## Recursion

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## Abstract

These lecture notes introduce one of the main concepts related to Computational Thinking, i.e. the recursion. The historic hero introduced in these notes is Douglas Hofstadter, who is a cognitive scientist and the author of one of the best-selling didactic books on mathematics, logic and self-references entitled Gödel, Escher, Bach: An Eternal Golden Braid.

## Historic hero: Douglas Hofstadter

Douglas Richard Hofstadter (see Figure 1) is a cognitive scientist who researches primarily on the concept of self-reference, while being also very active in the fields of consciousness, art, mathematics and physics. He is the author of Gödel, Escher, Bach: An Eternal Golden Braid (a.k.a. GEB) where he investigated in depth the concept of self-reference [Hofstadter, 1979]. In 1980, he received the Pulitzer award for that book in the general nonfiction category.

The book has been listed as one of the main sources of inspiration for choosing to work in the Computer Science field. In fact, while Hofstadter is not a computer scientist, one of the central figure of his book is a famous logician, i.e. Kurt Gödel, who provided several contributions also related to the theoretical Computer Science field. In addition to that, since one of the main book themes concerns a detailed discussion about the concept of intelligence, the final part of the book is entirely dedicated to the Artificial Intelligence field.


Figure 1. Douglas Hofstadter in 2002. Picture by Maurizio Codogno, source: https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Hofstadter2002.jpg.

## Self-reference

GEB is structured according to an alternation of fictional dialogues (that are functional to the various topics introduced in the book chapters) and several puzzles, that are used in order to explain the important behaviour of formal mathematics by means of easy-listening examples. One of the dialogues is of great interest for this lecture, i.e. the Little Harmonic Labyrinth. In this dialogue, the two main characters, i.e. Achilles and the Tortoise, are living a series of adventures in various worlds starting from the inconsistent composite world described in the Convex and Concave lithograph by Maurits Cornelis Escher. In particular, by using two specific drinks, i.e. the pushing-potion and the popping-tonic, one is able to enter in a world depicted in a paint and to exit from that world respectively. However, these pushing and popping operations can be used within any world. Thus, if once entered in the world described in the Convex and

Concave lithograph, there is another paint depicting another world, one can drink the pushing-potion to get into there. In this case, though, one needs to drink the popping-tonic twice in order to come back to the real world. However, in this case, one could be not entirely sure if the world from which one has started the journey is actually the real world, since one could have come to there from another world (and just forgotten about it), and so on. This specific theme of a journey in a stack of worlds has been addressed in several stories in the past, e.g. in Christopher Nolan's 2010 movie entitled Inception.

During the journey in this stack of worlds, Achilles and the Tortoise narrate (or are part of) a lot of stories, which include citations and references as well as self-citations and self-references that entangle and even change the whole narrative structure of the dialogue several times. One of the situations that occur concerns the use, by Achilles, of a magic lamp that allows one to evoke a genie. After rubbing it, a genie appears and Achilles asks him, as the first wish, the possibility of having one hundred of wishes instead of the usual three. The genie answers that he is not able to grant any meta-wish (i.e. a wish about a wish). However, the genie tries to propose a solution to that request by evoking a new meta-genie from his meta-lamp, asking if the meta-genie and, as a consequence, GOD (i.e. an acronym for GOD Over Djinn, where the word Djinn is use to designate all the possible genies and meta-genies that can exist) could enable Achilles to ask for a meta-wish. In order to get an answer to the genie wish, the meta-genie takes his own meta-meta-lamp so as to evoke the meta-meta-genie for asking him the very same permission, as so on and so forth. Once, in the end, Achilles is granted with the permission of asking for a meta-wish, he wishes that his wish would not be granted.

This story contains several pieces of evidence of very well-known, and delicate, aspects of mathematics and logic. For instance, the acronym GOD used in the story is a recursive acronym. Which means that the definition of the acronym contains the acronym itself, thus creating an infinite sequence of acronym rewriting if one tries to disentangled it. For instance, GOD becomes GOD Over Djinn, that becomes GOD Over Djinn Over Djinn, that becomes GOD Over Djinn Over Djinn Over Djinn, and so on and so forth. In addition to that, also the wish asked by Achilles contains a strange situation, since the wish that is asked concerns the denial of the wish it self, thus creating a clear paradox by means of a self-reference, i.e. the situation where something (e.g. a sentence or a formula) refers to itself.

