

# Part A Simulation and Statistical Programming HT15

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Lecture 10: Recursion, Efficiency and Runtime.

## Overview for lecture 10

1. Recursive evaluation
2. Extended example: Cholesky Factorization
3. Runtime analysis
4. Extended example: sorting

## Recursion

Recursive programmes call themselves.

Example: Plan and write a recursive function for  $f(x) = x!$ .

$$f(1) = 1, \quad f(x) = x f(x - 1) \quad \text{for } x > 1.$$

Our factorial function returns  $x! = 1$  on input  $x = 1$  and otherwise calls itself to evaluate  $(x - 1)!$  and multiplies this by  $x$ .

```
factorial<-function(x) {  
  if (x==1) return(1)  
  if (x>1) return(x*factorial(x-1))  
  stop('x must be a positive integer')  
}
```

Each function in the nested sequence of calls to `factorial()` has its own variable environment with its own distinct version of the local variable `x`.

Recursive algorithms are often shorter and clearer than the corresponding implementation via `for` or `while`. However, they may be demanding of memory, if each level of recursion makes its own copy of local variables.

## Example: Cholesky Factorization

Recall simulation for the multivariate normal,  $X \sim N(\mu, A)$  with  $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ , and  $A$  a  $n \times n$  symmetric positive definite variance matrix.

We find a matrix  $L$  so that

$$A = LL^T.$$

If  $Z = (Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n)$   $Z_i \sim N(0, 1)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and we set

$$X = \mu + LZ,$$

then  $X \sim N(\mu, A)$ .

There are many choices for  $L$ . The Cholesky factorization is particularly neat. Because  $A$  is positive definite, there is a lower triangular matrix  $L$  satisfying  $A = LL^T$ .

Here is a recursive algorithm for  $L$ . Chop  $A$  and  $L$  up into blocks

$$A = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} a_{11} & A_{21}^T \\ \hline A_{21} & A_{22} \end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} 1 \times 1 & 1 \times (n-1) \\ \hline (n-1) \times 1 & (n-1) \times (n-1) \end{array} \right)$$

Here  $A_{21} = A_{2:n,1}$  is  $(n-1) \times 1$  and  $A_{22} = A_{2:n,2:n}$  is itself lower triangular and  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ . Similarly

$$L = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} L_{11} & 0_{1 \times (n-1)} \\ \hline L_{21} & L_{22} \end{array} \right)$$

Since  $L$  is lower triangular it is zero above the diagonal, and in particular all the entries in the top row except the first are zero.

Since  $A = LL^T$ ,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & A_{21}^T \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & 0_{1 \times (n-1)} \\ L_{21} & L_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} L_{11} & L_{21}^T \\ 0_{(n-1) \times 1} & L_{22}^T \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \left( \begin{array}{c|c} L_{11}^2 & L_{11}L_{21}^T \\ \hline L_{11}L_{21} & L_{22}L_{22}^T + L_{21}L_{21}^T \end{array} \right)$$

so  $L_{11} = \sqrt{a_{11}}$ ,  $L_{21} = A_{21}/\sqrt{a_{11}}$  and the  $A_{22}$  block gives

$$A_{22} - L_{21}L_{21}^T = L_{22}L_{22}^T$$
$$\tilde{A} = \tilde{L}\tilde{L}^T \quad \text{now } (n-1) \times (n-1)$$

To solve for  $L_{22}$ , we need the Cholesky factorization of the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix  $\tilde{A} = A_{22} - L_{21}L_{21}^T$ , so we have reduced the problem by one dimension. Finally, if  $n = 1$  so  $A$  is a scalar,  $L = \sqrt{A}$  terminates the recursion.

## Runtime analysis

We measure the runtime in units of operations. This might be the number of additions, subtractions, divisions and multiplications. For a sorting algorithm we can count the number of comparisons.

We typically give the asymptotic run time - as a function of the input size, for large values of the input. We give the order of the function - quadratic, cubic etc. \* More efficient algorithms have (asymptotically at least) smaller run times.

We can give the worst case (for any input) or the average case (usually more interesting but harder to calculate).

\*If the runtime is  $g(n)$  and  $g(n)$  is  $O(h(n))$  then  $h(n)/g(n) \rightarrow c$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Here is an algorithm to find the smallest entry of  $n > 1$  numbers.

```
my.min<-function(x) {  
  a=x[1]  
  for (k in 2:length(x)) {  
    if (x[k]<a) a<-x[k]  
  }  
  a  
}
```

Let  $g(x)$  be the number of comparisons. Clearly  $g(x) = n - 1$  independent of  $x$ , so the runtime is  $O(n)$ .

