

Recursion

Chapter 11

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Objectives

- become familiar with the idea of recursion
- learn to use recursion as a programming tool
- become familiar with the binary search algorithm as an example of recursion
- become familiar with the merge sort algorithm as an example of recursion

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How do you look up a name in
the phone book?

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One Possible Way

Search:

middle page = (first page + last page)/2

Go to middle page;

If (name is on middle page)

done; //this is the **base case**

else if (name is alphabetically before middle page)

last page = middle page //redefine search area to front half

Search //same process on **reduced number of pages**

else //name must be after middle page

first page = middle page //redefine search area to back half

Search //same process on **reduced number of pages**

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Overview

Recursion: a definition in terms of itself.

Recursion in algorithms:

- Natural approach to **some** (not all) problems
- A *recursive algorithm* uses itself to solve one or more smaller identical problems

Recursion in Java:

- Recursive methods implement recursive algorithms
- A *recursive method* includes a call to itself

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Recursive Methods Must Eventually Terminate

**A recursive method must have
at least one base, or stopping, case.**

- A base case does not execute a recursive call
 - stops the recursion
- Each successive call to itself must be a "smaller version of itself"
 - an argument that describes a smaller problem
 - a base case is eventually reached

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Key Components of a Recursive Algorithm Design

1. What is a smaller *identical* problem(s)?
 - Decomposition
2. How are the answers to smaller problems combined to form the answer to the larger problem?
 - Composition
3. Which is the smallest problem that can be solved easily (without further decomposition)?
 - Base/stopping case

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Examples in Recursion

- Usually quite confusing the first time
- Start with some simple examples
 - recursive algorithms might not be best
- Later with inherently recursive algorithms
 - harder to implement otherwise

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Factorial ($N!$)

- $N! = (N-1)! * N$ [for $N > 1$]
- $1! = 1$
- $3!$
 - = $2! * 3$
 - = $(1! * 2) * 3$
 - = $1 * 2 * 3$
- Recursive design:
 - Decomposition: $(N-1)!$
 - Composition: $* N$
 - Base case: $1!$

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factorial Method

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; // composition
    else // base case
        fact = 1;

    return fact;
}
```

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```
public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(2) * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

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```
public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(2) * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

```
public static int factorial(int 2)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(1) * 2;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

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```

public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(2) * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 2)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(1) * 2;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 1)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

```

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```

public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(2) * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 2)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(1) * 2;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 1)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return 1;
}

```

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```

public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(2) * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 2)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = 1 * 2;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 1)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return 1;
}

```

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```

public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(2) * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 2)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = 1 * 2;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return 2;
}

```

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```

public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = 2 * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}

public static int factorial(int 2)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = 1 * 2;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return 2;
}

```

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```

public static int factorial(int 3)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1)
        fact = 2 * 3;
    else
        fact = 1;
    return 6;
}

```

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; (composition)
    else // base case
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

factorial(4)
factorial(3) 4

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; (composition)
    else // base case
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

factorial(4)
factorial(3) 4
factorial(2) 3

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; (composition)
    else // base case
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

factorial(4)
factorial(3) 4
factorial(2) 3
factorial(1) 2

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Execution Trace (composition)

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; (composition)
    else // base case
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

factorial(4)
factorial(3) 4
factorial(2) 3
factorial(1) -> 1 2

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Execution Trace (composition)

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; (composition)
    else // base case
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

factorial(4)
factorial(3) 4
factorial(2) -> 2 3

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Execution Trace (composition)

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; (composition)
    else // base case
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

factorial(4)
factorial(3) -> 6 4

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Execution Trace (composition)

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact;
    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; (composition)
    else // base case
        fact = 1;
    return fact;
}
```

factorial(4) -> 24

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Improved factorial Method

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact=1; // base case value

    if (n > 1) // recursive case (decomposition)
        fact = factorial(n - 1) * n; // composition
    // else do nothing; base case

    return fact;
}
```

