From decimal expansions to reduced fractions

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[1]: from math import gcd

A real number is rational if and only if a pattern eventually appears in its decimal expansion that repeats forever. So π , being irrational, is such that no finite sequence of consecutive digits in 3.14159265358979... eventually repeats forever. On the other hand,

- $\frac{25}{12} = 2.08333...3...$ $\frac{97}{21} = 4.619047619047619047...619047...$ $\frac{11941}{49950} = 0.23905905905...905...$

The decimal expansion is unique except for fractions that in reduced form, have a power of 10 as denominator: those fractions have two decimal expansions, one that ends in 0 repeating forever, another one that ends in 9 repeating forever. For instance, $\frac{1234567}{1000} = 1234.567000...0... =$ 1234.566999...9....

We want to, given two nonempty strings of digits σ and τ (that we treat as strings or numbers depending on the context), find out the unique natural numbers p and q such that the decimal expansion of $\frac{p}{a}$ reads as $0.\sigma\tau\tau\tau...\tau...$ and

- either p = 0 and q = 1 (case where σ and τ consist of nothing but 0's), or
- p and q are coprime, so $\frac{p}{q}$ is in reduced form (including the case where p=1 and q=1because σ and τ consist of nothing but 9's).

For instance, if $\sigma = 23$ and $\tau = 905$, then p = 11941 and q = 49950. Writing $|\sigma|$ for the length (number of digits) in a string of digits σ , we compute:

$$\begin{split} 0.\sigma\tau\tau\tau\dots\tau\dots &= \sigma 10^{-|\sigma|} + \tau (10^{-|\sigma|-|\tau|} + 10^{-|\sigma|-2|\tau|} + 10^{-|\sigma|-3|\tau|} + \dots) \\ &= \sigma 10^{-|\sigma|} + \frac{\tau 10^{-|\sigma|-|\tau|}}{(1-10^{-|\tau|})} \\ &= \sigma 10^{-|\sigma|} + \frac{\tau 10^{-|\sigma|}}{(10^{|\tau|}-1)} \\ &= \frac{\sigma 10^{-|\sigma|} (10^{|\tau|}-1) + \tau 10^{-|\sigma|}}{(10^{|\tau|}-1)} \\ &= \frac{\sigma (10^{|\tau|}-1) + \tau}{(10^{|\tau|}-1)10^{|\sigma|}} \end{split}$$

Reducing the last fraction if needed provides the desired answer.

The result of the previous computation immediately translates to the function that follows:

```
[2]: def compute_fraction(sigma, tau):
    numerator = int(sigma) * (10 ** len(tau) - 1) + int(tau)
    denominator = (10 ** len(tau) - 1) * 10 ** len(sigma)
    return numerator, denominator

compute_fraction('23', '905')
compute_fraction('000', '97')
compute_fraction('97', '000')
compute_fraction('97', '543210')
```

- [2]: (23882, 99900)
- [2]: (97, 99000)
- [2]: (96903, 99900)
- [2]: (1234541976, 99999900000)

To reduce a fraction, it suffices to divide its numerator and its denominator by their gcd (greatest common divisor). The math module has a gcd function:

```
[3]: gcd(1234541976, 99999900000)
```

[3]: 24

Let us implement the gcd function ourselves, following Euclid's algorithm, which is based on the following reasoning. Let a and b be two natural numbers with b > 0. Since $a = \lfloor \frac{a}{b} \rfloor b + a \mod b$:

- if n divides both a and b then it divides both a and $\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \rfloor b$, hence it divides $a \lfloor \frac{a}{b} \rfloor b$, hence it divides $a \mod b$;
- conversely, if n divides both b and $a \mod b$ then it divides $\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \rfloor b + a \mod b$, hence it divides a.

Hence n divides both a and b iff n divides both b and a mod b. So gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, a mod b). Since a mod b < b, we get a sequence of equalities of the form: $gcd(a, b) = gcd(a_1, b_1) = gcd(a_2, b_2) = \cdots = gcd(a_{k-1}, b_{k-1}) = gcd(a_k, 0)$ with $k \ge 1$ and $b > b_1 > b_2 > \cdots > b_{k-1} > 0$; as $gcd(a_k, 0) = a_k$, a_k is the gcd of a and b.

To compute $\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \rfloor$, Python offers the // operator; to compute $a \mod b$, the % operator:

```
[4]: # True division.

# The result is always a floating point number.

8 / 2, 8.0 / 2, 8 / 2.0, 8.0 / 2.0

# Integer division.

# The result is an integer iff both arguments are integers.

9 // 2, 9.0 // 2, 9 // 2.0, 9.0 // 2.0

# Remainder.

# The result is an integer iff both arguments are integers.

9 % 2, 9.0 % 2, 9 % 2.0, 9.0 % 2.0
```

- [4]: (4.0, 4.0, 4.0, 4.0)
- [4]: (4, 4.0, 4.0, 4.0)

[4]: (1, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0)

If a and b are arbitrary numbers (not necessarily integers) with $b \neq 0$, then the equality a = qb + r together with the conditions

- *q* is an integer
- |r| < |b|
- $r \neq 0 \rightarrow (r > 0 \leftrightarrow b > 0)$

determine *q* and *r* uniquely; // and % operate accordingly:

```
[5]: 5 // 2, 5 % 2
-5 // 2, -5 % 2
5 // -2, 5 % -2
-5 // -2, -5 % -2
print()

7.5 // 2, 7.5 % 2
-7.5 // 2, -7.5 % 2
7.5 // -2, 7.5 % -2
-7.5 // -2, 7.5 % -2
```

