Recursion

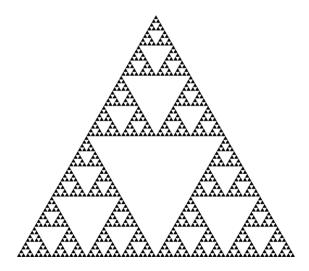
BBM 101 - Introduction to Programming I

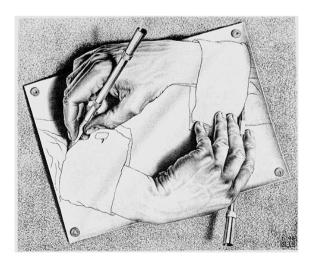
Hacettepe University Fall 2016

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Recursive functions

- A function is called recursive if the body of that function calls itself, either directly or indirectly.
- Implication: Executing the body of a recursive function may require applying that function





Drawing Hands, by M. C. Escher (lithograph, 1948)

Iterative algorithms

- Looping constructs (e.g. while or for loops)
 lead naturally to iterative algorithms
- Can conceptualize as capturing computation in a set of "state variables" which update on each iteration through the loop

Iterative multiplication by successive additions

- Imagine we want to perform multiplication by successive additions:
 - To multiply a by b, add a to itself b times
- State variables:
 - i iteration number; starts at b
 - result current value of computation; starts at 0
- Update rules
 - $-i\leftarrow i-1$; stop when 0
 - result ← result + a

Iterative multiplication by successive additions

```
def iterMul(a, b):
    result = 0
    while b > 0:
        result += a
        b -= 1
    return result
```

Recursive version

An alternative is to think of this computation as:

$$a * b = a + a + ... + a$$

$$b copies$$

$$= a + a * (b - 1)$$

Recursion

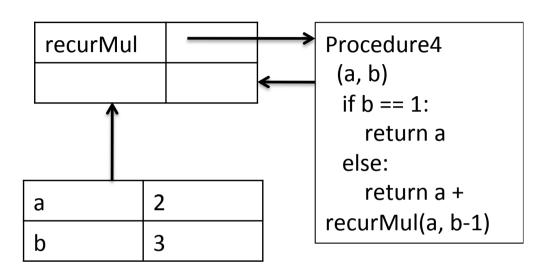
- This is an instance of a recursive algorithm
 - Reduce a problem to a simpler (or smaller) version of the same problem, plus some simple computations
 - Recursive step
 - Keep reducing until reach a simple case that can be solved directly
 - Base case
- a*b=a; if b=1 (Base case)
- a * b = a + a * (b-1); otherwise (Recursive case)

Recursive multiplication

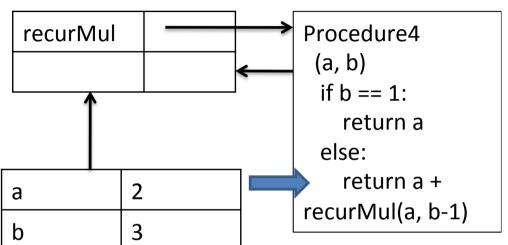
```
def recurMul(a,b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a + recurMul(a,b-1)
```

```
def recurMul (a,b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a +
    recurMul (a,b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a +
    recurMul(a,b-1)
```

```
def recurMul(a,b):
    if b == 1:
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        return a +
    recurMul(a,b-1)
```



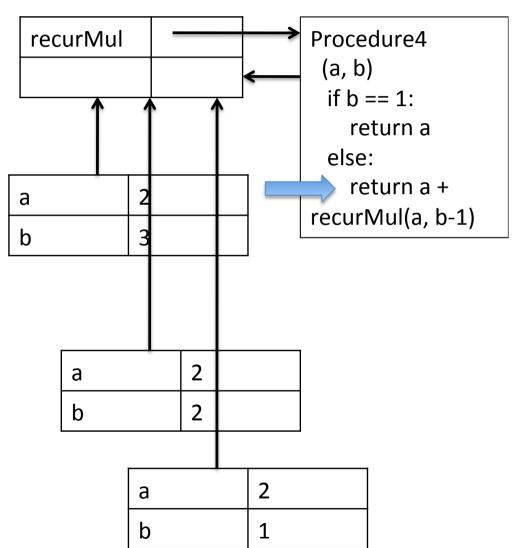
```
def recurMul(a,b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a +
        b
    recurMul(a,b-1)
```



