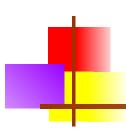
Recurrence Relation





Recurrence Relation

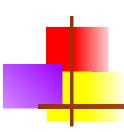
- A recurrence relation for the sequence, a0, a1,...an, is an equation that relates an to certain of its predecessors a0, a1, ..., an-1.
- Initial conditions for the sequence a0, a1, ... are explicitly given values for a finite number of the terms of the sequence.

Definition

- A recurrence relation, T(n), is a recursive function of integer variable n
- Like all recursive functions, it has both recursive case and base case. a = a a = a
- Example:

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

- The portion of the definition that does not contain T is called the base case of the recurrence relation; the portion that contains T is called the recurrent or recursive case.
- Recurrence relations are useful for expressing the running times (i.e., the number of basic operations executed) of recursive algorithms



Example: Fibonacci Sequence

The Fibonacci sequence is defined by recurrence relation

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$
, n>=3 and initial conditions

$$f_1 = 1, f_2 = 1.$$

Fibonacci Sequence: 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21,.....



Forming Recurrence Relation

- For a given recursive method, the base case and the recursive case of its recurrence relation correspond directly to the base case and the recursive case of the method.
- Example 1: Write the recurrence relation for the following method.

```
void f(int n)
{    if (n >
      0) {
      cout<<n;
      f(n-1);
}</pre>
```

- The base case is reached when n == 0. The method performs one comparison. Thus, the number of operations when n == 0, T(0), is some constant a.
- When n > 0, the method performs two basic operations and then calls itself, using ONE recursive call, with a parameter n 1.
- Therefore the recurrence relation is:

$$T(o) = a$$
 where a is constant $T(n) = b + T(n-1)$ where b is constant, n>o



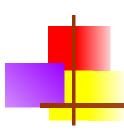
Forming Recurrence Relation

Example 2: Write the recurrence relation for the following method.

```
int g(int n) {
   if (n == 1)
     return 2;
   else
     return 3 * g(n / 2) + g( n / 2) + 5;
}
```

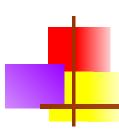
- The base case is reached when n == 1. The method performs one comparison and one return statement. Therefore, T(1), is constant c.
- When n>1, the method performs TWO recursive calls, each with the parameter n/2, and some constant # of basic operations.
- Hence, the recurrence relation is:

$$T(1) = c$$
 for some constant c
 $T(n) = b + 2T(n/2)$ for a constant b



Solving Recurrence Relation

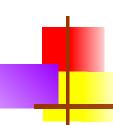
- To solve a recurrence relation T(n) we need to derive a form of T(n) that is not a recurrence relation. Such a form is called a "closed form" of the recurrence relation.
- There are four methods to solve recurrence relations that represent the running time of recursive methods:
 - Iteration method (unrolling and summing)
 - Recursion Tree method
 - Substitution method
 - Master method



Solving Recurrence Relations - Iteration method

Steps:

- Expand the recurrence
- Express the expansion as a summation by plugging the recurrence back into itself until you see a pattern.
- Evaluate the summation



Solving Recurrence Relations - Iteration method

- In evaluating the summation one or more of the following summation formulae may be used:
- Arithmetic series:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Geometric Series:

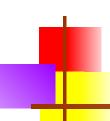
Special Cases of Geometric Series:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} x^{k} = 1 + x + x^{2} + \dots + x^{n} = \frac{x^{n+1} - 1}{x - 1} (x \neq 1)$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} x^{k} = \frac{x^{n} - 1}{x - 1} (x \neq 1)$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} 2^k = 2^n - 1$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text{if } x < 1$$



Solving Recurrence Relations - Iteration method

Harmonic Series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \approx \ln n$$

Others:

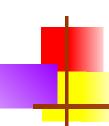
$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \lg k \approx n \lg n$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} c = cn.$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2^k} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} k(k+1) = \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3}$$



Analysis Of Recursive Factorial Method

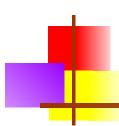
Example 1: Form and solve the recurrence relation for the running time of factorial method and hence determine its

big-O complexity:

```
T(0) = c
T(n) = b + T(n - 1)
= b + b + T(n - 2)
= b + b + b + T(n - 3)
= kb + T(n - k)
When k = n, we have:
T(n) = nb + T(n - n)
= bn + T(0)
= bn + c
```

Therefore method factorial is O(n).

