COMP9020 Week 5 Term 3, 2020 Recursion

- [LLM] Ch. 6, 21.1
- [RW] Ch. 4

Outline

- Recursion
- Recursive Data Types
- Recursive programming
- Solving recurrences



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Fundamental concept in Computer Science

- Recursion in algorithms: Solving problems by reducing to smaller cases
 - Factorial
 - Towers of Hanoi
 - Mergesort, Quicksort

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- Recursion in algorithms: Solving problems by reducing to smaller cases
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- Recursion in data structures: Finite definitions of arbitrarily large objects
 - Natural numbers
 - Words
 - Linked lists
 - Formulas
 - Binary trees



Fundamental concept in Computer Science

- Recursion in algorithms: Solving problems by reducing to smaller cases
 - Factorial
 - Towers of Hanoi
 - Mergesort, Quicksort
- Recursion in data structures: Finite definitions of arbitrarily large objects
 - Natural numbers
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 - Formulas
 - Binary trees
- Analysis of recursion: Proving properties
 - Recursive sequences (e.g. Fibonacci sequence)
 - Structural induction



Consists of a basis (B) and recursive process (R).

A sequence/object/algorithm is recursively defined when (typically)

- (B) some initial terms are specified, perhaps only the first one;
- (R) later terms stated as functional expressions of the earlier terms.

NB

(R) also called recurrence formula (especially when dealing with sequences)



Example: Factorial

Example

```
Factorial:
```

$$(B) \qquad 0! = 1$$

(B)
$$0! = 1$$

(R) $(n+1)! = (n+1) \cdot n!$

```
fact(n):
```

(B)
$$if(n = 0): 1$$

(R) else:
$$n * fact(n-1)$$



Example: Euclid's gcd algorithm

Example

$$\gcd(m, n) = \begin{cases} m & \text{if } m = n \\ \gcd(m - n, n) & \text{if } m > n \\ \gcd(m, n - m) & \text{if } m < n \end{cases}$$

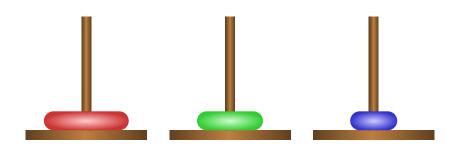
- There are 3 towers (pegs)
- *n* disks of decreasing size placed on the first tower
- You need to move all disks from the first tower to the last tower
- Larger disks cannot be placed on top of smaller disks
- The third tower can be used to temporarily hold disks

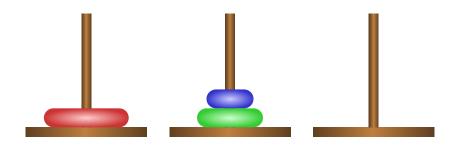
Questions

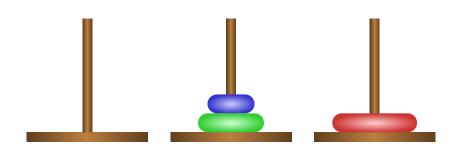
- Describe a general solution for n disks
- How many moves does it take?

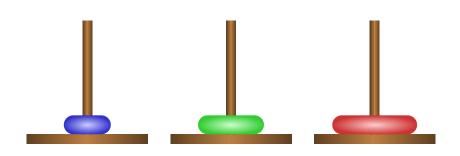










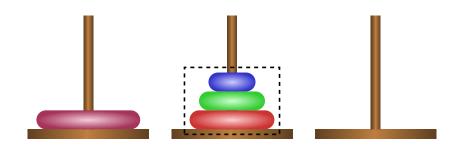


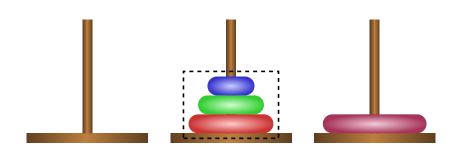














Questions

- Describe a general solution for *n* disks
- How many moves does it take? ?

