
BASIC CONCEPTS IN NUMBER THEORY

Divisibility and The Division Algorithm

The Euclidean Algorithm

Modular Arithmetic

Mathematics has long been known in the printing trade as difficult, or penalty, copy because it is slower, more difficult, and more expensive to set in type than any other kind of copy.

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LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- ◆ Understand the concept of divisibility and the division algorithm.
- ◆ Understand how to use the Euclidean algorithm to find the greatest common divisor.
- ◆ Present an overview of the concepts of modular arithmetic.
- ◆ Explain the operation of the extended Euclidean algorithm.
- ◆ Distinguish among groups, rings, and fields.
- ◆ Define finite fields of the form $\text{GF}(p)$.
- ◆ Explain the differences among ordinary polynomial arithmetic, polynomial arithmetic with coefficients in Z_p , and modular polynomial arithmetic in $\text{GF}(2^n)$.
- ◆ Define finite fields of the form $\text{GF}(2^n)$.
- ◆ Explain the two different uses of the mod operator.

Finite fields have become increasingly important in cryptography. A number of cryptographic algorithms rely heavily on properties of finite fields, notably the Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) and elliptic curve cryptography. Other examples include the message authentication code CMAC and the authenticated encryption scheme GCM.

This chapter provides the reader with sufficient background on the concepts of finite fields to be able to understand the design of AES and other cryptographic algorithms that use finite fields. The first three sections introduce basic concepts from number theory that are needed in the remainder of the chapter; these include divisibility, the Euclidean algorithm, and modular arithmetic. Next comes a brief overview of the concepts of group, ring, and field. This section is somewhat abstract; the reader may prefer to quickly skim this section on a first reading. We are then ready to discuss finite fields of the form $\text{GF}(p)$, where p is a prime number. Next, we need some additional background, this time in polynomial arithmetic. The chapter concludes with a discussion of finite fields of the form $\text{GF}(2^n)$, where n is a positive integer.

The concepts and techniques of number theory are quite abstract, and it is often difficult to grasp them intuitively without examples. Accordingly, this chapter and Chapter 8 include a number of examples, each of which is highlighted in a shaded box.

DIVISIBILITY AND THE DIVISION ALGORITHM

Divisibility

We say that a nonzero b **divides** a if $a = mb$ for some m , where a , b , and m are integers. That is, b divides a if there is no remainder on division. The notation $b|a$ is commonly used to mean b divides a . Also, if $b|a$, we say that b is a **divisor** of a .

The positive divisors of 24 are 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, and 24.
 $13|182$; $-5|30$; $17|289$; $-3|33$; $17|0$

Subsequently, we will need some simple properties of divisibility for integers, which are as follows:

- If $a|1$, then $a = \pm 1$.
- If $a|b$ and $b|a$, then $a = \pm b$.
- Any $b \neq 0$ divides 0.
- If $a|b$ and $b|c$, then $a|c$:

$$11|66 \text{ and } 66|198 = 11|198$$

- If $b|g$ and $b|h$, then $b|(mg + nh)$ for arbitrary integers m and n .

To see this last point, note that

- If $b|g$, then g is of the form $g = b \times g_1$ for some integer g_1 .
- If $b|h$, then h is of the form $h = b \times h_1$ for some integer h_1 .

So

$$mg + nh = mbg_1 + nbh_1 = b \times (mg_1 + nh_1)$$

and therefore b divides $mg + nh$.

$b = 7$; $g = 14$; $h = 63$; $m = 3$; $n = 2$
 $7|14$ and $7|63$.
To show $7|(3 \times 14 + 2 \times 63)$,
we have $(3 \times 14 + 2 \times 63) = 7(3 \times 2 + 2 \times 9)$,
and it is obvious that $7|(7(3 \times 2 + 2 \times 9))$.

