



RECURSION

Lecture 6
CS2110 – Fall 2009

Recursion

- Arises in two forms in computer science
- We'll explore both
 - Recursion as a *mathematical* tool for defining a function in terms of its own value in a simpler case
 - Recursion as a *programming* tool. You've seen this previously but we'll take it to mind-bending extremes (by the end of the class it will seem easy!)

Recursion as a math technique

- Broadly, recursion is a powerful technique for specifying functions, sets, and programs
- Example recursively-defined functions and programs
 - factorial
 - combinations
 - exponentiation (raising to an integer power)
- Example recursively-defined sets
 - grammars
 - expressions
 - data structures (lists, trees, ...)

The Factorial Function (n!)

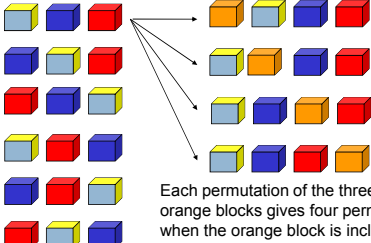
- Define $n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$ *read: "n factorial"*
 - E.g., $3! = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 6$
- By convention, $0! = 1$
- The function $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$ that gives $n!$ on input n is called the **factorial function**

The Factorial Function (n!)

- $n!$ is the number of permutations of n distinct objects
 - There is just one permutation of one object. $1! = 1$
 - There are two permutations of two objects: $2! = 2$
1 2 2 1
 - There are six permutations of three objects: $3! = 6$
1 2 3 1 3 2 2 1 3 2 3 1 3 1 2 3 2 1
- If $n > 0$, $n! = n \cdot (n - 1)!$

Permutations of

Permutations of non-orange blocks



Each permutation of the three non-orange blocks gives four permutations when the orange block is included

- Total number = $4 \cdot 3! = 4 \cdot 6 = 24$: $4!$

Observation

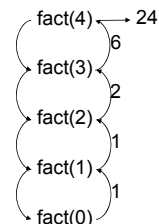
- One way to think about the task of permuting the four colored blocks was to start by computing all permutations of three blocks, then finding all ways to add a fourth block
 - ▣ And this “explains” why the number of permutations turns out to be 4!
 - ▣ Can generalize to prove that the number of permutations of n blocks is n!

A Recursive Program

0! = 1
 $n! = n \cdot (n-1)!, n > 0$

Execution of fact(4)

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



General Approach to Writing Recursive Functions

1. Try to find a parameter, say n, such that the solution for n can be obtained by combining solutions to the *same problem using smaller values of n* (e.g., (n-1) in our factorial example)
2. Find *base case(s)* – small values of n for which you can just write down the solution (e.g., 0! = 1)
3. Verify that, for any valid value of n, applying the reduction of step 1 repeatedly will ultimately hit one of the base cases

A cautionary note

- Keep in mind that each instance of your recursive function has its own local variables
- Also, remember that “higher” instances are waiting while “lower” instances run
- Not such a good idea to touch global variables from within recursive functions
 - ▣ Legal... but a common source of errors
 - ▣ Must have a really clear mental picture of how recursion is performed to get this right!

The Fibonacci Function

- Mathematical definition:
 - fib(0) = 0
 - fib(1) = 1
 - fib(n) = fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2), n ≥ 2

□ Fibonacci sequence: 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ...

```
static int fib(int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 0;
    else if (n == 1) return 1;
    else return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

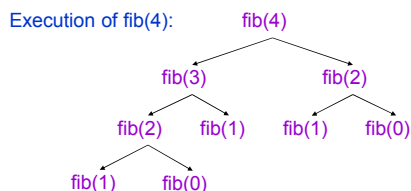


Fibonacci (Leonardo Pisano) 1170–1240?

Statue in Pisa, Italy Giovanni Paganucci 1863

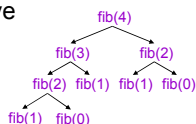
Recursive Execution

```
static int fib(int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 0;
    else if (n == 1) return 1;
    else return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```



One thing to notice

- This way of computing the Fibonacci function is elegant, but inefficient
- It “recomputes” answers again and again!
- To improve speed, need to save known answers in a table!
- Called a *cache*



Adding caching to our solution

- Before:
- After

```

static int fib(int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 0;
    else if (n == 1) return 1;
    else return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}

ArrayList<boolean> known = new ArrayList<boolean>;
ArrayList<int> cached = new ArrayList<int>;
static int fib(int n) {
    int v;
    if(known[n]) return cached[n];
    if (n == 0) v = 0;
    else if (n == 1) v = 1;
    else v = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
    known[n] = true;
    cached[n] = v;
    return v;
}
    
```

Notice the development process

- We started with the idea of recursion
- Created a very simple recursive procedure
- Noticed it will be slow, because it wastefully recomputes the same thing again and again
- So made it a bit more complex but gained a lot of speed in doing so
- This is a common software engineering pattern

Combinations (a.k.a. Binomial Coefficients)

- How many ways can you choose r items from a set of n distinct elements? $\binom{n}{r}$ “n choose r”

$\binom{5}{2}$ = number of 2-element subsets of {A,B,C,D,E}

2-element subsets containing A: $\binom{4}{1}$
 {A,B}, {A,C}, {A,D}, {A,E}

2-element subsets not containing A: {B,C}, {B,D}, {B,E}, {C,D}, {C,E}, {D,E} $\binom{4}{2}$

- Therefore, $\binom{5}{2} = \binom{4}{1} + \binom{4}{2}$
- ... in perfect form to write a recursive function!

