

Recursion, Divide & Conquer

KK Chan {trashcan}

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Functions

- Functions in Math:
 - $f(x) = \sin(x)$, $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$
 - Substitute x (Input) into the $f()$ (Process), return the calculated value (Output)
- Functions in OI
 - Similar to maths
 - As a subroutine that process the input/parameters and return the outputs

Function in OI

```
int f(int x) {  
    int y = x * x + x + 2;  
    return y;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    cout << f(7) << endl;  
}
```

Define a **function name and input**

Process the input

Return the output

Call the function with parameter $x = 7$

Function in OI

- There can be multiple input for a function

```
double dist (double x1, double y1, double x2, double y2) {  
    return sqrt((x1 - x2) * (x1 - x2) + (y1 - y2) * (y1 - y2));  
}
```

Procedure

- Similar to functions
- It can take inputs and process like functions
- But with no return values

Procedure

```
void hello(int n) {  
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++)  
        cout << "HKOI" << endl;  
}  
  
int main() {  
    hello(6);  
}
```

Define a **function name and input**

Process the input

Call the procedure with $n = 6$



Recursion

- A function or procedure that call itself

```
int gcd(int a, int b) {  
    if (b == 0) return a;  
    return gcd(b, a % b);  
}
```



Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << gcd(42, 4);  
}
```

Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << gcd(42, 4);  
}  
    (a = 42, b = 4)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }
```



Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << gcd(42, 4);  
}  
    (a = 42, b = 4)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
    (a = 4, b = 2)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }
```



Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << gcd(42, 4);  
}  
    (a = 42, b = 4)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
    (a = 4, b = 2)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
    (a = 2, b = 0)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
}
```



Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << gcd(42, 4);  
}  
    (a = 42, b = 4)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
    (a = 4, b = 2)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
    (a = 2, b = 0)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return 2;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
}
```



Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << gcd(42, 4);  
}  
    (a = 42, b = 4)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
    (a = 4, b = 2)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return 2;  
    }  
    (a = 2, b = 0)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return 2;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }  
}
```



Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << gcd(42, 4);  
}  
    (a = 42, b = 4)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return 2;  
    }  
        (a = 4, b = 2)  
        int gcd(int a, int b){  
            if (b == 0) return a;  
            return 2;  
        }  
            (a = 2, b = 0)  
            int gcd(int a, int b){  
                if (b == 0) return 2;  
                return gcd(b, a % b);  
            }  
        }  
    }  
}
```



Recursion

```
int main() {  
    cout << 2;  
}  
    (a = 42, b = 4)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return 2;  
    }  
    (a = 4, b = 2)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return a;  
        return 2;  
    }  
    (a = 2, b = 0)  
    int gcd(int a, int b){  
        if (b == 0) return 2;  
        return gcd(b, a % b);  
    }
```



Recursion

- By using recursion, we can simplify our code
- Recursion can help us solve problem with following properties:
 - The problem can be divided/reduced into same problem with smaller parameter
 - We need informations of the sub-problems to solve the current one

Recursion

```
int gcd(int a, int b) {  
    if (b == 0) return a;  
    return gcd(b, a % b);  
}
```

Base case: stop the recursion

Recurrence relation: to divide the current problem into a sub-problem

Example – Fibonacci number

- Find the n-th Fibonacci number
- **Warning:**
- **DO NOT** use recursion to calculate the n-th Fibonacci number using recursion without memoization
- Base case: $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$
- Recurrence relation: $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$



Example – Fibonacci number

- Find the n-th Fibonacci number
- Base case: $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$
- Recurrence relation: $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