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



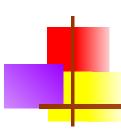
Analysis Of Recursive Binary Search

```
public int binarySearch (int target, int[] array,
                           int low, int high) {
   if (low >
      high)
      return -1;
   else {
      int middle = (low + high)/2;
      if (array[middle] == target)
         return middle;
      else if(array[middle] < target)</pre>
         return binarySearch(target, array, middle + 1,
      high); else
         return binarySearch(target, array, low, middle - 1);
```

The recurrence relation for the running time of the method is:

```
T(1) = a if n = 1 (one element array)

T(n) = T(n/2) + b if n > 1
```

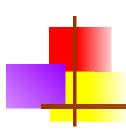


Analysis Of Recursive Binary Search

Expanding:

```
T(n) = T(n / 2) + b
= [T(n / 4) + b] + b = T (n / 2^{2}) + 2b
= [T(n / 8) + b] + 2b = T(n / 2^{3}) + 3b
= ......
= T(n / 2^{k}) + kb
When n / 2<sup>k</sup> = 1 \Box n = 2<sup>k</sup> \Box k = log<sub>2</sub> n, we have:
T(n) = T(1) + b \log_{2} n
= a + b \log_{2} n
```

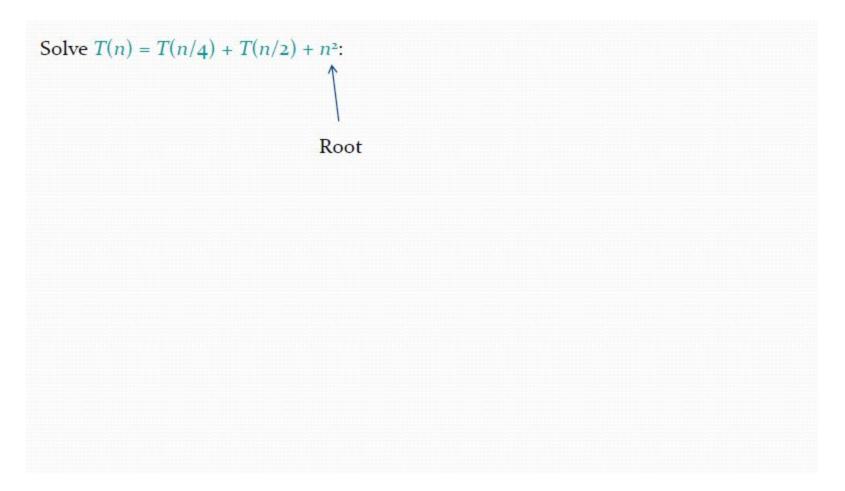
Therefore, Recursive Binary Search is **O(log n)**

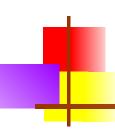


Recursion-tree method

- A recursion tree models the costs (time) of a recursive execution of an algorithm.
- The recursion tree method is good for generating guesses for the substitution method.
- The recursion-tree method can be unreliable.
- The recursion-tree method promotes intuition, however.
- In this case, only the largest term in the geometric series matters; all of the other terms are swallowed up by the $\Theta(\cdot)$ notation.

