

# COMP170

# Discrete Mathematical Tools for Computer Science

## Inverses and GCDs

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*Discrete Math for Computer Science*

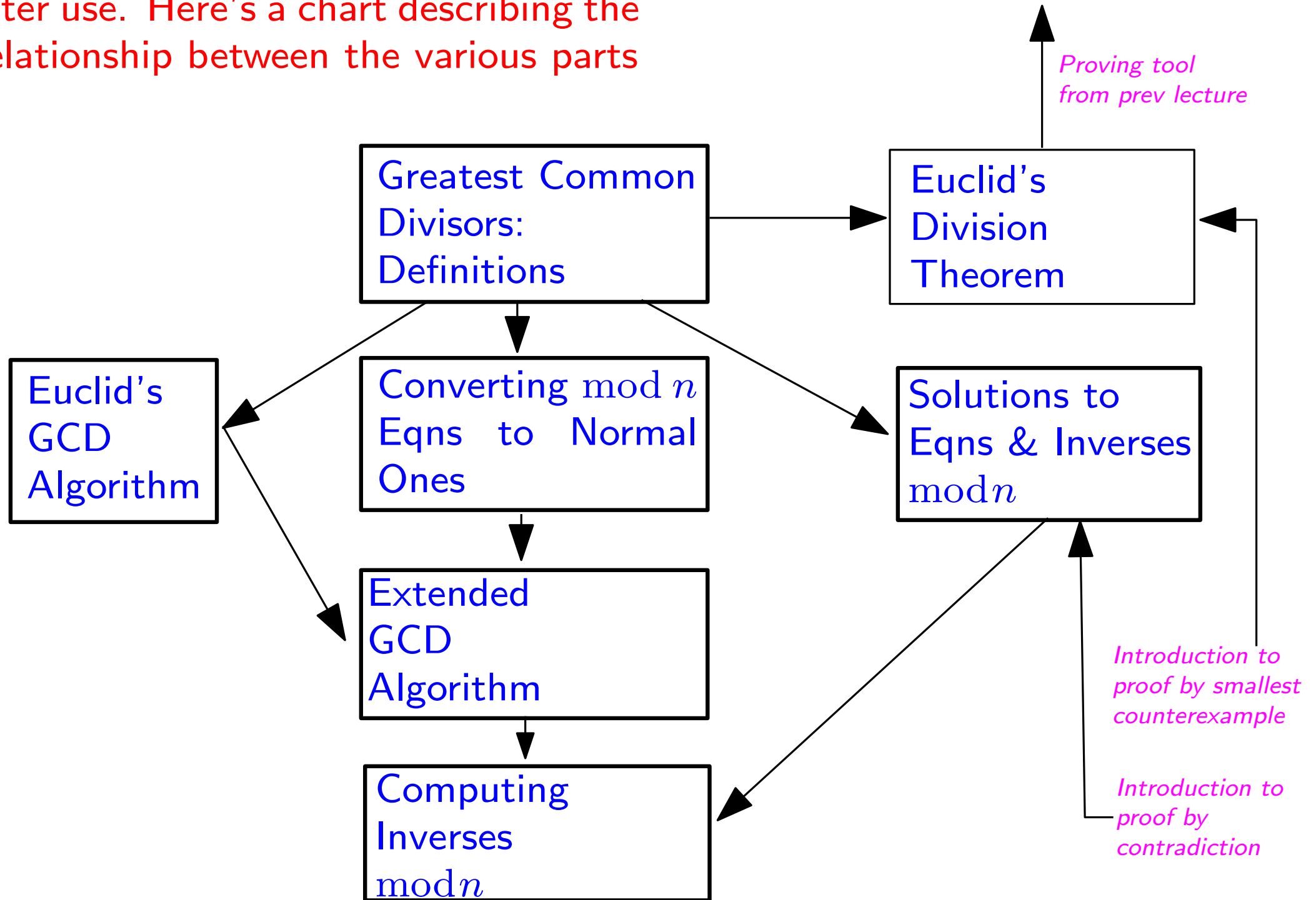
*K. Bogart, C. Stein and R.L. Drysdale*

*Section 2.2, pp. 56-69*

## 2.2 Inverses and Greatest Common Divisors

- Greatest Common Divisors
- Euclid's Division Theorem
- Euclid's GCD Algorithm
- Solutions to Equations and Inverses mod  $n$
- Converting Modular Equations to Normal Equations
- Extended GCD Algorithm
- Computing Inverses

This lecture develops lots of tools for later use. Here's a chart describing the relationship between the various parts



## Definition:

- Positive integer  $m$  is a **divisor** of integer  $n$  if  $n = mq$  for some integer  $q$
- if  $m$  is a divisor of  $n$  we write  $m|n$ .  
(say) “ $m$  divides  $n$ ”
- if  $m$  is a **not** a divisor of  $n$  we write  $m \nmid n$ .  
(say) “ $m$  does not divide  $n$ ”

## Examples:

- $1|30$ ,  $5|30$ ,  $5|35$ ,  $5 \nmid 31$

## Definition:

- If  $p$  is a divisor of both  $m$  and  $n$  then  $p$  is a common divisor of  $m$  and  $n$
- $\gcd(m, n)$  denotes the greatest common divisor of  $m$  and  $n$ .  
1 is always a common divisor of  $m$  and  $n$

## Examples:

- $\{1, 2, 3, 6\}$  are *all* of the common divisors of 24 and 30.
- $\gcd(24, 30) = 6$

## Definition:

- Positive integer  $p > 1$  is **prime** if its only divisors are 1 and itself . If  $p$  is not prime, it is **composite**.
- $m$  and  $n$  are **relatively prime** if they have no common divisor other than 1, i.e.,  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ .

## Examples:

- 2, 3, 5, 7, 11 are prime.  
33 = 3 · 11 is composite
- $\gcd(77, 34) = 1$ , so 77 and 34 are relatively prime  
