

Algorithms for Programming Contests - Week 09

Prof. Dr. Javier Esparza
Pranav Ashok, A. R. Balasubramanian,
Tobias Meggendorfer, Philipp Meyer,
Mikhail Raskin,
`conpra@in.tum.de`

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Number Theory

Number Theory: *the study of integers*

- Around 1800 BC: Pythagorean triples in Mesopotamia
- Classical Greece (500-200 BC): Pythagoras, Plato, Euclid, Archimedes
- China (300-500 CE): Sun Tzu/Sunzi
- India (following centuries)
- Fibonacci (late 12th century)
- Early modern age: Fermat (17th), Euler (18th), Gauss (18/19th)

Number Theory

Subdivisions of Number Theory

- Elementary Tools
- Analytic Number Theory
- Algebraic Number Theory
- Diophantine Geometry
- Probabilistic Number Theory
- Arithmetic Combinatorics
- Computational/Algorithmic Number Theory

Basic terminology

- We study the set of integers $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$.
- Basic operations: addition $+$ and multiplication \cdot .
- Form an algebraic ring $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ with neutral elements 0 and 1.
- Non-negative integers: $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$.
- Positive integers: $\mathbb{Z}_{>0} = \{1, 2, \dots\}$.
- Prime numbers: \mathbb{P} .

Big Integers

- In C++ or Java, primitive data types cannot represent all integers:
 - C++: $\text{maxValue}(\text{unsigned long long}) = 2^{64} - 1 \approx 1.84 \cdot 10^{19}$
 - Java: $\text{maxValue}(\text{long}) = 2^{63} - 1 \approx 9.22 \cdot 10^{18}$
- For even larger integers use number system with base b :
 - Number $x = (x_n x_{n-1} \dots x_1 x_0)_b$ where $0 \leq x_i < b$
 - Value $\sum_{i=0}^n x_i \cdot b^i$

Big Integers

Addition

If $x = x_n \dots x_0$ and $y = y_n \dots y_0$, then $x + y = z = z_{n+1} z_n \dots z_n$ defined by:

$$c_i := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \geq 1 \text{ and } x_{i-1} + y_{i-1} \geq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$z_i := \begin{cases} x_i + y_i + c_i & \text{if } x_i + y_i + c_i < b \\ x_i + y_i + c_i - b & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Big Integers

Multiplication (using long multiplication)

If $x = x_n \dots x_0$ and $y = y_m \dots y_0$, then

$$x \cdot y = \sum_{i=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^m x_i \cdot y_j \cdot b^{i+j}$$

- For product of digits, use hash tables or built-in operations.
- Additionally, keep track of sign when dealing with negative integers.
- Handle special cases.

Many more efficient algorithms available, e.g.: Toom-Cook multiplication, Schönhage-Strassen algorithm, Fast Fourier Transform.

Big Integers

- Choose base b so that individual digits fit into `long` or `int` datatypes.
- Space optimal: Base equal to the maximum value.
- Easier computation: Use only half the space to avoid overflows.
- Easier printing: Use $b = 10^k$ for some k .

Big Integers

- Choose base b so that individual digits fit into `long` or `int` datatypes.
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-
- For Python: long arithmetics by default.
 - For Java: use `BigInteger` class.
 - For Julia: use `BigInt` type.
 - For C++: not in standard library, write class yourself or use existing implementations or use another language.

Rational Numbers

Common problem with floating point numbers

- loss of significance
- rounding issues

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Common problem with floating point numbers

- loss of significance
- rounding issues

Store numbers as rationals $\frac{a}{b}$ if exact calculations are required.

- Sum: $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a \cdot d + b \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$
- Difference: $\frac{a}{b} - \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a \cdot d - b \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$
- Product: $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$
- Quotient: $\frac{a}{b} \div \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a \cdot d}{b \cdot c}$
- Simplify rational number $\frac{a}{b}$ by canceling with $\gcd(a, b)$.
- Never divide by 0!

Fast Exponentiation

Exponentiation

For $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$:

$$x^n = \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x \cdot x}_{n \text{ multiplications}}$$

More efficient: with $n = (n_k \dots n_0)_2$, use

$$x^n = x^{(n_k \dots n_0)_2} = x^{\sum_{i=0}^k n_i \cdot 2^i} = \prod_{i=0}^k x^{n_i \cdot 2^i} = \prod_{i=0}^k \left(x^{2^i}\right)^{n_i}$$

Use $x^0 = 1$, $x^1 = x$, $x^2 = x \cdot x$ and reuse results with $x^{2^i} = \left(x^{2^{i-1}}\right)^2$.

Only $\mathcal{O}(k) = \mathcal{O}(\log n)$ multiplications.

