

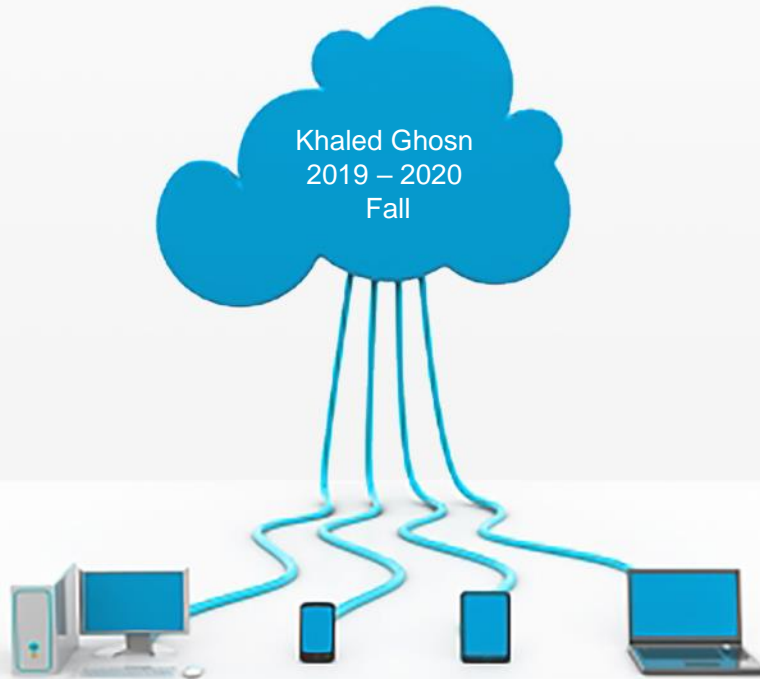


ARTS, SCIENCES & TECHNOLOGY
UNIVERSITY IN LEBANON

AUL 

Recursion

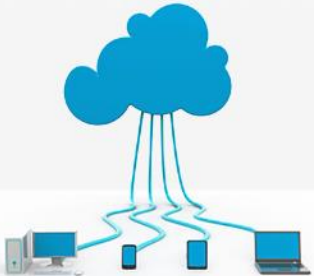
Analyzing, Designing, Examples



Recursion

What is recursion?

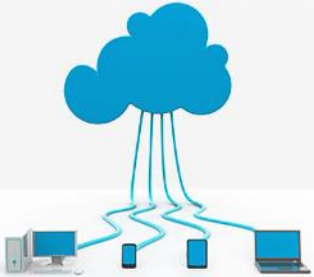
- Recursion is a technique by which a method makes one or more calls to itself during execution
- A **recursive algorithm** is one expressed in terms of itself. In other words, at least one step of a recursive algorithm is a "call" to itself
- In computing, recursion provides an elegant and powerful alternative for performing repetitive tasks
- In Java, a **recursive method** is one that calls itself



Recursion

When should recursion be used?

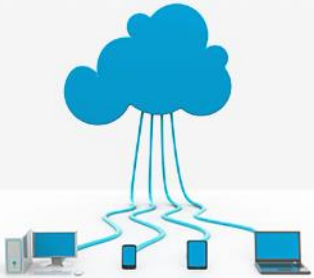
- Sometimes an algorithm can be expressed using either **iteration** or **recursion**. The recursive version tends to be:
 - + more elegant and easier to understand
 - less efficient (extra calls consume time and space)
- Sometimes an algorithm can be expressed **only** using recursion



Recursion

Illustrative Examples

- Factorial Function
- English Ruler
- Binary Search
- File Systems
- ...

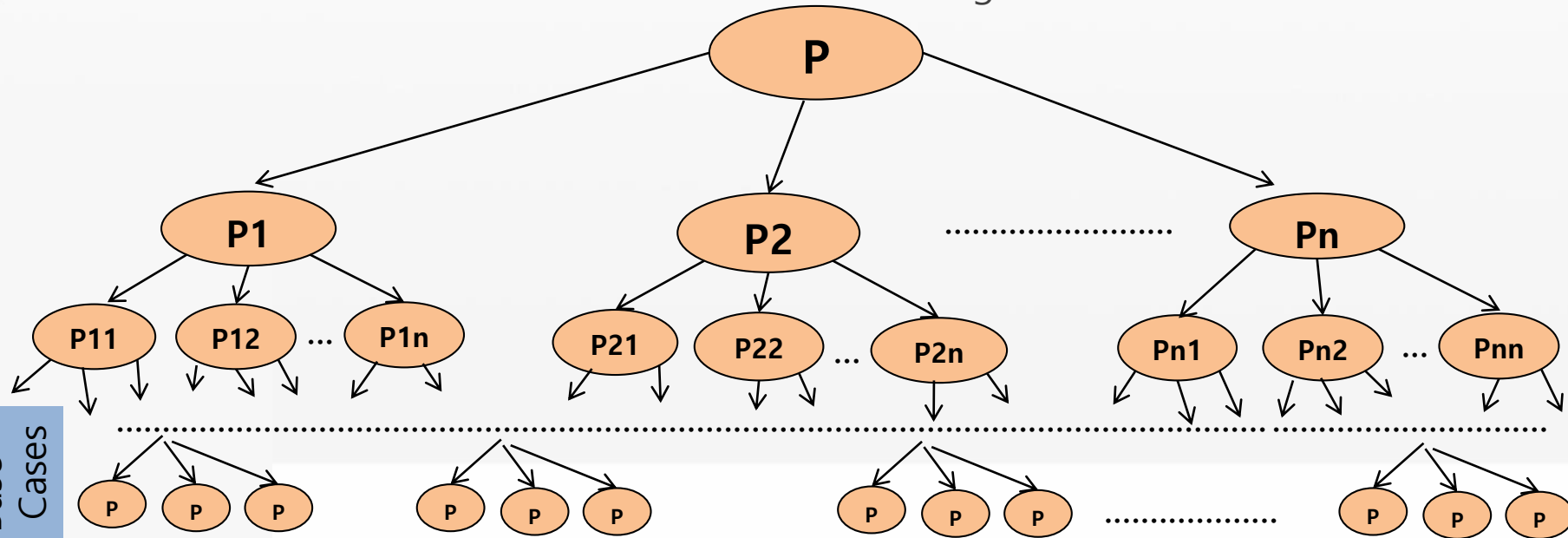


Recursion

Divide & Conquer Strategy

Very important strategy in computer science:

1. Divide problem into smaller parts
2. Independently solve the parts
3. Combine these solutions to get overall solution



Recursion

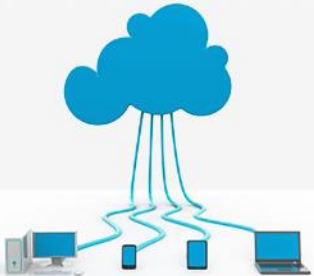
Divide & Conquer Strategy

```
/* Solve a problem P */
Solve(P) {
    /* Base case(s) */
    if P is a base case problem
        return the solution immediately

    /* Divide P into P1, P2, ..Pn each of smaller scale (n>=2) */
    /* Solve subproblems recursively */
    S1 = Solve(P1); /* Solve P1 recursively to obtain S1 */
    S2 = Solve(P2); /* Solve P2 recursively to obtain S2 */
    .....
    Sn = Solve(Pn); /* Solve Pn recursively to obtain Sn */

    /* Merge the solutions to subproblems */
    /* to get the solution to the original big problem */
    S = Merge(S1, S2, ..., Sn);

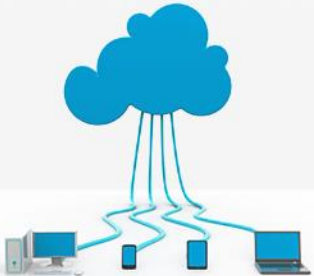
    /* Return the solution */
    return S;
} //end-Solve
```



Recursion

Design Steps

1. Identify the (original) problem
2. Identify sub-problem(s) that are **simpler than** and **similar to** the original problem
3. Determine the parameter(s) that distinguishes the sub-problem(s) from the original problem
4. Identify the **simplest** problem instance (**the base case**) that will result at the end of **repeated** problem - sub-problem decomposition step
5. Identify the conditions (on the parameters) that will put you in a position to solve the **simplest** instance (the base case) of the problem.
6. Use recursion to solve the sub-problem(s)

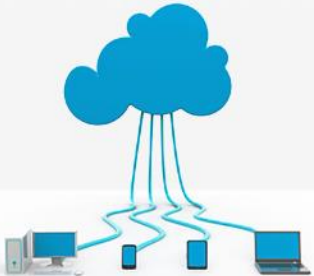


Recursion

Design Guidelines

A recursive method shall:

1. Take at least one parameter: the parameter(s) distinguishes an instance of the original problem from the sub-problem(s)
2. Include an if-(else) statement with one or more conditions that check whether the current problem instance to be solved is the simplest or a simpler instance.
3. The code in the if-block handles the case when the current problem instance is simpler, but not the simplest. The block shall include recursive call(s).
4. The code in the else-block handles the case when the current problem instance is the simplest (the base case), and no recursive call shall be made here.

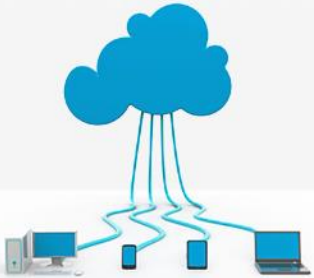


Recursion

Design Guidelines

A recursive method shall:

5. The role of the if -and else- block can be switched, as long as you use them consistently.
6. Avoid access to / use of non-local variables. Use local variables whenever possible
7. Use non-void return properly. Result returned (via the return value) by a recursive call should be considered as the solution to a subtask. Typically this value is to be "combined" with other available data to incrementally build the final solution (to the original problem / task).

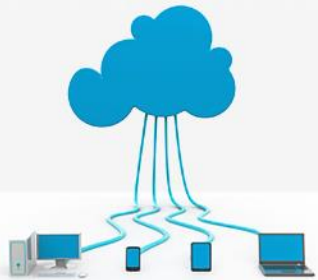


Recursion

When does recursion work?

Given a recursive algorithm, how can we sure that it terminates?

- The algorithm must have:
 - one or more "easy" cases
 - one or more "hard" cases
- In an "easy" case, the algorithm must give a direct answer without calling itself
- In a "hard" case, the algorithm may call itself, but only to deal with an "easier" case

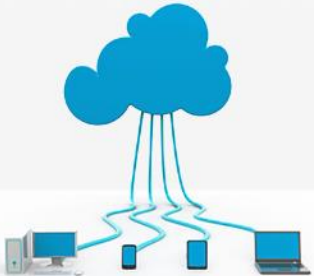


Recursion

e.g. Factorial Function

As an example, we could implement the factorial function recursively:

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



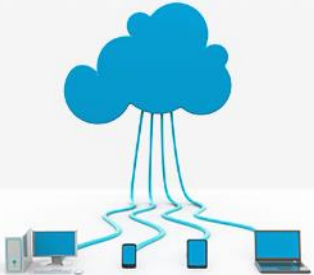
Recursion

Analysis (for Factorial Function)

Thus, we may analyze the run time of this function as follows:

$$T_f(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & n \leq 1 \\ T_f(n-1) + \Theta(1) & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

We don't have to worry about the time of the conditional ($\Theta(1)$) nor is there a probability involved with the conditional statement



Recursion

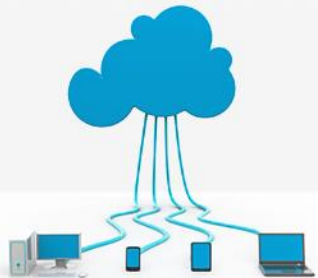
Analysis

The analysis of the run time of this function yields a recurrence relation:

$$T_i(n) = T_i(n - 1) + \mathcal{O}(1) \qquad T_i(1) = \mathcal{O}(1)$$

- Replace each symbol with a representative function:

$$T_i(n) = T_i(n - 1) + 1 \qquad T_i(1) = 1$$

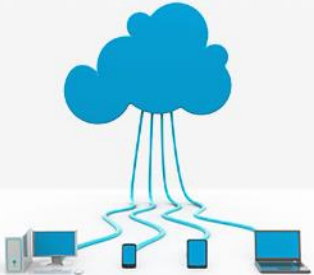


Recursion

Further examples of recursion

Further examples of recursion

- Linear recursion
 - Summing the Elements of an Array Recursively
 - Reversing a Sequence with Recursion
 - Recursive Algorithms for Computing Powers
- Binary recursion
 - `binarySum`
- Multiple recursion