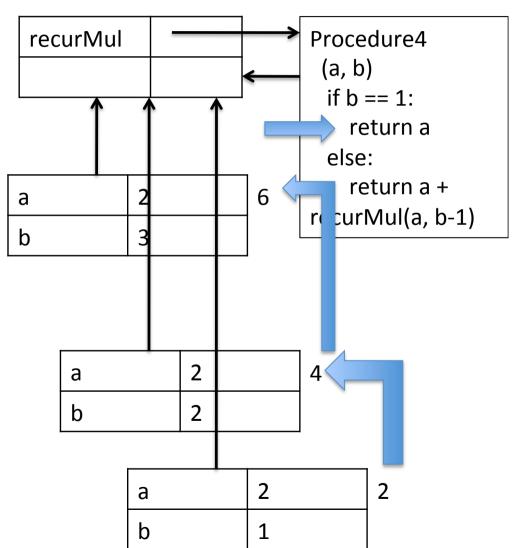
recurMul(2,3)

```
Procedure4
                             recurMul
def recurMul(a,b):
                                                  (a, b)
       if b == 1:
                                                  if b == 1:
                                                   return a
           return a
                                                  else:
       else:
                                                   return a +
                            а
                                                 recurMul(a, b-1)
        return a +
                            b
    recurMul(a,b-1)
recurMul(2,3)
                                        2
                                а
                                        2
                                b
```

```
def recurMul(a,b):
     if b == 1:
        return a
     else:
      return a +
   recurMul(a,b-1)
recurMul(2,3)
```



```
def recurMul(a,b):
     if b == 1:
        return a
     else:
      return a +
   recurMul(a,b-1)
recurMul(2,3)
```



The Anatomy of a Recursive Function

- The def statement header is similar to other functions
- Conditional statements check for base cases
- Base cases are evaluated without recursive calls
- Recursive cases are evaluated with recursive calls

```
def recurMul(a,b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a + recurMul(a,b-1)
```

Inductive reasoning

- How do we know that our recursive code will work?
- iterMul terminates because b is initially positive, and decrease by 1 each time around loop; thus must eventually become less than 1
- recurMul called with b = 1 has no recursive call and stops
- recurMul called with b > 1 makes a recursive call with a smaller version of b; must eventually reach call with b = 1

Mathematical induction

- To prove a statement indexed on integers is true for all values of n:
 - Prove it is true when n is smallest value (e.g. n = 0 or n = 1)
 - Then prove that if it is true for an arbitrary value of n, one can show that it must be true for n+1

Example

- 0+1+2+3+...+n=(n(n+1))/2
- Proof
 - If n = 0, then LHS is 0 and RHS is 0*1/2 = 0, so true
 - Assume true for some k, then need to show that
 - 0 + 1 + 2 + ... + k + (k+1) = ((k+1)(k+2))/2
 - LHS is k(k+1)/2 + (k+1) by assumption that property holds for problem of size k
 - This becomes, by algebra, ((k+1)(k+2))/2
 - Hence expression holds for all n >= 0

What does this have to do with code?