 $\gcd(77, 33) = 11$ , so 77 and 33 are *not* relatively prime

The main goal of this lecture is to prove the Theorem and Corollary below and also to show how to calculate the corresponding  $x$  and  $y$  and multiplicative inverses.

In order to get to that point we will have to develop a lot of auxiliary machinery. We will see in the next lecture that this auxiliary machinery will be useful for implementing RSA public-key cryptography.

**Theorem 2.15:** Two positive integers  $j, k$  are relatively prime, i.e.,  $\gcd(j, k) = 1$ , if and only if there are integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $jx + ky = 1$ .

**Corollary 2.16:** For any positive integer  $n$ , an element  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  has a multiplicative inverse if and only if  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

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Recall that in the last section we learnt about Euclid's division theorem and proved facts based upon it. In this subsection, we prove the correctness of Euclid's division theorem

# Euclid's Division Theorem

**Theorem 2.12 (Euclid's Division Theorem, Restricted Version):** Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Then for every nonnegative integer  $m$ , there exist unique integers  $q, r$  such that  $m = nq + r$  and  $0 \leq r < n$ .

*Note 1: By definition,  $r = m \bmod n$ .*

*Note 2: This is **restricted** because we assume that  $m$  is nonnegative. Book problem shows how to extend this to negative  $m$  as well.*

**Theorem 2.12 (Euclid's Division Theorem, Restricted Version):** Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Then for every nonnegative integer  $m$ , there exist unique integers  $q, r$  such that  $m = nq + r$  and  $0 \leq r < n$ .

