

# Number theory and combinatorics fundamentals for competitive programming

CPPoliTo

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# Number theory

# Divisors of a number (1)

Computing efficiently the divisors of a number is an important part of many number theory problems in competitive programming.

The most used algorithm to compute the divisors of a number works in  $O(\sqrt{n})$  complexity, where  $n$  is the number for which we want to find its divisors.

## Divisors of a number (2)

```
vector<int> findDivisors(int n){  
    vector<int> divisors;  
    for(int i = 1; i * i <= n; i++){  
        if(n % i == 0){ //if i divides n  
            if((n / i) == i){ //this avoids taking a divisors twice  
                //if n is a perfect square  
                divisors.push_back(i); //add i to the divisors  
            }  
            else{ //these are both divisors. One of them is above  
                //sqrt(n) and the other below it  
                divisors.push_back(i);  
                divisors.push_back(n / i);  
            }  
        }  
    }  
    return divisors;  
}
```

# Prime numbers (1)

Prime numbers are an important concept in number theory. Understanding their properties and how to handle them is a prerequisite to solve many number theory problems in competitive programming.

- Prime number have only two divisors: 1 and the number itself;
- All of the primes except 2 are odd numbers;
- We can check if a number is prime by computing its divisors, but this isn't always the most efficient way.

# Prime numbers (2)

There exists certain conjectures regarding primes that are useful in problems.

- **Goldbach's conjecture:** Each even integer  $n > 2$  can be represented as a sum  $n = a + b$  so that both  $a$  and  $b$  are primes.
- **Twin prime conjecture:** There is an infinite number of pairs of the form  $\{p, p + 2\}$ , where both  $p$  and  $p + 2$  are primes.
- **Legendre's conjecture:** There is always a prime between numbers  $n^2$  and  $(n + 1)^2$ , where  $n$  is any positive integer.

# Prime factorization

Every natural number  $n > 1$  has a unique prime factorization.

$$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k},$$

where  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  are distinct primes and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k$  are positive numbers.  
For example, the prime factorization for 84 is

$$84 = 2^2 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 7^1.$$

# Greatest common divisors and least common multiple (1)

Some useful facts about GCD and LCM of two numbers **a** and **b**:

- $\text{LCM}(A, B) = (A * B) / \text{GCD}(A, B)$
- $\text{GCD}(A, A) = A$
- $\text{GCD}(0, A) = A$
- $\text{GCD}(A, B) = \text{GCD}(B, A)$



# Greatest common divisors and least common multiple (2)

Notice that we can easily find the GCD and LCM of two numbers by using their prime factorization:

- For the GCD, take only the common primes factors between the two values with the lowest exponent;
- For the LCM, take all of the factors from the two values with the highest exponent.

# Sieve of Eratosthenes (1)

Algorithm to check whether number in the range  $[2, n]$  are primes or not and also compute the shortest prime factor for each of them.

The algorithm works in  $O(n \log \log n)$ .

```
for (int x = 2; x <= n; x++) {  
    if (sieve[x]) continue;  
    for (int u = 2*x; u <= n; u += x) {  
        sieve[u] = x;  
    }  
}
```

# Sieve of Eratosthenes (2)

This is the resulting “sieve” array for  $n = 20$ . The inner for loop will only be accessed when “x” is a prime.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
0	0	2	0	3	0	2	3	5	0	3	0	7	5	2	0	3	0	5

# Prime factorization using Sieve

```
vector<int> getFactorization(int x) {  
    vector<int> primes;  
    if(x == 1){  
        return primes;  
    }  
    while (x != 0) {  
        if(sieve[x] == 0){ //this is a prime  
            //append to array and set to 0 to quit  
            primes.push_back(x);  
            x = 0;  
        }  
        else{ //not a prime, append to array smallest prime factor  
            //and divide by it  
            primes.push_back(sieve[x]);  
            x /= sieve[x];  
        }  
    }  
    return primes;  
}
```

# Basic modular arithmetic (1)

Arithmetic regarding remainders of divisions.

$$131 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$131 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$131 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

$$131 \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$$

## Basic modular arithmetic (2)

$$4 \bmod 4 = 0 \quad 8 \bmod 4 = 0$$

$$5 \bmod 4 = 1 \quad 9 \bmod 4 = 1$$

$$6 \bmod 4 = 2 \quad 10 \bmod 4 = 2$$

$$7 \bmod 4 = 3 \quad 11 \bmod 4 = 3$$

# Basic modular arithmetic (3)

There are many modular arithmetic properties that are useful in problems, we'll show some of them here:

- $(a + b) \bmod m = [(a \bmod m) + (b \bmod m)] \bmod m$
- $(a * b) \bmod m = [(a \bmod m) * (b \bmod m)] \bmod m$

These two properties are crucial to know to solve problems (especially counting problems) where the answer is expected modulo a large prime.

# Combinatorics



# Permutations & Factorial

Permutations refer to the arrangements of objects in a specific order.  
The permutation of numbers in problems refers to arrays where elements are from 1 to  $n$  (all distinct) in some order.