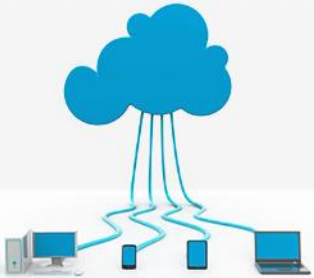


Binary Search

Introduction

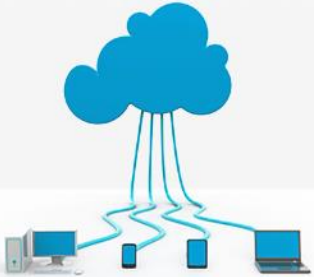
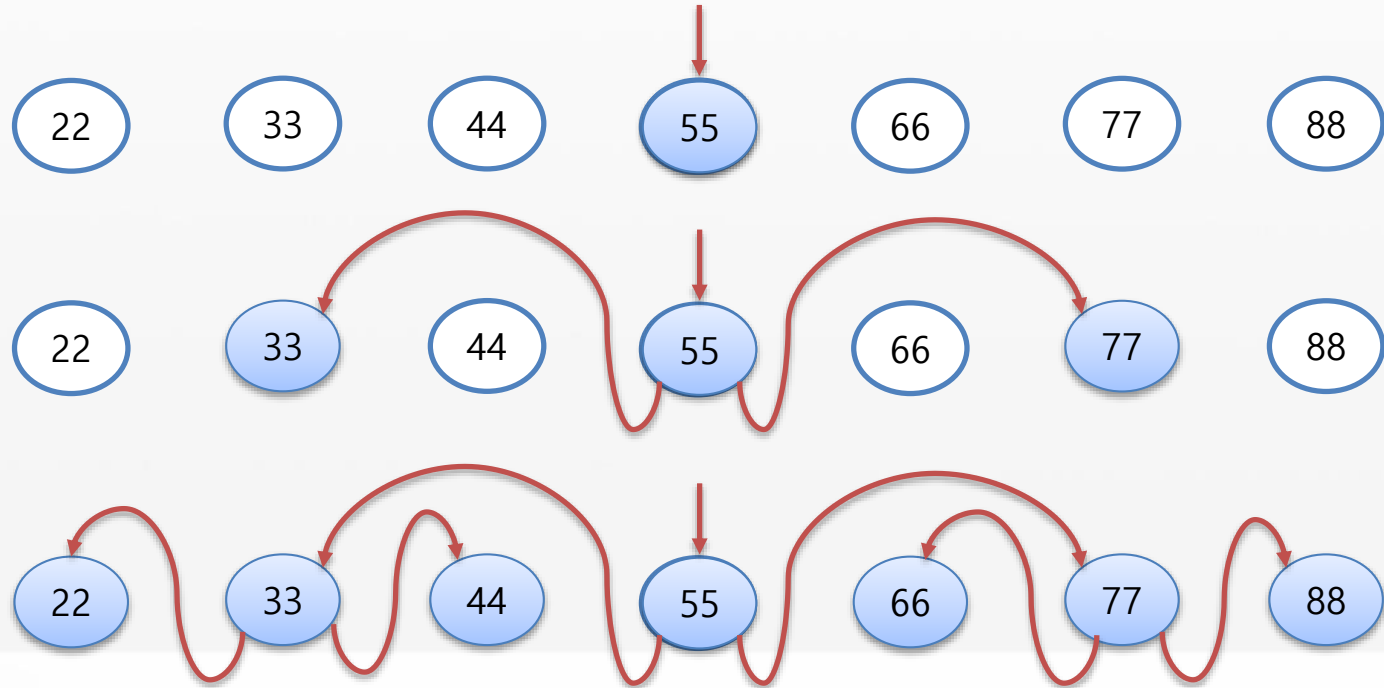
- Problem: You are given a **sorted** array of integers, and you are searching for a key
 - Linear Search – $T(n) = 3n+2$ (Worst case)
 - Can we do better?
 - E.g. Search for 55 in the **sorted** array below

3	8	10	11	20	50	55	60	65	70	72	90	91	94	96	99
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15



Binary Search

Binary search



Binary Search

Algorithm analysis $O(\log n)$

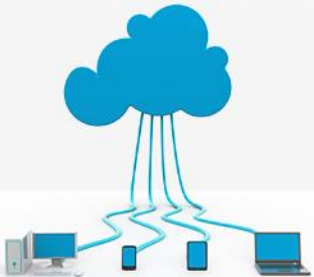
An algorithm is said to run in logarithmic time if its time execution is proportional to the logarithm of the input size. Such as:

Binary search

Locate the element a in a sorted (in ascending order) array by first comparing a with the middle element and then (if they are not equal) dividing the array into two sub-arrays;

If a is less than the middle element you repeat the whole procedure in the left sub-array, otherwise - in the right sub-array.

