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Densification of Witnesses for Randomized Algorithm Design

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Author's contribution

The sole author designed, analysed, interpreted and prepared the manuscript.

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Abstract

This paper investigates the densification of witnesses for randomized algorithm design and its application in factoring integers. By defining a set operation named with Cartesian subtraction on two countable sets and proving several properties of the operation, it is shown that the Cartesian subtraction can densify certain elements in a countable set so as to promote the abundance of witnesses for the randomized algorithm design. It is also proven that the Cartesian subtraction of two sets containing consecutive integers can form a triangular lattice zone that has a higher density of witnesses. Through designing an algorithm of a two-dimensional simple random walk on the triangular lattice zone, it is demonstrated that composite integers can be factored by means of the random walk. The study of the paper explores a pathway feasible and workable to densify the small witnesses in a countable set for randomized algorithm designs.

Keywords: Set operation; randomized algorithm; random walk; integer factorization. 2010 Mathematics Subject Classification: 03E99,68Q87, 68W20, 60G50.

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1 Introduction

Finding out a hidden (or unknown) objective element in a set is a necessary task in many scientific research activities, e.g., solving an equation. When we want to find an unknown object related to an element in a discrete set, e.g., find a divisor of a composite integer N, randomized algorithms are frequently applied, as claimed in [1] and summarized in [2]. When applying the random algorithm, the abundance of witnesses is a critical issue to affect the searching cost, as Richard M Karp pointed out [3]. Promoting the efficiency to find a witness is sure to reduce the searching cost. Accordingly, scholars made certain researches on the topic. Some researched witness generators [4][5][6], and some researched efficient searching techniques for small witnesses[7][8][9]. However, seen in the literatures, few have been found to concentrate the witnesses or make the witnesses denser. Densification of the witnesses is sure to increase the probability of successful searches and reduce the searching cost.

This paper aims at the densification of the witnesses and its application in integer factorization. By defining a Cartesian subtraction on countable finite sets, it is discovered that certain single element in a countable finite set can be made repeated finite many times and distributed sparsely in the set formed by the Cartesian subtraction. By such means, the abundance of the witnesses is naturally promoted for designing the randomized algorithms. The paper proves the related results and tests the results by applying a two-dimensional simple random walk to factoring integers.

The paper consists of five sections. Section 2 gives the definition of the Cartesian subtraction; section 3 proves 7 lemmas, 3 theorems, and 7 corollaries; section 4, explores the application of the proven results to integer factorization; section 5 presents the future work and hopes.

2 Preliminaries

This section presents necessary symbols, notations, definitions, and fundamental knowledge for later investigation.

2.1 Classical terminologies and symbols

In this whole paper, a set is assumed to be finite, countable, unordered, and to have subtractive operation related with its elements. Symbols ∅,∪,− , and ∈, which are used to operate on sets, are used as their usual meanings introduced in the textbooks. Particularly, $A - B$ means removing from A all the elements that are also in B. Symbol $A \Rightarrow B$ means conclusion B can be derived from condition A, or we can reason from A to B. Symbols $|x|$ and $[x]$ are respectively the floor and ceil functions such that $x - 1 < |x| \le x \le [x] < x + 1$ or $x = |x| + \{x\} = |x| - 1 + \{x\}$, where $\{x\}$ is the fractional part of x. Symbol $x = a \mod b$ means x is the remainder of a dividing by b, namely, $a = kb + x$, where a, b, k, and x are all integers.

2.2 New notations

Let S be a finite set and $e \in S$; the number of e is called the multiplicity of e and denoted with m_e . For example, $S = \{1, 2, 2, 3\} \Rightarrow m_1 = 1, m_2 = 2$, and $m_3 = 1$. Symbol $e^{\vee m}$ means e is repeated by m times and placed together without considering their orders, namely, $e^{\vee m} = e, e, ..., e$. By this means, $S = \{1, 2, 3, 2\} = \{1^{\vee 1}, 2^{\vee 2}, 3^{\vee 1}\}$. ${m}$ times

Let $X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$ be a finite set containing $n > 0$ elements; symbol X^k with integer $k > 0$ means the set

$$
\{\underbrace{x_1, x_1, ..., x_1}_{k}, \underbrace{x_2, x_2, ..., x_2}_{k}, ..., \underbrace{x_n, x_n, ..., x_n}_{k} \} = \{x_1^{\vee k}, x_2^{\vee k}, ..., x_n^{\vee k}\} = \{x_1^{\vee k}\} \cup \{x_2^{\vee k}\} \cup ... \cup \{x_n^{\vee k}\}
$$

Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$ be a finite set of n integers, where $n > 0$ is an integer; then $-A = \{-a_1, -a_2, ..., -a_n\}$, and $B = A(\text{mod}X)$ means $B = \{a_1 \text{ mod } X, a_2 \text{ mod } X, ..., a_n \text{ mod } X\}$, where $X \neq 0$ is an integer. If $B =$ $\{b_1, b_2, ..., b_n\}$ is a set of $n > 0$ integers, $B \equiv A \pmod{X}$ means $b_i \equiv a_i \pmod{X}$ for $i = 1, 2, ..., n$.

An integer interval [a, b] means the set of all the integers bounded with a and b with $a < b$; for example, integer interval $[5, 9] = \{5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$. An old integer interval $[a, b]$ means the set of all the odd integers bounded with odd integers a and b with $a < b$; for example, odd integer interval [5, 9] = {5, 7, 9}. If an integer interval contains integer x, that integer interval is called a host interval of x. If d is a nontrivial divisor of nonzero integer n , n is called a host number of d or a number hosting d .

2.3 New definitions

Definition 2.1. Let $X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$ be a finite set, where $n > 0$ is an integer; X is called a zero set if each of its elements is zero, namely, $X = \{0, 0, ..., 0\}$. Use $X = 0$ to indicate X is a zero set.

$$
\overbrace{n \quad ones}
$$

Definition 2.2. Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_s\}$ and $B = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_t\}$, where s and t are positive integers; the Cartesian subtraction $B \ominus A$ is defined to be the set

$$
B \ominus A = \{b_i - a_j | b_i \in B, a_j \in A, 1 \le i \le t, 1 \le j \le s\}
$$

For convenience, it is simply denoted by

$$
B \ominus A = \{b_i - a_j | b_i \in B, a_j \in A\}
$$

Obviously, $B \ominus A \neq \emptyset$.

Remark 2.1. 'Cartesian subtraction' is named by referring to the terminology 'Cartesian product' , which can be found in many literatures, e.g., Eric's book [10]. Seen at page 2670 of [10], the Cartesian product of two sets A and B is defined to be the set of all points (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Definition 2.2 is derived according to this concept. Likewise, the Cartesian sum of two sets can also be defined by

$$
A \oplus B = \{a_j + b_i | a_j \in A, b_i \in B\}
$$

However, this paper merely concerns the Cartesian subtraction.

Definition 2.3. Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$ be a finite set, where n is a positive integer. The set \tilde{A} formed by all the distinct terms in A is called the core of A. For example, $A = \{1, 2, 2, 3\} \Rightarrow \tilde{A} = \{1, 2, 3\}.$

3 Main Results

Several lemmas are obtained to describe the properties of $B \ominus A$ in the general case; several theorems and corollaries are also obtained with respect to the sets of integers.

3.1 General properties

Lemma 3.1. Assume $A = \{a\}, B = \{b\}$, and $C = \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_n\}$, where $n > 0$ is an integer; let $C_A = C \oplus A$ and $C_B = C \ominus B$; then

$$
C_A \cup C_B = \{c_i - x_j |, c_i \in C, x_j \in A \cup B\}
$$

or

$$
(C \ominus A) \cup (C \ominus B) = C \ominus (A \cup B)
$$

Proof. Direct calculations show

$$
\begin{cases}\nC_A = \{c_1 - a, c_2 - a, ..., c_n - a\} \\
C_B = \{c_1 - b, c_2 - b, ..., c_n - b\} \\
= \{c_1 - a, c_2 - a, ..., c_n - a, c_1 - b, c_2 - b, ..., c_n - b\}\n\end{cases}
$$

Let $X = \{c_i - x_j |, c_i \in C, x_j \in A \cup B\}$; then

$$
X = \{c_1 - a, c_2 - a, ..., c_n - a, c_1 - b, c_2 - b, ..., c_n - b\}
$$

As a result,

$$
C_A \cup C_B = X
$$

establishing the lemma.