Combinations

$$\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r} + \binom{n-1}{r-1}, \quad n > r > 0$$

$$\binom{n}{n} = 1$$

$$\binom{n}{0} = 1$$

Can also show that $\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$

$\binom{0}{0}$		Pascal's triangle	1		
$\binom{1}{0}$	$\binom{1}{1}$		1 1		
$\binom{2}{0}$	$\binom{2}{1}$	$\binom{2}{2}$	1 2 1		
$\binom{3}{0}$	$\binom{3}{1}$	$\binom{3}{2}$	$\binom{3}{3}$	1 3 3 1	
$\binom{4}{0}$	$\binom{4}{1}$	$\binom{4}{2}$	$\binom{4}{3}$	$\binom{4}{4}$	1 4 6 4 1

Binomial Coefficients

Combinations are also called *binomial coefficients* because they appear as coefficients in the expansion of the binomial power $(x+y)^n$:

$$(x + y)^n = \binom{n}{0}x^n + \binom{n}{1}x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2}x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n}y^n$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^{n-i}y^i$$

Combinations Have Two Base Cases

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$$\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r} + \binom{n-1}{r-1}, \quad n > r > 0$$

$$\binom{n}{n} = 1$$

$$\binom{n}{0} = 1$$

Two base cases

- Coming up with right base cases can be tricky!
- General idea:
 - ▣ Determine argument values for which recursive case does not apply
 - ▣ Introduce a base case for each one of these

Recursive Program for Combinations

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$$\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r} + \binom{n-1}{r-1}, \quad n > r > 0$$

$$\binom{n}{n} = 1$$

$$\binom{n}{0} = 1$$

```
static int combs(int n, int r) { //assume n>=r>=0
    if (r == 0 || r == n) return 1; //base cases
    else return combs(n-1,r) + combs(n-1,r-1);
}
```

Exercise for the reader (you!)

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- Modify our recursive program so that it caches results
- Same idea as for our caching version of the fibonacci series
- Question to ponder: When is it worthwhile to adding caching to a recursive function?
 - ▣ *Certainly not always...*
 - ▣ *Must think about tradeoffs: space to maintain the cached results vs speedup obtained by having them*

Positive Integer Powers

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- $a^n = a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a$ (n times)
- Alternate description:
 - ▣ $a^0 = 1$
 - ▣ $a^{n+1} = a \cdot a^n$

```
static int power(int a, int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 1;
    else return a*power(a,n-1);
}
```

A Smarter Version

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- Power computation:
 - ▣ $a^0 = 1$
 - ▣ If n is nonzero and even, $a^n = (a^{n/2})^2$
 - ▣ If n is odd, $a^n = a \cdot (a^{n/2})^2$
 - Java note: If x and y are integers, "xy" returns the integer part of the quotient
- Example:

$$a^5 = a \cdot (a^{5/2})^2 = a \cdot (a^2)^2 = a \cdot ((a^2/2)^2) = a \cdot (a^2)^2$$

Note: this requires 3 multiplications rather than 5!
- What if n were larger?
 - ▣ Savings would be more significant
- This is **much faster** than the straightforward computation
 - ▣ Straightforward computation: n multiplications
 - ▣ Smarter computation: $\log(n)$ multiplications

Smarter Version in Java

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- n = 0: $a^0 = 1$
- n nonzero and even: $a^n = (a^{n/2})^2$
- n nonzero and odd: $a^n = a \cdot (a^{n/2})^2$

```
static int power(int a, int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 1;
    int halfPower = power(a,n/2);
    if (n%2 == 0) return halfPower*halfPower;
    return halfPower*halfPower*a;
}
```

parameters

local variable

- The method has two parameters and a local variable
- Why aren't these overwritten on recursive calls?

Implementation of Recursive Methods

- Key idea:
 - Use a **stack** to remember parameters and local variables across recursive calls
 - Each method invocation gets its own **stack frame**
- A **stack frame** contains storage for
 - Local variables of method
 - Parameters of method
 - Return info (return address and return value)
 - Perhaps other bookkeeping info

Stacks

- Like a stack of dinner plates
- You can **push** data on top or **pop** data off the top in a LIFO (last-in-first-out) fashion
- A **queue** is similar, except it is FIFO (first-in-first-out)

Stack Frame

- A new stack frame is pushed with each recursive call
- The stack frame is popped when the method returns
 - Leaving a return value (if there is one) on top of the stack

Example: power(2, 5)

How Do We Keep Track?

- At any point in execution, many invocations of *power* may be in existence
 - Many stack frames (all for *power*) may be in Stack
 - Thus there may be several different versions of the variables *a* and *n*
- How does processor know which location is relevant at a given point in the computation?
 - Answer: Frame Base Register**
 - When a method is invoked, a frame is created for that method invocation, and **FBR** is set to point to that frame
 - When the invocation returns, **FBR** is restored to what it was before the invocation
 - How does machine know what value to restore in the **FBR**?
 - This is part of the return info in the stack frame

FBR

- Computational activity takes place only in the topmost (most recently pushed) stack frame

Conclusion

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- Recursion is a convenient and powerful way to define functions

- Problems that seem insurmountable can often be solved in a “divide-and-conquer” fashion:
 - Reduce a big problem to smaller problems of the same kind, solve the smaller problems
 - Recombine the solutions to smaller problems to form solution for big problem

- Important application (next lecture): `parsing`