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Fibonacci Numbers

- The Mth Fibonacci number is the sum of the previous two Fibonacci numbers
- 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ...
- Recursive Design:
 - Decomposition & Composition
 - $fibonacci(n) = fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)$
 - Base case:
 - $fibonacci(1) = 0$
 - $fibonacci(2) = 1$

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fibonacci Method

```
public static int fibonacci(int n)
{
    int fib;
    if (n > 2)
        fib = fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2);
    else if (n == 2)
        fib = 1;
    else
        fib = 0;
    return fib;
}
```

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

```

graph TD
    fib4[fibonacci(4)] --> fib3[fibonacci(3)]
    fib4 --> fib2[fibonacci(2)]

```

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

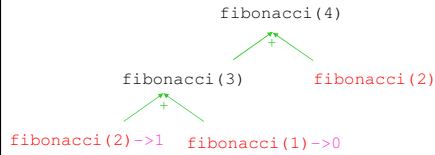
```

graph TD
    fib4[fibonacci(4)] --> fib3[fibonacci(3)]
    fib4 --> fib2[fibonacci(2)]
    fib3 --> fib2_2[fibonacci(2)]
    fib3 --> fib1[fibonacci(1)]

```

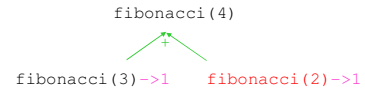
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Execution Trace (**composition**)



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Execution Trace (**composition**)



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Execution Trace (**composition**)

fibonacci(4) -> 2

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Remember:

Key to Successful Recursion

- if-else statement (or some other branching statement)
- Some branches: recursive call
 - "smaller" arguments or solve "smaller" versions of the same task (*decomposition*)
 - Combine the results (*composition*) [if necessary]
- Other branches: no recursive calls
 - stopping cases or base cases

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Template

```
... method(...)
{
    if ( ... ) // base case
    {
    }
    else // decomposition & composition
    {
    }
    return ... ; // if not void method
}
```

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Template (only one base case)

```
... method(...)
{
    ... result = ... ; //base case

    if ( ... ) // not base case
    { //decomposition & composition
        result = ...
    }

    return result;
}
```

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What Happens Here?

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    int fact=1;

    if (n > 1)
        fact = factorial(n) * n;

    return fact;
}
```

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What Happens Here?

```
public static int factorial(int n)
{
    return factorial(n - 1) * n;
}
```

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Warning: Infinite Recursion May Cause a Stack Overflow Error

- Infinite Recursion
 - Problem not getting smaller (no/bad decomposition)
 - Base case exists, but not reachable (bad base case and/or decomposition)
 - No base case
- *Stack*: keeps track of recursive calls by JVM (OS)
 - Method begins: add data onto the stack
 - Method ends: remove data from the stack
- Recursion never stops; stack eventually runs out of space
 - **Stack overflow error**

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Mistakes in recursion

- No composition -> ?
- Bad composition -> ?

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Number of Zeros in a Number

- Example: 2030 has 2 zeros
- If n has two or more digits
 - the **number of zeros** is the **number of zeros** in n with the last digit removed
 - plus an additional 1 if the last digit is zero
- Examples:
 - number of zeros in 20030 is number of zeros in 2003 plus 1
 - number of zeros in 20031 is number of zeros in 2003 plus 0

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numberOfZeros Recursive Design

- numberOfZeros in the number N
- K = number of digits in N
- Decomposition:
 - numberOfZeros in the first $K - 1$ digits
 - Last digit
- Composition:
 - Add:
 - numberOfZeros in the first $K - 1$ digits
 - 1 if the last digit is zero
- Base case:
 - N has one digit ($K = 1$)

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numberOfZeros method

```
public static int numberOfZeros(int n)
{
    int zeroCount;
    if (n==0)
        zeroCount = 1;
    else if (n < 10) // and not 0
        zeroCount = 0; // 0 for no zeros
    else if (n%10 == 0)
        zeroCount = numberOfZeros(n/10) + 1;
    else // n%10 != 0
        zeroCount = numberOfZeros(n/10);
    return zeroCount;
}
```

Which is (are) the base case(s)? Why?

Decomposition, Why?

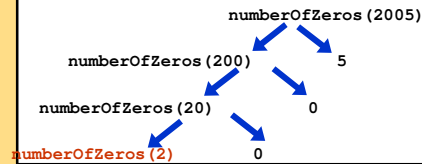
Composition, why?

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

Each method invocation will execute one of the if-else cases shown at right.

