

IT2070 - Data Structures and Algorithms

Lecture 05
Introduction to Recursion



Recursion –Example 1

Factorial

$$n! = n * (n-1) * (n-2) * ... * 2 * 1, and that $0! = 1$.$$

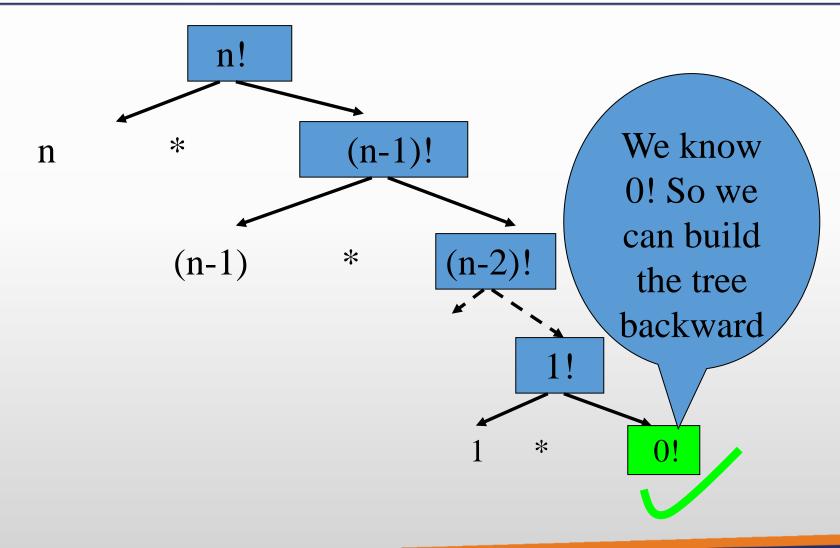
A recursive definition is

$$(n)! = \{n * (n-1)! \text{ if } n > 0\}$$

{1 \text{ if } n = 0}



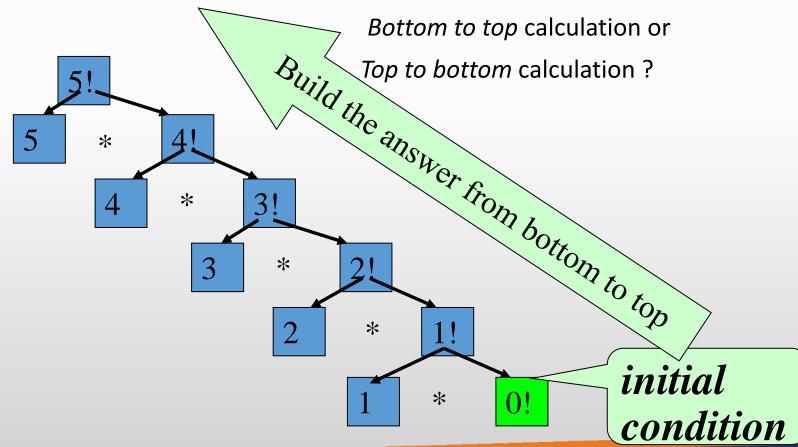
Factorial -A graphical view





Exercise

- Draw the recursive tree for 5!
- How does it calculate 5!? Is it:





Factorial(contd.)

```
(n)! = \{n * (n-1)! \text{ if } n > 0\}
{1 	 if n = 0}
```

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

Compare



Recursion

What is recursion?

A function that calls itself directly or indirectly to solve a smaller version of its task until a final call which does not require a self-call is a *recursive* function.



Recurrence equation

- Mathematical function that defines the running time of recursive functions.
- This describes the overall running time on a problem of size *n* in terms of the running time on smaller inputs.

Ex:
$$T(N) = T(N-1) + b$$

 $T(N) = T(N/2) + c$



Recurrence - Example1

Find the Running time of the following function

Statement A takes time a \rightarrow for the conditional evaluation

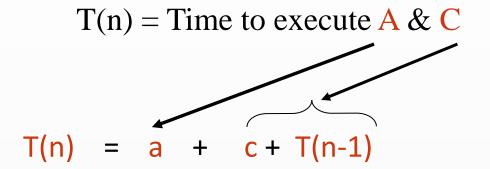
Statement B takes time b → for the return assignment

Statement C takes time:

```
c \rightarrow for the operations(multiplication & return)
T(n-1) \rightarrow to determine (n-1)!
```



Recurrence - Example1 (Contd.)



This method is called iteration method (or repeated substitution)



Exercise

• Solve the recurrence

$$T(n) = T(n/2) + 2$$

You are given that

$$n = 16$$
 and

$$T(1) = 1$$



Finding a solution to a recurrence.

- Other methods
 - Recursion tree.
 - Master Theorem.

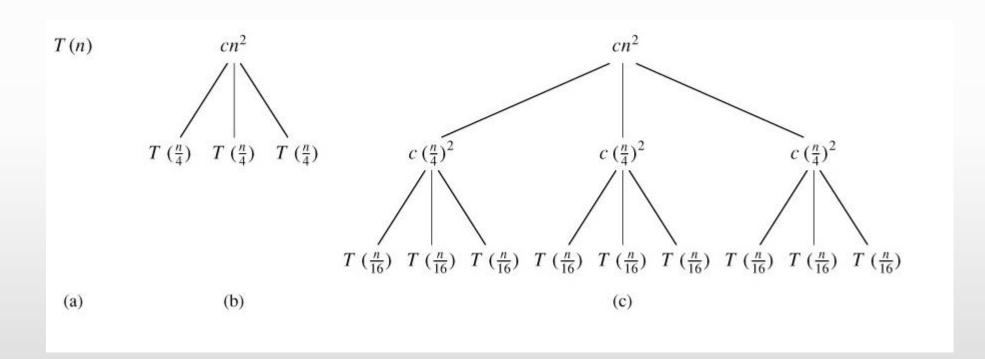


The recursion-tree method

- Although the substitution method can provide a succinct proof that a solution to a recurrence is correct, it is sometimes difficult to come up with a good guess. Drawing out a recursion tree, is a straightforward way to devise a good guess. In a recursion tree, each node represents the cost of a single subproblem somewhere in the set of recursive function invocations.
- A recursion tree is best used to generate a good guess, which is then verified by the substitution method.

