

# **CSCM12: software concepts and efficiency**

## **Introducing recursion**

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# What is recursion?

## In general/informally

### Self-referential notions

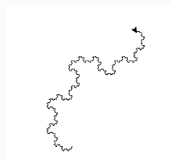
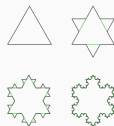
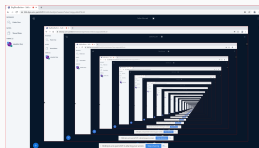
Some example/related concepts:

- Recursive definitions/characterizations

$$F_0 = 0 \quad F_1 = 1 \quad F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$$

(**ancestor** of  $x$ ) = (parent) or (parent of some **ancestor** of  $x$ )

- Fractals
- ...



(credit: wikipedia users)

# Where is recursion in programming?

More specifically, in **Java**? (applicable to most procedural/**functional** programming languages)

In **function** definitions:

```
static int fibo(int n)
{
    if (n <= 1)
        return n;
    else
        return fibo(n-2) + fibo(n-1);
}
```

In **class** definitions:

```
class LinkedList<T>
{
    T head;
    LinkedList<T> tail;
}
```

## Today: **only recursive functions**

(recursive type definitions will be introduced in later lecture on datastructures)

### 1. Recursive functions in **Java**

(through examples)

- How do they run?
- Comparison with looping constructs (**for**, **while**)
- Scopes of variable, mutual recursion

### 2. When it can useful

(NB: not exhaustive!)

- Use: recursion vs iteration?
- Concrete use-cases in problem solving

### 3. Estimating the complexity of (some) recursive functions

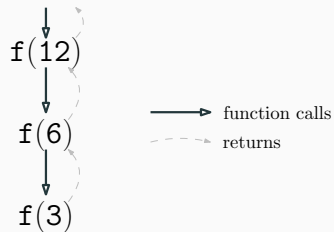
# **Recursive functions in Java**

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## A simple example

```
static int f(int n)
{
    if (n%2 != 0 || n == 0)
        return n;
    else
        return f(n/2);
}
```

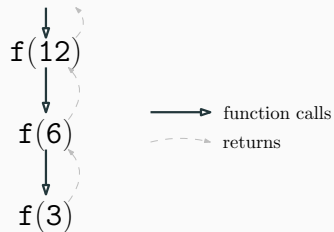
Output of f(12): 3



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```

Output of  $f(12)$ : 3



Termination: the absolute value  $n$  decreases across calls.

## A more involved example

```
static void gray(int n)
{
    if (n < 0)
        return;
    gray(n-1);
    System.out.printf("%d ",n);
    gray(n-1);
}
```

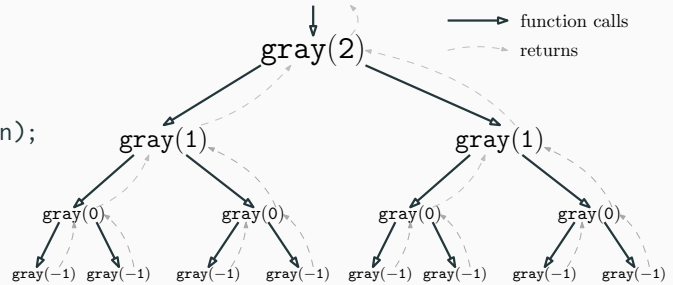
How is, say, gray(2) executed?



# A more involved example

```
static void gray(int n)
{
    if (n < 0)
        return;
    gray(n-1);
    System.out.printf("%d ",n);
    gray(n-1);
}
```

Output: 0 1 0 2 0 1 0

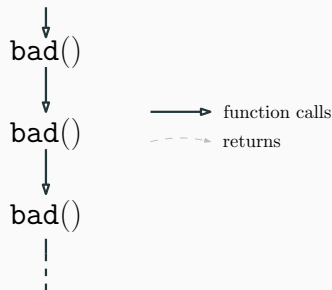


How is, say, gray(2) executed?