**Proof:**

(i) First, show that, for each  $m$ , there is at least one pair of integers  $q, r$  satisfying

$$(*) \quad m = qn + r \text{ with } 0 \leq r < n$$

(ii) Then show that this pair  $q, r$  is *unique*

Assume, (proof by contradiction), that there is a non-negative integer  $m$  for which no such  $q$  and  $r$  exist.

$$(*) \ m = qn + r \text{ with } 0 \leq r < n$$

(i) Assume (proof by contradiction) that there is a nonnegative integer  $m$  for which no  $q, r$  satisfying  $(*)$  exists

Choose the **smallest**  $m$  for which  $q, r$  satisfying  $(*)$  does not exist.

If  $m < n$ ,  $\Rightarrow m = 0 \cdot n + m$  so

$(*)$  is satisfied with  $q = 0$ ,  $r = m$   
contradicting assumption.

$\Rightarrow m \geq n$ , so  $m - n$  is a nonnegative integer

Since  $m - n$  is smaller than  $m$ , there exist integers  $q', r'$   
such that  $m - n = nq' + r'$  with  $0 \leq r' < n$ .

Setting  $q = q' + 1$  and  $r = r'$ , we obtain

$$(*) \ m = qn + r \text{ with } 0 \leq r < n.$$

This contradicts choice of  $m$   $\Rightarrow$  for all  $m$  there exist some  $q, r$   
satisfying  $(*)$

$$(*) \quad m = qn + r \text{ with } 0 \leq r < n$$

(ii) We just showed that, for every  $m$ , there *exists* some  $q, r$  satisfying  $m$ . We now show that these  $q, r$  are *unique*

Suppose that  $m = nq + r$  and  $m = nq^* + r^*$  with  $0 \leq r < n$  and  $0 \leq r^* < n$ .

$$0 = n(q - q^*) + r - r^* \quad \Rightarrow \quad n(q - q^*) = r^* - r.$$

$$|r^* - r| < n \text{ (why)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad |n(q - q^*)| = |r^* - r| < n.$$

Because  $n$  is a factor of the left side, the only way the inequality can hold is if  $|n(q - q^*)| = |r^* - r| = 0$ .

Therefore,  $q = q^*$  and  $r = r^*$ ,  
proving that  $q$  and  $r$  satisfying  $(*)$  are unique.

Here, we have used a special case of  
**proof by contradiction**  
that we call

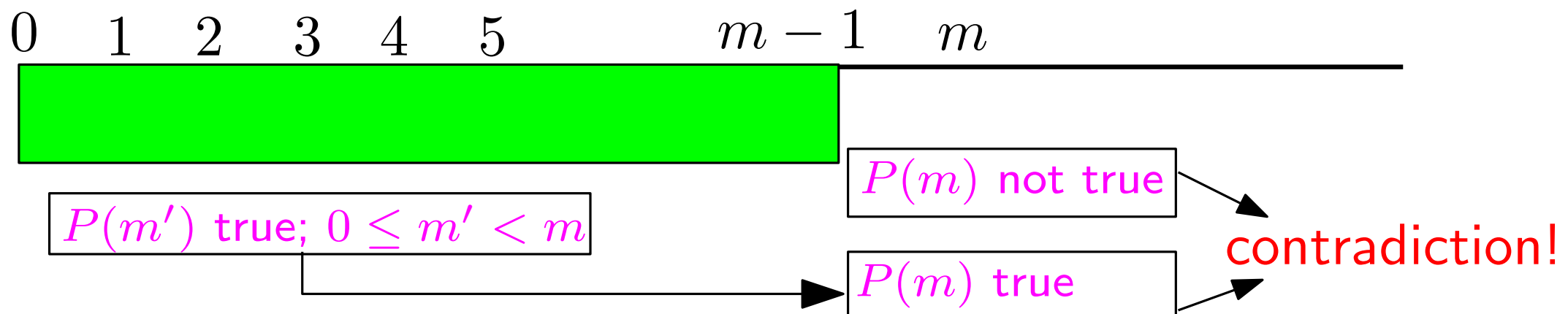
**proof by smallest counterexample.**

In this method, we assume, as in all proofs by contradiction, that the theorem is false, which implies that there must be a **counterexample** that does not satisfy the theorem's conditions.

