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Contest (1)

```
template.cpp44 lines
// #pragma GCC optimize("O3,unroll-loops")
// #pragma GCC target("avx2,bmi,bmi2,lzcnt,popcnt")
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;
#define sws cin.tie(0)->sync_with_stdio(0)

typedef long long ll;
typedef long double ld;
#define endl '\n'
#define pb push_back
#define ff first
#define ss second
#define pll pair<ll, ll>
#define vll vector<ll>

#define teto(a, b) (((a)+(b)-1)/(b))
#define LSB(i) ((i) & -(i))
#define MSB(i) (63 - __builtin_clzll(i))
#define BITS(i) __builtin_popcountll(i)

template<class A, class B> auto& operator<<(ostream &os, pair<A
, B> p) {
    return os << '{' << p.ff << ", " << p.ss << '}' ; }
template<class... A>void db(A ...a) {((cerr<<"{"<a<<" " ),
...); cerr<<endl;}
template<class A>void db2(A a) {for(auto b:a) {cerr<<b<<" ";}
    cerr<<endl;}
template<class A>void db3(A a) {for(auto b:a) db2(b);}
#define dbg(...) {cerr << #__VA_ARGS__ << ": "; db(__VA_ARGS__)
; }
#define deb(a) {cerr << #a << ": "; db2(a); }
#define debug(a) {cerr << #a << ": " << endl; db3(a); }

const ll MAX = 2e5+10;
const ll MOD = 998'244'353;
const ll INF = 1e18; // INT32_MAX
const ld EPS = 1e-7;
const ld PI = acos(-1);

#include <chrono>
using namespace std::chrono;
```

```
int32_t main(){ sws;
    auto start = high_resolution_clock::now();
    // function to be timed here
    auto stop = high_resolution_clock::now();
    auto duration = duration_cast<milliseconds>(stop - start);
    cout << duration.count() << endl;
}

.bashrc1 lines
alias comp='g++ -std=c++17 -O2 -g3 -ggdb3 -fsanitize=address,
    undefined -Wall -Wextra -Wshadow -Wconversion -o test'

troubleshoot.txt52 lines
Pre-submit:
Write a few simple test cases if sample is not enough.
Are time limits close? If so, generate max cases.
Is the memory usage fine?
Could anything overflow?
Make sure to submit the right file.

Wrong answer:
Print your solution! Print debug output, as well.
Are you clearing all data structures between test cases?
Can your algorithm handle the whole range of input?
Read the full problem statement again.
Do you handle all corner cases correctly?
Have you understood the problem correctly?
Any uninitialized variables?
Any overflows?
Confusing N and M, i and j, etc.?
Are you sure your algorithm works?
What special cases have you not thought of?
Are you sure the STL functions you use work as you think?
Add some assertions, maybe resubmit.
Create some testcases to run your algorithm on.
Go through the algorithm for a simple case.
Go through this list again.
Explain your algorithm to a teammate.
Ask the teammate to look at your code.
Go for a small walk, e.g. to the toilet.
Is your output format correct? (including whitespace)
Rewrite your solution from the start or let a teammate do it.

Runtime error:
Have you tested all corner cases locally?
Any uninitialized variables?
Are you reading or writing outside the range of any vector?
Any assertions that might fail?
Any possible division by 0? (mod 0 for example)
Any possible infinite recursion?
Invalidated pointers or iterators?
Are you using too much memory?
Debug with resubmits (e.g. remapped signals, see Various).

Time limit exceeded:
Do you have any possible infinite loops?
What is the complexity of your algorithm?
Are you copying a lot of unnecessary data? (References)
How big is the input and output? (consider scanf)
Avoid vector, map. (use arrays/unordered_map)
What do your teammates think about your algorithm?

Memory limit exceeded:
What is the max amount of memory your algorithm should need?
Are you clearing all data structures between test cases?
```

Data structures (2)

2.1 Stack

An optimization for `std::stack` is to use a `std::vector` as the container, instead of `std::deque` !

```
stack<int, vector<int>>> st;

A stack can be used to efficiently solve the maximum rectangle in
a histogram problem:

max-rectangle-histogram.cpp
Description: solves the problem of finding the maximum rectangle area in
a grid setting (different widths, different heights)
Time: O(nm)461370, 54 lines

// Example Problem: You are given a map of a forest where some
squares are empty and some squares have trees.
// What is the maximum area of a rectangular building that can
be placed in the forest so that no trees must be cut down?

ll maxRectangleHistogram(vector<ll> x) { // O(n)

    // add an end point with heigth 0 to compute the last
rectangles
    x.pb(0);

    ll area = 0;
    ll n = x.size();
    stack<pll, vector<pll>>> st; // {maxLeft, height for this
rectangle}

    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
        ll h = x[i];
        ll maxLeft = i;

        while(!st.empty() and st.top().ss >= h) {
            auto [maxLeft2, h2] = st.top(); st.pop();

            // compute the area of the de-stacked rectangle
            area = max(area, (i-maxLeft2)*h2 );

            // extend current rectangle width with previous
            maxLeft = maxLeft2;
        }

        st.push({maxLeft, h});
    }

    return area;
}

int32_t main(){ sws;
    ll n, m; cin >> n >> m;

    vector<vector<ll>>> grid(n, vector<ll>(m));

    // convert the problem into N histogram subproblems, O(n m)
    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
        for(ll j=0; j<m; j++) {
            char c; cin >> c;
            if (c == '*') grid[i][j] = 0;
            else if (i == 0) grid[i][j] = 1;
            else grid[i][j] = grid[i-1][j] + 1;
        }
    }

    ll area = 0;
```

```
for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
    area = max(area, maxRectangleHistogram(grid[i]));
}

cout << area << endl;
}
```

Also can be used to solve the maximum rectangle in a grid, with some blocked spots:

max-rectangle-grid.cpp

Description: solves the problem of finding the maximum rectangle area in a histogram setting (same bottom, different heights).

Time: $\mathcal{O}(n)$

8610da, 38 lines

// Example Problem: A fence consists of n vertical boards. The width of each board is 1 and their heights may vary. You want to attach a rectangular advertisement to the fence. What is the maximum area of such an advertisement?

```
11 maxRectangleHistogram(vector<ll> x) { // O(n)

    // add an end point with heighh 0 to compute the last
    // rectangles
    x.pb(0);

    ll area = 0;
    ll n = x.size();
    stack<pll, vector<pll>> st; // {maxLeft, height for this
    // rectangle}

    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
        ll h = x[i];
        ll maxLeft = i;

        while(!st.empty() and st.top().ss >= h) {
            auto [maxLeft2, h2] = st.top(); st.pop();

            // compute the area of the de-stacked rectangle
            area = max(area, (i-maxLeft2)*h2 );

            // extend current rectangle width with previous
            maxLeft = maxLeft2;
        }

        st.push({maxLeft, h});
    }

    return area;
}
```

```
int32_t main(){ sws;
    ll n; cin >> n;
    vector<ll> x;
    for(ll i=0, a; i<n; i++) cin >> a, x.pb(a);
    cout << maxRectangleHistogram(x) << endl;
}
```

2.2 List

`std::list` is a container that supports constant time insertion and removal of elements from anywhere in the container.

Adding, removing and moving the elements within the list or across several lists does not invalidate the iterators or references. An iterator is invalidated only when the corresponding element is deleted.

Element Access: $\mathcal{O}(1)$

- `list.back()`
- `list.front()`

Modifiers: $\mathcal{O}(1)$

- `list.insert(itr, val)` inserts val before itr and returns an itr to the inserted value
- `list.erase(itr)` erases the element referenced by itr and returns the itr for the next value (or .end())
- `list.push_back(val)`
- `list.pop_back(val)`
- `list.push_front(val)`
- `list.pop_back(val)`

2.3 Ordered Set

Policy Based Data Structures (PBDS) from gcc compiler

Ordered Multiset can be created using `ordered_set<pll>val, idx`

`order_of_key()` can search for non-existent keys!

`find_by_order()` requires existent key and return the 0-idx position of the given value. Therefore, it returns the numbers of elements that are smaller than the given value;

ordered-set.cpp

Description: Set with index operators, implemented by gnu pbds. Remember to compile with gcc!!

Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$ but with slow constant

<bits/extc++.h>, <bits/extc++.h>8578e5, 11 lines

```
// 0-idx
// find_by_order(i) -> iterator to elem with index i
// order_of_key(val) -> index of key
```

```
// Ordered Set
using namespace __gnu_pbds;
template <class T> using ordered_set = tree<T, null_type, less<
    T>, rb_tree_tag, tree_order_statistics_node_update>;
```

```
// Ordered Map
using namespace __gnu_pbds;
template <class K, class V> using ordered_map = tree<K, V, less<
    K>, rb_tree_tag, tree_order_statistics_node_update>;
```

2.3.1 Pyramid Array min-cost

You are given an array consisting of n integers. On each move, you can swap any two adjacent values. You want to transform the array into a pyramid array. This means that the final array has to be first increasing and then decreasing. It is also allowed that the final array is only increasing or decreasing. What is the minimum number of moves needed?

pyramid-array.cpp

Description: algorithm to find the min-cost of sorting an array in a pyramid order

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$, or $\mathcal{O}(N \log^2(N))$ if iterating the map directly

1651d7, 25 lines

```
int32_t main() { sws;
    ll n; cin >> n;
    map<ll, vll> freq;
    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
        ll val; cin >> val;
        freq[val].pb(i);
    }
    ordered_set<ll> os; // os with indexes of greater processed
    // elements
    ll ans = 0;
    // iterate from greater values to lesser one.
    // for each element,
    // consider inserting it to the left of all greater
    // elements
    // or to the right of all greater elements
    for(auto itr = freq.rbegin(); itr != freq.rend(); itr++) {
        auto [val, vec] = *itr;
        for(auto idx : vec) {
            ll pos = os.order_of_key({idx});
            ll left_cost = pos;
            ll right_cost = (ll)os.size() - pos;
            ans += min(left_cost, right_cost);
        }
        for(auto idx : vec) os.insert(idx);
    }
    cout << ans << endl;
}
```

2.4 Interval Set

interval-set.cpp

Description: A map that contains closed [l, r] interval which are disjoint (no intersection). This set is ordered and each interval [l1, r1] < [l2, r2] has r1 < l2. When a new interval is added, it checks which intersections will occur and rearranges the intervals.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(Q \log(N))$ per insertion, slow constant

e36c5e, 22 lines

```
// keeps track of disjoint closed intervals [l, r]
// a new interval added may replace parts of an older one
struct IntervalSet {
    map<pair<ll, ll>, ll> interval;
    void add(ll a, ll b, ll val) {
        // remove intervals [l, r] with intersection with [a, b]
        while(interval.upper_bound({b, INF}) != interval.begin()
            ()) {
            auto itr = prev(interval.upper_bound({b, INF}));
            auto [l, r] = itr->first;
            auto k = itr->second;
            if (r < a) break;
            interval.erase(itr);
            if (l <= a-1) {
                interval[{l, a-1}] = k;
            }
            if (b+1 <= r) {
                interval[{b+1, r}] = k;
            }
        }
        interval[{a, b}] = val;
    }
};
```

2.5 Disjoint Set Union

There are two optional improvements:

- Tree Balancing
- Path Compression

If one improvement is used, the time complexity will become $O(\log N)$

If both are used, $O(\alpha) \approx O(5)$

In addition, the **rollback operation** may be implemented, but it requires to exclude *path compression* optimization.

dsu.cpp
Description: Disjoint Set Union with path compression and tree balancing
Time: $O(\alpha)$

```
467ae9, 21 lines
struct DSU {
    vector<ll> group, card;

    DSU (ll n) : group(n+1), card(n+1, 1) { // 1-idx
        iota(group.begin(), group.end(), 0);
    }

    ll find(ll i) {
        return (i == group[i]) ? i : (group[i] = find(group[i]));
    }

    // returns false if a and b are already in the same component
    bool join(ll a, ll b) {
        a = find(a), b = find(b);
        if (a == b) return false;
        if (card[a] < card[b]) swap(a, b);
        card[a] += card[b];
        group[b] = a;
        return true;
    }
};
```

dsu-rollback.cpp
Description: Disjoint Set Union with snapshot, tree balancing and WITH-OUT path compression
Time: $O(\log n)$

```
8138ce, 40 lines
// with rollback and numbers of comps
// without path compression, therefore O(log n)
struct DSU {
    vector<ll> group, card;
    vector<pair<ll &, ll>> history;
    ll comps;

    DSU (ll n) : group(n+1), card(n+1, 1) { // 1-idx
        iota(group.begin(), group.end(), 0);
        comps = n; // don't include 0
    }

    ll find(ll i){
        return (i == group[i]) ? i : find(group[i]);
    }

    void join(ll a ,ll b){
        a = find(a), b = find(b);
        if (a == b) return;

        if (card[a] < card[b]) swap(a, b);

        history.pb({card[a], card[a]});
        history.pb({group[b], group[b]});
```

```
history.pb({comps, comps});

    comps -= 1;
    card[a] += card[b];
    group[b] = a;
}

ll snapshot() { return history.size(); }

void rollback(ll until) { // restore to snapshot == until
    while(snapshot() > until) {
        history.back().ff = history.back().ss;
        history.pop_back();
    }
}
```

2.5.1 Dynamic Connectivity

Consider an undirected graph that consists of n nodes and m edges. There are two types of events that can happen:

- A new edge is created between nodes a and b.
- An existing edge between nodes a and b is removed.

Your task is to report the number of components after every event (and before all events).

query-tree.cpp
Description: All queries have an active intervals, build a tree to store these queries and iterate it in dfs order with rollbacks. The code below solves the specific problem of Dynamic Connectivity.
Time: $O(n \log^2(n))$

```
32b252, 97 lines
// include struct DSU {} (with rollback)

ll L=0, R;
struct QueryTree {
    struct Query {
        ll l, r; // this ranges is active in [l, r]
        ll u, v; // edge {u, v} will be merged in DSU
    };

    // each node is a vector of queries
    vector<vector<Query>> tree;

    QueryTree(ll n) {
        R = n;
        tree.assign(4*n + 10, {});
    }

    // l, r (tree); left, right (query)
    void add(Query q, ll l=L, ll r=R, ll i=1) {
        auto [left, right] = tie(q.l, q.r);

        if (right < l or r < left) return;

        if (left <= l and r <= right) {
            tree[i].pb(q);
            return;
        }

        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        add(q, l, mid, 2*i);
        add(q, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
    }
```

```
void dfs(DSU &dsu, vector<ll> &ans, ll i = 1, ll l=L, ll r=
    R) {
    ll snap = dsu.snapshot();

    for(auto &q : tree[i]) {
        dsu.join(q.u, q.v);
    }

    if (l == r) { // leaf
        ans[l] = dsu.comps;
    }
    else {
        ll mid = (l + r)/2;
        dfs(dsu, ans, 2*i, l, mid);
        dfs(dsu, ans, 2*i + 1, mid+1, r);
    }

    // rollback
    dsu.rollback(snap);
}

};

int32_t main(){ sws;
    ll n, m, k; cin >> n >> m >> k;

    QueryTree tree(k);
    map<pll, pll> queries;

    for(ll i=0; i<m; i++) { // time = 0
        ll u, v; cin >> u >> v;
        if (u > v) swap(u, v);
        queries[{u, v}] = {0, k};
    }

    for(ll t=1; t<=k; t++) {
        ll op, u, v; cin >> op >> u >> v;
        if (u > v) swap(u, v);
        if (op == 1) {
            queries[{u, v}] = {t, k};
        }
        else {
            queries[{u, v}].ss = t-1;
            QueryTree::Query q;
            tie(q.l, q.r) = queries[{u, v}];
            tie(q.u, q.v) = {u, v};
            tree.add(q);
            queries.erase({u, v});
        }
    }

    for(auto [key, range] : queries) {
        QueryTree::Query q;
        tie(q.l, q.r) = range;
        tie(q.u, q.v) = key;
        tree.add(q);
    }

    vector<ll> ans(k+1);
    DSU dsu(n);
    tree.dfs(dsu, ans);

    for(auto val : ans)
        cout << val << " ";
    cout << endl;
}
```

2.6 Trie

Also called a **digital tree** or **prefix tree**.

trie.cpp

Description: Creates a trie by pre-allocating the trie array, which contains the indices for the child nodes. The trie can be easily modified to support alphanumeric strings instead of binary strings.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(D)$, D = depth of trie

9477aa, 21 lines

```
const ll alphabet = 26;
```

```
struct Trie {
    vector<vll> t;
    vector<ll> vec; // some important value, ex: is a word
                    // terminal node
    ll idx = 1;

    // n = maximum number of nodes to be created = SUM(str.
    // lengths)
    Trie(ll n) : t(n, vll(alphabet, 0)), vec(n, 0) {}

    void add(string s) { // O(Depth)
        ll node = 0;
        for(auto c : s) {
            if(t[node][c-'a'] == 0) { // create new node
                t[node][c-'a'] = idx++;
            }
            node = t[node][c-'a'];
        }
        vec[node]++;
    }
};
```

2.7 Sparse Table

There are two requisites for using sparse tables:

- **Immutability** on the array.
- **Associative** property on the operator.

And for the $\mathcal{O}(1)$ complexity, the operator also has to have the **Idempotence** property (overlap friendly/agnostic). Meaning that when considering $f([a, c], f[b, d])$, it has the same value as $f([a, d])$ even though there is an overlap in $[b, c]$.
($a \leq b \leq c \leq d$).

Associative Operators:

sum, product, xor, concatenation, union

Associative and Idempotent Operators:

min, max, gcd, lcm, and, or, intersection

sparse-table.cpp

Description: By precomputing for each position and each power of two the value of a range, Answer quickly any query.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ for precomputing, $\mathcal{O}(1)$ or $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ per query

c21bf3, 52 lines

```
// computes the MSB = the floor of log2(i) in O(1)
// MSB(0) = -1
#define MSB(i) (64 - 1 - __builtin_clzll(i))
```

```
template<class T>
struct SparseTable {
```

```
    // the function must be associative !!!
    T f(T a, T b) {
        return min(a, b);
    }
};
```

```
ll n, m;
vector<vector<T>> st; // st[j][i] covers range [i, i+2^j)

// 0-idx: [0, n)
SparseTable(vector<T> &v) : n(v.size()), st({v}) {
    m = MSB(n);

    for(ll k=1; k<=m; k++) {
        st.emplace_back(n);
        for(ll i=0; i + (1LL << k) <= n; i++) {
            st[k][i] = f(
                st[k-1][i],
                st[k-1][i + (1LL << (k-1))]
            );
        }
    }

    // constant query for functions with Idempotence (overlap friendly)
    T query(ll l, ll r) { // query for [l, r] in O(1)
        if (l == r) return st[0][l];
        ll k = MSB(r-l+1);
        return f(
            st[k][l],
            st[k][r - (1LL << k) + 1]
        );
    }

    // logarithmic query for functions without Idempotence
    T query(ll l, ll r) { // query for [l, r] in O(log)
        T ans = {}; // define the correct default null value here
        for(ll k=m; k>=0; k--) {
            if ((1LL << k) <= (r-l+1)) {
                ans = f(ans, st[k][l]);
                l += 1LL << k;
            }
        }
        return ans;
    }
};
```

2.8 Fenwick Tree

Also called **Binary Indexed Tree (BIT)**.

Observation: BIT cannot support min/max queries, because it's mandatory to have an inverse operation.

Let's define $g(i)$ as the number acquired after removing the $LSB(i)$ from i :

$$g(i) = i - LSB(i) = i - (i \& (-i))$$

Then, each value of the **Bit vector** will be responsible to store the range value of the interval:

$$(g(i), i]$$

Therefore, to retrieve the value in an arbitrary range $[1, x]$, it's only necessary to merge:

$$Bit[i] + Bit[g(i)] + Bit[g(g(i))] + \dots + Bit[last], last \geq 1$$

In the **1-Indexed implementation**, $Bit[0]$ is undefined and not used.

fenwick-tree.cpp

Description: Simple 1D Fenwick Tree with point increase, range sum query. 1-idx

Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ to add, get psum, or range sum query

f6b1d5, 26 lines

```
// 1-idx, vector covers [1, n]
struct FT {
    ll n;
    vector<ll> bit;

    FT(ll sz) : n(sz), bit(sz+1, 0) {}

    // add delta to position pos
    void add(ll pos, ll delta) { // O(log(n))
        for (; pos <= n; pos += pos & -pos)
            bit[pos] += delta;
    }

    // get prefix sum of [1, pos]
    ll sum(ll pos) { // O(log(n))
        ll ans = 0;
        for (; pos >= 1; pos -= pos & -pos)
            ans += bit[pos];
        return ans;
    }

    // query the sum of range [l, r]
    ll query(ll l, ll r) { // O(log(n))
        return sum(r) - sum(l - 1);
    }
};
```

fenwick-tree-2D.cpp

Description: Simple 2D Fenwick Tree with point increase, 2D range sum query. 1-idx

Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log(n) \cdot \log(m))$ to add, get psum, or range sum query

9e6e9a, 28 lines

```
// 1-idx, cover the grid of rows [1, n] and columns [1, m]
struct FT2D {
    ll n, m;
    vector<vll> bit;

    FT2D(ll nn, ll mm) : n(nn), m(mm) {
        bit.assign(n+1, vll(m+1, 0));
    }

    void add(ll x, ll y, ll delta) { // O(log(n)*log(m))
        for(ll i=x; i<=n; i += i & -i)
            for(ll j=y; j<=m; j += j & -j)
                bit[i][j] += delta;
    }

    ll sum(ll x, ll y) { // O(log(n)*log(m))
        ll ans = 0;
        for(ll i=x; i>=1; i -= i & -i)
            for(ll j=y; j>=1; j -= j & -j)
                ans += bit[i][j];
        return ans;
    }

    ll query(ll x1, ll y1, ll x2, ll y2) { // O(log(n)*log(m))

```

```

        x1--; y1--; // to make point {x1, y1} inclusive
        return sum(x2, y2) - sum(x2, y1) - sum(x1, y2) + sum(x1
            , y1);
    }
};

```

2.9 Segment Trees

Each node of the segment tree represents the cumulative value of a range.

Observation: For some problems, such as range distinct values query, consider *offline approach*, ordering the queries by L for example.

Implementation Observation:

- $[a, b]$ are the range limits for the query;
- $[l, r]$ are the internal range variables of the tree;

2.9.1 Recursive SegTree

seg-recursive-sum.cpp

Description: Basic Recursive Segment Tree for points increase and range sum query. When initializing, choose an appropriate value for $n = R$ and call build()

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$ to build, $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$ to increase or query 3b0763, 84 lines

// $[0, n]$ segtree for range sum query, point increase

```

struct Segtree {
    struct Node {
        // correctly initialize default null values:
        ll sum = 0;
    };

    ll L=0, R;
    vector<ll> v;
    vector<Node> t; // tree

    Segtree(ll n) : R(n), v(n+1), t(4*(n+1)) {}

    Node merge(Node a, Node b) {
        return Node {
            // merge operation:
            a.sum + b.sum
        };
    }
}

```

```

void build(ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    if (l == r) {
        t[i] = Node {
            // leaf element:
            v[l]
        };
        return;
    }
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    build(l, mid, 2*i);
    build(mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
    t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
}

void build() {
    build(L, R, 1);
}

```

```

void add(ll pos, ll inc, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    if (l == r) {
        // add operation:

```

```

        t[i].sum += inc;
        return;
    }
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    if (pos <= mid)
        add(pos, inc, l, mid, 2*i);
    else
        add(pos, inc, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
    t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
}

void add(ll pos, ll inc) {
    add(pos, inc, L, R, 1);
}

void assign(ll pos, ll val, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    if (l == r) {
        // assign operation:
        t[i].sum = val;
        return;
    }
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    if (pos <= mid)
        assign(pos, val, l, mid, 2*i);
    else
        assign(pos, val, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
    t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
}

void assign(ll pos, ll val) {
    assign(pos, val, L, R, 1);
}

Node query(ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    if (b < l or r < a) return Node{}; // default null value
    else if (a <= l and r <= b) return t[i];
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    return merge(
        query(a, b, l, mid, 2*i),
        query(a, b, mid+1, r, 2*i+1)
    );
}

Node query(ll a, ll b) {
    return query(a, b, L, R, 1);
}
};

```

seg-recursive-minmax.cpp

Description: Basic Recursive Segment tree for point update, range min/max query When initializing, choose an appropriate value for $(n = R)$ and call build()

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$ to build, $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$ to update or query 8cb53c, 69 lines

// $[0, n]$ segtree for point assignment update, range min/max query

```

struct Segtree {
    struct Node {
        // correctly initialize default null values:
        ll mn = INF, mx = -INF;
    };

    ll L=0, R;
    vector<ll> v;
    vector<Node> t;

    Segtree(ll n) : R(n), v(n+1), t(4*(n+1)) {}

    Node merge(Node a, Node b) {
        return Node {
            // merge operation:

```

```

            min(a.mn, b.mn),
            max(a.mx, b.mx)
        };
    };

    void build(ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (l == r) {
            t[i] = Node {
                // leaf element:
                v[l],
                v[l]
            };
            return;
        }
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        build(l, mid, 2*i);
        build(mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
        t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
    }

    void build() {
        build(L, R, 1);
    }

    void update(ll pos, ll val, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (l == r) {
            // update(assignment) operation:
            t[i].mn = t[i].mx = val;
            return;
        }
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        if (pos <= mid)
            update(pos, val, l, mid, 2*i);
        else
            update(pos, val, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
        t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
    }

    void update(ll pos, ll val) {
        update(pos, val, L, R, 1);
    }

    Node query(ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (b < l or r < a) return Node{}; // default null value
        else if (a <= l and r <= b) return t[i];
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        return merge(
            query(a, b, l, mid, 2*i),
            query(a, b, mid+1, r, 2*i+1)
        );
    }

    Node query(ll a, ll b) {
        return query(a, b, L, R, 1);
    }
};

```

S

2.9.2 Inverted Segtree

Instead of keeping the prefix sum for all the children in each node, store only the delta encoding value.