```
int fib(int n) {  
    if(n == 0 || n == 1) return n;  
    return fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2);  
}
```



Example – Tower of Hanoi

- There are 3 pegs, numbering 0, 1, 2 from left to right
- There are initially N disks of different size on the 0th peg.
- The disks increase in size from top to bottom
- The goal is to move entire tower of disks from 0th peg to the one of the other peg
- One disk can be moved from the top of one peg to another empty peg or peg with larger size topmost disk



Example – Tower of Hanoi

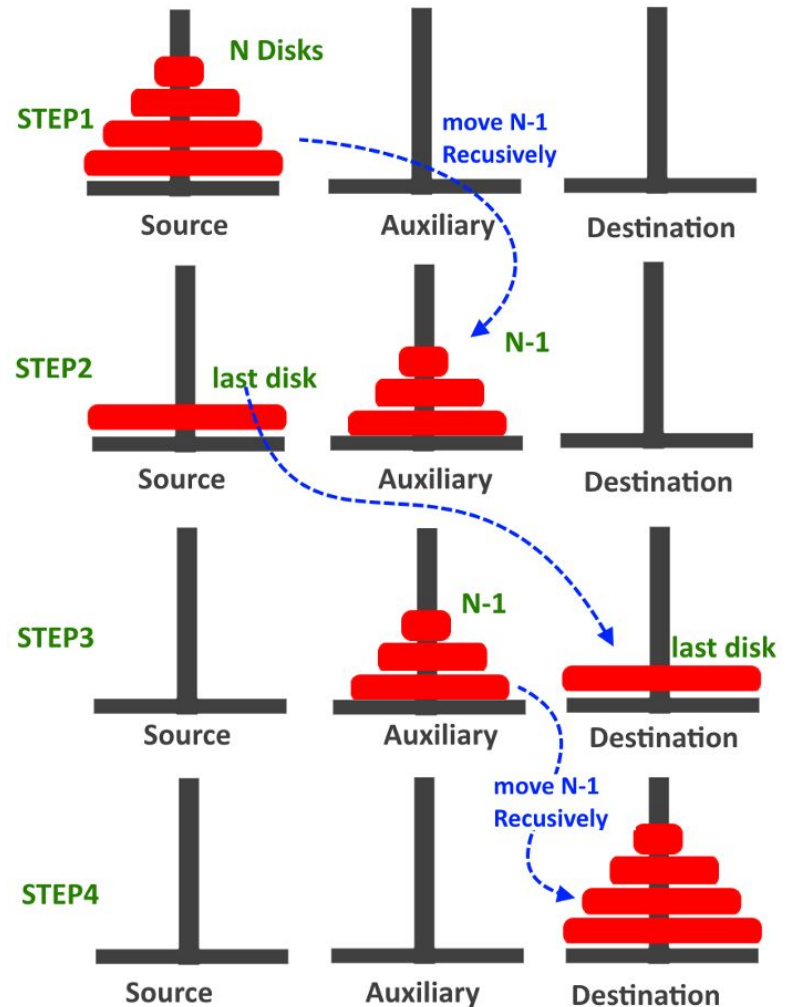
- Strategy:
- Name each peg by **start**, **end** and **intermediate**
- Move the topmost $n-1$ disks from **start** to **intermediate**
- Move the largest disk to **end**, now the **start** peg is empty
- Treat the **start** peg as **intermediate** peg, **intermediate** peg as **start** and repeat the step above.



Example – Tower of Hanoi

Image source:

<https://medium.com/@jamalmaria111/tower-of-hanoi-js-algorithm-3f667fa46f0f>



Example – Tower of Hanoi

- Base case: When $n = 1$, move the disk from start to end.
- Recurrence relation, when $n > 1$:
 - Move $n - 1$ disk from start to intermediate
 - Move 1 disk from start to end
 - Move $n - 1$ disk from intermediate to end
- Let $P(n, \text{start}, \text{inter}, \text{end})$ represents the problem we want to solve. Where we move n disks from **start** peg to **end** peg using the **intermediate** peg.
- If we follow this strategy, it will be the minimum steps possible which requires $2^n - 1$ steps.



Pseudocode

```
void p(int n, int start, int inter, int end) {  
    if(n == 1) {  
        [Move largest disk from start to end]  
    } else {  
        P(n - 1, start, end, inter)  
        [Move largest disk from start to end]  
        P(n - 1, inter, start, end)  
    }  
}
```



Exhaustion

- Sometimes we don't know fast algorithms to solve a problem
- Exhaust all possible state/solutions
- Check whether the state is the one we want
- Output the best / first found

Example – Subset sum

- Given a list of N integers, find a subset of integers that sums to S .
- e.g. $A = [1, 2, 4, 8, 16]$, $S = 13$
- The subset that gives $S = 13$ is $[1, 4, 8]$



Example – Subset sum

- Try subset of size 1, 2, 3, ... , n
- Using for loop?

Example – Subset sum

- What a mess and we need so many lines of repetitive code.

```
for(int i = 0; i < n;i++)
    if (a[i] == S) cout << a[i] << endl;
for(int i = 0; i < n; i++)
    for(int j = i + 1; j < n; j++)
        if(a[i] + a[j] == S) cout << a[i] << ' ' << a[j] << endl;
for(int i = 0; i < n; i++)
    for(int j = i + 1; j < n; j++)
        for(int k = j + 1; k < n; k++)
            if(a[i] + a[j] + a[k] == S) cout << a[i] << ' ' << a[j] << ' ' << a[k] << endl;
```



Example – Subset sum

- This can be solved by recursion
- For each number, we can decide whether or not to choose it.
- Try both
- Define $F(i, X)$ denoting we have considered i number and the current sum is X
- Base case: $i == n$, if $X = S$, output, else this subset can't add up to the sum we want.
- Recurrence relation:
 - Try $F(i + 1, X + a[i])$ // Include this number
 - and $F(i + 1, X)$ // Not to include this number



Example – Subset sum

```
bool choose[n]; // all initialized to false

void solve(int i, int X) {
    if(i == n && X == S) {
        for (int j = 0; j < n; j++)
            if(choose[j]) cout << a[j] << ' ';
    } else if(i == n)
        return;
    else {
        choose[i] = true; solve(i + 1, X + a[i]);
        choose[i] = false; solve(i + 1, X);
    }
}
```



Example – Subset sum

- Time complexity: $O(2^N)$
- Which can give solutions within 1s when $N \leq 20$
- There exist solutions with pseudo-polynomial time by using DP

Example – Permutation

- Generating sequences of permutation
- Can also be done using `next_permutation` in STL
- Time complexity: $O(N!)$
- Useful when $N \leq 10$

Example – Permutation

- Suppose we want to permute the string $S = \text{“ABCD”}$
- Define $\text{permutation}(S, \text{pos})$ as permuting S while the current position at pos
- Base case: When $\text{pos} == S.\text{size}()$, we can't swap anymore so we just output
- Recurrence relation: For all $i > \text{pos}$, swap $S[i]$ and $S[\text{pos}]$, $\text{permutation}(S, \text{pos} + 1)$



Example – Permutation