This method is closely related to a proof method called *proof by induction* (to be seen later)

Proof by smallest counterexample that  
statement  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  works by

- (i) Assuming that a non-zero counterexample exists, i.e.,  
There is some  $n > 0$  for which  $P(n)$  is not true
- (ii) Letting  $m > 0$  be *smallest* value for which  $P(m)$  is not true
- (iii) Then use fact that  $P(m')$  is true for all  $0 \leq m' < m$   
to show that  $P(m)$  is true,  
*contradicting* original choice of  $m$ .  
 $\Rightarrow P(n)$  true for **all**  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$



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Before returning to multiplicative inverses, we first see how to calculate  $\gcd(j, k)$

Suppose  $k = jq + r$ . Is there a relationship between  $\gcd(j, k)$  and  $\gcd(r, j)$ ?

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**Lemma 2.13** If  $j, k, q$ , and  $r$  are nonnegative integers such that  $k = jq + r$ , then  $\gcd(j, k) = \gcd(r, j)$ .

**Proof:**

(i)  $r = 0$ :

Then  $\gcd(r, j) = j$  since every number divides 0.

But  $k = jq$  so  $\gcd(k, j) = j = \gcd(j, r)$   
and we are done.

**Lemma 2.13** If  $j, k, q$ , and  $r$  are nonnegative integers such that  $k = jq + r$ , then  $\gcd(j, k) = \gcd(r, j)$ .

**Proof: (cont)**

(ii)  $r > 0$ :

Let  $d$  be a *common factor* of  $j, k$

$\Rightarrow k = i_1 d$  and  $j = i_2 d$  for some nonnegative  $i_1, i_2$ .

$\Rightarrow d$  is a *common factor* of  $r = k - jq = (i_1 - i_2 q)d$

Let  $d$  be a *common factor* of  $j, r$

$\Rightarrow j = i_2 d$  and  $r = i_3 d$  for some nonnegative  $i_2, i_3$ .

$\Rightarrow d$  is a *common factor* of  $k = jq + r = (i_2 q + i_3)d$

So  $d$  is a *common factor* of  $j, k$  iff  $d$  is a *common factor* of  $r, j$

$\Rightarrow d = \gcd(j, k)$  iff  $d = \gcd(r, j)$

# Euclid's GCD Algorithm

**Lemma 2.13** If  $j, k, q$ , and  $r$  are nonnegative integers such that  $k = jq + r$ , then  $\gcd(j, k) = \gcd(r, j)$ .

- 1)  $GCD(k, j)$  where  $0 \leq j < k$
- 2) If  $j = 0$  answer is  $k$
- 3) Else
- 4) Write  $k = jq + r$  where  $r = k \bmod j$
- 5) Answer is  $GCD(j, r)$

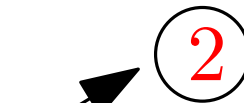
Note that  $r$  is nonnegative, and every time line 4 is executed,  $r < j$ , so the value of  $r$  **decreases**. Therefore, in a finite number of steps, process reaches  $j = 0$  and **terminates**

- 1)  $GCD(k, j)$  where  $0 \leq j < k$
- 2) If  $j = 0$  answer is  $k$
- 3) Else
- 4) Write  $k = jq + r$  where  $r = k \bmod j$
- 5) Answer is  $GCD(j, r)$

**Example:** Find  $gcd(102, 70)$

$k$	$=$	$j(q)$	$+$	$r$	$k$	$j$	$r$	$q$
102	$=$	70(1)	$+$	32	102	70	32	1
70	$=$	32(2)	$+$	6	70	32	6	2
32	$=$	6(5)	$+$	2	32	6	2	5
6	$=$	2(3)	$+$	0	6	2	0	3
					2	0		

$$gcd(102, 70) = 2$$



- 1)  $GCD(k, j)$  where  $0 \leq j < k$
- 2) If  $j = 0$  answer is  $k$
- 3) Else
- 4) Write  $k = jq + r$  where  $r = k \bmod j$
- 5) Answer is  $GCD(j, r)$