Lemma 3.2. Assume $A_1 = \{a_1\}, A_2 = \{a_2\}, A = \{a_1, a_2\} = A_1 \cup A_2$, and $B = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_n\}$, where $n > 0$ is an integer; let

$$
C_1 = B \ominus A_1 = \{b_i - a_1 |, b_i \in B, a_1 \in A\}, C_2 = B \ominus A_2 = \{b_i - a_2 |, b_i \in B, a_2 \in A\}
$$

and

$$
C = B \ominus A = \{b_i - a_j |, b_i \in B, a_j \in A\}
$$

then or

 $B \ominus A = (B \ominus A_1) \cup (B \ominus A_2)$

 $C = C_1 \cup C_2$

Proof. This lemma is an alternative statement of Lemma 3.1. Thus the proof is the same as that to prove Lemma 3.1. \Box

Lemma 3.3. Assume $A = A_1 \cup A_2$ and $B = B_1 \cup B_2$, where A_1, A_2, B_1 , and B_2 are nonempty sets; then

$$
B \ominus A = \bigcup_{i,j=1,2} (B_i \ominus A_j)
$$

More generally, $A = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_k$ and $B = B_1 \cup B_2 \cup ... \cup B_l$ yield

$$
B \ominus A = \cup (B_i \ominus A_j)
$$

where k and l are positive integers, $A_i \neq \emptyset$, and $B_j \neq \emptyset$ for $1 \leq i \leq l$ and $1 \leq j \leq k$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, assume $A_1 = \{a_{11}, a_{12}, ..., a_{1s}\}, A_2 = \{a_{21}, a_{22}, ..., a_{2t}\}, B_1 = \{b_{11}, b_{12}, ..., b_{1u}\},$ and $B_2 = \{b_{21}, b_{22}, ..., b_{2v}\}\$, where s, t, u, and v are positive integers; let $C = B \ominus A$; then by definition

$$
B \ominus A = \{b_{1i} - a_{1x}, b_{1i} - a_{2y}, b_{2j} - a_{1x}, b_{2j} - a_{2y} | b_{1i}, b_{2j} \in B, a_{1x}, a_{2y} \in A, 1 \le i \le u, 1 \le j \le v, 1 \le x \le s, 1 \le y \le t\}
$$

Since

$$
B_1 \ominus A_1 = \{b_{1i} - a_{1x}|b_{1i} \in B, a_{1x} \in A, 1 \le i \le u, 1 \le x \le s\}
$$

\n
$$
B_1 \ominus A_2 = \{b_{1i} - a_{2y}|b_{1i} \in B, a_{2y} \in A, 1 \le i \le u, 1 \le y \le t\}
$$

\n
$$
B_2 \ominus A_1 = \{b_{2j} - a_{1x}|b_{2j} \in B, a_{1x} \in A, 1 \le j \le v, 1 \le x \le s\}
$$

and

$$
B_2 \ominus A_2 = \{b_{2j} - a_{2y}|, b_{2j} \in B, a_{2y} \in A, 1 \le j \le v, 1 \le y \le t\}
$$

it is sure $B \ominus A = \bigcup_{i,j=1,2} (B_i \ominus A_j).$

The general case is proven in the same way.

 \Box

Lemma 3.4. Assume $A = \{a\}$, $B = \{a, a\}$ and $C = \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_n\}$, where $n > 0$ is an integer. Let

$$
C_A = C \ominus A = \{c_i - a |, c_i \in C, a \in A\}
$$

and

$$
C_B = C \ominus B = \{c_i - x_j |, c_i \in C, x_j \in B\}
$$

then

$$
C_B = C_A^2
$$

$$
or
$$

 $C \ominus B = C \ominus A^2 = (C \ominus A)^2$

More generally, $A = \{a\}$ and $X = \{a, a, ..., a\}$ \overline{k} ones } yield $C \ominus X = C_A^k$ or

$$
f_{\rm{max}}
$$

$$
C \ominus X = C \ominus A^k = (C \ominus A)^k
$$

Proof. Direct calculations show

 $\int C_A = \{c_1 - a, c_2 - a, ..., c_n - a\}$ $C_B = \{c_1 - a, c_2 - a, ..., c_n - a\}$
 $C_B = \{c_1 - a, c_1 - a, c_2 - a, c_2 - a ..., c_n - a, c_n - a\}$ $\Rightarrow C_B = C_A^2$

Since $B = A^2$, it follows

$$
C \ominus B = C \ominus A^2 = (C \ominus A)^2
$$

Since $X = A^k$, it holds

$$
C \ominus X = C \ominus A^{k} = \{(c_{1} - a)^{\vee k}, (c_{2} - a)^{\vee k}, ..., (c_{n} - a)^{\vee k}\} = C_{A}^{k} = (C \ominus A)^{k}
$$

Lemma 3.4*. Assume $A = \{a\}$, $B = \{a, a\}$ and $C = \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_n\}$, where $n > 0$ is an integer. Let

$$
C_A = A \ominus C = \{a - c_i |, c_i \in C, a \in A\}
$$

and

$$
C_B = B \ominus C = \{x_j - c_i |, c_i \in C, x_j \in B\}
$$

then

$$
C_B = C_A^2
$$

or

 $B \ominus C = A^2 \ominus C = (A \ominus C)^2$ More generally, $A = \{a\}$ and $X = \{a, a, ..., a\}$ yield $X \ominus C = C_A^k$ or \overline{k} ones

$$
X \ominus C = A^k \ominus C = (A \ominus C)^k
$$

Proof. Direct calculations show

$$
\begin{cases} C_A = \{a - c_1, a - c_2, ..., a - c_n\} \\ C_B = \{a - c_1, a - c_1, a - c_2, a - c_2, ..., a - c_n, a - c_n\} \Rightarrow C_B = C_A^2 \end{cases}
$$

Hence it follows

$$
C \ominus B = C \ominus A^2 = (C \ominus A)^2
$$

Since $X = A^k$, it holds

$$
X \ominus C = A^{k} \ominus C = \{(a - c_{1})^{\vee k}, (a - c_{2})^{\vee k}, ..., (a - c_{n})^{\vee k}\} = C_{A}^{k} = (A \ominus C)^{k}
$$

Lemma 3.5. Assume $A = \{a\}$ and $B = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_n\}$, where $n > 0$ is an integer; then

$$
(A \ominus B)^k = -(B \ominus A)^k
$$

where $k > 0$ is an integer.

Proof. Comparison to the proofs of Lemma 3.4 and Lemma 3.4* immediately results in this lemma. \Box **Lemma 3.6.** Assume $A = \{a\}$, $B = \{b\}$ and $C = \{c\}$; then

$$
(C \ominus A^g) \cup (C \ominus B^g) = ((C \ominus A) \cup C \ominus B))^g
$$

where g is a positive integer.

Proof. Since
$$
A^g = \{a, a, ..., a\}
$$
 and $B^g = \{b, b, ..., b\}$, direct calculations show
\n
$$
g \quad times
$$
\n
$$
\begin{cases}\nC \ominus A^g = \{c - a, c - a, ..., c - a\} = \{(c - a)^{\vee g}\} \\
C \ominus B^g = \{c - b, c - b, ..., c - b\} = \{(c - b)^{\vee g}\} \\
g \quad times \\
g \quad times \\
\Rightarrow (C \ominus A^g) \cup (C \ominus A^g) = \{(c - a)^{\vee g}, (c - b)^{\vee g}\} = ((C \ominus A) \cup (C \ominus B))^g\n\end{cases}
$$

Lemma 3.7. Assume $A = \{a, a, ..., a\}$ $\sum_{p \quad ones}$ } and $B = \{b, b, ..., b\}$ \overline{q} ones }, where p and q are positive integers. Let

$$
C = B \ominus A = \{b_i - a_j |, b_i \in B, a_j \in A\}
$$

then

$$
C = \{(b-a)^{\vee pq}\}
$$

Proof. . Direct calculations show

$$
C = \{(\underbrace{b-a})^{\vee p}, (\underbrace{b-a})^{\vee p}, ..., (\underbrace{b-a})^{\vee p}\} = \{(b-a)^{\vee pq}\}
$$

 \Box

 \Box

3.2 Properties related to integer sets

Theorem 3.8. Let k and l be two positive integers, $\alpha = \min(k, l)$, and $\beta = \max(k, l)$; assume $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_k\}$ and $B = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_l\}$ are two sets of consecutive integers such that $b_1 - a_k = \omega \geq 0$; let C be the Cartesian subtraction $B \ominus A$ defined by

$$
C = B \ominus A = \{c_{ij} = b_i - a_j | b_i \in B, a_j \in A\}
$$

then the following statements hold:

1. The element c_{ij} is calculated by

$$
c_{ij} = b_i - a_j = \omega + (i - 1) + (k - j), i = 1, 2, ..., l; j = 1, 2, ..., k.
$$
\n(3.1)

Consequently, C contains kl elements among which the smallest one is ω , the biggest one is $\omega+(l-1)+(k-1)$.

2. There are in C totally $k+l-1$ distinct elements, which are $\omega, \omega+1, \ldots$, and $\omega+(l-1)+(k-1)$. Accordingly, there are certain duplicative elements in C and the multiplicity of each element is given by

$$
m_{\omega} = 1, m_{\omega+1} = 2, ..., m_{\omega+\alpha-2} = \alpha - 1,
$$

\n
$$
m_{\omega+\alpha-1} = ... = m_{\omega+\beta-1} = \alpha,
$$

\n
$$
m_{\omega+\beta} = \alpha - 1, m_{\omega+\beta+1} = \alpha - 2, ..., m_{\omega+\beta+\alpha-3} = 2, m_{\omega+\beta+\alpha-2} = 1.
$$
\n(3.2)

That is to say, among the k + l-1 distinct elements in C, there are $\beta - \alpha + 1$ ones with multiplicity α , 2 ones with multiplicity α -1, 2 ones with multiplicity α -2, and so forth, 2 ones with multiplicity 1.

