

KNAPSACK

- There is a set of n items.
- Item i has value $v_i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and weight $w_i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- We are given $K \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $W \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- KNAPSACK asks if there exists a subset

$$I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

such that $\sum_{i \in I} w_i \leq W$ and $\sum_{i \in I} v_i \geq K$.

- We want to achieve the maximum satisfaction within the budget.

KNAPSACK Is NP-Complete^a

- KNAPSACK \in NP: Guess an I and check the constraints.
- We shall reduce X3C to KNAPSACK, in which $v_i = w_i$ for all i and $K = W$.
- The simplified KNAPSACK now asks if a subset of v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n adds up to exactly K .^b
 - Picture yourself as a radio DJ.

^aKarp (1972). It can be solved in time $O(2^{n/2})$ with space $O(2^{n/4})$ (Schroeppel & Shamir, 1981; Vyskoč, 1987).

^bThis problem is called SUBSET SUM or 0-1 KNAPSACK.

The Proof (continued)

- The primary differences between the two problems are:^a
 - Sets vs. numbers.
 - Union vs. addition.
- We are given a family $F = \{ S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n \}$ of size-3 subsets of $U = \{ 1, 2, \dots, 3m \}$.
- x3C asks if there are m sets in F that cover the set U .
 - These m subsets are disjoint by necessity.

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on November 16, 2010.

The Proof (continued)

- Think of a set as a bit vector^a in $\{0, 1\}^{3m}$.
 - Assume $m = 3$.
 - 110010000 means the set $\{1, 2, 5\}$.
 - 001100010 means the set $\{3, 4, 8\}$.
- Our goal is

$$\overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}.$$

^aCharacteristic vector, so to speak.

The Proof (continued)

- A bit vector can also be seen as a binary *number*.
- Set union resembles addition:

$$\begin{array}{r} 001100010 \\ + 110010000 \\ \hline 111110010 \end{array}$$

which denotes the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8\}$, as desired.

The Proof (continued)

- Trouble occurs when there is *carry*:

$$\begin{array}{r} 010000000 \\ + 010000000 \\ \hline 100000000 \end{array}$$

which denotes the wrong set $\{1\}$, not the correct $\{2\}$.

The Proof (continued)

- Or consider

$$\begin{array}{r} 001100010 \\ + 001110000 \\ \hline 011010010 \end{array}$$

which denotes the set $\{2, 3, 5, 8\}$, not the correct $\{3, 4, 5, 8\}$.^a

^aCorrected by Mr. Chihwei Lin (D97922003) on January 21, 2010.

The Proof (continued)

- Carry may also lead to a situation where we obtain our solution $\overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}$ with more than m sets in F .
- For example, with $m = 3$,

$$\begin{array}{r} 000100010 \\ 001110000 \\ 101100000 \\ + 000001101 \\ \hline 111111111 \end{array}$$

- But the correct union result, $\{1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$, is *not* an exact cover.

The Proof (continued)

- And it uses 4 sets instead of the required $m = 3$.^a
- To fix this problem, we enlarge the base just enough so that there are no carries.^b
- Because there are n vectors in total, we change the base from 2 to $n + 1$.
- Every positive integer N has a unique expression in base b : There are **b -adic digits** $0 \leq d_i < b$ such that

$$N = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i b^i, \quad d_k \neq 0.$$

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on November 20, 2002.

^bYou cannot map \cup to \vee because KNAPSACK requires $+$ not \vee !

The Proof (continued)

- Set v_i to be the integer corresponding to the bit vector encoding S_i in base $n + 1$:

$$v_i \triangleq \sum_{j \in S_i} 1 \times (n + 1)^{3m-j} \quad (4)$$

- Set

$$K \triangleq \sum_{j=0}^{3m-1} 1 \times (n + 1)^j = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m} \quad (\text{base } n + 1).$$

- Now in base $n + 1$, if there is a set I such that

$$\sum_{i \in I} v_i = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}, \text{ then every position must be}$$

contributed by exactly one v_i and $|I| = m$.

The Proof (continued)

- For example, the case on p. 437 becomes

$$\begin{array}{r} 000100010 \\ 001110000 \\ 101100000 \\ + 000001101 \\ \hline 102311111 \end{array}$$

in base $n + 1 = 6$.

- As desired, it no longer meets the goal.

