

Lecture 6: Theory of numbers

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Work by modulo

In many problems of sport programming (combinatorial, DP etc), answer can be very big number. To make the life easier and avoid a difference of standard libraries of different languages, participants are asked to find the remainder of division of answer by some fixed natural modulo.

Definition

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \neq 0$. Then, one says that a is divided by b if there exist such a number $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ that $a = b * c$. Also in this case, one says that a is a multiple of b .

Definition

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $mod \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. We will say a is *equal*, or *equivalent*, by modulo mod if $a - b$ is divided by mod . Notation: $a \equiv_{mod} b$.

Work by modulo

Definition

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then, there exist and only integers q, r , $r \in [0, b)$, such that $a = b * q + r$. These q, r are called *quotient* and *remainder* of division of a by b , correspondingly. r is also denoted as $rem_b(a)$.

For example, if we divide 13 by 3, then the quotient will be 4, and the remainder — 1, because $13 = 3 * 4 + 1$. But if we divide -13 by 3, then quotient will be -5 , and remainder is 2 ($-13 = 3 * (-5) + 2$).

The notion of remainder is connected with operator $\%$ in some programming languages. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \geq 0$, then $a \% b$ is $rem_b(a)$.

For example $(-14) \% 3$ is equal to -2 . It can be easily proved that if $a < 0$ then $a \% b = rem_b(a) - b$.

Work by modulo

Obviously, for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$:

$\text{rem}_b(a) = \text{rem}_b(a - b) = \text{rem}_b(a + b) = \text{rem}_b(a + k * b)$ (because if $a = q * b + r$ then $a - b = (q - 1) * b + r$,
 $a + b = (q + 1) * b + r$, $a + k * b = (q + k) * b + r$).

Lemma

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\text{mod} \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then,

$$\text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(a + b) = \text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(\text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(a) + \text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(b)).$$

Proof

Let $a = q_a * \text{mod} + r_a$, $b = q_b * \text{mod} + r_b$, $q_a, q_b, r_a, r_b \in \mathbb{Z}$,
 $r_a = \text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(a)$, $r_b = \text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(b)$. Then,
 $\text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(a + b) = \text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(q_a * \text{mod} + r_a + q_b * \text{mod} + r_b) =$
 $\text{rem}_{\text{mod}}(r_a + r_b)$, QED.

Work by modulo

Analogically we can prove the following lemma.

Lemma

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $mod \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then,
 $rem_{mod}(a - b) = rem_{mod}(rem_{mod}(a) - rem_{mod}(b))$, and also
 $rem_{mod}(a * b) = rem_{mod}(rem_{mod}(a) * rem_{mod}(b))$.

Suppose that, for example, we are to calculate number $3^{1000000} + 2^{10000} - 38^{34}$ by modulo $MOD = 10^9 + 7$. To do that, it's not necessary to calculate very long numbers and then take it by modulo — we can do it in type *long long*!

Work by modulo

```
int deg3 = 1;
for (int i = 1; i <= 1000000; ++i)
    deg3 = (deg3 * 3) % MOD;
int deg2 = 1;
for (int i = 1; i <= 10000; ++i)
    deg2 = (deg2 * 2) % MOD;
int deg38 = 1;
for (int i = 1; i <= 34; ++i)
    deg38 = (deg38 * 38) % MOD;
int ans = deg3 + deg2 - deg38;
if (ans < 0)
    ans += MOD;
```

Fast exponentiation and prime numbers

Working by modulo MOD , one can calculate a^n for big n — for example, $n = 10^{18}$!

As we remember, it's impossible to calculate a^n in a straightforward way — we are to calculate it faster. But let $a2 = (a * a) \% MOD$; then if n is even then $a^n \equiv_{MOD} a2^{n/2}$; otherwise $a^n = a * a2^{(n-1)/2}$. It reduces the exponent in two times, and the complexity of the calculation of degree is $O(\log n)$.

A division will be discussed later.

One of the most popular moduloes in different problems are prime moduloes, like $10^9 + 7$ or $10^9 + 9$ — they make the probability of random coincidence of calculated answer with correct one smaller in case of some mistake.

Prime numbers: checking whether it's prime

Definition

Positive integer $p \geq 2$ is called *prime* if it has two divisors — 1 and p .

For any number p , 1 and p are called trivial divisors of p ; all other numbers are called non-trivial. So, p is prime if and only if there are no any non-trivial divisors for p .

For example, 2, 3, 5, 43, 79, 83 are primes, while $4 = 2 * 2$, $35 = 5 * 7$, 2^{17} are not.

How to check whether given an integer p is prime or not?