```
public static int numberOfZeros(int n)
{
    int zeroCount;
    if (n==0)
        zeroCount = 1;
    else if (n < 10) // and not 0
        zeroCount = 0; // 0 for no zeros
    else if (n%10 == 0)
        zeroCount = numberOfZeros(n/10) + 1;
    else // n%10 != 0
        zeroCount = numberOfZeros(n/10);
    return zeroCount;
}
```

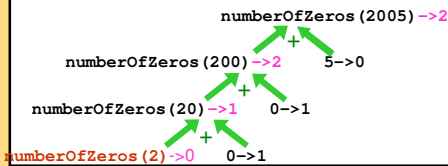


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Execution Trace (composition)

Recursive calls return

```
public static int numberOfZeros(int n)
{
    int zeroCount;
    if (n==0)
        zeroCount = 1;
    else if (n < 10) // and not 0
        zeroCount = 0; // 0 for no zeros
    else if (n%10 == 0)
        zeroCount = numberOfZeros(n/10) + 1;
    else // n%10 != 0
        zeroCount = numberOfZeros(n/10);
    return zeroCount;
}
```



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Number in English Words

- Process an integer and print out its digits in words
 - Input: 123
 - Output: "one two three"
- RecursionDemo class

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inWords Recursive Design

- inWords prints a number N in English words
- K = number of digits in N
- Decomposition:
 - inWords for the first $K - 1$ digits
 - Print the last digit
- Composition:
 - Execution order of composed steps [more later]
- Base case:
 - N has one digit ($K = 1$)

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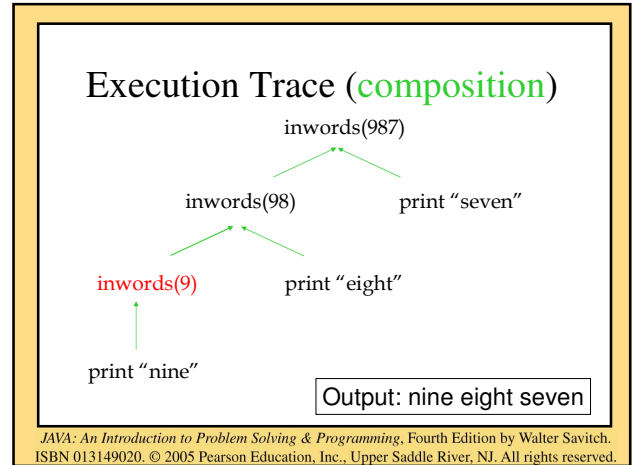
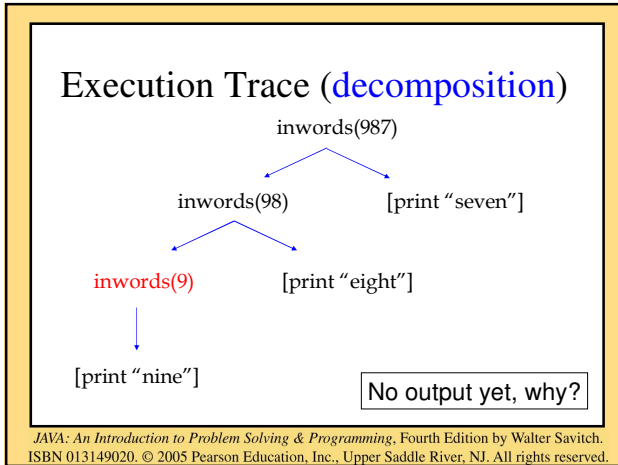
inWords method

Base case executes when only 1 digit is left

Size of problem is reduced for each recursive call

```
public static void inWords(int numeral)
{
    if (numeral < 10)
        System.out.print(digitWord(numeral) + " ");
    else //numeral has two or more digits
    {
        inWords(numeral/10);
        System.out.print(digitWord(numeral%10) + " ");
    }
}
```

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What Happens with a Recursive Call