Same logic applies

```
def recurMul(a, b):
    if b == 1:
        return a
    else:
        return a + recurMul(a, b-1)
```

- Base case, we can show that recurMul must return correct answer
- For recursive case, we can assume that recurMul correctly returns an answer for problems of size smaller than b, then by the addition step, it must also return a correct answer for problem of size b
- Thus by induction, code correctly returns answer

Sum digits of a number

```
def split(n):
    """Split positive n into all but its last digit and its last digit."""
    return n // 10, n % 10
def sum_digits(n):
    """Return the sum of the digits of positive integer n."""
    if n < 10:
        return n
    else:
        all_but_last, last = split(n)
        return sum_digits(all_but_last) + last
```

Some observations

- Each recursive call to a function creates its own environment, with local scoping of variables
- Bindings for variable in each frame distinct, and not changed by recursive call
- Flow of control will pass back to earlier frame once function call returns value

The "classic" recursive problem

Factorial

$$n! = n * (n-1) * ... * 1$$

$$= \int 1 if n = 0$$

$$n * (n-1)! otherwise$$

```
(Demo)
Global frame
                                 >> func fact(n) [parent=Global]
                  fact
f1: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 3
f2: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 2
f3: fact [parent=Global]
                    n |1
f4: fact [parent=Global]
```

 The same function fact is called multiple times

```
(Demo)
Global frame
                                 > func fact(n) [parent=Global]
                  fact
f1: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 3
f2: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 2
f3: fact [parent=Global]
                    n |1
f4: fact [parent=Global]
```

- The same function fact is called multiple times
- Different frames keep track of the different arguments in each call

```
(Demo)
Global frame
                                 > func fact(n) [parent=Global]
                  fact
f1: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 3
f2: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 2
f3: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 1
f4: fact [parent=Global]
```

- The same function fact is called multiple times
- Different frames keep track of the different arguments in each call
- What **n** evaluates to depends upon the current environment

```
(Demo)
Global frame
                                  > func fact(n) [parent=Global]
                   fact
f1: fact [parent=Global]
                   <u>n</u> 3
f2: fact [parent=Global]
f3: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 1
f4: fact [parent=Global]
```

- The same function fact is called multiple times
- Different frames keep track of the different arguments in each call
- What **n** evaluates to depends upon the current environment
- Each call to fact solves a simpler problem than the last: smaller n

```
(Demo)
Global frame
                                  > func fact(n) [parent=Global]
                   fact
f1: fact [parent=Global]
                    <u>n</u> 3
f2: fact [parent=Global]
f3: fact [parent=Global]
                    n 1
f4: fact [parent=Global]
```

Iteration vs Recursion

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24$$

$$n! = \prod_{k=1}^{n} k$$

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Iteration vs Recursion

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24$$

 $4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24$

Using while:

```
def fact_iter(n):
    total, k = 1, 1
    while k <= n:
        total, k = total*k, k+1
    return total</pre>
```

Math:

$$n! = \prod_{k=1}^{n} k$$

Names:

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0\\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0\\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Iteration vs Recursion

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24$$

Using while:

def fact_iter(n):
 total, k = 1, 1
 while k <= n:
 total, k = total*k, k+1
 return total</pre>

Math: $n! = \prod_{k=1}^n k$ Names: k = total, k, fact iter

Using recursion:

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

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Recursion on non-numerics

- How could we check whether a string of characters is a palindrome, i.e., reads the same forwards and backwards
 - "Able was I ere I saw Elba" attributed to Napolean
 - "Are we not drawn onward, we few, drawn onward to new era?"
 - "Ey Edip Adana'da pide ye"

How to we solve this recursive?