Of course we can do it in $O(p)$ by just checking all numbers between 2 and $p - 1$ to be non-trivial divisors; but note that if p has a non-trivial divisor q then p has a non-trivial divisor which doesn't exceed \sqrt{p} (it is for example q or p/q). It gives us a possibility to check only such a numbers q that $2 \leq q$, $q^2 \leq p$ and reduces the complexity of the algorithm to $O(\sqrt{p})$.

Prime numbers: sieve of Eratosthenes

Suppose now that we have a positive integer n and what to reveal for each number from 2 to n whether it's prime or not. One can check all the numbers independently, and the complexity will be $O(n\sqrt{n})$.

We will discuss more effective method which is called “sieve of Eratosphenes”. The idea is the following:

- ① Define boolean array *bool isNonPrime*[2.. n]; initially, *isPrime*[i] is false for any $i \in [2, n]$;
- ② Iterate i over all the numbers from 2 to n ; for each number i , do the following:
 - if *isNonPrime*[i] = *true* then go to the next i ;
 - otherwise, assign *isNonPrime*[j] to be *j* for $j = 2 * i, 3 * i, \dots, \lfloor \frac{n}{i} \rfloor * i$.
- ③ After performing that, for any i , *isNonPrime*[i] is false if and only if i is prime.

Prime moduloes: division

Let's move back to work by modulo.

Suppose that we want to calculate a ratio $\frac{a}{b}$ for some very-very big integers a and b by **prime** modulo MOD ; it can be guaranteed that a is divided by b , but we have only numbers $a' = \text{rem}_{MOD}(a)$, $b' = \text{rem}_{MOD}(b)$, $b' > 0$. The question is: how to find $\text{rem}_{MOD}(\frac{a}{b})$?

One can show (and we will prove it later) that there is the only integer $c' \in [0, MOD)$ such that $a' \equiv_{MOD} b' * c'$. The following famous theorem helps to find c' .

Little Fermat's theorem

Let p be a prime number, and integer $a \in [1, p)$. Then, $a^{p-1} \equiv_p 1$.

According to this theorem, c' can be equal to $\text{rem}_{MOD}(a' * b'^{MOD-2})$.

Greatest common divisor

The next important thing we will discuss is a notion of *greatest common divisor*. Let a, b be nonnegative integers, and at least one of them is nonzero.

Definition

Positive integer c is called *common divisor* of numbers a, b if a, b are both multiple of c . The greatest such a number is called *greatest common divisor* of numbers a and b , or $GCD(a, b)$.

How to find it effectively?

Lemma

Suppose that $a \geq b > 0$. Then, $GCD(a, b) = GCD(a - b, b)$.

It's true because integer c is a common divisor of numbers a and b if and only if c is a common divisor of numbers $a - b$ and b .

Greatest common divisor: Euclid's algorithm

The following lemma is a straightforward consequence of the previous one because $\text{rem}_b(a) = a - b * \lfloor \frac{a}{b} \rfloor$.

Lemma

Suppose that $a \geq b > 0$. Then, $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(b, \text{rem}_b(a))$.

Last lemma gives us the following algorithm of finding $\text{GCD}(a, b)$ for some nonnegative integers a, b :

- if $b = 0$ then $\text{GCD}(a, b) = a$;
- otherwise, $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(b, \text{rem}_b(a))$.

This algorithm is called *Euclid's algorithm*. It can be proved that the complexity of its algorithm is $O(\log(a + b))$.

Greatest common divisor and diophantine equation

Definition

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, $ax + by = c$ is called *linear diophantine equation*. We'll call it just diophantine equation.

Is it possible to solve such a equation in integers? In other words is there at least on pair of integer (x_0, y_0) such that $a * x_0 + b * y_0 = c$?

Diophantine equation with coprime coefficients

If $GCD(a, b) = 1$ then the solution exists.

Proof.

We'll prove it by induction by b . If $b = 0$ then $a = 1$, so $(1, 0)$ is a solution; it is a base step.

To prove the induction step, let $b > 0$, and $a = q * b + r$, $r = \text{rem}_b(a)$.

$GCD(a, r) = 1$; so, according to inductive hypothesis, there are such (x_1, y_1) that $b * x_1 + r * y_1 = 1$. It means that

$1 = b * x_1 + r * y_1 = b * x_1 + (a - q * b) * y_1 = a * y_1 + b * (x_1 - q * y_1)$; so, $(y_1, x_1 - q * y_1)$ is a solution, QED.

GCD and contractility lemma

The preceding lemma gave us a constructive $O(\log(a + b))$ —algorithm to find some solution for diophantine equation if it exists.

Definition

Nonnegative integers a, b , such that $a + b > 0$, are called coprime if $\text{GCD}(a, b) = 1$.