There are  $n!$  permutations of length  $n$ .

$$n! = n \times (n - 1) \times (n - 2) \times \dots \times 1$$

$$1! = 1$$

$$2! = 2 \times 1 = 2$$

$$3! = 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 6$$

$$4! = 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 24$$

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120$$

# Permutations & Factorial

The formula for permutations of a set of  $n$  distinct objects taken  $r$  at a time is given by:

$$n! / (n - r)!$$

$n!$  represents the total number of arrangements when all  $n$  objects are considered. By dividing  $n!$  by  $(n - r)!$ , we effectively eliminate the arrangements of the remaining  $(n - r)$  objects and only count the arrangements of the chosen  $r$  objects.

# Binomial coefficients

The **binomial coefficient**  $\binom{n}{k}$  equals the number of ways we can choose a subset of  $k$  elements from a set of  $n$  elements. For example,  $\binom{5}{3} = 10$ , because the set  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  has 10 subsets of 3 elements:

$\{1, 2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 4\}, \{1, 2, 5\}, \{1, 3, 4\}, \{1, 3, 5\}, \{1, 4, 5\}, \{2, 3, 4\}, \{2, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 5\}, \{3, 4, 5\}$

# Binomial coefficients

$$C(n,k) = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

# Sample Problem

**A fair coin is tossed 10 times. What is the probability of getting exactly 4 heads?**

# Sample Problem

**A fair coin is tossed 10 times. What is the probability of getting exactly 4 heads?**

Probability = (Number of ways to get 4 heads) / (Total number of possible outcomes)

The number of ways to get 4 heads can be represented by the binomial coefficient "10 choose 4," denoted as  $C(10, 4)$ .

$$C(10, 4) = 10! / (4! * (10 - 4)!) = 210.$$

The total number of possible outcomes in 10 coin tosses is  $2^{10} = 1024$ .

$$\text{Probability} = 210 / 1024 \approx 0.2051 \text{ (20.51\%)}$$

# Binomial coefficients calculation (1st Method)

## Formula 1

Binomial coefficients can be recursively calculated as follows:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

The idea is to fix an element  $x$  in the set. If  $x$  is included in the subset, we have to choose  $k - 1$  elements from  $n - 1$  elements, and if  $x$  is not included in the subset, we have to choose  $k$  elements from  $n - 1$  elements.

The base cases for the recursion are

$$\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1,$$

because there is always exactly one way to construct an empty subset and a subset that contains all the elements.

# Binomial coefficients calculation (2nd Method)

## Formula 2

Another way to calculate binomial coefficients is as follows:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

There are  $n!$  permutations of  $n$  elements. We go through all permutations and always include the first  $k$  elements of the permutation in the subset. Since the order of the elements in the subset and outside the subset does not matter, the result is divided by  $k!$  and  $(n-k)!$



## Some Facts

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n.$$

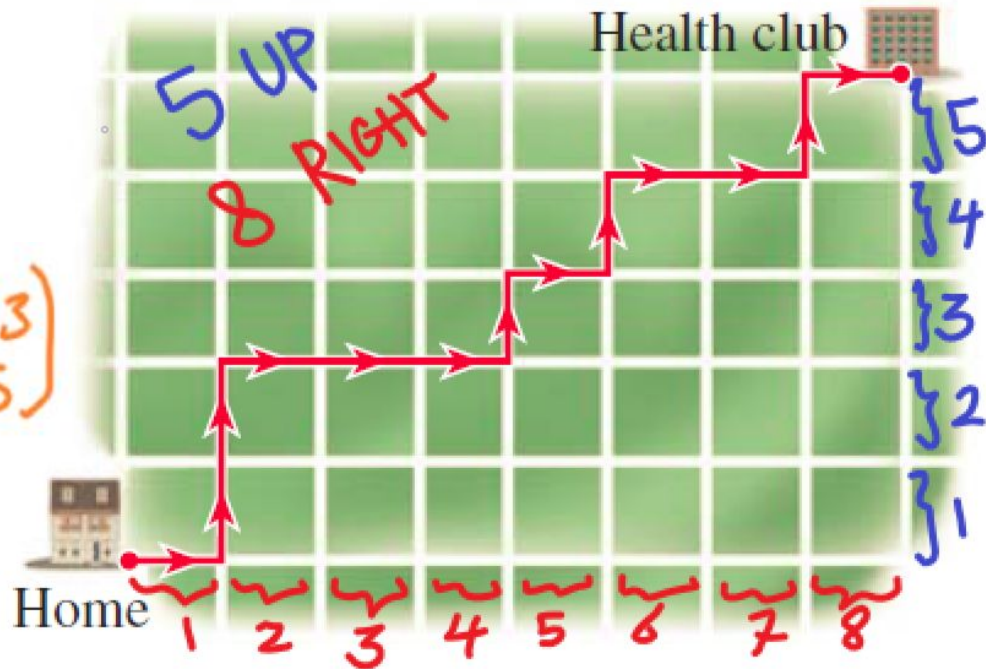
$$(a + b)^n = \binom{n}{0}a^n b^0 + \binom{n}{1}a^{n-1}b^1 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1}a^1b^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n}a^0b^n.$$