- First, convert the string to just characters, by stripping out punctuation, and converting upper case to lower case
- Then
 - Base case: a string of length 0 or 1 is a palindrome
 - Recursive case:
 - If first character matches last character, then is a palindrome if middle section is a palindrome

Example

- 'Able was I ere I saw Elba' →
 'ablewasiereisawleba'
- isPalindrome('ablewasiereisawleba') is same as
 - 'a' == 'a' and isPalindrome('blewasiereisawleb')

Palindrome or not?

```
def toChars(s):
    s = s.lower()
    ans = ''
    for c in s:
        if c in 'abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz':
            ans = ans + c
    return ans
def isPal(s):
    if len(s) \ll 1:
       return True
    else:
       return s[0] == s[-1] and isPal(s[1:-1])
def isPalindrome(s):
    return isPal(toChars(s))
```

Divide and conquer

- This is an example of a "divide and conquer" algorithm
 - Solve a hard problem by breaking it into a set of sub-problems such that:
 - Sub-problems are easier to solve than the original
 - Solutions of the sub-problems can be combined to solve the original

Global variables

- Suppose we wanted to count the number of times fib calls itself recursively
- Can do this using a global variable
- So far, all functions communicate with their environment through their parameters and return values
- But, (though a bit dangerous), can declare a variable to be global – means name is defined at the outermost scope of the program, rather than scope of function in which appears

Example

```
def fibMetered(x):
    global numCalls
    numCalls += 1
    if x == 0 or x == 1:
       return 1
    else:
       return fibMetered(x-1) + fibMetered(x-2)
def testFib(n):
    for i in range(n+1):
        global numCalls
        numCalls = 0
        print('fib of '+str(i) + ' = '+str(fibMetered(i)))
        print('fib called ' + str(numCalls) + ' times')
```

Global variables

- Use with care!!
- Destroy locality of code
- Since can be modified or read in a wide range of places, can be easy to break locality and introduce bugs!!

Mutual recursion

 Mutual recursion is a form of recursion where two functions or data types are defined in terms of each other.

The Luhn Algorithm

• A simple checksum formula used to validate a variety of identification numbers, such as credit card numbers, IMEI numbers, etc.



The Luhn Algorithm

- From Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Luhn_algorithm
- **First:** From the rightmost digit, which is the check digit, moving left, double the value of every second digit; if product of this doubling operation is greater than 9 (e.g., 7 * 2 = 14), then sum the digits of the products (e.g., 10: 1 + 0 = 1, 14: 1 + 4 = 5)
- Second: Take the sum of all the digits

1	3	8	7	4	3	
2	3	1+6=7	7	8	3	= 30

The Luhn sum of a valid credit card number is a multiple of 10

The Luhn Algorithm

```
def luhn sum(n):
    """Return the digit sum of n computed by the Luhn algorithm"""
    if n < 10:
       return n
    else:
       all but last, last = split(n)
       return luhn sum double (all but last) + last
def luhn sum double(n):
    """Return the Luhn sum of n, doubling the last digit."""
    all but last, last = split(n)
    luhn digit = sum digits(2 * last)
    if n < 10:
       return luhn digit
    else:
       return luhn sum(all but last) + luhn digit
```

Tree Recursion

 Tree-shaped processes arise whenever executing the body of a recursive function makes more than one recursive call.

Tree Recursion

- Fibonacci numbers
- Leonardo of Pisa (aka Fibonacci) modeled the following challenge
 - Newborn pair of rabbits (one female, one male) are put in a pen
 - Rabbits mate at age of one month
 - Rabbits have a one month gestation period
 - Assume rabbits never die, that female always produces one new pair (one male, one female) every month from its second month on.
 - How many female rabbits are there at the end of one year?

Fibonacci

- After one month (call it 0) 1 female
- After second month still 1 female (now pregnant)
- After third month two females, one pregnant, one not
- In general, females(n) = females(n-1) + females(n-2)
 - Every female alive at month n-2 will produce one female in month n;
 - These can be added those alive in month
 n-1 to get total alive in month n