The Proof (continued)

- Suppose F admits an exact cover, say $\{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m\}$.
- Then picking $I = \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ clearly results in

$$v_1 + v_2 + \cdots + v_m = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}.$$

- It is important to note that the meaning of addition (+) is independent of the base.^a
 - It is just regular addition.
 - But an S_i may give rise to different integers v_i in Eq. (4) on p. 439 under different bases.

^aContributed by Mr. Kuan-Yu Chen (R92922047) on November 3, 2004.

The Proof (concluded)

- On the other hand, suppose there exists an I such that

$$\sum_{i \in I} v_i = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}$$

in base $n + 1$.

- The no-carry property implies that $|I| = m$ and

$$\{S_i : i \in I\}$$

is an exact cover.

SUBSET SUM^a Is NP-Complete

- The proof actually proves:

Corollary 52 SUBSET SUM *is NP-complete.*

- The proof can be slightly revised to reduce EXACT COVER to SUBSET SUM.
- The proof would *not* work if you used $m + 1$ as the base.^b

^aRecall p. 431.

^bContributed by Mr. Yuchen Wang (R08922157) on November 19, 2020.

An Example

- Let $m = 3$, $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$, and

$$S_1 = \{1, 3, 4\},$$

$$S_2 = \{2, 3, 4\},$$

$$S_3 = \{2, 5, 6\},$$

$$S_4 = \{6, 7, 8\},$$

$$S_5 = \{7, 8, 9\}.$$

- Note that $n = 5$, as there are 5 S_i 's.
- So the base is $n + 1 = 6$.

An Example (continued)

- Our reduction produces

$$K = \sum_{j=0}^{3 \times 3 - 1} 6^j = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}_3 = 2015539_{10},$$

$$v_1 = 101100000_6 = 1734048_{10},$$

$$v_2 = 011100000_6 = 334368_{10},$$

$$v_3 = 010011000_6 = 281448_{10},$$

$$v_4 = 000001110_6 = 258_{10},$$

$$v_5 = 000000111_6 = 43_{10}.$$

An Example (concluded)

- Note $v_1 + v_3 + v_5 = K$ because

$$\begin{array}{r} 101100000 \\ 010011000 \\ + 000000111 \\ \hline 111111111 \end{array}$$

- Indeed,

$$S_1 \cup S_3 \cup S_5 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\},$$

an exact cover by 3-sets.

BIN PACKING

- We are given N positive integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N , an integer C (the capacity), and an integer B (the number of bins).
- BIN PACKING asks if these numbers can be partitioned into B subsets, each of which has total sum at most C .
- Think of packing bags at the check-out counter.

Theorem 53 BIN PACKING *is NP-complete.*

BIN PACKING (concluded)

- But suppose a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N are randomly distributed between 0 and 1.
- Let B be the smallest number of unit-capacity bins capable of holding them.
- Then B can deviate from its average by more than t with probability at most $2e^{-2t^2/N}$.^a

^aRhee & Talagrand (1987); Dubhashi & Panconesi (2012).

INTEGER PROGRAMMING (IP)

- IP asks whether a system of linear inequalities with integer coefficients has an integer solution.
- In contrast, LINEAR PROGRAMMING (LP) asks whether a system of linear inequalities with integer coefficients has a *rational* solution.
 - LP is solvable in polynomial time.^a

^aKhachiyan (1979).

IP Is NP-Complete^a

- SET COVERING can be expressed by the inequalities $Ax \geq \vec{1}$, $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \leq B$, $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$, where
 - $x_i = 1$ if and only if S_i is in the cover.
 - A is the matrix whose columns are the bit vectors of the sets S_1, S_2, \dots
 - $\vec{1}$ is the vector of 1s.
 - The operations in Ax are standard matrix operations.
 - The i th row of Ax is at least 1 means item i is covered.

^aKarp (1972); Borosh & Treybig (1976); Papadimitriou (1981).

IP Is NP-Complete (concluded)

- This shows IP is NP-hard.
- Many NP-complete problems can be expressed as an IP problem.
- IP with a fixed number of variables is in P.^a

^aLenstra (1983).

Christos Papadimitriou (1949–)



Easier or Harder?^a

- Adding restrictions on the allowable *problem instances* will not make a problem harder.
 - We are now solving a subset of problem instances or special cases.
 - The INDEPENDENT SET proof (p. 372) and the KNAPSACK proof (p. 431): equally hard.
 - CIRCUIT VALUE to MONOTONE CIRCUIT VALUE (p. 321): equally hard.
 - SAT to 2SAT (p. 353): easier.