Therefore, to check a value in a certain position, iterate and sum all delta values from root to leaf.

seg-inverted.cpp

Description: Basic Inverted Segment tree for point query stored value, range increase When initializing, choose an appropriate value for $n=R$.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$ to build, $\mathcal{O}(\log N)$ to range increase or point query 43e1321, 64 lines

```
// [0, n] segtree for point query stored value, range increase
struct Segtree {
    struct Node {
        // correctly initialize default null values:
        ll sum = 0;
    };

    ll L=0, R;
    vector<ll> v;
    vector<Node> t;

    Segtree(ll n) : R(n), v(n+1), t(4*(n+1)) {}

    Node merge(Node a, Node b) {
        return Node {
            // merge operation:
            a.sum + b.sum
        };
    }

    void build(ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (l == r) {
            t[i] = Node {
                // leaf element:
                v[l]
            };
            return;
        }
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        build(l, mid, 2*i);
        build(mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
        t[i] = Node{};
    }
    void build() {
        build(L, R, 1);
    }

    void increase(ll inc, ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (b < l or r < a) return;
        else if (a <= l and r <= b) {
            // increase operation
            t[i].sum += inc;
            return;
        }
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        increase(inc, a, b, l, mid, 2*i);
        increase(inc, a, b, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
    }
    void increase(ll inc, ll a, ll b) {
        increase(inc, a, b, L, R, 1);
    }

    Node query(ll pos, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (l == r) return t[i];
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        if (pos <= mid)
            return merge(t[i], query(pos, l, mid, 2*i));
        else
            return merge(t[i], query(pos, mid+1, r, 2*i+1));
    }
    Node query(ll pos) {
        return query(pos, L, R, 1);
    }
};
```

2.9.3 Lazy Segtree

seg-lazy-sum.cpp

Description: Segtree with range sum query, range assignment update, range increase update.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ for each query, $\mathcal{O}(n \log(n))$ to build() 086cae, 101 lines

```
// [0, n] segtree for range sum query, range assignment update,
// range increase update.
struct SegtreeLazy {
    struct Node {
        // correctly initialize default null values:
        ll sum = 0;
    };

    ll L=0, R;
    vector<ll> v;
    vector<Node> t;
    vector<pll> lazy; // {val, type}
    // type = 0 (no pending update); type = 1 (increase); type
    // = 2 (assign)

    SegtreeLazy(ll n) : R(n), v(n+1), t(4*(n+1)), lazy(4*(n+1)) {}

    Node merge(Node a, Node b) {
        return Node{
            a.sum + b.sum
        };
    }

    void build(ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (l == r) {
            t[i] = Node{
                v[l]
            };
        }
        else {
            ll mid = (l+r)/2;
            build(l, mid, 2*i);
            build(mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
            t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
        }
        lazy[i] = {0, 0};
    }
    void build() {
        build(L, R, 1);
    }

    void push(ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (lazy[i].ss) {
            auto [val, type] = lazy[i];
            if (type == 1) { // increase type
                t[i].sum += val * (r-l+1);
            }
            else if (type == 2) { // assignment type
                t[i].sum = val * (r-l+1);
            }
        }
        if (l != r) { // push downwards
            for(auto j : {2*i, 2*i+1}) {
                auto &[val2, type2] = lazy[j];
                if (type2 == 0) { // child is empty => just
                    // replace
                    lazy[j] = lazy[i];
                }
                else if (type == type2) { // same type =>
                    // just push
                    if (type == 1) val2 += val;
                    else val2 = val;
                }
            }
        }
    }
```

```
        else if (type2 == 1 and type == 2) { //
            // increase then assign
            lazy[j] = lazy[i]; // just ignore past
            // increasing and only assign
        }
        else if (type2 == 2 and type == 1) { //
            // assign then increase
            val2 += val; // keep the assignment,
            // but increase it
        }
    }
    lazy[i] = {0, 0};
}

void update(ll val, ll type, ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r, ll i)
{
    push(l, r, i);
    if (b < l or r < a) return;
    else if (a <= l and r <= b) {
        lazy[i] = {val, type};
        push(l, r, i);
        return;
    }
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    update(val, type, a, b, l, mid, 2*i);
    update(val, type, a, b, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
    t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
}

void update(ll val, ll type, ll a, ll b) {
    update(val, type, a, b, L, R, 1);
}

Node query(ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    push(l, r, i);
    if (b < l or r < a) return Node{}; // default null
    // value
    else if (a <= l and r <= b) return t[i];
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    return merge(
        query(a, b, l, mid, 2*i),
        query(a, b, mid+1, r, 2*i+1)
    );
}

Node query(ll a, ll b) {
    return query(a, b, L, R, 1);
}
};
```

2.9.4 PA Segtree

seg-pa.cpp

Description: Seg with PA (Progressao Aritmetica / Arithmetic Progression) When initializing the segmente tree, remeber to choose a proper value for (n=R) and call build()

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$ to build, $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$ to increase or query 43d355, 93 lines

```
inline pll operator +(pll a, pll b) {
    return {a.ff + b.ff, a.ss + b.ss};
}

// [0, n] segtree for range sum query, range increase with PA
struct SegtreePA {
    struct Node {
        // correctly initialize default null values:
        ll sum = 0;
    };

    ll L=0, R;
```



```

vector<ll> v;
vector<Node> t;
vector<pll> lazy; // {x, y} of the expression: x*i + y
// PA: x = ratio, y = constant

SegtreePA(ll n) : R(n), v(n+1), t(4*(n+1)), lazy(4*(n+1)) {
}

Node merge(Node a, Node b) {
    return Node {
        // merge operation:
        a.sum + b.sum
    };
}

void build(ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    if (l == r) {
        t[i] = Node {
            // leaf element:
            v[l]
        };
    }
    else {
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        build(l, mid, 2*i);
        build(mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
        t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
    }
    lazy[i] = {0, 0};
}

void build() {
    build(L, R, 1);
}

void push(ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    auto [x, y] = lazy[i];
    if (x == 0 and y == 0) return;
    ll len = r-l+1;
    // (l_val + r_val) * len / 2
    Node val{ ((y + y + x*(len-1))*len) / 2 };
    t[i] = merge(t[i], val);
    if (l != r) {
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        lazy[2*i] = lazy[2*i] + lazy[i];
        lazy[2*i+1] = lazy[2*i+1] + pll{x, y + x*(mid-l+1)}
        ;
    }
    lazy[i] = {0, 0};
}

// PA: x = growth coefficient, y = constant
void increase(ll x, ll y, ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    push(l, r, i);
    if (b < l or r < a) return;
    else if (a <= l and r <= b) {
        lazy[i] = {x, y};
        push(l, r, i);
        return;
    }
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    increase(x, y, a, b, l, mid, 2*i);
    ll ny = y + max( x*( mid-max(a, l) + 1), 0LL);
    increase(x, ny, a, b, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
    t[i] = merge(t[2*i], t[2*i+1]);
}

void increase(ll x, ll y, ll a, ll b) {
    increase(x, y, a, b, L, R, 1);
}

```

```

Node query(ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
    push(l, r, i);
    if (b < l or r < a) return Node{}; // default null
    value
    else if (a <= l and r <= b) return t[i];
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    return merge(
        query(a, b, l, mid, 2*i),
        query(a, b, mid+1, r, 2*i+1)
    );
}

Node query(ll a, ll b) {
    return query(a, b, L, R, 1);
}
};

```

2.9.5 Persistent Segment Tree

seg-persistent.cpp

Description: Persistent Segment Tree, for range sum query, point assignment, point increase It will cause memory leak, but when the process ends, the memory will be released When initializing, choose an appropriate value for (n = R) and call build()

Memory: $\mathcal{O}((N + Q) \log(N))$

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$ to build, $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$ to update or query 7b6534, 133 lines

```

// [0, n] segtree for point assignment/increase update, range
sum query
struct Segtree {
    struct Node {
        Node *l, *r;

        ll sum = 0;

        Node(ll val) : l(NULL), r(NULL), sum(val) {}

        // merge operator
        Node(Node *a, Node *b) : l(a), r(b), sum(0) {
            if (l) sum += l->sum;
            if (r) sum += r->sum;
        }
    };

    ll L=0, R;
    vector<ll> v;

    Segtree(ll n) : R(n), v(n+1) {}

    Node* build(ll l, ll r) {
        if (l == r) return new Node(v[l]);
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        return new Node(build(l, mid), build(mid+1, r));
    }

    Node* build() {
        return build(L, R);
    }

    ll query(Node *node, ll a, ll b, ll l, ll r) {
        if (b < l or r < a) return 0; // null element
        else if (a <= l and r <= b) return node->sum;
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        return (
            query(node->l, a, b, l, mid) +
            query(node->r, a, b, mid+1, r)
        );
    }

    ll query(Node *node, ll a, ll b) {
        return query(node, a, b, L, R);
    }
}

```

```

Node* assignment(Node *node, ll pos, ll val, ll l, ll r) {
    if (l == r) return new Node(val);
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    if (pos <= mid) {
        return new Node(
            assignment(node->l, pos, val, l, mid),
            node->r
        );
    }
    else {
        return new Node(
            node->l,
            assignment(node->r, pos, val, mid+1, r)
        );
    }
}

Node* assignment(Node *node, ll pos, ll val) {
    return assignment(node, pos, val, L, R);
}

Node* increase(Node *node, ll pos, ll inc, ll l, ll r) {
    if (l == r) return new Node(node->sum + inc);
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    if (pos <= mid) {
        return new Node(
            increase(node->l, pos, inc, l, mid),
            node->r
        );
    }
    else {
        return new Node(
            node->l,
            increase(node->r, pos, inc, mid+1, r)
        );
    }
}

Node* increase(Node *node, ll pos, ll inc) {
    return increase(node, pos, inc, L, R);
}

// K-th element in range (a, b], *a and *b are roots
ll kth(Node *a, Node *b, ll k, ll l, ll r) {
    if (l == r) return l;
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    ll left_cnt = b->l->sum - a->l->sum;
    if (k <= left_cnt) {
        return kth(a->l, b->l, k, l, mid);
    }
    else {
        return kth(a->r, b->r, k-left_cnt, mid+1, r);
    }
}

ll kth(Node *a, Node *b, ll k) {
    return kth(a, b, k, L, R);
}

};

int32_t main() { sws;
    ll n, q; cin >> n >> q;

    vector<ll> x(n+1);

    set<ll> unique;
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
        cin >> x[i];
        unique.insert(x[i]);
    }

    map<ll, ll> compress, decompress;
}

```



```

11 idx = 1;
for(auto elem : unique) {
    decompress[idx] = elem;
    compress[elem] = idx++;
}

Segtree st(unique.size());

vector<Segtree::Node*> root;
root.pb( st.build() );

for(11 i=1; i<=n; i++) {
    auto ptr = st.increase(root.back(), compress[x[i]], 1);
    root.pb(ptr);
}

while(q--) {
    11 a, b, k; cin >> a >> b >> k;
    cout << decompress[ st.kth(root[a-1], root[b], k) ] << endl;
}
}

```

2.9.6 Sparse Segment Tree

seg-sparse.cpp

Description: Sparse Segment Tree, for range sum query, point point increase When initializing, choose an appropriate value for (n, q and mx)

Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$ to update or query

d7c034, 52 lines

```

// Sparse Segtree that covers [0, mx]
// n = initial vector size, q = number of queries
// point add update, range sum query
struct Segtree {
    struct Node {
        11 l = 0, r = 0;
        11 sum = 0;
    };

    // t[0]=null, t[1]=root
    11 idx = 2, L = 0, R;
    vector<Node> t;

    Segtree(11 mx, 11 n=1e6, 11 q=1e6) : R(mx), t((n+q+10)*__lg(2*n+10)) {}

    11 merge(11 a, 11 b) {
        return a + b;
    }

    void add(11 pos, 11 val, 11 l, 11 r, 11 i) {
        if (l == r) {
            t[i].sum += val;
            return;
        }
        11 mid = (l+r)/2;
        if (pos <= mid) {
            if (!t[i].l) t[i].l = idx++;
            add(pos, val, l, mid, t[i].l);
        }
        else {
            if (!t[i].r) t[i].r = idx++;
            add(pos, val, mid+1, r, t[i].r);
        }
        t[i].sum = merge(t[t[i].l].sum, t[t[i].r].sum);
    }

    void add(11 pos, 11 val) {
        add(pos, val, L, R, 1);
    }
}

```

```

11 query(11 a, 11 b, 11 l, 11 r, 11 i) {
    if (b < l or r < a) return 0;
    if (a <= l and r <= b) return t[i].sum;
    11 mid = (l+r)/2;
    11 ans1 = 0, ansr = 0;
    if (t[i].l) ans1 = query(a, b, l, mid, t[i].l);
    if (t[i].r) ansr = query(a, b, mid+1, r, t[i].r);
    return merge(ans1, ansr);
}

11 query(11 a, 11 b) {
    return query(a, b, L, R, 1);
}
}
};

```

2.10 Treap

treap.cpp

Description: Implicit Treap

Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ with high probability

84b3f3, 135 lines

```

mt19937 rng(chrono::steady_clock::now().time_since_epoch().count());

struct Treap { // Implicit 0-idx
    struct Node {
        Node *l = NULL, *r = NULL;
        11 val, p;
        11 sz, sum, lazy;
        bool rev = false;
        Node(11 v) : val(v), p(rng()) {
            sz = 1, sum = val, lazy = 0;
        }
        void push() {
            if (lazy) {
                val += lazy, sum += lazy*sz;
                if (l) l->lazy += lazy;
                if (r) r->lazy += lazy;
            }
            if (rev) {
                swap(l, r);
                if (l) l->rev ^= 1;
                if (r) r->rev ^= 1;
            }
            lazy = 0, rev = 0;
        }
        void update() {
            sz = 1, sum = val;
            for(auto x : {l, r}) {
                if (x) {
                    x->push();
                    sz += x->sz;
                    sum += x->sum;
                }
            }
        }
    };

    Node* root;

    Treap() { root = NULL; }

    // copy constructor to remind the user to not copy the treap object
    Treap(const Treap& t) {
        throw logic_error("Nao copiar a Treap!");
    }

    ~Treap() { // deconstructor
        vector<Node*> q = {root};
        while (q.size()) {

```

```

            Node* x = q.back(); q.pop_back();
            if (!x) continue;
            q.pb(x->l), q.pb(x->r);
            delete x;
        }
    }

    11 size(Node* x) { return x ? x->sz : 0; }
    11 size() { return size(root); } // maybe useless line of code

    // Supposes that l < r when merging
    void merge(Node* x, Node* l, Node* r) {
        if (!l or !r) return void(x = l ? l : r);
        l->push(), r->push();
        if (l->p > r->p) {
            merge(l->r, l->r, r);
            x = l;
        }
        else {
            merge(r->l, l, r->l);
            x = r;
        }
        x->update();
    }

    // split into [0, mid), [mid, n)
    // with size(left) = mid, size(right) = n-mid
    void split(Node* x, Node*& l, Node*& r, 11 mid) {
        if (!x) return void(r = l = NULL);
        x->push();
        if (size(x->l) < mid) {
            split(x->r, x->r, r, mid - size(x->l) - 1);
            l = x;
        }
        else {
            split(x->l, l, x->l, mid);
            r = x;
        }
        x->update();
    }

    // insert new element with val=v into the rightmost position
    void insert(11 v) {
        Node* x = new Node(v);
        merge(root, root, x);
    }

    // get the query value for [l, r]
    11 query(11 l, 11 r) {
        Node *L, *M, *R;
        split(root, M, R, r+1), split(M, L, M, l);
        11 ans = M->sum;
        merge(M, L, M), merge(root, M, R);
        return ans;
    }

    // increment value for [l, r] (not tested yet)
    void increment(11 l, 11 r, 11 s) {
        Node *L, *M, *R;
        split(root, M, R, r+1), split(M, L, M, l);
        M->lazy += s;
        merge(M, L, M), merge(root, M, R);
    }

    // reverses interval [l, r] to [r, l]
    void reverse(11 l, 11 r) {
        Node *L, *M, *R;

```

```

    split(root, M, R, r+1), split(M, L, M, 1);
    M->rev ^= 1;
    merge(M, L, M), merge(root, M, R);
}

// return in a vector all the elements in the treap, from
// left to right
void inOrder(Node *u, vector<ll> &vec) {
    if (!u) return;
    u->push();
    // in-order
    inOrder(u->l, vec);
    vec.pb(u->val);
    inOrder(u->r, vec);
}
vector<ll> get() {
    vector<ll> vec;
    inOrder(root, vec);
    return vec;
}
};

```

Dynamic Programming (3)

3.1 Longest Increasing Subsequence

If needed, the algorithm for LIS can be easily modified for the similar task of **Longest Non-Decreasing Subsequence**.

lis.cpp

Description: Computes the LIS size and also the auxiliar vector used to compute it. the LIS is STRICTLY INCREASING, but the given array can have duplicated values, the algorithm still works!

Time: $O(n \log n)$ 62b246, 29 lines

```

// returns {lis_size, vector<ll> mn[i] -> minimum last value of
// a LIS of size i}
pair<ll, vector<ll>> lis(vector<ll> x) {
    ll n = x.size();
    vector<ll> mn(n+1, INF); // mn[i] -> min value to achieve a
    // LIS with size i
    mn[0] = -INF;
    for(auto val : x) {
        // find first element greater or equal than val
        ll pos = lower_bound(mn.begin(), mn.end(), val) - mn.
        begin();
        mn[pos] = val;
    }
    ll sz = lower_bound(mn.begin(), mn.end(), INF) - mn.begin()
    - 1;
    return {sz, mn};
}

```

```

// alternative code from USACO (not tested, but should work and
// vector index is off by an offset of -1)
int find_lis(vector<int> a) {
    vector<int> dp;
    for (int i : a) {
        int pos = lower_bound(dp.begin(), dp.end(), i) - dp.begin()
        ;
        if (pos == dp.size()) {
            // we can have a new, longer increasing subsequence!
            dp.push_back(i);
        } else {
            // oh ok, at least we can make the ending element smaller
            dp[pos] = i;
        }
    }
}

```

```

    }
}
return dp.size();
}

```

3.2 Divide-Conquer Optimization

Some dynamic programming problems have a recurrence of this form:

$$dp[i][k] = \min_{1 \leq j \leq i} dp[j-1][k-1] + C(j, i)$$

Where $dp[i][k]$ is the *min cost* considering the element up to i with exactly k partitions.

Additionally, $C(j, i)$ is the cost of the partition $[j, i]$ and $dp[i][k] = 0$ when $k = 0$.

Say $1 \leq i \leq n$ (1-idx) and $1 \leq k \leq m$, and evaluating C takes $O(1)$ time. Then the straightforward evaluation of the above recurrence is $O(mn^2)$. There are $n \times m$ states, and n transitions for each state.

Let $opt(i, k)$ be the value of j that minimizes the above expression, $opt(i, k)$ is the optimal splitting point.

Assuming that the cost function satisfies the *quadrangle inequality* (“wider is worse”), we can show that $opt(i-1, k) \leq opt(i, k)$ for all i, k . This is known as the *monotonicity condition*. In other words, for a fixed k , the optimal splitting point $opt(i, k)$ increases as i increases.

This lets us solve for all states more efficiently. Say we computed $opt(i, k)$ for some fixed i and k . Then, for any $i' < i$, we know that $opt(i', k) \leq opt(i, k)$. This means when computing $opt(i', k)$, we don't have to consider as many splitting points!

To minimize the runtime, we use this property and apply the idea behind *divide and conquer* and call the functions to solve recursively. Compute the $opt(l, mid)$ and using this value, solve $opt(l, mid-1)$ and $opt(mid+1, r)$.

By recursively keeping track of the lower and upper bounds on opt , we reach a $O(n \log n)$ runtime per k . Each possible value of $opt(i, k)$ only appears in $\log n$ different nodes.

Problems that can be solved:

- **Subarray Squares:** *cost* = square of the sum in each partition.
- **Houses and Schools:** each partition has a school at the *right endpoint*, and the cost is the accumulated walking time for each house, split in the middle, each half walking to the closest school. Precomputed $dp[i][1]$ considers the left border only walking right. Finally, *ans* is computed with $dp[i][m]$ + walking left of the remaining right border.

divide-conquer-dp.cpp

Description: Optimize an $O(mn^2)$ dp to $O(mn \log(n))$ using divide and conquer. cost function must have the quadrangle inequality (“wider is worse”)

Time: $O(mn \log(n))$

05e712, 122 lines

```

// Subarray Squares
int32_t main() { sws;
    // n elements, m partitions
    ll n, m; cin >> n >> m;

    vector<ll> vec(n+1);
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
        cin >> vec[i];
    }

    vector<ll> ps(n+1, 0);
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
        ps[i] = ps[i-1] + vec[i];
    }

    // cost the partition [l, r]
    auto cost = [&](ll l, ll r) {
        ll sum = ps[r] - ps[l-1];
        return sum * sum;
    };

    // dp[i][k] -> min cost; i = considered prefix, k = number
    // of partitions
    // dp[i][k] = min{ dp[j-1][k-1] + cost([j, i]) }, j is the
    // splitting point
    vector<vector<ll>> dp(n+1, vector<ll>(m+1, 0));

    // O(n log(n))
    function<void(ll, ll, ll, ll, ll)> solve = [&](ll k, ll l,
        ll r, ll optl, ll optr) {
        if (r < l) return;

        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        dp[mid][k] = INF;
        ll opt = -1;

        for(ll j=optl; j<=min(mid, optr); j++) {
            ll val = dp[j-1][k-1] + cost(j, mid);
            if (val < dp[mid][k]) {
                dp[mid][k] = val;
                opt = j;
            }
        }

        solve(k, l, mid-1, optl, opt);
        solve(k, mid+1, r, opt, optr);
    };

    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) // one partition for all prefixes
        dp[i][1] = cost(1, i);

    for(ll k=2; k<=m; k++) { // compute the other [2, m]
        partitions
        solve(k, 1, n, 1, n);
    }

    cout << dp[n][m] << endl;
}

```

```

// Houses and Schools
int32_t main() { sws;
    ll n, m; cin >> n >> m;

```

```

vector<ll> vec(n+1);
for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
    cin >> vec[i];
}

vector<ll> ps(n+1, 0), psl(n+1, 0), psr(n+1, 0);
for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
    ps[i] = ps[i-1] + vec[i];
    psl[i] = psl[i-1] + vec[i] * i;
    psr[i] = psr[i-1] + vec[i] * (n-i+1);
}

auto walk_left = [&](ll l, ll r) { // [0, 1, 2, ...]
    return psl[r] - psl[l-1] - l * (ps[r] - ps[l-1]);
};

auto walk_right = [&](ll l, ll r) { // [..., 2, 1, 0]
    return psr[r] - psr[l-1] - (n-r+1) * (ps[r] - ps[l-1]);
};

auto cost = [&](ll l, ll r) { // [0, 1, 2, ..., 2, 1, 0]
    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    return walk_left(l, mid) + walk_right(mid+1, r);
};

// dp[i][k] -> min cost; i = considered prefix, k = number
// of partitions
// dp[i][k] = min{ dp[j-1][k-1] + cost([j, i]) }, j is the
// splitting point
vector<vector<ll>> dp(n+1, vector<ll>(m+1, 0));

// O(n log(n))
function<void>(ll, ll, ll, ll, ll)> solve = [&](ll k, ll l,
    ll r, ll optl, ll optr) {
    if (r < l) return;

    ll mid = (l+r)/2;
    dp[mid][k] = INF;
    ll opt = -1;

    for(ll j=optl; j<=min(mid, optr); j++) {
        ll val = dp[j][k-1] + cost(j, mid); // j and mid
        // have schools
        if (val < dp[mid][k]) {
            dp[mid][k] = val;
            opt = j;
        }
    }

    solve(k, l, mid-1, optl, opt);
    solve(k, mid+1, r, opt, optr);
};

for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) // one partition for all prefixes
    dp[i][1] = walk_right(1, i);

for(ll k=2; k<=m; k++) { // compute the other [2, m]
    // partitions
    solve(k, 1, n, 1, n);
}

ll ans = INF;
for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
    ans = min(ans, dp[i][m] + walk_left(i, n));
}

cout << ans << endl;
}

```

3.3 Knuth Optimization

Knuth's optimization, also known as the Knuth-Yao Speedup, is a special case of dynamic programming on ranges, that can optimize the time complexity of solutions by a linear factor, from $O(n^3)$ for standard range DP to $O(n^2)$.