## Infinite recursion (1/2)

```
int bad()  
{  
    return bad()+1;  
}
```

- Will most likely lead to a “stack overflow” error  
(low-level: a stack structure is typically used at the CPU level to model a path in the call tree)

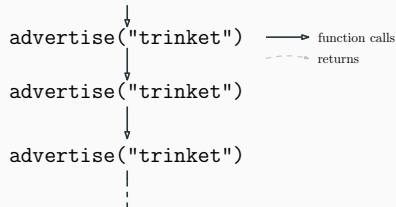


## Infinite recursion (2/2)

```
static int advertise(char* product)
{
    Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in);
    System.out.printf("\n Buy %s!\n", product);
    if (sc.nextByte() == 'y')
        return 0;
    else
        return advertise(product);
}

... advertise("data") ...
```

```
do {
    Scanner sc = new Scanner(System.in);
    System.out.printf("\n Buy data!\n");
} while (sc.NextByte() != 'y');
```



# Recursion vs iteration

Use-cases of recursion: similar to those of iteration constructs **for** and **while**

```
int facto_rec(int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return 1;
    else
        return n * facto_rec(n-1);
}
```

```
static int facto_iter(int n)
{
    int r = 1;
    for (; n != 0; n--)
        r *= n;
    return r;
}
```

In theory, one can always pick one or the other without loss of generality.

## Comments

- Mutable variables: required for meaningful iterations, not necessarily for recursion  
( $\rightsquigarrow$  sometimes easier to reason about recursive functions)
- Hard to translate recursive functions into iterative ones (easier the other way around)

# Scoping of variables

Variables are local to one callsite of the function

To maintain state across calls, use **static** or global variables

```
static void f()
{
    int i = 2;
    i--;
    if(i > 0)
        f();
}
```

```
static void f1()
{
    int i1 = 2;
    i1--;
    if(i1 > 0)
        f();
}
```

```
//f,f1: same behaviour
//no guarantee of termination
```

```
static void g()
{
    static int i = 2;
    i--;
    if(i > 0)
        g();
}
```

```
//i is initialized once in the
//whole program
//g always terminate
```

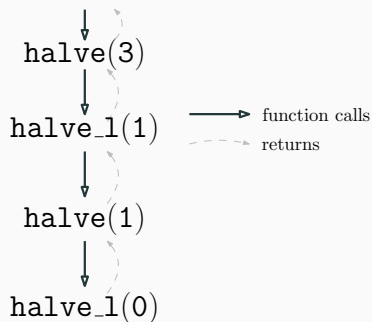
# Mutual recursion

One can introduce a system of mutually recursive functions

```
static int halve_l(int);

static int halve(int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return 0;
    else
        return 1 + halve_l(n-1);
}

static int halve_l(int n)
{
    if (n == 0)
        return 0;
    else
        return halve(n-1);
}
```



## Using recursive functions

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# High-level considerations

Why use recursive functions over iterations?

Cons:

- Arguably less idiomatic in procedural languages like **Java**
- Harder to compile away function calls (so maybe less intuitive *at first*)
- Performance losses (minor)

Pros:

- Meaningful procedures w/o mutable variables    In previous slides: where you can put **finals**?

↪ Easier to reason about

Can be thought of mathematical functions w/o side effects

- Allow to express easily more complicated control flow    Think of `gray`

Also, later, for traversing complex datastructure

## Morality

Focus on writing correct code...

...so don't hesitate to use recursive functions when it helps



## Our first problem to be solved by recursion

### Problem

If I give you  $n$  indistinguishable socks, how many ways  $P_n$  do you have to group them pairwise?

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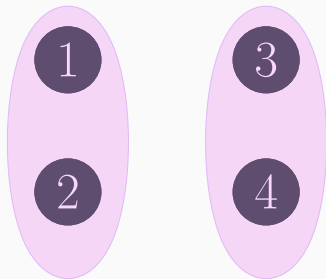


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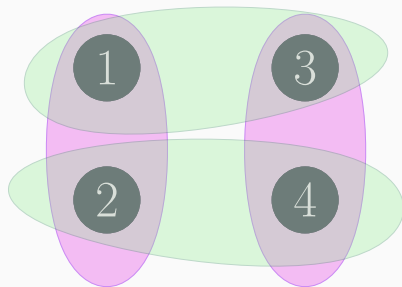
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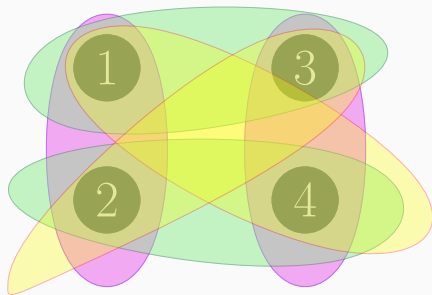
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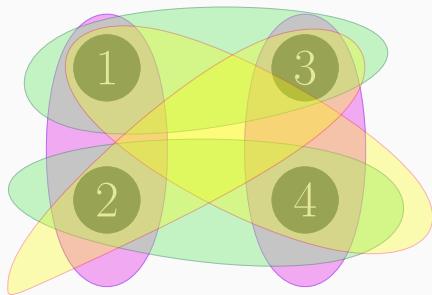
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$\rightarrow P_4 = 3$