```

inWords (987)
if (987 < 10)
  // print digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
  inWords(987/10);
  // print digit here
}
  
```

- inWords (slightly simplified) with argument 987

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Execution Trace

```

inWords(987)
if (987 < 10)
  // print digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
  inWords(987/10);
  // print digit here
}
  
```

2

inWords(98)

```

if (98 < 10)
  // print digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
  inWords(98/10);
  // print digit here
}
  
```

3

The argument is getting shorter and will eventually get to the base case.

Computation waits here until recursive call returns

- The if condition is false
- recursive call to inWords, with 987/10 or 98 as the argument

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Execution Trace

```

inWords(987)
if (987 < 10)
  // print digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
  inWords(987/10);
  // print digit here
}
  
```

```

inWords(98)
if (98 < 10)
  // print digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
  inWords(98/10);
  // print digit here
}
  
```

3

- the if condition is false
- another recursive call is made.

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Execution Trace

```

inWords(987)
if (987 < 10)
  // print digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
  inWords(987/10);
  // print digit here
}
  
```

```

inWords(98)
if (98 < 10)
  // print digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
  inWords(98/10);
  // print 98 % 10
}
  
```

4

Output: nine

- if condition is true (base case)
- prints nine and returns
- no recursive call

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```

inWords(987)
if (987 < 10)
    // print out digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
    inWords(987/10);
    // print digit here
}

```

Execution Trace

5

```

if (98 < 10)
    // print out digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
    inWords(98/10);
    // print out 98 % 10 here
}

```

Output: nine eight

- executes the next statement after the recursive call
- prints eight and then returns

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```

inWords(987)
if (987 < 10)
    // print out digit here
else //two or more digits left
{
    inWords(987/10);
    // print 987 % 10
}

```

Execution Trace

6

Output: nine eight seven

- executes the next statement after the recursive method call.
- prints seven and returns

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Composition Matters

```

public static void inWords(int numeral)
{
    if (numeral < 10)
        System.out.print(digitWord(numeral) + " ");
    else //numeral has two or more digits
    {
        System.out.print(digitWord(numeral%10) + " ");
        inWords(numeral/10);
    }
}

```

Print before making the recursive call

Recursive Design:

1. Print the last digit
2. inWords for the first $K - 1$ digits

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

```

inwords(987)
├── print "seven"
└── inwords(98)

```

Output: seven

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

```

inwords(987)
├── print "seven"
└── inwords(98)
    ├── print "eight"
    └── inwords(9)

```

Output: seven eight

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Execution Trace (decomposition)

```

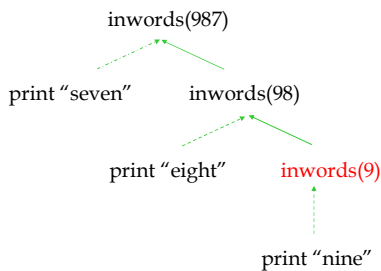
inwords(987)
├── print "seven"
└── inwords(98)
    ├── print "eight"
    └── inwords(9)
        └── print "nine"

```

Output: seven eight nine

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Execution Trace (composition)



No additional output

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"Name in the Phone Book" Revisited

```

Search:
middle page = (first page + last page)/2
Go to middle page;
If (name is on middle page)
    done;// this is the base case
else if (name is alphabetically before middle page)
    last page = middle page//redefine to front half
    Search//recursive call
else //name must be after middle page
    first page = middle page//redefine to back half
    Search//recursive call
  
```

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Binary Search Algorithm

- Searching a list for a particular value
 - *sequential* and *binary* are two common algorithms
- *Sequential search* (aka *linear search*):
 - Not very efficient
 - Easy to understand and program
- *Binary search*:
 - more efficient than sequential
 - but *the list must be sorted first!*

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Why Is It Called "Binary" Search?

Compare sequential and binary search algorithms:
How many elements are eliminated from the list each time a value is read from the list and it is not the "target" value?

Sequential search: only one item

Binary search: half the list!

That is why it is called *binary* -
 each unsuccessful test for the target value
 reduces the remaining search list by 1/2.

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Binary Search Method

- public find(target) calls private search(target, first, last)
- returns the index of the entry if the target value is found or -1 if it is not found
- Compare it to the pseudocode for the "name in the phone book" problem