3.3.1 Conditions

The Speedup is applied for transitions of the form:

$$dp(i, j) = \min_{i \leq k < j} [dp(i, k) + dp(k+1, j) + C(i, j)].$$

Similar to divide and conquer DP, let $opt(i, j)$ be the value of k that minimizes the expression in the transition (opt is referred to as the "optimal splitting point" further in this article). The optimization requires that the following holds:

$$opt(i, j-1) \leq opt(i, j) \leq opt(i+1, j).$$

We can show that it is true when the cost function C satisfies the following conditions for $a \leq b \leq c \leq d$:

$$C(b, c) \leq C(a, d);$$

$$C(a, c) + C(b, d) \leq C(a, d) + C(b, c) \text{ (the quadrangle inequality [Q])}.$$

A common cost function that satisfies the above condition is the **sum of the values in a subarray**.

knuth.cpp

Description: Optimize $O(n^3)$ to $O(n^2)$ dp with transitions of finding a optimal division point k for $[l, r]$.

Time: $O(n^2)$

```

// dp[l][r] (inclusive) -> min cost
// opt[l][r] (inclusive) -> optimal splitting point k in l<=k<=r
ll dp[MAX][MAX], opt[MAX][MAX];

ll knuth(vector<ll> &vec) {
    // vec indexed with 1-idx, vec[0] = 0
    ll n = vec.size() - 1;

    vector<ll> ps(n+1, 0);
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
        ps[i] = ps[i-1] + vec[i];
    }

    auto C = [&](ll l, ll r) {
        return ps[r] - ps[l-1];
    };

    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
        opt[i][i] = i;
    }

    for(ll l=n-1; l>=1; l--) {
        for(ll r=l+1; r<=n; r++) {
            ll mn = INF;
            ll cost = C(l, r);
            for(ll k=opt[l][r-1]; k<=min(r-1, opt[l+1][r]); k
                ++ ) {

```

```

                ll aux = dp[l][k] + dp[k+1][r] + cost;
                if (aux <= mn) {
                    mn = aux;
                    opt[l][r] = k;
                }
            }
            dp[l][r] = mn;
        }
    }

    return dp[1][n];
}

```

3.4 Slope Optimizations

3.4.1 Convex Hull Trick

If multiple transitions of the DP can be seen as first degree polynomials (lines). CHT can be used to optimized it

Some valid functions:

$$ax + b$$

$$cx^2 + ax + b \text{ (ignore } cx^2 \text{ if c is independent)}$$

cht-dynamic.cpp

Description: Dynamic version of CHT, therefore, one can insert lines in any order. There is no line removal operator

Time: $O(\log N)$ per query and per insertion

```

// Convex Hull Trick Dinamico
//
// Para float, use LLINF = 1/.0, div(a, b) = a/b
//
// update(x) atualiza o ponto de intersecao da reta x
// overlap(x) verifica se a reta x sobrepoe a proxima
// add(a, b) adiciona reta da forma ax + b
// query(x) computa maximo de ax + b para entre as retas
// se quiser computar o minimo, eh soh fazer (-a)x + (-b)
//
// O(log(n)) amortizado por insercao
// O(log(n)) por query

```

```

struct Line {
    mutable ll a, b, p;
    bool operator<(const Line& o) const { return a < o.a; }
    bool operator<(ll x) const { return p < x; }
};

```

```

struct DynamicCHT : multiset<Line, less<>> {
    ll div(ll a, ll b) {
        return a / b - ((a ^ b) < 0 and a % b);
    }

    void update(iterator x) {
        if (next(x) == end()) x->p = LLINF;
        else if (x->a == next(x)->a) x->p = x->b >= next(x)->b ?
            LLINF : -LLINF;
        else x->p = div(next(x)->b - x->b, x->a - next(x)->a);
    }
}

```

```

bool overlap(iterator x) {
    update(x);
    if (next(x) == end()) return 0;
    if (x->a == next(x)->a) return x->b >= next(x)->b;
    return x->p >= next(x)->p;
}

```

```

void add(ll a, ll b) {

```

```
auto x = insert({a, b, 0});
while (overlap(x)) erase(next(x)), update(x);
if (x != begin() and !overlap(prev(x))) x = prev(x), update(x);
while (x != begin() and overlap(prev(x))) x = prev(x), erase(next(x)), update(x);
}

ll query(ll x) {
    assert(!empty());
    auto l = *lower_bound(x);
    return l.a * x + l.b;
}
};
```

3.4.2 Li-chao Tree

Works for any type of function that has the **transcending property**:

Given two functions $f(x), g(x)$ of that type, if $f(t)$ is greater than/smaller than $g(t)$ for some $x = t$, then $f(x)$ will be greater than/smaller than $g(x)$ for $x > t$. In other words, once $f(x)$ “win/lose” $g(x)$, $f(x)$ will continue to “win/lose” $g(x)$.

The most common one is the line function: $ax + b$

Due to the segment tree structure, Li-Chao tree also supports adding line **segments**.

lichao.cpp
Description: Basic Li-chao tree implementation, in which every node in a segment tree contains the one needed line that has the min/max query
Time: $\mathcal{O}(\log N)$ for add-line(), query(); $\mathcal{O}(\log^2 N)$ for add-segment; N = max-value considered of X

c41630, 69 lines

```
// Lichao tree for minimum query
// to adapt to max query:
// +INF -> -INF
// min() -> max()
// '>' -> '<' in add_line()
struct Lichao {
    struct Line {
        ll a = 0, b = +INF; // ax + b
        ll operator()(ll x) {
            return a*x + b;
        }
    };

    ll L = 0, R;
    vector<ll> v;
    vector<Line> tree;

    Lichao(ll n) : R(n), v(n+1), tree(4*(n+1)) {}

    void add_line(Line line, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        if (tree[i](mid) > line(mid)) {
            swap(tree[i], line);
        }
        if (tree[i](l) > line(l)) {
            add_line(line, l, mid, 2*i);
        }
        if (tree[i](r) > line(r)) {
            add_line(line, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
        }
    }
    void add_line(Line line) {
```

```
        add_line(line, L, R, 1);
    }

    void add_segment(Line line, ll left, ll right, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        ll i) {
            if (left <= l and r <= right) {
                add_line(line, l, r, i);
                return;
            }
            ll mid = (l+r)/2;
            if (left <= mid) {
                add_segment(line, left, right, l, mid, 2*i);
            }
            if (mid < right) {
                add_segment(line, left, right, mid+1, r, 2*i+1);
            }
        }
    }
    void add_segment(Line line, ll left, ll right) {
        add_segment(line, left, right, L, R, 1);
    }

    ll query(ll x, ll l, ll r, ll i) {
        if (l == r) return tree[i](x);
        ll mid = (l+r)/2;
        ll ans = tree[i](x);

        if (x <= mid) {
            ans = min(ans, query(x, l, mid, 2*i));
        }
        else {
            ans = min(ans, query(x, mid+1, r, 2*i+1));
        }
        return ans;
    }
    ll query(ll x) {
        return query(x, L, R, 1);
    }
};
```

S
3.4.3 Slope Trick

You are given an array of n integers. You want to modify the array so that it is non-decreasing, i.e., every element is at least as large as the previous element. On each move, you can increase or decrease the value of any element by one. What is the minimum number of moves required?

Observation: It is also possible to solve the problem of modifying the array to stricly increasing.

slope-trick.cpp
Description: Using Slope trick, compute the min cost to modify arry to be non-decreasing
Time: $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$

25b6fc, 58 lines

```
// funcao f_i(x) = custo de deixar todo mundo ate i
// nao decrescente e <= x

// os pontos em changepoints sao os pontos da
// piecewise linear function convexa

// eu calculo g_i(x) = custo de deixar todo mundo ate i
// nao decrescente e v[i] == x

// entao f_i(x) = min(g_i(t) pra t <= x)
```

```
// podemos escrever g_i(x) = f_i - l(x) + |x - v[i]|
// entao a gente ta somando as funcoes e gerando outra convexa

// a resposta vai armazenar o custo (coord y) do opt
// e o topo do change-points vai ser o opt atual

// se opt < v[i] entao a gente calcula o g_i e o novo opt
// vai ser v[i]

// se opt > v[i] entao o slope entre opt e anterior opt vai
// ficar reto
// (este anterior opt podendo ser o v[i] que vai ser inserido),
// entao basta retirar o ultimo opt e teremos de novo a
// resposta
// neste caso devemos aumentar o custo do opt, que vai ser por
// (opt - v[i]) (so olhar a funcao em V do || e a convexa do f_i
// -1)

// o v[i] vai ser inserido varias vezes no change-points
// pra denotar a inclinacao no slope dele

int32_t main() { sws;

    ll n; cin >> n;

    vector<ll> v(n);
    for(ll i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        cin >> v[i];
        // to change the problem
        // from increasing to non-decreasing
        // v[i] -= i;
    }

    priority_queue<ll> change_points;
    change_points.push(-INF);
    ll ans = 0;

    for(ll i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        ll opt = change_points.top();
        change_points.push(v[i]);

        if(opt > v[i]) {
            ans += opt - v[i];
            change_points.push(v[i]);
            change_points.pop();
        }
    }

    cout << ans << endl;
}
```

3.5 SOS DP

Sum over Subsets DP (SOS DP) computes how many elements there are for each mask which are a subset of this mask.

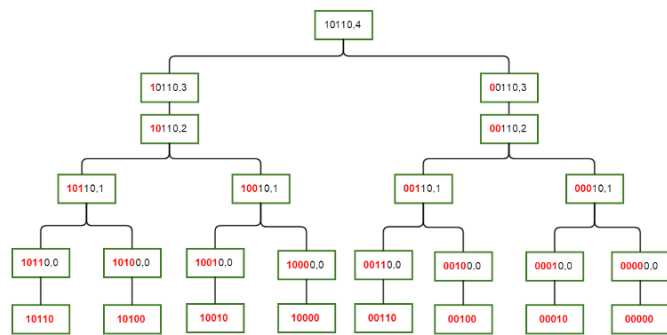
This can be modified for other operations in which the subset contributes for the mask . *Example:*

1001 if a subset of 1101;

0001 if a subset of 1101;

1100 if a subset of 1101;

1101 if a subset of 1101;



sos-dp.cpp

Description: Efficiently compute a bitmask dp, in which a subset of this bitmask contributes for the value of this bitmask.

Time: $O(2^N N)$, N = number of bits

19e50a, 35 lines

```
// problem: Given a list of n integers, your task is to
// calculate for each element x:
// the number of elements y such that x | y = x
// the number of elements y such that x & y = x
// the number of elements y such that x & y != 0
```

```
const ll LOGMAX = 20;
ll dp[1 << LOGMAX];
ll dp2[1 << LOGMAX];

int32_t main(){ sws;
    ll n; cin >> n;

    vector<ll> a(n);
    for(auto &val : a) cin >> val;

    ll full = (1LL << LOGMAX) - 1;

    for(auto val : a) dp2[full^val] += 1;
    for(auto val : a) dp[val] += 1;

    for(ll b=0; b<LOGMAX; b++) {
        for(ll mask=0; mask<(1LL<<LOGMAX); mask++) {
            if (mask & (1LL << b)) {
                dp[mask] += dp[mask ^ (1LL << b)];
                dp2[mask] += dp2[mask ^ (1LL << b)];
            }
        }
    }

    for(auto val : a) {
        cout << dp[val] << " ";
        cout << dp2[full ^ val] << " ";
        cout << n - dp[full^val] << endl;
    }
}
```

3.6 Bit optimization

use popcnt pragma!!

```
#pragma GCC target("popcnt")
```

3.6.1 Operations

<i>intersection</i>	$a \cap b$	$a \& b$
<i>union</i>	$a \cup b$	$a b$
<i>complement</i>	\bar{a}	a
<i>difference</i>	$a - b$	$a \& (\sim b)$

- __builtin_clz(x)**: the number of zeros at the beginning of the number
- __builtin_ctz(x)**: the number of zeros at the end of the number
- __builtin_popcount(x)**: the number of ones in the number
- __builtin_parity(x)**: the parity (even or odd) of the number of ones
- LSB(i)**: $((i) \& -(i))$
- MSB(i)**: $(63 - \text{__builtin_clzll}(i))$, for ll

3.6.2 Bitset

Bitset are very convenient for bitwise operations. Beside common operators, there are other useful ones already built in:

- bitset <k> bs(str)**: create a bitset of size k from a binary string representation
- bitset <k> bs(num)**: create a bitset of size k from a integer representation
- str = bs.to_string()**: return the binary string representation of the bitset
- num = bs.to_ulong()**: return the unsigned integer representation of the bitset
- bs.Find_first()**: returns the first set bit (from LSB to MSB)
- bs.Find_next(idx)**: returns the next set bit after idx (not including idx of course)

Note that, if there isn't any set bit after idx, BS.Find_next(idx) will return BS.size(); same as calling BS.Find_first() when bitset is clear; One can use **bs.Find_next(idx-1)** to include idx. The function does accept negative index.

The complexity of bitwise operations for the bitset is $O(\frac{size}{32})$ or $O(\frac{size}{64})$, depending on the architecture of the computer.

3.6.3 Problems

- Hamming Distance**: When comparing two binary strings of size k , if the size of the strings are small enough, just represent them as integers (uint or ulong) and do `__builtin_popcount(a ^ b)` to compute the hamming distance in $O(1)$ instead of $O(k)$.
- Counting subgrids**: If the desired size is not small enough, divide into continuous segments of acceptable sizes (such as $k=64$ for unsigned long long). Then, the complexity of $O(N)$ can be reduced to $O(N/64)$. For more versatility, and huge sizes, one can use `bitset<k>` directly, but it is a little bit slower.

Game theory (4)

4.1 Classic Game

- There are n piles (heaps), each one with x_i stones.
- Each turn, a player must remove t stones (non-zero) from a pile, turning x_i into y_i .
- The game ends when it's impossible to make any more moves and the player without moves left loses.

4.2 Bouton's Theorem

Let s be the xor-sum value of all the piles sizes, a state $s = 0$ is a losing position and a state $s \neq 0$ is a winning position

4.2.1 Proof

All winning positions will have at least one valid move to turn the game into a losing position.

All losing positions will only have moves that turn the game into winning positions (except the base case when there are no piles left and the player already lost)

4.3 DAG Representation

Consider all game positions or states of the game as **Vertices** of a graph

Valid moves are the transition between states, therefore, the directed **Edges** of the graph

If a state has no outgoing edges, it's a dead end and a losing state (degenerated state).

If a state has only edges to winning states, therefore it is a losing state.

If a state has at least one edge that is a losing state, it is a winning state.

4.4 Sprague-Grundy Theorem

Let’s consider a state u of a two-player impartial game and let v_i be the states reachable from it.

To this state, we can assign a fully equivalent game of Nim with one pile of size x . The number x is called the **Grundy value or nim-value or number** of the state u .

If **all transitions** lead to a *winning state*, the current state must be a *losing state* with nimber 0.

If **at least one transition** lead to a *losing state*, the current state must be a *winning state* with nimber $\neq 0$.

The **MEX** operator satisfies both condition above and can be used to calculate the nim-value of a state:

$$nimber_u = \text{MEX of all } nimber_{v_i}$$

Viewing the game as a DAG, we can gradually calculate the Grundy values starting from vertices without outgoing edges (nimber=0).

Note that the MEX operator **guarantees** that all nim-values smaller than the considered nimber can be reached, which is essentially the nim game with a single heap with pile size = nimber.

There are only two operations that are used when considering a Sprague-Grundy game:

4.4.1 Composition

XOR operator to compose sub-games into a single composite game

When a game is played with multiple sub-games (as nim is played with multiple piles), you are actually choosing one sub-game and making a valid move there (choosing a pile and subtracting a value from it).

The final result/winner will depend on all the sub-games played. Because you need to play all games.

To compute the final result, one can simply consider the XOR of the numbers of all sub-games.

4.4.2 Decomposition

MEX operator to compute the nimber of a state that has multiple transitions to other states

A state with nimber x can be transitioned (decomposed) into all states with nimber $y < x$

Nevertheless a state may reach several states, only a single one will be used during the game. This shows the difference between **states** and **sub-games**: All sub-games must be played by the players, but the states of a sub-game may be ignored.

Example:

If the set of possible outcomes for a state is 0, 1, 2, 7, 8, 9. The number is 3, because the MEX is 3, which is the smallest nim-value you can’t transition into and also you can transition to all smaller nim-values.

Note that 7, 8, 9 transitions can be ignored.

To compute the mex of a set efficiently:

```
mex.cpp
Description: Compute MEX efficiently by keeping track of the frequency of all existent elements and also the missing ones
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(\log N)$  per addition/removal,  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  to get mex value,  $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$  to initialize
d6f2b9, 27 lines

struct MEX {
    map<ll, ll> freq;
    set<ll> missing;

    // initialize set with values up to {max_valid_value} inclusive
    MEX(ll max_valid_value) { //  $\mathcal{O}(n \log(n))$ 
        for(ll i=0; i<=max_valid_value; i++)
            missing.insert(i);
    }

    ll get() { //  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ 
        if (missing.empty()) return 0;
        return *missing.begin();
    }

    void remove(ll val) { //  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ 
        freq[val]--;
        if (freq[val] == 0)
            missing.insert(val);
    }

    void add(ll val) { //  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ 
        freq[val]++;
        if (missing.count(val))
            missing.erase(val);
    }
};
```

4.5 Variations and Extensions

4.5.1 Nim with Increases

Consider a modification of the classical nim game: a player can now add stones to a chosen pile instead of removing.

Note that this extra rule needs to have a restriction to keep the game acyclic (finite game).

Lemma: This move is not used in a winnig strategy and can be ignored.

Proof: If a player adds t stones in a pile, the next player just needs to remove t stones from this pile.

4.6 Misère Game

In this version, the player who takes the last object loses. To consider this version, simply swap the winning and losing player of the normal version.

4.7 Staircase Nim

4.7.1 Description

In Staircase Nim, there is a staircase with n steps, indexed from 0 to $n-1$. In each step, there are zero or more coins. Two players play in turns. In ones move, a player can choose a step ($i > 0$) and move one or more coins to step below it ($i-1$). The player who is unable to make a move lose the game. That means the game ends when all the coins are in step 0.

4.7.2 Strategy

We can divide the steps into two types, odd steps, and even steps.

Now let’s think what will happen if a player A move x coins from an even step(non-zero) to an odd step. Player B can always move these same x coins to another even position and **the state of odd positions aren’t affected**

But if player A moves a coin from an odd step to an even step, similar logic won’t work. Due to the degenerated case, there is a situation when x coins are moved from stair 1 to 0, and player B can’t move these coins from stair 0 to -1 (not a valid move).

From this argument, we can agree that coins in even steps are useless, they don’t interfere to decide if a game state is winning or losing.

Therefore, the staircase nim can be visualized as a simple nim game with only the odd steps.

When stones are sent from an odd step to an even step, it is the same as removing stones from a pile in a classic nim game.

And when stones are sent from even steps to odd ones, it is the same as the increasing variation described before.

4.8 Grundy’s Game

Initially there is only one pile with x stones. Each turn, a player must divide a pile into two non-zero piles with different sizes. The player who can’t do any more moves loses.

4.8.1 Degenerate (Base) States

$x = 1$ (nim-val = 0) (losing)

$x = 2$ (nim-val = 0) (losing)

4.8.2 Other States

nim-val = MEX (all transitions)

Examples

x = 3:

```
{2, 1} -> (0) xor (0) -> 0
```

$$\text{nim-val} = \text{MEX}(\{0\}) = 1$$

x = 4:

```
{3, 1} -> (1) xor (0) -> 1

nim-val = MEX({1}) = 0

x = 5:

{4, 1} -> (0) xor (0) -> 0
{3, 2} -> (1) xor (0) -> 1

nim-val = MEX({0, 1}) = 2

x = 6:

{5, 1} -> (2) xor (0) -> 2
{4, 2} -> (0) xor (0) -> 0

nim-val = MEX({0, 2}) = 1
```

Important observation: All nimbers for $(n \geq 2000)$ are non-zero. (missing proof here and testing for values above $1e6$).

4.9 Insta-Winning States

Classic nim game: if **all** piles become 0, you lose. (no more moves)

Modified nim game: if **any** pile becomes 0, you lose.

To adapt to this version of nim game, we create insta-winning states, which represents states that have a transition to any empty pile (will instantly win). Insta-winning states must have an specific nimber so they don't conflict with other nimbers when computing. A possible solution is $\text{number} = \text{INF}$, because no other number will be high enough to cause conflict.

Because of this adaptation, we can now ignore states with empty piles, and consider them with $(\text{nullvalue} = -1)$. And the $(\text{nimber} = 0)$ now represents the states that only have transitions to insta-winning states.

After this, beside winning states and losing states, we have added two new categories of states (insta-winning and empty-pile). Notice that:

```
empty-pile <- insta-winning <- nimber(0)
```

Therefore, we have returned to the classical nim game and can proceed normally.

OBS: *Empty piles* (wasn't empty before) $(\text{nimber} = -1)$ is different from *Non-existent piles* (never existed) $(\text{nimber} = 0)$

Usage Example:

<https://codeforces.com/gym/101908/problem/B>

4.10 References

https://cp-algorithms.com/game_theory/sprague-grundy-nim.html

<https://codeforces.com/blog/entry/66040>

<https://brilliant.org/wiki/nim/>

Geometry (5)

5.1 Point Struct

point.cpp
Description: Point struct for point operations, supports floating points and integers
Time: $\mathcal{O}(1)$

```
7e11ab, 43 lines

const ld EPS = 1e-9;

// T can be int, long long, float, double, long double
template<class T> bool eq(T a, T b) {
    if (is_integral<T>::value) return a == b;
    else return abs(a-b) <= EPS;
}

template<class T> struct P {
    T x, y;
    ll id; // (optional)

    P(T xx=0, T yy=0): x(xx), y(yy) {}

    P operator +(P const& o) const { return { x+o.x, y+o.y }; }
    P operator -(P const& o) const { return { x-o.x, y-o.y }; }
    P operator *(T const& t) const { return { x*t, y*t }; }
    P operator /(T const& t) const { return { x/t, y/t }; }
    T operator *(P const& o) const { return x*o.x + y*o.y; }
    T operator ^(P const& o) const { return x*o.y - y*o.x; }

    bool operator <(P const& o) const { // enables sorting, set, etc
        return (eq(x, o.x) ? y < o.y : x < o.x);
    }

    bool operator ==(P const& o) const {
        return eq(x, o.x) and eq(y, o.y);
    }

    bool operator !=(P const& o) const {
        return !(*this == o);
    }

    friend istream& operator >>(istream& in, P &p) {
        return in >> p.x >> p.y;
    }

    friend ostream& operator <<(ostream& out, P const& p) {
        return out << p.x << ' ' << p.y;
    }
};
using point = P<ll>;
// using point = P<ld>;

5f33bd, 29 lines

template<class T> struct L {
    point p1, p2;
    T a, b, c; // ax+by+c = 0;

    // y-y1 = ((y2-y1)/(x2-x1))(x-x1)
```

5.2 Line Struct

line.cpp
Description: Line struct for line operations
Time: $\mathcal{O}(1)$

```
5f33bd, 29 lines

template<class T> struct L {
    point p1, p2;
    T a, b, c; // ax+by+c = 0;

    // y-y1 = ((y2-y1)/(x2-x1))(x-x1)
```

```
L(point pp1=0, point pp2=0) : p1(pp1), p2(pp2) {
    a = p1.y - p2.y;
    b = p2.x - p1.x;
    c = p1 ^ p2;
}

T eval(point p) {
    return a*p.x + b*p.y + c;
}

bool inside(point p) { // reta
    return eq(eval(p), T(0));
}

point normal() {
    return point(a, b);
}

bool insideSeg(point p) { // segmento [p1, p2]
    return ((p1-p) ^ (p2-p)) == 0 and ((p1-p) * (p2-p)) <= 0 );
}

};
using line = L<ll>;
// using line = L<ld>;
```

5.3 Manhattan Minimum Spanning Tree

Also called the rectilinear or L1 Minimum Spanning Tree problem.

manhattanMST.cpp
Description: Given N points, returns up to $4*N$ edges, which are guaranteed to contain a minimum spanning tree for the graph with edge weights $w(p, q) = -p.x - q.x + -p.y - q.y$. Edges are in the form (distance, src, dst). Use a standard MST algorithm on the result to find the final MST.
Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$

```
00e093, 25 lines

// import point struct (constructor and -operator)

vector<array<ll, 3>> manhattanMST(vector<point> ps) {
    vector<ll> id(size(ps));
    iota(id.begin(), id.end(), 0);
    vector<array<ll, 3>> edges;
    for (ll k=0; k<4; k++) {
        sort(id.begin(), id.end(), [&](ll i, ll j) {
            return (ps[i]-ps[j]).x < (ps[j]-ps[i]).y;
        });

        map<ll, ll> sweep;
        for (ll i : id) {
            for (auto it = sweep.lower_bound(-ps[i].y); it != sweep.end(); sweep.erase(it++)) {
                ll j = it->ss;
                point d = ps[i] - ps[j];
                if (d.y > d.x) break;
                edges.pb({d.y + d.x, i, j});
            }
            sweep[-ps[i].y] = i;
        }
        for (point& p : ps) if (k & 1) p.x = -p.x; else swap(p.x, p.y);
    }
    return edges;
}
```


