

# Algorithms and Data Structures 2

## 4 - Recursive algorithms

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# Outline

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- **Recursive algorithms**

- Recursion traces
- Linear recursion
- Tail recursion
- Conversion to non-recursive (iterative) algorithms
- Binary recursion
- Recursion trees

- **Algorithm design paradigms**

- Incremental
- Divide-and-conquer

# Recursion

- A function is recursive if it refers to itself in its definition
- Classic example: the **factorial** function
  - $n! = n * (n-1) * (n-2) * \dots * 1$

```
FACT(n)
  if n = 1
    return 1
  else
    return n * FACT(n-1)
```

- We have implemented the factorial function as a **recursive algorithm**
  - Note FACT() is applied to a **smaller** number every time until it is applied to **1** (stopping case)

# In general

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- **When calling itself, a recursive function makes a **clone** and calls the clone with appropriate parameters**
- **A recursive algorithm must always**
  - **Rule 1**: reduce size of data set, or the number its working on, each time it is recursively called
  - **Rule 2**: provide a stopping case (terminating condition)

# Recursion trace

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- **Graphical method to visualise the execution of recursive algorithms**
- **Drawn as follows:**
  - A box for each recursive call
  - An arrow from each caller to callee (in black)
  - An arrow from each callee to caller showing return value (in blue) (we will often omit this)

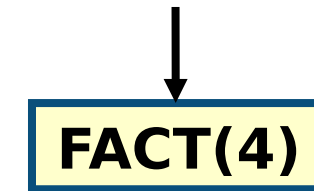
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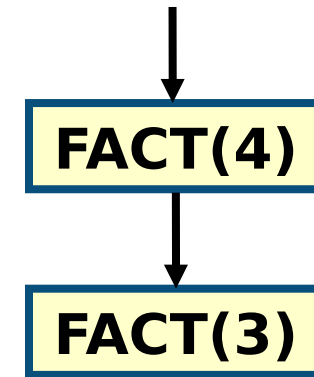


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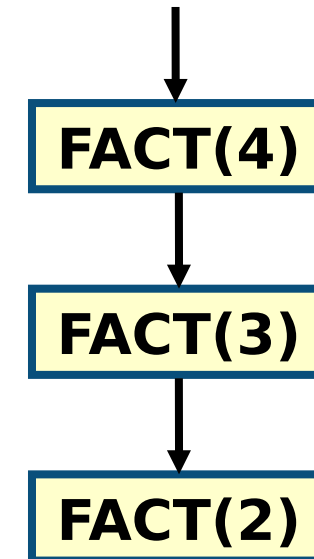