The Division Algorithm

Given any positive integer n and any nonnegative integer a , if we divide a by n , we get an integer quotient q and an integer remainder r that obey the following relationship:

$$a = qn + r \quad 0 \leq r < n; q = \lfloor a/n \rfloor \quad (4.1)$$

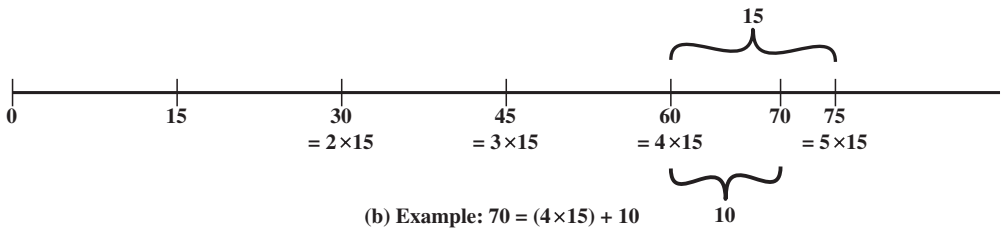
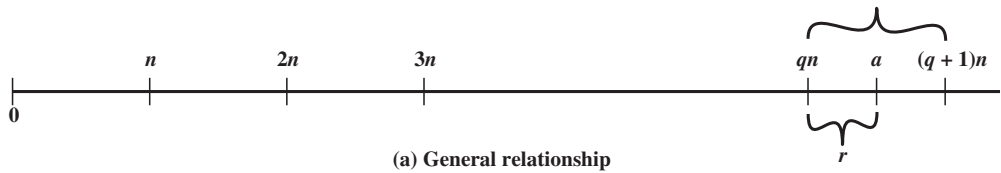


Figure 1. The Relationship $a = qn + r; 0 \leq r < n$

where $\lfloor x \rfloor$ is the largest integer less than or equal to x . Equation (4.1) is referred to as the division algorithm.¹

Figure 1a demonstrates that, given a and positive n , it is always possible to find q and r that satisfy the preceding relationship. Represent the integers on the number line; a will fall somewhere on that line (positive a is shown, a similar demonstration can be made for negative a). Starting at 0, proceed to n , $2n$, up to qn , such that $qn \leq a$ and $(q + 1)n > a$. The distance from qn to a is r , and we have found the unique values of q and r . The remainder r is often referred to as a **residue**.

$a = 11; \quad n = 7; \quad 11 = 1 \times 7 + 4; \quad r = 4 \quad q = 1$
$a = -11; \quad n = 7; \quad -11 = (-2) \times 7 + 3; \quad r = 3 \quad q = -2$

Figure 4.1b provides another example.

THE EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

One of the basic techniques of number theory is the Euclidean algorithm, which is a simple procedure for determining the greatest common divisor of two positive integers. First, we need a simple definition: Two integers are **relatively prime** if their only common positive integer factor is 1.

Greatest Common Divisor

Recall that nonzero b is defined to be a divisor of a if $a = mb$ for some m , where a, b , and m are integers. We will use the notation $\gcd(a, b)$ to mean the **greatest common divisor**

¹Equation (4.1) expresses a theorem rather than an algorithm, but by tradition, this is referred to as the division algorithm.

of a and b . The greatest common divisor of a and b is the largest integer that divides both a and b . We also define $\gcd(0, 0) = 0$.

More formally, the positive integer c is said to be the greatest common divisor of a and b if

1. c is a divisor of a and of b .
2. Any divisor of a and b is a divisor of c .

An equivalent definition is the following:

$$\gcd(a, b) = \max\{k, \text{ such that } k|a \text{ and } k|b\}$$

Because we require that the greatest common divisor be positive, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a, -b) = \gcd(-a, b) = \gcd(-a, -b)$. In general, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(|a|, |b|)$.

$$\gcd(60, 24) = \gcd(60, -24) = 12$$

Also, because all nonzero integers divide 0, we have $\gcd(a, 0) = |a|$.

We stated that two integers a and b are relatively prime if their only common positive integer factor is 1. This is equivalent to saying that a and b are relatively prime if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

8 and 15 are relatively prime because the positive divisors of 8 are 1, 2, 4, and 8, and the positive divisors of 15 are 1, 3, 5, and 15. So 1 is the only integer on both lists.

