

# MATHEMATICS IN OI (I)

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VINCENT CHIU



**WELCOME**  
to the World of  
**Number Theory**



“

**Mathematics**  
is the queen of  
the sciences — and

**number theory**  
is the queen of  
**mathematics**

”



## GREEK ALPHABET

By: Ben Clendenen & Iphigeneia (art) & Zoril (modified) & May (art)

Αα

ALPHA [a]  
ἄλφα

Ββ

BETA [b]  
βῆτα

Γγ

GAMMA [ɣ]  
γάμμα

Δδ

DELTA [d]  
δέλτα

Εε

EPSILON [e]  
ἒ ψιλόν

Ζζ

ZETA [dz]  
ζῆτα

Ηη

ETA [eː]  
ἦτα

Θθ

THETA [tʰ]  
θῆτα

Ιι

IOTA [i]  
ιώτα

Κκ

KAPPA [k]  
κάππα

Λλ

LAMBDA [l]  
λάμβδα

Μμ

MU [mi]  
μῦ

Νν

NU [n]  
νῦ

Ξξ

XI [ks]  
ξῖ

Οο

OMICRON [o]  
ὀ μικρόν

Ππ

PI [p]  
πί

Ρρ

RHO [r]  
ῥῶ

Σσς

SIGMA [s]  
σίγμα

Ττ

TAU [t]  
τάθ

Υυ

UPSILON [u]  
ἕ ψιλόν

Φφ

PHI [pʰ]  
φῖ

Χχ

CHI [kʰ]  
χῖ

Ψψ

PSI [ps]  
ψῖ

Ωω

OMEGA [ɔː]  
ὦ μέγα

# CONTENT

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- More Mathematical Notations
- Modular Arithmetic
- Fast Exponential
- Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)
- Modular Division
- Euclidean Algorithm
- Extended Euclidean Algorithm
- Modular Inverse
- Prime Numbers

# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL SIGMA $\Sigma$

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- Sigma:  $\sigma$  (lower case),  $\Sigma$  (upper case)
- For any integers  $m \leq n$ ,

$$\sum_{i=m}^n a_i = a_m + a_{m+1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} + a_n$$

- e.g.  $\sum_{i=4}^7 i^2 = 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2 + 7^2 = 126$
- Called the Summation Sign

# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL SIGMA $\Sigma$

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- Task 1.1: Compute the following:

$$\sum_{i=20}^{30} (i^2 + 4i - 7)$$

# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL SIGMA $\Sigma$

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- Code:

```
int sum = 0;
for(int i = 20; i <= 30; i++) sum += i * i + 4 * i - 7;
return sum;
```



# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL SIGMA $\Sigma$

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Initialization



# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL SIGMA $\Sigma$

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- Code:

```
int sum = 0;  
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return sum;
```

Lower bound



# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL SIGMA $\Sigma$

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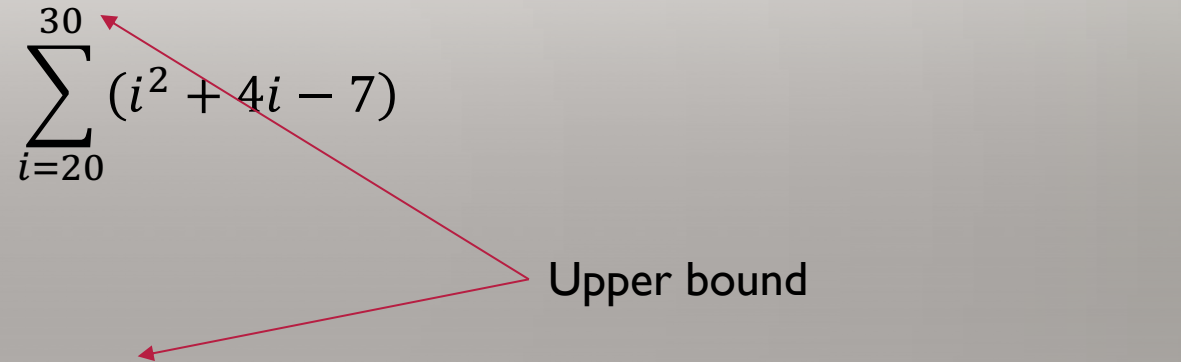
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return sum;
```

Upper bound



# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL SIGMA $\Sigma$

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- Task 1.1: Compute the following:

$$\sum_{i=20}^{30} (i^2 + 4i - 7)$$

- Code:

```
int sum = 0;
for(int i = 20; i <= 30; i++) sum += i * i + 4 * i - 7;
return sum;
```

Expression inside summation



# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL PI $\Pi$

---

- Similar to Capital Sigma,
- For any integers  $m \leq n$

$$\prod_{i=m}^n a_i = a_m \times a_{m+1} \times \cdots \times a_{n-1} \times a_n$$

- Example:  $\prod_{i=4}^7 i^2 = 4^2 \times 5^2 \times 6^2 \times 7^2 = 705600$
- Called the Product Sign

# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – CAPITAL PI $\Pi$

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- The most common example: Factorial

$$n! = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \cdots \times (n - 1) \times n$$

- Note:  $0! = 1$  by definition
- For any positive integer  $n$ ,

$$n! = \prod_{i=1}^n i$$

- Task 1.2: Input  $n$  ( $0 \leq n \leq 12$ ), output  $n!$

# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – VERTICAL BAR | †

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- The Divisibility Sign
- $a | n$  means “ $a$  divides  $n$ ”, “ $n$  is divisible by  $a$ ”, and “ $a$  is a factor of  $n$ ”
- e.g.  $2|4$ ,  $3|15$ ,  $5|15$
- $a \nmid n$  means “ $a$  does not divide  $n$ ”

# MORE MATHEMATICAL NOTATIONS – OTHER NOTATIONS AND ABBREVIATIONS

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- $\forall$ : for all
- $\exists$ : there exists
- *s. t.*: such that
- $\in$ : is an element of
- $\mathbb{N}$ : set of natural numbers (i.e. positive integers)
- $\mathbb{Z}$ : set of integers
- $\wedge$ : logical AND
- $\vee$ : logical OR



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# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – INTRODUCTION

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- Recall what you have learnt in primary about division
- $13 \div 5 = 2 \dots 3$  (Dividend  $\div$  Divisor = Quotient ... Remainder)
- So, we say the remainder of  $13 \div 5$  is 3
  
- Now, we may say  $13 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$
- "13 and 3 are congruent modulo 5"



# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – NOTATION

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- Generally, if  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent modulo  $m$  where  $a, b$  are integers,  $m$  is a positive integer, we write  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$
- Translate into programming language:
  - Pascal:  $a \text{ mod } m = b \text{ mod } m$
  - C/C++:  $a \% m == b \% m$
- The remainder of the division of both  $a$  and  $b$  by  $m$  are the same

# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – CAUTION

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- Take care of the sign of the dividend when writing programs.
- If the dividend is negative, the remainder becomes non-positive!
- $-5 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ , but  $-5 \% 7$  gives result  $-5$
- Hence, you may need to write this:

$$((a \% b) + b) \% b$$

# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – MEANING

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- Instead of saying  $a$  and  $b$  have the same remainder when divided by  $m$
- We are more often to say that
- $a - b$  is divisible by  $m$ .
  - Mathematical notation:  $m|(a - b)$
- $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } a = km + b$ 
  - There exists some integer  $k$  such that  $a = km + b$

# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – ADDITION / SUBTRACTION

---

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}, x \in \mathbb{Z}$$
$$\Rightarrow a + x \equiv b + x \pmod{m}$$

- Proof:

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$
$$\Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } a = km + b$$
$$a + x = km + (b + x) \blacksquare$$

# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – ADDITION / SUBTRACTION

---

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}, c \equiv d \pmod{m}$$
$$\Rightarrow a \pm c \equiv b \pm d \pmod{m}$$

- Proof:

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}, c \equiv d \pmod{m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists k, l \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } a = km + b \wedge c = lm + d$$

$$a \pm c = (k \pm l)m + (b \pm d), (k \pm l) \in \mathbb{Z} \blacksquare$$



# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – MULTIPLICATION

---

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}, x \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow ax \equiv bx \pmod{m}$$

- Proof:

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

$$\Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } a = km + b$$

$$ax = (km + b)x = (kx)m + bx, kx \in \mathbb{Z} \blacksquare$$

- In fact, we have

$$ax = k(mx) + bx \Rightarrow ax \equiv bx \pmod{mx} \text{ (if } x > 0)$$

# MODULAR ARITHMETIC – MULTIPLICATION

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$$\begin{aligned} a &\equiv b \pmod{m}, c \equiv d \pmod{m} \\ \Rightarrow ac &\equiv bd \pmod{m} \end{aligned}$$

- Proof:

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}, c \equiv d \pmod{m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists k, l \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } a = km + b \quad \wedge \quad c = lm + d$$

$$\begin{aligned} ac &= (km + b)(lm + d) = (klm + bl + kd)m + bd \\ (klm + bl + kd) &\in \mathbb{Z} \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

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# FAST EXPONENTIAL – PROBLEM

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- Task 2: Given  $a, b, m$ , find  $a^b \pmod{m}$

- Code #1:

```
int product = 1;
for(int i = 1; i <= b; i++) product = (product*a) % m;
return product;
```

- Time complexity:  $O(b)$
- Not fast enough for big  $b$
- Also, use long long!

# FAST EXPONENTIAL – SUPP. INFO: HIGH PRECISION ARITHMETIC (H.P.A.)

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- 32-bit integers:  $-2^{31} \leq n < 2^{31}$ 
  - [-2,147,483,648, 2,147,483,647]
- 64-bit integers:  $-2^{63} \leq n < 2^{63}$ 
  - [-9,223,372,036,854,775,808, 9,223,372,036,854,775,807]
- What if you are asked to process any integers which consists of  $\geq 20$  digits...

# FAST EXPONENTIAL – SUPP. INFO: HIGH PRECISION ARITHMETIC (H.P.A.)

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- Treat the number as a string. Use an array to store each digit.
- Operations:
  - Comparison
  - Addition
  - Subtraction
  - Multiplication (e.g. Factorial)
  - Division / Remainder
- Beware of Carrying & Borrowing! ☹️

# FAST EXPONENTIAL – SOLUTION

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- Remember: law of indices:  $a^m a^n = a^{m+n}$
- Solution: express  $b$  in binary form

$$b = \overline{b_k b_{k-1} \dots b_1 b_0} \text{ (in binary form, } b_i \in \{0,1\}\text{)}$$

$$a^b = a^{\sum_{i=0}^k b_i 2^i} = \prod_{i=0}^k (a^{2^i})^{b_i}$$

- Also known as “Big Mod”

# FAST EXPONENTIAL – SOLUTION

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- Time complexity:  $O(\lg b)$
- Example:  $7^{77} \bmod 17 = 6$
- Code: left as exercise 😊



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# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – INTRODUCTION

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- Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)
- Alternative name: Highest Common Factor (HCF)
- Definition of common divisor:
- If  $d$  divides both positive integers  $a$  and  $b$  ( $d|a \wedge d|b$ ), then  $d$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$

# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – DEFINITION

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- Definition of greatest common divisor (GCD):
- Among all common divisors of positive integers  $a$  and  $b$ , the largest one is called the greatest common divisor
- Notation: We use  $\gcd(a, b)$  to represent the greatest common divisor
  - Some people just write  $(a, b)$
  - Not to be mixed with coordinates

# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – PROPERTY

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$$k|a \wedge k|b \Rightarrow k|\gcd(a, b)$$

- If  $k$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $k$  divides  $\gcd(a, b)$
- Proof: Fundamental theorem of arithmetic: Every integer greater than 1 has a unique representation of product of prime numbers

# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – PROPERTY

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- Canonical representation of positive integer:  $n = p_1^{q_1} p_2^{q_2} p_3^{q_3} \dots = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{q_i}$ ,  $p_i$  prime,  $q_i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$
- $a = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{a_i}$ ,  $b = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{b_i}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{\min(a_i, b_i)}$ ,  $k = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{k_i}$
- $k_i \leq a_i \wedge k_i \leq b_i \Rightarrow k_i \leq \min(a_i, b_i) \Rightarrow k \mid \gcd(a, b)$  ■

# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – >2 NUMBERS

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- What is  $\gcd(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ ?
- Just calculate the gcd one by one (order does not matter):

$$\gcd(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = \gcd(a_1, \gcd(a_2, \dots, \gcd(a_{n-2}, \gcd(a_{n-1}, a_n))))$$

# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – APPLICATION

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- Simplifying a fraction  $\frac{a}{b}$

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{a \div \gcd(a, b)}{b \div \gcd(a, b)}$$

- Calculating the least common multiple (LCM)
  - Definition of common multiple:
    - If  $m$  is divisible by both positive integers  $a$  and  $b$ , i.e.  $a|m \wedge b|m$ , then  $m$  is a common multiple of  $a$  and  $b$

# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – APPLICATION

---

- Calculating the least common multiple (LCM)
  - Definition of least common multiple:
    - Among all common multiples of positive integers  $a$  and  $b$ , the smallest one is called the least common multiple
  - Notation: we use  $lcm(a, b)$  to represent the least common multiple. Call this  $m$
  - Property 1: If  $k$  is a common multiple of  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $m|k$ 
    - Proof: Let  $k = qm + r$  for  $0 \leq r < m$