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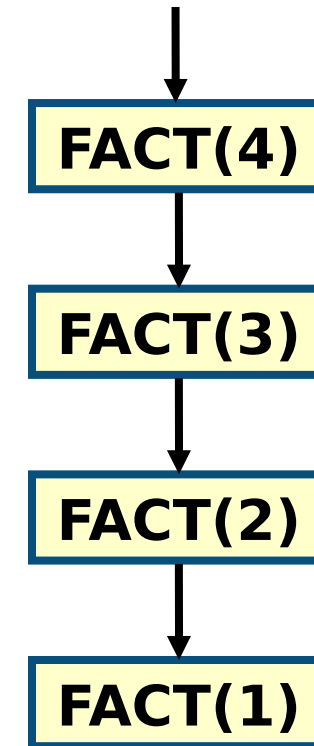
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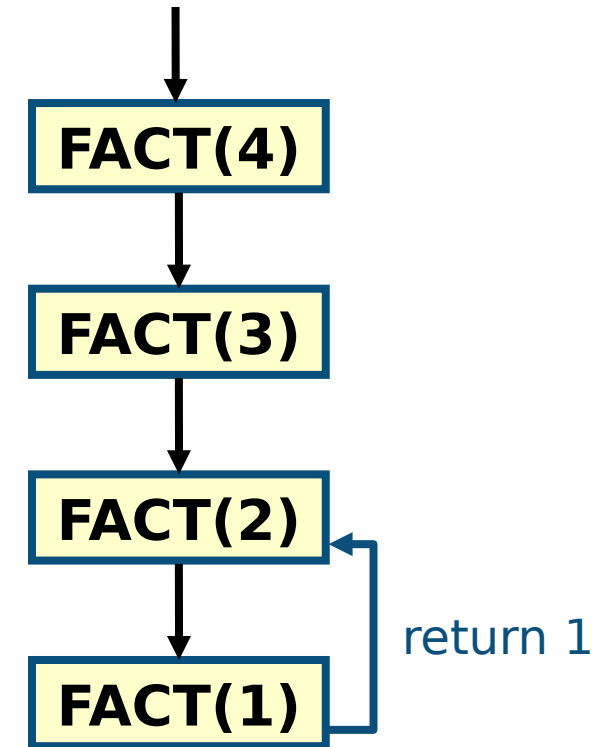
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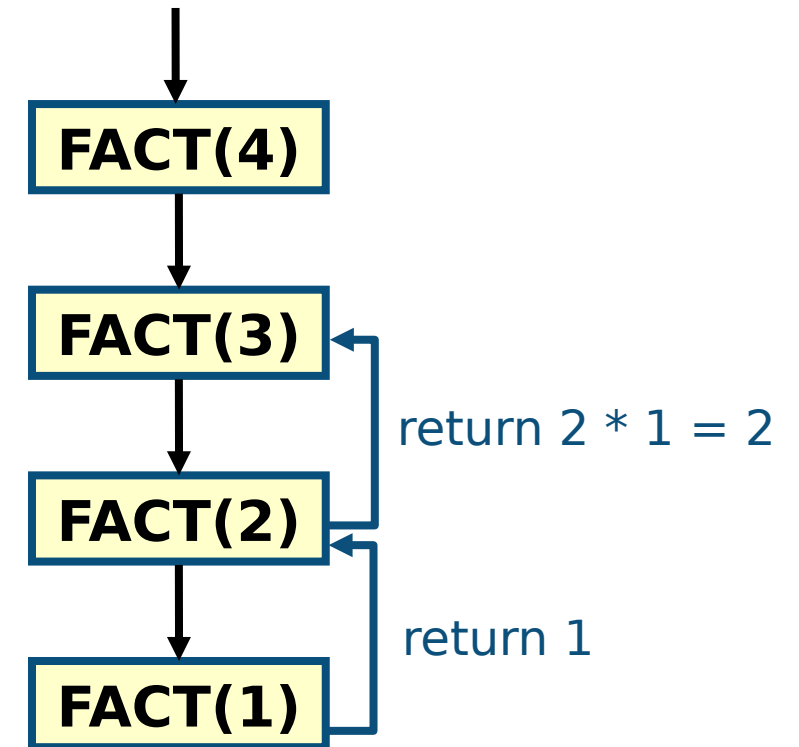
