Package ‘numbers’

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Type Package

Title Number-Theoretic Functions

Version 0.9-2

Date 2025-11-19

Depends R (>= 4.1.0)

Suggests gmp (>= 0.5-1)

Description Provides number-theoretic functions for factorization, prime numbers, twin primes, primitive roots, modular logarithm and inverses, extended GCD, Farey series and continued fractions. Includes Legendre and Jacobi symbols, some divisor functions, Euler's Phi function, etc.

License GPL (>= 3)

NeedsCompilation no

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Contents

`numbers-package` *Number-Theoretic Functions*

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Details

The DESCRIPTION file:

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Title:	Number-Theoretic Functions
Version:	0.9-2
Date:	2025-11-19
Authors@R:	c(person(given = c("Hans", "Werner"), family = "Borchers", role = "aut"), person(given = c("Hans", "W."), fam
Depends:	R (>= 4.1.0)
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License:	GPL (>= 3)
Author:	Hans Werner Borchers [aut], Hans W. Borchers [cre]
Maintainer:	Hans W. Borchers <hwborchers@googlemail.com>

Index of help topics:

```
GCD                     GCD and LCM Integer Functions
Primes                  Prime Numbers
Sigma                   Divisor Functions
agm                     Arithmetic-geometric Mean
arithmetic_progression
                        Arithmetic Progression
bell                    Bell Numbers
bernoulli_numbers       Bernoulli Numbers
carmichael              Carmichael Numbers
catalan                 Catalan Numbers
cf2num                  Generalized Continous Fractions
chinese                 Chinese Remainder Theorem
collatz                 Collatz Sequences
contfrac                Continued Fractions
coprime                 Coprimality
div                     Integer Division
divisors                List of Divisors
dropletPi               Droplet Algorithm for pi and e
```

egyptian_complete	Egyptian Fractions - Complete Search
egyptian_methods	Egyptian Fractions - Specialized Methods
eulersPhi	Eulers's Phi Function
extGCD	Extended Euclidean Algorithm
fibonacci	Fibonacci and Lucas Series
hermiteNF	Hermite Normal Form
iNthroot	Integer N-th Root
isIntpower	Powers of Integers
isNatural	Natural Number
isPrime	isPrime Property
isPrimroot	Primitive Root Test
legendre_sym	Legendre and Jacobi Symbol
mersenne	Mersenne Numbers
miller_rabin	Miller-Rabin Test
mod	Modulo Operator
modNthroot	N-th root modulo p
modinv	Modular Inverse and Square Root
modlin	Modular Linear Equation Solver
modlog	Modular (or: Discrete) Logarithm
modpower	Power Function modulo m
moebius	Moebius Function
necklace	Necklace and Bracelet Functions
nextPrime	Next Prime
numbers-package	Number-Theoretic Functions
omega	Number of Prime Factors
ordpn	Order in Faculty
pascal_triangle	Pascal Triangle
periodicCF	Periodic continued fraction
polygonal	Polygonal Numbers
previousPrime	Previous Prime
primeFactors	Prime Factors
primroot	Primitive Root
pythagorean_triples	Pythagorean Triples
quadratic_residues	Quadratic Residues
ratFarey	Farey Approximation and Series
rem	Integer Remainder
solvePellsEq	Solve Pell's Equation
stern_brocot_seq	Stern-Brocot Sequence
twinPrimes	Twin Primes
zeck	Zeckendorf Representation

Although R does not have a true integer data type, integers can be represented exactly up to 2^53-1 . The numbers package attempts to provided basic number-theoretic functions that will work correcty and relatively fast up to this level.

Author(s)

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Maintainer: Hans W. Borchers <hwborchers@googlemail.com>

References

Hardy, G. H., and E. M. Wright (1980). An Introduction to the Theory of Numbers. 5th Edition, Oxford University Press.

Riesel, H. (1994). Prime Numbers and Computer Methods for Factorization. Second Edition, Birkhaeuser Boston.

Crandall, R., and C. Pomerance (2005). Prime Numbers: A Computational Perspective. Springer Science+Business.

Shoup, V. (2009). A Computational Introduction to Number Theory and Algebra. Second Edition, Cambridge University Press.

Arndt, J. (2010). Matters Computational: Ideas, Algorithms, Source Code. 2011 Edition, Springer-Verlag, Berlin Heidelberg.

Forster, O. (2014). Algorithmische Zahlentheorie. 2. Auflage, Springer Spektrum Wiesbaden.

`agm` *Arithmetic-geometric Mean*

Description

The arithmetic-geometric mean of real or complex numbers.

Usage

```
agm(a, b)
```

Arguments

`a, b`	real or complex numbers.

Details

The arithmetic-geometric mean is defined as the common limit of the two sequences $a_{n+1} = (a_n + b_n)/2$ and $b_{n+1} = \sqrt{(a_n b_n)}$.

Value

Returnes one value, the algebraic-geometric mean.

Note

The calculation of the AGM is continued until the two values of `a` and `b` are identical (in machine accuracy).

References

Borwein, J. M., and P. B. Borwein (1998). Pi and the AGM: A Study in Analytic Number Theory and Computational Complexity. Second, reprinted Edition, A Wiley-interscience publication.

See Also

Arithmetic, geometric, and harmonic mean.

Examples

```
##  Gauss constant
1 / agm(1, sqrt(2))  # 0.834626841674073

##  Calculate the (elliptic) integral 2/pi \int_0^1 dt / sqrt(1 - t^4)
f <- function(t) 1 / sqrt(1-t^4)
2 / pi * integrate(f, 0, 1)$value
1 / agm(1, sqrt(2))

##  Calculate pi with quadratic convergence (modified AGM)
#   See algorithm 2.1 in Borwein and Borwein
y <- sqrt(sqrt(2))
x <- (y+1/y)/2
p <- 2+sqrt(2)
for (i in 1:6){
  cat(format(p, digits=16), "\n")
  p <- p * (1+x) / (1+y)
  s <- sqrt(x)
  y <- (y*s + 1/s) / (1+y)
  x <- (s+1/s)/2
  }

## Not run:
##  Calculate pi with arbitrary precision using the Rmpfr package
require("Rmpfr")
vpa <- function(., d = 32) mpfr(., precBits = 4*d)
# Function to compute \pi to d decimal digits accuracy, based on the
# algebraic-geometric mean, correct digits are doubled in each step.
agm_pi <- function(d) {
    a <- vpa(1, d)
    b <- 1/sqrt(vpa(2, d))
    s <- 1/vpa(4, d)
    p <- 1
    n <- ceiling(log2(d));
    for (k in 1:n) {
        c <- (a+b)/2
        b <- sqrt(a*b)
        s <- s - p * (c-a)^2
        p <- 2 * p
        a <- c
    }
    return(a^2/s)
}
d <- 64
pia <- agm_pi(d)
print(pia, digits = d)
# 3.141592653589793238462643383279502884197169399375105820974944592
# 3.1415926535897932384626433832795028841971693993751058209749445923 exact
```

```
## End(Not run)
```

---

arithmetic_progression *Arithmetic Progression*

Description

Generates arithmetic progressions of a certain length.

Usage

```
arithmetic_progression(a, d, n)
```

Arguments

a	starting value, a natural number.
d	difference between entries in the sequence.
n	length of the sequence.

Details

An arithmetic progression is a sequence of numbers a_n such that the difference between successive terms is a constant d. Arithmetic progressions and the prime numbers they contain play an important role in Algebraic Number Theory.

Value

A sequence of natural numbers.

Note

The theory of primes in arithmetic progressions is one of the cornerstones of Algebraic Number Theory.

References

William Stein. Algebraic Number Theory, A Computational Approach. November 14, 2012. URL: wstein.org/books/ant/ant.pdf

See Also

polygonal

Examples

```
# All numbers  1 < n < 100 , such that n congruent to 1 modula 23 !
  arithmetic_progression(1, 23, 5)  # or
  N <- 1:100; N[mod(N, 23)==1]      # 1 24 47 70 93

# To generate the arithmetic progression from a to b with d as difference:
# n = floor((b-a)/d)+1
# arithmetic_progression(a, d, n)
  n <- floor((100-1)/23) + 1        # 5
  arithmetic_progression(1, 23, n)  # 1 24 47 70 93

# Primes in arithmetic progressions:
  n1 <- arithmetic_progression(5, 4, 1000)  # 5  9 13 17 21 25 29 ...
  n3 <- arithmetic_progression(3, 4, 1000)  # 3  7 11 15 19 23 27 ...
  length(n1[isPrime(n1)])                   # 269
  length(n1[isPrime(n3)])                   # 280

# Sum of squares of reciprocals of an arithmetic progression:
  a = 7; d = 11; n = 1000
  sum(1/arithmetic_progression(a, d, n)^2)  # 0.0272888
  # = trigamma(a/d)/d^2                     # 0.0272971
```

---

bell *Bell Numbers*

Description

Generate Bell numbers.

Usage

```
bell(n)
```

Arguments

n	integer, asking for the n-th Bell number.

Details

Bell numbers, commonly denoted as B_n, are defined as the number of partitions of a set of n elements. They can easily be calculated recursively.

Bell numbers also appear as moments of probability distributions, for example B_n is the n-th momentum of the Poisson distribution with mean 1.

Value

A single integer, as long as n<=22.

Examples

```
sapply(0:10, bell)
#      1      1      2      5     15     52    203    877   4140  21147 115975
```

`Bernoulli numbers` *Bernoulli Numbers*

Description

Generate the Bernoulli numbers.