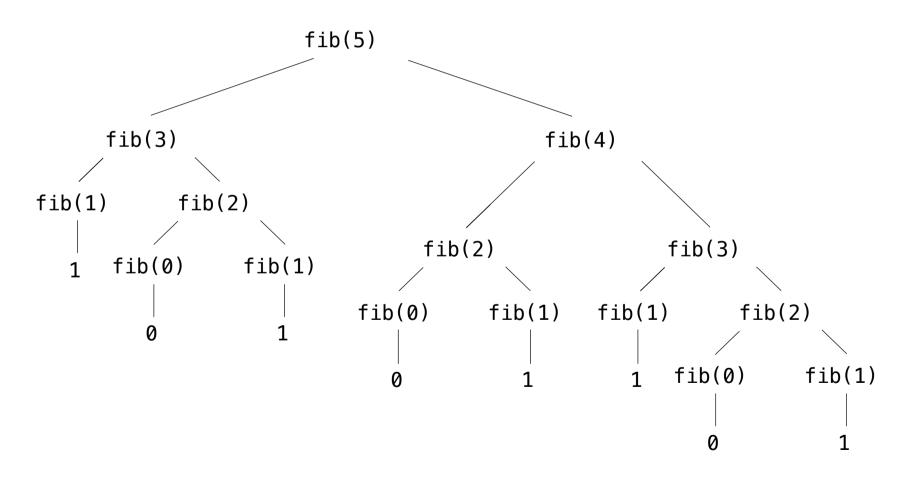
Month	Females			
0	1			
1	1			
2	2			
3	3			
4	5			
5	8			
6	13			

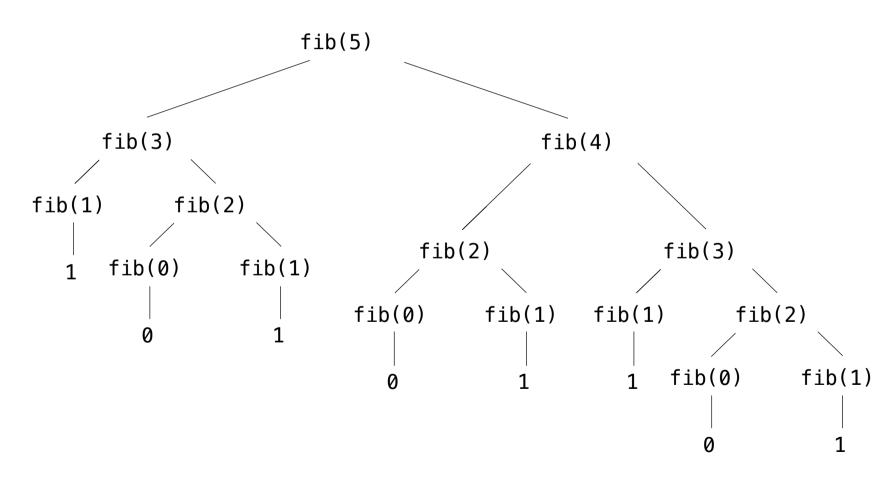
Fibonacci

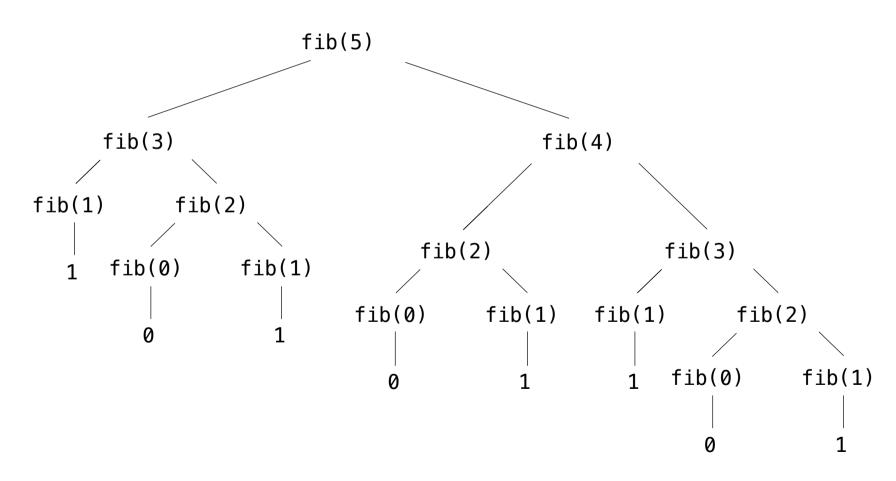
- Base cases:
 - Females(0) = 1
 - Females(1) = 1
- Recursive case
 - Females(n) = Females(n-1) + Females(n-2)