Graph (6)

6.1 Fundamentals

Curious Property of DFS:

- Given an undirected graph, assign each node to a set A .
- Run a Depth-First-Search starting at any node.
- Whenever the DFS visits a new node N , remove N from A and add it to the path set P .
- Whenever the DFS backtracks from node N , remove N from the path and add it to set B .
- Repeat until $|A| = |B|$. Which **will always occur**, because, in each operation, A decreases by one and B keeps its value. Or, B decreases by one and A keeps its value.
- The DFS guarantees that A and B never have neighbouring nodes. Because the set of nodes in Path P separates them.

dfs.cpp

Description: Simple DFS template with lambda syntax

Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

af867f, 19 lines

```
int32_t main(){ sws;
// compute cardinality of each subtree
vector<vll> g(n);
vector<ll> card(n);
vector<bool> vis(n); // redundant here

function<ll (ll, ll)> dfs = [&](ll u, ll p) -> ll {
    if (vis[u]) return;
    vis[u] = 1;

    card[u] += 1;
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        card[u] += dfs(v, u);
    }
    return card[u];
};

dfs(1, -1);
}
```

bfs.cpp

Description: Simple BFS template

Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

7bed46, 34 lines

```
vector<vll> g(n);
vector<ll> d(n);
vector<bool> vis(n);

void bfs(ll src, ll sink) {

    queue<ll> q;
    q.push(src);
    d[src] = 0;
    vis[src] = 1;

    while(!q.empty()) {
        auto u = q.front(); q.pop();

        // add here a special break condition if needed, ex:
        if (u == sink) break;
```

```
for(auto v : g[u]) {

    // each v is added to queue only once
    // due to checking visited inside for(auto v : g[u])
    // and setting vis[v] = 1 before pushing to queue
    if (!vis[v]) {
        vis[v] = 1;
        d[v] = d[u] + 1;
        q.push(v);
    }

    else { // already added to queue, but there may be
        a shorter path
        d[v] = min(d[v], d[u] + 1);
    }
}
}
```

6.2 Network flow

In optimization theory, maximum flow problems involve finding a feasible flow through a flow network that obtains the maximum possible flow rate.

dinic.cpp

Description: Run several bfs to compute the residual graph until a max flow configuration is discovered

Time: General Case, $\mathcal{O}(V^2E)$; Unit Capacity, $\mathcal{O}\left((V + E)\sqrt{E}\right)$; Bipartite and unit capacity, $\mathcal{O}\left((V + E)\sqrt{V}\right)$

dealb7, 86 lines

```
// remember to duplicate vertices for the bipartite graph
// N = number of nodes, including sink and source
const ll N = 700;

struct Dinic {
    struct Edge {
        ll from, to, flow, cap;
    };
    vector<Edge> edges;

    vector<ll> g[N];
    ll ne = 0, lvl[N], vis[N], pass;
    ll qu[N], px[N], qt;

    ll run(ll s, ll sink, ll minE) {
        if (s == sink) return minE;
        ll ans = 0;
        for(; px[s] < (int)g[s].size(); px[s]++){
            ll e = g[s][px[s]];
            auto &v = edges[e], &rev = edges[e^1];
            if( lvl[v.to] != lvl[s]+1 || v.flow >= v.cap)
                continue;
            ll tmp = run(v.to, sink, min(minE, v.cap - v.flow));
            ;
            v.flow += tmp, rev.flow -= tmp;
            ans += tmp, minE -= tmp;
            if (minE == 0) break;
        }
        return ans;
    }

    bool bfs(ll source, ll sink) {
        qt = 0;
        qu[qt++] = source;
        lvl[source] = 1;
```

```
vis[source] = ++pass;
for(ll i=0; i<qt; i++) {
    ll u = qu[i];
    px[u] = 0;
    if (u == sink) return 1;
    for(auto& ed :g[u]) {
        auto v = edges[ed];
        if (v.flow >= v.cap || vis[v.to] == pass)
            continue;
        vis[v.to] = pass;
        lvl[v.to] = lvl[u]+1;
        qu[qt++] = v.to;
    }
}
return false;
}

ll flow(ll source, ll sink) { // max_flow
    reset_flow();
    ll ans = 0;
    while(bfs(source, sink))
        ans += run(source, sink, LLINF);
    return ans;
}

void addEdge(ll u, ll v, ll c, ll rc = 0) { // c = capacity
    , rc = retro-capacity;
    Edge e = {u, v, 0, c};
    edges.pb(e);
    g[u].pb(ne++);
    e = {v, u, 0, rc};
    edges.pb(e);
    g[v].pb(ne++);
}

void reset_flow() {
    for (ll i=0; i<ne; i++) edges[i].flow = 0;
    memset(lvl, 0, sizeof(lvl));
    memset(vis, 0, sizeof(vis));
    memset(qu, 0, sizeof(qu));
    memset(px, 0, sizeof(px));
    qt = 0; pass = 0;
}

// cut set cost = minimum cost = max flow
// cut set is the set of edges that, if removed,
// will disrupt flow from source to sink and make it 0.
vector<pll> cut() {
    vector<pll> cuts;
    for (auto [from, to, flow, cap]: edges)
        if (flow == cap and vis[from] == pass and vis[to] <
            pass and cap > 0)
            cuts.pb({from, to});
    return cuts;
}
};
```

dinitz.cpp

Description: This second version may be slower due to dynamic allocation, queue, etc but it's more readable, more memory efficient

Time: General Case, $\mathcal{O}(V^2E)$; Unit Capacity, $\mathcal{O}\left((V + E)\sqrt{E}\right)$; Bipartite and unit capacity, $\mathcal{O}\left((V + E)\sqrt{V}\right)$

ef9863, 90 lines

```
struct Dinitz {
    struct Edge { // u -> v
        ll u, v, cap, flow=0; // u is redundant, but nice for
            some problems
    };
};
```

```

ll n, src, sink;
vector<Edge> edges;
vector<vector<ll>> g;
vector<ll> level, ptr;

Dinitz(ll nn) : n(nn+10), g(n) {
    src = n-2;
    sink = n-1;
}

Dinitz(ll nn, ll s, ll t) : n(nn+10), g(n) {
    src = s;
    sink = t;
}

void addEdge(ll u, ll v, ll cap, ll rcap = 0) { // rcap =
    retrocapacity for bidirectional edges
    g[u].push_back( (ll)edges.size() );
    edges.push_back({u, v, cap});
    g[v].push_back( (ll)edges.size() );
    edges.push_back({v, u, rcap});
}

bool bfs() {
    level.assign(n, -1); // not vis
    level[src] = 0;
    queue<ll> q;
    q.push(src);
    while (!q.empty()) {
        ll u = q.front(); q.pop();
        for (auto eid : g[u]) {
            auto e = edges[eid];
            if (e.flow >= e.cap or level[e.v] != -1)
                continue;
            level[e.v] = level[u] + 1;
            q.push(e.v);
        }
    }
    return level[sink] != -1;
}

ll dfs(ll u, ll f) {
    if (f == 0 or u == sink) return f;
    for (ll &i = ptr[u]; i < (ll)g[u].size(); i++) {
        ll eid = g[u][i];
        auto &e = edges[eid];
        if (e.flow >= e.cap or level[u]+1 != level[e.v])
            continue;
        ll newf = dfs(e.v, min(f, e.cap - e.flow));
        if (newf == 0) continue;
        e.flow += newf;
        edges[eid^1].flow -= newf;
        return newf;
    }
    return 0;
}

ll max_flow = 0;
ll flow(bool reset_flow = true) {
    if (reset_flow) {
        max_flow = 0;
        for (ll u=0; u<n; u++) {
            for (auto eid : g[u]) {
                auto &e = edges[eid];
                e.flow = 0;
            }
        }
    }
    while (bfs()) {

```

```

        ptr.assign(n, 0);
        while (ll newf = dfs(src, INF))
            max_flow += newf;
    }
    return max_flow;
}

// minimum cut set cost = minimum cost = max flow
// minimum cut set is the minimum set of edges that, if
// removed,
// will disrupt flow from source to sink and make it 0.
vector<pll> cut() {
    vector<pll> cuts;
    for (auto [u, v, cap, flow]: edges) {
        if (level[u] != -1 and level[v] == -1) {
            cuts.pb({u, v});
        }
    }
    return cuts;
}
};

```

6.2.1 Matching with Flow

By modeling a bipartite graph, with some Vertices (that will choose a match) to be on the L graph and some Vertices (that will be chosen) on the R. Set the correct capacities for these edges and also for the edges that connects the sink and source. After this modeling and running the dinic max flow algorithm, one will generate a possible matching (if it is possible).

A special case of matching is the perfect matching, which includes all vertices from the bipartite graph L and R.

A maximum matching has the maximum cardinality. A perfect matching is a maximum matching. But the opposite is not necessarily true.

It's possible to access `dinic.edges`, which is a vector that contains all edges and also its respective attributes, like the *flow* passing through each edge. Remember to consider that negative flow exist for reverse edges.

6.2.2 Minimum Cut

In computer science and optimization theory, the max-flow min-cut theorem states that, in a flow network, the maximum amount of flow passing from the source to the sink is equal to the total weight of the edges in a minimum cut, i.e., the smallest total weight of the edges which if removed would disconnect the source from the sink.

Let's define an s-t cut $C = (S\text{-component}, T\text{-component})$ as a partition of $V \in G$ such that source $s \in S\text{-component}$ and sink $t \in T\text{-component}$. Let's also define a cut-set of C to be the set $(u, v) \in E \mid u \in S\text{-component}, v \in T\text{-component}$ such that if all edges in the cut-set of C are removed, the Max Flow from s to t is 0 (i.e., s and t are disconnected). The cost of an s-t cut C is defined by the sum of the capacities of the edges in the cut-set of C .

The by-product of computing Max Flow is Min Cut! After Max Flow algorithm stops, we run graph traversal (DFS/BFS) from source s again. All reachable vertices from source s using positive weighted edges in the residual graph belong to the S-component. All other unreachable vertices belong to the T-component. All edges connecting the S-component to the T-component belong to the cut-set of C . The Min Cut value is equal to the Max Flow value. This is the minimum over all possible s-t cuts values.

6.2.3 Minimum Vertex Cover

The **Konig's Theorem** describes an equivalence between the maximum matching problem and the minimum vertex cover problem in bipartite graphs.

Therefore, the value for the maximum flow in a bipartite graph is the same value as the number of nodes in a minimum vertex cover.

To retrieve the set of vertices of the minimum vertex cover:

- Give orientation to the edges, matched edges start from the right side of the graph to the left side, and free edges start from the left side of the graph to the right side.
- Run DFS from unmatched nodes of the left side, in this traversal some nodes will become visited, others will stay unvisited.
- The MVC nodes are the visited nodes from the right side, and unvisited nodes from the left side.

$$MVC = Visited_{Right} \cup Unvisited_{Left}$$

min-vertex-cover.cpp

Description: computes the min vertex cover for a bipartite graph matched with dinitz

Time: $\mathcal{O}(E \log(E))$ 963b5e, 55 lines

```
// a vertex cover is a set of vertices that contains
// at least one endpoint for each edge in the bipartite match
// A vertex cover in minimum if no other vertex cover has fewer
// vertices.
// only for bipartite graphs
vector<ll> minVertexCover(Dinitz &dinitz) {
    ll n = dinitz.n;

    vector<vector<ll>>> g(n);
    set<ll> left, right; // unique
    vector<bool> matched(n);

    for(auto e : dinitz.edges) {
        if (e.u == dinitz.src or e.u == dinitz.sink) continue;
        if (e.v == dinitz.src or e.v == dinitz.sink) continue;
        if (e.cap > 0) { // not retro edge

            left.insert(e.u);
            right.insert(e.v);

            if (e.flow == e.cap) {
                // orient matched edges from right to left
                g[e.v].pb(e.u);
                matched[e.u] = 1;
                matched[e.v] = 1;
            }
            else {
                // orient non-matched edges from left to right
                g[e.u].pb(e.v);
            }
        }
    }

    vector<bool> vis(n, 0);
    function<void (ll)> dfs = [&](ll u) {
        vis[u] = 1;
        for(auto v : g[u])
            if (!vis[v])
                dfs(v);
    };

    return left;
}
```

```
};

for(auto l : left) if (!matched[l]) {
    dfs(l);
}

vector<ll> ans;
for(auto l : left) if (!vis[l]) {
    ans.pb(l);
}
for(auto r : right) if (vis[r]) {
    ans.pb(r);
}

// remember, right nodes ids are dislocated by an offset
return ans;
}
```

6.2.4 Maximum Independent Set

A **Independent Set** is a subset of nodes, in which all pairs u, v in the subset are not adjacent (There is no direct edge between nodes u and v).

A **Maximum Independent Set** is a *Independent Set* with maximum cardinality;

The **Maximum Independent Set** is complementary to the **Minimum Vertex Cover**.

$$MaxIS = all_{Vertices} \setminus MVC$$

Therefore, to acquire the **Maximum Independent Set**, run the MVC algorithm and subtract them from the set of vertices and it will end up with the maxIS.

6.2.5 Min Cost Max Flow

Dinitz's algorithm with weighted edges.

min-cost-dinitz.cpp

Description: change bfs to spfa to attribute a weight for the edges

Time: SPFA is $\mathcal{O}(E)$ at average and $\mathcal{O}(VE)$ in the worst case a18e95, 90 lines

```
struct Dinitz {
    struct Edge { // u -> v
        ll u, v, cost, cap, flow=0;
    };

    ll n, src, sink;
    vector<Edge> edges;
    vector<vector<ll>>> g;
    vector<ll> dist, ptr; // uses dist instead of level

    Dinitz(ll nn) : n(nn+10), g(n) {
        src = n-2;
        sink = n-1;
    }
    Dinitz(ll nn, ll s, ll t) : n(nn+10), g(n) {
        src = s;
        sink = t;
    }

    void addEdge(ll u, ll v, ll cost, ll cap, ll rcap = 0) { //
        rcap = retrocapacity for bidirectional edges
        g[u].push_back( (ll)edges.size() );
```

```

edges.push_back({u, v, cost, cap});
g[v].push_back( (ll)edges.size() );
edges.push_back({v, u, -cost, rcap});
}

bool spfa() {
    dist.assign(n, INF);
    vector<bool> inqueue(n, false);

    queue<ll> q; q.push(src);
    dist[src] = 0;
    inqueue[src] = true;

    while (!q.empty()) {
        ll u = q.front(); q.pop();
        inqueue[u] = false;

        for (auto eid : g[u]) {
            auto const& e = edges[eid];
            if (e.flow >= e.cap) continue;
            if (dist[e.u] + e.cost < dist[e.v]) {
                dist[e.v] = dist[e.u] + e.cost;
                if (!inqueue[e.v]) {
                    q.push(e.v);
                    inqueue[e.v] = true;
                }
            }
        }
    }

    return dist[sink] != INF;
}

ll min_cost = 0;
ll dfs(ll u, ll f) {
    if (f == 0 or u == sink) return f;
    for (ll &i = ptr[u]; i < (ll)g[u].size(); i++) {
        ll eid = g[u][i++];
        auto &e = edges[eid];
        if (e.flow >= e.cap or (dist[e.u] + e.cost) != dist[e.v]) continue;
        ll newf = dfs(e.v, min(f, e.cap - e.flow));
        if (newf == 0) continue;
        e.flow += newf;
        edges[eid^1].flow -= newf;
        min_cost += e.cost * newf;
        return newf;
    }
    return 0;
}

ll max_flow = 0;
pair<ll, ll> flow(bool reset_flow_cost = true) {
    if (reset_flow_cost) {
        max_flow = 0;
        min_cost = 0;
        for (ll u=0; u<n; u++) {
            for (auto eid : g[u]) {
                auto &e = edges[eid];
                e.flow = 0;
            }
        }
    }
    while (spfa()) {
        ptr.assign(n, 0);
        while (ll newf = dfs(src, INF))
            max_flow += newf;
    }
    return {min_cost, max_flow};
}

```

```
};
```

6.2.6 Hungarian

Solves the **Assignment Problem**:

There are several standard formulations of the assignment problem (all of which are essentially equivalent). Here are some of them:

There are n jobs and n workers. Each worker specifies the amount of money they expect for a particular job. Each worker can be assigned to only one job. The objective is to assign jobs to workers in a way that minimizes the total cost.

Given an $n \times n$ matrix A , the task is to select one number from each row such that exactly one number is chosen from each column, and the sum of the selected numbers is minimized.

Given an $n \times n$ matrix A , the task is to find a permutation p of length n such that the value $\sum A[i][p[i]]$ is minimized.

Consider a complete bipartite graph with n vertices per part, where each edge is assigned a weight. The objective is to find a perfect matching with the minimum total weight.

It is important to note that all the above scenarios are "square" problems, meaning both dimensions are always equal to n . In practice, similar "rectangular" formulations are often encountered, where n is not equal to m , and the task is to select $\min(n, m)$ elements. However, it can be observed that a "rectangular" problem can always be transformed into a "square" problem by adding rows or columns with zero or infinite values, respectively.

We also note that by analogy with the search for a minimum solution, one can also pose the problem of finding a maximum solution. However, these two problems are equivalent to each other: it is enough to multiply all the weights by -1 .

hungarian.cpp

Description: Solves the assignment problem

Time: $O(n^3)$

06d970, 72 lines

```

// Hungaro
//
// Resolve o problema de assignment (matriz n x n)
// Colocar os valores da matriz em 'a' (pode < 0)
// assignment() retorna um par com o valor do
// assignment minimo, e a coluna escolhida por cada linha
// 0-idx
//
// O(n^3)

```

```

template<typename T> struct Hungarian {
    int n;
    vector<vector<T>> a;
    vector<T> u, v;
    vector<int> p, way;
    T inf;

```

```

Hungarian(int n_) : n(n_), u(n+1), v(n+1), p(n+1), way(n+1) {
    a = vector<vector<T>>(n, vector<T>(n));
    inf = numeric_limits<T>::max();
}

pair<T, vector<int>> assignment() {
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
        p[0] = i;
        int j0 = 0;
        vector<T> minv(n+1, inf);
        vector<int> used(n+1, 0);
        do {
            used[j0] = true;
            int i0 = p[j0], j1 = -1;
            T delta = inf;
            for (int j = 1; j <= n; j++) if (!used[j]) {
                T cur = a[i0-1][j-1] - u[i0] - v[j];
                if (cur < minv[j]) minv[j] = cur, way[j] = j0;
                if (minv[j] < delta) delta = minv[j], j1 = j;
            }
            for (int j = 0; j <= n; j++)
                if (used[j]) u[p[j]] += delta, v[j] -= delta;
            else minv[j] -= delta;
            j0 = j1;
        } while (p[j0] != 0);
        do {
            int j1 = way[j0];
            p[j0] = p[j1];
            j0 = j1;
        } while (j0);
    }
    vector<int> ans(n);
    for (int j = 1; j <= n; j++) ans[p[j]-1] = j-1;
    return make_pair(-v[0], ans);
}

int32_t main(){ sws;
    ll n; cin >> n;
    Hungarian<ll> h(n);

    for (ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
        for (ll j=0; j<n; j++) {
            cin >> h.a[i][j];
        }
    }

    auto [cost, match] = h.assignment();

    cout << cost << endl;

    for (ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
        cout << i+1 << " " << match[i]+1 << endl;
    }
}

```

6.3 Coloring

Chromatic Number is the *minimum* number of colors to color all the vertices, so that no two adjacent vertices have the same color.

Chromatic Polynomial $P(K)$ is the number of ways to color a graph with K colors.

A **k-coloring** is the same as a partition of the vertex set into k independent sets, and the terms *k-partite* and *k-colorable* have the same meaning.

A *clique* of size N will force the Chromatic Number to be at least N . It is a *lower bound*.

The **maximum vertex degree** (+1) in an undirected graph will be the *upper bound* on the Chromatic Number.

2-colorable graphs are exactly the bipartite graphs.

Four color theorem states that every planar graph can be 4-colored. A planar graph is a graph that can be drawn in a 2D plane without edges intersecting.

6.3.1 Compute the Chromatic Number

chromatic-number.cpp
Description: Using bitmask DP and Inclusion-Exclusion principle, compute the Chromatic Number of a small graph.
Time: $\mathcal{O}(2^n n)$

```
95be88, 32 lines
11 ChromaticNumber(const vector<vector<ll>> &g) {
    ll n = g.size();
    ll N = 1 << n;
    ll ans = n;

    // adjacency list using bitmask
    vector<ll> adj(n);
    for (ll u = 0; u < n; u++)
        for (auto v : g[u])
            adj[u] |= (1 << v);

    // choose some primes to avoid hacking
    for (ll d : {7}) { //,11,21,33,87,93} {
        ll mod = 1e9; mod += d;
        vector<ll> ind(N), aux(N, 1);
        ind[0] = 1;
        for (ll s = 1; s < N; s++) {
            ll u = __builtin_ctzll(s);
            ind[s] = ind[s ^ (1 << u)] + ind[(s ^ (1 << u)) & ~
                adj[u]];
        }
        for (ll k = 1; k < ans; k++) {
            ll w = 0;
            for (ll i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
                ll s = i ^ (i >> 1); // gray-code
                aux[s] = (aux[s] * ind[s]) % mod;
                w += (i & 1) ? aux[s] : -aux[s];
            }
            if (w % mod) ans = min(ans, k);
        }
    }
    return ans;
}
```

6.4 Shortest Paths

For weighted directed graphs

6.4.1 Dijkstra

Single Source and there **cannot** be any negative weighted edges.

```
76e3a5, 21 lines
dijkstra.cpp
Description: By keeping track of the distances sorted using an priority
queue of candidates. if an edge can reduce the current min distance, insert
into the priority queue. ONLY when the vertice is dequeued and its cost is
<= d[u], it is in fact a part of a shortest path
Time: O((V + E) log V)

priority_queue<pll, vector<pll>, greater<pll>> pq; // min pq
vector<vector<pll>> g(MAX);
vector<ll> d(MAX, INF);

void dijkstra(ll start){
    pq.push({0, start});
    d[start] = 0;

    while(!pq.empty()){

        auto [cost, u] = pq.top(); pq.pop();
        if (cost > d[u]) continue;

        for (auto [v, w] : g[u]) {
            if (d[u] + w < d[v]) {
                d[v] = d[u] + w;
                pq.push({d[v], v});
            }
        }
    }
}
```

By inverting the sorting order, Dijkstra can be modified for the opposite operation: *longest paths*.

Furthermore, Dijkstra be extended to keep track of more information, such as:

- how many minimum-price routes are there? (modulo $10^9 + 7$)
- what is the minimum number of flights in a minimum-price route?
- what is the maximum number of flights in a minimum-price route?

```
f93094, 32 lines
extendedDijkstra.cpp
Description: Also counts the numbers of shortest paths, the minimum and
maximum number of edges transversed in any shortest path.
Time: O((V + E) log V)

priority_queue<pll, vector<pll>, greater<pll>> pq; // min pq
vector<vector<pll>> g(MAX);
vector<ll> d(MAX, INF), ways(MAX, 0), mx(MAX, -INF), mn(MAX,
    INF);
// INF = INT64_MAX

void dijkstra(ll start){
    pq.push({0, start});
    ways[start] = 1;
    d[start] = mn[start] = mx[start] = 0;
```

```
while( !pq.empty() ){
    auto [p1, u] = pq.top(); pq.pop();
    if (p1 > d[u]) continue;
    for(auto [v, p2] : g[u]){
        // reset info, shorter path found, previous ones
        are discarded
        if (d[u] + p2 < d[v]){
            d[v] = d[u] + p2;
            ways[v] = ways[u];
            mx[v] = mx[u]+1;
            mn[v] = mn[u]+1;

            pq.push({d[v], v});
        }
        // same distance, different path, update info
        else if (d[u] + p2 == d[v]) {
            ways[v] = (ways[v] + ways[u]) % MOD;
            mn[v] = min(mn[v], mn[u]+1);
            mx[v] = max(mx[v], mx[u]+1);
        }
    }
}
```

6.4.2 Bellman-Ford

Single Source and it **supports** negative edges

Conjecture: After at most $n-1$ (Vertices-1) iterations, all shortest paths will be found.

```
bellman-ford.cpp
Description: n-1 iterations is sufficient to find all shortest paths
Time: O(V * E) -> O(N^2)
d749f1, 15 lines

using T = array<ll, 3>;
vector<T> edges;
vector<ll> d(MAX, INF);
// INF = 0x3f3f3f3f3f3f3f3f, to avoid overflow

void BellmanFord(ll src, ll n) {
    d[src] = 0;
    for(ll i=0; i<n-1; i++) { // n-1 iterations
        for(auto [u, v, w] : edges) {
            if (d[u] + w < d[v]) {
                d[v] = d[u] + w;
            }
        }
    }
}
```

By iterating once more, one can check if the last iteration reduced once again any distance. If so, it means that there must be a negative cycle, because the shortest distance should have been found before elseway.