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on October 29, 2003.

Easier or Harder? (concluded)

- Adding restrictions on the allowable *solutions* (the solution space) may make a problem harder, equally hard, or easier.
- It is problem dependent.
 - MIN CUT to BISECTION WIDTH (p. 405): harder.
 - LP to IP (p. 449): harder.
 - SAT to NAESAT (p. 365) and MAX CUT to MAX BISECTION (p. 403): equally hard.
 - 3-COLORING to 2-COLORING (p. 415): easier.

coNP and Function Problems

I frankly confess
I do not know what he means.
— St. Augustin (354–430),
City of God (426)

coNP

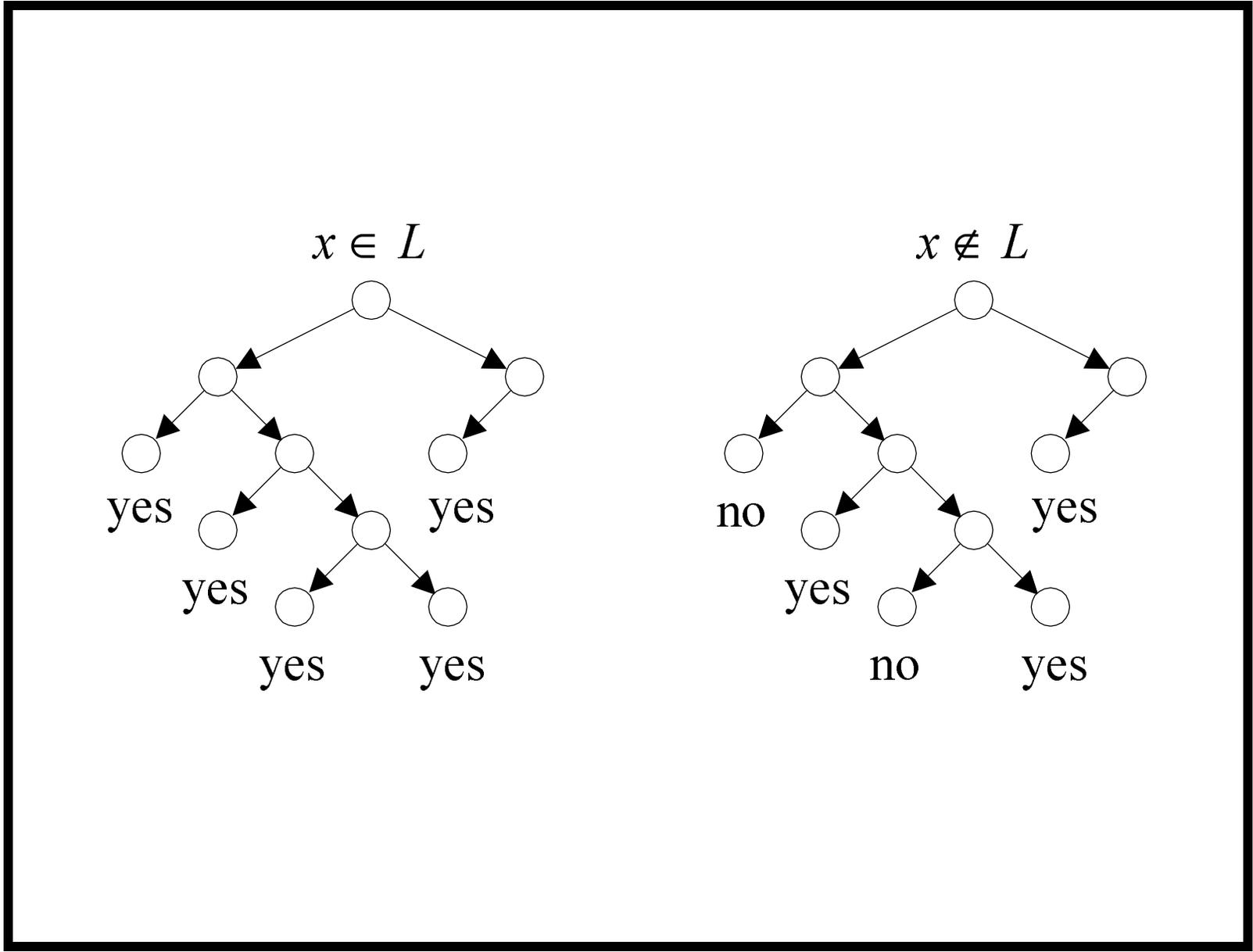
- By definition, coNP is the class of problems whose complement is in NP.
 - $L \in \text{coNP}$ if and only if $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$.
- NP problems have succinct certificates.^a
- coNP is therefore the class of problems that have succinct **disqualifications**:^b
 - A “no” instance possesses a short proof of its being a “no” instance.
 - Only “no” instances have such proofs.