Finding the Greatest Common Divisor

We now describe an algorithm credited to Euclid for easily finding the greatest common divisor of two integers. This algorithm has significance subsequently in this chapter. Suppose we have integers a, b such that $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Because $\gcd(|a|, |b|) = \gcd(a, b)$, there is no harm in assuming $a \geq b > 0$. Now dividing a by b and applying the division algorithm, we can state:

$$a = q_1b + r_1 \quad 0 \leq r_1 < b \tag{4.2}$$

If it happens that $r_1 = 0$, then $b|a$ and $d = \gcd(a, b) = b$. But if $r_1 \neq 0$, we can state that $d|r_1$. This is due to the basic properties of divisibility: the relations $d|a$ and $d|b$ together imply that $d|(a - q_1b)$, which is the same as $d|r_1$. Before proceeding with the Euclidian algorithm, we need to answer the question: What is the $\gcd(b, r_1)$? We know that $d|b$ and $d|r_1$. Now take any arbitrary integer c that divides both b and r_1 . Therefore, $c|(q_1b + r_1) = a$. Because c divides both a and b , we must have $c \leq d$, which is the greatest common divisor of a and b . Therefore $d = \gcd(b, r_1)$.

Let us now return to Equation (4.2) and assume that $r_1 \neq 0$. Because $b > r_1$, we can divide b by r_1 and apply the division algorithm to obtain:

$$b = q_2r_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1$$

As before, if $r_2 = 0$, then $d = r_1$ and if $r_2 \neq 0$, then $d = \gcd(r_1, r_2)$. The division process continues until some zero remainder appears, say, at the $(n + 1)$ th

stage where r_{n-1} is divided by r_n . The result is the following system of equations:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a = q_1b + r_1 \quad 0 < r_1 < b \\ b = q_2r_1 + r_2 \quad 0 < r_2 < r_1 \\ r_1 = q_3r_2 + r_3 \quad 0 < r_3 < r_2 \\ \cdot \quad \cdot \\ \cdot \quad \cdot \\ \cdot \quad \cdot \\ r_{n-2} = q_nr_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 < r_n < r_{n-1} \\ r_{n-1} = q_{n+1}r_n + 0 \\ d = \gcd(a, b) = r_n \end{array} \right\} \quad (4.3)$$

At each iteration, we have $d = \gcd(r_i, r_{i+1})$ until finally $d = \gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n$. Thus, we can find the greatest common divisor of two integers by repetitive application of the division algorithm. This scheme is known as the Euclidean algorithm.

We have essentially argued from the top down that the final result is the $\gcd(a, b)$. We can also argue from the bottom up. The first step is to show that r_n divides a and b . It follows from the last division in Equation (4.3) that r_n divides r_{n-1} . The next to last division shows that r_n divides r_{n-2} because it divides both terms on the right. Successively, one sees that r_n divides all r_i 's and finally a and b . It remains to show that r_n is the largest divisor that divides a and b . If we take any arbitrary integer that divides a and b , it must also divide r_1 , as explained previously. We can follow the sequence of equations in Equation (4.3) down and show that c must divide all r_i 's. Therefore c must divide r_n , so that $r_n = \gcd(a, b)$.

Let us now look at an example with relatively large numbers to see the power of this algorithm:

To find $d = \gcd(a, b) = \gcd(1160718174, 316258250)$		
$a = q_1b + r_1$	$1160718174 = 3 \times 316258250 + 211943424$	$d = \gcd(316258250, 211943424)$
$b = q_2r_1 + r_2$	$316258250 = 1 \times 211943424 + 104314826$	$d = \gcd(211943424, 104314826)$
$r_1 = q_3r_2 + r_3$	$211943424 = 2 \times 104314826 + 3313772$	$d = \gcd(104314826, 3313772)$
$r_2 = q_4r_3 + r_4$	$104314826 = 31 \times 3313772 + 1587894$	$d = \gcd(3313772, 1587894)$
$r_3 = q_5r_4 + r_5$	$3313772 = 2 \times 1587894 + 137984$	$d = \gcd(1587894, 137984)$
$r_4 = q_6r_5 + r_6$	$1587894 = 11 \times 137984 + 70070$	$d = \gcd(137984, 70070)$
$r_5 = q_7r_6 + r_7$	$137984 = 1 \times 70070 + 67914$	$d = \gcd(70070, 67914)$
$r_6 = q_8r_7 + r_8$	$70070 = 1 \times 67914 + 2156$	$d = \gcd(67914, 2156)$
$r_7 = q_9r_8 + r_9$	$67914 = 31 \times 2156 + 1078$	$d = \gcd(2156, 1078)$
$r_8 = q_{10}r_9 + r_{10}$	$2156 = 2 \times 1078 + 0$	$d = \gcd(1078, 0) = 1078$
Therefore, $d = \gcd(1160718174, 316258250) = 1078$		