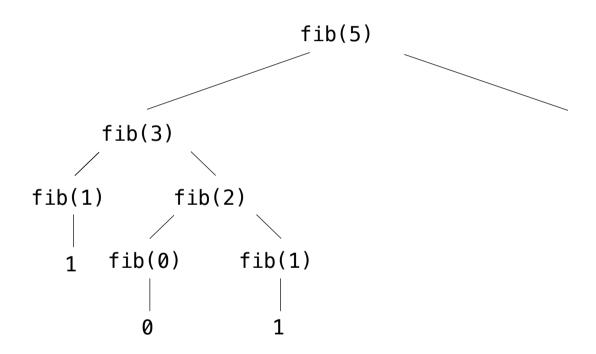
Fibonacci

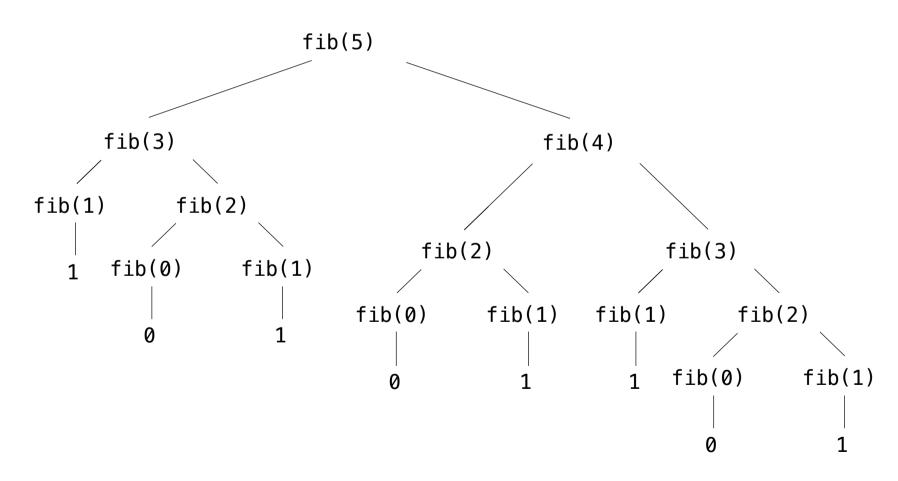
```
def fib(n):
    """assumes n an int >= 0
    returns Fibonacci of n"""
    assert type(n) == int and n \ge 0
    if n == 0:
         return 1
    elif n == 1:
         return 1
    else:
         return fib(n-2) + fib(n-1)
```