The procedure repeats until a is found or sub-array is a zero dimension



Binary Search

Algorithm analysis: $O(\log n)$

Unsuccessful search:

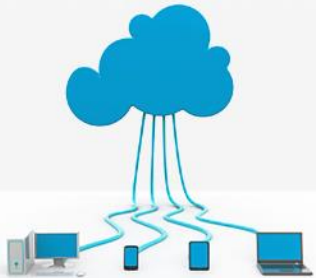
$$O(\log N + 1)$$

Successful search: worst-case;

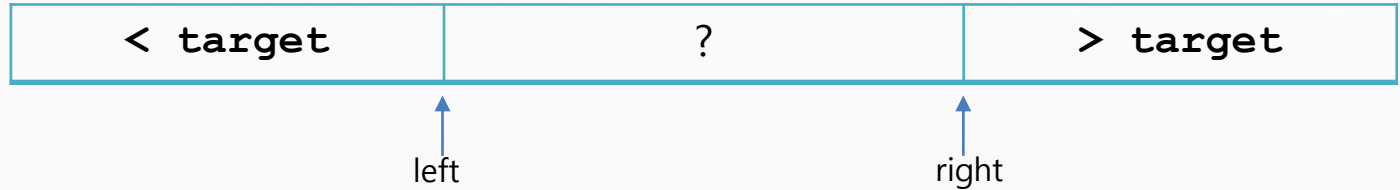
$$O(\log N)$$

Successful search: average-case; is only one iteration better (because half of the elements require the worst case for their search, a quarter of the elements save one iteration, and only one in elements will save 2^i iterations from the worst case)

$$O(\log N - 1)$$



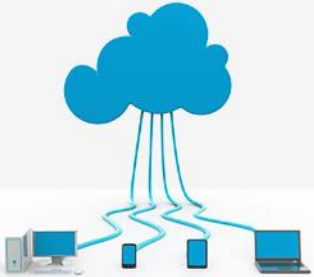
Binary Search



At any step during a search for "target", we have restricted our search space to those keys between "left" and "right".

Any key to the **left** of "left" is **smaller** than "target" and is thus eliminated from the search space

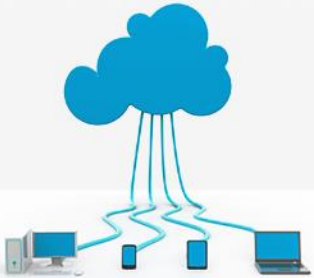
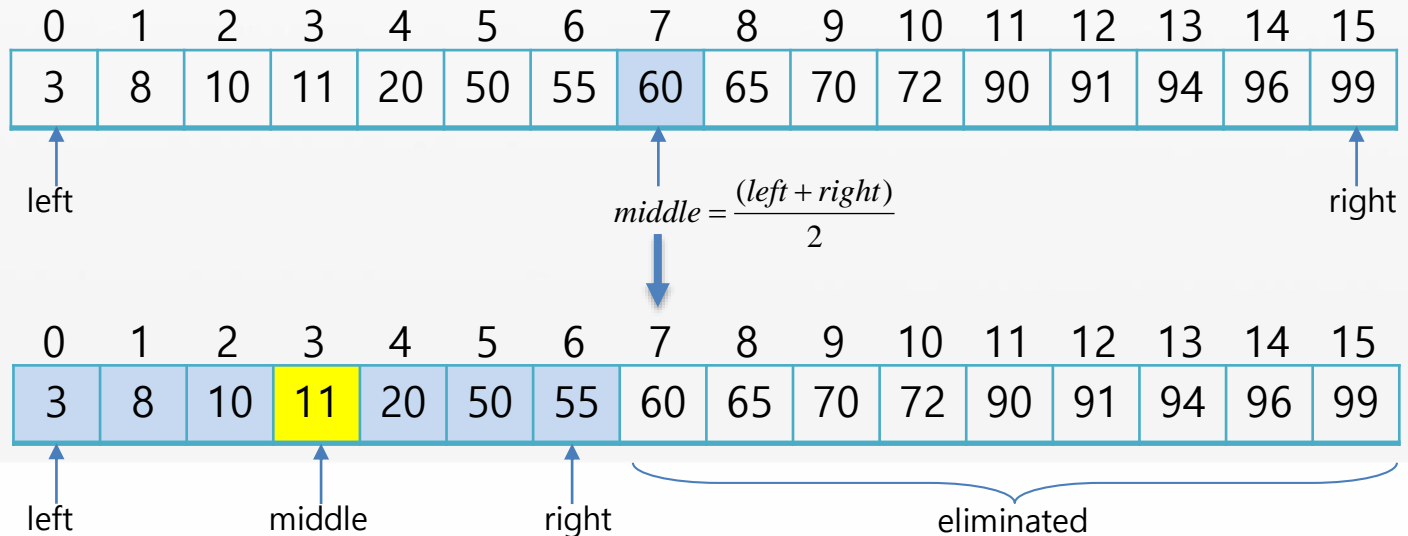
Any key to the **right** of "right" is **greater** than "target" and is thus eliminated from the search space