^aRecall Proposition 41 (p. 335).

^bTo be proved in Proposition 54 (p. 466).

coNP (continued)

- Suppose L is a coNP problem.
- There exists a nondeterministic polynomial-time algorithm M such that:
 - If $x \in L$, then $M(x) = \text{“yes”}$ for all computation paths.
 - If $x \notin L$, then $M(x) = \text{“no”}$ for some computation path.
- If we swap “yes” and “no” in M , the new algorithm decides $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$ in the classic sense (p. 110).



coNP (continued)

- So there are 3 major approaches to proving $L \in \text{coNP}$.
 1. Prove $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$.
 - Especially when you already knew $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$.
 2. Prove that only “no” instances possess short proofs (for their not being in L).^a
 3. Write an algorithm for it directly.

^aRecall Proposition 41 (p. 335).

coNP (concluded)

- Clearly $P \subseteq \text{coNP}$.
- It is not known if

$$P = \text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}.$$

– Contrast this with

$$R = \text{RE} \cap \text{coRE}$$

(see p. 159).

Some coNP Problems

- SAT COMPLEMENT \in coNP.
 - SAT COMPLEMENT is the complement of SAT.^a
 - Or, the disqualification is a truth assignment that *satisfies* it.
- HAMILTONIAN PATH COMPLEMENT \in coNP.
 - HAMILTONIAN PATH COMPLEMENT is the complement of HAMILTONIAN PATH.
 - Or, the disqualification is a Hamiltonian path.

^aRecall p. 200.

Some coNP Problems (concluded)

- VALIDITY \in coNP.
 - If ϕ is not valid, it can be disqualified very succinctly: a truth assignment that does *not* satisfy it.
- TSP COMPLEMENT (D) \in coNP.
 - TSP COMPLEMENT (D) asks if the optimal tour has a total distance of $> B$, where B is an input.^a
 - The disqualification is a tour with a distance $\leq B$.

^aDefined by Mr. Che-Wei Chang (R95922093) on September 27, 2006.

A Nondeterministic Algorithm for SAT COMPLEMENT (See also p. 121)

ϕ is a boolean formula with n variables.

```
1: for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  do  
2:   Guess  $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$ ; {Nondeterministic choice.}  
3: end for  
4: {Verification:}  
5: if  $\phi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 1$  then  
6:   “no”;  
7: else  
8:   “yes”;  
9: end if
```

Analysis

- The algorithm decides language $\{ \phi : \phi \text{ is unsatisfiable} \}$.
 - The computation tree is a complete binary tree of depth n .
 - Every computation path corresponds to a particular truth assignment out of 2^n .
 - ϕ is unsatisfiable if and only if every truth assignment falsifies ϕ .
 - But every truth assignment falsifies ϕ if and only if every computation path results in “yes.”

An Alternative Characterization of coNP

Proposition 54 *Let $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ be a language. Then $L \in \text{coNP}$ if and only if there is a polynomially decidable and polynomially balanced relation R such that*

$$L = \{ x : \forall y (x, y) \in R \}.$$

(As on p. 334, we assume $|y| \leq |x|^k$ for some k .)

- $\bar{L} = \{ x : \exists y (x, y) \in \neg R \}$.^a
- Because $\neg R$ remains polynomially balanced, $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$ by Proposition 41 (p. 335).
- Hence $L \in \text{coNP}$ by definition.

^aSo a certificate y for \bar{L} is a disqualification for L , and vice versa.

coNP-Completeness

Proposition 55 *L is NP-complete if and only if its complement $\bar{L} = \Sigma^* - L$ is coNP-complete.*

Proof (\Rightarrow ; the \Leftarrow part is symmetric)

- Let \bar{L}' be any coNP language.
- Hence $L' \in \text{NP}$.
- Let R be the reduction from L' to L .
- So $x \in L'$ if and only if $R(x) \in L$.
- By the law of transposition, $x \notin L'$ if and only if $R(x) \notin L$.

coNP Completeness (concluded)

- So $x \in \overline{L'}$ if and only if $R(x) \in \overline{L}$.
- The *same* R is a reduction from $\overline{L'}$ to \overline{L} .
- This shows \overline{L} is coNP-hard.
- But $\overline{L} \in \text{coNP}$.
- This shows \overline{L} is coNP-complete.

