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Euclid's Algorithm

Euclid's Algorithm appears as the solution to the Proposition VII.2 in the *Elements*

Καὶ ἡ ἀρίστη μέτρος τῶν ἀριθμῶν ἴσται τὸ ἐλάττωμα τοῦ μεγάλου τοῦ μικροῦ.

What Euclid called "common measure" is termed nowadays a *gcd*. The *Elements* then offers an algorithm for finding the *gcd* of two integers. Not surprisingly, the algorithm bears Euclid's name.

The algorithm is based on the following two observations:

- 1. If $b|a$ then $\gcd(a, b) = b$.
This is indeed so because no number (b , in particular) may have a divisor greater than the number itself (I am talking here of non-negative integers.)
- 2. If $a = bt + r$, for integers t and r , then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.
Indeed, every common divisor of a and b also divides r . Thus $\gcd(a, b)$ divides r . But, of course, $\gcd(a, b)|b$. Therefore, $\gcd(a, b)$ is a common divisor of b and r and hence $\gcd(a, b) \leq \gcd(b, r)$. The reverse is also true because every divisor of b and r also divides a .

Example

Let $a = 2322$, $b = 654$.

$2322 = 654 \cdot 3 + 360$	$\gcd(2322, 654) = \gcd(654, 360)$
$654 = 360 \cdot 1 + 294$	$\gcd(654, 360) = \gcd(360, 294)$
$360 = 294 \cdot 1 + 66$	$\gcd(360, 294) = \gcd(294, 66)$
$294 = 66 \cdot 4 + 30$	$\gcd(294, 66) = \gcd(66, 30)$
$66 = 30 \cdot 2 + 6$	$\gcd(66, 30) = \gcd(30, 6)$
$30 = 6 \cdot 5$	$\gcd(30, 6) = 6$

Therefore, $\gcd(2322, 654) = 6$.

For any pair a and b , the algorithm is bound to terminate since every new step generates a similar problem (that of finding *gcd*) for a pair of smaller integers. Let $E(a, b)$ denote the length of the Euclidean algorithm for a pair a, b . $E(2322, 654) = 6$, $E(30, 6) = 1$. I'll use this notation in the proof of the following very important consequence of the algorithm:

Corollary

Ἡ ἀρίστη μέτρος τῶν ἀριθμῶν ἀποτελεῖ τὸν μέγιστον κοινὸν μέτρον αὐτῶν.

Example

$2322 \times 20 + 654 \times (-71) = 6$.

Proof

Let $a > b$. The proof is by induction on $E(a, b)$. If $E(a, b) = 1$, i.e., if $b|a$, then $a = bu$ for an integer u . Hence, $a + (1 - u)b = b = \gcd(a, b)$. We can take $s = 1$ and $t = 1 - u$.

Assume the Corollary has been established for all pairs of numbers for which Eulen is less than n . Let $\text{Eulen}(a, b) = n$. Apply one step of the algorithm: $a = bu + r$. $\text{Eulen}(b, r) = n - 1$. By the inductive assumption, there exist x and y such that $bx + ry = \gcd(b, r) = \gcd(a, b)$. Express r as $r = a - bu$. Hence, $ry = ay - buy$; $bx + (ay - buy) = \gcd(a, b)$. Finally, $b(x - uy) + ay = \gcd(a, b)$ and we can take $s = x - uy$ and $t = y$.

There is also a way to prove the Corollary that employs the same idea. Let $a = bu + r$. Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$. By the inductive assumption, there exist x and y such that $bx + ry = \gcd(b, r) = \gcd(a, b)$. Express r as $r = a - bu$. Hence, $ry = ay - buy$; $bx + (ay - buy) = \gcd(a, b)$. Finally, $b(x - uy) + ay = \gcd(a, b)$ and we can take $s = x - uy$ and $t = y$.

Remark

Note that any linear combination $as + bt$ is divisible by any common factor of a and b . In particular, any common factor of a and b also divides $\gcd(a, b)$. In a "reverse" application, any linear combination $as + bt$ is divisible by $\gcd(a, b)$. From here it follows that $\gcd(a, b)$ is the least positive integer representable in the form $as + bt$. All the rest are multiples of $\gcd(a, b)$. The generalization of the Corollary to what is known as **Tungrephni ephsq em** is known as **FD-syxwini r xj** or **FD-syxwPi q q e** after the French mathematician Étienne Bézout (1730-1783), so it often happens that the result stated in the Corollary is also often referred to as **FD-syxwini r xj** or **FD-syxwPi q q e**.