Proof. Since A and B are sets of consecutive positive integers, it knows $b_i = b_1 + i - 1$ and $a_i = a_1 + j - 1 =$ $a_k - k + j$. Consequently, it holds

$$
b_i - a_j = b_1 + i - 1 - (a_k - k + j) = b_1 - a_k + (i - 1) + k - j = \omega + (i - 1) + (k - j)
$$

which is just the formula (3.1).

Now writing C in the following form of rows and columns

$$
C = \left\{\begin{array}{cccc}b_1 - a_1, & b_1 - a_2, & b_1 - a_3, & \dots & b_1 - a_k, \\b_2 - a_1, & b_2 - a_2, & b_2 - a_3, & \dots & b_2 - a_k, \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\b_l - a_1, & b_l - a_2, & b_l - a_3, & \dots & b_l - a_k\end{array}\right\}
$$

If $k = l$, it yields

$$
C = \begin{Bmatrix} \omega + k - 1, & \omega + k - 2, & \omega + k - 3, & \dots & \omega, \\ \omega + k & & \omega + k - 1, & \omega + k - 2, & \dots & \omega + 1, \\ \dots & & & & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \omega + 2k - 2, & \omega + 2k - 3, & \omega + 2k - 4, & \dots & \frac{c_{kk}}{k} = \omega + k - 1 \end{Bmatrix}
$$
(3.3)

If $k < l$, it follows

$$
C = \left\{\begin{array}{ll}\n\omega + k - 1, & \omega + k - 2, & \omega + k - 3, & \dots & \omega, \\
\omega + k & \omega + k - 1, & \omega + k - 2, & \dots & \omega + 1, \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\omega + 2k - 2, & \omega + 2k - 3, & \omega + 2k - 4, & \dots & \frac{c_{kk}}{\omega + k,} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\omega + 2k - 1, & \omega + 2k - 2, & \omega + 2k - 3, & \dots & \frac{c_{kk}}{\omega + k,} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\omega + l - 1 + k - 1, & \omega + l - 1 + k - 2, & \omega + l - 1 + k - 3, & \dots & \frac{c_{lk}}{\omega + k - 1}\n\end{array}\right\}
$$
\n(3.4)

If $k > l$, it follows

$$
C = \left\{\begin{array}{cccccc}\n\omega + k - 1 & \omega + k - 2 & \dots & \omega + k - l & \omega + k - l - 1 & \dots & \omega \\
\omega + k & \omega + k - 1 & \dots & \omega + k - l + 1 & \omega + k - l & \dots & \omega + 1 \\
\dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
\omega + k + l - 2 & \omega + k + l - 3 & \dots & \frac{c_{ll} = \omega + k - 1}{\omega + k - 1} & \omega + k - 2 & \dots & \frac{c_{lk} = \omega + l - 1}{\omega + k - 2}\n\end{array}\right\}
$$
(3.5)

The formulas (3.3) , (3.4) , and (3.5) obviously show that C contains kl elements among which ω is the smallest one and $\omega + (l-1)+(k-1)$ is the biggest one. The formulas (3.3), (3.4), and (3.5) also prove the law revealed in (3.2). \Box Remark 3.1. In $(3.3),(3.4)$, and (3.5) , C is orderly expressed in terms of its elements. Without considering the order of the elements, for the case $k \neq l$, C is expressed by

$$
C = \{\omega^{\vee 1}, (\omega + 1)^{\vee 2}, ..., (\omega + \alpha - 2)^{\vee(\alpha - 1)}, (\omega + \alpha - 1)^{\vee \alpha}, (\omega + \alpha)^{\vee \alpha}, ..., (\omega + \beta - 1)^{\vee \alpha}, (\omega + \beta)^{\vee(\alpha - 1)}, ..., (\omega + \beta + \alpha - 3)^{\vee 2}, (\omega + \beta + \alpha - 2)^{\vee 1}\}
$$

For the case $k = l$, it yields

$$
C = \{\omega^{\vee 1}, (\omega + 1)^{\vee 2}, ..., (\omega + \alpha - 2)^{\vee(\alpha - 1)}, (\omega + \alpha - 1)^{\vee \alpha}, (\omega + \alpha)^{\vee(\alpha - 1)}, ..., (\omega + 2\alpha - 3)^{\vee 2}, (\omega + 2\alpha - 2)^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Let m_x , where $x \in C$, be the multiplicity function on C; then its graph is depicted as Fig 1.

Fig. 1. Graph of m_x with $l \ge k > 0$

Example 3.9. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $B = \{5, 6, 7, 8\}$; then $k = 4$, $l = 4$, $\omega = 1$, and

$$
C = \{4, 3, 2, 1, 5, 4, 3, 2, 6, 5, 4, 3, 7, 6, 5, 4\} = \{1^{\vee 1}, 2^{\vee 2}, 3^{\vee 3}, 4^{\vee 4}, 5^{\vee 3}, 6^{\vee 2}, 7^{\vee 1}\}
$$

It can be seen that, the number λ appears λ times, the number 3 appears 3 times and the number 2 appears 2 times. That is $m_1 = 1$, $m_2 = 2$, $m_3 = 3$, $m_4 = 4$, $m_5 = 3$, $m_6 = 2$, and $m_1 = 7$.

Example 3.10. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7\}$; then $k = 4$, $l = 4$, $\omega = 0$, and

$$
C = \{3, 2, 1, 0, 4, 3, 2, 1, 5, 4, 3, 2, 6, 5, 4, 3\} = \{0^{\vee 1}, 1^{\vee 2}, 2^{\vee 3}, 3^{\vee 4}, 4^{\vee 3}, 5^{\vee 2}, 6^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Hence $m_0 = 1, m_1 = 2, m_2 = 3, m_3 = 4, m_4 = 3, m_5 = 2, and m_6 = 1.$

Example 3.11. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{5, 6, 7, 8\}$; then $k = 3$, $l = 4$, $\omega = 2$, and

$$
C = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 3, 4, 5, 6, 2, 3, 4, 5\} = \{2^{\vee 1}, 3^{\vee 2}, 4^{\vee 3}, 5^{\vee 3}, 6^{\vee 2}, 7^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Hence $m_2 = 1, m_3 = 2, m_4 = 3, m_5 = 3, m_6 = 2, and m_7 = 1.$

Example 3.12. Let
$$
A = \{-3, -2, -1\}
$$
 and $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$; then $k = 3$, $l = 4$, $\omega = 1$, and

$$
C = \{3, 4, 5, 6, 2, 3, 4, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4\} = \{1^{\vee 1}, 2^{\vee 2}, 3^{\vee 3}, 4^{\vee 3}, 5^{\vee 2}, 6^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Hence $m_1 = 1, m_2 = 2, m_3 = 3, m_4 = 3, m_5 = 2, and m_6 = 1.$

Example 3.13. Let $A = \{-4, -3, -2, -1\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$; then $k = 3$, $l = 4$, $\omega = 2$, and $C = \{5, 4, 3, 2, 6, 5, 4, 3, 7, 6, 5, 4, 8, 7, 6, 5\} = \{2^{\vee 1}, 3^{\vee 2}, 4^{\vee 3}, 5^{\vee 4}, 6^{\vee 3}, 7^{\vee 2}, 8^{\vee 1}\}$

Hence $m_2 = 1, m_3 = 2, m_4 = 3, m_5 = 4, m_6 = 3, m_7 = 2, and m_8 = 1.$

Example 3.14. Let $A = \{-3, -2, -1\}$ and $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$; then $k = 4$, $l = 5$, $\omega = 1$, and

$$
C = \{3,4,5,6,7,2,3,4,5,6,1,2,3,4,5\} = \{1^{\vee 1}, 2^{\vee 2}, 3^{\vee 3}, 4^{\vee 3}, 5^{\vee 3}, 6^{\vee 2}, 7^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Hence $m_1 = 1, m_2 = 2, m_3 = 3, m_4 = 3, m_5 = 3, m_6 = 2, and m_7 = 1.$

Example 3.15. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $B = \{7, 8, 9, 10\}$; then $k = 6$, $l = 4$, $\omega = 1$,

$$
C = \{6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4\}
$$

=
$$
\{1^{\vee 1}, 2^{\vee 2}, 3^{\vee 3}, 4^{\vee 4}, 5^{\vee 4}, 6^{\vee 4}, 7^{\vee 3}, 8^{\vee 2}, 9^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Hence $m_1 = 1, m_2 = 2, m_3 = 3, m_4 = 4, m_5 = 4, m_6 = 4, m_7 = 3, m_8 = 2, and m_9 = 1.$

Corollary 3.16. Let k, l, A, B and C be defined as those in Theorem 3.8; if $A = B$, then

