

basics

Division

Let a and b be integers with $a \neq 0$. We say a divides b , denoted by $a|b$, if there exists an integer c such that $b = ac$. When a divides b , we say that a is a divisor (or factor) of b , and b is a multiple of a . If a does not divide b , we write $a \nmid b$. If $a|b$ and $0 < a < b$, then a is called a proper divisor of b .

Euclid's Theorems

First theorem: $p|ab \Rightarrow p|a$ or $p|b$. A direct consequence of this is the fundamental theorem of arithmetic.

Second theorem: There are infinitely many primes. There are many simple proofs for this.

Sieve

. Given a positive integer $n > 1$, this algorithm will find all prime numbers up to n . [1] Create a list of integers from 2 to n ;

[2] For prime numbers p ; ($i = 1, 2, \dots$) from 2, 3, 5 up to \sqrt{n} , delete all the multiples $p_i < p, m < n$ from the list;
[3] Print the integers remaining in the list ..

Problems with Simple Sieve:

The Sieve of Eratosthenes looks good, but consider the situation when n is large, the Simple Sieve faces following issues.

- An array of size $\Theta(n)$ may not fit in memory
- The simple Sieve is not cache friendly even for slightly bigger n . The algorithm traverses the array without locality of reference

Segmented Sieve

The idea of segmented sieve is to divide the range $[0..n-1]$ in different segments and compute primes in all segments one by one. This algorithm first uses Simple Sieve to find primes smaller than or equal to \sqrt{n} . Below are steps used in Segmented Sieve.

1. Use Simple Sieve to find all primes upto square root of ' n ' and store these primes in an array "prime[]". Store the found primes in an array 'prime[]'.
2. We need all primes in range $[0..n-1]$. We divide this range in different segments such that size of every segment is at-most \sqrt{n}
3. Do following for every segment $[low..high]$
 - Create an array $mark[high-low+1]$. Here we need only $O(x)$ space where x is number of elements in given range.
 - Iterate through all primes found in step 1. For every prime, mark its multiples in given range $[low..high]$.

If a and b are integers, not both zero then the set $S = \{ar + by : r, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is precisely the set of all multiples of $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Euclid

Let a, b, q, r be integers with $b > 0$ and $0 < r < b$ such that $a = bq + r$. Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Intuition

Suppose $a = xg$, $b = yg$ for some x, y, g . $a \% b = a - kb$ for some k .

So $a \% b = a - kb = xg - kyg = g(x - ky)$. So g is still a divisor of both $a \% b$ and b . A similar argument proves the converse: if g divides $a \% b$ and b , then g divides a and b . So $(b, a \% b)$ has the same set of divisors as (a, b) .

Furthermore, $a \% b < b$. So eventually we will get to the pair $(h, 0)$ for some h .

Since $(h, 0)$ has the same set of divisors as (a, b) , the GCD is the same too. Since the GCD of $(h, 0)$ is obviously h , so is the GCD of (a, b) .

<http://www.spoj.com/problems/MAIN74/>

Let us say $n = \text{fibonacci}(N)$ and $m = \text{fibonacci}(N - 1)$

$\text{fibonacci}(N) = \text{fibonacci}(N-1) + \text{fibonacci}(N-2)$

OR $n = m + k$ where $k < m$.

Therefore the step

$n = n \% m$ will make $n = k$

$\text{swap}(n, m)$ will result in

$n = \text{fibonacci}(N-1)$

$m = k = \text{fibonacci}(N-2)$

So, it will take N steps before m becomes 0.

This means, in the worst case, this algorithm can take N steps if n is N th fibonacci number.

Think of what's the relation between N and n .

The numbers form the fibonacci sequence if you try solving it for some test cases.

Example for $n = 2$ loops the answer will be 5 (3,2).

for $n = 3$ loops, result is 8 (5,3).

for $n = 4$ loops, output will be 11 (8,3).

And so on...

Hence it is obvious that for $n \geq 2$ output is $(n + 3)$ th fibonacci term.

Now to solve the problem in $O(\log n)$ time you should use the optimized matrix multiplication method to generate the fibonacci term.

Linear Diophantine Equations

A Diophantine equation is a polynomial equation, usually in two or more unknowns, such that only the integral solutions are required. An Integral solution is a solution such that all the unknown variables take only integer values.

Given three integers a, b, c representing a linear equation of the form : $ax + by = c$. Determine if the equation has a solution such that x and y are both integral values.