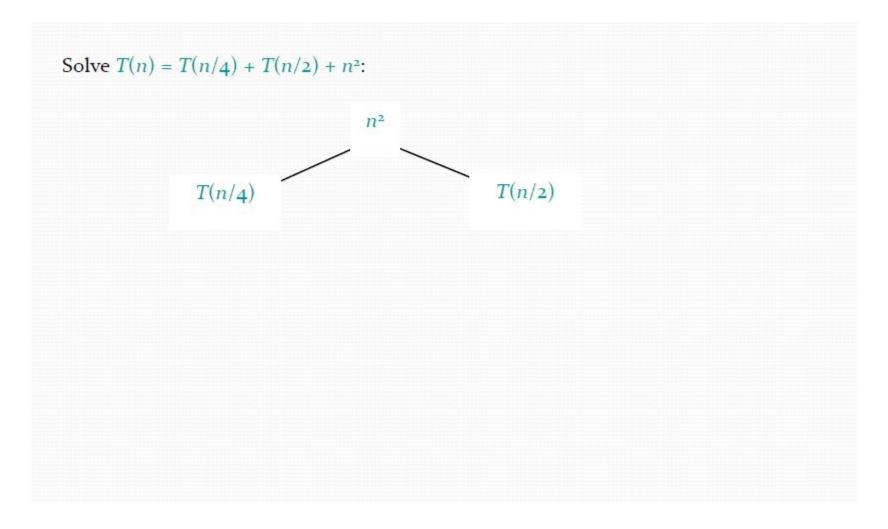




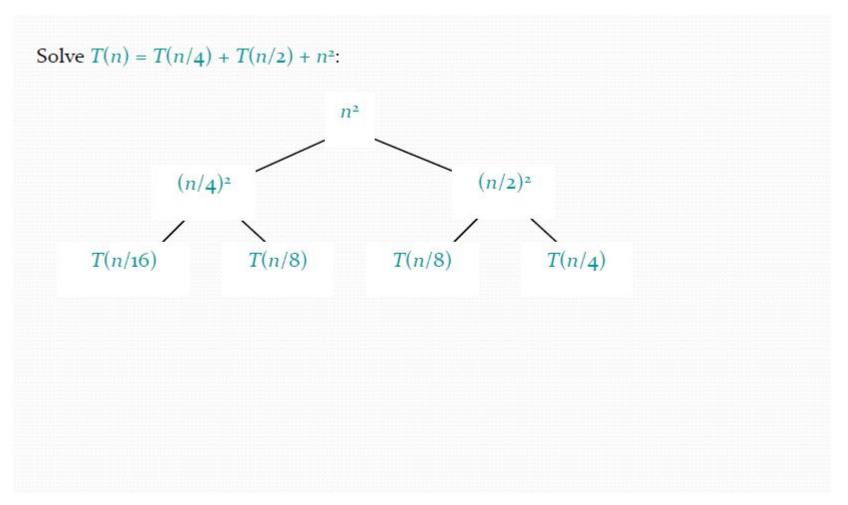


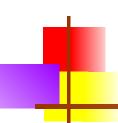
```
Solve T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2:
                                  T(n)
```