Table 1. Euclidean Algorithm Example

Dividend	Divisor	Quotient	Remainder
$a = 1160718174$	$b = 316258250$	$q_1 = 3$	$r_1 = 211943424$
$b = 316258250$	$r_1 = 211943424$	$q_2 = 1$	$r_2 = 104314826$
$r_1 = 211943424$	$r_2 = 104314826$	$q_3 = 2$	$r_3 = 3313772$
$r_2 = 104314826$	$r_3 = 3313772$	$q_4 = 31$	$r_4 = 1587894$
$r_3 = 3313772$	$r_4 = 1587894$	$q_5 = 2$	$r_5 = 137984$
$r_4 = 1587894$	$r_5 = 137984$	$q_6 = 11$	$r_6 = 70070$
$r_5 = 137984$	$r_6 = 70070$	$q_7 = 1$	$r_7 = 67914$
$r_6 = 70070$	$r_7 = 67914$	$q_8 = 1$	$r_8 = 2156$
$r_7 = 67914$	$r_8 = 2156$	$q_9 = 31$	$r_9 = 1078$
$r_8 = 2156$	$r_9 = 1078$	$q_{10} = 2$	$r_{10} = 0$

In this example, we begin by dividing 1160718174 by 316258250, which gives 3 with a remainder of 211943424. Next we take 316258250 and divide it by 211943424. The process continues until we get a remainder of 0, yielding a result of 1078.

It will be helpful in what follows to recast the above computation in tabular form. For every step of the iteration, we have $r_{i-2} = q_i r_{i-1} + r_i$, where r_{i-2} is the dividend, r_{i-1} is the divisor, q_i is the quotient, and r_i is the remainder. Table 1 summarizes the results.

MODULAR ARITHMETIC

The Modulus

If a is an integer and n is a positive integer, we define $a \bmod n$ to be the remainder when a is divided by n . The integer n is called the **modulus**. Thus, for any integer a , we can rewrite Equation (4.1) as follows:

$$a = qn + r \quad 0 \leq r < n; q = \lfloor a/n \rfloor$$

$$a = \lfloor a/n \rfloor \times n + (a \bmod n)$$

$$11 \bmod 7 = 4; \quad -11 \bmod 7 = 3$$

Two integers a and b are said to be **congruent modulo n** , if $(a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n)$. This is written as $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.²

$$73 \equiv 4 \pmod{23}; \quad 21 \equiv -9 \pmod{10}$$

Note that if $a \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, then $n|a$.

²We have just used the operator *mod* in two different ways: first as a **binary operator** that produces a remainder, as in the expression $a \bmod b$; second as a **congruence relation** that shows the equivalence of two integers, as in the expression $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$. See Appendix 4A for a discussion.

Properties of Congruences

Congruences have the following properties:

1. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if $n \mid (a - b)$.
2. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ implies $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$.
3. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ imply $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$.

To demonstrate the first point, if $n \mid (a - b)$, then $(a - b) = kn$ for some k . So we can write $a = b + kn$. Therefore, $(a \bmod n) = (\text{remainder when } b + kn \text{ is divided by } n) = (\text{remainder when } b \text{ is divided by } n) = (b \bmod n)$.

$23 \equiv 8 \pmod{5}$	because	$23 - 8 = 15 = 5 \times 3$
$-11 \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$	because	$-11 - 5 = -16 = 8 \times (-2)$
$81 \equiv 0 \pmod{27}$	because	$81 - 0 = 81 = 27 \times 3$

The remaining points are as easily proved.

Modular Arithmetic Operations

Note that, by definition (Figure 1), the $(\bmod n)$ operator maps all integers into the set of integers $\{0, 1, \dots, (n - 1)\}$. This suggests the question: Can we perform arithmetic operations within the confines of this set? It turns out that we can; this technique is known as **modular arithmetic**.

