

CS 211

Computers and Programming

<http://www.cs.cornell.edu/courses/cs211/2005su>

Lecture 3: Recursion
Summer 2005

Announcements

- Small correction to written assignment in problem 1: the summation is over F_i not F_n
- Continue reading Chapter 7
- Quiz on Friday: probably 1 Induction problem and two shortish concept problems.
- If you need a programming partner still, see me after class

Recursion

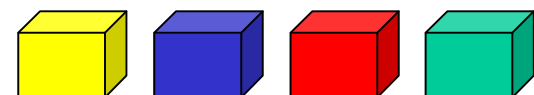
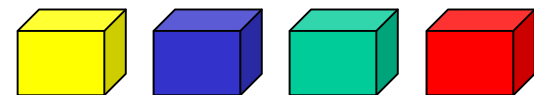
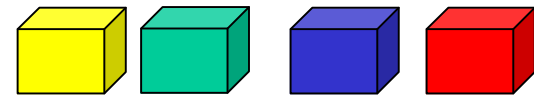
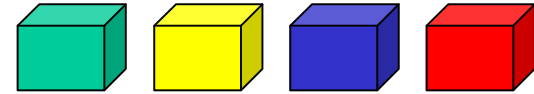
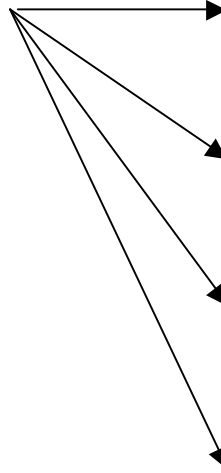
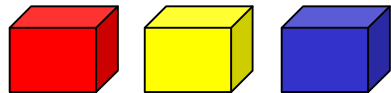
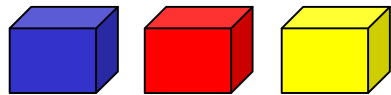
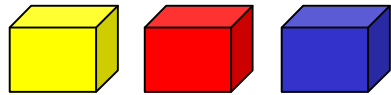
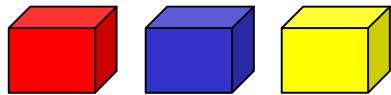
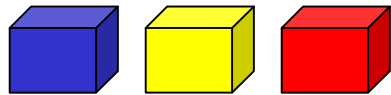
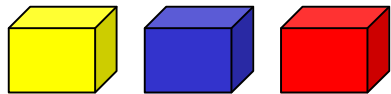
- Recursion is a powerful technique for specifying functions, sets, and programs
- Recursively-defined functions and programs
 - factorial
 - combinations
 - differentiation of polynomials
- Recursively-defined sets
 - grammars
 - expressions
 - data structures (lists, trees, ...)

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

Permutations of

Permutations of
non-green blocks



Each permutation of the three non-green
blocks gives four permutations of the four
blocks.

$$\text{Total number} = 4 \cdot 6 = 24 = 4!$$

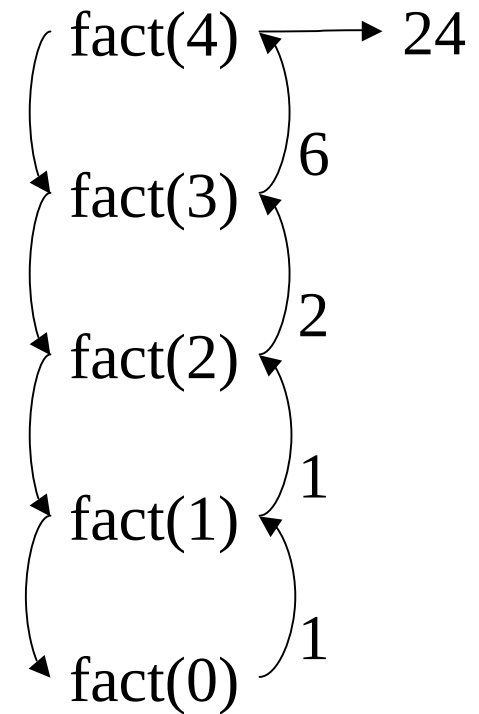
A Recursive Program

$$0! = 1$$

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

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

Execution of fact(4)



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 with smaller values of n (e.g., chess-board tiling, factorial)
2. Figure out the 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 value of n of interest, applying the reduction of step 1 repeatedly will ultimately hit one of the base cases

The Fibonacci Function

- Mathematical definition:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{fib}(0) = 1 \\ \text{fib}(1) = 1 \end{array} \quad \leftarrow \text{two base cases!}$$

$$\text{fib}(n) = \text{fib}(n - 1) + \text{fib}(n - 2), \quad n = 2$$

- Fibonacci sequence: 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ...