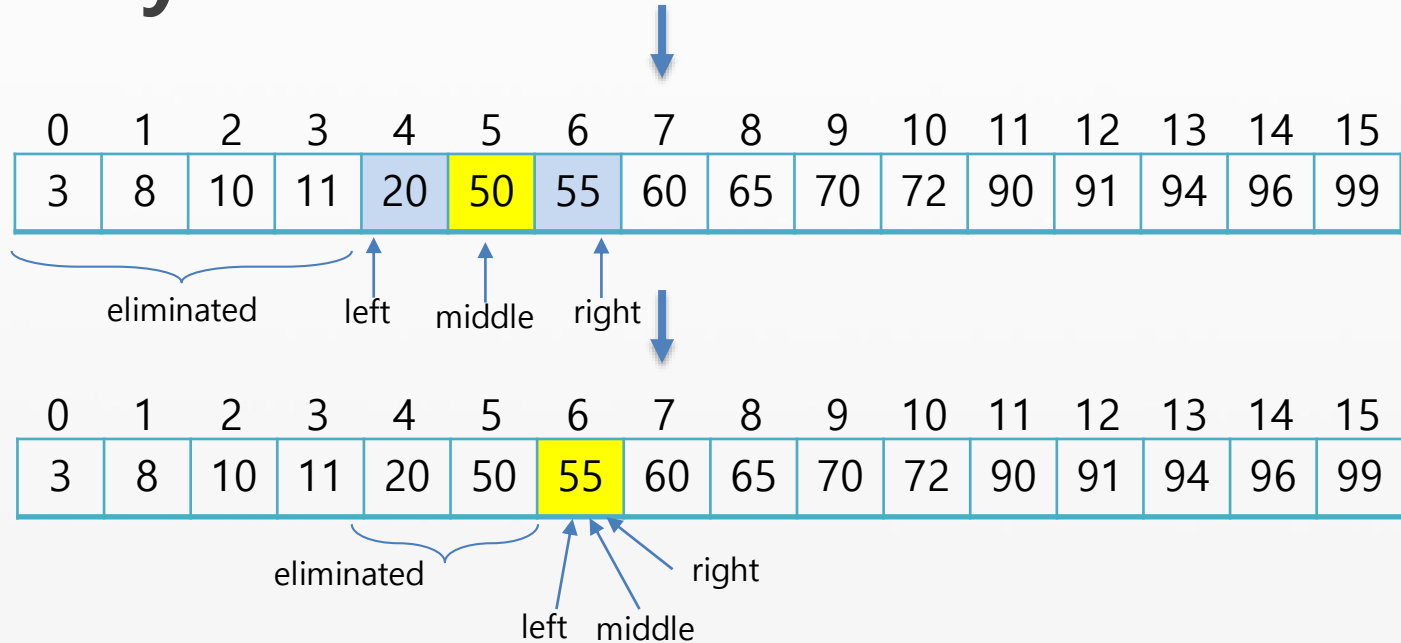
Binary Search

Since the array is sorted, we can **reduce our search space in half** by comparing **the target key** with the key contained **in the middle of the array** and continue this way

Example: Let's search for 55

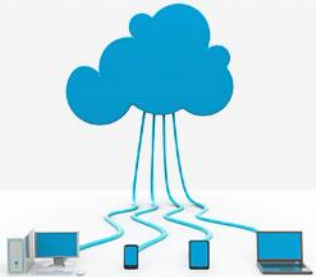


Binary Search



Now we found 55 → Successful search

Had we searched for 57, we would have terminated at the next step unsuccessfully



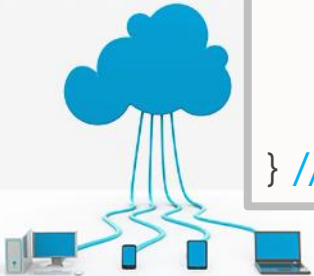
Binary Search

Iterative binary search (non-recursive)

```
// Return the index of the array containing the key or -1 if key not found
int BinarySearch (int A[ ], int N, int key) {
    left = 0;
    right = N-1;

    while (left <= right) {
        int middle = ( left + right ) / 2;           // Index of the key to test against
        if (A[middle] == key) return middle; // Key found. Return the index
        else if (key < A[middle]) right = middle - 1; // Eliminate the right side
        else left = middle+1;                     // Eliminate the left side
    } //end-while

    return -1; // Key not found
} //end-BinarySearch
```

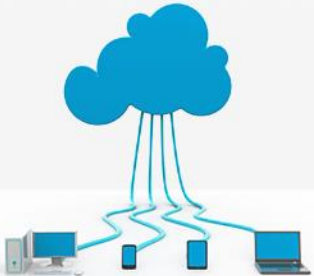


Worst case running time: $T(n) = 3 + 5 * \log_2 N$. Why?

Binary Search

Recursive binary search

```
int BinarySearch ( ListItem [ ] L, int k, int low, int high ) {  
    int mid = ( low + high ) / 2;  
    if ( low > high )  
        return -1;  
    else if ( L [mid] == k )  
        return mid;  
    else if ( L [mid] < k )  
        return BinarySearch ( L, k, mid+1, high );  
    else  
        return BinarySearch ( L, k, low, mid-1 );  
}
```



Recursive Powers

Simple recursive power algorithm

Recursive definition of b^n :

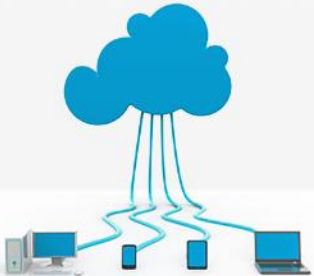
$$\begin{aligned} b^n &= 1 && \text{if } n = 0 \\ b^n &= b \times b^{n-1} && \text{if } n > 0 \end{aligned}$$

To compute b^n :

1. If $n = 0$
 - 1.1. Terminate with answer 1.
2. If $n > 0$
 - 2.1. Terminate with answer $b \times b^{n-1}$.

Easy case: solved directly

Hard case: solved by computing b^{n-1} , which is easier since $n-1$ is closer than n to 0

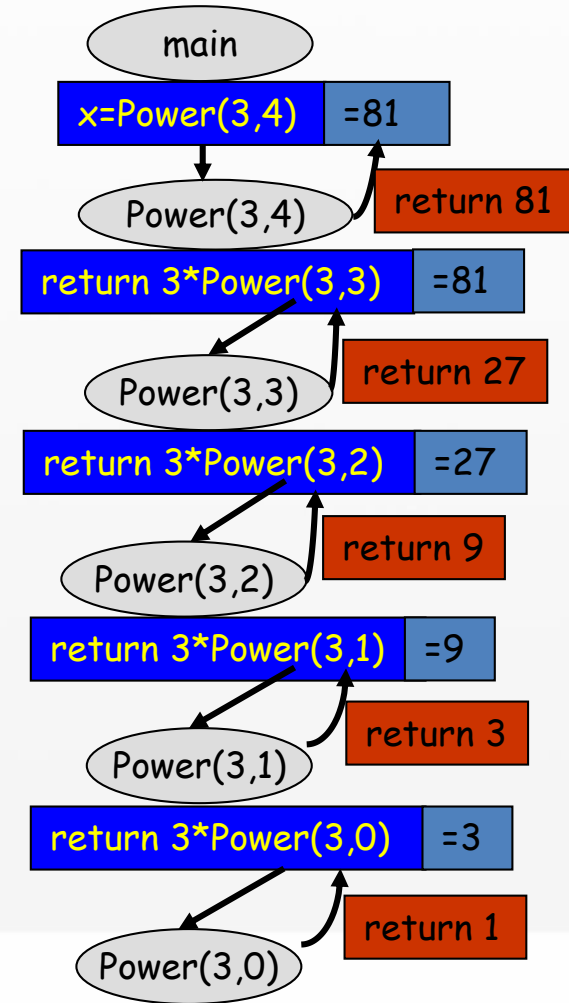
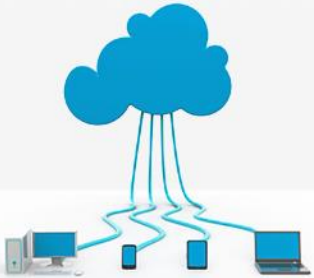