It is worth mentioning that these kinds of self-references may occur in any natural or formal language. For instance, the (meta-)sentence "this sentence is false" is an example of such paradoxical situation. Even graphical languages can describe situations which include self-references. For instance, in Escher lithograph shown in Figure 2, there are two hands that are drawing each other, thus creating another clear paradox - even if the paradox is just apparent since it exists only in the world depicted by the litograph, while in the real world there is no paradox since the litograph has been actually created by Escher himself. Thus, the warning here is the following: behave of self-references, since they can be powerful tools, but they can also lead to paradoxes if they are not appropriately tamed.


Figure 2. Escher's lithograph entitled Drawing hands. Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:DrawingHands.jpg.

## Recursion

Generally speaking, we have a recursion when something is defined in terms of itself or of its type - i.e. when its definition contains a self-reference. While it would seem strange at a first analysis, we use recursions effectively in different academic fields, such as cognitive sciences, linguistics, logic, mathematics, physics, and computer science. In this section, we provide some cases where recursion is used.

In the cognitive science domain, for instance, the study of self-awareness involves recursion by definition. In fact, the goal of this cognitive aspect concerns the ability to recognise ourselves as individuals separate from the environment and from other individuals. Thus, it is an activity that involves us in studying how ourself are positioned in the environment we leave. An additional step from that aspects is known as self-consciousness, which concerns the recognition of our existence as cognitive agents. These merely philosophical aspects have been explored extensively even in creative works, such as in comics (e.g. Masamune Shirow's Ghost in the Shell) and movies (e.g. Ridley Scott's Blade Runner).

The formal grammars introduced in the very first lecture of this course can contain examples of recursive rules as well. Actually, recursive rules are quite typical in the intended formal grammar of programming languages. For instance, consider that we need to specify the formal grammar for handling all the boolean operations and, or and not, as introduced in the second lecture in this course. A reasonable formal grammar is the following one:

1) <boolean_exp> : := "(" "not" <boolean_exp> ")"
2) <boolean_exp> : : = "(" <boolean_exp> "or" <boolean_exp> ")"
3) <boolean_exp> : := "(" <boolean_exp> "and" <boolean_exp> ")"
4) <boolean_exp> ::= "True"
5) <boolean_exp> ::= "False"

The non-terminal symbol <boolean_exp> is used in the left-side and the right-side of three rules, in a recursive way, for defining all the possible combination of the boolean operation that can led to a boolean expression. By using the aforementioned grammar, it is possible, for instance, to create complex boolean expressions like (( True and (not False)) or False) and True). In fact, they are actually obtained by using the rules specified as follows:

```
<boolean_exp>
--3--> (<boolean_exp> and <boolean_exp>)
--4--> (<boolean_exp> and True)
--2--> ((<boolean_exp> or <boolean_exp>) and True)
--5--> ((<boolean_exp> or False) and True)
--3--> (((<boolean_exp> and <boolean_exp>) or False) and True)
--4--> (((True and <boolean_exp>) or False) and True)
--1--> (((True and (not <boolean_exp>)) or False) and True)
--5--> (((True and (not False)) or False) and True)
```

Even Noam Chomsky argued that recursion is a specific ability and essential property of human language. For instance, each sentence can be a composition of a subject, a verb, and another sentence as objective part, as shown by the following formal grammar:

1) <sentence> : := <subj> <verb> <sentence>
2) <sentence> ::= <subj> <verb> "books"
3) <subj> ::= "Alice"
4) <subj> ::= "Bob"
5) <subj> ::= "Christine"
6) <verb> ::= "thinks"
7) <verb> ::= "said"
8) <verb> ::= "read"

According to the aforementioned rules, and in particular the first one that allows us to build a sequence of linked sentences, it would be possible to write a composite sentence like "Alice thinks that Bob said that Christine read books". This is possible by applying the aforementioned rules as follows:

```
<sentence>
--1--> <subj> <verb> <sentence>
--3--> Alice <verb> <sentence>
--6--> Alice thinks <sentence>
--1--> Alice thinks <subj> <verb> <sentence>
```

```
--4--> Alice thinks Bob <verb> <sentence>
--7--> Alice thinks Bob said <sentence>
--2--> Alice thinks Bob said <subj> <verb> books
--5--> Alice thinks Bob said Christine <verb> books
--8--> Alice thinks Bob said Christine read books
```

Similar recursive situations can be found also in physics, and they concern well-known scenarios that can happen in our daily life, such as those ones introduced in Figure 3. In particular, in the left picture is depicted a situation known as infinity mirror, which is created by positioning two mirrors one in front of the other, so as to reflect an image indefinitely. On the other hand, the right picture is portraying Jimi Hendrix who mastered the use of the Larsen effect, where an audio signal received by an audio input device (in his case, the one recorded by the guitar pickup) is amplified by an audio output device (e.g. a speaker), and that amplified signal is then received again by the input device, and so forth, so as to create an audio loop.