Modular arithmetic exhibits the following properties:

1. $[(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a + b) \bmod n$
2. $[(a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a - b) \bmod n$
3. $[(a \bmod n) \times (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a \times b) \bmod n$

We demonstrate the first property. Define $(a \bmod n) = r_a$ and $(b \bmod n) = r_b$. Then we can write $a = r_a + jn$ for some integer j and $b = r_b + kn$ for some integer k . Then

$$\begin{aligned}(a + b) \bmod n &= (r_a + jn + r_b + kn) \bmod n \\ &= (r_a + r_b + (k + j)n) \bmod n \\ &= (r_a + r_b) \bmod n \\ &= [(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n\end{aligned}$$

The remaining properties are proven as easily. Here are examples of the three properties:

$11 \bmod 8 = 3; 15 \bmod 8 = 7$
$[(11 \bmod 8) + (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = 10 \bmod 8 = 2$
$(11 + 15) \bmod 8 = 26 \bmod 8 = 2$
$[(11 \bmod 8) - (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = -4 \bmod 8 = 4$
$(11 - 15) \bmod 8 = -4 \bmod 8 = 4$
$[(11 \bmod 8) \times (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = 21 \bmod 8 = 5$
$(11 \times 15) \bmod 8 = 165 \bmod 8 = 5$

Exponentiation is performed by repeated multiplication, as in ordinary arithmetic. (We have more to say about exponentiation in Chapter 8.)

To find $11^7 \pmod{13}$, we can proceed as follows:

$$11^2 = 121 \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$$

$$11^4 = (11^2)^2 \equiv 4^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$$

$$11^7 \equiv 11 \times 4 \times 3 \equiv 132 \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$$

Thus, the rules for ordinary arithmetic involving addition, subtraction, and multiplication carry over into modular arithmetic.

Table 2 provides an illustration of modular addition and multiplication modulo 8. Looking at addition, the results are straightforward, and there is a regular pattern to the matrix. Both matrices are symmetric about the main diagonal in conformance to the commutative property of addition and multiplication. As in ordinary addition, there is an additive inverse, or negative, to each integer in modular arithmetic. In this case, the negative of an integer x is the integer y such that $(x + y) \pmod{8} = 0$. To find the additive inverse of an integer in the left-hand column, scan across the corresponding row of the matrix to find the value 0; the

Table 2. Arithmetic Modulo 8

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

(a) Addition modulo 8

×	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	0	2	4	6	0	2	4	6
3	0	3	6	1	4	7	2	5
4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
5	0	5	2	7	4	1	6	3
6	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2
7	0	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

(b) Multiplication modulo 8

w	$-w$	w^{-1}
0	0	—
1	7	1
2	6	—
3	5	3
4	4	—
5	3	5
6	2	—
7	1	7

(c) Additive and multiplicative inverse modulo 8

integer at the top of that column is the additive inverse; thus, $(2 + 6) \bmod 8 = 0$. Similarly, the entries in the multiplication table are straightforward. In ordinary arithmetic, there is a multiplicative inverse, or reciprocal, to each integer. In modular arithmetic mod 8, the multiplicative inverse of x is the integer y such that $(x \times y) \bmod 8 = 1 \bmod 8$. Now, to find the multiplicative inverse of an integer from the multiplication table, scan across the matrix in the row for that integer to find the value 1; the integer at the top of that column is the multiplicative inverse; thus, $(3 \times 3) \bmod 8 = 1$. Note that not all integers mod 8 have a multiplicative inverse; more about that later.

Properties of Modular Arithmetic

Define the set Z_n as the set of nonnegative integers less than n :

$$Z_n = \{0, 1, \dots, (n - 1)\}$$

This is referred to as the **set of residues**, or **residue classes** (mod n). To be more precise, each integer in Z_n represents a residue class. We can label the residue classes (mod n) as $[0], [1], [2], \dots, [n - 1]$, where

$$[r] = \{a: a \text{ is an integer, } a \equiv r \pmod{n}\}$$

The residue classes (mod 4) are

$$[0] = \{\dots, -16, -12, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, 12, 16, \dots\}$$

$$[1] = \{\dots, -15, -11, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, \dots\}$$

$$[2] = \{\dots, -14, -10, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, \dots\}$$

$$[3] = \{\dots, -13, -9, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, \dots\}$$

Of all the integers in a residue class, the smallest nonnegative integer is the one used to represent the residue class. Finding the smallest nonnegative integer to which k is congruent modulo n is called **reducing k modulo n** .