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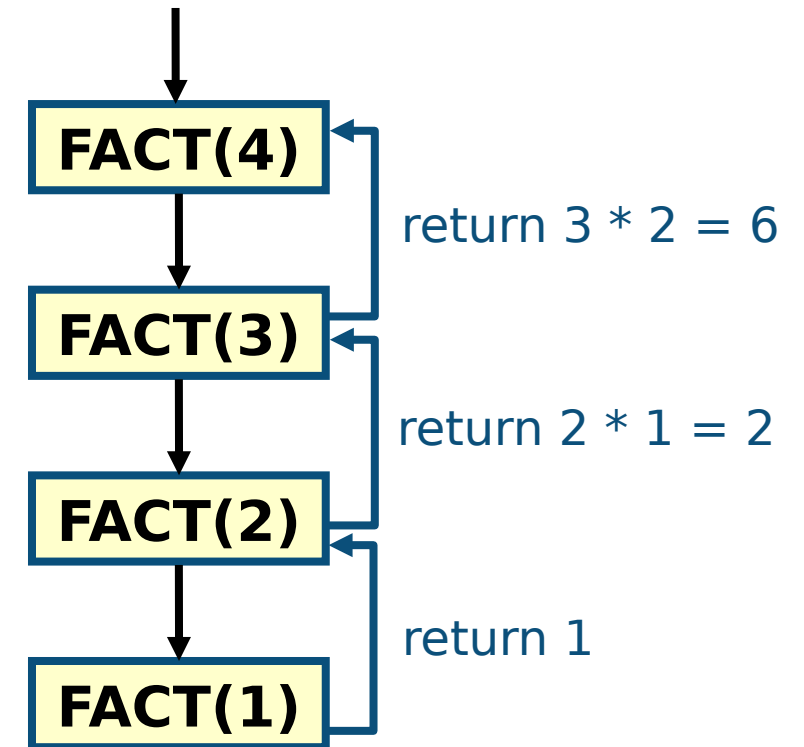
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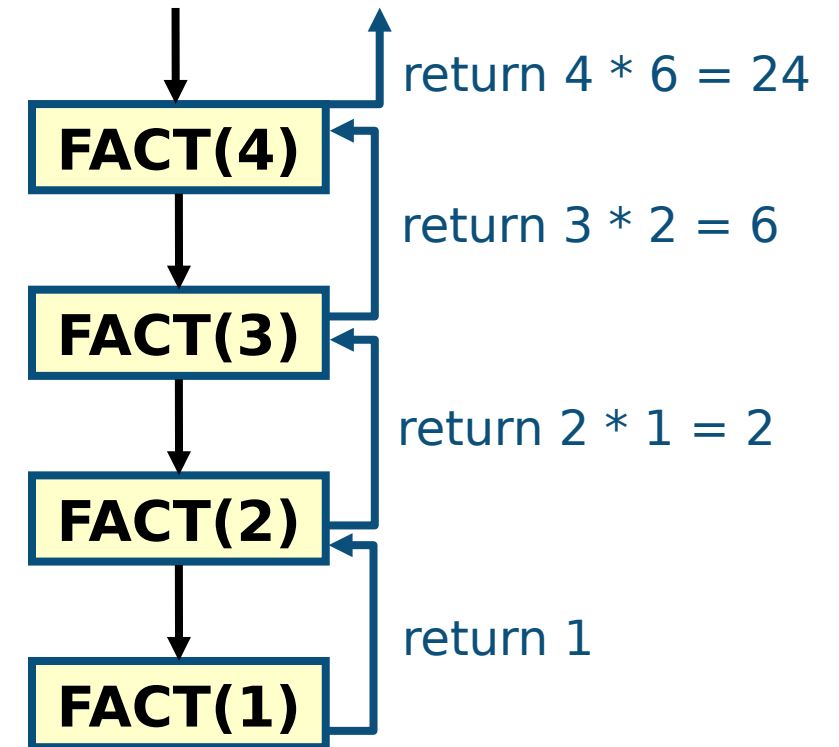
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# Linear recursion