1. The elements in C are list in rows and columns by

$$
C = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} 0, & -1, & -2, & \dots, & 1-k, \\ 1, & 0, & -1, & \dots & 2-k, \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ k-1, & k-2, & k-3, & \dots & 0 \end{array} \right\}
$$
(3.6)

or

$$
C = \{ (1-k)^{\vee 1}, (2-k)^{\vee 2}, \dots, -1^{\vee (k-1)}, 0^{\vee k}, 1^{\vee (k-1)}, 2^{\vee (k-2)}, \dots, (k-2)^{\vee 2}, (k-1)^{\vee 1} \} \tag{3.7}
$$

\nwhich leads to $m_{1-k} = 1, m_{2-k} = 2, \dots, m_{-p} = k - p, \dots, m_{-2} = k - 2, m_{-1} = k - 1, m_0 = k, \dots, m_1 = k - 1, m_2 = k - 2, \dots, m_p = k - p, \dots, m_{k-2} = 2, and m_{k-1} = 1.$

2. There are k elements between two repeated elements that take the same value.

Proof. The condition $A = B$ yields $\omega = 1 - k$. This and (3.3) soon result in (3.6) and (3.7). The list (3.6) also establishes the conclusion 2. \Box

Remark 3.2. Consider \hat{C} such that $\hat{c}_{ij} = |c_{ij}|$, where $\hat{c}_{ij} \in \hat{C}$; then

$$
\hat{C} = \{0^{\vee k}, 1^{\vee 2(k-1)}, 2^{\vee 2(k-2)}, ..., p^{\vee 2(k-p)}, ..., (k-2)^{\vee 4}, (k-1)^{\vee 2}\}\
$$
\n(3.8)

Corollary 3.17. Let α , β , ω , A, and B be defined as those in Theorem 3.8, and \hat{C} be defined with $\hat{c}_{ij} = |c_{ij}|$; then when $B = A$ there are totally k^2 elements in \hat{C} among which there are $2(k - s)$ ones take value s, where s is an integer with $0 < s \leq k - 1$.

Proof. Let $C = B \ominus A$. By Theorem 3.8, C contains k^2 elements when $B = A$. Hence \hat{C} contains k^2 elements because it has the same number of elements as C has. The second conclusion is seen in (3.8) . \Box

Example 3.18. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$; then

$$
C = \{0, -1, -2, -3, 1, 0, -1, -2, 2, 1, 0, -1, 3, 2, 1, 0\} = \{-3^{\vee 1}, -2^{\vee 2}, -1^{\vee 3}, 0^{\vee 4}, 1^{\vee 3}, 2^{\vee 2}, 3^{\vee 1}\} \Rightarrow \hat{C} = \{0^{\vee 4}, 1^{\vee 6}, 2^{\vee 4}, 3^{\vee 2}\}
$$

Corollary 3.19. Let $A = [a + 1, a + j], B = [a + j + 1, a + j + k], C = [a + j + k + 1, a + j + k + l]$ be integer intervals, and $S = A \cup B \cup C$, where a is an integer, $j \ge 1$, $k \ge 1$, and $l \ge 1$; then

$$
S \ominus S = \{ (1-j-k-l)^{\vee 1}, ..., -j^{\vee (k+l)} ..., -1^{\vee (j+k+l-1)}, 0^{\vee (j+k+l)}, 1^{\vee (j+k+l-1)}, ...,
$$

$$
j^{\vee (k+l)}, (j+1)^{\vee (k+l-1)}, (j+2)^{\vee (k+l-2)}, ..., (j+k)^{\vee l}, ..., (j+k+l-1)^{\vee 1} \}
$$

Let $\hat{S} = \{ |e_{ij}| | e_{ij} \in S \ominus S \};\$ then

$$
\hat{S} = \{0^{(\gamma(j+k+l))}, 1^{(\gamma(2(j+k+l-1))}, \dots, j^{(\gamma(2(k+l))}, (j+1)^{(\gamma(2(k+l-1))}, (j+2)^{(\gamma(2(k+l-2))}, \dots, (j+k)^{(\gamma(2k+l-1)})^{(\gamma(2k+l-1))})\}
$$

Proof. The conclusions are directly from (3.7) and (3.8).

Remark 3.3. Taking $a = 0$ in Corollary 3.19 results in $A = [1, j], B = [j + 1, j + k], C = [j + k + 1, j + k + l],$ and $S = [1, j+k+l]$. It is seen that, the bigger k and l are, the more multiplicity of the elements from $[1, j-1]$ and $[j, j+k]$.

Example 3.20. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $B = \{5, 6, 7\}$, $C = \{8, 9, 10, 11\}$; then $a = 0$, $j = 4$, $k = 3$, $l = 4$, and $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11\},\$

$$
S \ominus S = \left\{\n\begin{array}{cccccc}\n0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, & -5, & -6, & -7, & -8, & -9, & -10, \\
1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, & -5, & -6, & -7, & -8, & -9, \\
2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, & -5, & -6, & -7, & -8, \\
3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, & -5, & -6, & -7, \\
4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, & -5, & -6, \\
5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, & -5, \\
6, & 5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, & \\
7, & 6, & 5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, & -4, \\
8, & 7, & 6, & 5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, & -3, \\
9, & 8, & 7, & 6, & 5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, & -2, \\
10, & 9, & 8, & 7, & 6, & 5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0, & -1, \\
10, & 9, & 8, & 7, & 6, & 5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, & 0 \\
6^{111}, 1^{110}, 2^{19}, -8^{13}, -7^{14}, -6^{15}, -5^{16}, -4^{17}, -3^{18}, -2^{19}, -1^{110}, \\
0^{111}, 1^{110}, 2^{19}, 3^{18}, 4^{17}, 5^{16}, 6^{15}, 7^{14}, 8^{13}, 9^{12}, 10^{11}\n\end{array}\n\right\}
$$

and

$$
\hat{S} = \{0^{\lor 11}, 1^{\lor 20}, 2^{\lor 18}, 3^{\lor 16}, 4^{\lor 14}, 5^{\lor 12}, 6^{\lor 10}, 7^{\lor 8}, 8^{\lor 6}, 9^{\lor 4}, 10^{\lor 2}\}
$$

Corollary 3.21. Let a be an integer; taking $A = \{a\}$, $B = \{a+1, ..., a+k\}$, $C = \{a+k+1, a+k+2, ..., a+k+l\}$, and $S = A \cup B \cup C$, where $k \ge 1$ and $l \ge 1$ are integers; then

$$
S \ominus S = \{-(k+l)^{\vee 1}, -k^{\vee (l+1)}, ..., -2^{\vee (k+l-1)}, -1^{\vee (k+l)}, 0^{\vee (k+l+1)}, 1^{\vee (k+l)}, 2^{\vee (k+l-1)}, ..., k^{\vee (l+1)}, ..., (k+l)^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Let $\hat{S} = \{ |e_{ij}||e_{ij} \in S \ominus S \}$; then

$$
\hat{S} = \{0^{\vee (k+l+1)}, 1^{\vee 2(k+l)}, 2^{\vee 2(k+l-1)}, ..., k^{\vee 2(l+1)}, ..., (k+l)^{\vee 2}\}
$$

Proof. (Omitted).

Theorem 3.22. Let A and B be defined as those in Theorem 3.8; then for positive integer g, it holds

 $B \ominus A^g = (B \ominus A)^g$

and

 $A^g \ominus B = (A \ominus B)^g$

Proof. Let $A_i = \{a_i\}$ with $i = 1, 2, ..., k$ and $B_j = \{b_j\}$ with $j = 1, 2, ..., l$; then $A = \bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} A_i$, $B = \bigcup_{1 \le j \le l} B_i$, $A_i^g = \{ \underbrace{a_i, a_i, ..., a_i}_{1 \leq i \leq k} \}$, and $A^g = \bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq k} A_i^g$. $\frac{1}{g}$ times

Since

$$
B\ominus A^g=B\ominus\big(\underset{1\leq i\leq k}{\cup}A^g_i\big)=\big(\underset{1\leq j\leq k}{\cup}B_j\big)\ominus\big(\underset{1\leq i\leq k}{\cup}A^g_i\big)
$$

By Lemmas 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.6, it holds

$$
B \ominus A^g = \bigcup_{1 \leq j \leq k} (B_j \ominus (\bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq k} A_i^g)) = \bigcup_{1 \leq j \leq k} (B_j \ominus (\bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq k} A_i))^g = \bigcup_{1 \leq j \leq k} (B_j \ominus A)^g = (B \ominus A)^g
$$

Similarly, it holds

$$
A^g \ominus B = (A \ominus B)^g
$$

 \Box

Example 3.23. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\hat{A} = A^2 = \{1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4\}$ and $\hat{B} = \{5, 6, 7, 8\}$; then $k = 4$, $l = 4$ and $g = 2$; direct calculations show

$$
\hat{B} \ominus A^2 = \{4, 4, 3, 3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 5, 5, 4, 4, 3, 3, 2, 2, 6, 6, 5, 5, 4, 4, 3, 3, 7, 7, 6, 6, 5, 5, 4, 4\} = \{1^{\vee 2}, 2^{\vee 4}, 3^{\vee 6}, 4^{\vee 8}, 5^{\vee 6}, 6^{\vee 4}, 7^{\vee 2}\}
$$

and

$$
A^2 \ominus \hat{B} = \{-4, -5, -6, -7, -4, -5, -6, -7, -3, -4, -5, -6, -3, -4, -5, -6, -2, -3, -4, -5, -2, -3, -4, -5, -1, -2, -3, -4, -1, -2, -3, -4\}
$$

= $\{-1^{\vee 2}, -2^{\vee 4}, -3^{\vee 6}, -4^{\vee 8}, -5^{\vee 6}, -6^{\vee 4}, -7^{\vee 2}\}$

Compared to Example 3.9, this example demonstrates what Theorem 3.22 claims.