Some coNP-Complete Problems

- SAT COMPLEMENT is coNP-complete.
- HAMILTONIAN PATH COMPLEMENT is coNP-complete.
- TSP COMPLEMENT (D) is coNP-complete.
- VALIDITY is coNP-complete.
 - ϕ is valid if and only if $\neg\phi$ is not satisfiable.
 - $\phi \in \text{VALIDITY}$ if and only if $\neg\phi \in \text{SAT COMPLEMENT}$.
 - The reduction from SAT COMPLEMENT to VALIDITY is hence easy: $R(\phi) = \neg\phi$.

Possible Relations between P, NP, coNP

1. $P = NP = \text{coNP}$.
2. $NP = \text{coNP}$ but $P \neq NP$.
3. $NP \neq \text{coNP}$ and $P \neq NP$.
 - This is the current “consensus.”^a

^aCarl Gauss (1777–1855), “I could easily lay down a multitude of such propositions, which one could neither prove nor dispose of.”

The Primality Problem

- An integer p is **prime** if $p > 1$ and all positive numbers other than 1 and p itself cannot divide it.
- PRIMES asks if an integer N is a prime number.
- Dividing N by $2, 3, \dots, \sqrt{N}$ is *not* efficient.
 - The length of N is only $\log N$, but $\sqrt{N} = 2^{0.5 \log N}$.
 - It is an exponential-time algorithm.
- A polynomial-time algorithm for PRIMES was not found until 2002 by Agrawal, Kayal, and Saxena!
- The running time is $\tilde{O}(\log^{7.5} N)$.

```

1: if  $n = a^b$  for some  $a, b > 1$  then
2:   return “composite”;
3: end if
4: for  $r = 2, 3, \dots, n - 1$  do
5:   if  $\gcd(n, r) > 1$  then
6:     return “composite”;
7:   end if
8:   if  $r$  is a prime then
9:     Let  $q$  be the largest prime factor of  $r - 1$ ;
10:    if  $q \geq 4\sqrt{r} \log n$  and  $n^{(r-1)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{r}$  then
11:      break; {Exit the for-loop.}
12:    end if
13:  end if
14: end for{ $r - 1$  has a prime factor  $q \geq 4\sqrt{r} \log n$ .}
15: for  $a = 1, 2, \dots, 2\sqrt{r} \log n$  do
16:   if  $(x - a)^n \not\equiv (x^n - a) \pmod{(x^r - 1)}$  in  $Z_n[x]$  then
17:     return “composite”;
18:   end if
19: end for
20: return “prime”; {The only place with “prime” output.}

```

The Primality Problem (concluded)

- Later, we will focus on efficient “randomized” algorithms for PRIMES (used in *Mathematica*, e.g.).
- $\text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}$ is the class of problems that have succinct certificates *and* succinct disqualifications.
 - Each “yes” instance has a succinct certificate.
 - Each “no” instance has a succinct disqualification.
 - No instances have both.
- We will see that $\text{PRIMES} \in \text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}$.
 - In fact, $\text{PRIMES} \in \text{P}$ as mentioned earlier.

Basic Modular Arithmetics^a

- Let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- $m \mid n$ means m divides n ; m is n 's **divisor**.
- We call the numbers $0, 1, \dots, n - 1$ the **residue** modulo n .
- The **greatest common divisor** of m and n is denoted $\gcd(m, n)$.

^aCarl Friedrich Gauss.

Basic Modular Arithmetics (concluded)

- We use

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

if $n \mid (a - b)$.

– So $25 \equiv 38 \pmod{13}$.

- We use

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

if b is the remainder of a divided by n .

– So $25 = 12 \pmod{13}$.

Primitive Roots in Finite Fields

Theorem 56 (Lucas & Lehmer, 1927) ^a *A number $p > 1$ is a prime if and only if there is a number $1 < r < p$ such that*

1. $r^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$, and
 2. $r^{(p-1)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for all prime divisors q of $p - 1$.
- This r is called a **primitive root** or **generator** of p .
 - We will prove one direction of the theorem later.^b

^aFrançois Edouard Anatole Lucas (1842–1891); Derrick Henry Lehmer (1905–1991).