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



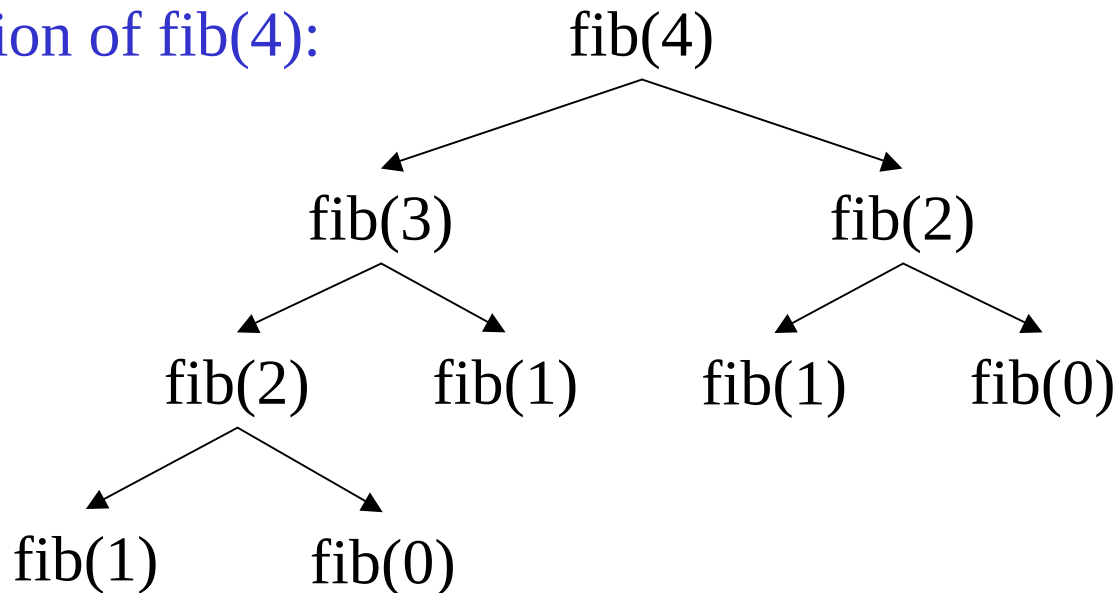
Fibonacci
(Leonardo Pisano,
1170–1240?)

Statue in Pisa, Italy
Giovanni Paganucci,
1863

Recursive Execution

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

Execution of fib(4):



Combinations (a.k.a. Binomial Coefficients)

How many ways can you choose r items from

a set S of n distinct elements? $\binom{n}{r}$ “ n choose r ”

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

- subsets containing A : $\{A,B\}, \{A,C\}, \{A,D\}, \{A,E\}$ $\binom{4}{1}$
- subsets not containing A :
 $\{B,C\}, \{B,D\}, \{B,E\}, \{C,D\}, \{C,E\}, \{D,E\}$ $\binom{4}{2}$

Therefore, $\binom{5}{2} = \binom{4}{1} + \binom{4}{2}$

Combinations

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

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

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

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

Combinations

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

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

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

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & & & \binom{0}{0} & & \\
 & & & & & & \\
 & & \binom{1}{0} & & \binom{1}{1} & & \\
 & & & & & & \\
 & \binom{2}{0} & & \binom{2}{1} & & \binom{2}{2} & \\
 & & & & & & \\
 \binom{3}{0} & & \binom{3}{1} & & \binom{3}{2} & & \binom{3}{3} \\
 & & & & & & \\
 \binom{4}{0} & & \binom{4}{1} & & \binom{4}{2} & & \binom{4}{3} & & \binom{4}{4}
 \end{array}$$

Pascal's triangle

1
 1 1
 1 2 1
 1 3 3 1
 1 4 6 4 1
 1 5 10 10 5 1

Combinations

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

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

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

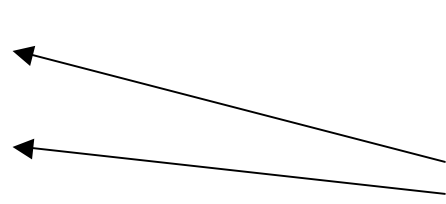
Combinations have two base cases

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

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

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

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
- Rule of thumb: (not always valid) if you have r recursive calls on right hand side, you may need r base cases.

