Föreläsning 13

Recursion

TDDD86: DALP

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IDA, Linköpings universitet

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1 Introduction

Recursion

- recursion: Defining an operation in terms of itself
 - To solve a problem recursively requires solving smaller instances of the same problem
- recursive programming: Write functions that call themselves to solve problems recursively
 - As powerful as *iteration* (loops)
 - Particularly suitable for certain types of problems

Why learn recursion??

- "Cultural experience": Another way to think about problem solving.
- **powerful**: can solve certain types of problems better than iteration
- Can result in elegant, simple and short code (if used correctly)
- Many (functional languages such as Scheme, ML and Haskell) programming languages use recursion exclusively (no loops)

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• A key component in many of the remaining labs in the course

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Exercise

- (To a student in the first row) How many students sit in the "column" behind you in the lecture room?
 - Suppose you can only see the people around you. You can therefore not just count the people behind you
 - You can however ask questions to the people around you.
 - How can you solve the problem recursively?



Idea

- Recursion is about dividing a problem into smaller instances of the same problem.
 - Each person can solve a small part of the problem.
 - * How to define a smaller instance of the problem such that it is easier to solve?
 - * What information from your neighbor would help you in solving the problem?



Recursive algorithm

- Number of people behind me:
 - If there is a neighbor behind me, ask the neighbor how many people are behind him/her.
 - * When they answer N, then I should answer N + 1
 - If there is no one behind me I should answer 0.



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Recursion and case analysis

- Any recursive algorithm involves at least two cases:
 - base case: A simple instance of the problem that can be solved directly.
 - recursive case: A more complex instance of the problem for which the solution can be described in terms of solutions to smaller instances of the same problem..
 - Some recursive algorithms have more than one base case. All have at least one.
 - Key to recursive programming is to identify these cases.

Recursion in C++ 2

Recursion i C++

· Consider the following function to write a line of stars

```
// Prints a line containing the given number of stars.
// Precondition: n >= 0
void printStars(int n) {
   for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {</pre>
      cout << "*";
   cout << endl; // end the line of output
}
```

- Write a recursive version of the function (it should call itself).
 - Solve the problem without using loops.
 - Tips: Your solution should write a single star at a time.

Use recursion correctly

· Condense recursive cases to one case:

```
void printStars(int n) {
   if (n == 1) {
      // base case; just print one star
      cout << "*" << endl;
   } else {
      // recursive case; print one more star
      cout << "*";
      printStars(n - 1);
   }
```

"Recursion-zen"

}

• The actual, simpler, base case is when n is 0, not 1:

```
void printStars(int n) {
   if (n == 0) {
      // base case; just end the line of output
      cout << endl;</pre>
   } else {
      // recursive case; print one more star
      cout << "*";
      printStars(n - 1);
   }
}
```

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Exercise - printBinary

- Write a recursive function printBinary that takes a natural number and that writes it in base 2 (binary)
 - Example: printBinary(7) prints 111
 - Example: printBinary (12) prints 1100

	plats	10	1
- Example: print Binary (42) prints 101010	värde	4	2

1	. 0	1	0	1	0

- Write a recursive function without loops

Case analysis

- · Recursion is about solving parts of a larger problem
 - what is 69743 in base 2?
 - * what do we know about its representation in base 2?
 - Case analysis:
 - * Which numbers are simple to write in base 2?
 - * Can we express a larger number in terms of (some) smaller one(s)?

Find the pattern

- Assume an arbitrary number *N*.
 - If the representation of N in base 2 is
 - Then the representation of (N/2)
 - and the representation of (N % 2) is
 - * What can we deduce?

10010101011

1001010101

1

Solution - printBinary

// Prints the given integer's binary representation.
// Precondition: n >= 0
void printBinary(int n) {
 if (n < 2) {
 // base case; same as base 10
 cout << n;
 } else {
 // recursive case; break number apart
 printBinary(n / 2);
 printBinary(n % 2);
 }
}</pre>

Exercise - reverseLines

• Write a recursive function reverseLines that takes a file stream as input and that prints the lines

Exempelindatafil:

Roses are red, Violets are blue. All my base Are belong to you. Are belong to you. All my base Violets are blue. Roses are red,

Förväntat utdata:

in reverse order

- Which cases should be considered?
 - * How can we solve part of the problem at a time?
 - * What would be a file that is easy to reverse?

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Pseudocode for reversing

- Reverse lines in a file:
 - Read a line L from the file
 - Print the rest of the lines in reverse order.
 - Print the line L
- If we only could reverse the or the lines in the file...

Solution - reverseLines

```
void reverseLines(ifstream& input) {
   string line;
   if (getline(input, line)) {
      // recursive case
      reverseLines(input);
      cout << line << endl;
   }
}</pre>
```

• What is the base case?