^bSee pp. 487ff.

Derrick Lehmer^a (1905–1991)



^aInventor of the linear congruential generator in 1951.

Pratt's Theorem

Theorem 57 (Pratt, 1975) $\text{PRIMES} \in NP \cap \text{coNP}$.

- $\text{PRIMES} \in \text{coNP}$ because a succinct disqualification is a proper divisor.
 - A proper divisor of a number means it is *not* a prime.
- Now suppose p is a prime.
- p 's certificate includes the r in Theorem 56 (p. 476).
 - There may be multiple choices for r .

The Proof (continued)

- Use recursive doubling to check if $r^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$ in time polynomial in the length of the input, $\log_2 p$.
 - $r, r^2, r^4, \dots \pmod p$, a total of $\sim \log_2 p$ steps.
- We also need all *prime* divisors of $p - 1$: q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k .
 - Whether r, q_1, \dots, q_k are easy to find is irrelevant.
- Checking $r^{(p-1)/q_i} \neq 1 \pmod p$ is also easy.
- Checking q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k are all the divisors of $p - 1$ is easy.

The Proof (concluded)

- We still need certificates for the primality of the q_i 's.
- The complete certificate is recursive and tree-like:

$$C(p) = (r; q_1, C(q_1), q_2, C(q_2), \dots, q_k, C(q_k)). \quad (5)$$

- We next prove that $C(p)$ is succinct.
- As a result, $C(p)$ can be checked in polynomial time.

A Certificate for 23^a

- Note that 5 is a primitive root modulo 23 and $23 - 1 = 22 = 2 \times 11$.^b

- So

$$C(23) = (5; 2, C(2), 11, C(11)).$$

- Note that 2 is a primitive root modulo 11 and $11 - 1 = 10 = 2 \times 5$.

- So

$$C(11) = (2; 2, C(2), 5, C(5)).$$

^aThanks to a lively discussion on April 24, 2008.

^bOther primitive roots are 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20, 21.

A Certificate for 23 (concluded)

- Note that 2 is a primitive root modulo 5 and $5 - 1 = 4 = 2^2$.

- So

$$C(5) = (2; 2, C(2)).$$

- In summary,

$$C(23) = (5; 2, C(2), 11, (2; 2, C(2), 5, (2; 2, C(2))))).$$

- In *Mathematica*, `PrimeQCertificate[23]` yields

$$\{23, 5, \{2, \{11, 2, \{2, \{5, 2, \{2\}\}\}\}\}\}$$

The Succinctness of the Certificate

Lemma 58 *The length of $C(p)$ is at most quadratic at $5 \log_2^2 p$.*

- This claim holds when $p = 2$ or $p = 3$.
- In general, $p - 1$ has $k \leq \log_2 p$ prime divisors $q_1 = 2, q_2, \dots, q_k$.

– Reason:

$$2^k \leq \prod_{i=1}^k q_i \leq p - 1.$$

- Note also that, as $q_1 = 2$,

$$\prod_{i=2}^k q_i \leq \frac{p - 1}{2}. \tag{6}$$

The Proof (continued)

- $C(p)$ requires:
 - 2 parentheses;
 - $2k < 2 \log_2 p$ separators (at most $2 \log_2 p$ bits);
 - r (at most $\log_2 p$ bits);
 - $q_1 = 2$ and its certificate 1 (at most 5 bits);
 - q_2, \dots, q_k (at most $2 \log_2 p$ bits);^a
 - $C(q_2), \dots, C(q_k)$.

^aWhy?

The Proof (concluded)

- $C(p)$ is succinct because, by induction,

$$\begin{aligned} |C(p)| &\leq 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 \sum_{i=2}^k \log_2^2 q_i \\ &\leq 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 \left(\sum_{i=2}^k \log_2 q_i \right)^2 \\ &\leq 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 \log_2^2 \frac{p-1}{2} \quad \text{by inequality (6)} \\ &< 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 [(\log_2 p) - 1]^2 \\ &= 5 \log_2^2 p + 10 - 5 \log_2 p \leq 5 \log_2^2 p \end{aligned}$$

for $p \geq 4$.