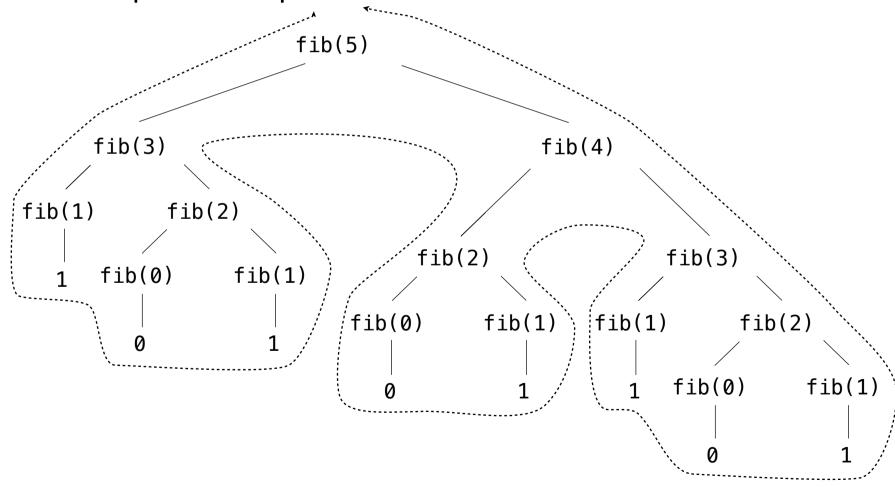


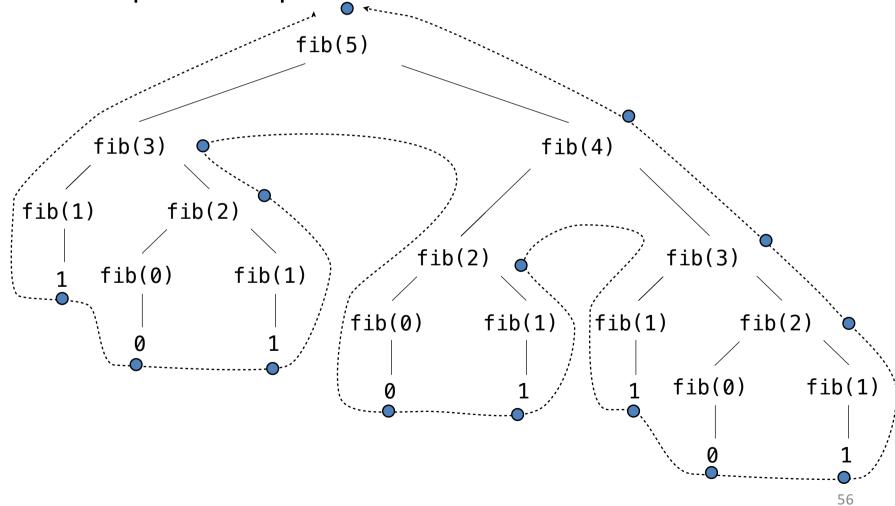












Pitfalls of Recursion

- With recursion, you can compose compact and elegant programs that fail spectacularly at runtime.
- Missing base case
- No guarentee of convergence
- Excessive space requirements
- Excessive recomputation

Missing base case

```
def H(n):
return H(n-1) + 1.0/n;
```

- This recursive function is supposed to compute Harmonic numbers, but is missing a base case.
- If you call this function, it will repeatedly call itself and never return.

No guarantee of convergence

```
def H(n):
    if n == 1:
        return 1.0
    return H(n) + 1.0/n
```

- This recursive function will go into an infinite recursive loop if it is invoked with an argument n having any value other than 1.
- Another common problem is to include within a recursive function a recursive call to solve a subproblem that is not smaller.

Excessive space requirements

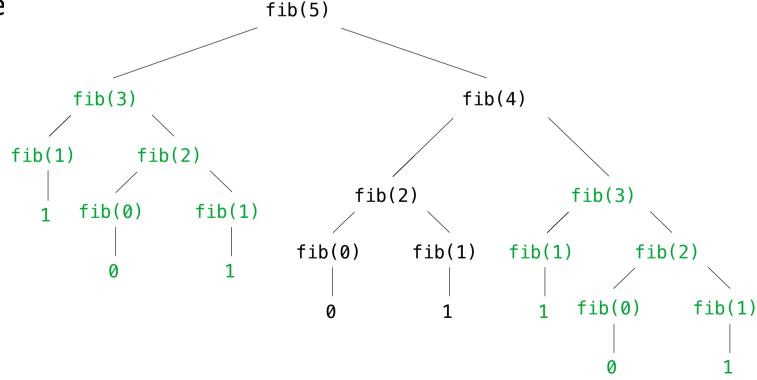
- Python needs to keep track of each recursive call to implement the function abstraction as expected.
- If a function calls itself recursively an excessive number of times before returning, the space required by Python for this task may be prohibitive.

```
def H(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 0.0
    return H(n-1) + 1.0/n
```

- This recursive function correctly computes the nth harmonic number.
- However, we cannot use it for large n because the recursive depth is proportional to n, and this creates a StackOverflowError.