Recursive Program for Combinations

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

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

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

```
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);
}
```

Polynomial Differentiation

Inductive cases:

$$d(uv)/dx = u \, dv/dx + v \, du/dx$$

$$d(u+v)/dx = du/dx + dv/dx$$

Base cases:

$$dx/dx = 1$$

$$dc/dx = 0$$

Example:

$$d(3x)/dx = 3dx/dx + x \, d(3)/dx = 3 \cdot 1 + x \cdot 0 = 3$$

Positive Integer Powers

$$a^n = a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a \text{ (n times)}$$

Alternative 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

- 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, “ x/y ” returns the integer part of the quotient
- Example:
$$a^5 = a \cdot (a^{5/2})^2 = a \cdot (a^2)^2 = a \cdot ((a^{2/2})^2)^2 = a \cdot (a^2)^2$$

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

Smarter Version in Java

- $n = 0$: $a^0 = 1$
- n nonzero and even: $a^n = (a^{n/2})^2$
- n 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;  
}
```

Implementation of Recursive Methods

local variable

parameters

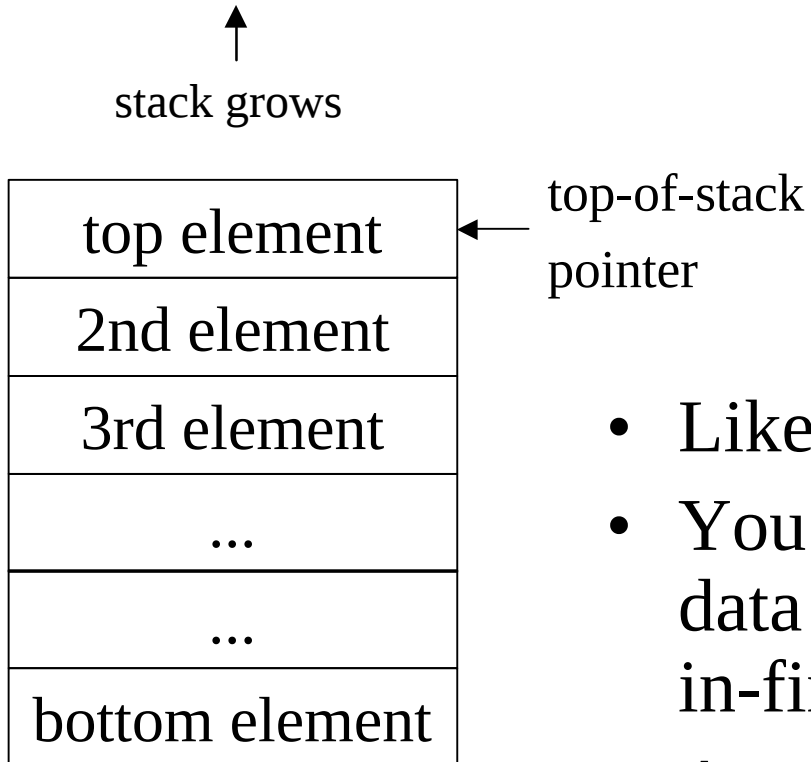
```