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Example: Natural numbers

Example

A natural number is either 0 (B) or one more than a natural number (R).

Formal definition of \mathbb{N} :

- (B) 0 ∈ N
- (R) If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then $(n+1) \in \mathbb{N}$

Example: Odd/Even numbers

Example

The set of even numbers can be defined as:

- (B) 0 is an even number
- (R) If n is an even number then n+2 is an even number

Example: Odd/Even numbers

Example

The set of odd numbers can be defined as:

- (B) 1 is an odd number
- (R) If n is an odd number then n + 2 is an odd number

Example: Fibonacci numbers

Example

The Fibonacci sequence starts $0, 1, 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ where, after 0, 1, each term is the sum of the previous two terms.

Formally, the sequence of Fibonacci numbers: $F_0, F_1, F_2, ...$ where the *n*-th Fibonacci number F_n is defined as:

- (B) $F_0 = 0$,
- (B) $F_1 = 1$,
- (R) $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

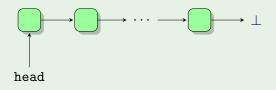
NB

Could also define the Fibonacci sequence as a function FIB: $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{F}$.

Example: Linked lists

Example

A linked list is zero or more linked list nodes:



Example: Linked lists

Example A linked list is zero or more linked list nodes: head In C: struct node{ int data; struct node *next;

Example: Linked lists

Example

We can view the linked list **structure** abstractly. A linked list is either:

- (B) an empty list, or
- (R) an ordered pair (Data, List).

Example: Words over Σ

Example

A word over an alphabet Σ is either λ (B) or a symbol from Σ followed by a word (R).

Formal definition of Σ^* :

- (B) $\lambda \in \Sigma^*$
- (R) If $w \in \Sigma^*$ then $aw \in \Sigma^*$ for all $a \in \Sigma$

NB

This matches the recursive definition of a **Linked List** data type.



Example: Expressions in the Proof Assistant

Example

- (B) $A, B, \ldots, Z, a, b, \ldots z$ are expressions
- ullet (B) \emptyset and ${\cal U}$ are expressions
- (R) If E is an expression then so is (E) and E^c
- (R) If E_1 and E_2 are expressions then:
 - $(E_1 \cup E_2)$,
 - $(E_1 \cap E_2)$,
 - $(E_1 \setminus E_2)$, and
 - $(E_1 \oplus E_2)$ are expressions.

Example: Propositional formulas

Example

A well-formed formula (wff) over a set of propositional variables, PROP is defined as:

- (B) ⊤ is a wff
- (B) \perp is a wff
- (B) p is a wff for all $p \in PROP$
- (R) If φ is a wff then $\neg \varphi$ is a wff
- \bullet (R) If φ and ψ are wffs then:
 - $(\varphi \wedge \psi)$,
 - $(\varphi \lor \psi)$,
 - \bullet $(\varphi \to \psi)$, and
 - $(\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi)$ are wffs.

Exercises

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RW: 4.4.4 (a) Give a recursive definition for the sequence

$$(2, 4, 16, 256, \ldots)$$

(b) Give a recursive definition for the sequence

$$(2, 4, 16, 65536, \ldots)$$

Exercises

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RW: 4.4.4 (a) Give a recursive definition for the sequence

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?

(b) Give a recursive definition for the sequence

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Recursive datatypes make recursive programming/functions easy.

Example

The factorial function:

```
fact(n):

(B) if(n = 0): 1

(R) else: n * fact(n - 1)
```

Recursive datatypes make recursive programming/functions easy.

Example

Summing the first *n* natural numbers:

```
\begin{array}{cc} \operatorname{sum}(n): \\ (B) & \operatorname{if}(n=0): 0 \\ (R) & \operatorname{else:} n + \operatorname{sum}(n-1) \end{array}
```

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Example

Sorting elements of a linked list (insertion sort):

```
sort(L):
(B) if(L.isEmpty()):
    return L
else:
(R) L2 = sort(L.next)
    insert L.data into L2
    return L2
```

Recursive datatypes make recursive programming/functions easy.