Fast Exponentiation Example

Naive Approach:

$$5^{19} = \underbrace{5 \cdot 5 \cdot \dots \cdot 5 \cdot 5}_{19 \text{ multiplications}}$$

Fast Exponentiation:

$$\begin{aligned} 5^{19} &= 5^{(\textcolor{red}{10011})_2} = 5^{1+2+16} = 5^1 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 5^{16} = (5^{2^0})^1 \cdot (5^{2^1})^1 \cdot (5^{2^4})^1 \\ &= (5^{2^4})^{\textcolor{red}{1}} \cdot (5^{2^3})^{\textcolor{red}{0}} \cdot (5^{2^2})^{\textcolor{red}{0}} \cdot (5^{2^1})^{\textcolor{red}{1}} \cdot (5^{2^0})^{\textcolor{red}{1}} \end{aligned}$$

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Or maybe:

$$5^{19} = 5^{9 \times 2 + 1} = 5^{((1 \times 2) \times 2) \times 2 + 1} \times 5 = \left(\left((5^2)^2 \right)^2 \times 5 \right)^2 \times 5$$

Divisibility

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. We say that a *divides* b , written as $a \mid b$, if there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ak = b$.

- Note that $a \mid 0$ for any a , and $0 \mid b$ implies $b = 0$.
- If $a \mid b$ and $a \neq 0$, the k is uniquely determined. Then $k := \frac{b}{a}$.

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An integer $p \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ is a *prime number* if $p \neq 1$ and for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, if $k \mid p$, then $k = 1$ or $k = p$.

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Two integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ are *coprime* if for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, if $k \mid a$ and $k \mid b$, then $k = 1$.

Sieve of Eratosthenes

Algorithm 1 Sieve of Eratosthenes

Input: Integer n

Output: All prime numbers p with $p \leq n$.

procedure SIEVE(n)

$s[i] \leftarrow \text{true}$ for all $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$.

for $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$ **do**

if $s[i] = \text{true}$ **then**

for $j = 2i, 3i, 4i, \dots$ with $j \leq n$ **do**

$s[j] \leftarrow \text{false}$

end for

end if

end for

for $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$ with $s[i] = \text{true}$ **do**

output prime: i

end for

end procedure

Sieve of Eratosthenes (optimized version)

Algorithm 2 Sieve of Eratosthenes

Input: Integer n

Output: All prime numbers p with $p \leq n$.

procedure SIEVE(n)

$s[i] \leftarrow \text{true}$ for all $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$.

for $i = 2, 3, \dots, \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$ **do**

if $s[i] = \text{true}$ **then**

for $j = i^2, i^2 + i, i^2 + 2i, \dots$ with $j \leq n$ **do**

$s[j] \leftarrow \text{false}$

end for

end if

end for

for $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$ with $i[n] = \text{true}$ **do**

output prime: i

end for

end procedure

Analysis of Sieve of Eratosthenes

Running time

- Initialization of array $\mathcal{O}(n)$.
- Removing multiples $\sum_{p \leq n, p \in \mathbb{P}} \frac{n}{p} = n \sum_{p \leq n, p \in \mathbb{P}} \frac{1}{p} = \mathcal{O}(n \log \log n)$
- In total: $\mathcal{O}(n \log \log n)$

Euclidean Division

Lemma

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$. Then there exist unique integers $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a = bq + r \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq r < |b|$$

We say that q is the quotient and r is the remainder of the Euclidean division of a and b , and define $a \operatorname{div} b := q$ and $a \operatorname{mod} b := r$.

The values of $a \operatorname{div} b$ and $a \operatorname{mod} b$ can be computed using long division.

Modular Arithmetic

Definition (Congruence modulo n)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. We say that a and b are *congruent modulo n* , written as

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

if $n \mid a - b$, or, equivalently, if $a \bmod n = b \bmod n$.

Common rules for modular arithmetic:

- For a fixed n , the congruence is an equivalence relation.
- If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$, then

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n} \quad \text{and} \quad ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$$

- For $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ with p and q coprime, we have

$$a \equiv b \pmod{pq} \quad \text{iff} \quad a \equiv b \pmod{p} \quad \text{and} \quad a \equiv b \pmod{q}$$

GCD & LCM

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$. The *greatest common divisor* of a and b is defined by:

$$\gcd(a, b) = \max\{k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} : (k \mid a) \wedge (k \mid b)\}$$

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If $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$, the *least common multiple* of a and b is defined by:

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = \min\{k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} : (a \mid k) \wedge (b \mid k)\}$$

GCD & LCM

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Properties of gcd and lcm:

- $\gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b) = a \cdot b$.
- If $a \neq 0$, then $\gcd(0, a) = \gcd(a, 0) = a$.
- If $b \neq 0$, then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$.
- a and b are coprime iff $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.
- gcd of three numbers a, b, c can be computed as $\gcd(a, \gcd(b, c))$.