If we perform modular arithmetic within Z_n , the properties shown in Table 3 hold for integers in Z_n . We show in the next section that this implies that Z_n is a commutative ring with a multiplicative identity element.

Table 3. Properties of Modular Arithmetic for Integers in Z_n

Property	Expression
Commutative Laws	$(w + x) \bmod n = (x + w) \bmod n$ $(w \times x) \bmod n = (x \times w) \bmod n$
Associative Laws	$[(w + x) + y] \bmod n = [w + (x + y)] \bmod n$ $[(w \times x) \times y] \bmod n = [w \times (x \times y)] \bmod n$
Distributive Law	$[w \times (x + y)] \bmod n = [(w \times x) + (w \times y)] \bmod n$
Identities	$(0 + w) \bmod n = w \bmod n$ $(1 \times w) \bmod n = w \bmod n$
Additive Inverse ($-w$)	For each $w \in Z_n$, there exists a z such that $w + z \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$

There is one peculiarity of modular arithmetic that sets it apart from ordinary arithmetic. First, observe that (as in ordinary arithmetic) we can write the following:

$$\mathbf{if} (a + b) \equiv (a + c) \pmod{n} \mathbf{ then } b \equiv c \pmod{n} \quad \mathbf{(4.4)}$$

$$(5 + 23) \equiv (5 + 7) \pmod{8}; 23 \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$$

Equation (4.4) is consistent with the existence of an additive inverse. Adding the additive inverse of a to both sides of Equation (4.4), we have

$$\begin{aligned} ((-a) + a + b) &\equiv ((-a) + a + c) \pmod{n} \\ b &\equiv c \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

However, the following statement is true only with the attached condition:

$$\mathbf{if} (a \times b) \equiv (a \times c) \pmod{n} \mathbf{ then } b \equiv c \pmod{n} \mathbf{ if } a \text{ is relatively prime to } n \quad \mathbf{(4.5)}$$

Recall that two integers are **relatively prime** if their only common positive integer factor is 1. Similar to the case of Equation (4.4), we can say that Equation (4.5) is consistent with the existence of a multiplicative inverse. Applying the multiplicative inverse of a to both sides of Equation (4.5), we have

$$\begin{aligned} ((a^{-1})ab) &\equiv ((a^{-1})ac) \pmod{n} \\ b &\equiv c \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

To see this, consider an example in which the condition of Equation (4.5) does not hold. The integers 6 and 8 are not relatively prime, since they have the common factor 2. We have the following:

$$6 \times 3 = 18 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$$

$$6 \times 7 = 42 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$$

Yet $3 \not\equiv 7 \pmod{8}$.

The reason for this strange result is that for any general modulus n , a multiplier a that is applied in turn to the integers 0 through $(n - 1)$ will fail to produce a complete set of residues if a and n have any factors in common.

With $a = 6$ and $n = 8$,

\mathbb{Z}_8	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Multiply by 6	0	6	12	18	24	30	36	42
Residues	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2

Because we do not have a complete set of residues when multiplying by 6, more than one integer in \mathbb{Z}_8 maps into the same residue. Specifically, $6 \times 0 \pmod{8} = 6 \times 4 \pmod{8}$; $6 \times 1 \pmod{8} = 6 \times 5 \pmod{8}$; and so on. Because this is a many-to-one mapping, there is not a unique inverse to the multiply operation.

(Continued)

(Continued)

However, if we take $a = 5$ and $n = 8$, whose only common factor is 1,

Z_8	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Multiply by 5	0	5	10	15	20	25	30	35
Residues	0	5	2	7	4	1	6	3

The line of residues contains all the integers in Z_8 , in a different order.

In general, an integer has a multiplicative inverse in Z_n if that integer is relatively prime to n . Table 2c shows that the integers 1, 3, 5, and 7 have a multiplicative inverse in Z_8 ; but 2, 4, and 6 do not.

