sets

- Define a set of people who are ancestors of James:
  - 1. James parents are ancestors of James.
  - 2. Every parent of an ancestor is an ancestor of James
- An identifier in a programming language can be alphanumeric strings of any length but must begin with a letter.
  - 1. A single letter is an identifier.
  - 2. If B is an identifier, so is the concatenation of B and any letter or digit.

## Recursively defined operations

 A recursive definition of multiplication of two positive integers m and n is

1. 
$$m(1) = m$$

2. 
$$m(n) = m(n-1) + m$$
 for  $n \ge 2$ 

 Let x be a string. Define the operation x<sup>n</sup> (concatenation of x with itself n times) for n ≥ 1

1. 
$$X^1 = X$$

2. 
$$x^n = x^{n-1}x$$
 for  $n \ge 1$ 

# Recursive Programming: Recursively defined algorithms

Recursively computes the value of S(n)

```
S(integer n)
    If n = 1 then
          return 2
    else
          return 2*S(n-1)
    endif
end
```

# Recursion programming - Basic Idea

- When writing recursive programs, we need
  - Base cases: we must always have some base cases, which can be solved without recursion.
  - Making progress: For the cases that are to be solved recursively, the recursive call must always make progress toward a base case.

#### Iteration versus Recursion

- Most of the time, we can express a problem more elegantly using recursion
- e.g. summation of numbers from 1 to n

```
sum(n) = n + (n-1) + (n-2) + ... + 2 + 1
= \sum_{i=1}^{n} i
\to sum(n)
for (i=1, sum=0; i <= n; i++)
sum=sum+i;
return sum;
```

#### In Recursion

Summation of numbers from 1 to n using recursion.

```
 sum(n) = n+(n-1)+(n-2)+...+2+1 
 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (n==1) \\ n+sum(n-1) & \text{if } (n>1) \end{cases} 
 \rightarrow sum(n) 
 if (n==1) return 1; 
 else return n+sum(n-1);
```

## Another Example of Recursion

Product of numbers from 1 to n using recursion

```
fact(n) = n*(n-1)*(n-2)*...*2*1

= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (n==1) \\ n*fact(n-1) & \text{if } (n>1) \end{cases}

-> fact(n)
    if (n==1) return 1;
    else return n*fact(n-1);
```

### Visualizing Recursive Execution

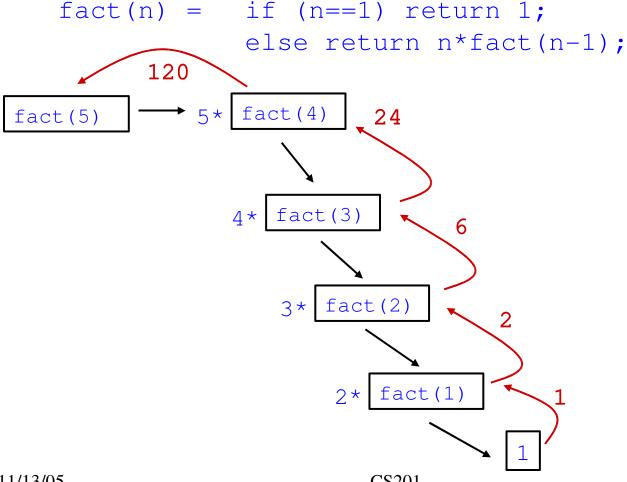
- With nonrecursive programs, it is natural to visualize execution by imagining control stepping through the source code
  - This can be confusing for programs containing recursion
  - Instead, useful to imagine each call of a function generating a copy of the function, so that if the same function is called several times, several copies are present.

## Scope

- When a function is called (stack takes role for the process)
  - caller is suspended
  - "state" of caller saved
  - new space allocated for variables of new function
  - **–** ...
  - end of new function
    - release the space allocated
    - return to the point next to the caller with the previous "state" recovered
- With recursive call, same things happen

#### **How Recursion Works**

#### Given



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# Computing x<sup>n</sup>

This is a simple program.

```
float power (float x, int n)
  if (!n)
                        /* if (n==0) */
      return 1
  else
      return x * power(x, n-1)
```

# What does this program do?

This program is not easy to understand.

```
void f ()
    { int ch;
      if ((ch = getchar()) != '\n')
      {
         f();
         printchar(ch);
      }
}
```

Given the input string "Is it going to work?"

#### Recursion - how to

#### Ask the following

- How can you solve the problem using the solution of a "simpler" instance of the problem?
- Can you be sure to have a "simplest" input? (If so, include separate treatment of this case.)
- Can you be sure to reach the "simplest" input?

