Number theory

- Format
 - This lecture now
 - Practice problems available now (see description)
 - Stream in ~2.5 days
- General tip: model it as an equation (if possible)

Floor/ceil

$$[x] = x$$
, rounded down (floor)
 $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{5}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.5 \end{bmatrix} = 2$, $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{4}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2$
 $[x] = x$, rounded up (ceil)
 $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{5}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.5 \end{bmatrix} = 3$, $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{4}{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 21 = 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Divisors (basic definitions)

- $a \mid b <->$ "a divides b" <-> "b is divisible by a" <-> b % a=0
- Divisor (or factor) of x: a number y where y | x
- Transitive: a | b, b | c -> a | c
- Prime: no divisors except 1 and itself
- Prime factorization: breaking a number down into a product of primes (or prime powers: p^k for prime p and integer k)
 - o ex: 2 = 2, 10 = 2 * 5, $254436 = 2^2 * 3 * 7 * 13 * 233$
 - \circ 27 = 3 * 9 **not** valid, 9 can be further broken down, should be 27 = 3^3

Prime factorization

- Goal: break x down into its prime divisors
- Naive try all numbers up to x
- A bit less naive try only the primes up to x
- Even less naive you can't have two primes larger than sqrt(x). So you only have to check up to sqrt(x), then you can conclude that x is prime if it has no other prime factors.
- Complexity: O(sqrt(x) / log(x)) [note, O(log(sqrt(x))) = O(log(x))]
- Expected to have O(x / log(x)) primes within [1, x]

Prime factorization - code

```
vector<ll> factors(ll x) {
    vector<ll> ret;
    for (ll p: primes) { // precompute list of primes
        if (p * p > x) {
            // checked all primes below p, now x can't be a product of two unchecked primes since p^2 > x
            // so x must be prime
            if (x > 1) {
                ret.push back(x);
                x = 1;
        } else {
            while (x % p == 0) { // take as much of this prime as we have
                ret.push_back(p);
                x \neq p; // make sure to divide x, that makes the p^2 > x case work
    return ret;
```

More prime factorization

- More algorithms, not covered here, with better complexities
- See description for some of those algorithms
- Also, see description for some wicked fast factorization code

Finding divisors

- Similar to prime factors, but find all divisors of x
- If you know y is a divisor, then x / y is too
- Only have to check up to sqrt(x), the rest will be found as x / y
- Complexity: O(sqrt(x))
- Another algorithm: prime factorize x, then generate the divisors from that (DFS or something)
- If implemented well, O(number of divisors)

Modulo

- % modulo
- x % m is the remainder of division of x / m
- ex: 17 / 6 = 2 with remainder 5, so 17 % 6 = 5
- Math requires: 0 <= (x % m) < m
- 17 % 6 = (17 6 6) = 5, -15 % 6 = (-15 + 6 + 6 + 6) = 3
- Another representation: x = am + b [a, b integers; 0 <= b < m]
- \bullet 17 = 2 * 6 + 5, -15 = -3 * 6 + 3
- Since [am] is a multiple of m, we just drop it when modding
- Since 0 <= b < m, it doesn't change when modding
- So (am + b) % m = b
- In C++, -15 % 6 gives you -3, but it should be 3... be careful

Modulo - practice

Task: using the x = am + b representation, prove:

```
\circ (a + b) % m = ((a % m) + (b % m)) % m
```

- \circ (a b) % m = ((a % m) (b % m)) % m
- \circ (a * b) % m = ((a % m) * (b % m)) % m
- What about division? We'll get to that soon...

Modulo - practice

- (a * b) % m = ((a % m) * (b % m)) % m
 - \circ Let a = cm + d, b = em + f
 - o (a * b) % m
 - ((cm + d) * (em + f)) % m
 - \blacksquare (cem² + cfm + dem + df) % m
 - Everything but df is a multiple of m, so we just get df % m
 - ((a % m) * (b % m)) % m
 - (((cm + d) % m) * ((em + f) % m)) % m
 - (((d) % m) * ((f) % m)) % m
 - 0 <= d < m, 0 <= f < m, so d % m = d, f % m = f
 - And we're left with df % m again
 - (so, left side = right side)

More modulo

- Binary exponentiation compute a^b % m quickly
 - Write b in binary, ex: $21_{10} = 10101_{2}$
 - \circ So $a^{21} = a^1 * a^4 * a^{16}$
 - o $a^{2x} = a^x * a^x$, so we can compute a^1 , a^2 , a^4 , a^8 , etc. in O(1) each
 - Take modulo with each multiplication
 - Total complexity: O(log b)
- What about something like a[^](b^c) % m? b^c has to be computed modulo φ(m) totient function, see description
- Logarithm? Complicated, not covered here...

Modular division?

- weird
- Inverse of multiplication modular multiplicative inverse
- (1/x) % m = x^{-1} % m = the y such that xy % m = 1
- Normally, x * (1 / x) = 1, so this works
- 2⁻¹ % 4 doesn't exist? When does it?
- Only exists if gcd(x, m) = 1 (we'll get to gcd right after this)
 - Otherwise, any xy will be divisible by gcd(x, m) and can't be 1

Modular division - computation

- Want: y such that xy % m = 1
- For prime m
 - Fermat's little theorem: a^{m-1} % m = 1 for any a, 0 < a < m (proof in description)
 - So divide both sides by a: $a^{m-2} = a^{-1} \pmod{m}$
 - That's it, it's just $y = x^{m-2}$
- For **coprime** x, m (gcd(x, m) = 1)
 - Extended euclidean algorithm, covered soon in this video

GCD

- "Greatest common divisor": gcd(x, y) = largest g where g | x, g | y
- If $x = p_1^a p_2^b$... and $y = p_1^c p_2^d$..., then $gcd(x, y) = p_1^{min(a, c)} p_2^{min(b, d)}$...
- Uses the Euclidean algorithm
- gcd(a, b, c, ...) = gcd(gcd(a, b), c, ...)