General solution

$$(x, y) = (x_0 + b/d *t, y_0 - a/d *t)$$

Integer Factorization

The most commonly used algorithm for the integer factorization is the **Sieve of Eratosthenes**. It is sufficient to scan primes upto \sqrt{N} while factorizing N . Also, if we need to factorize all numbers between 1 to N , this task can be done using a single run of this algorithm - For every integer k between 1 to N , we can maintain a single pair - the smallest prime that divides k , and its highest power , say (p,a) . The remaining prime factors of k are then same as that of $k/(p^a)$.

Congruences

Let a and b be integers and n a positive integer . We say that " a is congruent to b modulo n " . denoted by $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if n is a divisor of $a - b$, or equivalently, if $n \mid (a - b)$.

Linear Congruences

$$ax \equiv b \pmod{n} \Rightarrow ax - ny = b$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Typical problems of the form "Find a number which when divided by 2 leaves remainder 1, when divided by 3 leaves remainder 2, when divided by 7 leaves remainder 5" etc can be reformulated into a system of linear congruences and then can be solved using Chinese Remainder theorem. For example, the above problem can be expressed as a system of three linear congruences: " $x \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$, $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, $x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$ ".

$$\begin{aligned} x \% \text{num}[0] &= \text{rem}[0], \\ x \% \text{num}[1] &= \text{rem}[1], \end{aligned}$$

```
.....
x % num[k-1] = rem[k-1]
```

A **Naive Approach to find x** is to start with 1 and one by one increment it and check if dividing it with given elements in num[] produces corresponding remainders in rem[]. Once we find such a x, we return it

CRT

$x = (\sum (rem[i] * pp[i] * inv[i])) \% prod$

Where $0 \leq i \leq n-1$

rem[i] is given array of remainders

prod is product of all given numbers

$prod = num[0] * num[1] * \dots * num[k-1]$

pp[i] is product of all but num[i]

$pp[i] = prod / num[i]$

inv[i] = Modular Multiplicative Inverse of
pp[i] with respect to num[i]

Euler Phi Function, divisor function, sum of divisors, Mobius function

Euler's **Phi function** (also known as totient function, denoted by ϕ) is a function on natural numbers that gives the count of positive integers coprime with the corresponding natural number. Thus, $\phi(8) = 4$, $\phi(9) = 6$

The value $\phi(n)$ can be obtained by Euler's formula : Let $n = p_1^{a_1} * p_2^{a_2} * \dots * p_k^{a_k}$ be the prime factorization of n. Then

$\phi(n) = n * (1 - 1/p_1) * (1 - 1/p_2) * \dots * (1 - 1/p_k)$

CODE

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int phi[] = new int[n+1];
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for(int i=2; i <= n; i++) phi[i] = i; //phi[1] is 0
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```
for(int i=2; i <= n; i++)
```

```
if( phi[i] == i )
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```
for(int j=i; j <= n; j += i )
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```
phi[j] = (phi[j]/i)*(i-1);
```

CODE

PROPERTIES

1. If P is prime then $\phi(p^k) = (p-1)p^{(k-1)}$

2. ϕ function is multiplicative, i.e. if $(a,b) = 1$ then $\phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b)$.

3. Programmatically, if we want to find ϕ for 1 to n , then we can very well use the sieve algorithm along with the multiplicative property of ϕ . The central idea is this: if n is a prime, then $\phi(n) = n-1$. Otherwise, if n is a power of a prime, say $n = p^k$, then $\phi(n) = (p-1)p^{k-1}$. Otherwise, let $n = p^k \cdot q$ for some prime p . Using multiplicative property, we have $\phi(n) = \phi(p^k)\phi(q)$

$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ whenever $(a,n) = 1$. Specifically, for a prime p , if p does not divide a then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Let d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k be all divisors of n (including n). Then $\phi(d_1) + \phi(d_2) + \dots + \phi(d_k) = n$

For example: the divisors of 18 are 1, 2, 3, 6, 9 and 18. Observe that $\phi(1) + \phi(2) + \phi(3) + \phi(6) + \phi(9) + \phi(18) = 1 + 1 + 2 + 2 + 6 + 6 = 18$

divisor function

$$d(n) = (a_1+1) * (a_2+1) * \dots * (a_k + 1)$$

Sum of divisors, prod of divisors, perfect numbers

(Wilson's theorem) . If p is a prime, then $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

- when $N \leq 10$, then both $O(N!)$ and $O(2^N)$ are ok (for 2^N probably $N \leq 20$ is ok too)
- when $N \leq 100$, then $O(N^3)$ is ok (I guess that N^4 is also ok, but never tried)
- when $N \leq 1.000$, then N^2 is also ok
- when $N \leq 1.000.000$, then $O(N)$ is fine (I guess that 10.000.000 is fine too, but I never tried in contest)
- finally when $N = 1.000.000.000$ then $O(N)$ is NOT ok, you have to find something better...