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- **With linear recursion a method is defined so that it makes at most one recursive call each time it is invoked**
  - Useful when we view an algorithmic problem in terms of a first and/or last element plus a remaining set with same structure as original set
- **The amount of space needed to keep track of the nested calls, grows linearly with  $n$  (the size of the input)**
- **Example:  $\text{FACT}(n)$** 
  - One recursive call  $\text{FACT}(n-1)$
  - See the recursion trace for space requirements

# Example: summing the elements of an array

- **Input:** An array **A** of integers and integer  **$n \geq 1$** , such that **A** has at least **n** elements
- **Output:** The sum of the first **n** integers in **A**

```
LINEAR-SUM(A,n)
  if  $n = 1$  then
    return  $A[0]$ 
  else
    return  $\text{LINEAR-SUM}(A, n-1) + A[n-1]$ 
```



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- **Does LINEAR-SUM satisfy Rules 1 and 2?**

- **Rule 1:** input reduced at each recursive call

ADS 2, 2021 **Rule 2:** stopping case

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- **Rule 1:** input reduced at each recursive call

**Yes:** return statement

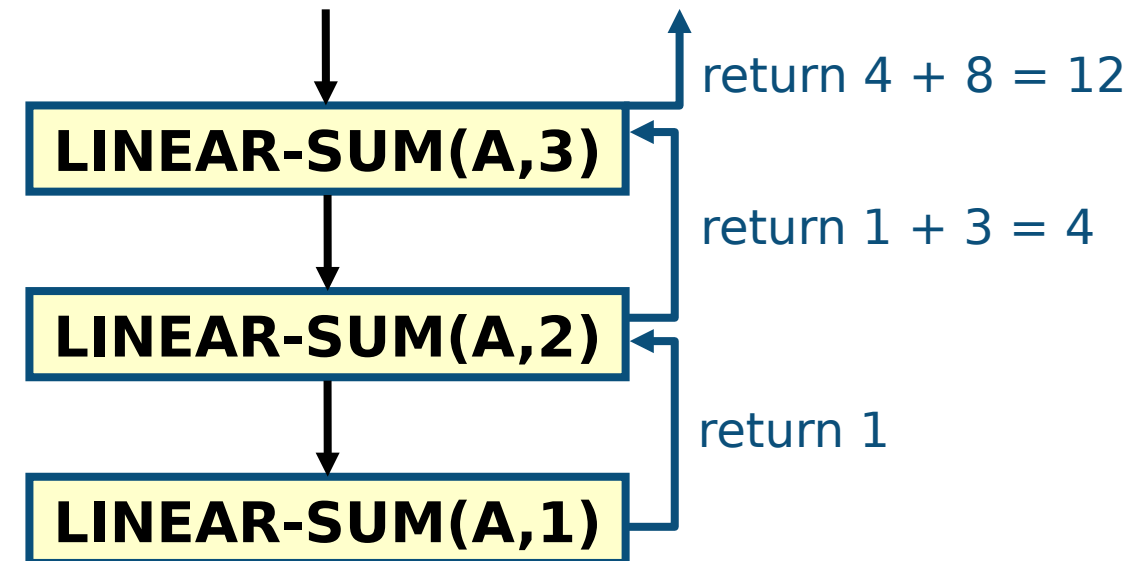
**Yes:** if statement

ADS 2, 2021 **Rule 2:** stopping case

# Recursion trace

- For **LINEAR-SUM(A,3)** with **A = [1,3,8,6,4,3]**

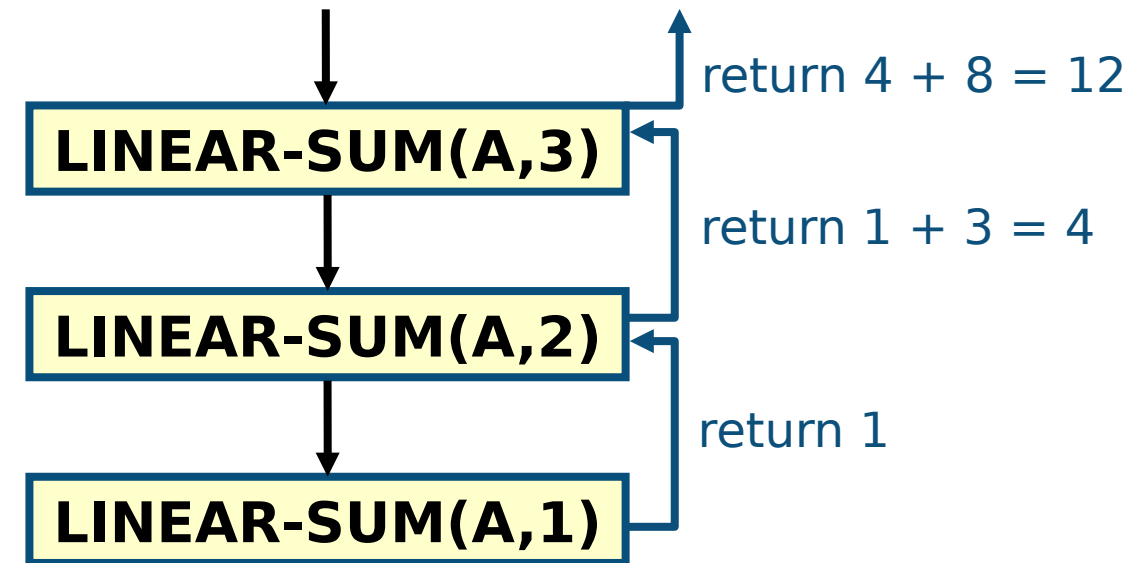
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# Recursion trace

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LINEAR-SUM(A,n)
  if n = 1 then
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```



- What is the complexity of **LINEAR-SUM**?
- And **FACT**?