```

private int search(int target, int first, int last)
{
    int location = -1; // not found

    if (first <= last) // range is not empty
    {
        int mid = (first + last)/2;

        if (target == a[mid])
            location = mid;
        else if (target < a[mid]) // first half
            location = search(target, first, mid - 1);
        else //(target > a[mid]) second half
            location = search(target, mid + 1, last);
    }

    return location;
}
  
```

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Where is the composition?

- If **no items**
 - not found (-1)
- Else if **target is in the middle**
 - middle location
- Else
 - **location found by search(first half) or search(second half)**

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Binary Search Example

target is 33

The array **a** looks like this:

Indices	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Contents	5	7	9	13	32	33	42	54	56	88

mid = (0 + 9) / 2 (which is 4)
 $33 > a[\text{mid}]$ (that is, $33 > a[4]$)
 So, if 33 is in the array, then 33 is one of:

	5	6	7	8	9
				33	42

Eliminated half of the remaining elements from consideration because array elements are sorted.

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Binary Search Example

target is 33

The array **a** looks like this:

Indexes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Contents	5	7	9	13	32	33	42	54	56	88

mid = (5 + 9) / 2 (which is 7)
 $33 < a[\text{mid}]$ (that is, $33 < a[7]$)
 So, if 33 is in the array, then 33 is one of:

	5	6	7	8	9
			33	42	

Eliminate half of the remaining elements

mid = (5 + 6) / 2 (which is 5)
 $33 == a[\text{mid}]$
 So we found 33 at index 5:

	5	6	7	8	9
			33		

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Tips

- Don't throw away answers (return values)-- need to compose the answers
 - Common programming mistake: not capturing and composing answers (return values)
- Only one return statement at the end
 - Easier to keep track of and debug return values
 - “One entry, one exit”
- www.cs.fit.edu/~pkc/classes/cse1001/BinarySearch/BinarySearch.java

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Worst-case Analysis

- Item not in the array (size N)
- $T(N)$ = number of comparisons with array elements
- $T(1) = 1$
- $T(N) = 1 + T(N/2)$

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Worst-case Analysis

- Item not in the array (size N)
- $T(N)$ = number of comparisons with array elements
- $T(1) = 1$
- $T(N) = 1 + T(N/2)$
 $= 1 + [1 + T(N/4)]$

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Worst-case Analysis

- Item not in the array (size N)
- $T(N)$ = number of comparisons with array elements
- $T(1) = 1$
- $T(N) = 1 + T(N/2)$
 $= 1 + [1 + T(N/4)]$
 $= 2 + T(N/4)$
 $= 2 + [1 + T(N/8)]$

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Worst-case Analysis

- Item not in the array (size N)
- $T(N)$ = number of comparisons with array elements
- $T(1) = 1$
- $T(N) = 1 + T(N/2)$ ←
 $= 1 + [1 + T(N/4)]$ ←
 $= 2 + T(N/4)$ ←
 $= 2 + [1 + T(N/8)]$ ←
 $= 3 + T(N/8)$ ←
 $= \dots$

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Worst-case Analysis

- Item not in the array (size N)
- $T(N)$ = number of comparisons with array elements
- $T(1) = 1$
- $T(N) = 1 + T(N/2)$ ←
 $= 1 + [1 + T(N/4)]$ ←
 $= 2 + T(N/4)$ ←
 $= 2 + [1 + T(N/8)]$ ←
 $= 3 + T(N/8)$ ←
 $= \dots$
 $= k + T(N/2^k)$ [1]

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Worst-case Analysis

- $T(N) = k + T(N/2^k)$ [1]
- $T(N/2^k)$ gets smaller until the base case: $T(1)$
 $- 2^k = N$
 $- k = \log_2 N$
- Replace terms with k in [1]:
 $T(N) = \log_2 N + T(N/N)$
 $= \log_2 N + T(1)$
 $= \log_2 N + 1$
- “ $\log_2 N$ ” algorithm
- We used *recurrence equations*

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Main steps for analysis

- Set up the recurrence equations for the recursive algorithm
- Expand the equations a few times
- Look for a pattern
- Introduce a variable to describe the pattern
- Find the value for the variable via the base case
- Get rid of the variable via substitution

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Binary vs. Sequential Search

- Binary Search
 $- \log_2 N + 1$ comparisons (worst case)
- Sequential/Linear Search
 $- N$ comparisons (worst case)
- Binary Search is faster **but**
 $-$ array is assumed to be sorted beforehand
- Faster searching algorithms for “non-sorted arrays”
 $-$ More sophisticated *data structures* than arrays
 $-$ Later courses

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Recursive Versus Iterative Methods

All recursive algorithms/methods can be rewritten without recursion.

- *Iterative* methods use loops instead of recursion
- Iterative methods generally run faster and use less memory--less overhead in keeping track of method calls

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So When Should You Use Recursion?

- Solutions/algorithms for some problems are inherently recursive
 - iterative implementation could be more complicated
- When efficiency is less important
 - it might make the code easier to understand
- *Bottom line is about:*
 - *Algorithm design*
 - *Tradeoff between readability and efficiency*

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Pages 807 *NOT* a good tip

[Programming Tip: Ask Until the User Gets It Right]

- Recursion continues until user enters valid input.