Corollary 3.24. Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_k\}$ be a set of consecutive integers; then

$$
A^{g} \ominus A^{g} = (A \ominus A)^{g^{2}} = \{(a_{i} - a_{j})^{\vee g^{2}} | a_{i}, a_{j} \in A, 1 \leq i, j \leq k\}
$$

where k and g are positive integers.

Proof. Let $\hat{A} = \hat{B} = A^g$ and

$$
\hat{C} = \hat{B} \ominus \hat{A} = \{c_{ij} | c_{ij} = b_i - a_j, b_i \in \hat{B}, a_j \in \hat{A}\}
$$

then \hat{A} and \hat{B} are given by

$$
\hat{A} = \{ \underbrace{a_1, a_1, ..., a_1}_{g}, \underbrace{a_2, a_2, ..., a_2}_{g}, ..., \underbrace{a_k, a_k, ..., a_k}_{g}, \}
$$

and

$$
\hat{B} = \{ \underbrace{a_1, a_1, ..., a_1}_{g}, \underbrace{a_2, a_2, ..., a_2}_{g}, ..., \underbrace{a_k, a_k, ..., a_k}_{g}, \}
$$

Let

$$
A_1 = \{ \underbrace{a_1, a_1, ..., a_1}_{g \text{ times}}, A_2 = \{ \underbrace{a_2, a_2, ..., a_2}_{g \text{ times}} \}, ..., A_k = \{ \underbrace{a_k, a_k, ..., a_k}_{g \text{ times}} \}
$$

and

$$
B_1 = \{ \underbrace{a_1, a_1, ..., a_1}_{g} \}, B_2 = \{ \underbrace{a_2, a_2, ..., a_2}_{g} \}, ..., B_k = \{ \underbrace{a_k, a_k, ..., a_k}_{g} \}
$$

then $\hat{A} = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_k$ and $\hat{B} = B_1 \cup B_2 \cup ... \cup B_k$. By Lemma 3.3,

$$
\hat{C} = \bigcup_{1 \le i,j \le k} (B_i \ominus A_j)
$$

By Lemma 3.7, $B_i - A_j = \{(a_i - a_j)^{\vee g^2}\}\,$, $1 \leq i, j \leq k$; as a result,

$$
\hat{C} = \{(a_i - a_j)^{\vee g^2} | a_i, a_j \in A, 1 \le i, j \le k\}
$$

Meanwhile, $A \ominus A = \{a_i - a_j | a_i, a_j \in A, 1 \leq i, j \leq k\}$; this immediately leads to

$$
\hat{C} = (A \ominus A)^{g^2}
$$

Example 3.25. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$; then

A ² A ² = 0, 0, −1, −1, −2, −2, −3, −3, 0, 0, −1, −1, −2, −2, −3, −3, 1, 1, 0, 0, −1, −1, −2, −3, 1, 1, 0, 0, −1, −1, −2, −3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0, −1, −1, 2, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0, −1, −1, 3, 3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0, 3, 3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 0, 0 = {−3 ∨4 , −2 ∨8 , −1 ∨12 , 0 ∨16 , 1 ∨12 , 2 ∨8 , 3 ∨4 }

 $By (3.7), A \ominus A = \{-3^{\vee 1}, -2^{\vee 2}, -1^{\vee 3}, 0^{\vee 4}, 1^{\vee 3}, 2^{\vee 2}, 3^{\vee 1}\};$ it is sure $\hat{B} \ominus \hat{A} = (A \ominus A)^{g^2}$.

Corollary 3.26. Let k and A be defined as those in Theorem 3.8; then

$$
A^g \ominus A^g = \{ (1-k)^{\vee g^2}, (2-k)^{\vee 2g^2}, ..., -1^{\vee (k-1)g^2}, 0^{\vee kg^2}, 1^{\vee (k-1)g^2}, 2^{\vee (k-2)g^2}, ..., (k-2)^{\vee 2g^2}, (k-1)^{\vee g^2} \} (3.9)
$$

For the set \hat{C} such that $\hat{c}_{ij} = |c_{ij}|$, where $\hat{c}_{ij} \in \hat{C}$, it follows

$$
\hat{C} = \{0^{\vee kg^2}, 1^{\vee 2(k-1)g^2}, 2^{\vee 2(k-2)g^2}, ..., s^{\vee 2(k-s)g^2}, ..., (k-2)^{\vee 4g^2}, (k-1)^{\vee 2g^2}\}\
$$
(3.10)

where integer s satisfies $1 \leq s \leq k - 1$.

Proof. By Corollary 3.24, $A^g \ominus A^g = C^{g^2}$. Referring to (3.7) and (3.8) immediately results in (3.9) and (3.10).

Corollary 3.27. Let A be defined as that in Theorem 3.8; then

$$
(A \ominus A)^g = \{ (1-k)^{\vee g}, (2-k)^{\vee 2g}, ..., -1^{\vee (k-1)g}, 0^{\vee kg}, 1^{\vee (k-1)g}, 2^{\vee (k-2)g}, ..., (k-2)^{\vee 2g}, (k-1)^{\vee g} \}
$$

Proof. Referring to the new notations in section 2.2 and Corollary 3.16.

Remark 3.4. Arranged in rows and columns, $(A \ominus A)^g$ is of the form

$$
(A \ominus A)^g = \left\{\begin{array}{c}\n0, \cdots, 0, \\
\hline\ng \times times \\
\hline\ng \times times \\
\hline\ng \times times\n\end{array}\right.\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n-1, \cdots, -1, \\
\hline\ng \times times\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{times}\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n-1, \cdots, -1, \\
\hline\ng \times times\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{times}\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{times}\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n0, \cdots, 0, \\
\hline\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{times}\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{times}\n\end{array}\n\qquad\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{times}\n\end{array}\n\end{array}\n\right\}
$$

Theorem 3.28. Given integers a, $g>0$ and $N>0$, assume $A = \{a+1, a+2, ..., a+N\}$ and $B = \{a+1, a+2, ..., a+N\}$ $2, ..., a + gN$; then without considering the order of the elements, it holds

$$
(A \ominus A)^g \bmod N = (B \ominus B) \bmod N
$$

Proof. By Corollary 3.27,

$$
(A \ominus A)^g = \{ (1 - N)^{\vee g}, (2 - N)^{\vee 2g}, \dots, -1^{\vee (N-1)g}, 0^{\vee Ng}, 1^{\vee (N-1)g}, 2^{\vee (N-2)g}, \dots, (N-2)^{\vee 2g}, (N-1)^{\vee g} \}
$$

containing totally qN elements.

Hence it follows

$$
(A \ominus A)^g \bmod N = (A \ominus A)^g
$$

By Corollary 3.16,

$$
B\ominus B=\{(1-gN)^{\vee 1}, (2-gN)^{\vee 2}, ..., -1^{\vee(gN-1)}, 0^{\vee gN}, 1^{\vee(gN-1)}, 2^{\vee(gN-2)}, ..., (gN-2)^{\vee 2}, (gN-1)^{\vee 1}\}
$$

Now let $e_B \in B \ominus B$ be an arbitrary element such that $e_B \neq 0$; then it must be of the form $e_B = i \pm gN$ with $1 \leq i \leq N-1$. Note that, for $j = 1, 2, ..., g$, it holds

$$
e_B \bmod N = i \pm gN \bmod N = i, \quad 1 \le i \le N - 1
$$

Hence it follows

$$
(B \ominus B) \bmod N = \{(1-N)^{\vee g}, (2-N)^{\vee 2g}, \dots, -1^{\vee (N-1)g}, 0^{\vee gN}, 1^{\vee (N-1)g}, 2^{\vee (N-2)}, \dots, (N-2)^{\vee 2g}, (gN-1)^{\vee g}\}
$$

establishing the theorem.

4 Application in Integer Factorization

Given an odd semiprime $N = pq$, where p and q are odd primes such that $1 < p < q$. Assume p and q are bounded in two host intervals, say $I_p = [p_s, p_b]$ and $I_q = [q_s, q_b]$, respectively, where p_s , p_b , q_s , and q_b are odd bounded in two nost intervals, say $I_p = [p_s, p_b]$ and $I_q = [q_s, q_b]$, respectively, where p_s , p_b , q_s , and q_b are odd
positive integers satisfying $2 < p_s < p_b \le \sqrt{N}$ and $\sqrt{N} \le q_s < q_b$; finding out p in I_p or q in I_q N. The theorems and corollaries proven in the previous section show that elements hosting N's divisors can be concentrated in a set. This provides an opportunity to search the host elements in that set.