Turning the Proof into an Algorithm^a

- How to turn the proof into a nondeterministic polynomial-time algorithm?
- First, guess a $\log_2 p$ -bit number r .
- Then guess up to $\log_2 p$ numbers q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k each containing at most $\log_2 p$ bits.
- Then recursively do the same thing for each of the q_i to form a certificate (5) on p. 480.
- Finally check if the two conditions of Theorem 56 (p. 476) hold throughout the tree.

^aContributed by Mr. Kai-Yuan Hou (B99201038, R03922014) on November 24, 2015.

Euler's^a Totient or Phi Function

- Let

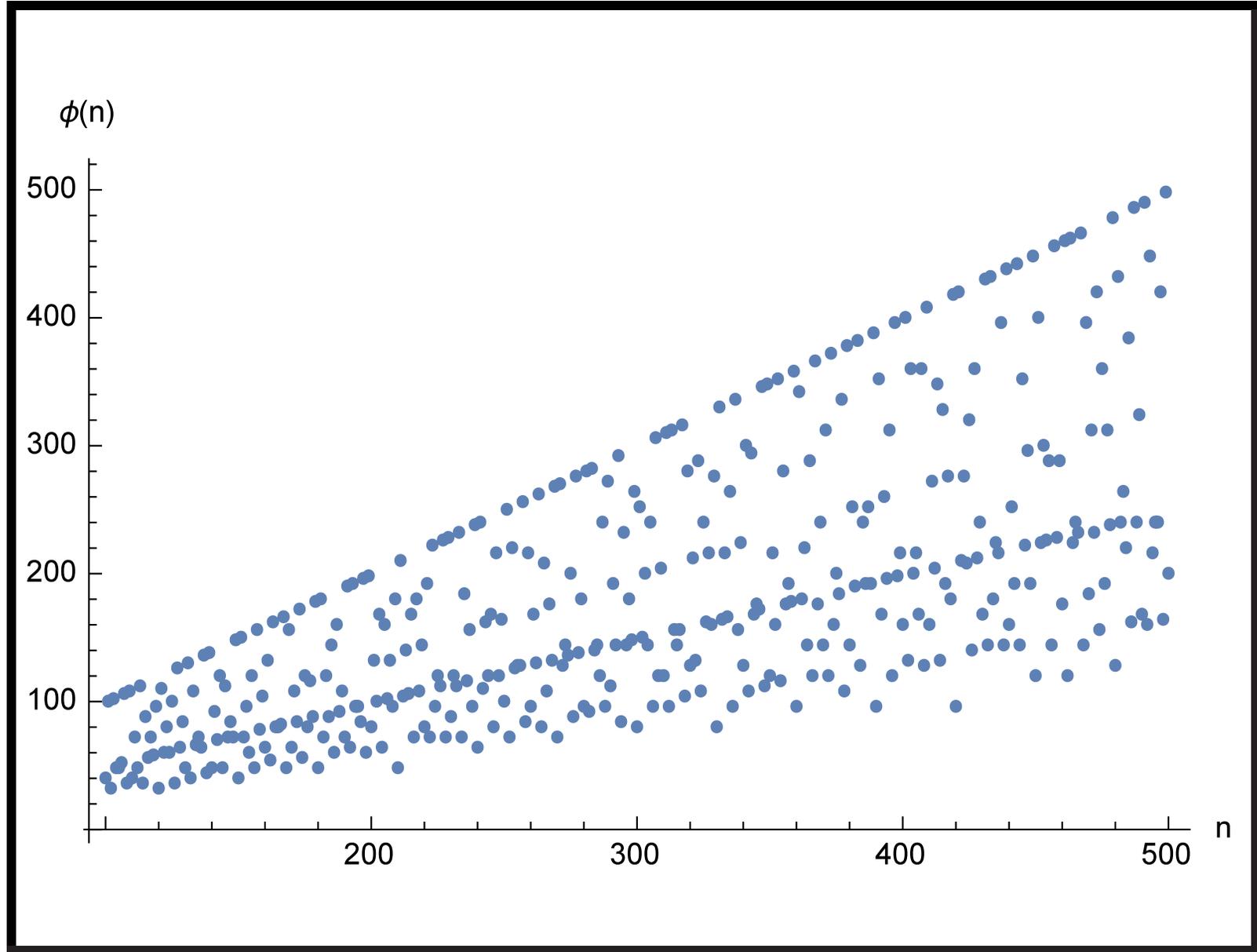
$$\Phi(n) = \{ m : 1 \leq m < n, \gcd(m, n) = 1 \}$$

be the set of all positive integers less than n that are prime to n .^b

- $\Phi(12) = \{ 1, 5, 7, 11 \}$.
- Define **Euler's function** of n to be $\phi(n) = |\Phi(n)|$.
- $\phi(p) = p - 1$ for prime p , and $\phi(1) = 1$ by convention.
- Euler's function is not expected to be easy to compute without knowing n 's factorization.