Excessive recomputation

- A simple recursive program might require exponential time (unnecessarily), due to excessive recomputation.
- For example, fib is called on the same argument multiple time



Computational Complexity of Recursive Algorithms: Linear Complexity

Complexity can depend on number of recursive calls

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

- Number of recursive calls?
 - Fact(n), then fact(n-1), etc. until get to fact(1)
 - Complexity of each call is constant
 - -O(n)

Computational Complexity of Recursive Algorithms: Exponential Complexity

```
def genSubsets(L):
    res = []
    if len(L) == 0:
        return [[]] #list of empty list
    smaller = genSubsets(L[:-1])
    # get all subsets without last element
    extra = L[-1:]
    # create a list of just last element
    new = []
    for small in smaller:
        new.append(small+extra)
    # for all smaller solutions, add one with last element
    return smaller+new
    # combine those with last element and those without
```

Computational Complexity of Recursive Algorithms: Exponential Complexity

```
def genSubsets(L):
    res = []
    if len(L) == 0:
        return [[]]
    smaller = genSubsets(L[:-1])
    extra = L[-1:]
    new = []
    for small in smaller:
        new.append(small+extra)
    return smaller+new
```

- Assuming append is constant time
- Time includes time to solve smaller problem, plus time needed to make a copy of all elements in smaller problem

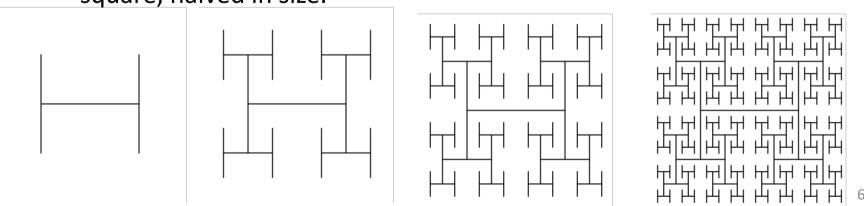
Computational Complexity of Recursive Algorithms: Exponential Complexity

```
def genSubsets(L):
    res = []
    if len(L) == 0:
        return [[]]
    smaller = genSubsets(L[:-1])
    extra = L[-1:]
    new = []
    for small in smaller:
        new.append(small+extra)
    return smaller+new
```

- But important to think about size of smaller
- Know that for a set of size k there are 2^k cases
- So to solve need $2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2} + ... + 2^0$ steps
- Math tells us this is $O(2^n)$

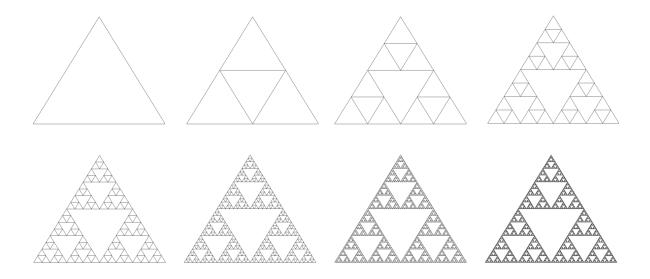
Recursive Graphics

- Simple recursive drawing schemes can lead to pictures that are remarkably intricate – Fractals
- For example, an *H-tree of order n* is defined as follows:
 - The base case is null for n = 0.
 - The reduction step is to draw, within the unit square three lines in the shape of the letter H four H-trees of order n-1.
 - One connected to each tip of the H with the additional provisos that the H-trees of order n-1 are centered in the four quadrants of the square, halved in size.



More recursive graphics

Sierpinski triangles



Recursive trees