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- Do we have an easy solution for inputs of size 0/small sizes?
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### Putting everything together

$$P_0 = 1 \quad P_1 = 0 \quad P_{n+2} = (n+1) \times P_n$$

Easy to translate directly:

```
static int numberPairings(int n)
{
    switch(n)
    {
        case 0: return 1;
        case 1: return 0;
        default: return (n-1) * numberPairings(n-2);
    }
}
```

### Complexity

$$c_{n+2} = \mathcal{O}(1) + c_n \quad c_0 = \mathcal{O}(1) \quad c_1 = \mathcal{O}(1)$$



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So here  $c_n = \mathcal{O}(n)$

(exponential complexity (the size of  $n$  is  $\mathcal{O}(\log_2(n))$ ))

## Computing the complexity of simple recursive functions

Typically, if we use recursion to reduce an input of size  $n$  to size  $n - 1$ , we have a complexity satisfying

$$u_{n+1} = a \times u_n + b \quad \text{for } a, b, u_0 \geq 1$$

### General recipe

- $u_n = \Theta(a^n)$  if  $a > 1$
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By induction,  $mn \leq u_n \leq M(n + 1)$ .

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Maths exercise: exact solutions

(Hint for  $a \neq 1$ : compute first  $u_n - \ell$  for  $\ell = a\ell + b$ )

## Extended example: binomial (1/4)

### Problem

Compute the number of ways  $\binom{n}{k}$  to pick  $k$  elements among  $n$ .

$$\binom{4}{2} = \#\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{●} \text{●} \\ \text{○} \text{○} \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} \text{○} \\ \text{●} \text{○} \\ \text{○} \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} \text{○} \text{○} \\ \text{●} \text{●} \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} \text{●} \text{○} \\ \text{○} \text{●} \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} \text{○} \text{●} \\ \text{○} \text{○} \\ \text{●} \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} \text{○} \text{○} \\ \text{○} \text{○} \\ \text{●} \text{●} \end{array} \right\}$$

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The diagram shows six circles, each containing four smaller circles representing balls. Each circle contains exactly two red balls and two yellow balls. The arrangement of balls in each circle represents a different subset of size 2 from a set of 4 elements. The six circles are arranged in a single row and enclosed in large curly braces. The first circle has red balls at the top-left and top-right, and yellow balls at the bottom-left and bottom-right. The second circle has red balls at the top-left and bottom-left, and yellow balls at the top-right and bottom-right. The third circle has red balls at the top-right and bottom-right, and yellow balls at the top-left and bottom-left. The fourth circle has red balls at the top-left and top-right, and yellow balls at the bottom-left and bottom-right. The fifth circle has red balls at the top-right and bottom-left, and yellow balls at the top-left and bottom-right. The sixth circle has red balls at the bottom-left and bottom-right, and yellow balls at the top-left and top-right.

$$\binom{n}{k} = \#\{X \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\} \mid \#X = k\} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

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$$\binom{n}{k} = \#\{X \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\} \mid \#X = k\} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Issue with the closed formula:  $n!$  overflows fast while  $\binom{k}{n}$  is polynomial if  $k = O(1)$ .  
Alternative way of computing?



## Extended example: binomial (2/4)

Decomposition by fixing an element and asking whether it is picked or not.

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{4}{2} &= \# \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Red, Blue, Yellow} \\ \text{Blue, Yellow, Red} \\ \text{Blue, Red, Yellow} \end{array} \right\} + \# \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Red, Yellow, Blue} \\ \text{Yellow, Red, Blue} \\ \text{Yellow, Blue, Red} \end{array} \right\} \\ &= \# \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Red, Blue, Yellow} \\ \text{Blue, Red, Yellow} \\ \text{Blue, Yellow, Red} \end{array} \right\} + \# \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Red, Yellow, Blue} \\ \text{Yellow, Red, Blue} \\ \text{Yellow, Blue, Red} \end{array} \right\} \\ &= \binom{3}{1} + \binom{3}{2} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

## Extended example: binomial (3/4)

```
int binom(int k, int n)
{
    if (k > n)
        return 0;
    if (k == 0 )
        return 1;
    else
        return binom(k-1,n-1) + binom(k,n-1);
}
```

Proof of termination: by induction over  $n$ .

$$u_{k,n} = \mathcal{O}(1) \text{ when } k > n \text{ or } k = 0$$

$$u_{k+1,n+1} = u_{k,n} + u_{k+1,n} + \mathcal{O}(1) \leq 2u_{k+1,n} + \mathcal{O}(1)$$

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So  $u_{n,k} = \mathcal{O}(2^{n-k})$ .