Usage

```
bernoulli_numbers(n, big = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`n`	integer; starting from 0.
`big`	logical; shall double or GMP big numbers be returned?

Details

Generate the `n+1` Bernoulli numbers `B_0,B_1, ...,B_n`, i.e. from 0 to `n`. We assume `B1 = +1/2`.

With `big=FALSE` double integers up to `2^53-1` will be used, with `big=TRUE` GMP big rationals (through the 'gmp' package). `B_25` is the highest such number that can be expressed as an integer in double float.

Value

Returns a matrix with two columns, the first the numerator, the second the denominator of the Bernoulli number.

References

M. Kaneko. The Akiyama-Tanigawa algorithm for Bernoulli numbers. Journal of Integer Sequences, Vol. 3, 2000.

D. Harvey. A multimodular algorithm for computing Bernoulli numbers. Mathematics of Computation, Vol. 79(272), pp. 2361-2370, Oct. 2010. arXiv 0807.1347v2, Oct. 2018.

See Also

`pascal_triangle`

Examples

```
bernoulli_numbers(3); bernoulli_numbers(3, big=TRUE)
##                      Big Integer ('bigz') 4 x 2 matrix:
##      [,1] [,2]           [,1] [,2]
## [1,]    1    1      [1,] 1    1
## [1,]    1    2      [2,] 1    2
## [2,]    1    6      [3,] 1    6
## [3,]    0    1      [4,] 0    1

## Not run:
bernoulli_numbers(24)[25,]
## [1] -236364091       2730

bernoulli_numbers(30, big=TRUE)[31,]
## Big Integer ('bigz') 1 x 2 matrix:
##      [,1]          [,2]
## [1,] 8615841276005 14322

## End(Not run)
```

Carmichael numbers *Carmichael Numbers*

Description

Checks whether a number is a Carmichael number.

Usage

```
carmichael(n)
```

Arguments

n	natural number

Details

A natural number n is a Carmichael number if it is a Fermat pseudoprime for every a, that is a^(n-1) = 1 mod n, but is composite, not prime.

Here the Korselt criterion is used to tell whether a number n is a Carmichael number.

Value

Returns TRUE or FALSE

Note

There are infinitely many Carmichael numbers, specifically there should be at least n^(2/7) Carmichael numbers up to n (for n large enough).

References

R. Crandall and C. Pomerance. Prime Numbers - A Computational Perspective. Second Edition, Springer Science+Business Media, New York 2005.

See Also

primeFactors

Examples

```
carmichael(561)  # TRUE

## Not run:
for (n in 1:100000)
    if (carmichael(n)) cat(n, '\n')
##    561     2821    15841    52633
##   1105     6601    29341    62745
##   1729     8911    41041    63973
##   2465    10585    46657    75361

## End(Not run)
```

---

catalan *Catalan Numbers*

Description

Generate Catalan numbers.

Usage

```
catalan(n)
```

Arguments

n	integer, asking for the n-th Catalan number.

Details

Catalan numbers, commonly denoted as C_n, are defined as

$$C_n = \frac{1}{n+1}\binom{2n}{n}$$

and occur regularly in all kinds of enumeration problems.

Value

A single integer, as long as `n<=30`.

Examples

```
C <- numeric(10)
for (i in 1:10) C[i] <- catalan(i)
C[5]                                #=> 42
```

---

cf2num *Generalized Continous Fractions*

Description

Evaluate a generalized continuous fraction as an alternating sum.

Usage

```
cf2num(b0, b, a = 1, scaled = FALSE, tol = 1e-12)

num2cf(x, nterms=20)
```

Arguments

`b0`	absolute term, integer part of the continuous fraction.
`b`	numeric vector of length greater than 2.
`a`	numeric vector of length 1 or the same length as a.
`scaled`	logical; shall the convergents be scaled.
`tol`	relative tolerance.
`x`	real number.
`nterms`	number of terms.

Details

`cf2num` calculates the numerical value of (simple or generalized) continued fractions of the form

$$b_0 + \frac{a1}{b1+} \frac{a2}{b2+} \frac{a3}{b3+...}$$

by converting its convergents into an alternating sum. The argument a is by default set to $a = (1, 1, ...)$, that is the continued fraction is treated in its simple form.

The convergents may grow and become too big, especially for large and growing coefficients `a`. Then `NA` will probably be returned. In this case use `scaled = TRUE` and the convergents will be scaled in every iteration, thus avoiding FP overflow .

`num2cf` applies the direct calculation of the continued fraction. Attention: The input is not checked – this allows for applying 'mpfr' numbers for longer, correct continued fractions, see the examples.

The relation between the number of terms `nterms` and the precision of the 'mpfr' numbers should be about `nterm = 0.30..35 precBits`.

Value

Returns a numerical value, an approximation of the continued fraction.

Note

This function is *not* vectorized.

References

Press, Teukolsky, Vetterling, Flannery. NUMERICAL RECIPES: The Art of Scientific Computing. 3rd Edition, Cambridge University Press 2007.

See Also

`contfrac`

Examples

```
#-- Continued fraction of sqrt(2) is [1; 2, 2, 2, ...] -----------------
b0 <- 1; b <- rep(2, 20)                # sqrt(2)
cf2num(b0, b)                           # 1.414213562, error = eps()

#-- Approximate an analytic function -----------------------------------
# tan(x) = 0 + x / (1 + (-x^2) / 3 + (-x^2) / (5 + ...))
x  <- 0.5                           # tan(0.5) = 0.546302489844
n  <- 10                            # CF of length 20
b0 <- 0                             # b0 = 0
b  <- seq(1, by=2, length=n)        # b = c(1, 3, 5, ...)
a  <- c(x, rep(-x^2, times=n-1))    # a = c(x, -x^2, -x^2, ...)

cf2num(b0, b, a)                # 0.546302489844, error: eps()

## Not run:
#-- Continued fraction of 1/(exp(0.5)-1) -------------------------------
library(Rmpfr)
e0 = 1/(exp(1/mpfr(2, precBits=128)) - 1)  #=> 1.54149408253679828413...
x0 <- num2cf(e0, nterms=20)
## [1]  1  1  1  5  1  1  9  1  1 13  1  1 17  1  1 21  1  1 25  1  1

# Determine e0 from its continued fraction
b0 <- x0[1]; b <- x0[2:19]
cf2num(b0, b)                       # 1.541494082536798, error = eps()

#-- pi as arctan(1.0) --------------------------------------------------
n = 24
b0 = 0
b = seq(1, by=2, length=n)          # b = c(1, 3, 5, 7, ...)
a = c(1, seq(1,by=1, length=n-1)^2) # a = c(1, 1, 4, 9, ...)
4 * cf2num(b0, b, a) - pi           # error: 0

#-- Leibniz-Wallis continued fraction for pi ---------------------------
# 4/pi = 1 + 1^2/(2 + 3^2 / (2 + 5^2 / 2 + ...))
```

```
pi4 = 4 / pi                          # 1.27323954474

n  = 20
b0 = 1
b  = rep(2, times=n)
a  = seq(1, by = 2, length=n)^2
cf2num(b0, b, a)                      # NA, i.e. convergents overflow
cf2num(b0, b, a, scaled = TRUE)
# 1.273272 with estimated precision 0.004032851
# [1] 1.273272                        # actual error: 3.3e-05

## End(Not run)
```

---

chinese remainder theorem

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Description

Executes the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT).

Usage

```
chinese(a, m)
```

Arguments

a	sequence of integers, of the same length as m.
m	sequence of natural numbers, relatively prime to each other.

Details

The Chinese Remainder Theorem says that given integers a_i and natural numbers m_i, relatively prime (i.e., coprime) to each other, there exists a unique solution $x = x_i$ such that the following system of linear modular equations is satisfied:

$$x_i = a_i \mod m_i, \quad 1 \le i \le n$$

More generally, a solution exists if the following condition is satisfied:

$$a_i = a_j \mod \gcd(m_i, m_j)$$

This version of the CRT is not yet implemented.

Value

Returns th (unique) solution of the system of modular equalities as an integer between `0` and `M=prod(m)`.

See Also

extGCD

Examples

```
m <- c(3, 4, 5)
a <- c(2, 3, 1)
chinese(a, m)    #=> 11

# ... would be sufficient
# m <- c(50, 210, 154)
# a <- c(44,  34, 132)
# x = 4444
```

---

collatz — *Collatz Sequences*

Description

Generates Collatz sequences with n -> k*n+l for n odd.

Usage

```
collatz(n, k = 3, l = 1, short = FALSE, check = TRUE)
```

Arguments

n	integer to start the Collatz sequence with.
k, l	parameters for computing k*n+l.
short	logical, abbreviate stps with (k*n+l)/2
check	logical, check for nontrivial cycles.

Details

Function n, k, l generates iterative sequences starting with n and calculating the next number as n/2 if n is even and k*n+l if n is odd. It stops automatically when 1 is reached.

The default parameters k=3, l=1 generate the classical Collatz sequence. The Collatz conjecture says that every such sequences will end in the trivial cycle ...,4,2,1. For other parameters this does not necessarily happen.

k and l are not allowed to be both even or both odd – to make k*n+l even for n odd. Option short=TRUE calculates (k*n+l)/2 when n is odd (as k*n+l is even in this case), shortening the sequence a bit.

With option check=TRUE will check for nontrivial cycles, stopping with the first integer that repeats in the sequence. The check is disabled for the default parameters in the light of the Collatz conjecture.

Value

Returns the integer sequence generated from the iterative rule.

Sends out a message if a nontrivial cycle was found (i.e. the sequence is not ending with 1 and end in an infinite cycle). Throws an error if an integer overflow is detected.

Note

The Collatz or `3n+1`-conjecture has been experimentally verified for all start numbers `n` up to `10^20` at least.

References

See the Wikipedia entry on the 'Collatz Conjecture'.

Examples