Recursive Powers

Simple recursive power algorithm

```
static int power (int b, int n) {  
    // Return  $b^n$  (where  $n$  is non-negative)  
    if (n == 0)  
        return 1;  
    else  
        return b * power (b, n-1);  
}
```

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \text{ (Base case)} \\ T(n-1) + 1 & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$



Recursive Powers

Smart recursive power algorithm

To compute b^n :

1. If $n = 0$:

1.1. Terminate with answer 1

Easy case: solved directly

2. If $n > 0$:

2.1. Let p be $b^{n/2}$

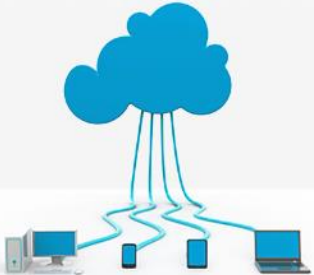
Hard case: solved by computing $b^{n/2}$, which is easier since $n/2$ is closer than n to 0

2.2. If n is even:

2.2.1. Terminate with answer $p \times p$

2.3. If n is odd:

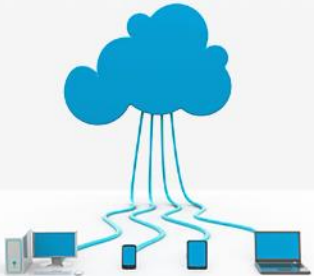
2.3.1. Terminate with answer $b \times p \times p$



Recursive Powers

Smart recursive power algorithm

```
static int power (int b, int n) {  
    // Return  $b^n$  (where  $n$  is non-negative)  
    if (n == 0)  
        return 1;  
    else {  
        int p = power (b, n / 2);  
        if (n % 2 == 0) return p * p;  
        else return b * p * p;  
    }  
}
```



Recursive Powers

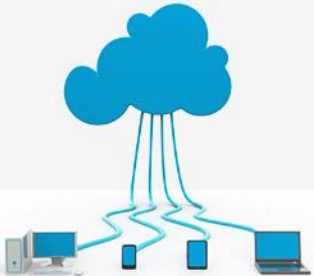
Smart recursive power algorithm - Analysis

Counting multiplications:

Each recursive power algorithm performs the same number of multiplications as the corresponding non-recursive algorithm.

So their time complexities are the same:

	non-recursive	recursive
Simple power algorithm	$O(n)$	$O(n)$
Smart power algorithm	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$



Recursive Powers

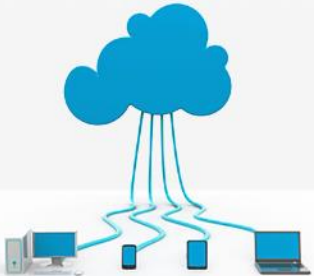
Smart recursive power algorithm - Analysis

Analysis (space):

The non-recursive power algorithms use constant space, i.e., $O(1)$

A recursive algorithm uses extra space for each recursive call. The simple recursive power algorithm calls itself n times before returning, whereas the smart recursive power algorithm calls itself $\text{floor}(\log_2 n)$ times

	non-recursive	recursive
Simple power algorithm	$O(1)$	$O(n)$
Smart power algorithm	$O(1)$	$O(\log n)$



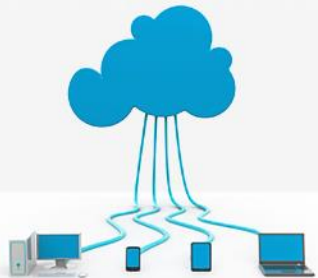
Summation

Computing $1+2+..+N$ Recursively

Consider the problem of computing the sum of the number from 1 to n : $1+2+3+...+n$

Here is how we can think recursively:

- In order to compute $\text{Sum}(n) = 1+2+..+n$
 - compute $\text{Sum}(n-1) = 1+2+..+n-1$ (a smaller problem of the same type)
 - Add n to $\text{Sum}(n-1)$ to compute $\text{Sum}(n)$
 - i.e., $\text{Sum}(n) = \text{Sum}(n-1) + n$;
- We also need to identify base case(s)
 - A base case is a sub-problem that can easily be solved without further dividing the problem
 - If $n = 1$, then $\text{Sum}(1) = 1$;

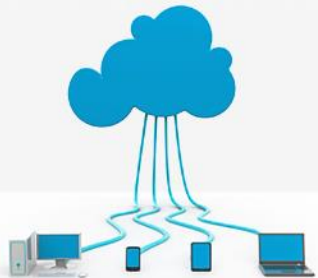


Summation

Computing $1+2+..+N$ Recursively

```
/* Computes 1+2+3+...+n */  
int Sum (int n) {  
    int partialSum = 0;  
  
    /* Base case */  
    if (n == 1) return 1;  
  
    /* Divide and conquer */  
    partialSum = Sum (n - 1);  
  
    /* Merge */  
    return partialSum + n;  
} /* end-Sum */
```