# Another Example: Merge Sort

- We now use another complex example to show the working of a recursive program.
- Sorting is the process of rearranging data in either ascending or descending order.
  - $-(2, 4, 1, 6, 5, 9, 2) \Rightarrow (1, 2, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9)$
- We need sorting because
  - The data in sorted order is required
  - It is the initialization step of many algorithms.

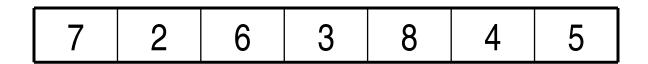
#### Merge Sort: one sorting algorithm

- A nice example of a recursive algorithm.
- It is a divide-and-conquer algorithm
- Divide-and-conquer is an important technique in Computer Science. It solves problem in three steps:
  - Divide Step: divide the large problem into two or more smaller problems.
  - Recursively solve the smaller problems
  - Conquer Step: based on the results of the smaller problems, produce the result of the large problem.

# Merge Sort Idea

- Divide Step: Divide the array into two equal halves
- Recursively sort the two halves
- Conquer Step: Merge the two halves to form a sorted array

#### An example

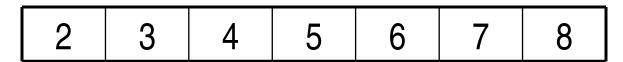


Divide into two equal halves



Recursively sort the halves

Merge them

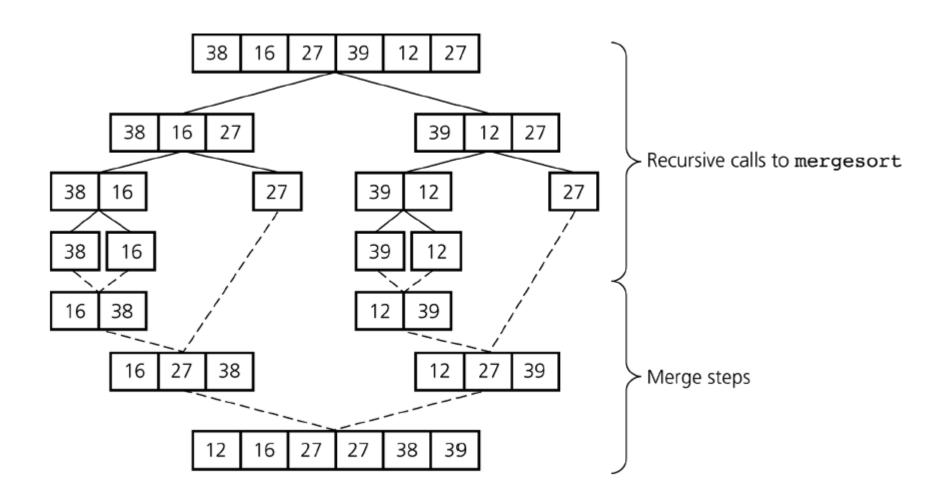


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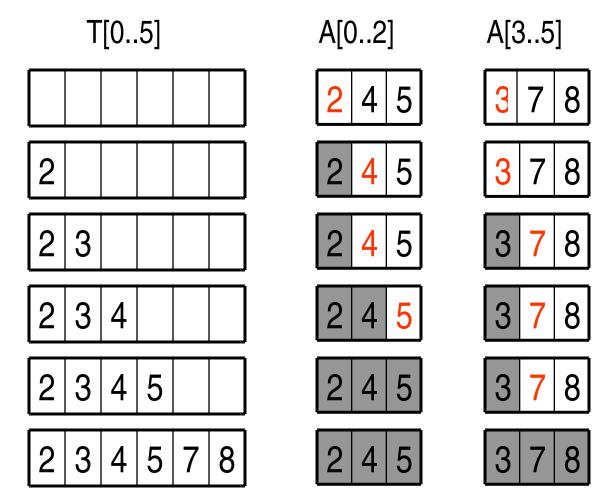
### Merge Sort Algorithm

```
MergeSort(A[i..j])
if (i < j) {
    mid = (i+j)/2
    MergeSort(A[i..mid]);
    MergeSort(A[mid+1..j]);
    Merge(A[i..mid], A[mid+1..j]);
}</pre>
```