```
collatz(7)  # n -> 3n+1
## [1]  7 22 11 34 17 52 26 13 40 20 10  5 16  8  4  2  1
collatz(9, short = TRUE)
## [1]  9 14  7 11 17 26 13 20 10  5  8  4  2  1

collatz(7, l = -1)  # n -> 3n-1
## Found a non-trivial cycle for n = 7 !
##     [1]  7 20 10  5 14  7

## Not run:
collatz(5, k = 7, l = 1)  # n -> 7n+1
## [1]  5 36 18  9 64 32 16  8  4  2  1
collatz(5, k = 7, l = -1)  # n -> 7n-1
## Info: 5 --> 1.26995e+16 too big after 280 steps.
## Error in collatz(5, k = 7, l = -1) :
##     Integer overflow, i.e. greater than 2^53-1

## End(Not run)
```

`contfrac` *Continued Fractions*

Description

Evaluate a continued fraction or generate one.

Usage

```
contfrac(x, tol = 1e-12)
```

Arguments

`x`	a numeric scalar or vector.
`tol`	tolerance; default `1e-12`.

Details

If `x` is a scalar its continued fraction will be generated up to the accuracy prescribed in `tol`. If it is of length greater 1, the function assumes this to be a continued fraction and computes its value and convergents.

The continued fraction $[b_0; b_1, \ldots, b_{n-1}]$ is assumed to be finite and neither periodic nor infinite. For implementation uses the representation of continued fractions through 2-by-2 matrices (i.e. Wallis' recursion formula from 1644).

Value

If `x` is a scalar, it will return a list with components `cf` the continued fraction as a vector, `rat` the rational approximation, and `prec` the difference between the value and this approximation.

If `x` is a vector, the continued fraction, then it will return a list with components `f` the numerical value, `p` and `q` the convergents, and `prec` an estimated precision.

Note

This function is *not* vectorized.

References

Hardy, G. H., and E. M. Wright (1979). An Introduction to the Theory of Numbers. Fifth Edition, Oxford University Press, New York.

See Also

`cf2num`, `ratFarey`

Examples

```
contfrac(pi)
contfrac(c(3, 7, 15, 1))        # rational Approx: 355/113

contfrac(0.555)                 #  0  1  1  4 22
contfrac(c(1, rep(2, 25)))      #  1.414213562373095, sqrt(2)
```

`coprime` *Coprimality*

Description

Determine whether two numbers are coprime, i.e. do not have a common prime divisor.

Usage

```
coprime(n,m)
```

Arguments

`n, m`	integer scalars

Details

Two numbers are coprime iff their greatest common divisor is 1.

Value

Logical, being TRUE if the numbers are coprime.

See Also

`GCD`

Examples

```
coprime(46368, 75025)  # Fibonacci numbers are relatively prime to each other
coprime(1001, 1334)
```

`div` *Integer Division*

Description

Integer division.

Usage

```
div(n, m)
```

Arguments

`n`	numeric vector (preferably of integers)
`m`	integer vector (positive, zero, or negative)

Details

`div(n, m)` is integer division, that is discards the fractional part, with the same effect as `n %/% m`. It can be defined as `floor(n/m)`.

Value

A numeric (integer) value or vector/matrix.

See Also

`mod`, `rem`

Examples

```
div(c(-5:5), 5)
div(c(-5:5), -5)
div(c(1, -1), 0)  #=> Inf -Inf
div(0,c(0, 1))    #=> NaN  0
```

`divisors` *List of Divisors*

Description

Generates a list of divisors of an integer number.

Usage

```
divisors(n)
```

Arguments

`n`	integer whose divisors will be generated.

Details

The list of all divisors of an integer `n` will be calculated and returned in ascending order, including 1 and the number itself. For `n>=1000` the list of prime factors of `n` will be used, for smaller `n` a total search is applied.

Value

Returns a vector integers.

Note

A unitary divisor of n is a divisor d such that `GCD(d, n/d) == 1`, i.e. d and m/d are coprime. See the examples for a function that only returns the *unitary divisors*.

See Also

primeFactors, Sigma, tau

Examples

```
divisors(1)         # 1
divisors(2)         # 1 2
divisors(2^5)       # 1  2  4  8 16 32
divisors(1000)      # 1  2  4  5  8 10 ... 100 125 200 250 500 1000
divisors(1001)      # 1  7 11 13 77 91 143 1001

# unitary divisors function
unitary_divisors <- function(n) {
  divs <- divisors(n)
  adiv <- apply(cbind(divs, rev(divs)), 1, mGCD) == 1
  return(divs[adiv])
}

divisors(120)
## [1]   1   2   3   4   5   6   8  10  12  15  20  24  30  40  60 120
unitary_divisors(120)
## 1   3   5   8  15  24  40 120
```

`dropletPi` *Droplet Algorithm for pi and e*

Description

Generates digits for pi resp. the Euler number e.

Usage

```
dropletPi(n)
dropletE(n)
```

Arguments

n	number of digits after the decimal point; should not exceed 1000 much as otherwise it will be *very* slow.

Details

Based on a formula discovered by S. Rabinowitz and S. Wagon.

The droplet algorithm for pi uses the Euler transform of the alternating Leibniz series and the so-called "radix conversion".

Value

String containing "3.1415926..." resp. "2.718281828..." with n digits after the decimal point (i.e., internal decimal places).

References

Borwein, J., and K. Devlin (2009). The Computer as Crucible: An Introduction to Experimental Mathematics. A K Peters, Ltd.

Arndt, J., and Ch. Haenel (2000). Pi – Algorithmen, Computer, Arithmetik. Springer-Verlag, Berlin Heidelberg.

Examples

```
##  Example
dropletE(20)                    # [1] "2.71828182845904523536"
print(exp(1), digits=20)        # [1]  2.7182818284590450908

dropletPi(20)                   # [1] "3.14159265358979323846"
print(pi, digits=20)            # [1]  3.141592653589793116

## Not run:
E <- dropletE(1000)
table(strsplit(substring(E, 3, 1002), ""))
#    0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9
#  100  96  97 109 100  85  99  99 103 112

Pi <- dropletPi(1000)
table(strsplit(substring(Pi, 3, 1002), ""))
#   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9
#  93 116 103 102  93  97  94  95 101 106
## End(Not run)
```

---

egyptian_complete *Egyptian Fractions - Complete Search*

Description

Generate all Egyptian fractions of length 2 and 3.

Usage

```
egyptian_complete(a, b, show = TRUE)
```

Arguments

a, b	integers, a != 1, a < b and a, b relatively prime.
show	logical; shall solutions found be printed?

Details

For a rational number 0 < a/b < 1, generates all Egyptian fractions of length 2 and three, that is finds integers x1, x2, x3 such that

a/b = 1/x1 + 1/x2
a/b = 1/x1 + 1/x2 + 1/x3.

Value

All solutions found will be printed to the console if show=TRUE; returns invisibly the number of solutions found.

References

https://www.ics.uci.edu/~eppstein/numth/egypt/

See Also

egyptian_methods

Examples

```
egyptian_complete(6, 7)        # 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/42
egyptian_complete(8, 11)       # no solution with 2 or 3 fractions

# TODO
# 2/9 = 1/9 + 1/10 + 1/90       # is not recognized, as similar cases,
                               # because 1/n is not considered in m/n.
```

---

egyptian_methods *Egyptian Fractions - Specialized Methods*

Description

Generate Egyptian fractions with specialized methods.

Usage

```
egyptian_methods(a, b)
```

Arguments

a, b	integers, a != 1, a < b and a, b relatively prime.

Details

For a rational number `0 < a/b < 1`, generates Egyptian fractions that is finds integers `x1, x2, ..., xk` such that

`a/b = 1/x1 + 1/x2 + ... + 1/xk`

using the following methods:

- 'greedy'
- Fibonacci-Sylvester
- Golomb (same as with Farey sequences)
- continued fractions (not yet implemented)

Value

No return value, all solutions found will be printed to the console.

References

https://www.ics.uci.edu/~eppstein/numth/egypt/

See Also

egyptian_complete

Examples

```
egyptian_methods(8, 11)
# 8/11 = 1/2 +  1/5 + 1/37 + 1/4070  (Fibonacci-Sylvester)
# 8/11 = 1/2 +  1/6 + 1/21 + 1/77    (Golomb-Farey)

# Other solutions
# 8/11 = 1/2 +  1/8 + 1/11 + 1/88
# 8/11 = 1/2 + 1/12 + 1/22 + 1/121
```

---

eulersPhi *Eulers's Phi Function*

Description

Euler's Phi function (aka Euler's 'totient' function).

Usage

```
eulersPhi(n)
```

Arguments

n	Positive integer.

Details

The phi function is defined to be the number of positive integers less than or equal to n that are *coprime* to n, i.e. have no common factors other than 1.

Value

Natural number, the number of coprime integers <= n.

Note

Works well up to 10^9.

See Also

primeFactors, Sigma

Examples

```
eulersPhi(9973)  == 9973 - 1                        # for prime numbers
eulersPhi(3^10)  == 3^9 * (3 - 1)                   # for prime powers
eulersPhi(12*35) == eulersPhi(12) * eulersPhi(35)  # TRUE if coprime

## Not run:
x <- 1:100; y <- sapply(x, eulersPhi)
plot(1:100, y, type="l", col="blue",
               xlab="n", ylab="phi(n)", main="Euler's totient function")
points(1:100, y, col="blue", pch=20)
grid()
## End(Not run)
```

---

extGCD *Extended Euclidean Algorithm*

Description

The extended Euclidean algorithm computes the greatest common divisor and solves Bezout's identity.

Usage