For $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, the Corollary states that there exist integers s and t such that $as + bt = 1$. This Corollary is a powerful tool. It appeared in the 7th century AD in the **Kjævv, l xj vj** or **sxsk3 exi v62l xj p** and **Lsyv Kjævv, l xj vj** or **sxsk3 kcvjxar 2l xj p** problems. For example, let's prove the Euclid's Proposition VII.30

l xj s r y q f i v w q y p h n i f s r i e r s l i v q e d v s q i r y q f i v e r h e r t v q i r y q f i v q i e v y v w l i t v h y g x s j t v q i v 2 w j g l e v i t v i r x e s s r n w y r n y i y t x s l i s v h i v s j t v q i j e g s w 2

Let a prime p divide the product ab . Assume $p \nmid a$. Then $\gcd(a, p) = 1$. By Corollary, $ax + py = 1$ for some x and y . Multiply by b : $abx + pby = b$. Now, $p|ab$ and $p|pb$. Hence, $p|b$.

Actually, this proves a generalization of the Proposition VII.30 I used several times on these pages:

Let $m|ab$ and $\gcd(a, m) = 1$. Then $m|b$.

Proposition VII.30 immediately implies the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic although Euclid has never stated it explicitly. The first time it was formulated in 1801 by Gauss in his **Hvuyvnsar i wevnl q i xgei**.

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Er mxi ki vR ger f i v i t v i r x i h ewe t v h y g x s j t v q i v 2 w j g l e v i t v i r x e s s r n w y r n y i y t x s l i s v h i v s j t v q i j e g s w 2

Since, by definition, a number is **gsq t swi** if it has factors other than 1 and itself, and these factors are bound to be smaller than the number, we can keep extracting the factors until only prime factors remain. This shows existence of the representation: $N = pqr \dots$, where all p, q, r, \dots are prime. To prove uniqueness, assume there are two representations: $N = pqr \dots = uvw \dots$. We see that p divides $uvw \dots$. By Corollary, it divides one of the factors u, v, w, \dots . Cancel them out. We can go on chipping away on the factors left and right until no factors remain.

V i t v i r x e s s r s j e r y q f i v e w l i t v h y g x s j t v q i v w j g l e v i t v i r x e s s r n w y r n y i y t x s l i s v h i v s j t v q i j e g s w 2

Note: Euclid's Algorithm is not the only way to determine the greatest common factor of two integers. If you can find the prime factorizations of the two numbers you can easily determine their gcd as the **mxi wi gxar sj x i q y p n i x w**, **l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3KGFH** **FXi i 2l xj p** formed by their prime factors. **Jegsv Xi i w, l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3FXi i Xi wmk 2l xj p** offer a convenient bookkeeping for finding prime factorizations of integers.

References

- H. Davenport, **Xi i L r h l i v E v n l q i x g 0 L e v i v F v s l i w 0 R**, **l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3KGFH** **FXi i 2l xj p** formed by their prime factors. **Jegsv Xi i w, l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3FXi i Xi wmk 2l xj p** offer a convenient bookkeeping for finding prime factorizations of integers.
- V. K. Lev, **eq 0H2Oryxl 0S2Teww r n o**, **l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3KGFH** **FXi i 2l xj p** formed by their prime factors. **Jegsv Xi i w, l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3FXi i Xi wmk 2l xj p** offer a convenient bookkeeping for finding prime factorizations of integers.
- Oystein Ore, **Ryq f i v X i i s v j e r h M v L n v s v j**, **l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3KGFH** **FXi i 2l xj p** formed by their prime factors. **Jegsv Xi i w, l xj vj** or **sxsk3 Gywrgy q 3E vnl q i xg3FXi i Xi wmk 2l xj p** offer a convenient bookkeeping for finding prime factorizations of integers.

4. S. K. Stein, *Qex i q exgw>Xi i Qer 1Qehi Yr m i wi*,
I, xt w33 { { 2eq e~sr 2gsq 3 | i g3sf rhsw8MFRA48<: 8489453gxvsvjX(evi mgE3, 3rd edition, Dover, 2000.

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