# Merge Sort of an array of six integers



#### How to merge two subarrays?

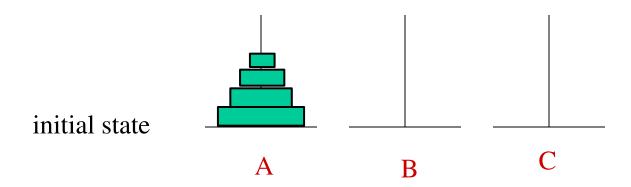


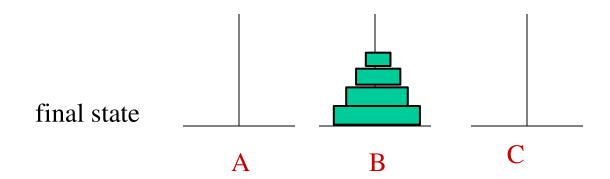
# Merge Algorithm

#### Algorithm Merge(A[i..mid], A[mid+1..j])

- While both subarrays are not empty,
  - Between the first entries of both subarrays, copy the smaller item into the first available entry in the temporary array T[].
- When one subarray is empty,
  - finish off the nonempty subarray
- 4. Copy the result in T[] back to A[i..j]

#### Tower of Hanoi





#### Tower of Hanoi

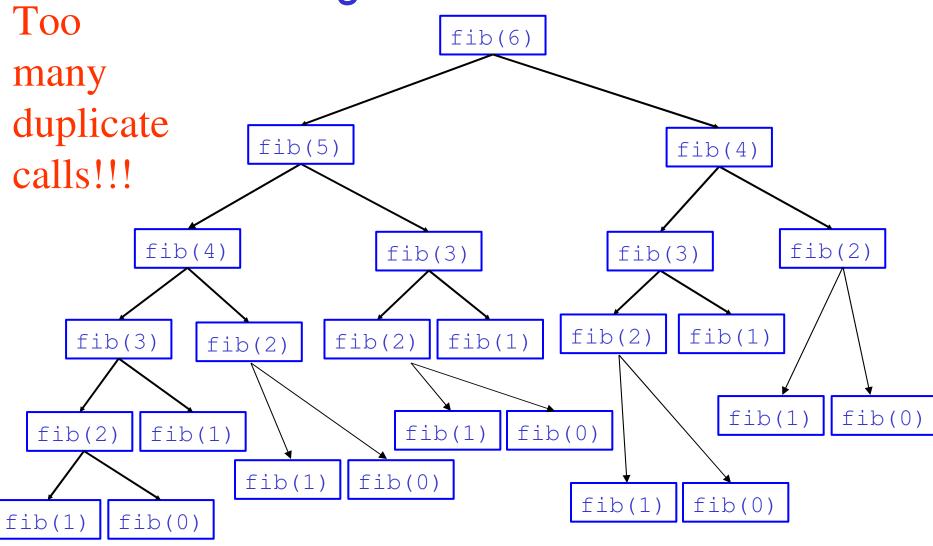
```
void tower (int cnt, char A, char B, char C)
    if (cnt==1)
         move(A,B);
    else {
         tower (cnt-1, A, C, B);
         move(A,B);
         tower (cnt-1, C, B, A);
          };
```

### Fibonacci Numbers again

- Fibonacci numbers: 0,1,1,2,3,5,8,...
- First two are 0, and 1, rest are obtained by adding the previous two.
- Naïve method, using recursion:

```
int fib(int n)
{
    if (n < 2)
        return n;
        /* else */
        return fib(n-1)+fib(n-2);
}</pre>
```

#### Tracing Fibonacci Calls



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#### fib(int n) is extremely inefficient

n	Number of additions	Number of calls
6	12	25
10	88	177
15	986	1973
20	10945	21891
25	121392	242785
30	1346268	2692537

#### Much better to write an iterative function

```
int fib(int n)
   int fibn=0, fibn1=0, fibn2=1;
   if (n < 2)
      return n
   else
        for ( int i = 2; i \le n; i++ ) {
           fibn = fibn1 + fibn2;
           fibn1 = fibn2;
           fibn2 = fibn;
     return fibn;
```

#### Recursion or Iteration

- Every recursive procedure can be converted into an iterative version (sometime not a trivial task)
- No general rules prescribing when to use recursion and when not to.
- Recursion code is usually easily readable, simpler and clearer.
- The main problem with recursion is the hidden bookkeeping cost. Recursion is usually less efficient than its iterative equivalent.

## Summary

- Inductive proof is perhaps the most commonly used proof technique in CS.
  - Base case
  - Inductive case.
- Recursion definition
  - A base
  - A recursive step
- An recursive program is often simpler and clearer, but can be less efficient than its iterative version.