To retrieve the negative cycle itself, one can keep track of the last vertice that reaches a considered vertice

```
bellman-ford-cycle.cpp
Description: By using the property that n-1 iterations is sufficient to find
all shortest paths in a graph that doesn't have negative cycles. Iterate n
times and retrieve the path using a vector of parents
Time: O(V * E) -> O(N^2)
0506b5, 35 lines

using T = array<ll, 3>;
vector<T> edges;
```

```
vector<ll> d(MAX, INF), p(MAX, -1);
vector<ll> cycle;
// INF = 0x3f3f3f3f3f3f3f3f, to avoid overflow

void BellmanFordCycle(ll src, ll n) {
    d[src] = 0;
    ll x = -1; // possible node inside a negative cycle
    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) { // n iterations
        x = -1;
        for(auto [u, v, w] : edges) {
            if (d[u] + w < d[v]) {
                d[v] = d[u] + w;
                p[v] = u;
                x = v;
            }
        }
    }

    if (x != -1) {
        // set x to a node, contained in a cycle in p[]
        for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) x = p[x];

        ll tmp = x;
        do {
            cycle.pb(tmp);
            tmp = p[tmp];
        } while (tmp != x);
        cycle.pb(x);

        reverse(cycle.begin(), cycle.end());
    }
}
```

S

6.4.3 Floyd Warshall

All-Pair Shortest Paths

floyd-warshall.cpp
Description: By using an auxiliar vertice, check if a smaller path exists between a pair (u, v) of vertices, if so, update minimum distance.
Time: $O(V^3)$

```
// N < sqrt(31e8) = 460
ll N = 200;

// d[u][v] = INF (no edge)
vector<vll> d(N+1, vll(N+1, INF));

void floydWarshall() { // O(N^3)
    for(ll i=1; i<=N; i++) d[i][i] = 0;

    for(ll aux=1; aux<=N; aux++)
        for(ll u=1; u<=N; u++)
            for(ll v=1; v<=N; v++)
                if (d[u][aux] < INF and d[v][aux] < INF)
                    d[u][v] = min(d[u][v], d[u][aux] + d[v][aux]);
}
```

6.5 Eulerian Path

An *Eulerian trail* (or *Eulerian path*) is a trail in a finite graph that visits every edge exactly once (allowing for revisiting vertices). Similarly, an *Eulerian circuit* or *Eulerian cycle* is an Eulerian trail that starts and ends on the same vertex.

Euler’s Theorem: A connected graph has an Euler cycle if and only if every vertex has even degree.

An **Eulerian Graph** is a graph with an eulerian circuit, which implies that it is connected and also all vertices have even degree.

What conditions are required for a valid Eulerian Path/Circuit?

That depends on what kind of graph you’re dealing with. Altogether there are four flavors of the Euler path/circuit problem we care about:

	Eulerian Circuit	Eulerian Path
Undirected Graph	Every vertex has an even degree.	Either every vertex has even degree or exactly two vertices have odd degree.
Directed Graph	Every vertex has equal indegree and outdegree	At most one vertex has (outdegree) - (indegree) = 1 and at most one vertex has (indegree) - (outdegree) = 1 and all other vertices have equal in and out degrees.

If there are extra edges, which ones can be removed to generate a maximum size euler path?

Answer: In an undirected graph, one can remove the ones connecting two *odd* degree nodes, turning then into *even* ones. Do this until there are less or equal than 2 *odd* degree nodes.

```
hierholzer.cpp
Description: Check existence conditions and produce path if possible
Time:  $O(E)$ 

// Euler Circuit – Undirected Graph (1–idx)
pair<bool, vector<ll>> circuit(ll n, vector<pll> &edges, ll src = 1) {
    ll m = edges.size();
    vector<vector<pll>> g(n+1);

    for(ll i=0; i<m; i++) {
        auto [a, b] = edges[i];
        g[a].pb({b, i});
        g[b].pb({a, i});
    }

    // check for even degree
    for(ll i=0; i<=n; i++) {
        if (g[i].size() % 2) return {false, {}};
    }

    vector<ll> ans;
    vector<bool> vis(m, 0);
    function<void (ll)> dfs = [&](ll u) {
```

```
        while(g[u].size()) {
            auto [v, idx] = g[u].back();
            g[u].pop_back();
            if (vis[idx]) continue;
            vis[idx] = 1;
            dfs(v);
        }
        ans.pb(u);
    };
    dfs(src);

    // check for connectivity
    if (ans.size() != m + 1) return {false, {}};

    return {true, ans};
}

// Euler Path – Undirected Graph (1–idx)
pair<bool, vector<ll>> path(ll n, vector<pll> &edges, ll src, ll dst) {
    ll m = edges.size();
    vector<vector<pll>> g(n+1);

    for(ll i=0; i<m; i++) {
        auto [a, b] = edges[i];
        g[a].pb({b, i});
        g[b].pb({a, i});
    }

    // check for even degree (except src and dst)
    for(ll i=0; i<=n; i++) {
        if (i == src or i == dst) continue;
        if (g[i].size() % 2) return {false, {}};
    }

    vector<ll> ans;
    vector<bool> vis(m, 0);
    function<void (ll)> dfs = [&](ll u) {
        while(g[u].size()) {
            auto [v, idx] = g[u].back();
            g[u].pop_back();
            if (vis[idx]) continue;
            vis[idx] = 1;
            dfs(v);
        }
        ans.pb(u);
    };
    dfs(src);

    // check for connectivity
    if (ans.size() != m + 1) return {false, {}};

    reverse(ans.begin(), ans.end());
    return {true, ans};
}

// Euler Path – Directed Graph (1–idx)
pair<bool, vector<ll>> path(ll n, vector<pll> &edges, ll src, ll dst) {
    ll m = edges.size();
    vector<vector<ll>> g(n+1);

    vector<ll> in(n+1, 0), out(n+1, 0);
    for(auto [a, b] : edges) {
        g[a].pb(b);
        out[a]++, in[b]++;
    }

    // check for degrees
```



```
for(ll i=0; i<=n; i++) {
    if (i == src or i == dst) continue;
    if (in[i] - out[i] != 0) return {false, {}};
}
if (out[src] != in[src] + 1) return {false, {}};
if (in[dst] != out[dst] + 1) return {false, {}};

vector<ll> ans;
function<void (ll)> dfs = [&](ll u) {
    while(g[u].size()) {
        auto v = g[u].back();
        g[u].pop_back();
        dfs(v);
    }
    ans.pb(u);
};
dfs(src);

// check for connectivity
if (ans.size() != m + 1) return {false, {}};

reverse(ans.begin(), ans.end());
return {true, ans};
}
```

6.6 Undirected Graph

Bridges and Articulation Points are concepts for undirected graphs!

6.6.1 Bridges (Cut Edges)

Also called **isthmus** or **cut arc**.

A back-edge is never a bridge!

A **lowlink** for a vertice U is the closest vertice to the root reachable using only span edges and a *single* back-edge, starting in the subtree of U .

After constructing a DFS Tree, an edge (u, v) is a bridge \iff there is no back-edge from v (or a descendent of v) to u (or an ancestor of u)

To do this efficiently, it's used $tin[i]$ (entry time of node i) and $low[i]$ (minimum entry time considering all nodes that can be reached from node i).

In another words, a edge (u, v) is a bridge \iff the $low[v] \nlessdot tin[u]$.

bridges.cpp

Description: Using the concepts of entry time (tin) and lowlink (low), an edge is a bridge if, and only if, $low[v] > tin[u]$

Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

```
vector<vll> g(MAX);
ll timer = 1;
ll tin[MAX], low[MAX];
vector<pll> bridges;

void dfs(ll u, ll p = -1){
    tin[u] = low[u] = timer++;
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (tin[v]) // v was visited ({u,v} is a back-edge)
            // considering a single back-edge:
            low[u] = min(low[u], tin[v]);
    }
}
```

```
else { // v wasn't visited ({u, v} is a span-edge)
    dfs(v, u);
    // after low[v] was computed by dfs(v, u):
    low[u] = min(low[u], low[v]);
    if (low[v] > tin[u])
        bridges.pb({u, v});
}
}

void findBridges(ll n) {
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) if (!tin[i])
        dfs(i);
}
```

6.6.2 Bridge Tree

After merging *vertices* of a **2-edge connected component** into single vertices, and leaving only bridges, one can generate a Bridge Tree.

Every **2-edge connected component** has following properties:

- For each pair of vertices A, B inside the same component, there are at least 2 distinct paths from A to B (which may repeat vertices).

bridgeTree.cpp

Description: After finding bridges, set an component id for each vertice, then merge vertices that are in the same 2-edge connected component

Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

```
// g: u -> {v, edge id}
vector<vector<pll>> g(MAX);
vector<vll> gc(MAX);
ll timer = 1;
ll tin[MAX], low[MAX], comp[MAX];
bool isBridge[MAX];

void dfs(ll u, ll p = -1) {
    tin[u] = low[u] = timer++;
    for(auto [v, id] : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (tin[v])
            low[u] = min(low[u], tin[v]);
        else {
            dfs(v, u);
            low[u] = min(low[u], low[v]);
            if (low[v] > tin[u])
                isBridge[id] = 1;
        }
    }
}

void dfs2(ll u, ll c, ll p = -1) {
    comp[u] = c;
    for(auto [v, id] : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (isBridge[id]) continue;
        if (!comp[v]) dfs2(v, c, u);
    }
}

void bridgeTree(ll n) {
    // find bridges
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) if (!tin[i])
        dfs(i);

    // find components
```

```
for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) if (!comp[i])
    dfs2(i, i);

// condensate into a TREE (or TREES if disconnected)
for(ll u=1; u<=n; u++) {
    for(auto [v, id] : g[u]) {
        if (comp[u] != comp[v]) {
            gc[comp[u]].pb(comp[v]);
        }
    }
}

}
```

6.6.3 Articulation Points

One Vertice in a graph is considered a Articulation Points or Cut Vertice if its removal in the graph will generate more disconnected components

articulation.cpp

Description: if $low[v] \geq tin[u]$, u is an articulation points The root is a corner case

Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

```
vector<vll> g(MAX);
ll timer = 1;
ll low[MAX], tin[MAX], isAP[MAX];
// when vertex i is removed from graph
// isAP[i] is the quantity of new disjoint components created
// isAP[i] >= 1 {i is a Articulation Point}
void dfs(ll u, ll p = -1) {
    low[u] = tin[u] = timer++;

    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (tin[v]) // visited
            low[u] = min(low[u], tin[v]);
        else { // not visited
            dfs(v, u);
            low[u] = min(low[u], low[v]);

            if (low[v] >= tin[u])
                isAP[u]++;
        }
    }

    // corner case: root
    if (p == -1 and isAP[u]) isAP[u]--;
}

void findAP(ll n) {
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) if (!tin[i])
        dfs(i);
}
```

6.6.4 Block Cut Tree

After merging *edges* of a **2-vertex connected component** into single vertices, one can obtain a block cut tree.

2-vertex connected components are also called as biconnected component

Every bridge by itself is a biconnected component

Each edge in the block-cut tree connects exactly an Articulation Point and a biconnected component (bipartite graph)

Each biconnected component has the following properties:

- For each pair of edges, there is a cycle that contains both edges
- For each pair of vertices A, B inside the same connected component, there are at least 2 distinct paths from A to B (which do not repeat vertices).

blockCutTree.cpp

Description: After Merging 2-Vertex Connected Components, one can generate a block cut tree

Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

f752d5, 100 lines

```
// Block-Cut Tree (bruno monteiro)
//
// Cria a block-cut tree, uma arvore com os blocos
// e os pontos de articulacao
// Blocos sao as componentes 2-vertice-conexas maximais
// Uma 2-coloracao da arvore eh tal que uma cor sao
// os componentes, e a outra cor sao os pontos de articulacao
//
// Funciona para grafo nao conexo
//
// isAP[i] responde o numero de novas componentes conexas
// criadas apos a remocao de i do grafo g
// Se isAP[i] >= 1, i eh ponto de articulacao
//
// Para todo i < blocks.size()
// blocks[i] eh uma componente 2-vertice-conexa maximal
// blockEdges[i] sao as arestas do bloco i
//
// tree eh a arvore block-cut-tree
// tree[i] eh um vertice da arvore que corresponde ao bloco i
//
// comp[i] responde a qual vertice da arvore vertice i pertence
//
// Arvore tem no maximo 2n vertices
//
//  $\mathcal{O}(n+m)$ 
```

```
// 0-idx graph!!!
vector<vll> g(MAX), tree, blocks;
vector<vector<pll>> blockEdges;
stack<ll> st; // st for vertices,
stack<pll> st2; // st2 for edges
vector<ll> low, tin, comp, isAP;
ll timer = 1;
```

```
void dfs(ll u, ll p = -1) {
    low[u] = tin[u] = timer++;
```

```
    st.push(u);
```

```
    // add only back-edges to stack
    if (p != -1) st2.push({u, p});
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (tin[v] != -1) // visited
            st2.push({u, v});
    }
```

```
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (tin[v] != -1) // visited
            low[u] = min(low[u], tin[v]);
        else { // not visited
            dfs(v, u);
            low[u] = min(low[u], low[v]);
```

```
        if (low[v] >= tin[u]) {
            isAP[u] += 1;
```

```
        blocks.pb(vll(1, u));
        while(blocks.back().back() != v)
            blocks.back().pb(st.top(), st.pop());

        blockEdges.pb(vector<pll>(1, st2.top()), st2.
            pop());
        while(blockEdges.back().back() != pair<ll, ll>(
            v, u))
            blockEdges.back().pb(st2.top(), st2.pop());
    }
}

// corner case: root
if (p == -1 and isAP[u]) isAP[u]--;
}
```

```
void blockCutTree(ll n) {
```

```
    // initialize vectors and reset
    tree.clear(), blocks.clear(), blockEdges.clear();
    st = stack<ll>(), st2 = stack<pll>();
    tin.assign(n, -1);
    low.assign(n, 0), comp.assign(n, 0), isAP.assign(n, 0);
    timer = 1;
```

```
    // find Articulation Points
    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) if (tin[i] == -1)
        dfs(i);
```

```
    // set component id for APs
    tree.assign(blocks.size(), vll());
    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) if (isAP[i])
        comp[i] = tree.size(), tree.pb(vll());
```

```
    // set component id for non-APs and construct tree
    for(ll u=0; u<(ll)blocks.size(); u++) {
        for(auto v : blocks[u]) {
            if (!isAP[v])
                comp[v] = u;
            else
                tree[u].pb(comp[v]), tree[comp[v]].pb(u);
        }
    }
}
```

block-cut-tree.cpp

Description: Quirino Block cut tree

Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

ced4a8, 79 lines

```
// Block-Cut Tree {{{
struct BlockCutTree {
    int N;
    vector<vector<int>> const& G;
```

```
    stack<pair<int, int>> S;
    int TIMER = -1;
    vector<int> pre, low;
```

```
    vector<int> art;
    vector<bool> is_art;
    vector<vector<pair<int, int>>> bcc;
```

```
    vector<vector<int>>> BCT;
    vector<int> comp;
```

```
    void make_bcc(pair<int, int> until) {
        bcc.push_back({});
```

```
        pair<int, int> e{-1, -1};
        while (e != until) {
            e = S.top(); S.pop();
            bcc.back().push_back(e);
        }
    }
```

```
void dfs(int v, int p) {
    pre[v] = low[v] = ++TIMER;
```

```
    int children = 0;
    bool low_child = false;
```

```
    for (auto u : G[v]) {
        if (u == p) continue;
        if (pre[u] == -1) {
            S.push({v, u});
            dfs(u, v);
            children++;
```

```
            low[v] = min(low[v], low[u]);
            if (low[u] >= pre[v]) {
                low_child = true;
                make_bcc({v, u});
            }
        } else {
            low[v] = min(low[v], pre[u]);
        }
    }
```

```
    if ((p == -1 && children >= 2) || (p != -1 && low_child))
        art.push_back(v);
}
```

```
BlockCutTree(vector<vector<int>> const& G) : G(G), N(size(G))
{
    pre.assign(N, -1);
    low.assign(N, -1);
    for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) {
        if (pre[i] == -1) {
            dfs(i, -1);
        }
    }
}
```

```
is_art.resize(N, false);
for (auto v : art) is_art[v] = true;
```

```
BCT.resize(N + size(bcc));
comp.resize(N);
for (int i = 0; i < size(bcc); i++) {
    for (auto [v, u] : bcc[i]) {
        if (is_art[v] && (empty(BCT[v]) || BCT[v].back() != N+i))
            BCT[v].push_back(N+i), BCT[N+i].push_back(v);
        if (is_art[u] && (empty(BCT[u]) || BCT[u].back() != N+i))
            BCT[u].push_back(N+i), BCT[N+i].push_back(u);
        comp[v] = comp[u] = N+i;
    }
}
```

```
for (auto v : art) comp[v] = v;
}
```

```
};
//}}
```

6.6.5 Strong Orientation

A **strong orientation** of an undirected graph is an assignment of a direction to each edge that makes it a strongly connected graph. That is, after the orientation we should be able to visit any vertex from any vertex by following the directed edges.

Of course, this cannot be done to every graph. Consider a **bridge** in a graph. We have to assign a direction to it and by doing so we make this bridge "crossable" in only one direction. That means we can't go from one of the bridge's ends to the other, so we can't make the graph strongly connected.

Now consider a DFS through a bridgeless connected graph. Clearly, we will visit each vertex. And since there are no bridges, we can remove any DFS tree edge and still be able to go from below the edge to above the edge by using a path that contains at least one back edge. From this follows that from any vertex we can go to the root of the DFS tree. Also, from the root of the DFS tree we can visit any vertex we choose. We found a strong orientation!

In other words, to strongly orient a bridgeless connected graph, run a DFS on it and let the DFS tree edges point away from the DFS root and all other edges from the descendant to the ancestor in the DFS tree.

The result that bridgeless connected graphs are exactly the graphs that have strong orientations is called **Robbins' theorem**.

Acyclic Graph Orientation

Problem: Given an undirected graph, your task is to choose a direction for each edge so that the resulting directed graph is acyclic.

Solution: Do a dfs tree, every span-edge is oriented according to the dfs transversal, and every back-edge is oriented contrary to the dfs transversal

6.7 Directed Graph

6.7.1 Topological Sort

Sort a directed graph with no cycles (DAG) in an order which each source of an edge is visited before the sink of this edge.

Cannot have cycles, because it would create a contradiction of which vertices whould come before.

It can be done with a DFS, appending in the reverse order of transversal. Also a stack can be used to reverse order

toposort.cpp
Description: Using DFS pos order transversal and inverting the order, one can obtain the topological order
Time: $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$

75f781, 17 lines

```
vector<vll> g(MAX, vll());
vector<bool> vis;
vll topological;

void dfs(ll u) {
    vis[u] = 1;
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (!vis[v]) dfs(v);
    topological.pb(u);
}

// 1 - indexed
void topological_sort(ll n) {
    vis.assign(n+1, 0);
    topological.clear();
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) if (!vis[i]) dfs(i);
    reverse(topological.begin(), topological.end());
}

s
6.7.2 Kosaraju
A Strongly Connected Component is a maximal subgraph in
which every vertex is reachable from any vertex inside this same
subgraph.

A important property is that the inverted graph or transposed
graph has the same SCCs as the original graph.

kosaraju.cpp
Description: By using the fact that the inverted graph has the same SCCs,
just do a DFS twice to find all SCCs. A condensated graph can be created
if wished. The condensated graph is a DAG!!
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$ 
2eb446, 43 lines

struct Kosaraju {
    ll n;
    vector<vll> g, gi, gc;
    vector<bool> vis;
    vector<ll> comp;
    stack<ll, vll> st;

    void dfs(ll u) { // g
        vis[u] = 1;
        for(auto v : g[u]) if (!vis[v]) dfs(v);
        st.push(u);
    }

    void dfs2(ll u, ll c) { // gi
        comp[u] = c;
        for(auto v : gi[u]) if (comp[v] == -1) dfs2(v, c);
    }

    Kosaraju(vector<vll> &g_ : n(g_.size()-1), g(g_),
        gi(n+1), gc(n+1), vis(n+1, 0), comp(n+1, -1), st() { //
        1-idx

        for(ll u=1; u<=n; u++) {
            for(auto v : g[u]) {
                gi[v].pb(u);
            }
        }

        for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) if (!vis[i]) dfs(i);

        while(!st.empty()) {
            auto u = st.top(); st.pop();
```

```
            if (comp[u] == -1) dfs2(u, u);
        }

        for(ll u=1; u<=n; u++) {
            for(auto v : g[u]) {
                if (comp[u] != comp[v]) {
                    gc[comp[u]].pb(comp[v]);
                }
            }
        }
    };
};

6.7.3 2-SAT
SAT (Boolean satisfiability problem) is NP-Complete.

2-SAT is a restriction of the SAT problem, in 2-SAT every clause
has exactly two variables:  $(X_1 \vee X_2) \wedge (X_2 \vee X_3)$ 

Every restriction or implication are represented in the graph as
directed edges.

The algorithm uses kosaraju to check if any  $(X$  and  $\neg X)$  are in
the same Strongly Connected Component (which implies that the
problem is impossible).

If it doesn't, there is at least one solution, which can be
generated using the topological sort of the same kosaraju (opting
for the variables that appers latter in the sorted order)

2sat.cpp
Description: Kosaraju to find if there are SCCs containing X and !X. If
not, find a valid assignment using the topological order
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(V + E)$ 
25f80f, 75 lines

// 0-idx graph !!!
struct TwoSat {
    ll N; // needs to be the twice of the number of variables
    // node[2x] => variable x
    // node[2x+1] => variable !x

    // g = graph; gi = transposed graph (all edges are inverted
    )
    vector<vll> g, gi;
    ll idx = 1; // component idx
    vector<ll> comp, order; // order = topological order (
        reversed)
    vector<bool> vis, chosen;
    // chosen[x] == 0 -> x was assigned
    // chosen[x] == 1 -> !x was assigned

    // n = number of variables (add +1 for 1-idx)
    TwoSat(ll n) : N(2*n), g(N), gi(N), comp(N, -1), vis(N),
        chosen(n, 0) {}

    void dfs(ll u) {
        vis[u] = 1;
        for (auto v : g[u]) if (!vis[v]) dfs(v);
        order.pb(u);
    }

    void dfs2(ll u, ll c) {
        comp[u] = c;
        for (auto v : gi[u]) if (comp[v] == -1) dfs2(v, c);
    }
};
```

```
// returns true if there is a valid assignment
bool solve() {
    for (ll i=0; i<N; i++) if (!vis[i]) dfs(i);

    for (ll i=1; i=order.size()-1; i-->0; i--) {
        ll u = order[i];
        if (comp[u] == -1) dfs2(u, idx++);
    }

    for (ll i=0; i<N; i += 2) {
        // x and !x in the same component => contradiction
        if (comp[i] == comp[i+1]) return false;
        chosen[i/2] = comp[i] < comp[i+1]; // choose latter
        node
    }

    return true;
}

// a (with flagA) implies => b (with flagB)
void add(ll a, bool fa, ll b, bool fb) {
    // {fa == 0} => a
    // {fa == 1} => !a
    a = 2*a + fa;
    b = 2*b + fb;
    g[a].pb(b);
    gi[b].pb(a);
}

// force a state to be a certain variable (must be chosen)
void force(ll a, bool fa) {
    add(a, fa^1, a, fa);
}

// xor operation: one must exist, and only one can exist
void exclusive(ll a, bool fa, ll b, bool fb) {
    add(a, fa^0, b, fb^1);
    add(a, fa^1, b, fb^0);
    add(b, fb^0, a, fa^1);
    add(b, fb^1, a, fa^0);
}

// nand operation: no more than one can exist
void nand(ll a, bool fa, ll b, bool fb) {
    add(a, fa^0, b, fb^1);
    add(b, fb^0, a, fa^1);
}

};
```

6.8 Minimum Spanning Tree

6.8.1 Undirected Minimum Spanning Tree

A **minimum spanning tree (MST)** or minimum weight spanning tree is a subset of the edges of a connected, edge-weighted undirected graph that connects all the vertices together, without any cycles and with the minimum possible total edge weight. That is, it is a spanning tree whose sum of edge weights is as small as possible.

kruskal.cpp

Description: Sort all edges in crescent order by weight, include all edges which joins two disconnected trees. In case of tie, choose whichever. Dont include edges that will join a already connected part of the tree.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(E \log E\alpha)$

206ba3, 21 lines

```
// use DSU struct
struct DSU{;
```

```
set<array<ll, 3>> edges;

int32_t main(){ sws;
    ll n, m; cin >> n >> m;
    DSU dsu(n+1);
    for (ll i=0; i<m; i++) {
        ll u, v, w; cin >> u >> v >> w;
        edges.insert({w, u, v});
    }
    ll minCost = 0;
    for (auto [w, u, v] : edges) {
        if (dsu.find(u) != dsu.find(v)) {
            dsu.join(u, v);
            minCost += w;
        }
    }
    cout << minCost << endl;
}
```

6.8.2 Directed Minimum Spanning Tree

A **spanning arborescence of minimum weight**, sometimes called an **optimum branching**, is the directed analog of the *minimum spanning tree problem*.