    - $a|k \wedge b|k \wedge a|m \wedge b|m \Rightarrow a|(k - qm) = r \wedge b|r$
    - $0 \leq r < m = lcm(a, b) \Rightarrow r = 0 \Rightarrow m|k \blacksquare$



# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – APPLICATION

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- Calculating the least common multiple (LCM)

- Property 2: the relationship between lcm and gcd:

$$ab = \gcd(a, b) \times \text{lcm}(a, b)$$

- Proof: Fundamental theorem of arithmetic: Every integer greater than 1 has a unique representation of product of prime numbers
    - Canonical representation of positive integer:  $n = p_1^{q_1} p_2^{q_2} p_3^{q_3} \dots = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{q_i}$ ,  $p_i$  prime,  $q_i \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$
    - $a = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{a_i}$ ,  $b = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{b_i}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{\min(a_i, b_i)}$ ,  $\text{lcm}(a, b) = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{\max(a_i, b_i)}$
    - $a_i + b_i = \min(a_i, b_i) + \max(a_i, b_i)$  ■

# GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – APPLICATION

---

- Calculating the least common multiple (LCM)
  - What is  $lcm(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ ?
  - Just calculate the lcm one by one (order does not matter):

$$lcm(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = lcm\left(a_1, lcm\left(a_2, \dots, lcm\left(a_{n-2}, lcm(a_{n-1}, a_n)\right)\right)\right)$$

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- More Mathematical Notations ✓
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# MODULAR DIVISION – INTRODUCTION

---

- We have already talked about modular addition, subtraction, and multiplication.
- Except the modulo and congruent symbol, these operations are almost the same as what we used to do in normal arithmetic operations
- However, this is not the case for modular division
- For any integers  $c$ , if  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ , it is not necessary that  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$
- WHY? Any counter-example?

# MODULAR DIVISION – EXAMPLE

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- $6 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  but  $3 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$
- $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ : when does this hold?

# MODULAR DIVISION – PROPERTIES

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- Suppose

$$ac \equiv bc \pmod{mc}$$

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } ac = kmc + bc$$

$$a = k \left( \frac{mc}{c} \right) + b = km + b$$

$$\Rightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

# MODULAR DIVISION – PROPERTIES

---

- Now suppose

$$ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$$

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } ac = km + bc$$

$$a = \frac{k}{c}m + b$$

- So if  $\frac{k}{c}$  is an integer, then we will have  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$
- This is true when  $c$  and  $m$  are co-prime, i.e.  $\gcd(c, m) = 1$

# MODULAR DIVISION – PROPERTIES

---

- Proof:
- Euclid's lemma
  - $p \nmid a \wedge p \nmid b \Rightarrow p \nmid ab$
  - Contrapositive:  $p|ab \Rightarrow p|a$  and/or  $p|b$
  - + Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic  $\Rightarrow$  Generalized theorem:
  - $n|ab \wedge \gcd(n, a) = 1 \Rightarrow n|b$



# MODULAR DIVISION – PROPERTIES

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- Proof (cont.):

$$ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$$

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } ac = km + bc$$

$$c|(ac - bc) = km$$

$$\gcd(c, m) = 1 \Rightarrow c|k \blacksquare$$

# MODULAR DIVISION – PROPERTIES

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- Generalize:

$$ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$$

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } ac = km + bc$$

$$a \left( \frac{c}{\gcd(c, m)} \right) = k \left( \frac{m}{\gcd(c, m)} \right) + b \left( \frac{c}{\gcd(c, m)} \right)$$

$$a \left( \frac{c}{\gcd(c, m)} \right) \equiv b \left( \frac{c}{\gcd(c, m)} \right) \pmod{\frac{m}{\gcd(c, m)}}$$

# MODULAR DIVISION – PROPERTIES

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- Since  $\frac{c}{\gcd(c,m)}$  and  $\frac{m}{\gcd(c,m)}$  must be co-prime
- We have  $a \equiv b \left( \text{mod} \frac{m}{\gcd(c,m)} \right)$

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# A SHORT BREAK

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+Take Attendance

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# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROBLEM

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- Task 3: Input two positive integers  $a$  and  $b$ , output  $\text{gcd}(a, b)$

- Code #1:

```
int gcd = 1;
for(int i = 1; i <= a && i <= b; i++)
    if(a % i == 0 && b % i == 0) gcd = i;
return gcd;
```

- Time complexity:  $O(\min(a, b))$
- Not fast enough for big  $a, b$  😞

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROBLEM

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- It is not efficient to find the gcd using brute force, we need some fast algorithm
- We can use Euclidean Algorithm to speed up 😊



# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – CONCEPT

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- For any positive integers  $a, b$ ,
- If  $a = qb + r$  where  $0 \leq r < b$  (i.e.  $r = a \% b$ )
- Then  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – CONCEPT

---

- Proof: Let  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  and  $e = \gcd(b, r)$  and  $a = qb + r$  for  $0 \leq r < b$

$$\begin{aligned}d = \gcd(a, b) &\Rightarrow d|a \wedge d|b \Rightarrow d|(a - qb) = r \\ &\Rightarrow d|\gcd(b, r) \Rightarrow d|e \quad (\Rightarrow d \leq e)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}e = \gcd(b, r) &\Rightarrow e|b \wedge e|r \Rightarrow e|(qb + r) = a \\ &\Rightarrow e|\gcd(a, b) \Rightarrow e|d \quad (\Rightarrow e \leq d)\end{aligned}$$

- Since  $d|e$  and  $e|d$ , we have  $d = e$ , i.e.  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$  ■

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

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- For any positive integers  $a, b$ , let  $r = a \% b$  (or  $r = a \bmod b$ ), then
$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$$
- Iterate this process until  $r = 0$ , then the gcd is found.
- We can do this using recursion!

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

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- Proof of validity of Euclidean Algorithm in finding gcd
- Consider what we have done in the recursion Euclidean Algorithm;

$$a = q_0b + r_0, 0 \leq r_0 < b, \gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r_0)$$

$$b = q_1r_0 + r_1, 0 \leq r_1 < r_0, \gcd(b, r_0) = \gcd(r_0, r_1)$$

...

$$r_{i-2} = q_i r_{i-1} + r_i, 0 \leq r_i < r_{i-1}, \gcd(r_{i-2}, r_{i-1}) = \gcd(r_{i-1}, r_i)$$

- Eventually we get this relationship:

$$0 \leq r_i < r_{i-1} < \dots < r_1 < r_0 < b$$

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

---

$$0 \leq r_i < r_{i-1} < \dots < r_1 < r_0 < b$$

- This is a strictly decreasing sequence.
- Then there **MUST** exist  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  s. t.  $r_N = 0$ . Then

$$r_{N-2} = q_N r_{N-1} + r_N = q_N r_{N-1} \Rightarrow r_{N-1} | r_{N-2} \Rightarrow \gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r_{N-2}, r_{N-1}) = r_{N-1} \blacksquare$$

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

---

- Code #2:

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

- Example:  $\text{gcd}(1239, 4557) = 21$
- Time complexity:  $O(\lg n)$
- But what are the worse cases?

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

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- Worse cases:
  - Since  $r = a - qb$ , the  $q$  should be as small as possible
  - $q$  will not be 0, so the smallest possible  $q$  is 1
  - If all the  $q$  are 1, then that will be a worse case
- Worst case: Contiguous 2 Fibonacci Numbers
  - $a = F_{87} = 679,891,637,638,612,258$
  - $b = F_{86} = 420,196,140,727,489,673$

# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – BINARY VERSION

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- If both  $a$  and  $b$  are even,  $\gcd(a, b) = 2 \times \gcd\left(\frac{a}{2}, \frac{b}{2}\right)$
- If  $a$  is odd, while  $b$  is even,  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd\left(a, \frac{b}{2}\right)$
- Similarly, if  $b$  is odd, while  $a$  is even,  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd\left(\frac{a}{2}, b\right)$
- If both  $a$  and  $b$  are odd, then  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a - b, b) = \gcd\left(\frac{a-b}{2}, b\right)$



# EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – BINARY VERSION

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- Terminating case: when one of  $a$  or  $b$  equals 0, return another variable with non-zero value
- You may explore more about this algorithm, but this is not our main concern today

# CONTENT

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- More Mathematical Notations ✓
- Modular Arithmetic ✓
- Fast Exponential ✓
- Greatest Common Divisor (GCD) ✓
- Modular Division ✓
- Euclidean Algorithm ✓
- Extended Euclidean Algorithm
- Modular Inverse
- Prime Numbers

# EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – INTRODUCTION

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- Task 4: Find the integral solution of  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$
- It is guaranteed that a solution exists

# EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

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- Proof: as what the title tells you, this problem is an extension to Euclidean Algorithm:
- Consider what we have done in Euclidean Algorithm in finding  $\gcd(a, b)$ ;

$$a = q_0b + r_0, 0 \leq r_0 < b, \gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r_0)$$

$$b = q_1r_0 + r_1, 0 \leq r_1 < r_0, \gcd(b, r_0) = \gcd(r_0, r_1)$$

...

$$r_{i-2} = q_i r_{i-1} + r_i, 0 \leq r_i < r_{i-1}, \gcd(r_{i-2}, r_{i-1}) = \gcd(r_{i-1}, r_i)$$

...

$$r_{N-2} = q_N r_{N-1} + r_N, r_N = 0$$

# EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

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$$\gcd(a, b) = r_{N-1}$$

- Translate the previous equations to get the following:

$$r_0 = a - q_0b$$

$$r_1 = b - q_1r_0$$

...

$$r_i = r_{i-2} - q_i r_{i-1}$$

$$\gcd(a, b) = r_{N-1} = r_{N-3} - q_{N-2} r_{N-2}$$

# EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM – PROCEDURE

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- After all the remainders  $r_i$  have been substituted, the final expression will express  $\gcd(a, b)$  as a linear sum of  $a$  and  $b$ :  $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$
- Which means we need to backtrack each step of Euclidean Algorithm to get  $q_i$  and  $r_i$
- Example:  $\gcd(1239, 4557) = 21$
- Integral solution of  $1239x + 4557y = 21$ :  $(103 - 217k, -28 + 59k) \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$
- Integral solution of  $1239x + 4557y = 21m$ :  $(103m - 217k, -28m + 59k) \forall k, m \in \mathbb{Z}$
- The equations of the form  $ax + by = d$  are called linear Diophantine equations, and has infinitely many integer solutions iff  $\gcd(a, b) \mid d$

# REVISIT: GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR – PROPERTY

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$$k|a \wedge k|b \Rightarrow k|\gcd(a, b)$$

- If  $k$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ , then  $k$  divides  $\gcd(a, b)$
- Proof: we have  $ax + by = d$

$$k|a \wedge k|b \Rightarrow k|(ax + by) = d \blacksquare$$

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# MODULAR INVERSE – INTRODUCTION

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- What is the inverse of  $a$  generally:
- Answer:  $a^{-1}$  (Property:  $a \times a^{-1} = 1$ )
- For any integer  $a$ , you want to find an integer  $b$  such that  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$
- We denote this as  $b \equiv a^{-1} \pmod{m}$
- i.e.  $b$  is the **modular** inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$
- We can do division by using modular inverse

$$ax \equiv c \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a^{-1}ax \equiv x \equiv a^{-1}c \pmod{m}$$

# MODULAR INVERSE – EXISTENCE

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- For all integers  $a$  and positive integer  $m$ , is modular inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$  always exist?
- NO.
  - If  $a = 6, m = 4$ , for any integer  $b$ ,  $ab$  is always even
  - i.e.  $ab \equiv 0 \text{ or } 2 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow ab \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$
- Modular inverse exists if and only if  $a$  and  $m$  are co-prime, i.e.  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$