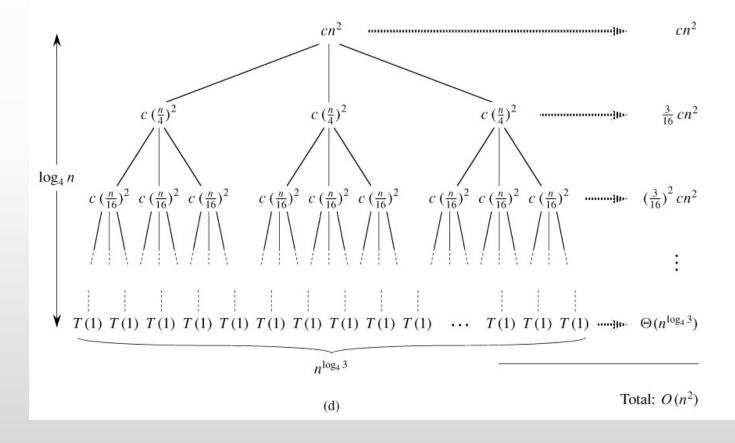


Recursion tree for $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + cn^2$





Recursion tree for $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + cn^2$





The Master Method

The Master method applies to recurrences of the form

$$T(n) = a T(n/b) + f(n)$$

where $a \ge 1$ and b > 1, and f(n) is an asymptotically positive function.

The recurrence describes the running time of an algorithm that divides a problem of size n into a subproblems, each of size n/b, where a and b are positive constants. The a subproblems are solved recursively, each in time T (n/b). The cost of dividing the problem and combining the results of the subproblems is described by the function f (n).



The master theorem

- The master method depends on the following theorem.
- Let a ≥ 1 and b > 1 be constants, let f (n) be a function, and let T (n) be defined on the nonnegative integers by the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n),$$

where we interpret n/b to mean either $\lfloor n/b \rfloor$ or $\lceil n/b \rceil$. Then T(n) can be bounded asymptotically as follows.



The master theorem

```
Compare n^{\log_b a} vs. f(n):
Case 1: f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon}) for some constant \epsilon > 0.
    (f(n) \text{ is polynomially smaller than } n^{\log_b a}.)
    Solution: T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}).
Case 2: f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n), where k \ge 0.
    (f(n)) is within a polylog factor of n^{\log_b a}, but not smaller.)
    Solution: T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n).
    (Intuitively: cost is n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n at each level, and there are \Theta(\lg n) levels.)
    Simple case: k = 0 \Rightarrow f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg n).
Case 3: f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon}) for some constant \epsilon > 0 and f(n) satisfies the regu-
    larity condition af(n/b) \le cf(n) for some constant c < 1 and all sufficiently
    large n.
    (f(n)) is polynomially greater than n^{\log_b a}.)
    Solution: T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).
    (Intuitively: cost is dominated by root.)
```



The master theorem

$$\Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \qquad f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon}) \to f(n) < n^{\log_b a}$$

$$T(n) = \begin{cases}
\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg n) & f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \to f(n) = n^{\log_b a}
\end{cases}$$

$$\Theta(f(n)) \qquad f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon}) \to f(n) > n^{\log_b a}$$
if $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for $c < 1$ and large n



Master Theorem – Case 1 example

Give tight asymptotic bound for

$$T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n$$

Solution:

$$a=9, b=3, \text{ and } f(n) = n.$$

$$n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_3 9} = n^2$$

$$f(n) = O(n^{\log_3 9 - \varepsilon})$$
 for $\varepsilon = 1$ or $f(n) < n^{\log_3 9} \to \text{case } 1$

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$$



Master Theorem – Case 2 example

Give tight asymptotic bound for

$$T(n) = T(2n/3) + 1$$

Solution:

$$a=1, b=3/2, \text{ and } f(n)=1.$$

$$n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_{3/2} 1} = n^0 = 1$$

$$f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \text{ or } f(n) = n^{\log_b a} \rightarrow \text{case } 2$$

$$T(n) = \Theta(\log n)$$



Master Theorem – Case 3 example

- Give tight asymptotic bound for
- $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + n \log n$
- Solution:
- a=3, b=4, and $f(n) = n \log n$

$$n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_4 3} = O(n^{0.793})$$

$$f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_4 3 + \varepsilon})$$
, for $\varepsilon \approx 0.2$ or $f(n) > n^{\log_4 3} \rightarrow \text{case } 3$

Note:
$$n \lg n \ge c.n^{\log_4 3}.n^{0.2}$$



Exercises.

- Use the master method to give tight asymptotic bounds for the following recurrences.
 - 1. T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n.
 - 2. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$.
 - 3. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$.
- Use the master method to show that the solution to the binary-search recurrence $T(n) = T(n/2) + \Theta(1)$ is $T(n) = \Theta(\lg n)$.