Example

Concatenation of words (defining wv):

For all
$$w, v \in \Sigma^*$$
 and $a \in \Sigma$:

(B)
$$\lambda v = v$$

$$(R) \qquad (aw)v = a(wv)$$



Recursive datatypes make recursive programming/functions easy.

Example

Length of words:

(B)
$$length(\lambda) = 0$$

(R) $length(aw) = 1 + length(w)$

Recursive datatypes make recursive programming/functions easy.

Example

"Evaluation" of a propositional formula



Exercise

Exercise

Let Σ be a finite set.

Define append : $\Sigma^* \times \Sigma \to \Sigma^*$ by

$$append(w, a) = wa$$

Give a (direct) definition of append [i.e. only concatenates symbols on the left].



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Give a (direct) definition of append [i.e. only concatenates symbols on the left].

!



Pitfall: Correctness of Recursive Definition

A recurrence formula is correct if the computation of any later term can be reduced to the initial values given in (B).

Example (Incorrect definition)

• Function g(n) is defined recursively by

$$g(n) = g(g(n-1)-1)+1,$$
 $g(0) = 2.$

The definition of g(n) is incomplete — the recursion may not terminate:

Attempt to compute g(1) gives

$$g(1) = g(g(0) - 1) + 1 = g(1) + 1 = \ldots = g(1) + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + \ldots$$

When implemented, it leads to an overflow; most static analyses cannot detect this kind of ill-defined recursion.



Pitfall: Correctness of Recursive Definition

Example (continued)

However, the definition could be repaired. For example, we can add the specification specify g(1) = 2.

Then
$$g(2) = g(2-1) + 1 = 3$$
,
 $g(3) = g(g(2) - 1) + 1 = g(3-1) + 1 = 4$,
...

In fact, by induction ... g(n) = n + 1



Pitfall: Correctness of Recursive Definition

Check your base cases!

Example

Function f(n) is defined by

$$f(n) = f(\lceil n/2 \rceil), \quad f(0) = 1$$

When evaluated for n = 1 it leads to

$$f(1) = f(1) = f(1) = \dots$$

This one can also be repaired. For example, one could specify that f(1) = 1.

This would lead to a constant function f(n) = 1 for all $n \ge 0$.



Mutual Recursion

Sometimes recursive definitions use more than one function, with each calling each other.

Example (Fibonacci, again)

Recall:

- (B) f(0) = 0; f(1) = 1,
- (R) f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2)

Mutual Recursion

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Recall:

- (B) f(0) = 0; f(1) = 1,
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Alternative, mutually recursive definition:

- (B) f(1) = 1; g(1) = 0
- (R) f(n) = f(n-1) + g(n-1)
- (R) g(n) = f(n-1)

Mutual Recursion

Sometimes recursive definitions use more than one function, with each calling each other.

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Recall:

• (B)
$$f(0) = 0$$
; $f(1) = 1$,

• (R)
$$f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2)$$

Alternative, mutually recursive definition:

• (B)
$$f(1) = 1$$
; $g(1) = 0$

• (R)
$$f(n) = f(n-1) + g(n-1)$$

$$\bullet (R) g(n) = f(n-1)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} f(n) \\ g(n) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} f(n-1) \\ g(n-1) \end{pmatrix}$$

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Solving recurrences

Approaches:

- Unwinding the recurrence
- Approximating with big-O
- The Master Theorem

NB

Each approach gives an informal "solution": ideally one should prove a solution is correct (using e.g. induction).

