IM 1003: Computer Programming	
Recursion, searching, and sorting	
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Recursive functions

- A function is **recursive** if it invokes itself (directly or indirectly).
- The technique of writing recursive functions is noted as recursion.
- Why recursion?
 - Many problems can be solved by dividing the original problem into several smaller pieces of subproblems.
 - Typically one or some subproblems are quite similar to the original problem.
 - Recursion are sometimes intuitive for implementing this strategy.

- Recursion
- Searching
- Sorting

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Recursive functions: finding the max

- As an example, suppose we want to find the maximum number in an array *A*[1..*n*] (which means *A* is of size *n*).
 - Strategy 1: Write a loop to compare each number to the current maximum.
 - Strategy 2: First find the maximum of A[1..(n-1)], then compare that number with A[n].
- In strategy 2, we divide the original task into two subtasks:
 - Find the maximum of A[1..(n-1)].
 - Compare that number with A[n].
- Let's visualize this strategy!
- While subtask 2 is simple, subtask 1 is similar to the original task.
 In particular, it can be solved with the same strategy!

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Recursive functions: finding the max

- Let's try to implement strategy 2.
- First, I know I need to write a function whose header is:

double max (double array[], int len);

- This function returns the maximum among **array** elements 1 to **len**.
- I want this to happen, though at this moment I do not know how.
- Now let's implement strategy 2:
 - If the function really works, subtask 1 will be completed by invoking

double subMax = max (array, len - 1);

- Subtask 2 is done by comparing **subMax** and **array[len - 1]**.

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Recursive functions: finding the max

• The (wrong) complete implementation is

```
double max (double array[], int len)
{
    double subMax = max (array, len - 1);
    if (array[len - 1] > subMax)
        return array[len - 1];
    else
        return subMax;
    }
    What will happen if we really invoke this function?
```

Recursive functions: finding the max

- If we really invoke this function, the program will not terminate!
 - In particular, even when the argument len is 1 in an invocation, we will still try to invoke max (array, 0), which does not make sense.
- When we are facing an array whose size is 1, the task should be solved without using the strategy.
 - It can be solved trivially: That single number is the maximum!
- With this, we can add a stopping condition into our function.

Recursive functions: finding the max

- The correct complete implementation is:
- Example "08_01_max".
- Note that both else can be removed. Why?

```
double max (double array[], int len)
{
    if (len == 1) // stopping condition
        return array[0];
    else
    {
        // recursive call
        double subMax = max (array, len - 1);
        if (array[len - 1] > subMax)
            return array[len - 1];
    }
}
```

else

Recursive functions: factorial

- How to write a function that computes the factorial of *n*?
 - Strategy 1: Write a loop to multiply 1, 2, ..., and *n*.
 - Strategy 2: First calculate the factorial of n 1, and then multiply it with n.

	<pre>int factorial (int n) { if (n = 1) // stopping condition return 1; else // recursive call return factorial (n - 1) * n; }</pre>	
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Some remarks

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- There must be a **stopping condition** in a recursive function. Otherwise, the program won't stop.
- In many cases, a recursive strategy can also be implemented by a repetitive strategy.
 - E.g., writing a loop for finding a maximum and factorial.
- Compared with an equivalent iterative function, a recursive implementation is usually simpler and easier to understand.
- However, it generally uses more memory spaces and is more time-consuming.
 - Recall that invoking functions has some cost.

When we invoke this function with argument 4: factorial (4)

= factorial (3) * 4 = (factorial (2) * 3) * 4 = ((factorial (1) * 2) * 3) * 4 = ((1 * 2) * 3) * 4 = (2 * 3) * 4 = 6 * 4 = 24 Ling-Chich Kung NTU IM Programming Design, Spring 2013 - Recursion, Searching, and Sorting 10/27

Recursive functions: factorial

Some more examples

- Write a recursive function to find the *n*th Fibonacci number.
 - The Fibonacci sequence is 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, Each number is the sum of the two proceeding numbers.
 - Finding the *n*th number can be done if we know the (n 1)th and (n 2)th numbers.

```
int fib (int n)
{
    if (n == 1)
        return 1;
    else if (n == 2)
        return 1;
    else // two recursive calls
        return (fib (n-1) + fib (n-2));
}
```

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Some more examples

• Write a recursive function to compute the greatest common divisor of two integers.



Power of recursion

- Though recursion is sometimes inefficient, typically implementation is easier.
- When the efficiency is not a big issue, writing recursion for problem solving is a good idea.
- Let's consider the classic example "Hanoi Tower".
 - Example "**08_03_hanoi**".
 - Is there a good way of solving the Hanoi Tower problem with repetition?