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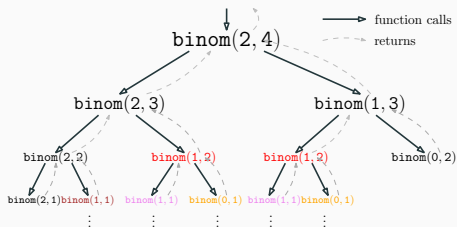
So  $u_{n,k} = \mathcal{O}(2^{n-k})$ .

(keeping in mind that the size of an integer  $n$  is  $\log(n)$ , this is double exponential complexity!)

## Extended example: binomial (3/5)

Issue: exponential number of calls

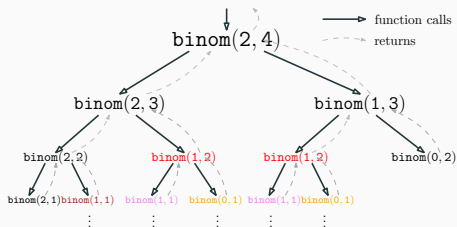
(inefficient)



## Extended example: binomial (3/5)

Issue: exponential number of calls

(inefficient)



But there are redundant calls! Two ways of addressing this:

- Caching the common subcomputation a.k.a. (dynamic programming or memoization)
- Translating to an iterative program



## Extended example: binomial (4/5)

- Assume N and K are sufficiently large for our needs.

Otherwise: bureaucratic memory management with ArrayList

```
final int N = 100;
final int K = 20;

final int[][] cache = new Array[K][N];
//assume that main() initializes cache with -1

static int binom(int k, int n)
{
    if (cache[k][n] != -1)
        return cache[k][n];
    if (k > n)
        return cache[k][n] = 0;
    if (k == 0)
        return cache[k][n] = 1;
    else
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## Extended example: binomial (4/5)

- Assume N and K are sufficiently large for our needs.

Otherwise: bureaucratic memory management with ArrayList

```
final int N = 100;
final int K = 20;

final int[][] cache = new Array[K][N];
//assume that main() initializes cache with -1

static int binom(int k, int n)
{
    if (cache[k][n] != -1)
        return cache[k][n];
    if (k > n)
        return cache[k][n] = 0;
    if (k == 0)
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Complexity?

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Hint: bound the number of recursive calls

$\mathcal{O}(k \times n)$  24

## Extended example: binomial (5/5)

```
final int N = 100;
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int binom[K][N];
binom[0][0] = 1;
for(int n = 1; n < N; n++)
{
    binom[0][n] = 1;
    for(int k = 1; k <= min(n,K); k++)
        binom[k][n] = binom[k][n-1] + binom[k-1][n-1];
}
```

- The proof of correctness is slightly more subtle

Need to reason about the mutable values of `binom[k][n]`

- The recursive variant is easier to write and an acceptable naive first implementation!
- Fill all the values upfront

(the other method is better for incremental computation)

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Complexity?  $\mathcal{O}(K \times N)$

## Exercise from last week to revisit

```
/* Assumptions: arr contains an increasing
   sequence of values
   arr[mi] <= 0 and arr[ma] >=0*/
static int dichorec(int[] arr, int mi, int ma)
{
    if (ma <= mi)
        return mi;
    final int mid = (ma+mi)/2;
    if (arr[mid] <= 0)
        return dichorec(arr,mid,ma);
    else
        return dichorec(arr,mi,mid);
}
```

```
static int dichoter(int[] arr, int mi, int ma)
{
    while (ma > mi)
    {
        int mid = (ma+mi)/2;
        if (arr[mid] <= 0)
            mi = mid;
        else
            ma = mid;
    }
    return mi;
}
```



## Recursion

- Seemingly circular definitions, but productive because you define a task in terms of smaller tasks
- Can seamlessly be used in most programming languages
- Might be harder to trace executions but...
- ...very intuitive abstraction for seemingly stateless computations and problem-solving

- Two other paradigmatic case of recursion
  - greedy algorithms
  - divide-and-conquer
- One class of motivating examples: sorting algorithms
- A bit more of dynamic programming/memoization
- (strike this week Tuesday-Thursday  $\Rightarrow$  I won't be available)

## Important

No systematic way of coming up with efficient algorithms

$\rightarrow$  Practice is key!

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Thank you for your attention! Questions?