Let $A_p = [1, p_s - 1], B_p = I_p, C_p = [p_b + 1, p_e],$ and $S_p = A_p \cup B_p \cup C_p$, where $p_e > p_b + 1$ is an integer; then

By Remark 3.3, the elements in B_p repeatedly occur in $S \ominus S$ and a bigger p_e will increase the repeated times. This surely provides a way to enhance the chance to find out an objective element. Next is to investigate two typical cases: $p_e = N$ and $p_e = gN$, where $g \ge 1$ is an integer.

4.1 Case $P_e = N$

The case $p_e = N$ yields

or

$$
\hat{S}_p = \{0^{\vee N}, 1^{\vee 2(N-1)}, ..., j^{\vee 2(N-j)}, ..., (p_s - 1)^{\vee 2(N-p_s+1)}, p_s^{\vee 2(N-p_s)}, ..., (p_s + j)^{\vee 2(N-p_s-j)}, ..., (N-2)^{\vee 4}, (N-1)^{\vee 2}\}
$$

It hence follows in \hat{S}_p

$$
m_p = 2(N - p_s - p), m_{2p} = 2(N - p_s - 2p), ..., m_{\alpha p} = 2(N - p_s - \alpha p), ..., m_{(q-1)p} = 2(N - p_s - (q-1)p)
$$

where α is an integer satisfying $1 \leq \alpha \leq q-1$.

The elements hosting divisor p are distributed sparsely in \hat{S}_p , occurring every p elements from the first occurrence . Their total number is

 $n_p = 2(N - p_s - p) + 2(N - p_s - 2p) + ... + 2(N - p_s - \alpha p) + ... + 2(N - p_s - (q - 1)p) = (q - 1)N$

Note that, $p_e = N$ means \hat{S}_p also contains $q, 2q, 3q, ..., (p-1)q$. They occur every q elements from the first occurrence and their total number is given by

$$
n_q = (p-1)N
$$

Therefore, the total number of the elements hosting N's divisors in \hat{S}_p is given by

$$
n_d = n_p + n_q = (p + q - 2)N
$$

For example, taking $N = 35$ leads to $p = 5$ and $q = 7$. Direct calculation shows \hat{S}_{35} has sixty elements taking value 5, fifty elements taking value 10, forty elements taking value 15, thirty elements taking value 20, twenty elements taking value 25, and ten elements taking value 30, totally 210 elements containing divisor 5. It also has fifty six elements taking value 7, forty two elements taking value 14, twenty eight elements taking value 21, and fourteen elements taking value 28, totally 140 ones.

Note that the negative and positive elements in $S \ominus S$ are separated by the N zeros and look like two triangles, each of which contain the same number of the elements hosting N 's divisors. Seen in the lower triangle, there is a band bordered with the repeated elements of p_s and p_b respectively, as illustrated in Fig. 2. Since $p_s \leq p \leq p_b$, the repeated elements of p are contained in the band. So that the band is called a p-band. Meanwhile the triangle lower the p-band contains all the elements of αp with integer $\alpha > 1$, and all the elements of βq with integer $\beta \geq 1$. Hence the triangle is called a pq-triangle.

Fig. 2. p-band and pq-triangle in \hat{S}_p

The number of the elements in the p-band is

$$
n_{p-band} = \frac{1}{2}(2N - p_b - p_s)(p_b - p_s + 1)
$$

and that in the pq-triangle is

$$
n_{pq-\Delta} = \frac{1}{2}(N - p_b - 1)(N - p_b)
$$

As a result, the total number of the elements in both the p -band and the pq -triangle all together is calculated by

$$
n_{both} = \frac{1}{2}(N - p_s)(N - p_s + 1)
$$

On the other hand, the number of the repeated elements of p in the p -band is

$$
n_{p-band}^p = N - p - p_s
$$

hence the number of the elements hosting N's divisors in the pq -triangle is

$$
n_{pq-\Delta}^d = (p+q-2)N - N - p_s - p = (p-3)N + (q-p)N - p_s
$$

Now let

pq -both =p-band ∪ pq-triangle

and check the density or the concentration of the elements hosting a divisor of N in the p -band, pq-triangle, and pq-both. This can done by picking randomly an element in the three areas respectively and seeing the probability of successfully obtaining a divisor. Since

$$
P_{p-band}^{p} = \frac{n_{p-band}^{p}}{n_{p-band}} = \frac{2(N - p - p_{s})}{(2N - p_{b} - p_{s})(p_{b} - p_{s} + 1)}
$$

$$
P_{pq-\Delta}^{d} = \frac{n_{pq-\Delta}^{d}}{n_{pq-\Delta}} = \frac{2((p + q - 2)N - N - p_{s} - p)}{(N - p_{b} - 1)(N - p_{b})}
$$

and

$$
P_{both}^d = \frac{n_d}{n_{both}} = \frac{2(p+q-2)N}{(N-p_s)(N-p_s+1)}
$$

direct calculations show

$$
\frac{P_{pq-\Delta}^d}{P_{p-band}^p} = (p_b - p_s + 1)(1 + \frac{p_b}{N - p_b})(1 + \frac{N - p_s + 1}{N - p_b - 1})(1 + \frac{p + q}{N - p - p_s}) > 2(p_b - p_s + 1)
$$
(4.2)

and

$$
\frac{P_{both}^d}{P_{pq-\Delta}^d} = \frac{(N-p_b)(N-p_b-1)}{2(N-p_s)(N-p_s+1)} \left(1 + \frac{N+p_s+p}{(p+q-2)N-N-p_s-p}\right) \tag{4.3}
$$

Because

$$
q > p > p_s \Rightarrow \frac{N + p_s + p}{(p + q - 2)N - N - p_s - p} < \frac{N + 2p}{2p(N - 1) - 3N}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow 1 + \frac{N + p_s + p}{(p + q - 2)N - N - p_s - p} < 1 + \frac{N + 2p}{2p(N - 1) - 3N} = \frac{2(p - 1)N}{(2p - 3)N - 2p}
$$

and

$$
\frac{2(p-1)N}{(2p-3)N-2p}=\frac{2(p-1)N}{(2p-2)N-N-2p}=\frac{2}{2-\frac{N+2p}{pN-N}}=\frac{2}{2-\frac{1}{\frac{pN+2p}{N+2p}-1}}<2
$$

it follows with (4.3)

$$
\frac{P_{both}^d}{P_{pq-\Delta}^d} < \frac{(N-p_b)(N-p_b-1)}{(N-p_s)(N-p_s+1)} < 1\tag{4.4}
$$

The inequalities (4.4) and (4.2) indicate that the elements hosting N's divisors are more densely distributed in the pq -triangle. In another word, the concentration of the elements hosting N 's divisors in the pq-triangle is bigger than that either in the p-band or in the pq-both.

4.2 Case $p_e = gN$

Denote $\Xi = [1, qN]$; then

$$
\Xi \ominus \Xi = \{ (1 - gN)^{\vee 1}, (2 - gN)^{\vee 2}, \dots, -1^{\vee (gN-1)}, 0^{\vee gN}, 1^{\vee (gN-1)}, 2^{\vee (gN-2)}, \dots, (gN-2)^{\vee 2}, (gN-1)^{\vee 1} \}
$$

containing $(q-1)gN$ elements hosting divisor p and $(p-1)gN$ elements hosting divisor q. Since each element except 0 is of the form $i \pm jN$ with $1 \le i \le N - 1$ and $0 \le j \le g$, the elements hosting divisor p occur every p elements from the first occurrence and those hosting divisor q occur every q elements from the first occurrence.

Like that of (4.1), $\Xi \ominus \Xi$ can be arranged in rows and columns by

Seen from the point-view of rows and columns, from the first occurrence, the elements hosting divisor p occur every p rows or columns while the elements hosting divisor q occur every q rows or columns, all sparsely distributed in $\Xi \ominus \Xi$.

Now consider $\Xi \ominus \Xi$ mod N. By Theorem 3.28,

$$
(S \ominus S)^g = \Xi \ominus \Xi(\text{mod}N)(S)
$$

As a result, the case $p_e = gN$ is turned into the repeated case of $p_e = N$. Arranged in rows and columns, $(S \ominus S)^g$ is of the form described with Fig. 3.

There are surely a p^g -band, a $(pq)^g$ -triangle and a $(pq)^g$ -both like those in $S \ominus S$. Similarly, the elements hosting N's divisors are denser in the $(pq)^{g}$ -triangle than those in the other two zones, the p^g -band and $(pq)^g$ -both.