Euclidean Algorithm Revisited

The Euclidean algorithm can be based on the following theorem: For any integers a, b , with $a \geq b \geq 0$,

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b) \quad (4.6)$$

$$\gcd(55, 22) = \gcd(22, 55 \bmod 22) = \gcd(22, 11) = 11$$

To see that Equation (4.6) works, let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then, by the definition of \gcd , $d|a$ and $d|b$. For any positive integer b , we can express a as

$$\begin{aligned} a &= kb + r \equiv r \pmod{b} \\ a \bmod b &= r \end{aligned}$$

with k, r integers. Therefore, $(a \bmod b) = a - kb$ for some integer k . But because $d|b$, it also divides kb . We also have $d|a$. Therefore, $d|(a \bmod b)$. This shows that d is a common divisor of b and $(a \bmod b)$. Conversely, if d is a common divisor of b and $(a \bmod b)$, then $d|kb$ and thus $d|[kb + (a \bmod b)]$, which is equivalent to $d|a$. Thus, the set of common divisors of a and b is equal to the set of common divisors of b and $(a \bmod b)$. Therefore, the \gcd of one pair is the same as the \gcd of the other pair, proving the theorem.

Equation (4.6) can be used repetitively to determine the greatest common divisor.

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(18, 12) &= \gcd(12, 6) = \gcd(6, 0) = 6 \\ \gcd(11, 10) &= \gcd(10, 1) = \gcd(1, 0) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

This is the same scheme shown in Equation (4.3), which can be rewritten in the following way.

Euclidean Algorithm	
Calculate	Which satisfies
$r_1 = a \bmod b$	$a = q_1b + r_1$
$r_2 = b \bmod r_1$	$b = q_2r_1 + r_2$
$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$	$r_1 = q_3r_2 + r_3$
• • •	• • •
$r_n = r_{n-2} \bmod r_{n-1}$	$r_{n-2} = q_n r_{n-1} + r_n$
$r_{n+1} = r_{n-1} \bmod r_n = 0$	$r_{n-1} = q_{n+1} r_n + 0$ $d = \gcd(a, b) = r_n$

We can define the Euclidean algorithm concisely as the following recursive function.

```
Euclid(a, b)
  if (b=0) then return a;
  else return Euclid(b, a mod b);
```

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm

We now proceed to look at an extension to the Euclidean algorithm that will be important for later computations in the area of finite fields and in encryption algorithms, such as RSA. For given integers a and b , the extended Euclidean algorithm not only calculate the greatest common divisor d but also two additional integers x and y that satisfy the following equation.

$$ax + by = d = \gcd(a, b) \tag{4.7}$$

It should be clear that x and y will have opposite signs. Before examining the algorithm, let us look at some of the values of x and y when $a = 42$ and $b = 30$. Note that $\gcd(42, 30) = 6$. Here is a partial table of values³ for $42x + 30y$.

x	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
y							
-3	-216	-174	-132	-90	-48	-6	36
-2	-186	-144	-102	-60	-18	24	66
-1	-156	-114	-72	-30	12	54	96
0	-126	-84	-42	0	42	84	126
1	-96	-54	-12	30	72	114	156
2	-66	-24	18	60	102	144	186
3	-36	6	48	90	132	174	216

Observe that all of the entries are divisible by 6. This is not surprising, because both 42 and 30 are divisible by 6, so every number of the form $42x + 30y = 6(7x + 5y)$ is a multiple of 6. Note also that $\gcd(42, 30) = 6$ appears in the table. In general, it can be shown that for given integers a and b , the smallest positive value of $ax + by$ is equal to $\gcd(a, b)$.

³This example is taken from [SILV06].

Now let us show how to extend the Euclidean algorithm to determine (x, y, d) given a and b . We again go through the sequence of divisions indicated in Equation (4.3), and we assume that at each step i we can find integers x_i and y_i that satisfy $r_i = ax_i + by_i$. We end up with the following sequence.