Euclidean GCD

- gcd(a, b) = gcd(a b, b)
 - \circ Let the GCD be g, then g | a and g | b, so a % g = 0, b % g = 0
 - \circ (a b) % g = ((a % g) (b % g)) % g = 0, so g | (a b)
 - Some casework to show g doesn't increase
- Mod is repeated subtraction, so... gcd(a, b) = gcd(a % b, b)
- Generally assumed a >= b, so we use gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, a % b)
- gcd(x, 0) = x, base case
- If a >= b, a % b <= a / 2, halves each time
- O(log(min(a, b)))
- Two numbers x, y are coprime/relatively prime if gcd(x, y) = 1

Euclidean GCD - example

```
gcd(133, 56) [133 = 7 * 19, 56 = 2<sup>3</sup> * 7]
gcd(133, 56) = gcd(56, 133 % 56) = gcd(56, 21)
gcd(56, 21) = gcd(21, 56 % 21) = gcd(21, 14)
gcd(21, 14) = gcd(14, 21 % 14) = gcd(14, 7)
gcd(14, 7) = gcd(7, 14 % 7) = gcd(7, 0)
qcd(7, 0) = 7, so qcd(133, 56) = 7
```

```
ll gcd(ll a, ll b) {
    if (b == 0) return a;
    return gcd(b, a % b);
}
```

Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Solves: ax + by = 1 [a, b given; x, y unknown; gcd(a, b) = 1]
- More generally: ax + by = gcd(a, b)
- Bezout's identity: says this solution (x, y) will always exist
- More info in description, but basically run GCD backwards
- So, want to solve for z: cz % m = 1
- Run extended Euclidean with a = c, b = m, solving cx + my = 1
- [my] factor lets you add and subtract m freely, just like mod
- Alternatively, take both sides mod m, you get exactly cx % m = 1
- Then, z = x
- Also O(log(min(a, b)), same idea as GCD

LCM

- "Least common multiple": lcm(x, y) = smallest z where x | z, y | z
- If $x = p_1^a p_2^b$... and $y = p_1^c p_2^d$..., then $lcm(x, y) = p_1^{max(a, c)} p_2^{max(b, d)}$...
- lcm(a, b) = a * b / gcd(a, b)
- lcm(a, b, c, ...) = lcm(lcm(a, b), c, ...)

Chinese remainder theorem

- Given a, b, x, y [0 <= a < x; 0 <= b < y; x, y coprime]
- Theorem states that there exists unique z where:

 - Not restricted to just 2 equations
- If not coprime, can be invalid, impossible for z % 4 = 1, z % 6 = 0
- How to find z?
- Task: try to derive a way to find z, expected complexity better than O(x) or O(y)

Chinese remainder theorem - derivation

Hint 1: Remember the modulo form, x = am + b for b = x % m

Chinese remainder theorem - derivation

Hint 2: Reduce it to some algorithm (covered in this video) that runs in O(log(min(x, y)))

Chinese remainder theorem - derivation

- Look at the case with only 2 equations if there are more, do 2 at a time
- Recall: task is to find z where
 - \circ z % x = a \circ z % y = b
- Let's satisfy the first equation, so z = cx + a (for some integer c)
- Plug that into second: (cx + a) % y = b
- Subtract a: cx % y = (b a) % y
- We can solve for dx % y = 1 (since gcd(x, y) = 1), so let's find d
- Now, set c = (b a) * d, which is thus equal to (b a) [mod y]
- Plug c into z = cx + a, and get z = d(b a)x + a
- Complexity: O(log(min(x, y)))

Möbius inversion (kinda?)

- Ex: You have an array, length up to 10^5, array elements up to 10^5. Find the number of subsequences where the overall GCD of elements is 1. (problem link in description)
- A modification: let all a[i] <= m, where m <= 10^5. For each x from 1 to m, find the number of subsequences where the overall GCD of elements is x

Möbius inversion (kinda?)

- Ex: n = 5, m = 6, a = [2, 5, 3, 6, 1]
- f(x) = answer for x
- $f(1) = 2^5 1$? but that counts stuff like $\{2, 6\}$
- This really gives us g(x), which is f(x) over all multiples of x
- So let's get f(x) by subtracting out the multiples from g(x)
 - \circ f(6) = g(6)
 - \circ f(5) = g(5)
 - \circ f(4) = g(4)
 - \circ f(3) = q(3) f(6)
 - \circ f(2) = g(2) f(4) f(6)
 - $\circ \quad f(1) = g(1) f(2) f(3) f(4) f(5) f(6)$
- And that's it.

Subtracting multiples?

- Can we just subtract out the multiples in less than $O(n^2)$?
- Subtracting out multiples of i is O(m / i)



- (proof in description)
- We also need to count the number of multiples of i for each i, but this can also be done in O(m / i) using a frequency array
- So that's the complexity O(m log(m))

Conclusion

- Do problems
- Stream soon
- Bye

Number Theory

X = P1 P2 P2 ... gcd(133, 56) 754436=22.3.7.13.233 = ged (56, 21) = gcd (21,14) 2% 5 2 4 - ged (14,7) 2 % 7 = 6 = g cd(7,0) :, 2=34