Example (Unwinding)

$$f(0) = 1$$
 $f(n) = 2f(n-1)$

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Unwinding:

$$f(n) = 2f(n-1)$$

$$= 2(2f(n-2)) = 4f(n-2)$$

$$= 4(2f(n-3)) = 8f(n-3)$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$= 2^{i}f(n-i)$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$= 2^{n}f(0) = 2^{n}$$

Example (Unwinding)

$$f(1) = 0$$
 $f(n) = 1 + f\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right)$

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Unwinding:

$$f(n) = 1 + f(n/2)$$

$$= 1 + (1 + f(n/4)) = 2 + f(n/4)$$

$$= 2 + (1 + f(n/8))$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$= i + f(n/2^{i})$$

$$\vdots \quad \vdots$$

$$= \log(n) + f(0) = \log(n)$$

Example (Approximating with big-0)

$$f(0) = 1$$
 $f(1) = 1$ $f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2)$

Example (Approximating with big-O)

$$f(0) = 1$$
 $f(1) = 1$ $f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2)$

Assuming f(n) is increasing:

$$f(n-2) \leq f(n-1)$$

Example (Approximating with big-O)

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so:

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so:

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so (by unwinding):

$$f(n) \leq 2^n$$

Example (Approximating with big-0)

$$f(0) = 1$$
 $f(1) = 1$ $f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2)$

Assuming f(n) is increasing:

$$f(n-2) \leq f(n-1)$$

so:

$$f(n) \leq 2f(n-1)$$

so (by unwinding):

$$f(n) \leq 2^n$$

so:

$$f(n) \in O(2^n)$$

Master Theorem

The following result covers many recurrences that arise in practice (e.g. divide-and-conquer algorithms)

Theorem

Suppose

$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

where $f(n) \in \Theta(n^c(\log n)^k)$.

Let $d = \log_b(a)$. Then:

Case 1: If c < d then $T(n) = O(n^d)$

Case 2: If c = d then $T(n) = O(n^c(\log n)^{k+1})$

Case 3: If c > d then T(n) = O(f(n))

Example (Master Theorem)

$$T(n) = T(\frac{n}{2}) + n^2, \quad T(1) = 1$$

Example (Master Theorem)

$$T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n^2, \quad T(1) = 1$$

Here a = 1, b = 2, c = 2, k = 0 and d = 0. So we have Case 3 and the solution is

$$T(n) = O(n^c) = O(n^2)$$



Example (Master Theorem)

Mergesort has

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + (n-1)$$

for the number of comparisons.



Example (Master Theorem)

Mergesort has

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + (n-1)$$

for the number of comparisons.

Here $a=b=2,\ c=1,\ k=0$ and d=1. So we have Case 2, and the solution is

$$T(n) = O(n^c \log(n)) = O(n \log(n))$$



Example (Master Theorem)

Unwinding example:

$$T(1) = 0$$
 $T(n) = 1 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$

Example (Master Theorem)

Unwinding example:

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Here a = 1, b = 2, c = 0, k = 0, and d = 0. So we have Case 2, and the solution is

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

The Master Theorem: Pitfalls

NB

- a, b, c, k have to be constants (not dependent on n).
- Only one recursive term.
- Recursive term is of the form T(n/b), not T(n-b).
- Solution is only an asymptotic bound.

Examples

The Master theorem does not apply to any of these:

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

 $T(n) = T(n/5) + T(7n/10) + n$
 $T(n) = 2T(n-1)$

The Master Theorem: Linear differences

NB

The Master Theorem applies to recurrences where T(n) is defined in terms of T(n/b); not in terms of T(n-1).

However, the following is a consequence of the Master Theorem:

Theorem

Suppose

$$T(n) = a \cdot T(n-1) + bn^k$$

Then

$$T(n) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} O(n^{k+1}) & & \mbox{if } a=1 \ O(a^n) & & \mbox{if } a>1 \end{array}
ight.$$



Exercise

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Solve
$$T(n) = 3^n T(\frac{n}{2})$$
 with $T(1) = 1$



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?