```
public void getCount ()
{
    System.out.println("Enter a positive number:");
    count = SavitchIn.readLineInt ();
    if (count <= 0)
    {
        System.out.println("Input must be positive.
        System.out.println("Try again. ");
        getCount (); //start over
    }
}
```

read a number

Use a recursive call to get another number.

- *No notion of a smaller problem for recursive design*
- *Easily implemented using iteration without loss of readability*

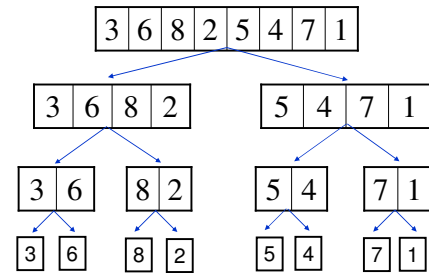
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Merge Sort— A Recursive Sorting Algorithm

- Example of *divide and conquer* algorithm
- Recursive design:
 - Divides array in half and *merge sorts* the halves (**decomposition**)
 - Combines two sorted halves (**composition**)
 - Array has only one element (**base case**)
- Harder to implement iteratively

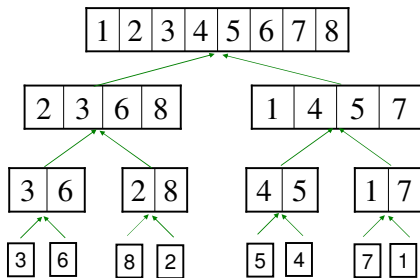
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Execution Trace (**decomposition**)



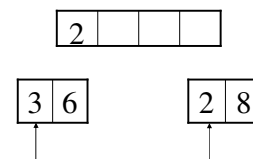
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Execution Trace (**composition**)



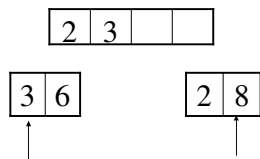
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Merging Two Sorted Arrays



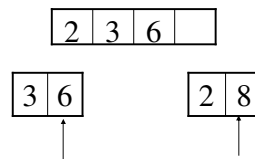
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Merging Two Sorted Arrays



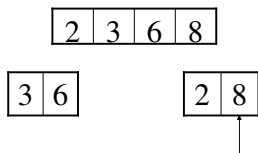
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Merging Two Sorted Arrays



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Merging Two Sorted Arrays



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Merge Sort Algorithm

1. If array *a* has more than one element:
 - a. Copy the first half of the elements in *a* to array *front*
 - b. Copy the rest of the elements in *a* to array *tail*
 - c. Merge Sort *front*
 - d. Merge Sort *tail*
 - e. Merge the elements in *front* and *tail* into *a*
2. Otherwise, do nothing

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Merge Sort