# Tail recursion

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- **Recursion is useful tool for designing algorithms with short, elegant definitions**
- **Recursion has a cost**
  - Need to use memory to keep track of the state of each recursive call (**boxes** in recursion traces)
- **When memory is of primary concern, useful to be able to derive non-recursive algorithms from recursive ones**
  - Can use a **stack data structure** to do this (we will cover this in the next lectures)
  - Using **iterations** (e.g. for or while loops)
- **In some cases, we can gain memory efficiency by simply using tail recursion**
- **An algorithm uses tail recursion when recursion is linear and recursive call is its very last operation**

# Example: reversing the elements of an array

- Input: An array **A** and integer indices **i, j**  $\geq 1$
- Output: The reversal of the elements in **A** starting at index **i** and ending at **j**

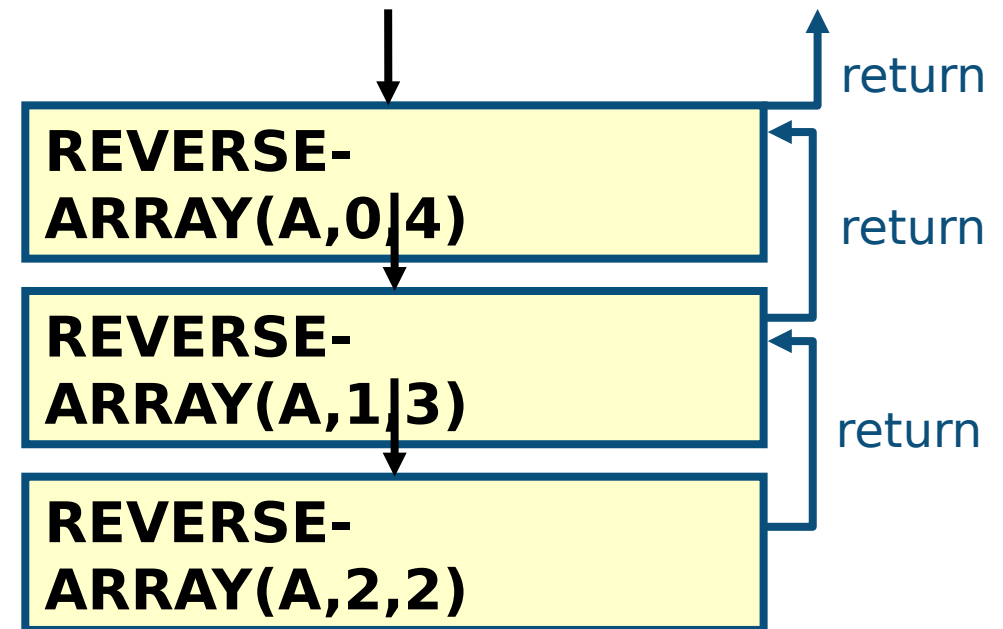
```
REVERSE-ARRAY(A,i,j)
  if i < j then
    SWAP(A[i],A[j])
    REVERSE-ARRAY(A,i+1,j-1)
```

- Recursive call is the **last** operation
- Is **LINEAR-SUM** tail recursive?
- And **FACT**?

# Recursion trace

- For **REVERSE-ARRAY(A,0,4)** with **A = [3,4,6,1,0]**

```
REVERSE-ARRAY(A,i,j)
  if i < j then
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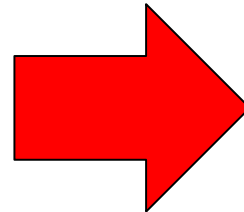


- No operations performed on the blue (return) arrows

# Conversion to non-recursive algorithm

- **Non-recursive** algorithm are also called **iterative**
- Algorithms using tail recursion can be **converted** to a non-recursive algorithm by iterating through recursive calls rather than calling them explicitly
- In general, we can always replace recursive algorithm with an iterative one, but often the recursive solution is shorter and easier to understand

```
REVERSE-ARRAY(A,i,j)
  if  $i < j$  then
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```



```
REVERSE-ARRAY-ITER(A,i,j)
  while  $i < j$ 
    SWAP(A[i],A[j])
     $i := i + 1$ 
     $j := j - 1$ 
```