```
extGCD(a, b)
```

Arguments

a, b	integer scalars

Details

The extended Euclidean algorithm not only computes the greatest common divisor d of a and b, but also two numbers n and m such that $d = na + mb$.

This algorithm provides an easy approach to computing the modular inverse.

Value

a numeric vector of length three, `c(d, n, m)`, where `d` is the greatest common divisor of `a` and `b`, and `n` and `m` are integers such that `d = n*a + m*b`.

Note

There is also a shorter, more elegant recursive version for the extended Euclidean algorithm. For R the procedure suggested by Blankinship appeared more appropriate.

References

Blankinship, W. A. "A New Version of the Euclidean Algorithm." Amer. Math. Monthly 70, 742-745, 1963.

See Also

GCD

Examples

```
extGCD(12, 10)
extGCD(46368, 75025)  # Fibonacci numbers are relatively prime to each other
```

`Farey Numbers` *Farey Approximation and Series*

Description

Rational approximation of real numbers through Farey fractions.

Usage

```
ratFarey(x, n, upper = TRUE)

farey_seq(n)
```

Arguments

`x`	real number.
`n`	integer, highest allowed denominator in a rational approximation.
`upper`	logical; shall the Farey fraction be grater than `x`.

Details

Rational approximation of real numbers through Farey fractions, i.e. find for x the nearest fraction in the Farey series of rational numbers with denominator not larger than n.

farey_seq(n) generates the full Farey sequence of rational numbers with denominators not larger than n. Returns the fractions as 'big rational' class in 'gmp'.

Value

Returns a vector with two natural numbers, nominator and denominator.

Note

farey_seq is very slow even for n > 40, due to the handling of rational numbers as 'big rationals'.

References

Hardy, G. H., and E. M. Wright (1979). An Introduction to the Theory of Numbers. Fifth Edition, Oxford University Press, New York.

See Also

contFrac

Examples

```
ratFarey(pi, 100)                         # 22/7    0.0013
ratFarey(pi, 100, upper = FALSE)          # 311/99  0.0002
ratFarey(-pi, 100)                        # -22/7
ratFarey(pi - 3, 70)                      # pi ~= 3 + (3/8)^2
ratFarey(pi, 1000)                        # 355/113
ratFarey(pi, 10000, upper = FALSE)        # id.
ratFarey(pi, 1e5, upper = FALSE)          # 312689/99532 - pi ~= 3e-11

ratFarey(4/5, 5)                          # 4/5
ratFarey(4/5, 4)                          # 1/1
ratFarey(4/5, 4, upper = FALSE)           # 3/4
```

---

fibonacci *Fibonacci and Lucas Series*

Description

Generates single Fibonacci numbers or a Fibonacci sequence; or generates a Lucas series based on the Fibonacci series.

Usage

```
fibonacci(n, sequence = FALSE)
lucas(n)
```

Arguments

`n`	an integer.
`sequence`	logical; default: FALSE.

Details

Generates the `n`-th Fibonacci number, or the whole Fibonacci sequence from the first to the `n`-th number; starts with (1, 1, 2, 3, ...). Generates only single Lucas numbers. The Lucas series can be extenden to the left and starts as (... -4, 3, -1, 2, 1, 3, 4, ...).

The recursive version is too slow for values `n>=30`. Therefore, an iterative approach is used. For numbers `n > 78` Fibonacci numbers cannot be represented exactly in R as integers (`>2^53-1`).

Value

A single integer, or a vector of integers.

Examples

```
fibonacci(0)                        # 0
fibonacci(2)                        # 1
fibonacci(2, sequence = TRUE)       # 1 1
fibonacci(78)                       # 8944394323791464 < 9*10^15

lucas(0)                            # 2
lucas(2)                            # 3
lucas(76)                           # 7639424778862807

# Golden ratio
F <- fibonacci(25, sequence = TRUE)     # ... 46368 75025
f25 <- F[25]/F[24]                  # 1.618034
phi <- (sqrt(5) + 1)/2
abs(f25 - phi)                      # 2.080072e-10

# Fibonacci numbers w/o iteration
  fibo <- function(n) {
    phi <- (sqrt(5) + 1)/2
    fib <- (phi^n - (1-phi)^n) / (2*phi - 1)
    round(fib)
  }
fibo(30:33)                         # 832040 1346269 2178309 3524578

for (i in -8:8) cat(lucas(i), " ")
# 47  -29  18  -11  7  -4  3  -1  2  1  3  4  7  11  18  29  47

# Lucas numbers w/o iteration
  luca <- function(n) {
    phi <- (sqrt(5) + 1)/2
    luc <- phi^n + (1-phi)^n
    round(luc)
  }
luca(0:10)
```

```
# [1]   2   1   3   4   7  11  18  29  47  76 123

# Lucas primes
#   for (j in 0:76) {
#     l <- lucas(j)
#     if (isPrime(l)) cat(j, "\t", l, "\n")
#   }
# 0   2
# 2   3
# ...
# 71  688846502588399
```

GCD, LCM *GCD and LCM Integer Functions*

Description

Greatest common divisor and least common multiple

Usage

```
GCD(n, m)
LCM(n, m)

mGCD(x)
mLCM(x)
```

Arguments

n, m	integer scalars.
x	a vector of integers.

Details

Computation based on the Euclidean algorithm without using the extended version.

mGCD (the multiple GCD) computes the greatest common divisor for all numbers in the integer vector x together.

Value

A numeric (integer) value.

Note

The following relation is always true:

n * m = GCD(n, m) * LCM(n, m)

See Also

extGCD, coprime

Examples

```
GCD(12, 10)
GCD(46368, 75025)  # Fibonacci numbers are relatively prime to each other

LCM(12, 10)
LCM(46368, 75025)  # = 46368 * 75025

mGCD(c(2, 3, 5, 7) * 11)
mGCD(c(2*3, 3*5, 5*7))
mLCM(c(2, 3, 5, 7) * 11)
mLCM(c(2*3, 3*5, 5*7))
```

`Hermite normal form` *Hermite Normal Form*

Description

Hermite normal form over integers (in column-reduced form).

Usage

```
hermiteNF(A)
```

Arguments

`A`	integer matrix.

Details

An `mxn`-matrix of rank `r` with integer entries is said to be in Hermite normal form if:

(i) the first r columns are nonzero, the other columns are all zero;
(ii) The first r diagonal elements are nonzero and d[i-1] divides d[i] for i = 2,...,r .
(iii) All entries to the left of nonzero diagonal elements are non-negative
and strictly less than the corresponding diagonal entry.

The lower-triangular Hermite normal form of A is obtained by the following three types of column operations:

(i) exchange two columns
(ii) multiply a column by -1
(iii) Add an integral multiple of a column to another column

U is the unitary matrix such that AU = H, generated by these operations.

Value

List with two matrices, the Hermite normal form `H` and the unitary matrix `U`.

Note

Another normal form often used in this context is the Smith normal form.

References

Cohen, H. (1993). A Course in Computational Algebraic Number Theory. Graduate Texts in Mathematics, Vol. 138, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, New York.

See Also

chinese

Examples

```
n <- 4; m <- 5
A = matrix(c(
 9,  6,  0, -8,  0,
-5, -8,  0,  0,  0,
 0,  0,  0,  4,  0,
 0,  0,  0, -5,  0), n, m, byrow = TRUE)

Hnf <- hermiteNF(A); Hnf
# $H =  1    0    0    0    0
#       1    2    0    0    0
#      28   36   84    0    0
#     -35  -45 -105    0    0
# $U = 11   14   32    0    0
#      -7   -9  -20    0    0
#       0    0    0    1    0
#       7    9   21    0    0
#       0    0    0    0    1

r <- 3                  # r = rank(H)
H <- Hnf$H; U <- Hnf$U
all(H == A %*% U)       #=> TRUE

##  Example: Compute integer solution of A x = b
#   H = A * U, thus H * U^-1 * x = b, or H * y = b
b <- as.matrix(c(-11, -21, 16, -20))

y <- numeric(m)
y[1] <- b[1] / H[1, 1]
for (i in 2:r)
    y[i] <- (b[i] - sum(H[i, 1:(i-1)] * y[1:(i-1)])) / H[i, i]
# special solution:
xs <- U %*% y         #  1 2 0 4 0

# and the general solution is xs + U * c(0, 0, 0, a, b), or
# in other words the basis are the m-r vectors c(0,...,0, 1, ...).
# If the special solution is not integer, there are no integer solutions.
```

iNthroot *Integer N-th Root*

Description

Determine the integer n-th root of .

Usage

```
iNthroot(p, n)
```

Arguments

p	any positive number.
n	a natural number.

Details

Calculates the highest natural number below the n-th root of p in a more integer based way than simply floor(p^{1/n}).

Value

An integer.

Examples

```
iNthroot(0.5, 6)    # 0
iNthroot(1, 6)      # 1
iNthroot(5^6, 6)    # 5
iNthroot(5^6-1, 6)  # 4
## Not run:
# Define a function that tests whether
isNthpower <- function(p, n) {
    q <- iNthroot(p, n)
    if (q^n == p) { return(TRUE)
    } else { return(FALSE) }
  }

## End(Not run)
```

isIntpower *Powers of Integers*

Description

Determine whether p is the power of an integer.

Usage