2.1 Implementation av recursion

Recall: stacks and function calls

- Compiler implement functions:
 - Function calls: *push:a* local context and return address
 - Return: pop:a return address and local context
 - This enables recursion.



2.2 Tail recursion

Tail recursion

A recursive call is *tail recursive* iff the first instruction after the control gets back after the call is a **return**.

- · The stack is not needed
- Tail recursive functions can be rewritten into iterative functions

The recursive call in FACT is not tail recursive:

```
function FACT(n)

if n = 0 then return 1

else return n \cdot FACT(n-1)
```

First instruction after the return from the recursive call is a *multiplication* to b kept on the stack

 \Rightarrow n needs

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A tail recursive function

function BINSEARCH(v[a,...,b],x) if a < b then $m \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{a+b}{2} \rfloor$ if v[m].key < x then return BINSEARCH(v[m+1,...,b],x) else return BINSEARCH(v[a,...,m],x) if v[a].key = x then return a

else return 'not found'

The two recursive calls are *tail recursive*.

Eliminating tail recursion

The two tail recursive calls can be eliminated:

1: **function** BINSEARCH(v[a, ..., b], x) 2: if a < b then $m \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{a+b}{2} \rfloor$ 3: 4: if v[m].key < x then 5: $a \leftarrow m+1$ {var: return BINSEARCH(v[m+1,...,b], x)} 6: **else** $b \leftarrow m$ {var: return BINSEARCH(v[a,...,m],x)} 7: goto(2)if v[a].key = x then return a 8: else return 'not found' 9:

Tail recursive factorial

fact can be rewritten by using a help function:

function FACT(*n*) **return** FACT2(*n*,1)

```
function FACT2(n, f)
if n = 0 then return f
else return FACT2(n - 1, n \cdot f)
```

FACT2 is tail recursive \Rightarrow memory usage after eliminating the recursive in O(1)

2.3 One more exercise

Exercise - pow

- Write a recursive function pow that takes two natural numbers as arguments: a base and an exponent and that returns the base to the power of the exponent.
 - Example: pow(3, 4) returns 81
 - Solve the problem recursively without loops

Solution - pow

```
// Returns base ^ exponent.
// Precondition: exponent >= 0
int pow(int base, int exponent) {
    if (exponent == 0) {
        // base case; any number to 0th power is 1
        return 1;
    } else {
        // recursive case: x^y = x * x^(y-1)
        return base * pow(base, exponent - 1);
    }
}
```

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An optimization?

3¹²

• Observe the following mathematical properties:

 $= 531441 = 9^{6}$ $= (3^{2})^{6}$ $531441 = (9^{2})^{3}$ $= ((3^{2})^{2})^{3}$

- When does this work?
- How can we leverage on it?
- Why use it when the code already works?

Solution 2 - pow

```
// Returns base ^ exponent.
// Precondition: exponent >= 0
int pow(int base, int exponent) {
    if (exponent == 0) {
        // base case; any number to 0th power is 1
        return 1;
    } else if (exponent % 2 == 0) {
        // recursive case 1: x^y = (x^2)^(y/2)
        return pow(base * base, exponent / 2);
    } else {
        // recursive case 2: x^y = x * x^(y-1)
        return base * pow(base, exponent - 1);
    }
}
```

3 Algorithm analysis

3.1 Analysis of algorithms

Analysis of algorithms

What is analysis?

- Correctness (not in this course)
- Termination (not in this course)
- Efficiency, resources, complexity

Time complexity — how long it takes an algorithm in the worst case?

- as a function of what?
- what is a time step?

Memory complexity - how much memory is required?

- as a function of what?
- how is it measured?
- · remember that code and function calls also takes memory

How can you compare different effectiveness

- Study execution time (or memory consumption) in function of the size of input data.
- When can we say that two algorithms have "similar effectiveness"?
- When can we say that an algorithm is better than an other?

	n	$\log_2 n$	n	$n\log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
Comparison between some elementary functions		1	2	2	4	4
comparison between some elementary functions	16	4	16	64	256	$6.5 \cdot 10^{4}$
		6	64	384	4096	$1.84 \cdot 10^{19}$

 $1.84 \cdot 10^{19} \mu$ seconds = $2.14 \cdot 10^8$ days = 583.5 millennia

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Simplify calculations

"It is convenient to have a measure of the amount of work involved in a computing process, even though it be a very crude one. We may count up the number of times that various elementary operations are applied in the whole process and then given them various weights. We might, for instance, count the number of additions, subtractions, multiplications, divisions, recording of numbers, and extractions of figures from tables. In the case of computing with matrices most of the work consists of multiplications and writing down numbers, and we shall therefore only attempt to count the number of multiplications and recordings. " — Alan Turing

ROUNDING-OFF ERRORS IN MATRIX PROCESSES By A. M. TURING (National Physical Laboratory, Teddington, Middlesex) [Received 4 November 1947] BUMMARY A number of methods of solving sets of linear equations and inverting matrices are discussed. The theory of the rounding-off errors involved is investigated for some of the methods. In all cases examined, including the well-known 'Gauss elimination process', it is found that the errors are normally quite moderate: no exponential build up need occur.