```

public static void sort(int[] a)
{
    if (a.length >= 2)
    {
        int halfLength = a.length / 2;
        int[] front = new int[halfLength];
        int[] tail = new int[a.length - halfLength];
        divide(a, front, tail);
        sort(front);
        sort(tail);
        merge(a, front, tail);
    }
    // else do nothing.
}
    
```

recursive calls

do recursive case if true, base case if false

make "smaller" problems by dividing array

Combine the two sorted arrays

base case: a.length == 1 so a is sorted and no recursive call is necessary.

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Worst-case Theoretical Analysis

- Comparisons of array elements
- None during decomposition
- Only during merging two sorted arrays (composition)
 - To get an array of size *N* from two sorted arrays of size *N/2*
 - *N* - 1 comparisons (worst case: the largest two elements are in different halves)

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Analysis: Array of size N

- Let $T(N)$ be the number of comparisons
- $T(1) = 0$
- $T(N) = 2 T(N/2) + (N - 1)$

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Analysis: Array of size N

- Let $T(N)$ be the number of comparisons
- $T(1) = 0$
- $T(N) = 2 T(N/2) + (N - 1)$
 $= 2 [2 T(N/4) + (N/2 - 1)] + (N - 1)$

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Analysis: Array of size N

- Let $T(N)$ be the number of comparisons
- $T(1) = 0$
- $T(N) = 2 T(N/2) + (N - 1)$
 $= 2 [2 T(N/4) + (N/2 - 1)] + (N - 1)$
 $= 4 T(N/4) + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$
 $= 4 [2 T(N/8) + (N/4 - 1)] + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$

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Analysis: Array of size N

- Let $T(N)$ be the number of comparisons
- $T(1) = 0$
- $T(N) = 2 T(N/2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 2 [2 T(N/4) + (N/2 - 1)] + (N - 1)$
 $= 4 T(N/4) + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 4 [2 T(N/8) + (N/4 - 1)] + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$
 $= 8 T(N/8) + (N - 4) + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$ ←

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Analysis: Array of size N

- Let $T(N)$ be the number of comparisons
- $T(1) = 0$
- $T(N) = 2 T(N/2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 2 [2 T(N/4) + (N/2 - 1)] + (N - 1)$
 $= 4 T(N/4) + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 4 [2 T(N/8) + (N/4 - 1)] + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$
 $= 8 T(N/8) + (N - 4) + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 8 T(N/8) + 3N - (1 + 2 + 4)$

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Analysis: Array of size N

- Let $T(N)$ be the number of comparisons
- $T(1) = 0$
- $T(N) = 2 T(N/2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 2 [2 T(N/4) + (N/2 - 1)] + (N - 1)$
 $= 4 T(N/4) + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 4 [2 T(N/8) + (N/4 - 1)] + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$
 $= 8 T(N/8) + (N - 4) + (N - 2) + (N - 1)$ ←
 $= 8 T(N/8) + 3N - (1 + 2 + 4)$
 $= \dots$
 $= 2^k T(N/2^k) + kN - (1 + 2 + \dots + 2^{k-1})$ [1]

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Analysis Continued

- $T(N) = 2^k T(N/2^k) + kN - (1 + 2 + \dots + 2^{k-1})$ [1]
 $= 2^k T(N/2^k) + kN - (2^k - 1)$ [2]
- $T(N/2^k)$ gets smaller until the base case $T(1)$:
 $- 2^k = N$
 $- k = \log_2 N$