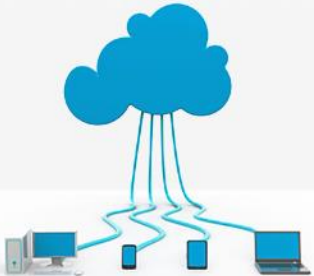
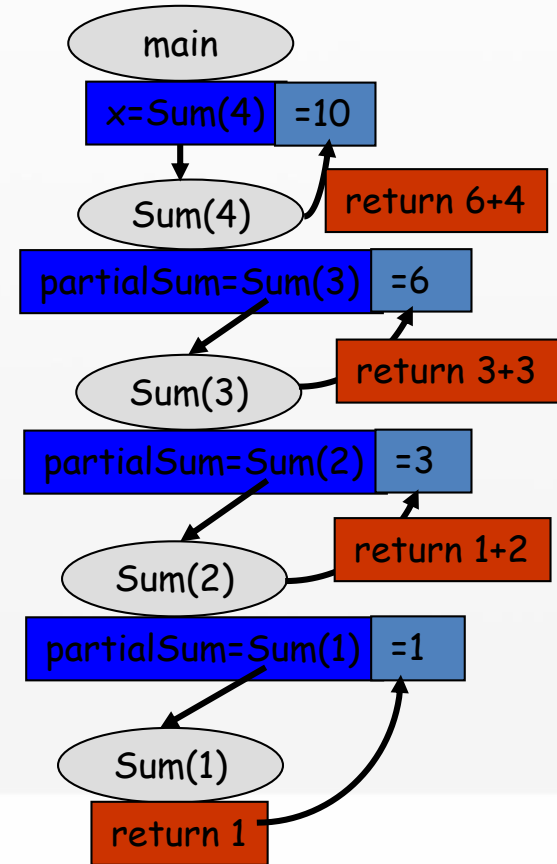
```
main (String args [ ] ) {  
    int x = 0;  
  
    x = Sum (4);  
    println("x: " + x);  
  
    return 0;  
} /* end-main */
```



Summation

Recursion Tree for Sum (4)

```
/* Computes 1+2+3+...+n */  
int Sum (int n){  
    int partialSum = 0;  
  
    /* Base case */  
    if (n == 1) return 1;  
  
    /* Divide and conquer */  
    partialSum = Sum (n-1);  
  
    /* Merge */  
    return partialSum + n;  
} /* end-Sum */  
  
main(String args[ ]) {  
    int x = Sum (4);  
    println("Sum: " + Sum (4));  
} /* end-main */
```

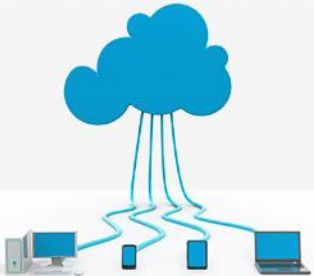


Summation

Running Time for Sum (n)

```
/* Computes 1+2+3+...+n */  
int Sum (int n) {  
    int partialSum = 0;  
  
    /* Base case */  
    if (n == 1) return 1;  
  
    /* Divide and conquer */  
    partialSum = Sum ( n-1 );  
  
    /* Merge */  
    return partialSum + n;  
} /* end-Sum */
```

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \text{ (Base case)} \\ T(n-1) + 1 & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$



Summation

Summation I

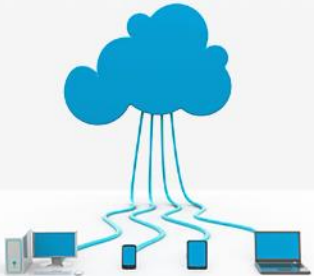
Compute the **sum** of N numbers $A[1..N]$

Stopping rule (Base Case):

- If $N == 1$ then $\text{sum} = A[1]$

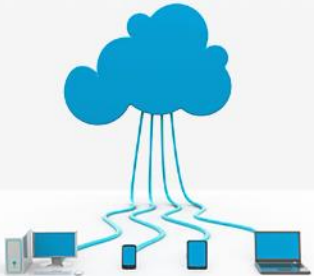
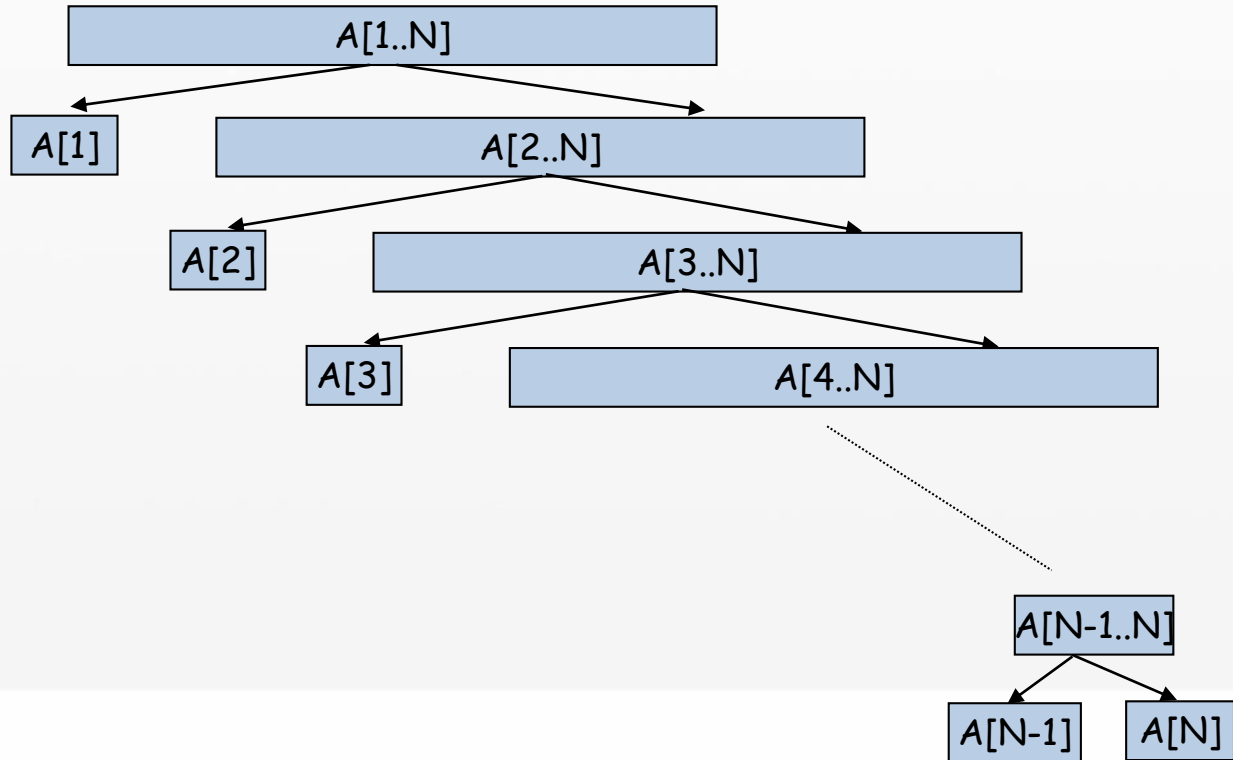
Key Step