How complexity can be specified?



- How does the complexity grow with the size *n* of input data?
- Asymptotic complexity what happens when *n* grows to infinity?
- Much easier if we ignore constant factors
- O(f(n)) grows at most as fast as f(n)
- $\Omega(f(n))$ growth at least as fast as f(n)
- $\Theta(f(n))$ grows as fast as f(n)

Ordo-notation

f,g: grow from $\mathbb N$ to $\mathbb R^+$

- $f \in O(g)$ if and only if it exists $c > 0, n_0 > 0$ such as $f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$ for all $n \ge n_0$ Intuition: ignoring the constant factor, f does not grow faster than g
- $f \in \Omega(g)$ if and only if it exists $c > 0, n_0 > 0$ such as $f(n) \ge c \cdot g(n)$ for all $n \ge n_0$ Intuition: ignoring the constant factor, f grows at least as fast as g
- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ and $g(n) \in O(f(n))$ Intuition: ignoring the constant factor, f and g have similar growth

Note: Ω is the opposite of O, i.e. $f \in \Omega(g)$ if and only if $g \in O(f)$.

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3.2 Recursive algorithms

Execution time for recursive algorithms

- · Characterize execution time with a recursive relation
- Find a solution in closed form the recursive relation
- If you do not recognize the recursive relation, you can
 - "Unroll" the relation a number of times to formulate a hypothesis for a possible solution of the form T(n) = ...
 - Prove the hypothesis about T(n) by induction. If it does not work, modify the hypothesis and try again...

Example: Factorial function

function FACT(n)

if n = 0 then return 1 else return $n \cdot FACT(n-1)$

Execution time:

- time for comparison: t_c
- time for multiplication: *t_m*
- time for calls and returns: t_r

Total execution time T(n). $T(0) = t_r + t_c T(n) = t_r + t_c + t_m + T(n-1)$, om n > 1 Hence, for n > 0:

$$T(n) = (t_r + t_c + t_m) + (t_r + t_c + t_m) + T(n-2) =$$

$$= (t_r + t_c + t_m) + (t_r + t_c + t_m) + (t_r + t_c + t_m) + T(n-3) = \dots =$$

$$= \underbrace{(t_r + t_c + t_m) + \dots + (t_r + t_c + t_m)}_{n \text{ ggr}} + t_r + t_c = n \cdot (t_r + t_c + t_m) + t_r + t_c \in O(n)$$

function BINSEARCH(v[a, ..., b], x) if a < b then $m \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{a+b}{2} \rfloor$ if v[m].key < x then return BINSEARCH(v[m+1,...,b], x) else return BINSEARCH(v[a,...,m], x) if v[a].key = x then return a

else return 'not found'

Let T(n) be the time, in the worst case, to search among *n* numbers with BINSEARCH.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1\\ T\left(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil\right) + \Theta(1) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

If $n = 2^m$ we get

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) \text{ if } n = 1\\ T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(1) \text{ if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

We can then conclude that $T(n) = \Theta(\log n)$.

Master theorem

Sats 1 ("Master theorem"). Assume $a \ge 1, b > 1, d > 0$. The recursive relation

$$\begin{cases} T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) \\ T(1) = d \end{cases}$$

has the following asymptotic solution

- $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ if $f(n) \in O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$
- $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$ if $f(n) \in \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ if $f(n) \in \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$ and $af(\frac{n}{b}) \le c \cdot f(n)$ for some constant c < 1 for all large enough n.

Examples:

• T(n) = 9 T(n/3) + n

•
$$T(n) = T(2n/3) + 1$$

• $T(n) = 3 T(n/4) + n \log n$

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3.3 Common growth rates

Common growth rates

Growth	typical code	description	example	T(2n)/T(n)
1		instruction	add two	1
1	a – b + c	instruction	numbers	1
log. n	while $(n > 1)$	divide	binary search	~ 1
$\log_2 n$	$\{ n = n / 2; \}$	in halves	Uniary search	~ 1
n	for (int i = 0; i < n, i++)	loon	find	2
п	{ }	ююр	maximum	2
nlog, n	see lecture on mergesort	divide	mergesort	~ 2
n10g2n	see recture on mergesore	and conquer	mergesort	~ 2
	for (int i = 0; i < n, i++)	double	check	
n^2	for (int j = 0; j < n, j++)	loop	all pairs	4
	{ }			
	for (int i = 0; i < n, i++)			
3	for (int j = 0; j < n, j++)	triple-	check all	8
п	for (int $k = 0; k < n, k++$)	loop	triples	0
	{ }			
γ^n	see next lacture	total-	check all	T(n)
2	see next lecture	search	subsets	I(n)