Edmonds' algorithm with Tarjan's optimization

directed-mst.cpp

Description: Given a vector of directed edges with weights and a root, compute the cost of the directed minimum spanning tree (all nodes reachable from root); or return INF if it doesn't exist.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(m \log(n))$ for sparse graphs, $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ for dense graphs;

3ad7a5, 93 lines

```
using T = array<ll, 3>;

struct directedMST { // 0-idx
    struct Node {
        pair<ll, ll> val;
        ll lazy = 0;
        Node *l = NULL, *r = NULL;

        void push() {
            val.ff += lazy;
            if (l) l->lazy += lazy;
            if (r) r->lazy += lazy;
            lazy = 0;
        }
    };

    void erase(Node *i) {
        if (i) {
            erase(i->l), erase(i->r);
            delete i;
        }
    }

    pair<ll, ll> pop(Node* &i) {
        i->push();
        auto ret = i->val;
        Node *tmp = i;
        join(i->l, i->r);
        i = i->l;
        if (i) i->lazy -= ret.ff;
        delete tmp;
        return ret;
    }
};
```

```
ll n, root;
vector<T> edges;
vector<ll> group;
vector<Node*> h;

ll find(ll i) {
    return (group[i] == i) ? i : (group[i] = find(group[i]))
};

void join(Node* &a, Node* b) {
    if (!a) swap(a, b);
    if (!b) return;
    a->push(), b->push();
    if (a->val > b->val) swap(a, b);
    join((rand() % 2) ? a->l : a->r, b);
}

// 0-idx [0, n), edges = {u, v, w}, from U, to V, with
// weight W
directedMST(ll n_, ll root_, vector<T> &edges_)
: n(n_), root(root_), edges(edges_), group(n), h(n) {
    iota(group.begin(), group.end(), 0);
}

~directedMST() {
    for (auto i : h) erase(i);
};

ll solve() {
    for (auto [u, v, w] : edges) {
        join(h[v], new Node({w, u}));
    }

    vector<ll> p(n, -1), path(n);
    p[root] = root;
    ll ans = 0;

    for (ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
        ll u = i, at = 0;
        while (p[u] == -1) {
            if (!h[u]) return INF;

            path[at++] = u, p[u] = i;
            auto [mn, v] = pop(h[u]);
            ans += mn;

            if (p[u = find(v)] == i) {
                while (find(v = path[--at]) != u) {
                    join(h[u], h[v]);
                    h[v] = NULL;
                    group[find(v)] = u;
                }
                p[u] = -1;
            }
        }
    }

    return ans;
};
```

6.9 Trees

6.9.1 Centroid

A **centroid** of a tree with size N is defined as a node such that, when the tree is rooted at it, no other nodes have a subtree of size greater than $N/2$.

We can find a centroid in a tree by starting at any node and at, each step, loop through all of its children. If all of its children have a subtree whose size is $\leq N/2$, then this node is a centroid. Otherwise, move to the child with a subtree whose size is $> N/2$ and repeat until you find a centroid.

A tree can have a single centroid or two centroids.

```
centroid.cpp
Description: find the centroid(s) of a tree
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(V)$ 
66a9c6, 21 lines

// 0-idx
struct Centroid {
    vector<vector<ll>> g;
    ll n;
    vector<ll> sz, cs; // cs has the vertices that are
                       // centroids

    void find_centroid(ll u, ll p = -1) {
        sz[u] = 1;
        bool cent = true;
        for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
            find_centroid(v, u), sz[u] += sz[v];
            if (sz[v] > n/2) cent = false;
        }
        if (cent and n - sz[u] <= n/2) cs.pb(u);
    }
}
```

6.9.2 Centroid Decomposition
After finding a centroid, and removing it from the tree, several subtrees will be formed. By applying this function several times until no more splitting can be done, we are doing a centroid decomposition.

6.9.3 Centroid Tree

- 1. The centroid tree has height of $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$;

By ordering the nodes by the time it was removed, we can create the centroid tree.

- 2. A vertex belongs to the component (original tree) of all its ancestors (centroid tree).

centroid isomorphism lca binary-lifting

- 3. The path from a to b (original tree) can be decomposed into the path from a to $lca(a, b)$ and the path from $lca(a, b)$ to b (centroid tree). **Note** that the distance between nodes it's still measured in reference to the original tree.
- 4. Each one of the n^2 paths of the original tree is the concatenation of two paths in a set of $\mathcal{O}(n \log(n))$ paths from a node to all its ancestors in the centroid tree.

6.9.4 Tree Isomorphism

```
isomorphism.cpp
Description: compute the hash value of a tree (root and unrooted)
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(V \log V)$ 
fd7294, 39 lines

map<vector<int>, int> hashmap;

// 0-idx implementation
struct Tree {
    vector<vector<int>> g;
    int n;
    vector<int> sz, cs;

    // initialize G with the correct size, so that n = vertices
    // (exactly) !!
    Tree(vector<vector<int>> &g_) : g(g_), n(g.size()), sz(n) {}

    // function to get the centroid(s) of a tree and appends to
    // a vector
    void find_centroid(int u, int p = -1) {
        sz[u] = 1;
        bool cent = true;
        for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
            find_centroid(v, u), sz[u] += sz[v];
            if (sz[v] > n/2) cent = false;
        }
        if (cent and n - sz[u] <= n/2) cs.pb(u);
    }

    // get the hash of a rooted tree in (root = u) (returned
    // hash is int)
    int hash(int u, int p = -1) {
        vector<int> h;
        for(int v : g[u]) if (v != p) h.pb(hash(v, u));
        sort(h.begin(), h.end());
        if (!hashmap.count(h)) hashmap[h] = hashmap.size();
        return hashmap[h];
    }

    // get the hash of an unrooted tree (returned hash is long
    // long)
    ll uhash() {
        find_centroid(0); // 0-idx
        if (cs.size() == 1) return hash(cs[0]);
        ll h1 = hash(cs[0], cs[1]), h2 = hash(cs[1], cs[0]);
        return (min(h1, h2) << 30) + max(h1, h2);
    }
};
```

6.9.5 Lowest Common Ancestor (LCA)

Besides binary lifting, there is also the method of creating a tree-transversing array (euler tour), and then performing a range minimum query in the $tin[a]$ and $tin[b]$ to find $lca(a, b)$ using sparse tables.

```
lca.cpp
Description: Solves LCA for trees
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$  to build,  $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$  per query
7afc1a, 54 lines

struct BinaryLifting {
    ll n, logN = 20; // ~1e6
    vector<vll> g;
    vector<ll> depth;
    vector<vll> up;

    BinaryLifting(vector<vll> &g_)
        : g(g_), n(g_.size() + 1) { // 1-idx
        depth.assign(n, 0);

        while((1 << logN) < n) logN++;
        up.assign(n, vll(logN, 0));
        build();
    }

    void build(ll u = 1, ll p = -1) {
        for(ll i=1; i<logN; i++) {
            up[u][i] = up[ up[u][i-1] ][i-1];
        }

        for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
            up[v][0] = u;
            depth[v] = depth[u] + 1;
            build(v, u);
        }
    }

    ll go(ll u, ll dist) { //  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ 
        for(ll i=logN-1; i>=0; i--) { // bigger jumps first
            if (dist & (1LL << i)) {
                u = up[u][i];
            }
        }
        return u;
    }

    ll lca(ll a, ll b) { //  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ 
        if (depth[a] < depth[b]) swap(a, b);
        a = go(a, depth[a] - depth[b]);
        if (a == b) return a;

        for(ll i=logN-1; i>=0; i--) {
            if (up[a][i] != up[b][i]) {
                a = up[a][i];
                b = up[b][i];
            }
        }
        return up[a][0];
    }

    ll lca(ll a, ll b, ll root) { // lca(a, b) when tree is
        // rooted at 'root'
        return lca(a, b)^lca(b, root)^lca(a, root); // magic
    }
};
```

```
binary-lifting.cpp
Description: Binary Lifting to compute the min, max edge weight present
in the simple path a, lca(a, b), b
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$  to build;  $\mathcal{O}(\log(N))$  per query
8c0bc1, 67 lines

struct BinaryLifting {
    ll n, logN = 20; // ~1e6
    vector<vp1l> g;
    vector<ll> depth;
    vector<vll> up, mx, mn;
```

```

BinaryLifting(vector<vll> &g_)
: g(g_), n(g_.size() + 1) { // 1-idx
    depth.assign(n, 0);

    while((1 << logN) < n) logN++;
    up.assign(n, vll(logN, 0));
    mx.assign(n, vll(logN, -INF));
    mn.assign(n, vll(logN, INF));
    build();
}

void build(ll u = 1, ll p = -1) {

    for(ll i=1; i<logN; i++) {
        mx[u][i] = max(mx[u][i-1], mx[ up[u][i-1] ][i-1]);
        mn[u][i] = min(mn[u][i-1], mn[ up[u][i-1] ][i-1]);
        up[u][i] = up[ up[u][i-mn[v][0] = w;1] ][i-1];
    }

    for(auto [v, w] : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        mx[v][0] = mn[v][0] = w;
        up[v][0] = u;
        depth[v] = depth[u] + 1;
        build(v, u);
    }
}

array<ll, 3> go(ll u, ll dist) { // O(log(n))
    ll mxval = -INF, mnval = INF;
    for(ll i=logN-1; i>=0; i--) { // bigger jumps first
        if (dist & (1LL << i)) {
            mxval = max(mxval, mx[u][i]);
            mnval = min(mnval, mn[u][i]);
            u = up[u][i];
        }
    }
    return {u, mxval, mnval};
}

array<ll, 3> query(ll u, ll v) { // O(log(n))
    if (depth[u] < depth[v]) swap(u, v);

    auto [a, mxval, mnval] = go(u, depth[u] - depth[v]);
    ll b = v;

    if (a == b) return {a, mxval, mnval};

    for(ll i=logN-1; i>=0; i--) {
        if (up[a][i] != up[b][i]) {
            mxval = max({mxval, mx[a][i], mx[b][i]});
            mnval = min({mnval, mn[a][i], mn[b][i]});
            a = up[a][i];
            b = up[b][i];
        }
    }

    mxval = max({mxval, mx[a][0], mx[b][0]});
    mnval = min({mnval, mn[a][0], mn[b][0]});
    return {up[a][0], mxval, mnval};
}
};

```

6.9.6 Small To Large

Count the number of occurrences of each color in every subtree in $O(n \log(n))$.

sack.cpp

Description: Using small to large technique, copy the big child to parent and iterate small children.

Time: $O(n \log n)$

d6b8ca, 52 lines

```

vector<vll> g(MAX), vec(MAX);
vector<ll> color(MAX), sz(MAX, 1), cnt(MAX, 0);

// get size of each subtree
void dfsSize(ll u, ll p = -1) {
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        dfsSize(v, u);
        sz[u] += sz[v];
    }
}

// small to large dfs O(n log(n))
void dfs(ll u, ll p = -1, bool keep=true) {

    // find the biggest child
    ll mx = 0, big = -1;
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (sz[v] > mx) {
            mx = sz[v], big = v;
        }
    }

    // visit all small children
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p and v != big) {
        dfs(v, u, 0);
    }

    // visit big child, get his cnt
    if (big != -1) {
        dfs(big, u, 1);
        swap(vec[u], vec[big]);
    }

    // add itself
    vec[u].pb(u);
    cnt[color[u]] += 1;

    // add small children
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p and v != big) {
        for(auto id : vec[v]) {
            vec[u].pb(id);
            cnt[color[id]] += 1;
        }
    }

    // remove cnt from small children
    if (keep == 0) {
        for(auto id : vec[u]) {
            cnt[ color[id] ] -= 1;
        }
    }
}

```

6.9.7 Heavy Light Decomposition

hld.cpp

Description: Decompose tree into heavy paths

Time: $O(\log^2(N))$ for queries (log paths in tree and log due to the seg.)

887219, 44 lines

```

struct HLD {
    vector<vector<ll>> &g; // g[u][0] is the heavy child
    ll n, timer = 1;

    vector<ll> sz, parent, depth, head, tail, tin, tout, inv;
    // inv = invert tin

```

```

HLD(vector<vector<ll>> &g_)
: g(g_), n(g.size()), sz(n), parent(n), depth(n), head(
    n), tail(n), tin(n), tout(n), inv(n) {
    iota(head.begin(), head.end(), 0);
    dfs_sz(1);
    dfs_hld(1);
}

void dfs_sz(ll u, ll p = -1) {
    sz[u] = 1;
    for(auto &v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        parent[v] = u, depth[v] = depth[u] + 1;
        dfs_sz(v, u);
        sz[u] += sz[v];
        if (sz[v] > sz[g[u][0]] or g[u][0] == p) swap(v, g[
            u][0]);
    }
}

void dfs_hld(ll u, ll p = -1) {
    inv[timer] = tail[u] = u;
    tin[u] = timer++;
    for(auto v : g[u]) if (v != p) {
        if (v == g[u][0]) head[v] = head[u];
        dfs_hld(v, u);
    }
    tout[u] = timer;
    if(g[u].size() > 1) tail[u] = tail[g[u][0]];
}

// 1-idx, import Segtree struct if using queries
Segtree::Node query_path(ll a, ll b, Segtree &st) {
    if (tin[a] < tin[b]) swap(a, b);
    if (head[a] == head[b]) return st.query(tin[b], tin[a])
        ;
    return st.merge(
        st.query(tin[head[a]], tin[a]),
        query_path(parent[head[a]], b, st)
    );
}
};

```

Mathematics (7)

7.1 Modular Arithmetic

modular.cpp

Description: mint struct for modular arithmetic operations

Time: $O(1)$ for most operations, $O(\log(n))$ for division and exponentiation

b7a4c8, 58 lines

```

// supports operations between int/ll and mint,
// and it will return a mint object independently of the order
// of operations
template<ll P> struct Z {
    ll val;

    Z(ll a = 0) {
        val = a % P;
        if (val < 0) val += P;
    }

    Z& operator +=(Z rhs) {
        val += rhs.val;
        if (val >= P) val -= P;
        return *this;
    }

    friend Z operator +(Z lhs, Z rhs) { return lhs += rhs; }
};

```

```
Z& operator ==(Z rhs) {
    val += P - rhs.val;
    if (val >= P) val -= P;
    return *this;
}
friend Z operator -(Z lhs, Z rhs) { return lhs -= rhs; }

Z& operator *=(Z rhs) {
    val = (val * rhs.val) % P;
    return *this;
}
friend Z operator *(Z lhs, Z rhs) { return lhs *= rhs; }

Z operator ^(ll i) const {
    Z ans = 1, aux = val;
    while(i) {
        if (i & 1) ans *= aux;
        aux *= aux;
        i >>= 1;
    }
    return ans;
}

Z& operator /=(Z rhs) {
    return *this *= rhs^(P-2);
}
friend Z operator /(Z lhs, Z rhs) { return lhs /= rhs; }

bool operator ==(Z rhs) { return val == rhs.val; }

bool operator !=(Z rhs) { return val != rhs.val; }

friend ostream& operator <<(ostream& out, Z a) { return out
    << a.val; }

friend istream& operator >>(istream& in, Z& a) {
    ll x; in >> x;
    a = Z(x);
    return in;
}
};
using mint = Z<MOD>;
```

7.1.1 Lucas’s Theorem

$$\binom{n}{m} \equiv \prod_{i=0}^k \binom{n_i}{m_i} \pmod{p}$$

For p prime. n_i and m_i are the coefficients of the representations of n and m in base p .

Example:

$11 \text{ (in base } p=3) = 1 \cdot 3^2 + 0 \cdot 3^1 + 2 \cdot 3^0$
 $\implies n_2 = 1, n_1 = 0, n_0 = 2$

7.1.2 Fermat’s Little Theorem

Fermat’s little theorem states that if p is a prime number, then for any integer a , the number $a^p - a$ is an integer multiple of p :

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

If a is not divisible by p , that is, if a is coprime to p , then Fermat’s little theorem is equivalent to:

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

In other words, when doing a double exponentiation. Do:

$$a^{b^c} \pmod{p} \equiv a^{(b^c \pmod{p-1})} \pmod{p}$$

7.2 Combinatorics

$$\binom{n}{m} = \frac{n!}{m! \cdot (n - m)!}, \quad 0 \leq m \leq n$$

$$0, \quad \text{otherwise}$$

7.2.1 Factorial

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$n!$	1	2	6	24	120	720	5040	40320	362880	3628800
n	11	12	13	14	15	16	17			
$n!$	4.0e7	4.8e8	6.2e9	8.7e10	1.3e12	2.1e13	3.6e14			
n	20	25	30	40	50	100	150	171		
$n!$	2e18	2e25	3e32	8e47	3e64	9e157	6e262	>DBL_MAX		

7.2.2 Combinatorial Struct

```
combinatorics.cpp
Description: basic operations for combinatorics problems under a certain modulo
Time: O(n) to construct, O(1) operations
bb55e9, 87 lines

// remeber to import mint struct !!
struct Combinatorics {
    vector<mint> fact, ifact;

    Combinatorics(ll n) : fact(n+1), ifact(n+1) { // inclusive
        fact[0] = 1;
        for (ll i=1; i<=n; i++) fact[i] = fact[i-1] * i;

        ifact[n] = 1 / fact[n];
        for (ll i=n; i>0; i--) ifact[i-1] = ifact[i] * i;
    }

    // Combination, "Combinacao"
    // n objects to place in k spaces
    // the order doesn't matter, so we consider the re-orderings
    // = n! / (k! * (n-k)!)
    mint C(ll n, ll k) {
        if (k < 0 or n < k) return 0;
        return fact[n] * ifact[k] * ifact[n-k];
    }

    // Permutation, "Permutacao"
    // n objects to place in n spaces
    // = n!
    mint P(ll n) {
        if (n < 0) return 0;
        return fact[n];
    }
}
```

```
// Permutation with Repetition, "Permutacao com repeticao"
// Also called: Multinomial coefficients
// n objects to place in n spaces
// some objects are equal
// therefore, we consider the possible re-orderings
// = n! / (k1! k2! k3!)
mint PR(ll n, vector<ll> vec) {
    if (n < 0) return 0;
    mint ans = fact[n];
    for(auto val : vec) ans /= ifact[val];
    return ans;
}

// Arrangement, "Arranjo Simples"
// n objects to place in k spaces (k < n)
// n * (n-1) * ... * (n-k+1)
// = n! / (n-k)!
mint A(ll n, ll k) {
    if (n < 0) return 0;
    return fact[n] * ifact[n-k];
}

// Stars and Bars, "Pontos e Virgulas"
// n stars to distribute among
// k distint groups, that can contain 0, 1 or more stars
// separated by k-1 bars
// = (n+k-1)! / ( n! * (k-1)! )
mint SB(ll n, ll k) {
    if (k == 0) {
        if (n == 0) return 1;
        else return 0;
    }
    return C(n + k - 1, k - 1);
}

// a derangement is a permutation of the elements of a set
// in which no element appears in its original position
// In other words, a derangement is a permutation that has
// no fixed points.
// derangement(n) = subfactorial(n) = !n
// !n = (n-1) * ( !(n-1) + !(n-2) ), for n >= 2
// !1 = 0, !0 = 1
vector<mint> subfact;
void computeSubfactorials(ll n) {
    subfact.assign(n+1, 0);
    subfact[0] = 1;
    subfact[1] = 0;

    for(ll i=2; i<=n; i++) {
        subfact[i] = (i-1) * (subfact[i-1] + subfact[i-2]);
    }
}

// remeber to compute subfactorials first !!
mint derangement(ll n) {
    if (n < 0) return 0;
    return subfact[n];
}
};
Combinatorics op(MAX); // MAX = inclusive max_value for fact[]
```


7.2.3 Burnside Lemma

Let G be a group that acts on a set X . The Burnside Lemma states that the number of distinct orbits is equal to the average number of points fixed by an element of G .

$$T = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} |\text{fix}(g)|$$

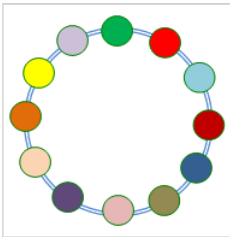
Where a orbit $\text{orb}(x)$ is defined as

$$\text{orb}(x) = \{y \in X : \exists g \in G \text{ } gx = y\}$$

and $\text{fix}(g)$ is the set of elements in X fixed by g

$$\text{fix}(g) = \{x \in X : gx = x\}$$

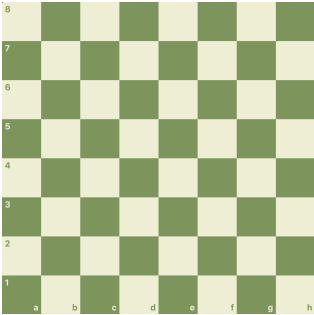
Example1: With k distinct types of beads how many distinct necklaces of size n can be made? Considering that two necklaces are equal if the rotation of one gives the other.



$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n k^{\text{gcd}(i,n)}$$

Example2: Count the number of different $n \times n$ grids whose each square is black or white.

Two grids are considered to be different if it is not possible to rotate one of them so that they look the same.



$$G(Rotations) = 0^\circ, 90^\circ, 180^\circ, 270^\circ$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(rotation) = \\ 0^\circ : &2^{(n^2)} \\ 90^\circ / 270^\circ : &2^{\frac{n^2}{4}}, \qquad n_{even} \\ &2^{\frac{n^2-1}{4}} \cdot 2, \qquad n_{odd} \\ 180^\circ : &2^{\frac{n^2}{2}}, \qquad n_{even} \\ &2^{\frac{n^2-1}{2}} \cdot 2, \qquad n_{odd} \end{aligned}$$

$$ans = \frac{1}{4}(f(0^\circ) + f(90^\circ) + f(180^\circ) + f(270^\circ))$$

7.2.4 Interesting Recursion

$$f(a,b) = f(a-1,b) + f(a,b-1)$$

$$\implies f(a,b) = \frac{(a+b)!}{a!b!} = \binom{a+b}{a}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} f(a,b) &= \frac{(a+b)!}{a!b!} \\ \implies f(a-1,b) &= \frac{(a-1+b)!}{(a-1)!b!}, f(a,b-1) = \frac{(a+b-1)!}{a!(b-1)!} \\ \implies f(a-1,b) + f(a,b-1) &= \frac{(a-1+b)!}{(a-1)!b!} + \frac{(a+b-1)!}{a!(b-1)!} \\ \implies f(a,b) &= (a+b-1)! \cdot \left(\frac{1}{(a-1)!(b)!} + \frac{1}{(a)!(b-1)!} \right) \\ \implies f(a,b) &= (a+b-1)! \cdot \left(\frac{a+b}{a!b!} \right) \\ \implies f(a,b) &= \frac{(a+b)!}{a!b!} = \binom{a+b}{a} \end{aligned}$$

7.3 Number Theory

7.3.1 Highly Composite Numbers

<=	Divisors	Number	Factorization
1e3	32	840	2 ³ 3 5 7
1e4	64	7560	2 ³ 3 ³ 5 7
1e5	128	83160	2 ³ 3 ³ 5 7 11
1e6	240	720720	2 ⁴ 3 ² 5 7 11 13
1e9	1344	735134400	2 ⁶ 3 ³ 5 ² 7 11 13 17
1e12	6720	963761198400	2 ⁶ 3 ⁴ 5 ² 7 11 13 17 19 23
1e14	17280	97821761637600	2 ⁵ 3 ⁴ 5 ² 7 ² 11 13 17 19 23 29
1e15	26880	866421317361600	2 ⁶ 3 ⁴ 5 ² 7 11 13 17 19 23 29 31
1e18	103680	897612484786617600	2 ⁸ 3 ⁴ 5 ² 7 ² 11 13 17 19 23 29 31 37

7.3.2 Divisibility

“a is divisible by b” or “a is a multiple of b” or “b is a divisor of a” or “b is a factor of a” or “b divides a” or “(b|a)”

$$a \% b == 0$$

“a1, a2 are divisible by b”

$$\text{gcd}(a1, a2) \% b = 0$$

“a is divisible by b1 and b2”

$$a \% \text{lcm}(b1, b2) = 0$$

Euclid

$$a = bq + r$$

Lema 1 - Transitivity

“a is divisible by b and b is divisible by c”

$$(a|b), (b|c) \implies (a|c)$$

Lema 2

$$(a|b), (a|c) \implies a|(rb + sc)$$

Lema 3

$$d = \text{gcd}(a,b) \implies \text{gcd}(a/d, b/d) = 1$$

Lema 4

$$d = \text{gcd}(a,b) \implies d = ra + sb \implies (d_0|a), (d_0|b) \implies (d_0|d)$$

Lema 5

$$(a|bc), \text{gcd}(a,b) = 1 \implies (a|c)$$

Lema 6

$$a = bq + r, 1 \leq r < b \implies \text{gcd}(a,b) = \text{gcd}(b,r)$$

Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gcd}(a) &= a \\ \text{gcd}(a,b,c) &= \text{gcd}(\text{gcd}(a,b),c) \\ \text{gcd}(a,b) &= (a * b) / \text{lcm}(a,b) \end{aligned}$$

Least Commom Multiple (LCM)

lcm(a) = a

lcm(a,b,c) = lcm(lcm(a,b),c)

lcm(a,b) = (a * b)/gcd(a,b)

Observation: `std-c++17` implements `gcd()` function, which works correctly for negative numbers as well:

gcd(a,b) = gcd(-a,-b) = gcd(-a,b) = gcd(a,-b)

7.3.3 Closed Formulas related to divisors of a number

Let n be a number represented by it's prime factors p_i and respective exponents e_i :

n = p₁^{e₁} · p₂^{e₂} · · · p_k^{e_k}

Number of Divisors

d(n) = (e₁ + 1) · (e₂ + 1) · · · (e_k + 1)

C_i = C_{i-1} · (e_i + 1)

Sum of Divisors

σ(n) = (p₁^{e₁+1} - 1) / (p₁ - 1) · (p₂^{e₂+1} - 1) / (p₂ - 1) · · · (p_k^{e_k+1} - 1) / (p_k - 1)

S_i = S_{i-1} · (p_i^{e_i+i} - 1) / (p_i - 1)

Product of Divisors

P_i = (P_{i-1})^(e_i+1) · (p_i^{(e_i(e_i+1))/2})^{C_{i-1}}

where, C_i = “Number of Divisors considering i factors”. And remeber to use **Fermat’s Little Theorem**

7.3.4 Sieves

These sieves are used to find all primes up to an upper bound N , which is usually 10^7

Eratosthenes

Eratosthenes uses less memory than the linear sieve and is almost as fast

```
eratosthenes.cpp
Description: Optimized sieve of eratosthenes
Time: O(N log log N)
8d74e5, 15 lines

// O(N log^2(N)) -> Teorema de Merten
vector<ll> primes {2, 3};
bitset<MAX> sieve; // {sieve[i] == 1} if i is prime
// MAX can be ~1e7

void eratosthenes(ll n){
    sieve.set();
    for(ll i=5, step=2; i<=n; i+=step, step = 6 - step){
        if(sieve[i]){ // i is prime
            primes.pb(i);
            for(ll j= i*i; j<=n; j += 2*i) // sieving all odd multiples of i
                sieve[j] = false;
        }
    }
}
```

Linear Sieve

Can check primality with $sp[i] == i$

Uses more memory, because sp is a vector of integers.

```
linear-sieve.cpp
Description: Linear Sieve that iterates every value once (prime) or twice (composite)
Time: O(N)
251ebd, 17 lines

vector<ll> primes, sp(MAX); // MAX = ~1e7
// sp[i] = smallest prime divisor of i
// after running sieve(), sp[i] == i for primes

void sieve(ll n){
    for (ll i=2; i <= n; i++) {
        if (sp[i] == 0) { // i is prime
            sp[i] = i; // {sp[i] == i} for prime numbers
            primes.pb(i);
        }
        // visit every composite number that has primes[j] as the sp
        for (ll j = 0; i * primes[j] <= n; j++) {
            sp[i * primes[j]] = primes[j];
            if (primes[j] == sp[i]) break;
        }
    }
}
```

7.3.5 Factorization

```
factorization.cpp
Description: Factorization
Time: O(√n) for trial division; O(log 2(n)) using smallest prime
d1a075, 22 lines

vector<ll> factorization(ll n){ // O(sqrt(n))
    vector<ll> factors;
    for(auto p : prime){
        if (p*p > n) break;
        while(n % p == 0){
            factors.pb(p);
            n /= p;
        }
    }
    if (n > 1) factors.pb(n);
    return factors;
}
```

```
// import linear sieve
vector<ll> factorization(ll a) { // log2(a)
    vector<ll> factors;
    while(a > 1) {
        factors.pb(sp[a]);
        a /= sp[a];
    }
    return factors;
}
```

7.3.6 Extended Euclid

Solves the $ax + by = gcd(a, b)$ equation.