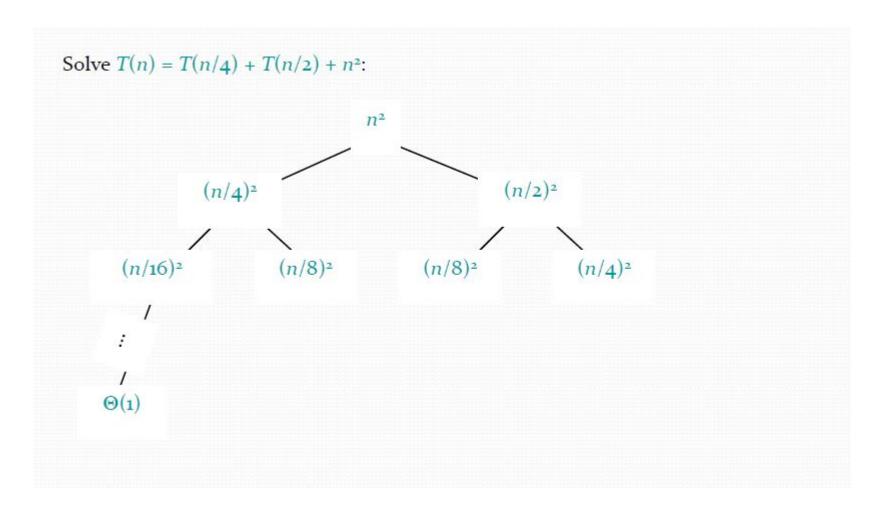




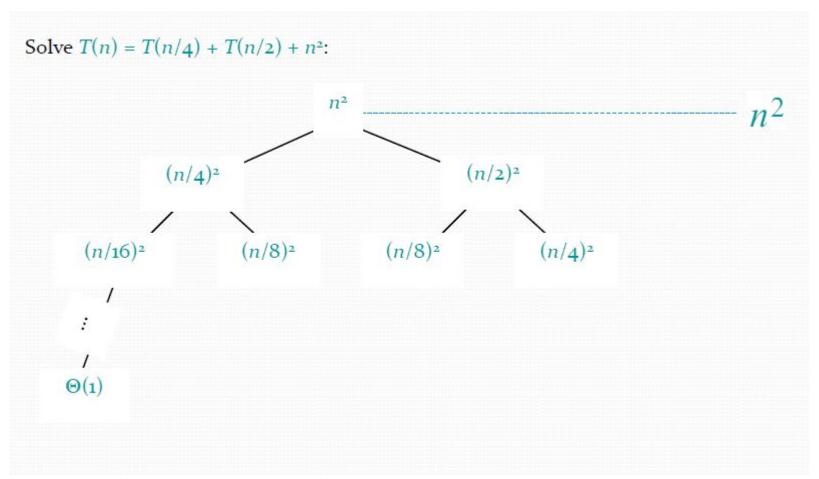


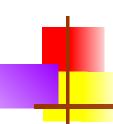


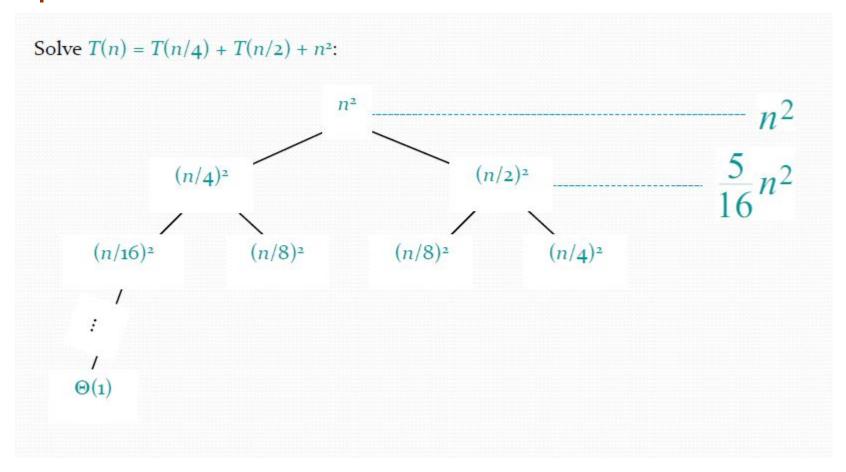


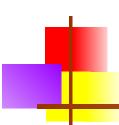


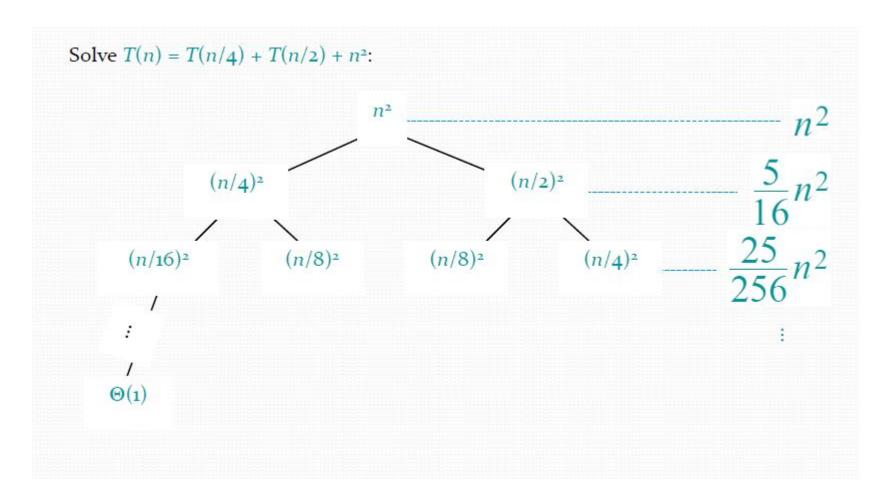


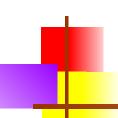


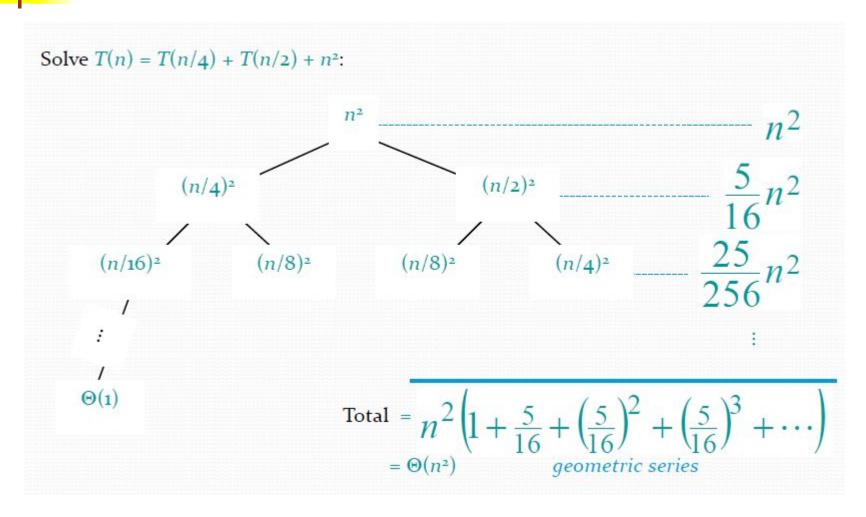






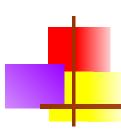






Solving Recurrence Relations-Substitution Method

- The substitution method
 - A.k.a. the "making a good guess method"
 - Guess the form of the answer, then use induction to find the constants and show that solution works
 - Run an example: merge sort
 - T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn
 - \Box We guess that the answer is $O(n \lg n)$
 - Prove it by induction
 - Can similarly show $T(n) = \Omega(n \lg n)$, thus $\Theta(n \lg n) 24$



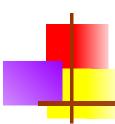
Solving Recurrence Relations-Substitution Method

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

- Guess $T(n) \le cn \log n$ for some constant c (that is, $T(n) = O(n \log n)$)
- T(n) = $2T(n/2) + n \le 2(c n/2 log n/2) + n$
 - $= \operatorname{cn} \log n/2 + n$
 - = cn log n cn log 2 + n
 - = cn log n cn + n

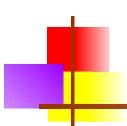
if $c \ge 1$, condition is satisfied.

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



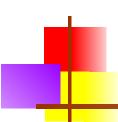
Solving Recurrence Relations-The Master Theorem

- Given: a divide and conquer algorithm
 - An algorithm that divides the problem of size n into a subproblems, each of size n/b
 - Let the cost of each stage (i.e., the work to divide the problem + combine solved subproblems) be described by the function f(n).
- Then, the Master Theorem gives us a method for the algorithm's running time:



if T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) then (where a>=1, b>1)

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) & f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon}) \\ \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n) & f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \\ \Theta(f(n)) & f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon}) \text{AND} \\ af(n/b) < cf(n) & \text{for large } n \end{cases}$$



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

- a=9, b=3, f(n)=n
- $n^{logba} = n^{log_39} = \Theta(n^2)$
- Since f(n) = n, $f(n) < n^{\log b a}$