# Binary recursion

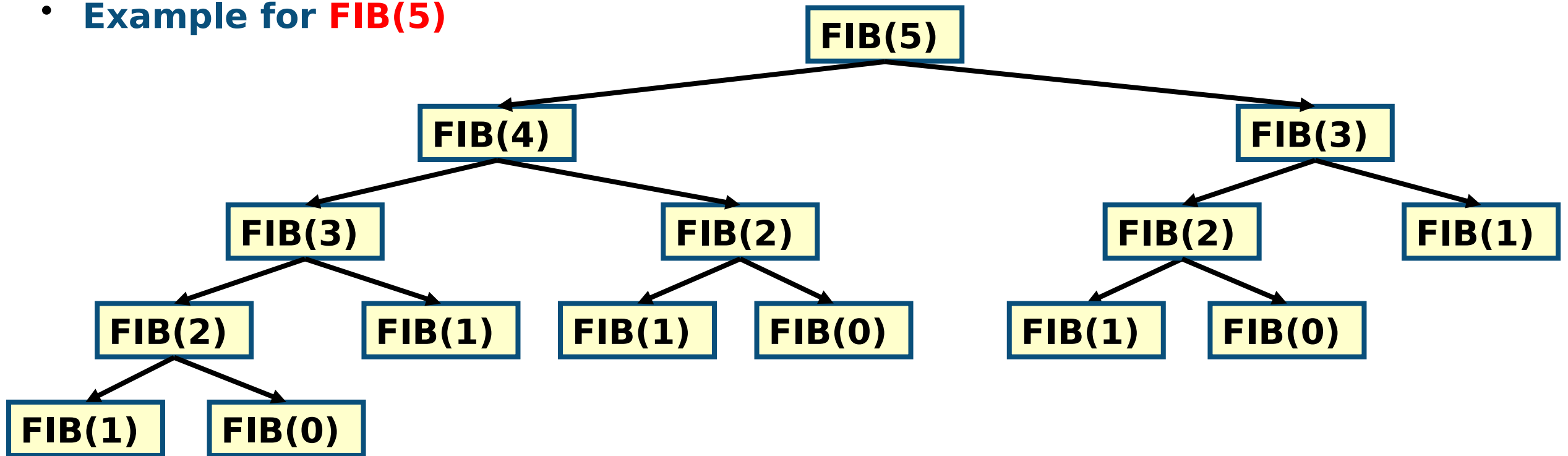
- When an algorithm makes **two** recursive calls, we say that it uses **binary recursion**
  - To solve two halves of some problem
- Classic example: **Fibonacci** numbers are a sequence of numbers defined by
  - $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  for  $n > 1$  with  $F_0 = 0$  and  $F_1 = 1$

- In pseudocode

```
FIB(n)
  if  $n \leq 1$  // base cases
    return n
  else
    return FIB(n-1) + FIB(n-2) //binary recursion
```

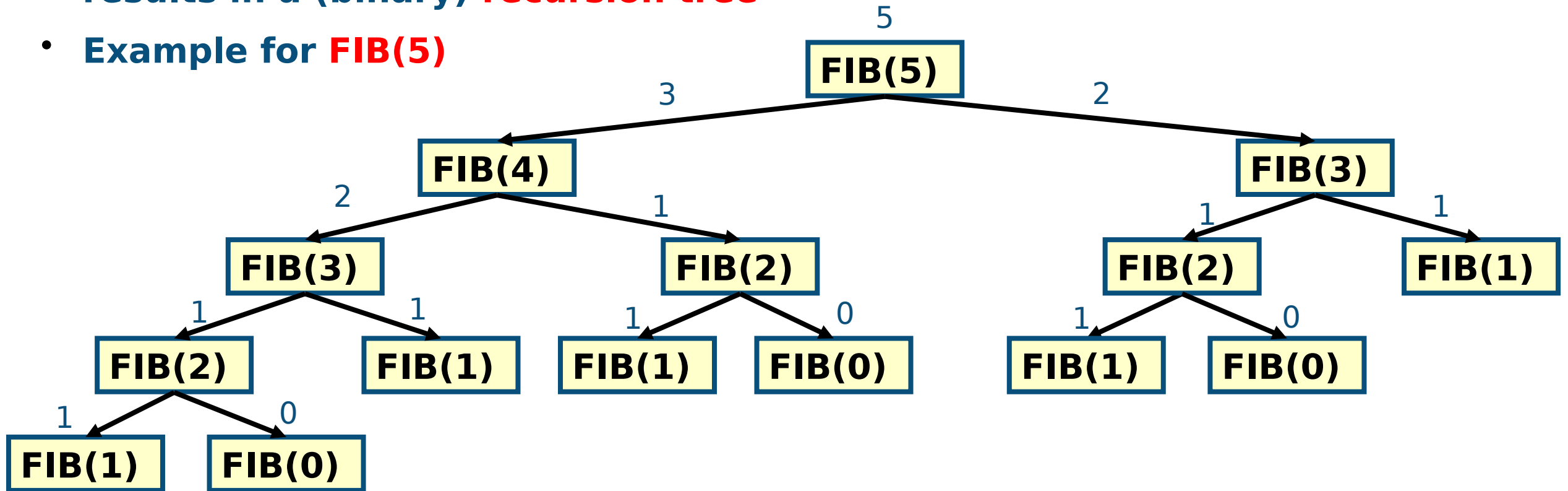
# Recursion tree

- Visualising each recursive call in an algorithm using **binary recursion** results in a (binary) **recursion tree**
- Example for **FIB(5)**