# Number of ways in n x m grid

Only Right and Up are allowed !

$$\binom{8+5}{8} = \binom{8+5}{5} = \binom{13}{5}$$



# Finally Code!

```
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;

// Recursive function to calculate the binomial coefficient
int nCr(int n, int k) {
    if (k == 0 || k == n)
        return 1;
    else
        return nCr(n - 1, k - 1) + nCr(n - 1, k);
}

int main() {
    int n, k;
    cout << "Enter the values of n and k: \n";
    cin >> n >> k;

    int result = nCr(n, k);
    cout << result << '\n';

    return 0;
}
```

# Finally Code!

```
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;

typedef long long ll;
const ll MXN = 1e3 + 10;

int n, k;
ll C[MXN][MXN];

int main() {
    cin >> n >> k;

    for (int i = 0; i <= n; i++){
        C[i][0] = 1;
    }
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
        for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
            C[i][j] = C[i - 1][j - 1] + C[i - 1][j];
        }
    }

    cout << C[n][k] << '\n';
    return 0;
}
//! N.N
```

# Finally Code!

```
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;

typedef long long ll;
const ll MXN = 1e3 + 10;
const ll Mod = 1e9 + 7;

int n, k;
int C[MXN][MXN];

int main() {
    cin >> n >> k;

    for (int i = 0; i <= n; i++){
        C[i][0] = 1;
    }
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
        for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++) {
            C[i][j] = (C[i - 1][j - 1] + C[i - 1][j]) % Mod;
        }
    }

    cout << C[n][k] << '\n';
    return 0;
}

//! N.N
```

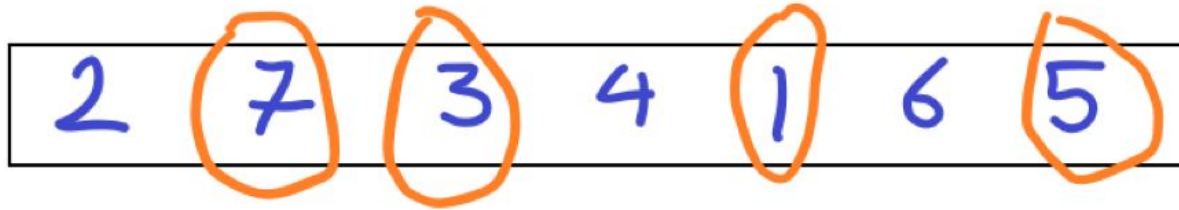
# Subsequences vs Subarrays



Subarray

$$\# \text{ Subarrays} = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \binom{n+1}{2}$$

# Subsequences vs Subarrays



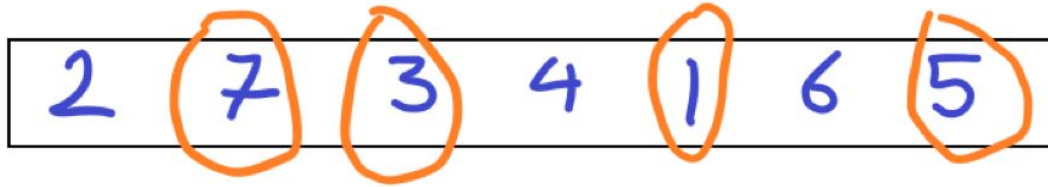
[7, 3, 1, 5]

Subsequence

$$\# \text{ Subsequences} = 2^n$$



# Subsequences vs Subarrays



[7, 3, 1, 5]

non-empty

Subsequence

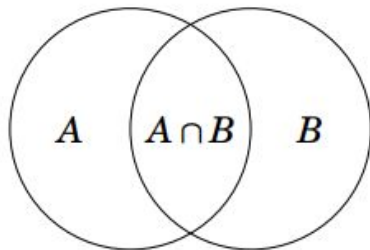
# Subsequences =  $2^n - 1$

# Principle of Inclusion-exclusion

**Inclusion-exclusion** is a technique that can be used for counting the size of a union of sets when the sizes of the intersections are known, and vice versa. A simple example of the technique is the formula

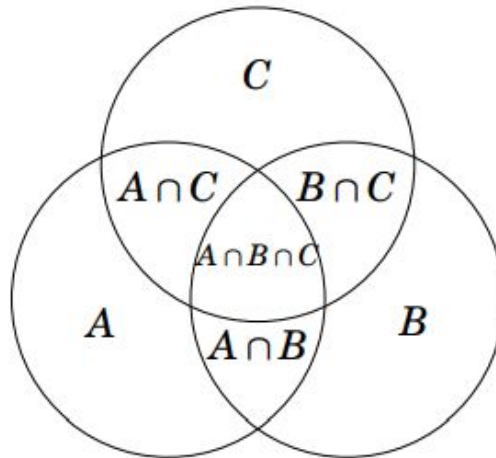
$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|,$$

where  $A$  and  $B$  are sets and  $|X|$  denotes the size of  $X$ . The formula can be illustrated as follows:



# Principle of Inclusion-exclusion

$$|A \cup B \cup C| = |A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|$$



# Thank you for your attention!

Links and contacts:

<https://linktr.ee/politocompetitiveprogramming>