The following lemma is a core of proof many important facts.

Contractility lemma

Suppose that a, b, m are nonnegative integers, $m > 0$, ab is multiple of m but m is coprime with a . Then, b is a multiple of m .

Proof

As we proved earlier, there exists such integer x, y that $ax + my = 1$. Then, $abx + mby = b$. Both abx and mby are multiples of m , so b is a multiple of m , QED.

GCD and diophantine equations

Consider again the equation $ax + by = 1$ for coprime nonnegative a, b . We proved that there are such a solution (x_0, y_0) . But what about other solutions?

Let (x_1, y_1) be some solution. Then, we know that $a(x_1 - x_0) + b(y_1 - y_0) = 0$. It means that $a(x_1 - x_0)$ is a multiple of b ; according to contractility lemma, $x_1 - x_0$ is a multiple of b , i.e. $x_1 = x_0 + bt$ for some integer t . Then, $y_1 = y_0 - at$. For any integer t , $(x_0 + bt, y_0 - at)$ is a solution; it brings us to the following

Lemma

All possible solutions of diophantine equation $ax + by = 1$ for coprime (a, b) are $\{(x_0 + bt, y_0 - at) \mid t \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, for some solution (x_0, y_0) .

GCD and fundamental theorem of arithmetics

The contractility lemma brings us to the following problem:

Fundamental theorem of arithmetics

For each integer $n \geq 2$, there exists and only such a pair of sequences (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k) , (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) of equal length called k that:

- (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k) is an increasing sequence of prime numbers;
- (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) is a sequence of nonnegative integers;
- $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_k^{a_k}$.

Last representation of n is called factorization of number n .

The existence of factorization can be seen using greedy approach; the uniqueness is a consequence of the contractility lemma.

Chinese theorem of arithmetics

Prove one more important theorem of theory of numbers.

Chinese remainder theorem: shorten version

Let a, b be coprime positive integers, and $r_a \in [0, a), r_b \in [0, b)$ be some remainders by modulo a and b , correspondingly. Then, there exist the only number $c \in [0, ab)$ such that $\text{rem}_a(c) = r_a$ and $\text{rem}_b(c) = r_b$.

Proof

Consider an equation $r_a + ax = r_b + by$, for x, y as variables we are to find. This equation is equivalent to diophantine, and a, b are coprime. Then, there exist a solution (x_0, y_0) . Let c' be $r_a + ax_0 = r_b + by_0$. Obviously, c' satisfies all the conditions except lying in $[0, ab)$; then, $\text{rem}_{ab}(c')$ is such a c what we need. The uniqueness can be seen from the fact that there are ab number in $[0, ab)$, and for any of ab possible pairs (r_a, r_b) there are a solution in $[0, ab)$.

Chinese theorem of arithmetics

More generalized version of the theorem can be proved.

Chinese remainder theorem: full version

Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be pairwise coprime positive integers, and $r_1 \in [0, a_1), r_2 \in [0, a_2), \dots, r_n \in [0, a_n)$ be some remainders by modulo a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , correspondingly. Then, there exist the only number $c \in [0, a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)$ such that $\text{rem}_{a_i}(c) = r_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Euler's theorem

The last question for today is Euler's theorem.

Definition

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Then, $\phi(n)$ is the number of such positive integers which are less than n and are coprime with n .

Three following facts are correct:

Lemma about properties of ϕ

- ① if p is prime that $\phi(p) = p - 1$;
- ② if p is prime and a is positive integer then $\phi(p^a) = (p - 1) * p^{a-1}$;
- ③ if n, m are positive coprime integers then $\phi(nm) = \phi(n) * \phi(m)$

Euler's theorem

Briefly proof last lemma. First claim is obvious. The second claim is correct because any number which is not coprime with p^a should be multiple of p , and there are exactly p^{a-1} such number on the segment $[1..p^a]$.

To prove the third claim of lemma, one can note that according to chinese remainder theorem, the remainder c of some number x by modulo nm is uniquely defined by the remainders of x by modulo n and m , and vice verse; moreover both these remainders are coprime with their moduloes if and only if c is coprime with nm .

Euler's theorem

Summarizing three facts of previous lemma, we get the following fact.

Formula of ϕ

Let $n \geq 2$ be an integer, and $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_k^{a_k}$ is its factorization. Then, $\phi(n) = (p_1 - 1) * p_1^{a_1-1} (p_2 - 1) * p_2^{a_2-1} \dots (p_k - 1) * p_k^{a_k-1}$.

$\phi(n)$ is important because of the following

Euler's theorem

If a and m are positive coprime integers then $a^{\phi(m)} \equiv_m 1$.