Figure 3. Two example of recursion in real-life situations: the infinite mirror (left) and the Larsen effect (right). Left picture by Elsemuko, source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Infinity Mirror_Effect.jpg. Right picture source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Jimi_Hendrix_1967_uncropped.jpg.

## Recursive functions

As anticipated in the previous section, the recursion is also used (quite extensively) also in Computer Science, and it represents, technically speaking, an alternative to the iteration. In practice, it is used when a solution to a particular computational problem depends on the partial solutions of smaller instances of the same problem. In particular, Computer Scientists recognised as wizards by the general audience a few times [Tyler, 2013] - have developed some approaches to tame recursion so as to avoid infinite loops, and thus to use it within algorithms.

In practice, an algorithm has a recursive behaviour when it has one or more basic cases, which describe the terminating scenarios that do not use any recursion to produce the answer to a specific (sub-)problem. In addition to these basic cases, the recursive algorithm must have, as well, at least one recursion step, which is where the same algorithm is executed again with a different (and, usually, reduced) input. Listing 1 shows the generic skeleton of a recursive algorithm with one basic condition and one recursive step.

```
def <function>(<param_1>, <param_2>, ...):
    if <base_case_condition>:
        # do something and then...
        return <value>
    else:
        # do something and then... execute the recursive step
        result = <function>(<param_a>, <param_b>, ...)
        # the result of the recursive step is combined
        # somehow with other information, and then...
        return <value> # resulting from the use of recursion
```

Listing 1. The general structure of a recursive algorithm, implemented as Python function.

It is worth mentioning that the basic case is crucial for allowing the algorithm to stop a certain point. Usually, avoiding the basic case means to create an algorithm that runs forever. For instance, in Listing 2 there is a recursive implementation of the run_forever function we have shown in one previous lecture. In this case, the only thing that such recursive algorithm does in its body is to call itself again, thus creating a loop of calls that never ends.

```
def run_forever_recursive():
    run_forever_recursive()
```

Listing 2. A function that never stops created by means of a recursion step - no basic cases are specified in this example, that is usually a sign that the recursive algorithm does not stop.

The source code of this listing is available as part of the material of the course.
An example of a simple and complete (basic case + recursive step) recursive algorithm that solves a particular computational problem is that of the multiplication operation. In particular, the multiplication of two integers can be defined as the sum of the first number with itself as many times as indicated by the other number, e.g.: $3 \cdot 4=3+3+3+3$. However, looking carefully at the behaviour of this operation, one can also decouple it in terms of a sequence of multiplications summed with each other. In fact $n_{1} \cdot n_{2}=n_{1}+\left(n_{1} \cdot\left(n_{2}-1\right)\right)$ and, by applying the same rule, we can then say that $n_{1}+\left(n_{1} \cdot\left(n_{2}-1\right)\right)=n_{1}+\left(n_{1}+\left(n_{1} \cdot\left(\left(n_{2}-1\right)-1\right)\right)\right)$, and so forth until we do not multiply the first number by 0 , which is the basic case. For instance, $3 \cdot 4$ can be rewritten as follows by means of the aforementioned rule: $3 \cdot 4=3+(3 \cdot 3)=3+(3+(3 \cdot 2))=$ $3+(3+(3+(3 \cdot 1)))=3+(3+(3+(3+(3 \cdot 0))))=3+3+3+3+0=12$. This mechanism for
defining the multiplication is entirely based on a recursive approach, which is illustrated in Listing 3.

```
# Test case for the algorithm
def test_multiplication(int_1, int_2, expected):
    result = multiplication(int_1, int_2)
    if expected == result:
        return True
    else:
        return False
# Code of the algorithm
def multiplication(int_1, int_2):
    if int_2 == 0:
        return 0
    else:
        return int_1 + multiplication(int_1, int_2 - 1)
print(test_multiplication(0, 0, 0))
print(test multiplication(1, 0, 0))
print(test_multiplication(5, 7, 35))
```

Listing 3. A recursive function for calculating the multiplication between two non-negative integers, accompanied by the related test case. The source code of this listing is available as part of the material of the course.

## Exercises

1. Define a recursive function def exponentiation (base_number, exponent) for implementing the exponentiation operation, and test (by implementing the related test case) it on the following inputs: $3^{4}, 17^{1}$, and $2^{0}$.
2. Define a recursive function def fib(n) that implements the algorithm to find the $\mathrm{n}^{\text {th }}$ Fibonacci number - where if n is less than or equal to 0 , then 0 is returned as result; if n is equal to 1 , then 1 is returned; otherwise, return the sum of the same function called with $n-1$ and $n-2$ as input. Please accompany the function with the related test case.

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