```
void permutation(string s, int pos) {  
    if(pos == s.size()) cout << s << endl;  
    else {  
        for (int i = pos; i < s.size(); i++) {  
            swap(s[i], s[pos]); // apply the change  
            permutation(s, pos + 1); // recur to the next state  
            swap(s[i], s[pos]); // undo the change  
        }  
    }  
}
```



Practice problem

- 01046 One-Step Tower of Hanoi
- 01014 Stamps
- 01031 Permutations
- 01037 Combinations
- 20296 Safecrackers
- 30098 Generating Fast Permutations



Branch & Bound

- We may noticed that some state are invalid and recurring further won't make it valid again
- We can skip this state and not recur all the state below it which may saves a lot of time

Example – Subset sum revisited

- Current state: $F(i, X)$
- If $X > S$, adding any more number or not adding will not sum to S anyway
- Stop the recursion when $X > S$!

Example – Subset sum revisited

```
bool choose[n]; // all initialized to false
void solve(int i, int X) {
    if(i == n && X == S) {
        for (int j = 0; j < n; j++)
            if(choose[j]) cout << a[j] << ' ';
    } else {
        choose[i] = false; solve(i + 1, X);
        if (X + a[i] > S) return; // Branch cutting
        choose[i] = true; solve(i + 1, X + a[i]);
    }
}
```



Example – Subset sum revisited

- Constant optimization
- Time complexity: $O(2^N)$
- There is no guarantee we always cut the branch, but we can always do so when possible.



Practice problem

- 01049 Chocolate
- 01050 Bin packing
- 20750 8 Queens Chess Problem
- T183 Exam Anti Cheat (You can get at least 50 marks by cutting branch)



break;

Divide & Conquer

- Divide the problem into smaller and independent sub-problems that are the same as the original problem
- If the sub-problem is easy to solve, solve directly. Otherwise divide it into smaller sub-problems recursively.
- Combine the result/solutions from sub-problems to solve the original problem.



Master Theorem (Warning: Maths ahead)

- Master Theorem is used to calculate the time complexity of a divide-and-conquer algorithm
- Assume the time cost function of the problem is $T(n)$
- If $T(n) = aT(n / b) + O(n^d)$
- $O(n^d)$ can be regarded as the time cost of combining solutions
- $aT(n / b)$ can be regarded as dividing the problem into a sub-problems with parameters n/b .



Master Theorem

- $T(n) = aT(n / b) + O(n^d)$
 - If $d > \log_b a$, $T(n) = O(n^d)$
 - If $d = \log_b a$, $T(n) = O(n^d \log n)$
 - If $d < \log_b a$, $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$
-
- In real coding, you can just ignore all of the above calculations



Example – Big Mod

- Find $B^P \% M$
- Naive solution: multiply B for P times, doing mod every time.
- Time complexity: $O(P)$

Example – Big Mod

- Find $B^P \% M$
- When P is even, $B^P \% M = B^{P/2} \% M * B^{P/2} \% M$
- When P is odd, $B^P \% M = B * (B^{(P-1)/2} \% M * B^{(P-1)/2} \% M) \% M$
- Base case: When $P = 0$, $\text{bmod}(b, p, m) = 1 \% M$
- Recurrence relation:
 - If P is even: $\text{bmod}(b, p, m) = \text{bmod}(b * b \% m, p / 2, m)$
 - If P is odd: $\text{bmod}(b, p, m) = b * \text{bmod}(b * b \% m, p / 2, m)$, here $p / 2$ is integer division so we can just skip the -1



Example – Big Mod