```
isIntpower(p)

isSquare(p)
isSquarefree(p)
```

Arguments

p	any integer number.

Details

isIntpower(p) determines whether p is the power of an integer and returns a tupel (n, m) such that p=n^m where m is as small as possible. E.g., if p is prime it returns c(p,1).

isSquare(p) determines whether p is the square of an integer; and isSquarefree(p) determines if p contains a square number as a divisor.

Value

A 2-vector of integers.

Examples

```
isIntpower(1)    #  1  1
isIntpower(15)   # 15  1
isIntpower(17)   # 17  1
isIntpower(64)   #  8  2
isIntpower(36)   #  6  2
isIntpower(100)  # 10  2
## Not run:
  for (p in 5^7:7^5) {
      pp <- isIntpower(p)
      if (pp[2] != 1) cat(p, ":\t", pp, "\n")
  }
## End(Not run)
```

`isNatural` *Natural Number*

Description

Natural number type.

Usage

```
isNatural(n)
```

Arguments

`n`	any numeric number.

Details

Returns `TRUE` for natural (or: whole) numbers between 1 and 2^53-1.

Value

Boolean

Examples

```
IsNatural <- Vectorize(isNatural)
IsNatural(c(-1, 0, 1, 5.1, 10, 2^53-1, 2^53, Inf))  # isNatural(NA) ?
```

`isPrime` *isPrime Property*

Description

Vectorized version, returning for a vector or matrix of positive integers a vector of the same size containing 1 for the elements that are prime and 0 otherwise.

Usage

```
isPrime(x)
```

Arguments

`x`	vector or matrix of nonnegative integers

Details

Given an array of positive integers returns an array of the same size of 0 and 1, where the i indicates a prime number in the same position.

Value

array of elements 0, 1 with 1 indicating prime numbers

See Also

primeFactors, Primes

Examples

```
x <- matrix(1:10, nrow=10, ncol=10, byrow=TRUE)
x * isPrime(x)

# Find first prime number octett:
octett <- c(0, 2, 6, 8, 30, 32, 36, 38) - 19
while (TRUE) {
    octett <- octett + 210
    if (all(isPrime(octett))) {
        cat(octett, "\n", sep="  ")
        break
    }
}
```

---

isPrimroot — *Primitive Root Test*

Description

Determine whether g generates the multiplicative group modulo p.

Usage

```
isPrimroot(g, p)
```

Arguments

g	integer greater 2 (and smaller than p).
p	prime number.

Details

Test is done by determining the order of g modulo p.

Value

Returns TRUE or FALSE.

Examples

```
isPrimroot(2, 7)
isPrimroot(2, 71)
isPrimroot(7, 71)
```

---

legendre_sym *Legendre and Jacobi Symbol*

Description

Legendre and Jacobi Symbol for quadratic residues.

Usage

```
legendre_sym(a, p)

jacobi_sym(a, n)
```

Arguments

a, n	integers.
p	prime number.

Details

The Legendre Symbol (a/p), where p must be a prime number, denotes whether a is a quadratic residue modulo p or not.

The Jacobi symbol (a/p) is the product of (a/p) of all prime factors p on n.

Value

Returns 0, 1, or -1 if p divides a, a is a quadratic residue, or if not.

See Also

quadratic_residues

Examples

```
Lsym <- Vectorize(legendre_sym, 'a')

# all quadratic residues of p = 17
qr17 <- which(Lsym(1:16, 17) == 1)      #  1  2  4  8  9 13 15 16
sort(unique((1:16)^2 %% 17))            #  the same

## Not run:
# how about large numbers?
p <- 1198112137                         #  isPrime(p) TRUE
```

```
x <- 4652356
a <- mod(x^2, p)                    #  520595831
legendre_sym(a, p)                  #  1
legendre_sym(a+1, p)                # -1

## End(Not run)

jacobi_sym(11, 12)                  # -1
```

---

mersenne *Mersenne Numbers*

Description

Determines whether p is a Mersenne number, that is such that $2^p - 1$ is prime.

Usage

```
mersenne(p)
```

Arguments

p	prime number, not very large.

Details

Applies the Lucas-Lehmer test on p. Because intermediate numbers will soon get very large, uses 'gmp' from the beginning.

Value

Returns TRUE or FALSE, indicating whether p is a Mersenne number or not.

References

https://mathworld.wolfram.com/Lucas-LehmerTest.html

Examples

```
mersenne(2)

## Not run:
  P <- Primes(32)
  M <- c()
  for (p in P)
      if (mersenne(p)) M <- c(M, p)
  # Next Mersenne numpers with primes are 521 and 607 (below 1200)
  M                        # 2   3   5    7    13      17  19  31  61  89  107
  gmp::as.bigz(2)^M - 1   # 3   7  31  127  8191  131071  ...
## End(Not run)
```

`miller_rabin` *Miller-Rabin Test*

Description

Probabilistic Miller-Rabin primality test.

Usage

```
miller_rabin(n)
```

Arguments

`n`	natural number.

Details

The Miller-Rabin test is an efficient probabilistic primality test based on strong pseudoprimes. This implementation uses the first seven prime numbers (if necessary) as test cases. It is thus exact for all numbers `n` < `341550071728321`.

Value

Returns TRUE or FALSE.

Note

`miller_rabin()` will only work if package gmp has been loaded by the user separately.

References

https://mathworld.wolfram.com/Rabin-MillerStrongPseudoprimeTest.html

See Also

`isPrime`

Examples

```
miller_rabin(2)

## Not run:
  miller_rabin(4294967297)  #=> FALSE
  miller_rabin(4294967311)  #=> TRUE

  # Rabin-Miller 10 times faster than nextPrime()
  N <- n <- 2^32 + 1
  system.time(while (!miller_rabin(n)) n <- n + 1)  # 0.003
  system.time(p <- nextPrime(N))                    # 0.029
```

```
  N <- c(2047, 1373653, 25326001, 3215031751, 2152302898747,
          3474749660383, 341550071728321)
  for (n in N) {
      p <- nextPrime(n)
      T <- system.time(r <- miller_rabin(p))
      cat(n, p, r, T[3], "\n")}
## End(Not run)
```

---

mod *Modulo Operator*

Description

Modulo operator.

Usage

```
mod(n, m)

modq(a, b, k)
```

Arguments

n	numeric vector (preferably of integers)
m	integer vector (positive, zero, or negative)
a, b	whole numbers (scalars)
k	integer greater than 1

Details

`mod(n, m)` is the modulo operator and returns `n` mod `m`. `mod(n, 0)` is `n`, and the result always has the same sign as `m`.

`modq(a, b, k)` is the modulo operator for rational numbers and returns `a/b` mod `k`. `b` and `k` must be coprime, otherwise `NA` is returned.

Value

a numeric (integer) value or vector/matrix, resp. an integer number

Note

The following relation is fulfilled (for `m != 0`):

`mod(n, m) = n - m * floor(n/m)`

See Also

`rem`, `div`

Examples

```
mod(c(-5:5), 5)
mod(c(-5:5), -5)
mod(0, 1)         #=> 0
mod(1, 0)         #=> 1

modq(5, 66, 5)    # 0  (Bernoulli 10)
modq(5, 66, 7)    # 4
modq(5, 66, 13)   # 5
modq(5, 66, 25)   # 5
modq(5, 66, 35)   # 25
modq(-1,  30, 7)  # 3  (Bernoulli 8)
modq( 1, -30, 7)  # 3

# Warning messages:
# modq(5, 66, 77)       : Arguments 'b' and 'm' must be coprime.
# Error messages
# modq(5, 66, 1)        : Argument 'm' mustbe a natural number > 1.
# modq(5, 66, 1.5)      : All arguments of 'modq' must be integers.
# modq(5, 66, c(5, 7))  : Function 'modq' is *not* vectorized.
```

`modinv, modsqrt` *Modular Inverse and Square Root*

Description

Computes the modular inverse of `n` modulo `m`.

Usage

```
modinv(n, m)

modsqrt(a, p)
```

Arguments

`n, m`	integer scalars.
`a, p`	integer modulo p, p a prime.

Details

The modular inverse of `n` modulo `m` is the unique natural number `0 < n0 < m` such that `n * n0 = 1 mod m`. It is a simple application of the extended GCD algorithm.

The modular square root of `a` modulo a prime `p` is a number `x` such that `x^2 = a mod p`. If `x` is a solution, then `p-x` is also a solution module `p`. The function will always return the smaller value.

`modsqrt` implements the Tonelli-Shanks algorithm which also works for square roots modulo prime powers. The general case is NP-hard.

Value

A natural number smaller m, if n and m are coprime, else NA. modsqrt will return 0 if there is no solution.

See Also

extGCD

Examples

```
modinv(5, 1001)  #=> 801, as 5*801 = 4005 = 1 mod 1001

Modinv <- Vectorize(modinv, "n")
((1:10)*Modinv(1:10, 11)) %% 11     #=> 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

modsqrt( 8, 23)  # 10 because 10^2 = 100 = 8 mod 23
modsqrt(10, 17)  #  0 because 10 is not a quadratic residue mod 17
```

---

modlin *Modular Linear Equation Solver*

Description

Solves the modular equation a x = b mod n.

Usage

```
modlin(a, b, n)
```

Arguments

a, b, n	integer scalars

Details

Solves the modular equation a x = b mod n. This eqation is solvable if and only if gcd(a,n)|b. The function uses the extended greatest common divisor approach.

Value

Returns a vector of integer solutions.

See Also

extGCD

Examples

```
modlin(14, 30, 100)             # 95 45
modlin(3, 4, 5)                 # 3
modlin(3, 5, 6)                 # []
modlin(3, 6, 9)                 # 2 5 8
```

---

modlog *Modular (or: Discrete) Logarithm*

Description

Realizes the modular (or discrete) logarithm modulo a prime number p, that is determines the unique exponent n such that $g^n = x \bmod p$, g a primitive root.

Usage