- · Case 1 applies:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) & f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon}) \\ \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n) & f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \\ \Theta(f(n)) & f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon}) \text{AND} \\ & af(n/b) < cf(n) \text{ for large } n \end{cases}$$

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$$
 when $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$

• Thus the solution is $T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$



$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$$

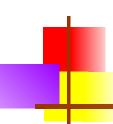
- $a = 4, b = 2, f(n)=n^2$
- $n^{\log ba} = n^2$
- Since, f(n)=n²
- Thus, $f(n) = n^{\log_b a}$

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) & f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon}) \\ \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n) & f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \\ \Theta(f(n)) & f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon}) \text{AND} \\ & af(n/b) < cf(n) \text{ for large } n \end{cases}$$

Case 2 applies:

$$f(n) = \Theta(n^2 \log n)$$

• Thus the solution is $T(n) = \Theta(n^2 \log n)$.



Ex.
$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$$

- $a = 4, b = 2, f(n) = n^3$
- $n^{\log ba} = n^2$; $f(n) = n^3$.
- Since, $f(n)=n^3$
- Thus, $f(n) > n^{\log ba}$

 $T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) & f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon}) \\ \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n) & f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \\ \Theta(f(n)) & f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon}) \text{AND} \\ af(n/b) < cf(n) & \text{for large } n \end{cases}$

Case 3 applies:

$$f(n) = \Omega(n^3)$$

• and $4(n/2)^3 \le cn^3$ (regulatory condition) for c = 1/2.



Some Common Recurrence Relation

| Recurrence Relation | Complexity | Problem |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------------|
| T(n) = T(n/2) + c | O(logn) | Binary Search |
| T(n) = 2T(n-1) + c | $O(2^n)$ | Tower of Hanoi |
| T(n) = T(n-1) + c | O(n) | Linear Search |
| T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n | O(nlogn) | Merge Sort |
| T(n) = T(n-1) + n | O(n²) | Selection Sort, Insertion Sort |
| T(n) = T(n-1)+T(n-2) + c | O(2 ⁿ) | Fibonacci Series |



Recurrence Relation

- Iteration method (unrolling and summing)
- Recursion Tree method
- Substitution method
- Master method