- [5]: (2, 1)
- [5]: (-3, 1)
- [5]: (-3, -1)
- [5]: (2, -1)
- [5]: (3.0, 1.5)
- [5]: (-4.0, 0.5)
- [5]: (-4.0, -0.5)
- [5]: (3.0, -1.5)

The divmod() function offers an alternative to the previous combined use of // and %:

```
[6]: divmod(5, 2)
divmod(-5, 2)
divmod(5, -2)
divmod(-5, -2)
print()
divmod(7.5, 2)
divmod(-7.5, 2)
divmod(7.5, -2)
divmod(-7.5, -2)
```

[6]: (2, 1)

```
[6]: (-3, 1)
```

```
[6]: (2, -1)
```

```
[6]: (3.0, 1.5)
```

- [6]: (-4.0, 0.5)
- [6]: (-4.0, -0.5)
- [6]: (3.0, -1.5)

Let us get back to Euclid's algorithm, so assume again that a and b are two natural numbers with b > 0. To implement the algorithm and compute gcd(a, b), it suffices to have two variables, say a and b, initialised to a and b, and then change the value of a to b and change the value of b to a mod b, and do that again and again until b gets the value 0. To change the value of a to a mod b and change the value of b to a, it seems necessary to introduce a third variable:

```
[7]: a = 30
b = 18
c = a % b
a = b
b = c
a, b
```

[7]: (18, 12)

But Python makes it easier:

```
[8]: a = 30
b = 18
# Evaluate the expression on the right hand side;
# the result is the tuple (18, 12).
# Then assign that result to the tuple on the left,
# component by component.
a, b = b, a % b
a, b
```

[8]: (18, 12)

Note that when the value of a is strictly smaller than the value of b, then a, b = b, a % b exchanges the values of a and b:

```
[9]: a = 12
b = 18
a, b = b, a % b
a, b
```

[9]: (18, 12)

On the other hand, if the value of a is at least equal to the value of b, then this holds too after a, b = b, a % b has been executed. Let us trace all stages in the execution of Euclid's algorithm.

The code makes use of a while statement whose condition is not a boolean expression. Applying bool() to an expression reveals which one of True or False the expression evaluates to in contexts where one or the other is expected:

```
[10]: bool(None)
     bool(0), bool(5), bool(-3)
     bool(0.0), bool(0.1), bool(-3.14)
     bool([]), bool([0]), bool([[]])
     bool({}), bool({0: 0}), bool({0: None, 1: None})
     bool(''), bool(' '), bool('0000')
[10]: False
[10]: (False, True, True)
[11]: def trace_our_gcd(a, b):
         while b:
             a, b = b, a \% b
             print(a, b)
     for a, b in (1233, 1233), (1233, 990), (990, 1233):
         print(f'\nTracing the computation of gcd of {a} and {b}:')
         trace_our_gcd(a, b)
    Tracing the computation of gcd of 1233 and 1233:
    1233 0
    Tracing the computation of gcd of 1233 and 990:
    990 243
    243 18
    18 9
    Tracing the computation of gcd of 990 and 1233:
    1233 990
    990 243
    243 18
    18 9
    9 0
       The gcd is the value of a when exiting the while loop:
```

[12]: def our_gcd(a, b):
 while b:

```
a, b = b, a % b return a
```

compute_fraction() returns the numerator and denominator of a fraction that another function, say reduce(), can easily reduce thanks to $our_gcd()$. It is natural to let reduce() take two arguments, the numerator and the denominator of the fraction to simplify, respectively. But $compute_fraction()$ returns those as the first and second elements of a tuple; a function always returns a single value. Between the parentheses that surround the arguments of a function f(), one can insert an expression that evaluates to a tuple and precede it with the * symbol, which "unpacks" the members of the tuple and make them the arguments of f():

```
[13]: def f(a, b):
    return 2 * a, 2 * b

# Makes a equal to (1, 3), and provides no value to b.
f((1, 3))
```

```
[14]: f(1, 3)

# f(f(1, 3)) would be f((2, 6)); f(*f(1, 3)) is f(2, 6)

f(*f(1, 3))

f(*f(*f(1, 3)))
```

TypeError: f() missing 1 required positional argument: 'b'

[14]: (2, 6)

[14]: (4, 12)

[14]: (8, 24)

The * symbol can also be used in the definition of a function and precede the name of a parameter. It then has the opposite effect, namely, it makes a tuple out of all arguments that are provided to the function:

```
[15]: # x is the tuple of all arguments passed to f().
def f(*x):
    return x * 2
```

```
f()
f(0)
f(f(0))
f(*f(0))
f(*f(0)))
f(*f(*f(0)))
f(*f(*f(0)))
f(*f(*f(0)))

[15]: (0, 0)

[15]: (0, 0, 0, 0, 0)

[15]: ((0, 0), (0, 0)), ((0, 0), (0, 0)))

[15]: ((0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0))

[15]: ((0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0))
```

Thanks to this syntax, it is possible to let reduce() as well as another function output() take two arguments numerator and denominator, and "pipe" compute_fraction(), reduce() and output() together so that the unpacked returned value of one function becomes the arguments of the function that follows:

```
[16]: def reduce(numerator, denominator):
    if numerator == 0:
        return 0, 1
    the_gcd = our_gcd(numerator, denominator)
    return numerator // the_gcd, denominator // the_gcd

[17]: def output(numerator, denominator):
    print(f'{numerator}/{denominator}')

[18]: output(*reduce(*compute_fraction('23', '905')))
    output(*reduce(*compute_fraction('000', '97')))
    output(*reduce(*compute_fraction('97', '000')))
    output(*reduce(*compute_fraction('01234', '543210')))
```

11941/49950 97/99000 97/100 51439249/4166662500