```
modlog(g, x, p)
```

Arguments

g	a primitive root mod p.
x	an integer.
p	prime number.

Details

The method is in principle a complete search, cut short by "Shank's trick", the giantstep-babystep approach, see Forster (1996, pp. 65f). g has to be a primitive root modulo p, otherwise exponentiation is not bijective.

Value

Returns an integer.

References

Forster, O. (1996). Algorithmische Zahlentheorie. Friedr. Vieweg u. Sohn Verlagsgesellschaft mbH, Wiesbaden.

See Also

primroot

Examples

```
modlog(11, 998, 1009)  # 505 , i.e., 11^505 = 998 mod 1009
```

`modNthroot` *N-th root modulo p*

Description

Find all n-th roots r^n = a mod p of an integer a for p prime.

Usage

```
modNthroot(a, n, p)
```

Arguments

`a`	an integer.
`n`	exponent, an integer.
`p`	a prime number.

Details

Computes the n-th root of an integer modulo a prime number p, i.e., solves the equation $r^n = a \mod p$ with p a prime number.

Value

Returns a unique solution an integer, the solution `r` of `r^n = a mod p` when `coprime(n, p-1)` – or is empty when there is no solution. Returns an array of integer solutions else.

In the first case the code is very efficient. In the second case, the search is exhaustive, but still quite fast for not too big numbers.

Note

There is a more efficient algorithm if `n` and `p-1` have common prime divisors. This may be implemented in a future version.

References

E. Bach and J. Shallit. Algorithmic Number Theory. Vol 1: Efficient Algorithms.The MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 1996.

See Also

`modpower`

Examples

```
a = 10; n = 5; p = 13           # the best case
modNthroot(a, n, p)             # 4
a = 10; n = 17; p = 13          # n greater than p-1
modNthroot(a, n, p)             # 4
a = 9; n = 4; p = 13            # n and p-1 not coprime
modNthroot(a, n, p)             # 4 6 7 9
a = 17; n = 35; p = 101         # 7 is a prime divisor of n and p-1
modNthroot(a, n, p)             # 9 21 47 49 76
a = 5001; n = 5; p = 100003     # some bigger numbers
modNthroot(a, n, p)             # 47768
```

---

modpower *Power Function modulo m*

Description

Calculates powers and orders modulo `m`.

Usage

```
modpower(n, k, m)
modorder(n, m)
```

Arguments

`n, k, m`	Natural numbers, `m >= 1`.

Details

`modpower` calculates `n` to the power of `k` modulo `m`.
Uses modular exponentiation, as described in the Wikipedia article.

`modorder` calculates the order of `n` in the multiplicative group module `m`. `n` and `m` must be coprime. Uses brute force, trick to use binary expansion and square is not more efficient in an R implementation.

Value

Natural number.

Note

This function is *not* vectorized.

See Also

`primroot`

Examples

```
modpower(2, 100, 7)  #=> 2
modpower(3, 100, 7)  #=> 4
modorder(7, 17)      #=> 16, i.e. 7 is a primitive root mod 17

##  Gauss' table of primitive roots modulo prime numbers < 100
proots <- c(2,  2,  3,  2,  2,  6,  5, 10, 10, 10, 2,  2, 10, 17,  5,  5,
            6, 28, 10, 10, 26, 10, 10,  5, 12, 62, 5, 29, 11, 50, 30, 10)
P <- Primes(100)
for (i in seq(along=P)) {
    cat(P[i], "\t", modorder(proots[i], P[i]), proots[i], "\t", "\n")
}

## Not run:
##  Lehmann's primality test
lehmann_test <- function(n, ntry = 25) {
    if (!is.numeric(n) || ceiling(n) != floor(n) || n < 0)
        stop("Argument 'n' must be a natural number")
    if (n >= 9e7)
        stop("Argument 'n' should be smaller than 9e7.")

    if (n < 2)                        return(FALSE)
    else if (n == 2)                  return(TRUE)
    else if (n > 2 && n %% 2 == 0)  return(FALSE)

    k <- floor(ntry)
    if (k < 1) k <- 1
    if (k > n-2) a <- 2:(n-1)
    else         a <- sample(2:(n-1), k, replace = FALSE)

    for (i in 1:length(a)) {
        m <- modpower(a[i], (n-1)/2, n)
        if (m != 1 && m != n-1) return(FALSE)
    }
    return(TRUE)
}

##  Examples
for (i in seq(1001, 1011, by = 2))
    if (lehmann_test(i)) cat(i, "\n")
# 1009
system.time(lehmann_test(27644437, 50))    # TRUE
#    user  system elapsed
#   0.086   0.151   0.235

## End(Not run)
```

`moebius` *Moebius Function*

Description

The classical Moebius and Mertens functions in number theory.

Usage

```
moebius(n)
mertens(n)
```

Arguments

n	Positive integer.

Details

`moebius(n)` is `+1` if n is a square-free positive integer with an even number of prime factors, or `+1` if there are an odd of prime factors. It is `0` if `n` is not square-free.

`mertens(n)` is the aggregating summary function, that sums up all values of `moebius` from `1` to `n`.

Value

For `moebius`, `0, 1` or `-1`, depending on the prime decomposition of `n`.

For `mertens` the values will very slowly grow.

Note

Works well up to `10^9`, but will become very slow for the Mertens function.

See Also

`primeFactors`, `eulersPhi`

Examples

```
sapply(1:16, moebius)
sapply(1:16, mertens)

## Not run:
x <- 1:50; y <- sapply(x, moebius)
plot(c(1, 50), c(-3, 3), type="n")
grid()
points(1:50, y, pch=18, col="blue")

x <- 1:100; y <- sapply(x, mertens)
plot(c(1, 100), c(-5, 3), type="n")
grid()
lines(1:100, y, col="red", type="s")
## End(Not run)
```

`necklace` *Necklace and Bracelet Functions*

Description

Necklace and bracelet problems in combinatorics.

Usage

```
necklace(k, n)

bracelet(k, n)
```

Arguments

`k`	The size of the set or alphabet to choose from.
`n`	the length of the necklace or bracelet.

Details

A necklace is a closed string of length `n` over a set of size `k` (numbers, characters, clors, etc.), where all rotations are taken as equivalent. A bracelet is a necklace where strings may also be equivalent under reflections.

Polya's enumeration theorem can be utilized to enumerate all necklaces or bracelets. The final calculation involves Euler's Phi or totient function, in this package implemented as `eulersPhi`.

Value

Returns the number of necklaces resp. bracelets.

References

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Necklace_(combinatorics)

Examples

```
necklace(2, 5)
necklace(3, 6)

bracelet(2, 5)
bracelet(3, 6)
```

nextPrime *Next Prime*

Description

Find the next prime above n.

Usage

```
nextPrime(n)
```

Arguments

n	natural number.

Details

nextPrime finds the next prime number greater than n, while previousPrime finds the next prime number below n. In general the next prime will occur in the interval [n+1,n+log(n)].

In double precision arithmetic integers are represented exactly only up to 2^53 - 1, therefore this is the maximal allowed value.

Value

Integer.

See Also

Primes, isPrime

Examples

```
p <- nextPrime(1e+6)  # 1000003
isPrime(p)            # TRUE
```

omega *Number of Prime Factors*

Description

Number of prime factors resp. sum of all exponents of prime factors in the prime decomposition.

Usage

```
omega(n)
Omega(n)
```

Arguments

n	Positive integer.

Details

'omega(n)' returns the number of prime factors of 'n' while 'Omega(n)' returns the sum of their exponents in the prime decomposition. 'omega' and 'Omega' are identical if there are no quadratic factors.

Remark: `(-1)^Omega(n)` is the Liouville function.

Value

Natural number.

Note

Works well up to `10^9`.

See Also

Sigma

Examples

```
omega(2*3*5*7*11*13*17*19)  #=> 8
Omega(2 * 3^2 * 5^3 * 7^4)  #=> 10
```

---

ordpn — *Order in Faculty*

Description

Calculates the order of a prime number `p` in `n!`, i.e. the highest exponent `e` such that `p^e|n!`.

Usage

```
ordpn(p, n)
```

Arguments

p	prime number.
n	natural number.

Details

Applies the well-known formula adding terms `floor(n/p^k)`.

Value

Returns the exponent e.

Examples

```
ordpn(2, 100)        #=> 97
ordpn(7, 100)        #=> 16
ordpn(101, 100)      #=>  0
ordpn(997, 1000)     #=>  1
```

Pascal triangle *Pascal Triangle*

Description

Generates the Pascal triangle in rectangular form.

Usage

```
pascal_triangle(n)
```

Arguments

n	integer number

Details

Pascal numbers will be generated with the usual recursion formula and stored in a rectangular scheme.

For n>50 integer overflow would happen, so use the arbitrary precision version gmp::chooseZ(n, 0:n) instead for calculating binomial numbers.

Value

Returns the Pascal triangle as an (n+1)x(n+1) rectangle with zeros filled in.

References

See Wolfram MathWorld or the Wikipedia.

Examples

```
n <- 5; P <- pascal_triangle(n)
for (i in 1:(n+1)) {
    cat(P[i, 1:i], '\n')
}
## 1
## 1 1
## 1 2 1
## 1 3 3 1
## 1 4 6 4 1
## 1 5 10 10 5 1

## Not run:
P <- pascal_triangle(50)
max(P[51, ])
## [1] 126410606437752

## End(Not run)
```

---

periodicCF *Periodic continued fraction*

Description

Generates a periodic continued fraction.

Usage