4.3 Elements in pq-triangle

Denote the pq-triangle with symbol Δ_{pq} . By definition, Δ_{pq} can be geometrically considered to be an isosceles right triangle. Each of its two legs is formed by the elements $p_b + 1, ..., p_b + j, ...,$

	$\overline{0}$ Ω \cdots	-1 \cdots -1	\sim \sim \sim	$-pz$ $-p_i$ \sim \sim \sim	\cdots	$-p$ $\cdots -p$	\cdots	$-p_{b}$ $-p_b$ \cdots	\cdots	$1-N \cdots 1-N$
$(S\ominus S)^s$ =	g times	ϵ times		g times		g time:		g times		g time:
	$n-1$	\cdots 0 Ω	\sim \sim \sim	\sim \sim \sim	$-p_{i}$ $-p$, $\mathcal{C}^{\mathcal{A},\mathcal{B}}$. The $\mathcal{C}^{\mathcal{A}}_{\mathcal{A}}$	\cdot	$-p$ $-p$ \cdots	\mathcal{C}^{\bullet} , \mathcal{C}	\cdots	$2-N \cdots 2-N$
	g times	g times			g times		g times			g time:
		\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	 -200	\cdots -330	\cdots	1.1.1		
	P_i P_{i}			Ω \cdots	1.1.1			-0.011		$-p_b$ $-p_b$
	s times			s times						g times
	1.1.1	1.111 -202	1.111	1.111		1.11 - - -	1.111	CALL AND	2.111	1.1.1
	\boldsymbol{v} \sim 0.00 \pm	1.1.1	\cdots	1.11	1.1.1	1.11	1.1.1	1.111		$\cdots -p$ $-p$
	g time:									g time:
	\sim 10 \pm	ALC A	\sim 1.0 \sim	\sim 1.0 \sim	ALC A - - -	1.11 m	Ω CONTRACTOR	\sim 1.5	\cdots	\sim 1.0 \sim
							g times			
	p_{h} $p_{\rm k}$ $\mathbf{a}^{\prime}=\mathbf{a}^{\prime}$	\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	\ldots	\ldots	\sim	\cdots	$-p_{\rm s}$ - r -
	g time:									g times
	\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	\cdots	\sim \sim \sim	\cdots	\cdots
	$N-1$ $N-1$ \sim \sim \sim	~ 100	p_{h} p_b \cdots	\cdot	\overline{p} \boldsymbol{p} \sim 0.000	\mathcal{L}^{max}	\cdots p_s P _z	\sim	\sim \sim \sim	Ω \cdots 0
	s times		g time:		s times		$5 \text{$			s times

Fig. 3. $(S \ominus S)^g$ in the form of rows and columns

and $N-1$ while its hypotenuse is composed of $N-p_b-1$ elements with the same value p_b+1 . Using X and Y to express the indices of the row and the column of Δ_{pq} respectively, it follows

$$
1 \le X \le N - p_b - 1 \text{ and } 1 \le Y \le X
$$

and the three borders are lattices such that

line
$$
Y = 1
$$
, line $X = N - p_b - 1$ and $Y = X$

The element $\omega_{X,Y}$ at row X and column Y is calculated by

$$
\omega_{X,Y} = p_b + 1 + X - Y \tag{4.5}
$$

4.4 Elements in $(pq)^{g}$ -triangle

Denote the $(pq)^g$ -triangle by symbol T_{pq}^g ; then

$$
T_{pq}^g = \{ (p_b + 1)^{\vee g(N - p_b - 1)}, ..., e = (p_b + j)^{\vee g(N - p_b - j)}, ..., (N - 2)^{\vee 2g}, (N - 1)^{\vee g} \}
$$

Arranged in rows and columns, it is of the form

$$
T_{pq}^g = \left\{\begin{array}{ll}\n\underbrace{p_b+1 \cdots p_b+1}_{g \text{ times}}, & & \\
\underbrace{e \cdots e}_{g \text{ times}}, & & \underline{p_b+1 \cdots p_b+1}_{g \text{ times}}, \\
\vdots & & \\
\underbrace{N-1 \cdots N-1}_{g \text{ times}}, & & \underline{e \cdots e}_{g}, & & \cdots \\
\underbrace{w_b+1 \cdots p_b+1}_{g \text{ times}}, & & \\
& \underline{p_b+1 \cdots p_b+1}_{g \text{ times}}, \\
& & \\
& & \\
\end{array}\right\}
$$

 T_{pq}^g is geometrically seen to be a right trapezium with one side composed of $(N - p_b - 1)g$ elements of $p_b + 1$. Take on each row one $p_b + 1$ to form the following right triangle Δ_{pq}^g :

row 1: $d_{1,1} = p_b + 1$; row 2: $d_{2,1} = d_{2,2} = ... = d_{2,g} = p_b + 2$ ${g \atop }}$ items $, d_{2,g+1} = p_b + 1;$

row 3:

$$
d_{3,1} = d_{3,2} = \dots = d_{3,g} = p_b + 3, d_{3,g+1} = \dots = d_{3,2g} = p_b + 3 - 1,
$$

$$
g \quad \text{items}
$$

$$
d_{3,2g+1} = p_b + 3 - 2
$$

row 4:

$$
\underbrace{d_{4,1} = \dots = d_{4,g} = p_b + 4}_{g \text{ items}}, \underbrace{d_{4,g+1} = \dots = d_{4,2g} = p_b + 4 - 1}_{g \text{ items}},
$$
\n
$$
\underbrace{d_{4,2g+1} = \dots = d_{4,3g} = p_b + 4 - 2}_{g \text{ items}}, d_{4,3g+1} = p_b + 4 - 3
$$

row k :

$$
\underbrace{d_{k,1} = \ldots = d_{k,g} = p_b + k}_{g \text{ items}}, \ldots, \underbrace{d_{k,(j-1)g+1} = \ldots = d_{k,jg} = p_b + k - (j-1)}_{g \text{ items}}, \ldots, \underbrace{d_{k,(k-2)g} = \ldots = d_{k,(k-1)g} = p_b + 2}_{g \text{ items}}, \ldots, \underbrace{d_{k,(k-2)g} = \ldots = d_{k,(k-1)g} = p_b + 2}_{g \text{ items}}, \ldots, \underbrace{d_{k,(k-1)g+1} = p_b + k - (k-1) = p_b + 1}_{g \text{ items}}
$$

where $1 \leq k \leq N - p_b - 1$ and $1 \leq j \leq k - 1$. Still using X and Y to express the indices of the row and the column respectively, it follows

$$
1 \le X \le N - p_b - 1, 1 \le Y \le (X - 1)g + 1
$$

and the three borders of Δ_{pq}^g are lattices corresponding to

line
$$
Y = 1
$$
, line $X = N - p_b - 1$, and line $Y = (X - 1)g + 1$.

The element $\Omega_{X,Y}$ at row X and column Y is

$$
\Omega_{X,Y} = p_b + X - \left\lfloor \frac{Y - 1}{g} \right\rfloor \tag{4.6}
$$

By the way, it is sure that the concentration of the elements hosting N 's divisors is bigger in Δ_{pq}^g than that in T_{pq}^g because the total number of the elements in Δ_{pq}^g is less than that in T_{pq}^g .

4.5 Random-walk approach to find a divisor-host

Now that Δ_{pq} and Δ_{pq}^g have the most concentration of the elements hosting N's divisors, it is a natural choice to search N 's divisors in either of them. Once one of the host elements, say e , is found, $d = \gcd(e, N)$ is surely the divisor of N. Theoretically there are many approaches for such searching. Here introduce the approach of using a two-dimensional simple random walk to perform the search.

Such a random walk is obviously the one within a bounded domain. As seen in literatures such as $[11]$, $[12]$, and $[13]$, the start point, restart point, and walking-step are primarily necessary for the random walk within a bounded domain.

By the recurrent property and the distribution property of the two-dimensional simple random walk, the start point, say (X_0, Y_0) , is better to set near where the elements hosting N's divisors locate. Since those host elements are unknown before one of them is found, an initial start point can be chosen by a rough estimation. Note that $p \leq \sqrt{N} \leq q \Rightarrow ip \leq i\sqrt{N} \leq iq$ for an point can be chosen by a rough estimation. Note that $p \leq \sqrt{N} \leq q \leq p \leq \sqrt{N}$ is arbitrary positive integer i, p is out of T_{Δ}^{g} , and $\left[\sqrt{N}\right]$ is the biggest i such that i √ $N \leq N;$ X_0 can be chosen by

$$
X_0 = \alpha \left\lfloor \sqrt{N} \right\rfloor
$$

where $1 < \alpha \leq |\sqrt{N}|$ is an integer. Then Y_0 is chosen by $Y_0 = X_0$ if the walk is in Δ_{pq} ; otherwise $Y_0 = gX_0$.

If the random walk goes out of the zone, Δ_{pq} or Δ_{pq}^g , it is forced to restart a next round. The restart point, say (X_{rst}, Y_{rst}) , is better to choose like the choice of (X_0, Y_0) because it ensures the restart point near the elements hosting N 's divisors.