```
typedef long long ll;
ll bmod(ll b, ll p, ll m) {
    if(p == 0) return 1 % m;
    else if(p % 2 == 0) return bmod(b * b % m, p / 2, m);
    else return b * bmod(b * b % m, p / 2, m) % m;
}
```

- Super useful, you can just add this to your code template



Example – Big Mod

- Here, we divide P by 2 in each recursion
 - There are at most $\log(P)$ times before P becomes 0
 - Time complexity: $O(\log P)$
-
- Way faster than $O(P)$



Example – Big Mod

- How can we analyze the time complexity using master theorem?
- At each recursion, we divide problem $f(P)$ into **one** sub-problem $f(P / 2)$
- It takes $O(1)$ to combine solutions because it is simple multiplication



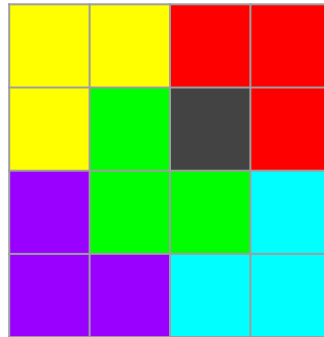
Example – Big Mod

- $T(n) = aT(n / b) + O(n^d)$
- If $d > \log_b a$, $T(n) = O(n^d)$
- If $d = \log_b a$, $T(n) = O(n^d \log n)$
- If $d < \log_b a$, $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$
- $T(P) = T(P / 2) + O(1)$, $a = 1$, $b = 2$, $d = 0$, $\log_b a = 0$
- We have the case $d = \log_b a$, substitute the number we have $O(\log P)$



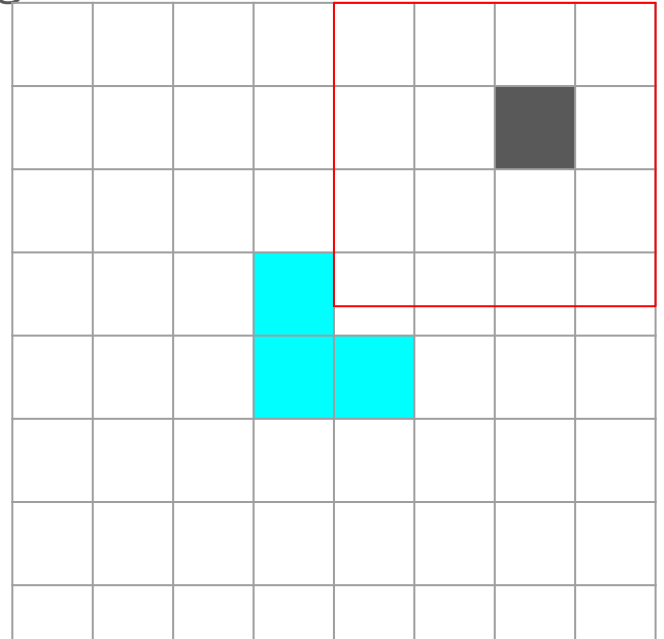
Example – L-pieces

- Given a grid of $N * N$, all cells are initially empty except one of the cells.
- N is a power of 2
- Fill the grid with L shape
- e.g., a $4 * 4$ grid solution, the gray cell is originally filled

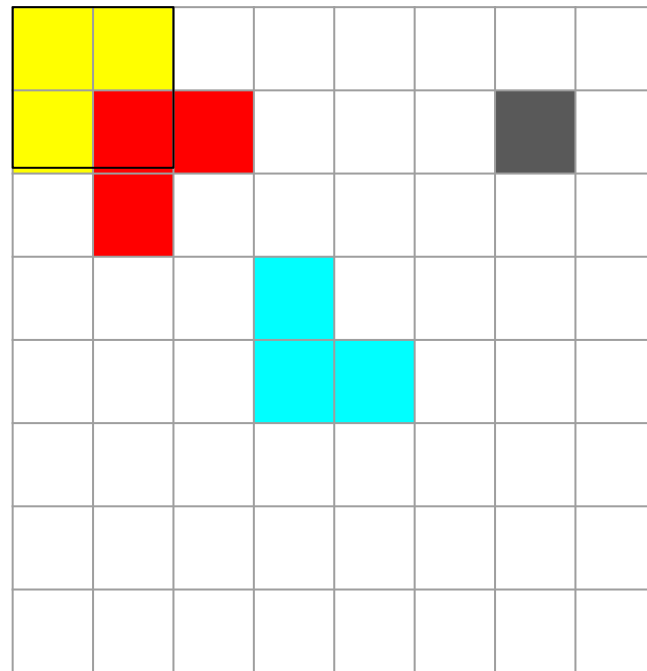
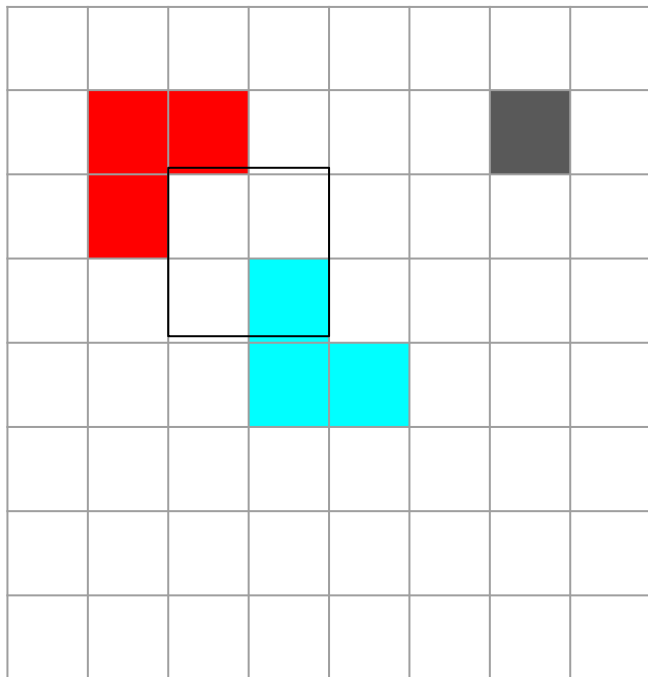


Example – L-pieces

- Idea:
 - Divide the grid into 4 regions, each are $N / 2 * N / 2$
 - Put a L piece right next to the corner of the region that contain an filled cell