```
periodicCF(d)
```

Arguments

d	positive integer that is not a square number

Details

The function computes the periodic continued fraction of the square root of an integer that itself shall not be a square (because otherwise the integer square root will be returned). Note that the continued fraction of an irrational quadratic number is always a periodic continued fraction.

The first term is the biggest integer below `sqrt(d)` and the rest is the period of the continued fraction. The period is always exact, there is no floating point inaccuracy involved (though integer overflow may happen for very long fractions).

The underlying algorithm is sometimes called "The Fundamental Algorithm for Quadratic Numbers". The function will be utilized especially when solving Pell's equation.

Value

Returns a list with components

`cf`	the continued fraction with integer part and first period.
`plen`	the length of the period.

Note

Integer overflow may happen for very long continued fractions.

Author(s)

Hans Werner Borchers

References

Mak Trifkovic. Algebraic Theory of Quadratic Numbers. Springer Verlag, Universitext, New York 2013.

See Also

`solvePellsEq`

Examples

```
periodicCF(2)    # sqrt(2) = [1; 2,2,2,...] = [1; (2)]

periodicCF(1003)
## $cf
## [1] 31  1  2 31  2  1 62
## $plen
## [1] 6
```

`polygonal` *Polygonal Numbers*

Description

Computes the k-polygonal number(s) for an integer or a sequence of integers.

Usage

```
polygonal(k, n)
```

Arguments

`k`	single natural number, the number of sides of the polygon.
`n`	the n-th number of all k-polygonal number; can be a vector.

Details

A polygonal number is a number of dots that can be laid out to form a regular k-sided polygon, incl. triangular (k=3), square (k=4), pentagonal (k=5) and hexagonal (k=6) numbers. See the Wikipedia article "Polygonal Numbers" for visualizations of these *figurative numbers* .

```
k=3 Triangular: 1 3 6 10 15 21 28 36 45 55 ...
k=4 Square : 1 4 9 16 25 36 49 64 81 100 ...
k=5 Pentagonal: 1 5 12 22 35 51 70 92 117 145 ...
k=6 Hexagonal : 1 6 15 28 45 66 91 120 153 190 ...
...
```

Value

A natural number or a vector of such numbers.

Note

According to theorems of Gauss and Cauchy, every natural number is the sum of three triangular numbers or the sum of k k-th polygonal numbers (incl. zero).

To determine the sum of reciprocals of polygonal numbers through the special mathematical functions is an ongoing topic of research since 2007.

References

S.A. Khan. Sums of Reciprocals of Polygonal Numbers and a Theorem of Gauss. Intern. Journal of Applied Mathematics. Vol. 33 (2020), No. 2, pp. 265-282.

CCY Kwan. The Sum of Reciprocals of Polygonal Numbers: A Spreadsheet-Based Illustration. 'Spreadsheets in Education' Journal, August 2025.

See Also

the arithmetic progression function `arithmetic_progression()`.

Examples

```
polygonal(3, 1:10)  #  1   3   6  10  15  21  28  36  45  55
polygonal(4, 1:10)  #  1   4   9  16  25  36  49  64  81 100
polygonal(5, 1:10)  #  1   5  12  22  35  51  70  92 117 145
polygonal(6, 1:10)  #  1   6  15  28  45  66  91 120 153 190

# Sums of reciprocals of polygonal numbers:
n = 1000
sum(1/polygonal(3, 1:n)) # 1.998002 -> 2.0
sum(1/polygonal(4, 1:n)) # 1.643935 -> pi^2/6
sum(1/polygonal(5, 1:n)) # 1.481371 -> 3*log(3)-pi/sqrt(3)
sum(1/polygonal(6, 1:n)) # 1.385794 -> 2*log(2)
```

previousPrime *Previous Prime*

Description

Find the next prime below n.

Usage

```
previousPrime(n)
```

Arguments

n	natural number.

Details

previousPrime finds the next prime number smaller than n, while nextPrime finds the next prime number below n. In general the previousn prime will occur in the interval [n-1,n-log(n)].

In double precision arithmetic integers are represented exactly only up to 2^53 - 1, therefore this is the maximal allowed value.

Value

Integer.

See Also

Primes, isPrime

Examples

```
p <- previousPrime(1e+6)  # 999983
isPrime(p)                # TRUE
```

primeFactors *Prime Factors*

Description

primeFactors computes a vector containing the prime factors of n. radical returns the product of those unique prime factors.

Usage

```
primeFactors(n)
radical(n)
```

Arguments

n	nonnegative integer

Details

Computes the prime factors of n in ascending order, each one as often as its multiplicity requires, such that n == prod(primeFactors(n)).

radical() is used in the abc-conjecture:

abc-triple: 1 <= a < b, a, b coprime, c = a + b

for every e > 0 there are only finitely many abc-triples with

c > radical(a*b*c)^(1+e)

Value

Vector containing the prime factors of n, resp. the product of unique prime factors.

See Also

divisors, gmp::factorize

Examples

```
  primeFactors(1002001)         # 7  7  11  11  13  13
  primeFactors(65537)           # is prime
  # Euler's calculation
  primeFactors(2^32 + 1)        # 641  6700417

  radical(1002001)              # 1001

## Not run:
  for (i in 1:99) {
    for (j in (i+1):100) {
      if (coprime(i, j)) {
        k = i + j
        r = radical(i*j*k)
        q = log(k) / log(r)  # 'quality' of the triple
        if (q > 1)
          cat(q, ":\t", i, ",", j, ",", k, "\n")
        }
      }
    }
## End(Not run)
```

`Primes` *Prime Numbers*

Description

Eratosthenes resp. Atkin sieve methods to generate a list of prime numbers less or equal `n`, resp. between `n1` and `n2`.

Usage

```
Primes(n1, n2 = NULL)

atkin_sieve(n)
```

Arguments

`n, n1, n2`	natural numbers with `n1 <= n2`.

Details

The list of prime numbers up to `n` is generated using the "sieve of Eratosthenes". This approach is reasonably fast, but may require a lot of main memory when `n` is large.

`Primes` computes first all primes up to `sqrt(n2)` and then applies a refined sieve on the numbers from `n1` to `n2`, thereby drastically reducing the need for storing long arrays of numbers.

The sieve of Atkins is a modified version of the ancient prime number sieve of Eratosthenes. It applies a modulo-sixty arithmetic and requires less memory, but in R is not faster because of a double for-loop.

In double precision arithmetic integers are represented exactly only up to 2^53 - 1, therefore this is the maximal allowed value.

Value

vector of integers representing prime numbers

References

A. Atkin and D. Bernstein (2004), Prime sieves using quadratic forms. Mathematics of Computation, Vol. 73, pp. 1023-1030.

See Also

`isPrime`, `gmp::factorize`, `pracma::expint1`

Examples

```
Primes(1000)
Primes(1949, 2019)

atkin_sieve(1000)

## Not run:
##  Appendix:  Logarithmic Integrals and Prime Numbers (C.F.Gauss, 1846)

library('gsl')
# 'European' form of the logarithmic integral
Li <- function(x) expint_Ei(log(x)) - expint_Ei(log(2))

# No. of primes and logarithmic integral for 10^i, i=1..12
i <- 1:12;  N <- 10^i
# piN <- numeric(12)
# for (i in 1:12) piN[i] <- length(primes(10^i))
piN <- c(4, 25, 168, 1229, 9592, 78498, 664579,
         5761455, 50847534, 455052511, 4118054813, 37607912018)
cbind(i, piN, round(Li(N)), round((Li(N)-piN)/piN, 6))

#  i     pi(10^i)      Li(10^i)  rel.err
# --------------------------------------
#  1           4            5  0.280109
#  2          25           29  0.163239
#  3         168          177  0.050979
#  4        1229         1245  0.013094
#  5        9592         9629  0.003833
#  6       78498        78627  0.001637
#  7      664579       664917  0.000509
#  8     5761455      5762208  0.000131
#  9    50847534     50849234  0.000033
# 10   455052511    455055614  0.000007
# 11  4118054813   4118066400  0.000003
# 12 37607912018  37607950280  0.000001
# --------------------------------------
## End(Not run)
```

`primroot` *Primitive Root*

Description

Find the smallest primitive root modulo m, or find all primitive roots.

Usage

```
primroot(m, all = FALSE)
```

Arguments

`m`	A prime integer.
`all`	boolean; shall all primitive roots module p be found.

Details

For every prime number m there exists a natural number n that generates the field F_m, i.e. $n, n^2, ..., n^{m-1} mod(m)$ are all different.

The computation here is all brute force. As most primitive roots are relatively small, so it is still reasonable fast.

One trick is to factorize $m - 1$ and test only for those prime factors. In R this is not more efficient as factorization also takes some time.

Value

A natural number if `m` is prime, else `NA`.

Note

This function is *not* vectorized.

References

Arndt, J. (2010). Matters Computational: Ideas, Algorithms, Source Code. Springer-Verlag, Berlin Heidelberg Dordrecht.

See Also

`modpower`, `modorder`

Examples

```
P <- Primes(100)
R <- c()
for (p in P) {
    R <- c(R, primroot(p))
}
cbind(P, R)  # 7 is the biggest prime root here (for p=71)
```

pythagorean_triples *Pythagorean Triples*

Description

Generates all primitive Pythagorean triples (a, b, c) of integers such that $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, where a, b, c are coprime (have no common divisor) and $c_1 \le c \le c_2$.

Usage