static int power(int a, int n) {  
    if (n == 0) return 1;  
    int halfPower = power(a, n/2);  
    if (n%2 == 0) return halfPower*halfPower;  
    return halfPower*halfPower*a;  
}
```

- 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
 - parameters of method
 - local variables of method
 - return address
 - perhaps other bookkeeping info

Stacks

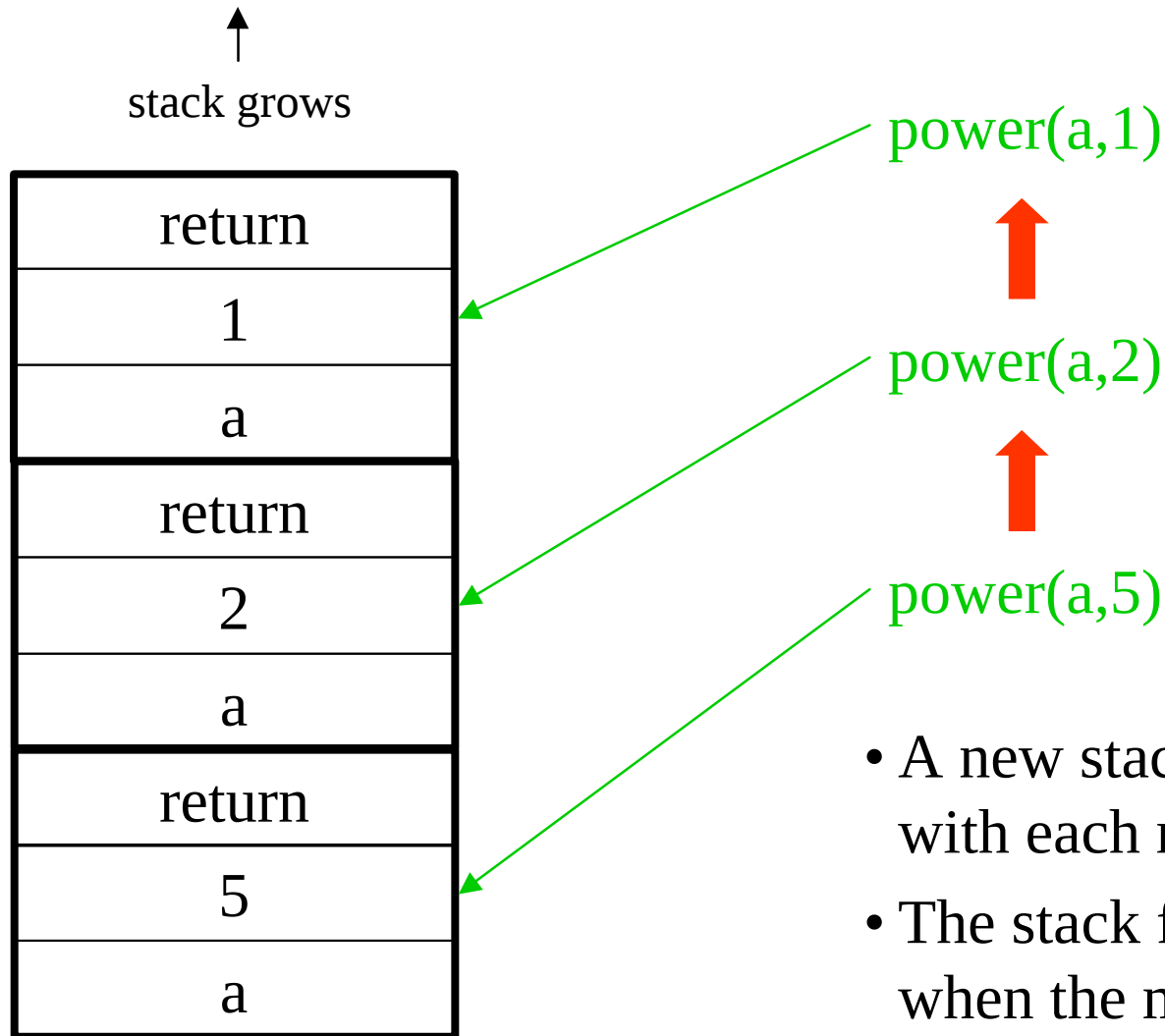


- Like a stack of plates
- You can **push** data on top or **pop** data off the top in a LIFO (last-in-first-out) fashion
- A **queue** is similar, except it is FIFO (first-in-first-out)

java.lang.Stack

- Stack() Creates an empty Stack
- boolean empty() Tests if the stack is empty
- E peek() Looks at the object at the top of the stack without removing it from the stack
- E pop() Removes the object at the top of the stack and returns that object as the value of the function
- push(E item) Pushes an item onto the top of the stack
- int search(E o) Returns the position of the given item on the stack

Stack Frames



- A new stack frame is pushed with each recursive call
- The stack frame is popped when the method returns

Conclusion

- 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 of languages