 - Solve recursively for each region
 - Base case: $2 * 2$ grid, just simply put a L piece
-
- The gray cell is the given cell
 - The cyan L-piece is the one we are putting



Example – L-pieces



Example – L-pieces

- At each step, we divide our problem $F(n)$ into 4 sub-problem $F(n / 2)$
- Combining the sub-problem cost $O(1)$ as we don't actually have to combine
- $T(n) = 4T(n / 2) + O(1)$
- $a = 4, b = 2, d = 0, \log_b a = 2$
- $T(n) = O(n^{\log_2 4}) = O(n^2)$



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

- Merge sort is a well known sorting algorithm that sort an array of length n in $O(n \log n)$ time
- This can be extended to count no. of inversions which will be discussed later



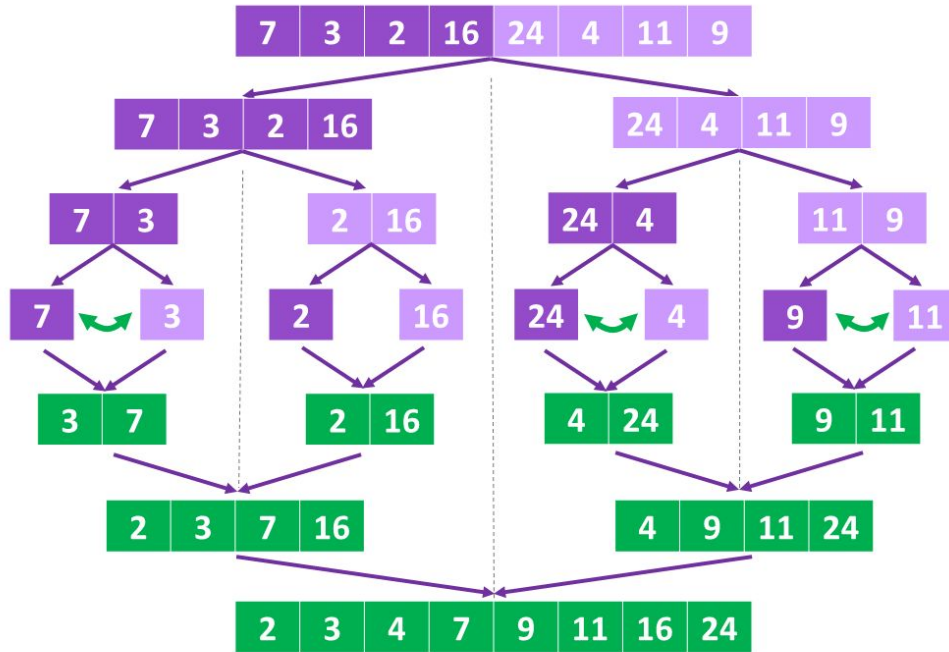
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

- Given the array A of length n
- Steps:
 - Divide A into two smaller array of length $n / 2$
 - Sort each of them recursively with merge sort
 - Combine the two sorted array into one array
- Base case:
 - When $n = 1$, no sorting is needed.
 - When $n = 2$, easy comparison with an if statement (You can choose to just recur to $n = 1$)



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

Merge Sort



Step 1:
Split sub-lists in
two until you
reach pair of
values.

Step 3:
Sort/swap pair
of values if
needed.

Step 4:
Merge and sort
sub-lists and
repeat process
till you merge to
the full list.

Image Source:

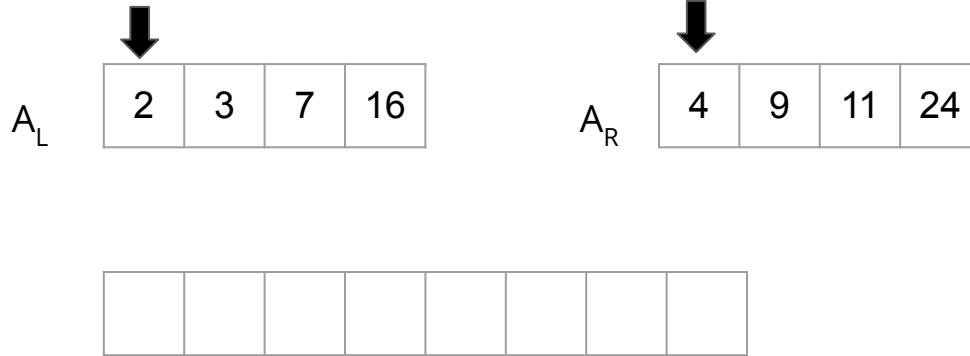
<https://www.101computing.net/merge-sort-algorithm/>

Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