What is the runtime of `my.chol()`? Let  $g(A)$  be the number of flops to factorize  $n \times n$  matrix  $A_n$ .

It took  $1 + (n - 1) + (n - 1)^2 + (n - 1)^2$  additions, subtractions, multiplications and divisions (called 'flops') to solve for  $L_{11}$  and calculate the new  $A$ . The highest power is  $2n^2$ .

We have to repeat this for  $n \rightarrow n - 1 \rightarrow n - 2 \dots \rightarrow 1$ . Since  $\sum_{i=1}^n 2n^2 = 2n(n + 2)(2n + 1)/6$ , so this implementation has approximately  $g(A_n) \simeq 2n^3/3$  flops or  $O(n^3)$ .

If we had exploited symmetry we could get this down to about  $n^3/3$  but we cant change the order (still  $O(n^3)$ ).

```
#Cholesky
```

```
my.chol<-function(A) {  
  n=dim(A)[1] #assume nxn  
  if (n==1) return(sqrt(A))
```

```
  L=matrix(0,n,n)
```

```
  L[1,1]=sqrt(A[1,1])
```

```
#count as 1 op
```

```
  L[2:n,1]=A[2:n,1]/L[1,1]
```

```
#n-1 ops
```

```
  L[1,2:n]=rep(0,n-1)
```

```
  A22=A[2:n,2:n,drop=FALSE]
```

```
  newA=A22-L[2:n,1]%*%t(L[2:n,1]) # $2(n-1)^2$  here
```

```
#but  $n(n-1)$  possible
```

```
  L[2:n,2:n]=my.chol(newA)
```

```
  return(L)
```

```
}
```

**Example: runtime and sorting algorithm** Here are a couple of R algorithms to sort a list  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  of  $n$  numbers.

**Simple sort:** find the smallest element  $x_{(1)}$ . Suppose it is the  $k$ th element. Remove the  $k$ th element from the list, so  $y = (x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n)$ . Return the vector  $(x_{(1)}, f(y))$ .

This takes  $(n - 1) + (n - 2) + \dots + 1 = O(n^2)$  comparisons independent of the order of the numbers in  $x$ .

**Bubble sort:** sweep through the vector, swapping  $x_i$  and  $x_{i+1}$  if  $x_i > x_{i+1}$ . Repeat this till the vector is in order. After  $i$  sweeps the last  $i$  elements  $x_{(n-i)}, \dots, x_{(n)}$  must be in their correct places so the algorithm terminates after  $n$  sweeps at most with each sweep using  $n - 1$  comparisons.

This takes  $O(n^2)$  comparisons at worst, and  $O(n)$  at best.

**Merge sort** let Merge sort be a function  $f(x)$  that takes as input an array  $x$  of  $n$  numbers and returns a sorted array  $x'$ .

[0] If  $x$  has one entry it is sorted so return  $x' = x$ . Otherwise...

[1] Split  $x$  into two halves  $y = (x_1, \dots, x_{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor})$  and  $z = (x_{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1}, \dots, n)$ .

[2] Sort  $y$  and  $z$  using Merge sort so  $y' = f(y)$  and  $z' = f(z)$ .

[3] Let  $x' = g(y', z')$  where  $g()$  is a function that takes as input two sorted vectors and merges their elements to return the sorted union of  $y'$  and  $z'$  (two sorted vectors of  $n/2$  elements can be merged in  $n - 1$  operations at worst).

[4] Return the sorted array  $x'$ .

The runtime of Merge sort is  $O(n \log(n))$  for  $n$ -component  $x$  so it is preferred over Bubble sort. We wouldn't use an  $O(n^2)$  algorithm when an  $O(n \log(n))$  algorithm is available.

Proof (non-examinable): Suppose  $n = 2^k$  for simplicity. Let  $g_k$  be the number of comparisons to sort this vector. Merge sort splits the vector into two vectors of length  $n/2 = 2^{k-1}$ . These two sub-vectors have to be sorted, which is  $2g_{k-1}$  comparisons. The number of comparisons to merge the sorted sub-vectors is  $2 \times (n/2) - 1 = 2^k - 1$  so

$$g_k = 2g_{k-1} + 2^k - 1$$

and  $g_1 = 1$ . The homogeneous solutions are  $g_k = A2^k$  with particular solution  $k2^k + 1$ . Applying the initial condition gives  $g_k = (k - 1)2^k + 1$  or  $g(x) = n \log_2(n) - n + 1$ . We conclude that Merge sort needs  $O(n \log_2(n))$  comparisons, irrespective of the input.