For a walk in Δ_{pq} , its walking step δ_x in X-direction and step δ_y are set to be the same one though they can be set to different ones. For a walk in Δ_{pq}^g , δ_x is different from δ_y because each distinct lattice along the Y-direction is wrapped by g times, and the total number of the lattices along the Y-direction is almost q times of that along X -direction.

Finally, the random walk will be forced to stop if it walks too many steps, say B steps, without finding the objective element.

After all the preliminary settings done, the random-walk algorithm is designed to find a divisor of a composite integer N as follows.

Algorithm 1 Random-walk Algorithm to Factorize Integer

Input: N , p_b , g , δ_x , δ_y , B ; mput: *N*, p_b, g, o_x, o_y, D ;
Step 1. $(X, Y) = \text{SetStart}(\sqrt{N});$ Step 2. Initialize counter $= 0$ and $f = 1$; Step 3. Loop while $f = 1$ and counter $\langle B;$ Calculate $\omega = p_b + X - \left| \frac{Y-1}{q} \right|$ $\frac{-1}{g}$ and $f = \gcd(N, \omega);$ if $f > 1$ then break loop; endif; (X, Y) =aRandStep(X, Y, δ_x , δ_y); (A, *I*)=akandStep(A, *I*, θ_x , θ_y);

if OutofBorder(X, Y) then (X, Y)= SetStart(\sqrt{N}); endIf; counter=counter+1; endloop Step 4.if $f > 1$ then Output f and counter; else Declare failure of search; endif

Remark 4.1. The Algorithm 1 is designed for the random walk in Δ_{pq}^g . It can also applied on *nemark* 4.1. The Algorithm 1 is designed for the random walk in Δ_{pq}^{ν} , it can also applied on Δ_{pq} by taking $g =1$. The parameter p_b can be chosen around \sqrt{N} while δ_x , δ_y are chosen tentatively. In the algorithm, the subroutine aRandStep(X, Y, δ_x , δ_y) is to calculate the next position of a random move from (X, Y) by steps δ_x and δ_y , OutofBorder (X, Y) is to test position of a random move from (X, Y) by steps δ_x and δ_y , Outonborder (X, Y) is to test whether (X, Y) is out of the border, and SetStart (\sqrt{N}) is to set the start point that is randomly chosen near the elements hosting N's divisors. The subroutine SetStart perform the following calculations.

Algorithm 2 Subroutine SetStart

 $\frac{1}{\text{Input: } \sqrt{N}}$ Step 1. Select randomly an integer $\alpha \in [2, \lfloor \sqrt{N} \rfloor]$; Step 2. Calculate $X = \alpha \left| \sqrt{N} \right|$ and $Y = gX$; Output: X, Y ;

4.5.1 Numerical Experiments

With Maple software, a random walk program to factorize integers is programmed in Δ_{pq} according to the designed algorithm. The source codes of the program are list in the appendix section. Semiprimes containing 5 to 10 digits are randomly selected to do the numerical experiments whose results are shown in Table 1. In the table, the column 'Failure?' records if there is a failure in the experiments. Readers can see the experimental data in the appendix section.

Table 1: Records of Numerical Experiments											
Semiprime N	Digits of N	Number of Experiments	Min Searching Steps	Max Searching Steps	Failure?						
49901	\ddot{a}	h,	26	271	Yes						
567191	6	h,	78	436	Yes						
2425789			48	955	Yes						
75506467		b.	2105	5574	Yes						
826522877		h,	474	27480	Yes						
1231065553	10	5.	1108	34289	Yes						

Table 1: Records of Numerical Experiments

It should be pointed out that, the random-walk method of factoring integer exhibits randomization. One experiment is hardly identical to the other one even with the same input arguments. That is the essence of the random algorithm, as claimed in [3].

5 Conclusion and Future Work

Densification of the objective elements surely enriches the abundance of witnesses. The research in this paper shows the Cartesian subtraction can realize densification of certain elements in a countable set because the operation can make a set without repeated elements be a set with repeated elements. Our experiments that apply the two-dimensional simple random walk to factorize composite integers show that densification and the random algorithm are trustable.

Nevertheless, we still have work to do related with this paper. For example, how to set a proper start point or a restart point and how to choose proper parameters δ_x and δ_y for a random walk in Δ_{pq}^g still need investigating. In addition, we need to promote the efficiency of the random walk algorithm so as for the algorithm to be a practical one. These remain our future work. Hope more young people to join us.

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Competing Interests

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

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APPENDIX

Maple Source Codes and Experimental Cases

Maple Source Codes

```
# Subrountie:- aRandStep2D
   a\text{RandStep2D} := \text{proc}(X0, Y0, dx, dy)local X, Y, P, R;
      P := Array(1.. 2);R := \text{rand}(1.. 8)();
      if R = 1 then X := X0 - dx; Y := Y0 + dy; end if;
     if R = 2 then X := X0; Y := Y0 + dy; end if;
     if R = 3 then X := X0 + dx; Y := Y0 + dy; end if;
     if R = 4 then X := X0 - dx; Y := Y0; end if;
      if R = 5 then X := X0 + dx; Y := Y0; end if;
     if R = 6 then X := X0 - dx; Y := Y0 - dy; end if;
     if R = 7 then X := X0; Y := Y0 - dy; end if;
     if R = 8 then X := X0 + dx; Y := Y0 - dy; end if;
      P[1] := X; P[2] := Y;return P;
   end proc
   # Subrountie:- SetStart
   SetStart := proc(b)local alpha, R, P;
      P:= Array(1 \ldots 2);alpha:=rand(1 \dots b)(;
      P[1] := \text{alpha*b};P[2] := \text{alpha*b};return P;
   end proc
   # MainRountie:- RandomFactTpq
   RandomFactTop := proc(N, pb, dx, dy)local alpha, X, Y, f, P, counter, B, n, T;
      P := Array(1.. 2);counter := 0; f := 1;
      B := floor(evalf(sqrt(N))); #Set maximal searching steps
      T := \text{floor}(\text{evalf}(\text{sqrt}(N))); #For SetStart's use
      P := SetStart(T);X := P[1]; Y := P[2];
      while f = 1 and counter \langle B \rangle do \#loop
        n:= pb - X - Y;
```
 $f:=$ gcd(N, n); if $f > 1$ and $f < N$ then break; end if; $P := \text{aRandStep2D}(X, Y, dx, dy);$ #A random move $X := P[1]; Y := P[2];$ if $X < 1$ or $Y < 1$ or $N - pb - 1 < X$ or $X < = Y$ then $P := SetStart(T);$ # Restart when out of borders $X := P[1]; Y := P[2];$ end if; counter := counter + 1; \#Counting the searched steps end do; if $f > 1$ then print(Find at point (X, Y) , found divisor = f, searching steps = counter); else print(This*time*finds*no*result, test*again!); end if; end proc

5.1 Experimental Cases

The following experimental cases are run in Maple with the programs list in the previous section. The original data are reserved at the webpage: https://www.mapleprimes.com/DocumentFiles/221856 post/wxbRandWalkTpqNew4.pdf

```
RandomFactTpq(49901, 150, 1, 1);
  Find at point (2230, 2229), found divisor = 139, searching steps = 77RandomFactTpq(49901, 150, 1, 1);
  Find at point (17173, 17171), found divisor = 139, searching steps = 211RandomFactTpq(49901, 150, 1, 1);
  Find at point (27875, 27875), found divisor = 139, searching steps = 141RandomFactTpq(49901, 150, 1, 1);
  Find at point (16948, 16948), found divisor = 359, searching steps = 26RandomFactTpq(49901, 150, 1, 1);
 This time finds no result, test factorial(again)
RandomFactTpq(567191, 700, 1, 1);
  Find at point (51960, 51955), found divisor = 983, searching steps = 436RandomFactTpq(567191, 700, 1, 1);
  Find at point (405118, 405113), found divisor = 577, searching steps = 78RandomFactTpq(567191, 700, 1, 1);
  Find at point (360687, 360686), found divisor = 577, searching steps = 243RandomFactTpq(567191, 700, 1, 1);
  Find at point (480414, 480414), found divisor = 577, searching steps = 157RandomFactTpq(567191, 700, 1, 1);
  This time finds no result, test factorial(again)
RandomFactTpq(2425789, 1500, 2, 2);
  Find at point (351976, 351828), found divisor = 1291, searching steps = 955RandomFactTpq(2425789, 1500, 2, 2);
  Find at point (2186028, 2186026), found divisor = 1879, searching steps = 496RandomFactTpq(2425789, 1500, 2, 2);
  Find at point (926471, 926323), found divisor = 1291, searching steps = 859RandomFactTpq(2425789, 1500, 2, 2);
  Find at point (2158020, 2158002), found divisor = 1291, searching steps = 177RandomFactTpq(2425789, 1500, 2, 2);
 Find at point (1077444, 1077444), found divisor = 1291, searching steps = 48RandomFactTpq(75506467, 8500, 3, 3);
  Find at point (53559017, 53559005), found divisor = 9739, searching steps = 2105
```


 $\mathcal{L}=\{1,2,3,4\}$, we can consider the constant of the constant $\mathcal{L}=\{1,2,3,4\}$

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