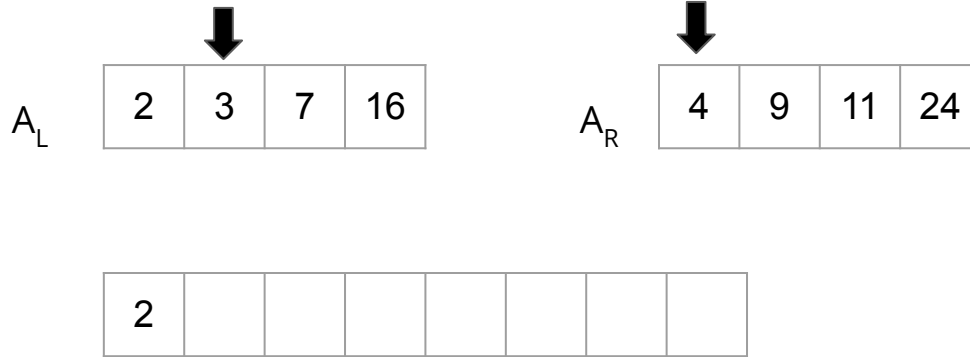
- How can we merge the two sorted array?
- Let i be the pointer for the first array A_L
- And j be the pointer for the second array A_R
- Compare $A_L[i]$ and $A_R[j]$
- If $A_L[i] \leq A_R[j]$, put $A_L[i]$ into the back of the combined array, increment i
- Else put $A_R[j]$ into the back of the combined array, increment j
- Until either we exhaust all element in A_L or A_R , put all the remaining elements in the other array to the combined array directly



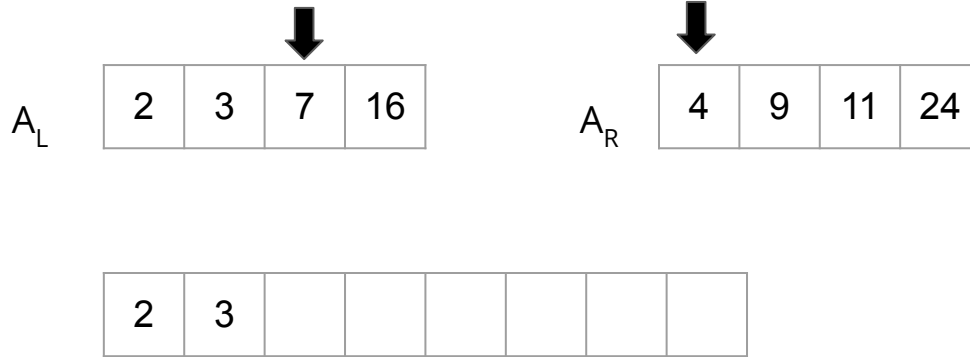
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



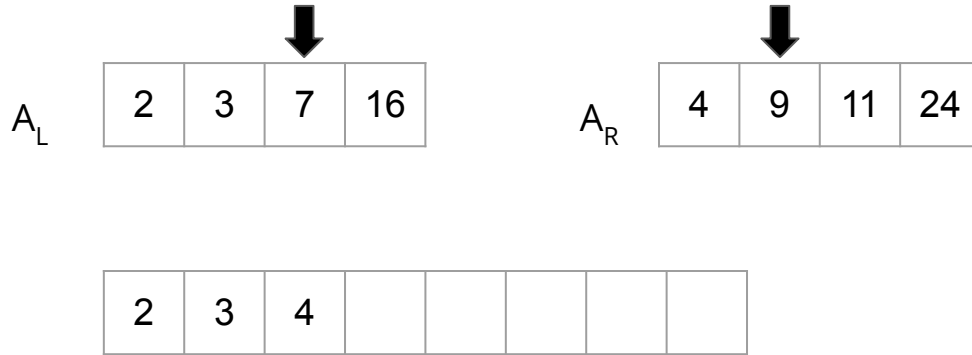
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



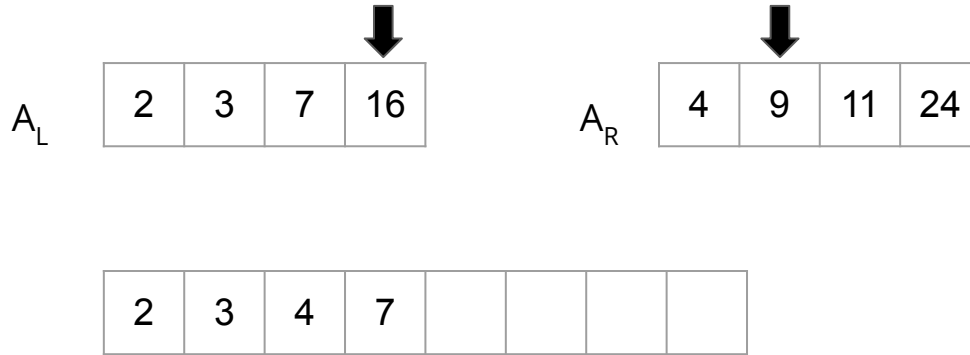
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



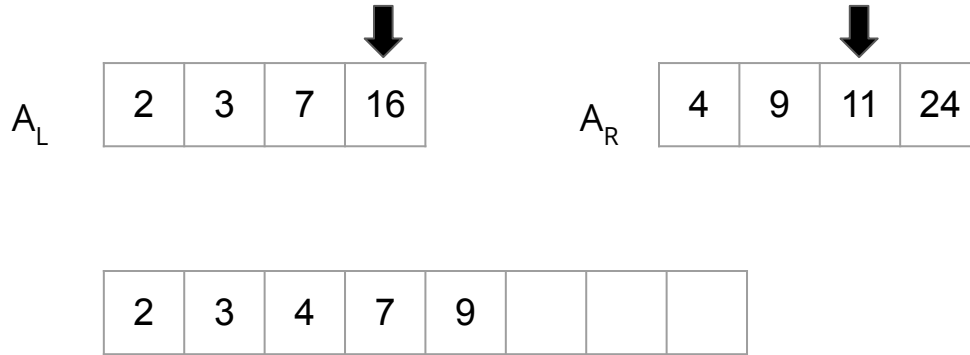
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



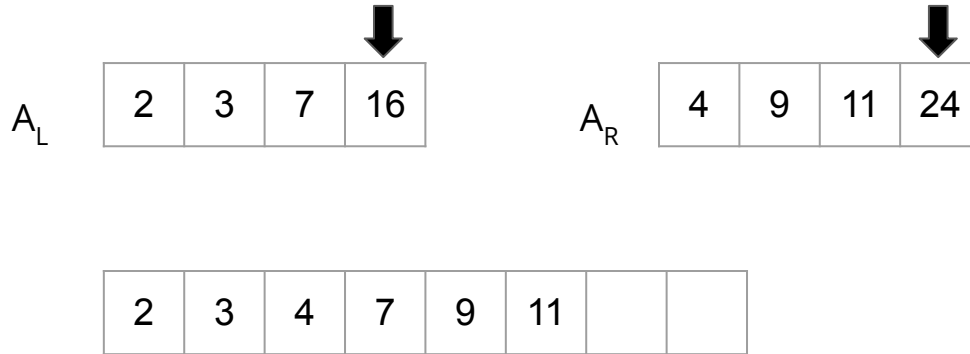
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



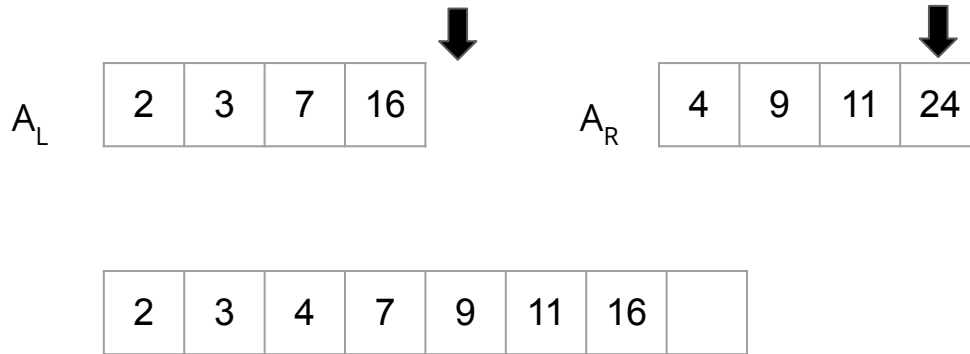
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



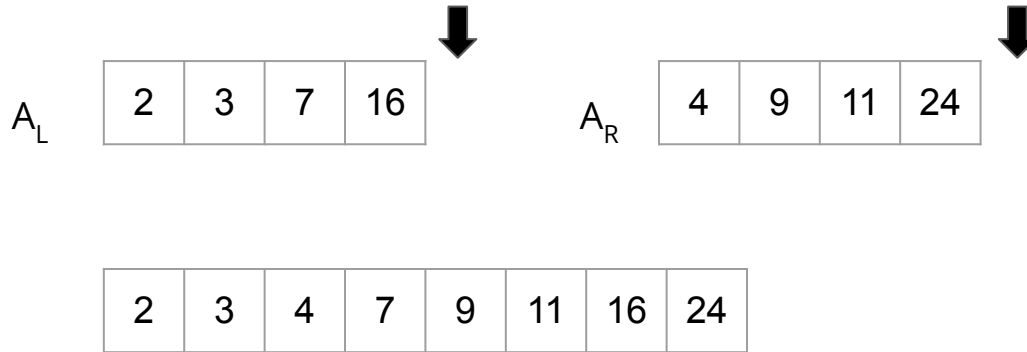
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

- At each step we divide each problem $F(n)$ into 2 sub-problems $F(n / 2)$
- Combining the solutions takes $O(n)$
- $T(n) = 2T(n / 2) + O(n)$
- $a = 2, b = 2, d = 1, \log_b a = 1$
- $d = \log_b a$
- $T(n) = O(n^d \log n) = O(n \log n)$



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

Code:

a is the original array

r is the temporary array

s is the starting position

t is the ending position