- Divide:
Consider the smaller $A[1]$ and $A[2..N]$
- Conquer:
Compute $\text{Sum}(A[2..N])$
- Merge:
 $\text{Sum}(A[1..N]) = A[1] + \text{Sum}(A[2..N])$



Summation

Recursive Calls of Summation I



Summation

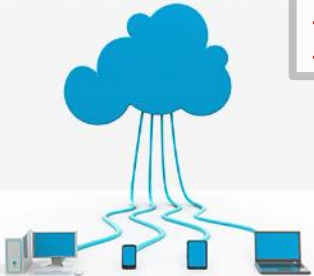
Summation I – Code

```
/* Computes the sum of an array of numbers A[0..N-1] */  
int Sum (int A[ ], int index, int N ){  
    /* Base case */  
    if (N == 1) return A[index];  
  
    /* Divide & Conquer */  
    int localSum = Sum (A, index+1, N-1);  
  
    /* Merge */  
    return A[index] + localSum;  
} //end-Sum
```

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1 \text{ (Base case)} \\ T(n-1) + 1 & \text{if } N > 1 \end{cases}$$

Time to find the sum
of n-1 numbers

Time to combine
the results



Summation

Summation II

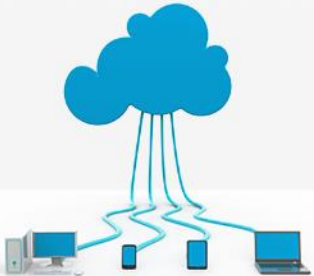
Compute the sum of N numbers $A[1..N]$

Stopping rule:

- If $N == 1$ then $\text{sum} = A[1]$

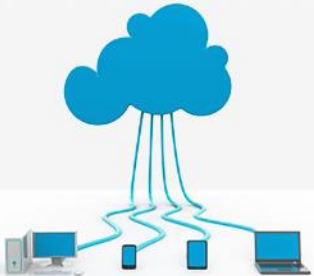
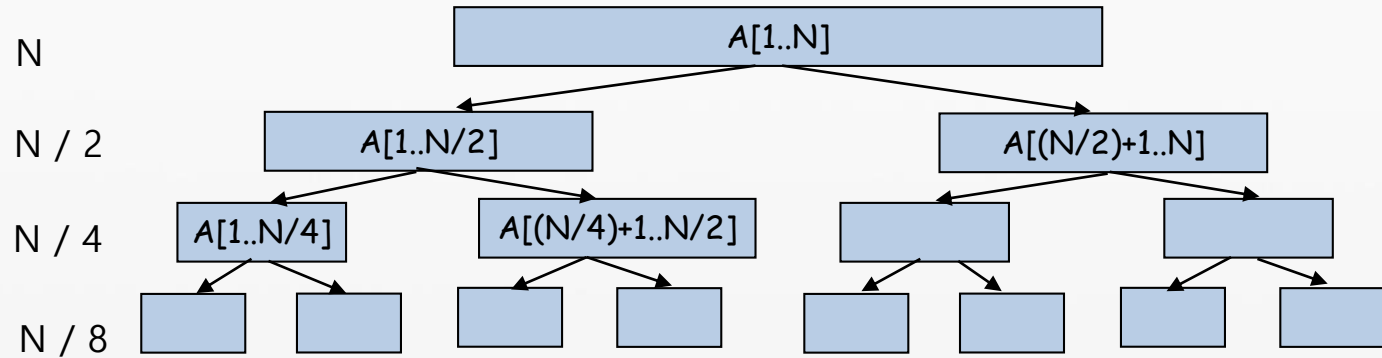
Key Step

- Divide:
Consider the smaller $A[1..N/2]$ and $A[(N/2)+1..N]$
- Conquer:
Compute $\text{Sum}(A[1..N/2])$ and $\text{Sum}(A[(N/2)+1..N])$
- Merge:
$$\text{Sum}(A[1..N]) = \text{Sum}(A[1..N/2]) + \text{Sum}(A[(N/2)+1..N])$$



Summation

Recursive Calls of Summation II

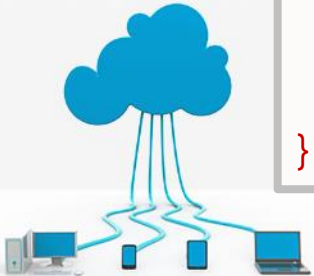


Summation

Summation II – Code

```
/* Computes the sum of an array of numbers A[0..N-1] */  
int Sum (int A[ ], int index1, int index2) {  
    /* Base case */  
    if (index2-index1 == 1) return A [index1];  
  
    /* Divide & Conquer */  
    int middle = (index1+index2)/2;  
    int localSum1 = Sum (A, index1, middle);  
    int localSum2 = Sum (A, middle+1, index2);  
  
    /* Merge */  
    return localSum1 + localSum2;  
} //end-Sum
```

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } N = 1 \text{ (Base case)} \\ T(n/2) + T(n/2) + 1 & \text{if } N > 1 \end{cases}$$

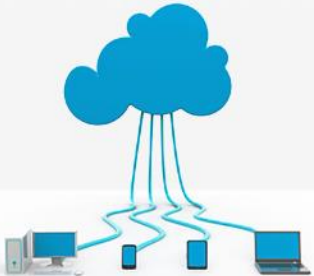


Fibonacci Numbers

Fibonacci numbers are defined as follows

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

```
/* Computes nth Fibonacci number */  
int Fibonacci (int n) {  
    /* Base cases */  
    if (n == 0) return 0;  
    if (n == 1) return 1;  
  
    return Fibonacci (n-1) + Fibonacci (n-2);  
} /* end-Fibonacci */
```



Fibonacci Numbers

Recursion Tree for $F(5)$