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &= q_1b + r_1 & r_1 &= ax_1 + by_1 \\
 b &= q_2r_1 + r_2 & r_2 &= ax_2 + by_2 \\
 r_1 &= q_3r_2 + r_3 & r_3 &= ax_3 + by_3 \\
 &\vdots & &\vdots \\
 &\vdots & &\vdots \\
 &\vdots & &\vdots \\
 r_{n-2} &= q_nr_{n-1} + r_n & r_n &= ax_n + by_n \\
 r_{n-1} &= q_{n+1}r_n + 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, observe that we can rearrange terms to write

$$r_i = r_{i-2} - r_{i-1}q_i \tag{4.8}$$

Also, in rows $i - 1$ and $i - 2$, we find the values

$$r_{i-2} = ax_{i-2} + by_{i-2} \quad \text{and} \quad r_{i-1} = ax_{i-1} + by_{i-1}$$

Substituting into Equation (4.8), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 r_i &= (ax_{i-2} + by_{i-2}) - (ax_{i-1} + by_{i-1})q_i \\
 &= a(x_{i-2} - q_ix_{i-1}) + b(y_{i-2} - q_iy_{i-1})
 \end{aligned}$$

But we have already assumed that $r_i = ax_i + by_i$. Therefore,

$$x_i = x_{i-2} - q_ix_{i-1} \quad \text{and} \quad y_i = y_{i-2} - q_iy_{i-1}$$

We now summarize the calculations:

Extended Euclidean Algorithm			
Calculate	Which satisfies	Calculate	Which satisfies
$r_{-1} = a$		$x_{-1} = 1; y_{-1} = 0$	$a = ax_{-1} + by_{-1}$
$r_0 = b$		$x_0 = 0; y_0 = 1$	$b = ax_0 + by_0$
$r_1 = a \bmod b$ $q_1 = \lfloor a/b \rfloor$	$a = q_1b + r_1$	$x_1 = x_{-1} - q_1x_0 = 1$ $y_1 = y_{-1} - q_1y_0 = -q_1$	$r_1 = ax_1 + by_1$
$r_2 = b \bmod r_1$ $q_2 = \lfloor b/r_1 \rfloor$	$b = q_2r_1 + r_2$	$x_2 = x_0 - q_2x_1$ $y_2 = y_0 - q_2y_1$	$r_2 = ax_2 + by_2$
$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ $q_3 = \lfloor r_1/r_2 \rfloor$	$r_1 = q_3r_2 + r_3$	$x_3 = x_1 - q_3x_2$ $y_3 = y_1 - q_3y_2$	$r_3 = ax_3 + by_3$
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •
$r_n = r_{n-2} \bmod r_{n-1}$ $q_n = \lfloor r_{n-2}/r_{n-1} \rfloor$	$r_{n-2} = q_nr_{n-1} + r_n$	$x_n = x_{n-2} - q_nx_{n-1}$ $y_n = y_{n-2} - q_ny_{n-1}$	$r_n = ax_n + by_n$
$r_{n+1} = r_{n-1} \bmod r_n = 0$ $q_{n+1} = \lfloor r_{n-1}/r_n \rfloor$	$r_{n-1} = q_{n+1}r_n + 0$		$d = \gcd(a, b) = r_n$ $x = x_n; y = y_n$

Table 4. Extended Euclidean Algorithm Example

i	r_i	q_i	x_i	y_i
-1	1759		1	0
0	550		0	1
1	109	3	1	-3
2	5	5	-5	16
3	4	21	106	-339
4	1	1	-111	355
5	0	4		

Result: $d = 1$; $x = -111$; $y = 355$

We need to make several additional comments here. In each row, we calculate a new remainder r_i based on the remainders of the previous two rows, namely r_{i-1} and r_{i-2} . To start the algorithm, we need values for r_0 and r_{-1} , which are just a and b . It is then straightforward to determine the required values for x_{-1} , y_{-1} , x_0 , and y_0 .

We know from the original Euclidean algorithm that the process ends with a remainder of zero and that the greatest common divisor of a and b is $d = \gcd(a, b) = r_n$. But we also have determined that $d = r_n = ax_n + by_n$. Therefore, in Equation (4.7), $x = x_n$ and $y = y_n$.

As an example, let us use $a = 1759$ and $b = 550$ and solve for $1759x + 550y = \gcd(1759, 550)$. The results are shown in Table 4. Thus, we have $1759 \times (-111) + 550 \times 355 = -195249 + 195250 = 1$.