^aLeonhard Euler (1707–1783).

^b Z_n^* is an alternative notation.



Leonhard Euler (1707–1783)



Three Properties of Euler's Function^a

The inclusion-exclusion principle^b can be used to prove the following.

Lemma 59 *If $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_\ell^{e_\ell}$ is the prime factorization of n , then*

$$\phi(n) = n \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right).$$

- For example, if $n = pq$, where p and q are distinct primes, then

$$\phi(n) = pq \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{q}\right) = pq - p - q + 1.$$

^aSee p. 224 of the textbook.

^bConsult any textbooks on discrete mathematics.

Three Properties of Euler's Function (concluded)

Corollary 60 $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$ if $\gcd(m, n) = 1$.

Lemma 61 (Gauss) $\sum_{m|n} \phi(m) = n$.

The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- Let $n = n_1 n_2 \cdots n_k$, where n_i are pairwise relatively prime.
- For any integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k , the set of simultaneous equations

$$x = a_1 \pmod{n_1},$$

$$x = a_2 \pmod{n_2},$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x = a_k \pmod{n_k},$$

has a unique solution modulo n for the unknown x .

Fermat's "Little" Theorem^a

Lemma 62 For all $0 < a < p$, $a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$.

- Recall $\Phi(p) = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$.
- Consider $a\Phi(p) = \{am \pmod{p} : m \in \Phi(p)\}$.
- $a\Phi(p) = \Phi(p)$.
 - $a\Phi(p) \subseteq \Phi(p)$ as a remainder must be between 1 and $p-1$.
 - Suppose $am \equiv am' \pmod{p}$ for $m > m'$, where $m, m' \in \Phi(p)$.
 - That means $a(m - m') = 0 \pmod{p}$, and p divides a or $m - m'$, which is impossible.

^aPierre de Fermat (1601–1665).

The Proof (concluded)

- Multiply all the numbers in $\Phi(p)$ to yield $(p - 1)!$.
- Multiply all the numbers in $a\Phi(p)$ to yield $a^{p-1}(p - 1)!$.
- As $a\Phi(p) = \Phi(p)$, we have

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

- Finally, $a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$ because $p \nmid (p - 1)!$.

The Fermat-Euler Theorem^a

Corollary 63 For all $a \in \Phi(n)$, $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

- The proof is similar to that of Lemma 62 (p. 493).
- Consider $a\Phi(n) = \{ am \pmod{n} : m \in \Phi(n) \}$.
- $a\Phi(n) = \Phi(n)$.
 - $a\Phi(n) \subseteq \Phi(n)$ as a remainder must be between 0 and $n - 1$ and relatively prime to n .
 - Suppose $am \equiv am' \pmod{n}$ for $m' < m < n$, where $m, m' \in \Phi(n)$.
 - That means $a(m - m') \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, and n divides a or $m - m'$, which is impossible.

^aProof by Mr. Wei-Cheng Cheng (R93922108, D95922011) on November 24, 2004.

The Proof (concluded)^a

- Multiply all the numbers in $\Phi(n)$ to yield $\prod_{m \in \Phi(n)} m$.
- Multiply all the numbers in $a\Phi(n)$ to yield $a^{\phi(n)} \prod_{m \in \Phi(n)} m$.
- As $a\Phi(n) = \Phi(n)$,

$$\prod_{m \in \Phi(n)} m \equiv a^{\phi(n)} \left(\prod_{m \in \Phi(n)} m \right) \pmod{n}.$$

- Finally, $a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \pmod{n}$ because $n \nmid \prod_{m \in \Phi(n)} m$.

^aSome typographical errors corrected by Mr. Jung-Ying Chen (D95723006) on November 18, 2008.

An Example

- As $12 = 2^2 \times 3$,

$$\phi(12) = 12 \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) = 4.$$

- In fact, $\Phi(12) = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$.
- For example,

$$5^4 = 625 = 1 \pmod{12}.$$