Modern Algebra I: The Euclidean algorithm

As promised in the lecture, we describe a computationally efficient method for finding the gcd of two positive integers a and b, which at the same time shows how to write the gcd as a linear combination of a and b.

Begin with a, b. Write $a = bq_1 + r_1$, with integers q_1 and r_1 , $0 \le r_1 < b$. Note that $r_1 = a + b(-q_1)$ is a linear combination of a and b. If $r_1 = 0$, stop, otherwise repeat this process with b and r_1 instead of a and b, so that $b = r_1q_2 + r_2$, with $0 \le r_2 < r_1$, and note that $r_2 = b - r_1q_2 = b - aq_2 + bq_1q_2$ is still a linear combination of a and b. If $r_2 = 0$, stop, otherwise repeat again with r_1 and r_2 instead of b and r_1 , so that $r_1 = r_2q_3 + r_3$, with $0 \le r_3 < r_2$. We can continue in this way to find $r_1 > r_2 > r_3 > \cdots > r_k \ge 0$, with $r_{k-1} = r_kq_{k+1} + r_{k+1}$. Since the sequence of the r_i decreases, and they are all nonnegative integers, eventually this procedure must stop with an r_n such that $r_{n+1} = 0$, and hence $r_{n-1} = r_nq_{n+1}$. The procedure looks as follows:

$$a = bq_1 + r_1$$

$$b = r_1q_2 + r_2$$

$$r_1 = r_2q_3 + r_3$$

:

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1}q_n + r_n$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_nq_{n+1}.$$

We claim that r_n is the gcd of a and b. In fact, we shall show:

(i) r_n divides both a and b;

(ii) r_n is a linear combination of a and b.

(i) Since $r_n|r_{n-1}$, the equation $r_{n-2} = r_{n-1}q_n + r_n$ implies that $r_n|r_{n-2}$, and then working backwards from the equation $r_{k-1} = r_kq_{k+1} + r_{k+1}$, we see (with reverse induction) that $r_n|r_{k-1}$ for all k < n. The fact that $b = r_1q_2 + r_2$ and that r_n divides r_1 and r_2 implies that r_n divides b, and then the equation $a = bq_1 + r_1$ implies that r_n divides a, too.

(ii) Working the other way, we have seen that r_1 and r_2 are linear combinations of a and b. By induction, if r_{k-1} and r_k are linear combinations of aand b, then the equation $r_{k-1} = r_k q_{k+1} + r_{k+1}$ implies that $r_{k+1} = r_{k-1} - r_k q_{k+1}$ is also a linear combination of a and b (because as we saw in class the set of all linear combinations of a and b is a subgroup of \mathbb{Z} and thus is closed under addition, subtraction, and multiplication by an integer). Thus r_n is a linear combination of a and b as well. But we have seen that if a linear combination of a and b divides a and b and is positive, then it is equal to the gcd of a and b. So r_n is the gcd of a and b.

The algorithm is easier to carry out than it is to explain! For example, to find the gcd of 34 and 38, we have

$$38 = 34(1) + 4$$

$$34 = 4(8) + 2$$

$$4 = 2(2).$$

This says that $2 = \gcd(34, 38)$ and that 2 = 34 - 4(8) = 34 - (38 - 34)(8) = 9(34) + (-8)(38).

It is often more efficient to choose q_{k+1} and r_{k+1} so that $r_{k-1} = r_k q_{k+1} \pm r_{k+1}$, with $r_{k+1} < r_k$ and the sign chosen so that r_{k+1} is as small as possible. In other words, we allow negative remainders of the form $-r_k$ with the goal of minimizing the absolute value of the remainder. For example, to find the gcd of 7 and 34, we could write

$$34 = 7(4) + 6$$

7 = 6(1) + 1,

to see that the gcd is 1 and that 1 = 7 - 6 = 7 - (34 - 4(7)) = -34 + 5(7), or we could see directly that

$$34 = 7(5) - 1.$$

A more complicated example is the following, to find the gcd of 1367 and 298:

$$1367 = (298)(5) - 123$$

$$298 = 123(2) + 52$$

$$123 = 52(2) + 19$$

$$52 = 19(3) - 5$$

$$19 = 5(4) - 1.$$

Thus the gcd is 1, and a little patience shows that

$$1 = 5(4) - 19 = 11(19) - 4(52) = 11(123) - 26(52) =$$

= (63)(123) - (26)(298) = (-63)(1367) + (289)(298).