- If  $m$  is a prime while  $a$  is not a multiple of  $m$ , then modular inverse of  $a$  exists

# MODULAR INVERSE – EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

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- How can we find modular inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$ ?
- Recall the Extended Euclidean Algorithm we have talked before:
- We can always find at least one integral solution for  $x, y$  in linear Diophantine equations such that  $ax + my = \gcd(a, m)$
- If  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ , then

$$ax + my = 1 \Rightarrow ax = (-y)m + 1 \Rightarrow ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

$$a^{-1} \equiv x \pmod{m}$$

# MODULAR INVERSE – FERMAT'S LITTLE THEOREM (FOR PRIME NUMBERS ONLY)

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- If  $a$  is an integer and  $p$  is a prime, then

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

- If  $a$  is a multiple of  $p$ , i.e.  $p|a$ , then obviously  $a^p \equiv 0 \equiv a \pmod{p}$
- Main focus: if  $a$  is not divisible by  $p$ , i.e.  $p \nmid a$ , then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

- We want to use the result for modular inverse: if  $p \nmid a$ , then

$$a^{-1} \equiv a^{p-2} \pmod{p}$$

- One can use the fast exponential algorithm taught earlier to calculate this.

# MODULAR INVERSE – FERMAT'S LITTLE THEOREM (FOR PRIME NUMBERS ONLY)

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- Proof: Let  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $p \nmid a$ . Consider the sequence
$$a \bmod p, 2a \bmod p, \dots, (p - 1)a \bmod p$$
- Claim: The elements in the sequence above with length  $(p - 1)$  are all DISTINCT.
  - Proof by contradiction: assume  $\exists 1 \leq j < i < p$  s.t.  $ai \equiv aj \pmod{p}$ 
$$a(i - j) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow p|a \text{ (rej.) or } p|(i - j) \text{ (rej. since } 0 < i - j < p)$$
 ■
- In other words, the sequence mentioned above is a rearrangement of sequence
$$1, 2, \dots, p - 1$$

# MODULAR INVERSE – FERMAT'S LITTLE THEOREM (FOR PRIME NUMBERS ONLY)

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- If we multiply together the numbers in each sequence, they must be congruent modulo  $p$

$$a \times 2a \times \cdots \times (p-1)a \equiv 1 \times 2 \times \cdots \times (p-1) \pmod{p}$$

$$a^{p-1}(p-1)! \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$$

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad \text{or} \quad (p-1)! \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \text{ (rej.)} \blacksquare$$

- Example:  $7^{77} \pmod{17} = 6$
- What about composite integers?

# MODULAR INVERSE – EULER'S TOTIENT THEOREM

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- Euler's totient function  $\phi(n)$  is the number of integers  $k$  satisfying  $1 \leq k \leq n$  and  $\gcd(k, n) = 1$
- Euler's totient theorem: if  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , then
$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$
- Fermat's Little Theorem is a special case, where  $\phi(p) = p - 1$
- Proof: similar as that of Fermat's Little Theorem's

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# PRIME NUMBERS – INTRODUCTION

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- Prime number  $p$ : A positive number LARGER THAN 1 which contains exactly 2 positive divisors.
  - Note that 1 is not a prime.
  - One reason: Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: Unique Prime Factorization,  $1 = 1 \times 1 \times \dots$
- Hence, if  $p = ab$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are positive integers and  $a \leq b$ , then  $a = 1$  and  $b = p$
- Euclid's Lemma: If  $p|ab$ , then  $p|a$  and/or  $p|b$

# PRIME NUMBERS – CHECK PRIME

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- Task 5.1: How to check whether  $p$  is a prime?  $1 \leq p \leq 10^9$
- Notice that:  $p$  only contains exactly two positive divisors 1 and  $p$

# PRIME NUMBERS – CHECK PRIME

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- Code #1:

```
for(int i = 2; i < p; i++) if(p % i == 0) return false;  
return true;
```

- Time complexity:  $O(p)$
- Not fast enough for  $1 \leq p \leq 10^9$
- Any suggestions?

# PRIME NUMBERS – CHECK PRIME

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- Code #2:

```
for(int i = 2; i * i <= p; i++)  
    if(p % i == 0) return false;  
return true;
```

- Time complexity:  $O(\sqrt{p})$  😊
- Why can we do this?
- Because if  $p$  is divisible by some  $k$  where  $\sqrt{p} < k < p$
- Then  $p$  is also divisible by  $\frac{p}{k}$  where  $1 < \frac{p}{k} < \sqrt{p}$

# PRIME NUMBERS – PRIME LIST

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- Task 5.2: Generate a prime number list in the range of  $[1, 10^6]$

- Code #2\*:

```
for(int j = 1; j <= 1000000; j++)  
    if(is_prime(j)) output j; //Using Code #2
```

- Time complexity:  $O(n\sqrt{n})$  ☹

# PRIME NUMBERS – SIEVE OF ERATOSTHENES

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- For any composite number (i.e. non-prime number greater than 1), it is divisible by some prime number.
- For any prime number, the only prime divisor is itself.
- We may store a list of prime numbers we have found.
- For each integer, check if it is divided by any of prime numbers found.
- If not, then it means it is a prime, and add it to the prime list.
- We may store an array of Boolean values which indicates whether  $i$  is a known composite number

# PRIME NUMBERS – SIEVE OF ERATOSTHENES

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- Code #3:

```
// initialize integer array composite[] = 0;
for(int i = 2; i <= n; i++) {
    if(comp[i] == false){
        //output i OR store it into prime list;
        for(int j = i * i; j <= n; j += i)
            comp[j]=true;
    }
}
```

# PRIME NUMBERS – SIEVE OF ERATOSTHENES

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- Using Sieve of Eratosthenes:
- When we mark an integer as composite, store the current prime divisor  $i$  (it is the smallest prime divisor of  $j$ )
- For each integer, we can get the smallest prime divisor instantly
- Get the factorization recursively



# REVISIT: MODULAR INVERSE – EULER'S TOTIENT THEOREM

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- How to calculate Euler's totient function  $\phi(n)$ ?
- Notice the pattern in Sieve of Eratosthenes
- For each prime number  $p$ , every multiple of  $p$  is crossed out
- Prime numbers does not affect the "frequency" of other primes cancelling out terms

# REVISIT: MODULAR INVERSE – EULER'S TOTIENT THEOREM

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- Do this for the prime divisors of  $n$

$$n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{q_i} \quad (q_i > 0) \Rightarrow \phi(n) = n \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right)$$

$$\left( \text{or equivalently, } \phi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \right)$$

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# REFERENCE

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