Complexity issue of recursion

- In some cases, recursion is efficient enough.
 - E.g., finding the maximum, factorial, and greatest common divisor.
- In some cases, however, recursion can be very inefficient!
 E.g., Fibonacci.
- Let's compare the efficiency of two different implementations of the Fibonacci problem.
 - Example "08_02_fibonacci".
- Why the recursive implementation is inefficient?

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Outline

- Recursion
- Searching
- Sorting

Searching

- One fundamental task in computation is to search for an element.
 - We want to determine whether an element exists in a set.
 - If yes, we want to locate that element.
 - E.g., looking for a string in an article.
- Here we will discuss how to search for an integer in an onedimensional array.
- Whether the array is **sorted** makes a big difference.

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Binary search

- What if the array is sorted?
- Certainly we may still apply the linear search.
- However, we may improve the efficiency by implementing a **binary search**.
 - First, we compare p with the median m (e.g., A[(n + 1)/2] if n is odd).
 - If *p* equals *m*, bingo!
 - If p < m, we know p must exist in **the first half** of A if it exists.
 - If p > m, we know p must exist in **the second half** of A if it exists.
 - For the latter two cases, we will continue searching in the subarray. Seems to be familiar with something... ?
- Example "08_04_binarySearch".

Searching

- Consider an integer array *A*[1..*n*] and a possible element *p*.
- How to determine whether *p* exists in *A*?
- If so, where is it?
 - Assume that we only need to find one *p* even if there are multiple.
- Suppose the array is unsorted.
- One of the most straightforward way is to apply a linear search.
 - Compare each element with *p* one by one, from the first to the last.
 - Whenever we find a match, report its location.
 - Conclude *p* does not exist if we end up with nothing.
- The number of instructions we need to execute is roughly proportional to *n*, the array size.

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Linear search vs. binary search

- In binary search, the number of instructions to be executed is roughly proportional to... what?
- So binary search is much more efficient than linear search!
 - The difference is huge is the array is large.
 - However, binary search is possible only if the array is sorted.
 - Is it worthwhile to sort an array before we search it?
- Binary search can also be implemented with repetition.
 - Is it natural to do so?

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Insertion sort

Outline

- Given numbers 6, 9, 3, 4, and 7, how would you sort them?
- Imagine that you are playing poker:
 - First put the first number 6 aside.
 - Take the second number 9 and compare it with 6. Because 9 > 6, put 9 to the right of 6.
 - Take the third number 3 and compare it with the sorted list (6, 9). Because 3 < 6, put 3 to the left of 6.
 - Take the fourth number 4 and compare it with the sorted list (3, 6, 9).
 Because 3 < 4 < 6, insert 4 in between 3 and 6.
 - Take the fifth number 7 and compare it with the sorted list (3, 4, 6, 9).
 Because 6 < 7 < 9, insert 7 in between 6 and 9.
 - The result is (3, 4, 6, 7, 9).

Sorting

- Given a one-dimensional integer array A of size n, how to sort it?
- There are many different ways, and here we want to introduce two well-known methods:
 - Insertion sort.
 - Merge sort.

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Insertion sort

- The key is to maintain a sorted list.
- Then for each number in the unsorted list, insert it into the proper location so that the sorted list **remains sorted**.
- How would you implement the insertion sort?
 - Recursion or repetition?
 - If recursion, why?
- Example "08_05_insertionSort".
- Roughly how many instructions do we need for insertion sort?
- Does binary search help?

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Mergesort (Merge sort) Insertion sort is simple and fast! Not really "fast", but faster than many similar sorting algorithm. Because its idea and implementation is simple, it is faster than most algorithms when the array size is small. Interestingly, there is another sorting algorithm: Its idea is somewhat similar to insertion sort. But it is significantly faster! This algorithm is called mergesort.

Mergesort (Merge sort)

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- Interestingly, insertion sort is a special way of running mergesort.
 - Not splitting the array into two halves but split it into A[1..n 1] and A[n].
- Once we use the "smart split", the **efficiency** is improved a lot!
 - Insertion sort: Roughly proportional to n^2 .
 - Merge sort: Roughly proportional to $n \log n$.
- A simple observation can make a huge difference!

Mergesort (Merge sort)

- Recall that in an insertion sort, we need to insert one number into a sorted list for many times.
- A key observation is that "inserting" **another sorted list** of size *k* into a sorted list (so such "inserting" is actually "**merging**") can be faster than inserting *k* separate numbers one by one!
- Given an unsorted array, we will:
 - First split the array into two parts, the first half and second half.
 - Then sort each subarray.
 - Finally, merge these two subarrays.
- Mergesort is perfect for recursion!

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