```
int a[2000005], r[2000005];
void mergesort(int s, int t) {
    if (s == t)
        return;
    int mid = (s + t) / 2;
    mergesort(s, mid);
    mergesort(mid + 1, t);
    int i = s, j = mid + 1, k = s;
    while (i <= mid && j <= t)
        if (a[i] <= a[j])
            r[k] = a[i], k++, i++;
        else
            r[k] = a[j], k++, j++;
    while (i <= mid)
        r[k] = a[i], k++, i++;
    while (j <= t)
        r[k] = a[j], k++, j++;
    for (int i = s; i <= t; i++)
        a[i] = r[i];
}
```



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

- Number of inversion of an array of size n is defined as:
- The number of pair (i, j) such that $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ and $a[i] > a[j]$
- e.g. $A = [1, 8, 6, 5]$
- The inversions are $(2, 3)$, $(2, 4)$ and $(3, 4)$
- Note that they are indices

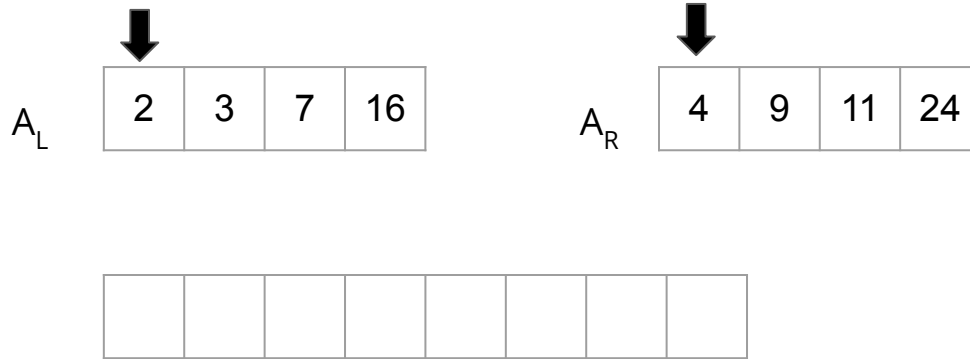


Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

- We can count this number naively using nested for-loop
- Time complexity: $O(n^2)$
- Too slow
- Instead we can modify our merge sort to count this number much faster



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

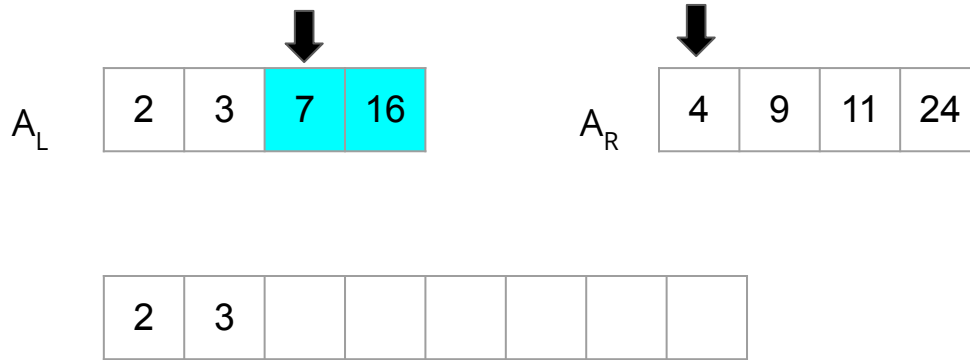


Note that element in A_L is always on the left of A_R .

If at some point $A_L[i] > A_R[j]$, there is an inversion.

Not only one inversion, but actually all elements after $A_L[i]$ including itself are inversions with $A_R[j]$

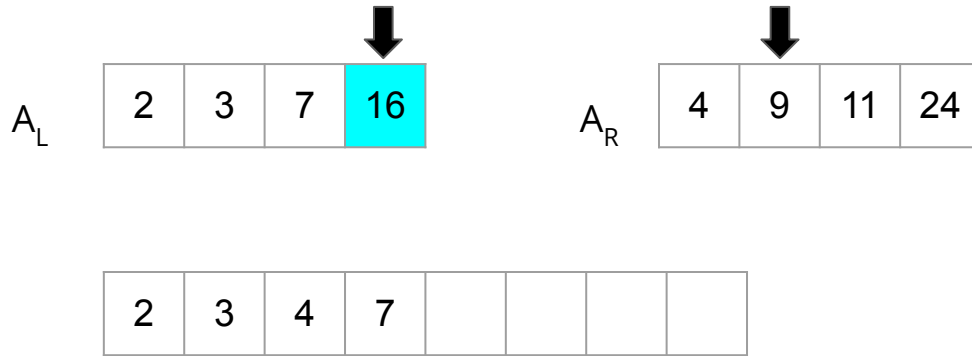
Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



of Inversion: 2

Here we encounter the first inversion, there are two elements after.

Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions



of Inversion: 3

Here we encounter the second inversion, there are only one element after.

Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

- During the merging process we can count no. of inversions directly in $O(1)$
- Doing a merge sort takes $O(n \log n)$
- So counting no. of inversions also takes $O(n \log n)$



Example – Merge sort & no. of inversions

Code:

invcnt = # of inversions

Beware that maximum # of
inversions = $n * (n + 1) / 2$

Use **long long** if needed!