- Replace terms with k in [2]:
 $T(N) = N T(N/N) + \log_2 N * N - (N - 1)$
 $= N T(1) + N \log_2 N - (N - 1)$
 $= N \log_2 N - N + 1$
- "Mog₂N" algorithm

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Geometric Series and Sum

- $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + 2^k$
 $- 1 + 2 = 3$
 $- 1 + 2 + 4 = 7$
 $- 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15$

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Geometric Series and Sum

- $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + 2^k$
 $- 1 + 2 = 3 \quad (4 - 1)$
 $- 1 + 2 + 4 = 7 \quad (8 - 1)$
 $- 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15 \quad (16 - 1)$

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Geometric Series and Sum

- $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + 2^k$
 $- 1 + 2 = 3 \quad (4 - 1)$
 $- 1 + 2 + 4 = 7 \quad (8 - 1)$
 $- 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15 \quad (16 - 1)$
- $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + 2^k$
 $= 2^{k+1} - 1$
- $1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots + r^k$
 $= r^0 + r^1 + r^2 + r^3 + \dots + r^k$
 $= (r^{k+1} - 1) / (r - 1) \quad [\text{for } r > 1]$

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Merge Sort Vs. Selection/Insertion/Bubble Sort

- Merge Sort
 - "MogN" algorithm (in comparisons)
- Selection/Insertion/Bubble Sort
 - "N²" algorithm (in comparisons)
- "MogN" is "optimal" for sorting
 - Proven that the sorting problem cannot be solved with fewer comparisons
 - Other MogN algorithms exist, many are recursive

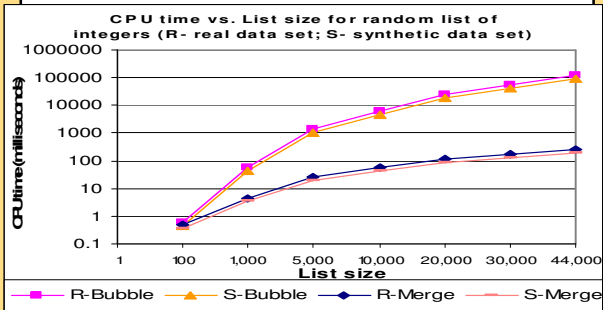
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Real Data Set: Web Server Log

- <http://www.cs.fit.edu/~pkc/classes/writing/data/jan99.log>
- 4.6 MB (44057 entries)
- Example entry in log:
`ip195.dca.primenet.com - - [04/Jan/1999:09:16:51 - 0500] "GET / HTTP/1.0" 200 762`
- Extracted features
 - remote-host names (strings)
 - file-size (integers)
- List size - 100 to 44000 entries

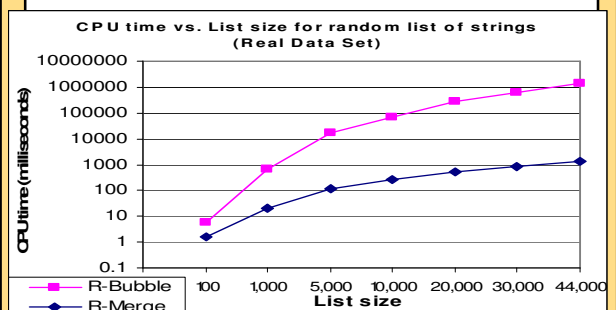
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CPU Time: Randomly Ordered Integers



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CPU Time: Randomly Ordered Strings



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Google's PageRank (1998)

- PageRank(x) depends on:
 1. How many pages (y 's) linking to x
 - how many incoming links (citations) from y 's to x
 2. How important those pages (y 's) are:
 - PageRank(y 's)
- How to determine PageRank(y 's)?
- What is the base case?

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Summary

- *Recursive call*: a method that calls itself
- Powerful for algorithm design at times
- Recursive algorithm design:
 - **Decomposition** (smaller identical problems)
 - **Composition** (combine results)
 - **Base case(s)** (smallest problem, no recursive calls)
- Implementation
 - Conditional (e.g. if) statements to separate different cases
 - Avoid infinite recursion
 - Problem is getting smaller (decomposition)
 - Base case exists and reachable
 - Composition could be tricky

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Summary

- Binary Search
 - Given an ordered list
 - “ $\log N$ ” algorithm (in comparisons)
 - “Optimal”
- Merge Sort
 - Recursive sorting algorithm
 - “ $N \log N$ ” algorithm (in comparisons)
 - “Optimal”

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