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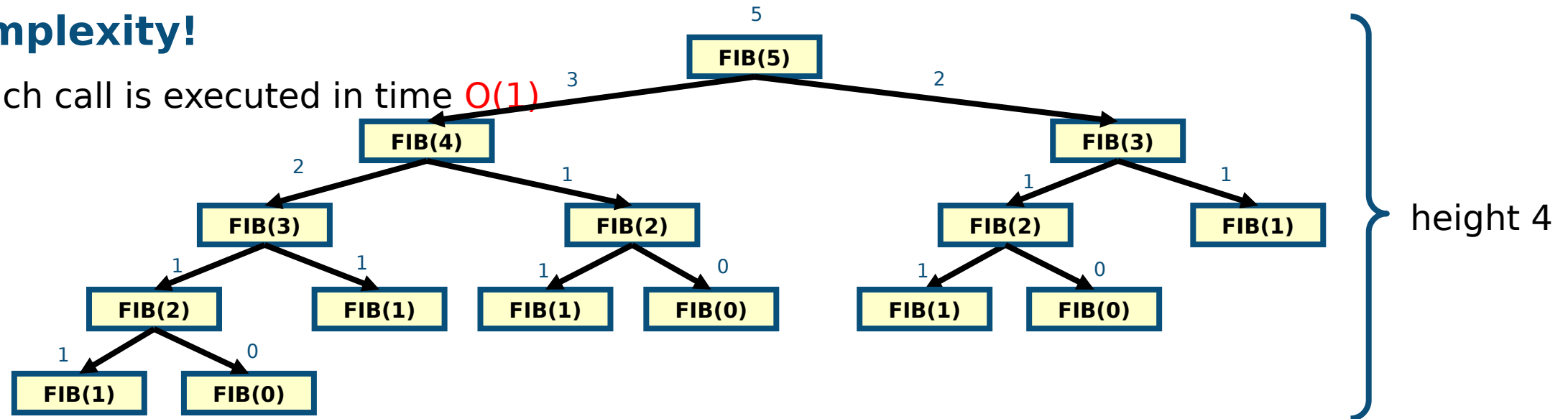
# Recursion tree

- **Recall from AF2**

- The number of nodes  $n$  in a full binary tree is at most  $n = 2^{h+1} - 1$  where  $h$  is the height of the tree

- **Here height is  $O(n)$  therefore there are  $O(2^n)$  recursive calls: exponential complexity!**

- Each call is executed in time  $O(1)$



# Incremental approach

- **Popular algorithm design approach in which the solution of a problem is built incrementally**
  - One element at a time
- **Example: INSERTION-SORT at each iteration**
  - Subarray  $A[1..j-1]$  is assumed sorted
  - Element  $A[j]$  is inserted in the correct position to obtain sorted subarray  $A[1..j]$

```
INSERTION-SORT(A)  
  for  $j = 1$  to  $n-1$   
     $key := A[j]$   
     $i := j-1$   
    while  $i \geq 0$  and  $A[i] > key$   
       $A[i+1] := A[i]$   
       $i := i-1$   
     $A[i+1] := key$ 
```

# Divide-and-conquer approach

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- **An algorithm design paradigm based on recursion**
- **It involves three steps at each level of the recursion**
  - **Divide** the problem into several smaller subproblems (that are smaller instances of the same problem)
  - **Conquer**: Solve subproblems recursively (until you hit the base)
  - **Combine** the solutions to the subproblems to create a solution to the original problem
- **We will use this approach to define some efficient sorting algorithms**
  - MERGE-SORT
  - QUICK-SORT

# Summary

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- **Recursive algorithms**

- Linear recursion
- Binary recursion
- Recursion trace and trees
- Tail recursion
- Conversion to non-recursive algorithm

- **Algorithm design paradigms**

- Incremental
- Divide-and-conquer