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
                //sgrt(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 $p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$ are distinct primes and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_k$ 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:

- LCM(A, B) = (A * B) / GCD(A, B)
- GCD(A, A) = A
- GCD(0, A) = A
- GCD(A, B) = 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)

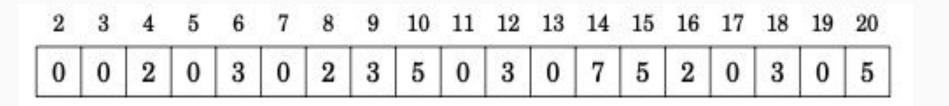
Algorithm to check whether number in the range [2, n] are primes or not and also compute the shortest prime factor for each of them.

The algorithms works in O(n loglogn).

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

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.



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)

$4 \mod 4 = 0$	$8 \bmod 4 = 0$
$5 \mod 4 = 1$	$9 \mod 4 = 1$
$6 \mod 4 = 2$	$10 \mod 4 = 2$
$7 \mod 4 = 3$	$11 \mod 4 = 3$

Basic modular arithmetic (3)

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

- (a + b) mod m = [(a mod m) + (b mod m)] mod m
- (a * b) mod m = [(a mod m) * (b mod m)] mod 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.

$$n! = n imes (n-1) imes (n-2) imes ... imes 1$$

$$1! = 1$$

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

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

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

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



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?

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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 $2^10 = 1024$.

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

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:

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

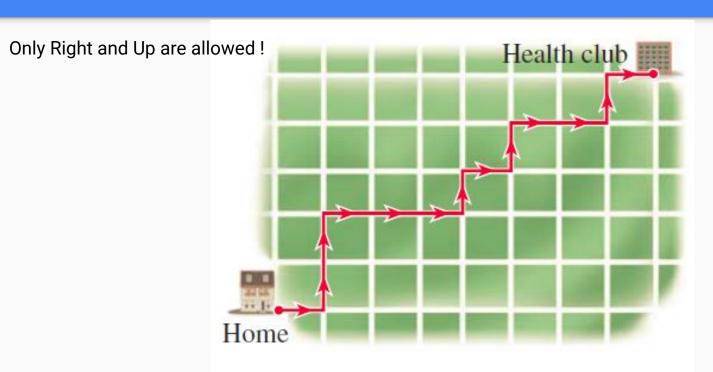
There are n! permutations of n elements. We go through all permutations and always include the first k elements of the permutation in the subset. Since the order of the elements in the subset and outside the subset does not matter, the result is divided by k! and (n-k)!

Some Facts

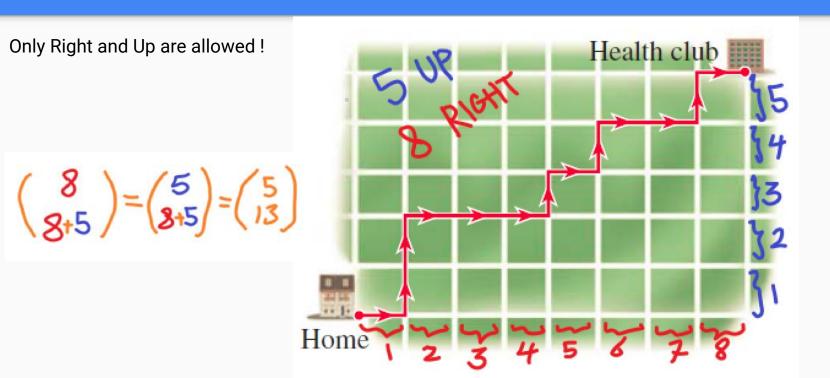
$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \ldots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^{n}.$$

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

Number of ways in n x m grid



Number of ways in n x m grid



Finally Code!

```
.
#include <bits/stdc++>
using namespace std;
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";</pre>
    cin >> n >> k;
    int result = nCr(n, k);
    cout << result << '\n';</pre>
    return 0;
```

Finally Code!

```
. .
#include <bits/stdc++.h>
using namespace std;
typedef long long ll;
const ll MXN = 1e3 + 10;
int n, k;
11 C[MXN][MXN];
int main() {
    cin >> n >> k;
    for (int i = 0; i \le n; i \leftrightarrow h){
        C[i][0] = 1;
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i ++) {
        for (int j = 1; j \le i; j ++) {
            C[i][j] = C[i - 1][j - 1] + C[i - 1][j];
    cout << C[n][k] << '\n';</pre>
    return 0;
```

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 \le n; i ++){
        C[i][0] = 1;
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i ++) {
        for (int j = 1; j \le i; j ++) {
            C[i][j] = (C[i-1][j-1] + C[i-1][j]) % Mod;
    cout << C[n][k] << '\n';</pre>
    return 0;
```

Subsequences vs Subarrays

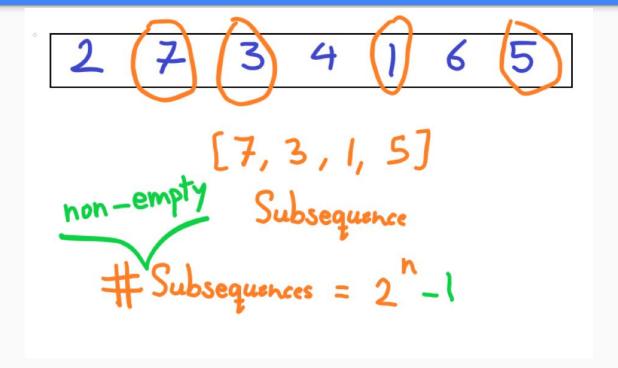
2 7 3 4, 1 6 5

Subarray

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

Subsequences vs Subarrays

Subsequences vs Subarrays

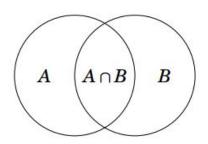


Principle of Inclusion-exclusion

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

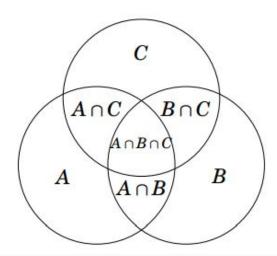
$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|,$$

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/politocompetitiv eprogramming