Inverse Multiplicative

if $gcd(a, b) = 1$:

then:

ax + by ≡ 1

also, if you apply (mod b) to the equation:

ax (mod b) + by (mod b) ≡ 1 (mod b)

ax ≡ 1 (mod b)

In other words, one can find the inverse multiplicative of any number a in modulo b if $gcd(a, b) = 1$

Diofantine Equation

ax ≡ c (mod b)

if $g = gcd(a, b, c) \neq 1$, divide everything by g .

After this, if $gcd(a, b) = 1$, find a^{-1} , then multiply both sides of the Diofantine equation.

x ≡ c * a⁻¹ (mod b)

After this, one has simply found x

```
extended-euclid.cpp
Description: Solves the a * x + b * y = gcd(a, b) equation
Time: O(log min(a, b))
dfd1d4, 24 lines

// equation: a*x + b*y = gcd(a, b)
// input: (a, b)
// returns gcd of (a, b)
// also computes ℰx and ℰy, which are passed by reference

ll extendedEuclid(ll a, ll b, ll &x, ll &y) {
    x = 1, y = 0;
    ll x1 = 0, y1 = 1, a1 = a, b1 = b;
    while (b1) {
        ll q = a1 / b1;
        tie(x, x1) = pair{x1, x - q * x1};
        tie(y, y1) = pair{y1, y - q * y1};
        tie(a1, b1) = pair{b1, a1 - q * b1};
    }
```

```

    }
    return a1;
}

// returns val^(-1) (mod m)
// <=> gcd(val, m) == 1
ll inv(ll val, ll m) {
    ll x, y;
    extendedEuclid(val, m, x, y);
    return ((x % m) + m) % m;;
}

```

7.4 FFT

FFT can be used to turn a polynomial multiplication complexity to $O(N \log N)$.

A **convolution** is easily computed by inverting the second vector and doing the polynomial multiplication normally.

fft-simple.cpp

Description: Computes the product between two polynomials using fft

Time: $O(N \log N)$ 6f735a, 69 lines

```

// #define ld long double
// const ld PI = acos(-1);

```

```

struct num {
    ld a {0.0}, b {0.0};
    num() {}
    num(ld na) : a{na} {}
    num(ld na, ld nb) : a{na}, b{nb} {}
    const num operator +(const num &c) const {
        return num(a + c.a, b + c.b);
    }
    const num operator -(const num &c) const {
        return num(a - c.a, b - c.b);
    }
    const num operator *(const num &c) const {
        return num(a*c.a - b*c.b, a*c.b + b*c.a);
    }
    const num operator /(const int &c) const {
        return num(a/c, b/c);
    }
};

void fft(vector<num> &a, bool invert) {
    int n = (int)a.size();
    for(int i=1, j=0; i<n; i++) {
        int bit = n>>1;
        for(; j&bit; bit>>=1)
            j^=bit;
        j^=bit;
        if(i<j) swap(a[i], a[j]);
    }
    for(int len = 2; len <= n; len <= 1) {
        ld ang = 2 * PI / len * (invert ? -1 : 1);
        num wlen(cos(ang), sin(ang));
        for(int i=0; i<n; i+=len) {
            num w(1);
            for (int j=0; j<len/2; j++) {
                num u = a[i+j], v = a[i+j+len/2] * w;
                a[i+j] = u + v;
                a[i+j+len/2] = u - v;
                w = w * wlen;
            }
        }
    }
    if(invert) {

```

```

        for(num &x: a)
            x = x/n;
    }
}

vector<ll> multiply(vector<int> const& a, vector<int> const& b)
{
    vector<num> fa(a.begin(), a.end());
    vector<num> fb(b.begin(), b.end());
    int n = 1;
    while(n < int(a.size() + b.size()) )
        n <= 1;
    fa.resize(n);
    fb.resize(n);
    fft(fa, false);
    fft(fb, false);
    for(int i=0; i<n; i++)
        fa[i] = fa[i]*fb[i];
    fft(fa, true);
    vector<ll> result(n);
    for(int i=0; i<n; i++)
        result[i] = (ll) round(fa[i].a);
    // while(result.back()==0) result.pop_back();
    return result;
}

```

7.5 Matrix

For faster linear recurrence computation with matrix exponentiation.

$$Base * Operator^k = Result$$

matrix.cpp

Description: Matrix structure using vector<vector<T>> as a container.

Time: $O(n^2)$ for sum, $O(n^3)$ for product and $O(n^3 \log(k))$ for exp fc44ae, 53 lines

```

template<class T> struct Matrix : vector<vector<T>> {
    ll n, m; // rows, columns

    // identity == 0 => Empty matrix constructor
    // identity == 1 => Generates a Identity Matrix (square matrix)
    Matrix(ll row, ll col, bool identity = 0) : n(row), m(col)
    {
        (*this).assign(row, vector<T>(col, 0));
        if (identity) {
            assert(n == m);
            for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) (*this)[i][i] = 1;
        }
    }

    // A+B (sizeof(A) == sizeof(B))
    Matrix operator +(const Matrix &b) const { // O(n^2)
        assert(n == b.n and m == b.m);
        Matrix ans(n, m);
        for(ll i=0; i<n; i++){
            for(ll j=0; j<m; j++){
                ans[i][j] = (*this)[i][j] + b[i][j];
            }
        }
        return ans;
    }

    // A*B (A.column == B.row)
    Matrix operator *(const Matrix &b) const { // O(n^3)
        ll n2 = b.n, m2 = b.m;

```

```

    assert(m == n2);
    Matrix ans(n, m2);
    for(ll i=0; i<n; i++){
        for(ll j=0; j<m2; j++){
            for(ll k=0; k<n2; k++){
                ans[i][j] += (*this)[i][k] * b[k][j];
            }
        }
    }
    return ans;
}

// A^i (n == m)
Matrix operator ^ (ll i) const { // O(n^3 log(i))
    assert(n == m);
    Matrix ans(n, n, 1); // identity matrix
    Matrix tmp = *this;
    while(i) {
        if (i & 1) ans = (ans * tmp);
        tmp = (tmp * tmp);
        i >>= 1;
    }
    return ans;
}
};

```

7.5.1 Minimum Path Length with exactly k edges

Consider a directed weighted graph having n nodes and m edges. Your task is to calculate the minimum path length from node 1 to node n with exactly k edges.

This task is solved the using matrix exponentiation the same way as the problem of **Counting the Number of Paths with exactly k edges**. But there are some modifications in the matrix properties:

The *null* (and default) element is now *INF*. The identity is composed of 0 in the diagonal. And the product of matrices defined as:

$$AB[i, j] = \min_{k=1}^n (AB[i, j], A[i, k] + B[k, j])$$

Finally, the operator matrix contains the value of the minimum weight in each pairwise nodes or *INF* (if no edges).

7.6 Series' Closed Formulas

7.6.1 Natural Number Summation (PA)

$$1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + \dots + n - 1 + n$$

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

7.6.2 Natural Number Quadratic Summation

$$1 + 4 + 9 + 16 + 25 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2$$

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

7.6.3 Triangular Numbers Summation

$$\begin{aligned} &1 + 3 + 6 + 10 + 15 + \dots + \frac{(n-1)(n)}{2} + \frac{(n)(n+1)}{2} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i(i+1)}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n i \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right) \end{aligned}$$

7.7 Xor Basis

A *basis* is composed of N **linearly indepedent** vectors, meaning that no combination of other vectors present in the basis can form a reference vector also present in the basis.

The *span* is the set of generatable vectors by a linear combination of the vectors in the basis. The number of vectors present in the span is 2^N , where N is the number of vectors present in the basis. This is because for each vector in the basis, you can include it or not, and each combination will generate an unique vector.

Therefore, each vector in the span has an **unique** combination that forms it.

Given that you have M vectors at your disposal and N of them ($N \leq M$) forms the base, the dimension of the *kernel* is $M - N$, which represents redundant vectors.

For each redundant vector, the numbers of ways to form a vector in the span **doubles**. Consequently, each vector in the span can be generated using $2^{(M - N)}$ unique linear combinations of the given vectors.

(*red* = *reduce(val)*) is the reduced form of a vector considering a certain basis.

If the reduced form is 0, that means that this considered vector can already be generated by this basis.

Otherwise, the reduced form of a number is the value that when “xoring” with all the N elements already present in the basis, will generate another N vectors that weren’t present in the previous span. Therefore, doubling the number of generatable vectors.

7.7.1 Note:

Instead of integers, bitsets can also be used to for the xor-basis.

For range queries, we can reorder the queries and process them by R . In addition, we create an array of `xb[L]`, that will contain the xor-basis starting from L . This will give a complexity of probably $O(N \log^2 N + Q)$. See code for more details.

7.7.2 Solves:

- Find if a certain vector can be formed by the basis (*if(reduce(val) != 0)*)
- Find how many linear combinations form a certain vector (*ans = 2^{(dim(kernel))}*)
- Find the maximum vector that can be formed (*mx = max(mx, mx^b)*)
- Find the k-th generatable value by the basis (*gaussJordan()*, look at the binary representation of K)

```
xor-basis.cpp
Description: Xor Basis
Time: O(size(base)) = O(log mx_val); 538793, 98 lines

struct XorBasis {
    vector<ll> B; // basis

    ll reduce(ll vec) {
        for(auto b : B) vec = min(vec, vec^b);
        return vec;
    }

    void add(ll vec) {
        ll val = reduce(vec);
        if (val) B.pb(val);
    }
};

// Extended //
struct XorBasis {
    vector<ll> B;
    ll mx = 0;

    ll reduce(ll vec) {
        if (!vec) return 0;
        for(auto b : B) vec = min(vec, vec^b);
        return vec;
    }

    bool add(ll vec) {
        ll val = reduce(vec);
        if (val) {
            B.pb(val);
            mx = max(mx, mx^val);
            return true;
        }
        return false;
    }

    ll dim() {
        return B.size();
    }

    // Gaussian elimination in O(dim^2)
    // each bit below and above the pivot are zeroed
    // Basis will be ordered from MSB to LSB
    void gaussJordan() {
        sort(B.begin(), B.end(), greater<ll>());
        for(ll i=1; i<(ll)B.size(); i++) {
            for(ll j=0; j<i; j++) {
                B[j] = min(B[j], B[j]^B[i]);
            }
        }
    }
};
```

```
};

// Problem description: (Ivan and Burgers)
// given a static array x[1, N]
// for each query, answer then max xor-sum of any subset in
// subarray [L, R]
// Constrains: 1 <= L <= R <= N, N <= 5e5, Q <= 5e5

// Probably the complexity is O(N log^2(N) + Q)
// Similarly, we can answer other type of queries related to
// xor-basis,
// because we will have it computed (Atcoder: H - Xor Query)
int32_t main() { sws;
    ll n; cin >> n;

    vector<ll> x(n+1);
    for(ll i=1; i<=n; i++) {
        cin >> x[i];
    }

    vector<vector<pll>> queries(n+1);
    ll q; cin >> q;
    for(ll i=1; i<=q; i++) {
        ll l, r; cin >> l >> r;
        queries[r].pb({l, i});
    }

    vector<XorBasis> xb(n+1); // extended version of XorBasis
    vector<ll> ans(q+1);

    for(ll r=1; r<=n; r++) {

        // O(de bom), maybe log?
        for(ll l=r; l>=1; l--) {
            if (!xb[l].add(x[r])) break;
            // We can break here, because this xor-basis of L
            // already contains a basis that doesn't need x[r]
            // Therefore, the xor-basis of L-1, L-2, ..., which
            // contains the xor-basis of L, also doesn't
            // need x[r]
        }

        // solve all queries ending in r,
        // knowing that all xor-basis are computed up to r.
        for(auto [left, i] : queries[r]) {
            ans[i] = xb[left].mx;
        }
    }

    for(ll i=1; i<=q; i++) {
        cout << ans[i] << endl;
    }
}
```

Strings (8)

8.1 Hashing

Hashing consists in generating a Polynomial for the string, therefore, assigning each distint string to a specific numeric value In practice, there will always be some collisions:

Probability of colision: = $\frac{n^2}{2^m}$

n = Comparissons, m = mod size

when using multiple mods, they multiply: $m = m1 * m2$

```
hashing.cpp
Description: Create a numerical value for a string by using polynomial hashing
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  to build,  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  per query c3a650, 43 lines

// s[0]*P^n + s[1]*P^(n-1) + ... + s[n]*P^0
// 0-idx
struct Hashing {
    ll n, mod;
    string s;
    vector<ll> p, h; // p = P^i, h = accumulated hash sum

    const ll P = 31; // can be 53

    Hashing(string &s_, ll m)
        : n(s_.size()), s(s_), mod(m), p(n), h(n) {

        for(ll i=0; i<n; i++)
            p[i] = (i ? P*p[i-1] : 1) % mod;

        for(ll i=0; i<n; i++)
            h[i] = (s[i] + P*(i ? h[i-1] : 0)) % mod;
    }

    ll query(ll l, ll r) { // [l, r] inclusive (0-idx)
        ll hash = h[r] - (l ? (p[r-l+1]*h[l-1]) % mod : 0);
        return hash < 0 ? hash + mod : hash;
    }
};

// for codeforces:
mt19937 rng(chrono::steady_clock::now().time_since_epoch().count());

int32_t main() { sws;
    vector<ll> mods = {
        1000000009,10000000021,10000000033,
        10000000087,10000000093,10000000097,
        1000000103,1000000123,1000000181,
        1000000207,1000000223,1000000241,
        1000000271,1000000289,1000000297
    };

    shuffle(mods.begin(), mods.end(), rng);

    string s; cin >> s;

    Hashing hash(s, mods[0]);
}
```

8.2 Z-Function

Suppose we are given a string s of length n . The Z-function for this string is an array of length n where the i -th element is equal to the greatest number of characters starting from the position i that coincide with the first characters of s (the prefix of s)

The first element of the Z-function, $z[0]$, is generally not well defined. This implementation assumes it as $z[0] = 0$. But it can also be interpreted as $z[0] = n$ (all characters coincide).

Can be used to solve the following simples problems:

- Find all occurrences of a pattern p in another string s . ($p + s$) ($z[i] == p.size()$)

hashing zfunction kmp suffix-array

- Find all borders. A border of a string is a prefix that is also a suffix of the string but not the whole string. For example, the borders of `abcabab` are `ab` and `abcab`. ($z[8] = 2, z[5] = 5$) ($z[i] = n-i$)
- Find all period lengths of a string. A period of a string is a prefix that can be used to generate the whole string by repeating the prefix. The last repetition may be partial. For example, the periods of `abca` are **abc**, **abca** and **abca**.

It works because $(z[i] + i \leq n)$ is the condition when the common characters of $z[i]$ in addition to the elements already passed, exceeds or is equal to the end of the string. For example:

`abaababab` $z[8] = 2$

abaabab is the period; the remaining ($z[i]$ characters) are a prefix of the period; and when all these characters are combined, it can form the string (which has n characters).

```
zfunction.cpp
Description: For each substring starting at position i, compute the maximum match with the original prefix. z[0] = 0
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  14b37c, 12 lines

vector<ll> z_function(string &s) { // O(n)
    ll n = (ll) s.length();
    vector<ll> z(n);
    for (ll i=1, l=0, r=0; i<n; i++) {
        if (i <= r) z[i] = min(r - i + 1, z[i - l]);

        while (i + z[i] < n and s[z[i]] == s[i + z[i]]) z[i]++;

        if (r < i + z[i] - 1) l = i, r = i + z[i] - 1;
    }
    return z;
}
```

8.3 KMP

KMP stands for Knuth-Morris-Pratt and computes the prefix function.

You are given a string s of length n . The prefix function for this string is defined as an array π of length n , where $\pi[i]$ is the length of the longest proper prefix of the substring $s[0 \dots i]$ which is also a suffix of this substring. A proper prefix of a string is a prefix that is not equal to the string itself. By definition, $\pi[0] = 0$.

For example, prefix function of string `"abcab"` is $[0, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 0]$, and prefix function of string `"aabaab"` is $[0, 1, 0, 1, 2, 2, 3]$.

```
kmp.cpp
Description: Computes the prefix function
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  3f2929, 13 lines

vector<ll> kmp(string &s) { // O(n)
    ll n = (ll) s.length();
```

```
vector<ll> pi(n, 0); // pi[0] = 0
for (ll i=1; i<n; i++) {
    ll j = pi[i-1];
    while (j > 0 and s[i] != s[j])
        j = pi[j-1];
    if (s[i] == s[j])
        j++;
    pi[i] = j;
}
return pi;
}
```

8.3.1 Patterns in a String

Given a string p (pattern) and a string s , we want to find and display the positions of all occurrences of the string p in the string s .

Solution: Concatenate $p + '$' + s$, each position where $pi[i] == p.size() \implies$ a match of the pattern in this substring.

8.4 Suffix Array

The suffix array is the array with size n , whose values are the indexes from the longest substring (0) to the smallest substring (n) after ordering it lexicographically. Example:

```
Let the given string be "banana".

0 banana          5 a
1 anana           Sort the Suffixes  3 ana
2 nana            ----->          1 anana
3 ana             alphabetically    0 banana
4 na              4 na
5 a               2 nana

So the suffix array for "banana" is {5, 3, 1, 0, 4, 2}
```

Note that the length of the string i is: $(s.size()-sa[i])$

```
suffix-array.cpp
Description: Creates the Suffix Array
Time:  $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$  49608b, 20 lines

vector<ll> suffixArray(string s) {
    s += "!";
    ll n = s.size(), N = max(n, 260LL);
    vector<ll> sa(n), ra(n);
    for (ll i = 0; i < n; i++) sa[i] = i, ra[i] = s[i];

    for (ll k = 0; k < n; k ? k *= 2 : k++) {
        vector<ll> nsa(sa), nra(n), cnt(N);

        for (ll i = 0; i < n; i++) nsa[i] = (nsa[i]-k+n)%n, cnt[ra[i]]++;
        for (ll i = 1; i < N; i++) cnt[i] += cnt[i-1];
        for (ll i = n-1; i+1; i--) sa[--cnt[ra[nsa[i]]]] = nsa[i];

        for (ll i = 1, r = 0; i < n; i++) nra[sa[i]] = r += ra[sa[i]] != ra[sa[i-1]] or ra[(sa[i]+k)%n] != ra[(sa[i-1]+k)%n];
        ra = nra;
        if (ra[sa[n-1]] == n-1) break;
    }
    return vector<ll>(sa.begin()+1, sa.end());
}
```

```
}
```

Kasai generates an array of size n (like the suffix array), whose values indicates the lenght of the longest common prefix beetwen ($sa[i]$ and $sa[i+1]$)

kasai.cpp

Description: Creates the Longest Common Prefix array (LCP)
Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$

913195, 13 lines

```
vector<ll> kasai(string s, vector<ll> sa) {
    ll n = s.size(), k = 0;
    vector<ll> ra(n), lcp(n);
    for (ll i = 0; i < n; i++) ra[sa[i]] = i;

    for (ll i = 0; i < n; i++, k -= !!k) {
        if (ra[i] == n-1) { k = 0; continue; }
        ll j = sa[ra[i]+1];
        while (i+k < n and j+k < n and s[i+k] == s[j+k]) k++;
        lcp[ra[i]] = k;
    }
    return lcp;
}
```

Problems that can be solved:

Numbers of Distinct Substrings:

- $\frac{n(n+1)}{2} - lcp[i]$ (for all i)

Longest Repeated Substring:

- biggest $lcp[i]$. The position can be found in $sa[i]$

Find how many distinct substrings there are for each len in $[1:n]$:

- Use delta encoding and the fact that $lcp[i]$ counts the repeated substring between $s.substr(sa[i])$ and $s.substr(sa[i+1])$, which are the substrings corresponding to the commom prefix.

Find the k -th distinct substring:

```
string s; cin >> s;
ll n = s.size();

auto sa = suffix_array(s);
auto lcp = kasai(s, sa);

ll k; cin >> k;

for(ll i=0; i<n; i++) {
    ll len = n-sa[i];
    if (k <= len) {
        cout << s.substr(sa[i], k) << endl;
        break;
    }
    k += lcp[i] - len;
}
```

8.5 Manacher

Manacher’s Algorithm is used to find all palindromes in a string.

For each substring, centered at i , find the longest palindrome that can be formed.

Works best for odd size string, so we convert all string to odd ones by adding and extra characters between the original ones

Therefore, the value stored in the vector cnt is actually $palindrome-len + 1$.

manacher.cpp

Description: Covert String to odd length to use manacher, which computes all the maximum lengths of all palindromes in the given string
Time: $\mathcal{O}(2n)$

0c2a2b, 46 lines

```
struct Manacher {
    string s, t;
    vector<ll> cnt;

    // t is the transformed string of s, with odd size
    Manacher(string &s_) : s(s_) {
        t = "#";
        for(auto c : s) {
            t += c, t += "#";
        }
        count();
    }

    // perform manacher on the odd string
    // cnt will give all the palindromes centered in i
    // for the odd string t
    void count() {
        ll n = t.size();
        string aux = "$" + t + "^";
        vector<ll> p(n + 2);
        ll l = 1, r = 1;
        for(ll i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
            p[i] = max(0LL, min(r - i, p[l + (r - i)]));
            while(aux[i - p[i]] == aux[i + p[i]]) {
                p[i]++;
            }
            if(i + p[i] > r) {
                l = i - p[i], r = i + p[i];
            }
        }
        cnt = vector<ll>(p.begin() + 1, p.end() - 1);
    }

    // compute a longest palindrome present in s
    string getLongest() {
        ll len = 0, pos = 0;
        for(ll i=0; i<(ll)t.size(); i++) {
            ll sz = cnt[i]-1;
            if (sz > len) {
                len = sz;
                pos = i;
            }
        }
        return s.substr(pos/2 - len/2, len);
    }
};
```

8.6 Booth

An efficient algorithm which uses a modified version of KMP to compute the least amount of rotation needed to reach the **lexicographically minimal string rotation**.