```
pythagorean_triples(c1, c2)
```

Arguments

c1, c2	lower and upper limit of the hypothenuses c.

Details

If (a, b, c) is a primitive Pythagorean triple, there are integers m, n with $1 \le n < m$ such that

$$a = m^2 - n^2, b = 2mn, c = m^2 + n^2$$

with $gcd(m, n) = 1$ and $m - n$ being odd.

Value

Returns a matrix, one row for each Pythagorean triple, of the form (m n a b c).

References

https://mathworld.wolfram.com/PythagoreanTriple.html

Examples

```
pythagorean_triples(100, 200)
##       [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]
##  [1,]   10    1   99   20  101
##  [2,]   10    3   91   60  109
##  [3,]    8    7   15  112  113
##  [4,]   11    2  117   44  125
##  [5,]   11    4  105   88  137
##  [6,]    9    8   17  144  145
##  [7,]   12    1  143   24  145
##  [8,]   10    7   51  140  149
##  [9,]   11    6   85  132  157
## [10,]   12    5  119  120  169
## [11,]   13    2  165   52  173
## [12,]   10    9   19  180  181
## [13,]   11    8   57  176  185
## [14,]   13    4  153  104  185
```

```
## [15,]   12    7   95  168  193
## [16,]   14    1  195   28  197
```

`quadratic_residues` *Quadratic Residues*

Description

List all quadratic residues of an integer.

Usage

```
quadratic_residues(n)
```

Arguments

n	integer.

Details

Squares all numbers between 0 and `n/2` and generate a unique list of all these numbers modulo `n`.

Value

Vector of integers.

See Also

`legendre_sym`

Examples

```
quadratic_residues(17)
```

`rem` *Integer Remainder*

Description

Integer remainder function.

Usage

```
rem(n, m)
```

Arguments

n	numeric vector (preferably of integers)
m	must be a scalar integer (positive, zero, or negative)

Details

`rem(n, m)` is the same modulo operator and returns $n \, mod \, m$. `mod(n, 0)` is `NaN`, and the result always has the same sign as `n` (for `n != m` and `m != 0`).

Value

a numeric (integer) value or vector/matrix

See Also

`mod`, `div`

Examples

```
rem(c(-5:5), 5)
rem(c(-5:5), -5)
rem(0, 1)          #=> 0
rem(1, 1)          #=> 0  (always for n == m)
rem(1, 0)          #   NA  (should be NaN)
rem(0, 0)          #=> NaN
```

`Sigma` *Divisor Functions*

Description

Sum of powers of all divisors of a natural number.

Usage

```
Sigma(n, k = 1, proper = FALSE)

tau(n)
```

Arguments

n	Positive integer.
k	Numeric scalar, the exponent to be used.
proper	Logical; if `TRUE`, n will *not* be considered as a divisor of itself; default: FALSE.

Details

Total sum of all integer divisors of n to the power of k, including 1 and n.

For k=0 this is the number of divisors, for k=1 it is the sum of all divisors of n.

tau is Ramanujan's *tau* function, here computed using Sigma(., 5) and Sigma(., 11).

A number is called *refactorable*, if tau(n) divides n, for example n=12 or n=18.

Value

Natural number, the number or sum of all divisors.

Note

Works well up to 10^9.

References

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Divisor_function

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ramanujan_tau_function

See Also

primeFactors, divisors

Examples

```
sapply(1:16, Sigma, k = 0)
sapply(1:16, Sigma, k = 1)
sapply(1:16, Sigma, proper = TRUE)
```

---

solvePellsEq *Solve Pell's Equation*

Description

Find the basic, that is minimal, solution for Pell's equation, applying the technique of (periodic) continued fractions.

Usage

```
solvePellsEq(d)
```

Arguments

d	non-square integer greater 1.

Details

Solving Pell's equation means to find integer solutions `(x,y)` for the Diophantine equation

$$x^2 - d\,y^2 = 1$$

for d a non-square integer. These solutions are important in number theory and for the theory of quadratic number fields.

The procedure goes as follows: First find the periodic continued fraction for $\sqrt{d}$, then determine the convergents of this continued fraction. The last pair of convergents will provide the solution for Pell's equation.

The solution found is the minimal or *fundamental* solution. All other solutions can be derived from this one – but the numbers grow up very rapidly.

Value

Returns a list with components

`x, y`	solution (x,y) of Pell's equation.
`plen`	length of the period.
`doubled`	logical: was the period doubled?
`msg`	message either "Success" or "Integer overflow".

If 'doubled' was TRUE, there exists also a solution for the *negative* Pell equation

Note

Integer overflow may happen for the convergents, but very rarely. More often, the terms `x^2` or `y^2` can overflow the maximally representable integer `2^53-1` and checking Pell's equation may end with a value differing from `1`, though in reality the solution is correct.

Author(s)

Hans Werner Borchers

References

H.W. Lenstra Jr. Solving the Pell Equation. Notices of the AMS, Vol. 49, No. 2, February 2002.

See the "List of fundamental solutions of Pell's equations" in the Wikipedia entry for "Pell's Equation".

See Also

`periodicCF`

Examples

```
s = solvePellsEq(1003)                # $x = 9026, $y = 285
9026^2 - 1003*285^2 == 1
# TRUE
```

Stern-Brocot	*Stern-Brocot Sequence*

Description

The function generates the Stern-Brocot sequence up to length `n`.

Usage

```
stern_brocot_seq(n)
```

Arguments

`n`	integer; length of the sequence.

Details

The Stern-Brocot sequence is a sequence `S` of natural numbers beginning with

`1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 5, 2, 5, 3, 4, 1, ...`

defined with `S[1]` = `S[2]` = `1` and the following rules:

`S[k]` = `S[k/2]` if `k` is even
`S[k]` = `S[(k-1)/2]` + `S[(k+1)/2]` if `k` is not even

The Stern-Brocot has the remarkable properties that

(1) Consecutive values in this sequence are coprime;
(2) the list of rationals `S[k+1]/S[k]` (all in reduced form) covers all positive rational numbers once and once only.

Value

Returns a sequence of length `n` of natural numbers.

References

N. Calkin and H.S. Wilf. Recounting the rationals. The American Mathematical Monthly, Vol. 7(4), 2000.

Graham, Knuth, and Patashnik. Concrete Mathematics - A Foundation for Computer Science. Addison-Wesley, 1989.

See Also

`fibonacci`

Examples

```
( S <- stern_brocot_seq(92) )
# 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 5, 2, 5, 3, 4, 1,  5, 4, 7,
# 3, 8, 5, 7, 2, 7, 5, 8, 3, 7, 4, 5, 1, 6, 5, 9, 4, 11, 7, 10,
# 3, 11, 8, 13, 5, 12, 7, 9, 2, 9, 7, 12, 5, 13, 8, 11, 3, 10, 7, 11,
# 4, 9, 5, 6, 1, 7, 6, 11, 5, 14, 9, 13, 4, 15, 11, 18, 7, 17, 10, 13,
# 3, 14, 11, 19, 8, 21, 13, 18, 5, 17, 12, 19, 7, ...

table(S)
## S
##  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9 10 11 12 13 14 15 17 18 19 21
##  7  5  9  7 12  3 11  5  5  3  7  3  5  2  1  2  2  2  1

which(S == 1)  # 1  2  4  8 16 32 64

## Not run:
# Find the rational number p/q in S
# note that 1/2^n appears in position S[c(2^(n-1), 2^(n-1)+1)]
occurs <- function(p, q, s){
    # Find i such that (p, q) = s[i, i+1]
    inds <- seq.int(length = length(s)-1)
    inds <- inds[p == s[inds]]
    inds[q == s[inds + 1]]
}
p = 3; q = 7        # 3/7
occurs(p, q, S)     # S[28, 29]

'%//%' <- function(p, q) gmp::as.bigq(p, q)
n <- length(S)
S[1:(n-1)] %//% S[2:n]
## Big Rational ('bigq') object of length 91:
##  [1] 1     1/2  2     1/3   3/2   2/3   3     1/4   4/3   3/5
## [11] 5/2   2/5  5/3   3/4   4     1/5   5/4   4/7   7/3   3/8   ...

as.double(S[1:(n-1)] %//% S[2:n])
## [1] 1.000000 0.500000 2.000000 0.333333 1.500000 0.666667 3.000000
## [8] 0.250000 1.333333 0.600000 2.500000 0.400000 1.666667 0.750000 ...

## End(Not run)
```

---

twinPrimes *Twin Primes*

Description

Generate a list of twin primes between n1 and n2.

Usage

```
twinPrimes(n1, n2)
```

Arguments

n1, n2	natural numbers with n1 <= n2.

Details

twinPrimes uses Primes and uses diff to find all twin primes in the given interval.

In double precision arithmetic integers are represented exactly only up to 2^53 - 1, therefore this is the maximal allowed value.

Value

Returnes a nx2-matrix, where nis the number of twin primes found, and each twin tuple fills one row.

See Also

Primes

Examples

```
twinPrimes(1e6+1, 1e6+1001)
```

---

zeck — *Zeckendorf Representation*

Description

Generates the Zeckendorf representation of an integer as a sum of Fibonacci numbers.

Usage

```
zeck(n)
```

Arguments

n	integer.

Details

According to Zeckendorfs theorem from 1972, each integer can be uniquely represented as a sum of Fibonacci numbers such that no two of these are consecutive in the Fibonacci sequence.

The computation is simply the greedy algorithm of finding the highest Fibonacci number below n, subtracting it and iterating.

Value

List with components fibs the Fibonacci numbers that add sum up to n, and inds their indices in the Fibonacci sequence.

Examples

```
zeck(  10)  #=> 2 + 8 = 10
zeck( 100)  #=> 3 + 8 + 89 = 100
zeck(1000)  #=> 13 + 987 = 1000
```

Index