GCD & LCM

Consider the prime factorization of a and b , i.e.

$$a = \prod_{p_i \in \mathbb{P}} p_i^{r_i} \quad b = \prod_{p_i \in \mathbb{P}} p_i^{s_i} \quad \text{with } r_i, s_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$$

The greatest common divisor and the least common multiple are then given by

$$\gcd(a, b) = \prod_{p_i \in \mathbb{P}} p_i^{\min\{r_i, s_i\}} \quad \text{lcm}(a, b) = \prod_{p_i \in \mathbb{P}} p_i^{\max\{r_i, s_i\}}$$

Note that

$$\gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b) = \prod_{p_i \in \mathbb{P}} p_i^{\min\{r_i, s_i\} + \max\{r_i, s_i\}} = \prod_{p_i \in \mathbb{P}} p_i^{r_i + s_i} = a \cdot b$$

GCD & LCM - Example

$$a = 20 = 2^{\textcolor{red}{2}} \cdot 3^{\textcolor{red}{0}} \cdot 5^{\textcolor{red}{1}} \cdot 7^{\textcolor{red}{0}}$$

$$b = 42 = 2^{\textcolor{blue}{1}} \cdot 3^{\textcolor{blue}{1}} \cdot 5^{\textcolor{blue}{0}} \cdot 7^{\textcolor{blue}{1}}$$

$$\gcd(a, b) = 2 = 2^{\textcolor{blue}{1}} \cdot 3^{\textcolor{red}{0}} \cdot 5^{\textcolor{blue}{0}} \cdot 7^{\textcolor{red}{0}}$$

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = 420 = 2^{\textcolor{red}{2}} \cdot 3^{\textcolor{blue}{1}} \cdot 5^{\textcolor{red}{1}} \cdot 7^{\textcolor{blue}{1}}$$

$$a \cdot b = 840 = 2^3 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 5^1 \cdot 7^1$$

Euclidean Algorithm

Algorithm 3 Euclidean Algorithm

Input: Integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$.

Output: Greatest common divisor of a and b .

```
procedure GCD( $a, b$ )  
    if  $b = 0$  then  
        return  $a$   
    else  
        return GCD( $b, a \bmod b$ )  
    end if  
end procedure
```

Complexity: Algorithm needs at most $\mathcal{O}(\log \min(a, b))$ steps. Total complexity defined by cost of mod operation.

Euclidean Algorithm - Example

Compute the greatest common divisor of 11 and 19:

$$\gcd(19, 11) \longrightarrow 19 = 1 \cdot 11 + 8$$

$$\gcd(11, 8) \longrightarrow 11 = 1 \cdot 8 + 3$$

$$\gcd(8, 3) \longrightarrow 8 = 2 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$\gcd(3, 2) \longrightarrow 3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$\gcd(2, 1) \longrightarrow 2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

$$\gcd(1, 0) = 1$$

Bézout's Lemma

Lemma (Bézout's Lemma)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ and let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then there exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$ax + by = d \tag{1}$$

Additionally, there exist x, y satisfying (1) with $|x| \leq \frac{b}{d}$ and $|y| \leq \frac{a}{d}$.

Bézout's Lemma

Lemma (Bézout's Lemma)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ and let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then there exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$ax + by = d \tag{1}$$

Additionally, there exist x, y satisfying (1) with $|x| \leq \frac{b}{d}$ and $|y| \leq \frac{a}{d}$.

If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, we also obtain the modular inverses:

$$ax \equiv 1 \pmod{b}$$

$$by \equiv 1 \pmod{a}$$

Modular Inverse

Example: Compute the modular inverse of 11 in group $(\mathbb{Z}_{19}, \cdot_{19})$, i.e. compute a number x such that

$$11 \cdot x \equiv 1 \pmod{19}.$$

Modular Inverse

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Compute $\gcd(19, 11)$:

$$19 = 1 \cdot 11 + 8$$

$$11 = 1 \cdot 8 + 3$$

$$8 = 2 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

Modular Inverse

Example: Compute the modular inverse of 11 in group $(\mathbb{Z}_{19}, \cdot_{19})$, i.e. compute a number x such that

$$11 \cdot x \equiv 1 \pmod{19}.$$

Compute $\gcd(19, 11)$:

$$19 = 1 \cdot 11 + 8$$

$$11 = 1 \cdot 8 + 3$$

$$8 = 2 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

Substitute:

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 3 - 1 \cdot (8 - 2 \cdot 3)$$

$$= -8 + 3 \cdot 3 = -8 + 3 \cdot (11 - 1 \cdot 8)$$

$$= 3 \cdot 11 - 4 \cdot 8 = 3 \cdot 11 - 4 \cdot (19 - 1 \cdot 11)$$

$$= -4 \cdot 19 + 7 \cdot 11$$

Modular Inverse

Example: Compute the modular inverse of 11 in group $(\mathbb{Z}_{19}, \cdot_{19})$, i.e. compute a number x such that

$$11 \cdot x \equiv 1 \pmod{19}.$$

Compute $\gcd(19, 11)$:

$$19 = 1 \cdot 11 + 8$$

$$11 = 1 \cdot 8 + 3$$

$$8 = 2 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

Substitute:

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 3 - 1 \cdot (8 - 2 \cdot 3)$$

$$= -8 + 3 \cdot 3 = -8 + 3 \cdot (11 - 1 \cdot 8)$$

$$= 3 \cdot 11 - 4 \cdot 8 = 3 \cdot 11 - 4 \cdot (19 - 1 \cdot 11)$$

$$= -4 \cdot 19 + 7 \cdot 11$$

$$19 \cdot (-4) + 11 \cdot 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{19}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 11 \cdot 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{19}$$

The modular inverse of 11 in $(\mathbb{Z}_{19}, \cdot_{19})$ is 7.

Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Algorithm 4 Euclidean Algorithm

Input: Integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$.

Output: $\gcd(a, b)$ and integers x, y with $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$.

procedure GCD(a, b)

$s \leftarrow 0, s' \leftarrow 1$

$t \leftarrow 1, t' \leftarrow 0$

$r \leftarrow b, r' \leftarrow a$

while $r \neq 0$ **do**

$q \leftarrow r' \text{ div } r$

$(r', r) \leftarrow (r, r' - q \cdot r)$

$(s', s) \leftarrow (s, s' - q \cdot s)$

$(t', t) \leftarrow (t, t' - q \cdot t)$

end while

output $\gcd(a, b) = r'$

output $(x, y) = (s', t')$

end procedure

Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Algorithm 5 Euclidean Algorithm

Input: Integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$.

Output: $\gcd(a, b)$ and integers x, y with $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$.

procedure GCD(a, b)

$s \leftarrow 0, s' \leftarrow 1$

$t \leftarrow 1, t' \leftarrow 0$

$r \leftarrow b, r' \leftarrow a$

while $r \neq 0$ **do**

$q \leftarrow r' \text{ div } r$

$(r', r) \leftarrow (r, r' - q \cdot r)$

$(s', s) \leftarrow (s, s' - q \cdot s)$

$(t', t) \leftarrow (t, t' - q \cdot t)$

end while

output $\gcd(a, b) = r'$

output $(x, y) = (s', t')$

end procedure

i	r'	r	q	s'	s	t'	t
0	19	11		1	0	0	1
1	11	8	1	0	1	1	-1
2	8	3	1	1	-1	-1	2
3	3	2	2	-1	3	2	-5
4	2	1	1	3	-4	-5	7
5	1	0	2	-4	11	7	-19

$$\gcd(19, 11) = (-4) \cdot 19 + 7 \cdot 11$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Theorem (Chinese Remainder Theorem)

Let $n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ be non-negative integers such that the n_i are pairwise coprime, and let $N := \prod_{i=1}^k n_i$. For integers $a_1, \dots, a_k \in \mathbb{Z}$, define a set of congruences as follows:

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv a_k \pmod{n_k}$$

Then

- there exists an integer x satisfying all congruences, and
- if x and y satisfy all congruences, then $x \equiv y \pmod{N}$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem (proof of uniqueness)

Proof (uniqueness modulo N).

Assume that x and y are solutions to the set of congruences. Then we have $x \equiv y \pmod{n_i}$ for all n_i . As the n_i are pairwise coprime, we obtain $x \equiv y \pmod{N}$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem (proof of uniqueness)

Proof (uniqueness modulo N).

Assume that x and y are solutions to the set of congruences. Then we have $x \equiv y \pmod{n_i}$ for all n_i . As the n_i are pairwise coprime, we obtain $x \equiv y \pmod{N}$.

- Consequently, in any interval of size N , there is exactly one solution.
- There is a unique solution in the interval $[0, N - 1]$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem (proof of existence)

First consider the case with $k = 2$:

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{n_2}$$

As $\gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$, with Bézout's Lemma, we obtain m_1, m_2 such that

$$m_1 n_1 + m_2 n_2 = 1$$

Then

$$x = a_1 m_2 n_2 + a_2 m_1 n_1$$

is a solution, as

$$x = (a_1 m_2 n_2 + a_2 m_1 n_1) = a_1(1 - m_1 n_1) + a_2 m_1 n_1 = a_1 + (a_2 - a_1)m_1 n_1$$

Consider the case with $k > 2$:

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{n_2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv a_k \pmod{n_k}$$

Let $a_{1,2}$ be a solution to the first two congruences. Then the above and following set of congruences have the same the of solutions:

$$x \equiv a_{1,2} \pmod{n_1 n_2}$$

$$x \equiv a_3 \pmod{n_3}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv a_k \pmod{n_k}$$