```
int a[2000005], r[2000005];
ll invcnt = 0;
void mergesort(int s, int t) {
    if (s == t)
        return;
    int mid = (s + t) / 2;
    mergesort(s, mid);
    mergesort(mid + 1, t);
    int i = s, j = mid + 1, k = s;
    while (i <= mid && j <= t)
        if (a[i] <= a[j])
            r[k] = a[i], k++, i++;
        else
            invcnt += 1LL * mid - i + 1, r[k] = a[j], k++, j++;
    while (i <= mid)
        r[k] = a[i], k++, i++;
    while (j <= t)
        r[k] = a[j], k++, j++;
    for (int i = s; i <= t; i++)
        a[i] = r[i];
}
```

Practice problem

- 01003 L-pieces
- 01046 One-Step Tower of Hanoi
- 01047 Partially Solved Tower of Hanoi
- M0713 Cream Soda
- J173 Fibonacci Word
- S134 Unfair Santa Claus
- S163 Arithmetic Sequence



Summary

- Recursion is very useful
- Try to write brute force solutions or exhaustion to find patterns and insights
- At least do the brute force subtasks of each questions (if any)
- Divide and Conquer appears a lot in data structures, e.g. Segment Tree
- Recursion also appears a lot in common algorithms, e.g. DFS
- Code more and practice more :)