A rotation of a string can be generated by moving characters one after another from beginning to end. For example, the rotations of *acab* are *acab*, *caba*, *abac*, and *baca*.

booth.cpp

Description: Use a modified version of KMP to find the lexicographically minimal string rotation
Time: $\mathcal{O}(n)$

64184b, 30 lines

```
// Booth Algorithm
ll least_rotation(string &s) { // O(n)
    ll n = s.length();
    vector<ll> f(2*n, -1);
    ll k = 0;
    for(ll j=1; j<2*n; j++) {
        ll i = f[j-k-1];
        while(i != -1 and s[j % n] != s[(k+i+1) % n] ) {
            if (s[j % n] < s[(k+i+1) % n])
                k = j - i - 1;
            i = f[i];
        }
        if (i == -1 and s[j % n] != s[(k+i+1) % n] ) {
            if (s[j % n] < s[(k+i+1) % n])
                k = j;
            f[j - k] = -1;
        }
        else
            f[j - k] = i + 1;
    }
    return k;
}

int32_t main(){ sws;
    string s; cin >> s;
    ll n = s.length();
    ll ans_idx = least_rotation(s);
    string tmp = s + s;
    cout << tmp.substr(ans_idx, n) << endl;
}
```

8.7 Aho-Corasick

The complexity for following the suffix path upwards is $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{n})$ when the summation of patterns is limited in n .

aho.cpp

Description: É aho porra, acha todos os match de stringzinhas em stringzonas
Time: $\mathcal{O}(n)$ add(), $\mathcal{O}(nA)$ init()

1aca17, 42 lines

```
const int A = 26;
int to[N][A];
int ne = 2, fail[N];
vector<int> term[N];
vector<int> g[N];

void add(string str, int id){
    int p = 1;
    for(auto c: str){
        int ch = c - 'a'; // !
        if(!to[p][ch]) to[p][ch] = ne++;
        p = to[p][ch];
    }
    term[p].push_back(id);
}

int compress(int x){
    if(term[x].size() > 0 or x == 1){
        return x;
    }
}
```



```

    }
    return fail[x] = compress(fail[x]);
}

void init(){
    for(int i = 0; i < ne; i++) fail[i] = 1;
    queue<int> q; q.push(1);
    int u, v;
    while(!q.empty()){
        u = q.front(); q.pop();
        for(int i = 0; i < A; i++){
            if(to[u][i]){
                v = to[u][i]; q.push(v);
                if(u != 1){
                    fail[v] = to[ fail[u] ][i];
                }
            }
            else if(u != 1) to[u][i] = to[ fail[u] ][i];
            else to[u][i] = 1;
        }
        g[fail[u]].push_back(u);
    }
}

```

aho2.cpp

Description: É aho tbm porra

Time: $\mathcal{O}(n)$ add(), $\mathcal{O}(n\alpha)$ build()

abc5f0, 65 lines

// obs: $\mathcal{O}(\text{alphabet})$ is considered constant
const ll alphabet = 27; // index #26 = char('}') (separator)

```

struct Aho {
    struct State {
        // suffix link is the longest proper suffix
        // exit link is the next marked terminal node in the
        // suffix link path
        ll link = 0, exit = 0, depth = 0;
        vector<ll> vec;
        bool term = 0; // isTerminal
        array<ll, alphabet> down = {}; // 0 => non existent
        edge

        ll& operator [] (const char &c) {
            return down[c-'a'];
        }
    };

    ll n = 2; // number of states
    vector<State> t; // tree

    // root = node 1, root.link = 1
    Aho() : t(2) {}

    void add(string &s, ll val) {
        ll u = 1, h = 1;
        for(auto c : s) {
            if (!t[u][c]) {
                t[u][c] = n++;
                t.pb(State{});
            }
            u = t[u][c];
            t[u].depth = h++;
        }
        t[u].term = true;
        t[u].vec.pb(val);
    }

    void build() { //  $\mathcal{O}(n * \text{alphabet})$ 
        for(ll i=1; i<n; i++) {

```

```

            t[i].link = 1;
        }
        queue<ll> q; q.push(1);
        while(q.size()) { // bfs
            auto u = q.front(); q.pop();
            for(ll i=0; i<alphabet; i++) {
                char c = char('a' + i);
                if (t[u][c]) {
                    auto v = t[u][c]; q.push(v);
                    if (u != 1) {
                        auto &link = t[v].link;
                        link = t[t[u].link][c];
                        t[v].exit = (t[link].term) ? link : t[
                            link].exit;
                    }
                }
                // if there are no direct edges, use suffix
                // link
                else if (u != 1) {
                    t[u][c] = t[t[u].link][c];
                }
                else { // root
                    t[u][c] = 1;
                }
            }
        }
    }
};

```

8.8 Suffix Automaton

The goat!!!

8.8.1 Concepts:

- All substrings of the string s can be decomposed into equivalence classes according to their end positions $endpos$.
- The $endpos$ is a subset of positions (0-idx) of s that contains exactly all the end postitions (of the last character) in which there is an occurence of this class of substrings (all of them at once).
- Each unique substring will be represented by exactly one vertex and each vertex (except root) will represent one or more substrings, which are all $endpos$ – equivalent.
- In the implementation, due to contrains, there is a variable called $endpos$, which has the cardinality of the set instead of the set itself. and the characters of this substring can be obtained transversing from the root to this node adding all characters from the edges.
- All paths from the root creates an unique substring, and the terminal node reached by this path transversal represents this substring.
- Therefore, all substrings represented in a node are actually paths in the automaton starting from the root and ending at this node.

- A vertex can then be represented by the longest substring with length len .
- The suffix link of a node u points to the node that cointains a bigger subset $endpos(link(u))$, that contains all position from $endpos(u)$ ($endpos(u) \subset endpos(link(u))$). Naturally, the root has the set of all positions.
- The substrings represented by a node are suffixes of each other (each one smaller by one), whose length $\in [minlen, len]$,
- If we start from an arbitrary state u and follow the suffix links, eventually we will reach the root. In this case we obtain a sequence of disjoint intervals $[minlen(u_i); len(u_i)]$, which in union forms the continuous interval $[0; len(v_0)]$.
- The $minlen$ can be stored implicitly, because $minlen(u) = len(link(u)) + 1$.
- The $fpos$ attribute represents the minimal element in the $endpos$ set. In other words, the first $endpos$.
- Considering only the edges in $down$, the automaton is a **DAG**. Considering only the edges in $link$, the automaton is a **tree**.
- Some nodes are called marked as **terminal states**, which represent the suffixes of the main string s . The terminal states are achieved starting from the node of s and following the links until the root. The node containing s is a terminal state and the root isn't.

The number of vertices that are created is upper bounded by $\mathcal{O}(2n)$ and the number of edges is bounded by $\mathcal{O}(3n)$.

8.8.2 Implementation:

The implementation can be changed to use a map instead of a fixed vector for adjacent edges. This will increase the time complexity to $\mathcal{O}(n \log k + constant of map)$ and the memory to can be sparse.

suffix-automaton.cpp

Description: Suffix automaton, each node represents a set of end-pos equivalent substrings. Solves A LOT of tasks!

Time: $\mathcal{O}(n)$ to create all nodes, $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ to compute $endpos$ size

f1423c, 247 lines

// obs: $\mathcal{O}(\text{alphabet})$ is considered constant
const ll alphabet = 27; // index #26 = char('}') (separator)

```

struct Automaton {
    struct State {
        ll link = 1, len = 0;
        array<ll, alphabet> down = {}; // 0 => non existent
        edge

        ll endpos = 0, fpos = -1;

        ll& operator [] (const char &c) {
            return down[c-'a'];
        }
    };
};

```

```

ll n = 2; // number of states
vector<State> ton; // short for automaton :D
string s;

Automaton(string ss) : s(ss) {
    // root = 1, root.link = 0 (0 is a dummy node)
    ton.assign(2, {0});
    for(auto c : s) add(c);

    // build(); // remove if O(nlogn) is too much (s.size()
    // ~ 2e6)
}

vector<pair<ll, ll>> order; // nodes ordered by len (
    decreasing)
void build() { // compute endpos O(n log(n))
    for(ll i=1; i<n; i++) {
        order.pb({ton[i].len, i});
    }
    sort(order.rbegin(), order.rend());
    for(auto [len, i] : order) {
        ton[ ton[i].link ].endpos += ton[i].endpos;
    }
}

ll minlen(ll u) {
    return 1 + ton[ ton[u].link ].len;
}

ll last = 1;
void add(char c) {
    ll u = n++;
    ll p = last;
    last = u;

    State node; // state[u]
    node.len = ton[p].len + 1;
    node.endpos = 1;
    node.fpos = node.len - 1;
    ton.pb(node);

    for (; p and !ton[p][c]; p = ton[p].link)
        ton[p][c] = u;

    if (p == 0) return;

    ll q = ton[p][c];
    if (ton[p].len + 1 == ton[q].len) {
        ton[u].link = q;
        return;
    }

    ll clone = n++;
    State node2 = ton[q]; // state[clone]
    node2.endpos = 0;
    node2.len = ton[p].len + 1;
    ton.pb(node2);

    ton[u].link = ton[q].link = clone;

    for (; ton[p][c] == q; p = ton[p].link)
        ton[p][c] = clone;
}

// ----- //
// Tasks //
// ----- //

```

```

// s1. Number of distinct substrings
// separated in a vector by their lengths
// knowing that a state[u] cover all the substrings (
// suffixes)
// of size [minlen, len] represented by this state
// Obs: for non-distinct substrings, the histogram is
// simply n, n-1, ... , 2, 1

vector<ll> histogram() { // O(n)
    ll sz = s.size();
    vector<ll> ans(sz+1, 0);

    for(ll i=2; i<n; i++) {
        ll mnlen = minlen(i);
        ll len = ton[i].len;

        ans[mnlen] += 1;
        if (len + 1 <= sz)
            ans[len + 1] -= 1;
    }

    // delta encoding
    for(ll len=1; len<=sz; len++) {
        ans[len] += ans[len-1];
    }

    // ans[0] = 0, because the empty string is not
    // considered as a substring
    return ans;
}

// s2. Find the lexicographically k-th substring (one can
// consider only the distincts or not)
// The k-th substring corresponds to the lexicographically
// smallest one,
// which is also the k-th path in the suffix automaton

// Additionally, by creating the automaton on the
// duplicated string (S+S),
// the k-th substring with k = s.size(), will give us the
// Smallest cyclic shift (Minimal Rotation)
// For huge strings, remeber to not build() endpos which is
// O(n logn)

// ps: number of substrings below node (including node)
// ps[0] -> include repeated substring, ps[1] -> consider
// only distinct
vector<ll> ps[2];

void buildPS() { // O(n)
    assert(!order.empty()); // assert if build() was called

    ps[0].assign(n, 0), ps[1].assign(n, 0);

    for(ll k : {0, 1}) {
        for(auto [len, u] : order) {
            if (u != 1) {
                ps[k][u] = (k ? 1 : ton[u].endpos);
            }

            for(auto v : ton[u].down) if (v) {
                ps[k][u] += ps[k][v];
            }
        }
    }
}

string substring(ll k, bool distinct = true) { // O(V+E) =
    O(2sz+ 3sz) = O(5sz), sz = s.size()
}

```

```

assert(!ps[0].empty()); // assert if buildPS() was
    called

string ans = ""; // {k = 0} will return the empty
    string ""

function<void (ll)> dfs = [&](ll u) {
    if (k <= 0) return;
    for(ll inc = 0; inc<alphabet; inc++) {
        char c = char('a' + inc);

        ll v = ton[u][c];
        if (!v) continue;

        ll sum = ps[distinct][v];

        if (k <= sum) {
            ans += c;
            k -= (distinct ? 1 : ton[v].endpos);
            dfs(v);
            if (k <= 0) return;
        }
        else k -= sum; // optimization
    }
};

dfs(1);
return ans;
}

// ----- //
// Patterns //
// ----- //

// p1. Check for occurrence of a pattern P
// by returning the length of the longest prefix of P in S
// A match occurs when len(prefix_pattern) == len(pattern)

ll prefixPattern(string &p) { // O( p.size() )
    ll ans = 0, cur = 1;
    for(auto c : p) {
        if (ton[cur][c]) {
            cur = ton[cur][c];
            ans += 1;
        }
        else break;
    }
    return ans;
}

// p2. Count the numbers of occurrences of a pattern P

ll countPattern(string &p) { // O( p.size() )
    assert(!order.empty()); // check if build() was called
    ll u = 1;
    for(auto c : p) {
        if (ton[u][c]) {
            u = ton[u][c];
        }
        else return 0; // no match
    }
    return ton[u].endpos;
}

// p3. Find the first position in which occurred the
    pattern (0-idx)

ll firstPattern(string &p) { // O( p.size() )
    ll u = 1;
}

```



```

for(auto c : p) {
    if (ton[u][c]) {
        u = ton[u][c];
    }
    else return -1; // no match
}
ll sz = p.size();
return ton[u].fpos - sz + 1;
}

// p4. Longest Common Substring of P and S
// In addition to returning the lcs,
// it returns an dp array with the lcs size for each end
// position i

string lcs(string &p, vector<ll> &dp) { // O( p.size() )
    dp.assign(p.size(), 0);

    ll u = 1, match = 0, best = 0, pos = 0;

    for(ll i=0; i<(ll)p.size(); i++) {
        auto c = p[i];

        while(u > 1 and !ton[u][c]) { // no edge -> follow
            link
            u = ton[u].link;
            match = ton[u].len;
        }

        if (ton[u][c]) {
            u = ton[u][c];
            match++;
        }

        dp[i] = match;
        if (match > best) {
            best = match;
            pos = i;
        }
    }

    return p.substr(pos - best + 1, best);
}

};

```

Miscellaneous (9)

9.1 Ternary Search

ternary-search.cpp

Description: Computes the min/max for a function that is monotonically increasing then decreasing or decreasing then increasing.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N \log N_3)$ c3a5d7, 48 lines

```

/*
Float and Min Version: Requires EPS (precision usually defined
in the question text)
*/

ld f(ld d){
    // function here
}

// for min value
ld ternary_search(ld l, ld r){
    while(r - l > EPS){
        // divide into 3 equal parts and eliminate one side
        ld m1 = l + (r - l) / 3;

```

```

        ld m2 = r - (r - l) / 3;
        if (f(m1) < f(m2)){
            r = m2;
        }
        else {
            l = m1;
        }
    }
    return f(l); // check here for min/max
}

/*
Integer and Max Version:
*/

ll f(ll idx) {
    // function here
}

// for max value, using integer idx
ll ternary_search(ll l, ll r) {
    while(l <= r) {
        // divide into 3 equal parts and eliminate one side
        ll m1 = l + (r-l)/3;
        ll m2 = r - (r-l)/3;
        if(f(m1) < f(m2)) {
            l = m1+1;
        }
        else {
            r = m2-1;
        }
    }
    return f(l); // check here for min/max
}

```

9.2 Random Generator

random.cpp

Description: Good randomizer to generate int in a range or shuffle vectors

Time: $\mathcal{O}(1)$ for randint, $\mathcal{O}(n \log(n))$ for shuffle 55c5b9, 13 lines

```

mt19937 rng(chrono::steady_clock::now().time_since_epoch().
count());

// or for 64 bits
mt19937_64 rng(chrono::steady_clock::now().time_since_epoch().
count());

// to shuffle a vector
vector<int> vec;
shuffle(vec.begin(), vec.end(), rng);

// to limit the number to the range [l, r]
int randint(int l, int r) {
    return (rng() % (r-l+1)) + l;
}

```

9.3 Read an Fraction Input

```

char c;
ll num, den;
cin >> num >> c >> den;

```

9.4 Getline

When consuming whitespace-delimited input (e.g. int n; cin >> n;), any whitespace that follows, including a newline character, will be left on the input stream.

Then when switching to line-oriented input, the first line retrieved with getline will be just that whitespace. In the likely case that this is unwanted behaviour.

In other words, `getline()` will consume the whole line, `cin >>` will consume up to the last whitespace (not included)

getline.cpp

Description: Getline code example

Time: $\mathcal{O}(1)$ d9a714, 7 lines

```

int32_t main() {
    // ws is input manipulator to retrieve the whitespace
    // character
    ll n; cin >> n >> ws;
    string line;
    // the second line is therefore stored in the object "line"
    // The default delimiter \n is not stored.
    getline(cin, line);
}

```

9.5 Merge Sort

merge-sort.cpp

Description: Sort a vector V and compute the number of inversions needed to sort it (the same number of swaps in a bubble sort)

Time: $\mathcal{O}(N)$ for merge, $\mathcal{O}(N \log(N))$ for merge-sort 19b92b, 36 lines

```

ll merge(vector<ll> &v, ll l, ll r) {
    ll i = l, mid = (l+r)/2, j = mid+1, swaps = 0;
    vector<ll> ans;

    while(i <= mid or j <= r) {

        if(j > r or (v[i] <= v[j] and i <= mid)) {
            ans.pb(v[i]);
            i += 1;
        }

        else if(i > mid or (v[j] < v[i] and j <= r)){
            ans.pb(v[j]);
            j += 1;
            swaps += (mid-i)+1;
            // mid-i+1 = elements remaining in the left
            // subarray
            // (same number of elements that will be swaped to
            // the right)
        }
    }

    for(ll k=l; k<=r; k++) v[k] = ans[k-1];

    return swaps;
}

// sort [l, r] (inclusive), 0-idx
ll merge_sort(vector<ll> &v, ll l, ll r){
    if(l == r) return 0;

    ll mid = (l+r)/2, swaps = 0;
    swaps += merge_sort(v, l, mid);
    swaps += merge_sort(v, mid+1, r);
    swaps += merge(v, l, r);

    return swaps;
}

```

9.6 Rounding Half to Even

Rounding Half to Even rule states that if fractional part of x is 0.5 (exactly midpoint), then the correct rounded value of x is the even *integer* nearest to x .

half-to-even.cpp

Description: How to round a long double with the rule of "rounding half to even".

Time: $\mathcal{O}(1)$ d45637, 4 lines

```
// 1e6 -> round considering 6 decimal places
ans *= 1e6;
ans = nearbyintl(ans);
ans /= 1e6;
```

9.7 Count Bits in a range

count-bits.cpp

Description: count the numbers with bit b set in range $[0, n]$ and $[l, r]$

Time: $\mathcal{O}(1)$ 5fbbb8, 15 lines

```
// count of numbers with bit b set in range [0, n]
ll sum(ll n, ll b) {
    ll t = 1LL << (b+1);
    ll ans = ((n+1)/t) * (t/2);
    ll last = n + 1 - ((n+1)/t) * t;
    ll ones = max(0LL, last - t/2);
    return ans + ones;
}

// count of numbers with bit b set in range [l, r]
ll range(ll l, ll r, ll b) {
    ll ans = sum(r, b);
    if (l) ans -= sum(l-1, b);
    return ans;
}
```

9.8 Count Digits in a range

count-digits.cpp

Description: count the number of digits d used in range $[1, n]$

Time: $\mathcal{O}(18)$ 2984e7, 13 lines

```
// count the number of digits d used in range [1, n]
ll count_digits(ll n, ll d) {
    ll cnt = 0, t = 1;
    for(ll i=0; i<18; i++, t *= 10) {
        ll sz = n + 1 - t * ((d == 0) ? 10 : d);
        if (sz <= 0) break;
        ll intervals = sz / (t * 10);
        ll use = intervals * t;
        ll last = sz - intervals * t * 10;
        cnt += use + max(0LL, min(last, t));
    }
    return cnt;
}
```

9.9 Couting Bishops

bishops.cpp

Description: Count the number of ways k bishops can be placed on an $n \times n$ chessboard so that no two bishops attack each other.

Time: $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ da94bb, 37 lines

```
// Solution Notes:
// Give a odd index to black diagonals, and even index to white diagonals
// by symmetry, index the '/' diagonals.
// dp[i][j] -> the number of ways to place j bishops considering the first i diagonals of the same color
```

```
// squares(d) -> how many squares are in this diagonal of index i
using mint = Z<MOD>;

ll squares(ll d) {
    if (d & 1) return d/4 * 2 + 1;
    else return (d-1)/4 * 2 + 2;
}

int32_t main(){ sws;
    ll n, k; cin >> n >> k;

    vector<vector<bool>> vis(2*n, vector<bool>(2*n, false));
    vector<vector<mint>> tab(2*n, vector<mint>(2*n, 0));

    function<mint (ll, ll)> dp = [&](ll i, ll j) -> mint {
        if (j >= 2*n) return 0;
        if (j == 0) return 1;
        if (i <= 0) return 0;

        if (vis[i][j]) return tab[i][j];
        vis[i][j] = 1;

        mint ans = dp(i-2, j) + dp(i-2, j-1) * (squares(i) - (j-1));
        return tab[i][j] = ans;
    };

    mint ans = 0;
    for(ll j=0; j<=k; j++) {
        ans += dp(2*n-1, j) * dp(2*n-2, k-j);
    }

    cout << ans << endl;
}
```

Techniques (A)

techniques.txt	192 lines
Fix answer	
Recursion	
Divide and conquer	
Finding interesting points in N log N	
Algorithm analysis	
Master theorem	
Amortized time complexity	
Square Root	
Harmonic Series	
Greedy algorithm	
Invert order	
Pigeonhole	
Random	
Sorting	
Swap argument	
Scheduling	
Max contiguous subvector sum	
Invariants	
Huffman encoding	
Graph theory	
Transform edges into vertices, duplicating the nodes of the graph	
DFS tree	
Euler tour (tin, tout)	
MST: Prim's algorithm	
Bellman-Ford	
Konig's theorem and vertex cover	
Independent Set	
Otimiza com min-cut	
7-th	
Centroid	
Hungarian	
Min-cost max flowx	
Matrix tree theorem	
Maximal matching, general graphs	
Hopcroft-Karp	
Hall's marriage theorem	
Graphical sequences	
Floyd-Warshall	
Euler cycles	
Flow networks	
* Augmenting paths	
* Edmonds-Karp	
Bipartite matching	
Min. path cover	
Topological sorting	
Strongly connected components	
2-SAT	
Cut vertices, cut-edges and biconnected components	
Bridge Trees	
Block Cut Tree	
Virtual Tree	
Edge coloring	
* Trees	
Vertex coloring	
* Bipartite graphs (=> trees)	
* 3^n (special case of set cover)	
Diameter and centroid	
K'th shortest path	
Shortest cycle	
SQRT	
Dynamic programming	
Knapsack	
Knapsack n(sqrt n)	
Coin change	

Longest common subsequence
Longest increasing subsequence
Number of paths in a DAG
Shortest path in a DAG
Dynprog over intervals
Dynprog over subsets
Dynprog over probabilities
Dynprog over trees
3^n set cover
Divide and conquer
Knuth optimization
Slope trick
Convex hull optimizations (CHT, Lichao)
SOS DP
Bitmask DP
RMQ (sparse table a.k.a 2^k-jumps)
Bitonic cycle
Log partitioning (loop over most restricted)
Combinatorics
Computation of binomial coefficients
Pigeon-hole principle
Inclusion/exclusion
Catalan number
Pick's theorem
Number theory
Integer parts
Divisibility
Euclidean algorithm
Modular arithmetic
* Modular multiplication
* Modular inverses
* Modular exponentiation by squaring
Chinese remainder theorem
Fermat's little theorem
Euler's theorem
Phi function
Frobenius number
Quadratic reciprocity
Pollard-Rho
Miller-Rabin
Hensel lifting
Vieta root jumping
Game theory
Combinatorial games
Game trees
Mini-max
Nim
Games on graphs
Games on graphs with loops
Grundy numbers
Bipartite games without repetition
General games without repetition
Alpha-beta pruning
Probability theory
Optimization
Binary search
Ternary search
Unimodality and convex functions
Binary search on derivative
Numerical methods
Numeric integration
Newton's method
Root-finding with binary/ternary search
Golden section search
Matrices
Gaussian elimination
Exponentiation by squaring
XorBasis
FFT

Polinomial Product
Convolution
Sorting
Radix sort
Geometry
Coordinates and vectors
* Cross product
* Scalar product
Convex hull
Polygon cut
Closest pair
Coordinate-compression
Quadtrees
KD-trees
All segment-segment intersection
Sweeping
Discretization (convert to events and sweep)
Angle sweeping
Line sweeping
Discrete second derivatives
Strings
Longest common substring
Palindrome subsequences
Knuth-Morris-Pratt
Z-String
Tries
Rolling polynomial hashes
Suffix array
Suffix tree
Suffix Automata
Aho-Corasick
Manacher's algorithm
Letter position lists
Combinatorial search
Meet in the middle
Brute-force with pruning
Best-first (A*)
Bidirectional search
Iterative deepening DFS / A*
Data structures
LCA (2^k-jumps in trees in general)
Pull/push-technique on trees
Heavy-light decomposition
Centroid decomposition
Lazy propagation
Self-balancing trees
Convex hull trick (wcipeg.com/wiki/Convex_hull_trick)
Monotone queues / monotone stacks / sliding queues
Sliding queue using 2 stacks
Persistent segment tree
Queries Problems
MO
SQRT
Treap
Sparse table
Ordered Set
Segment Tree
Splay tree
Query Tree (store queries in tree, then dfs with rollback)