**Example:** Find  $gcd(252, 189)$

$k$	$=$	$j(q)$	$+$	$r$	$k$	$j$	$r$	$q$
252	$=$	189(1)	$+$	63	252	189	63	1
189	$=$	63(3)	$+$	0	189	63	0	3
					63	0		

$gcd(252, 189) = 63$

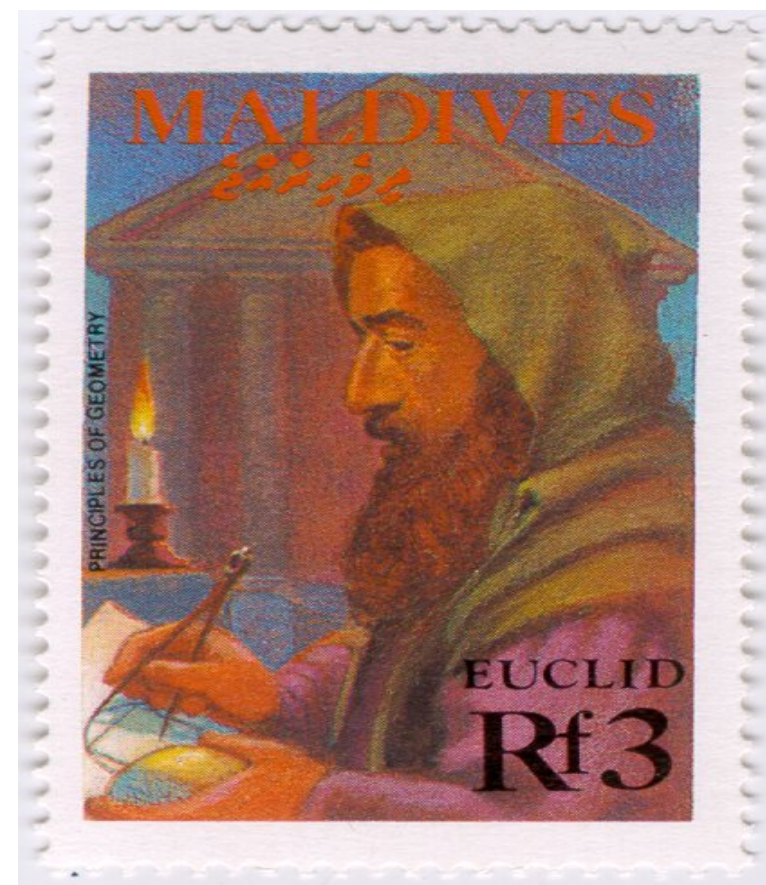
# Euclid of Alexandria

*ca. 325BC – 265BC*

If he existed, most probably a Greek Mathematician who taught at Alexandria (Egypt)

Most famous for his *Elements*, considered to be one of history's most successful textbooks.

The *Elements* contains 13 books. Book 7 is on number theory and contains the GCD algorithm



See <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Euclid> and  
<http://www-groups.dcs.st-and.ac.uk/~history/Mathematicians/Euclid.html>

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# Solutions to Equations and Inverses mod $n$

- Given  $a$ , to decide whether  $a \cdot_n x = b$  has a *unique solution* in  $Z_n$ , it helps to know whether  $a$  has a **multiplicative inverse** in  $Z_n$ .
- A **multiplicative inverse** is  $a'$  such that  $a' \cdot_n a = 1$ .
- Example: in  $Z_9$   
 $2 \cdot_9 5 = 1$  so the inverse of 2 is 5  
3 does **not** have an inverse because  
 $3 \cdot_9 x = 1$  does **not** have a solution.  
*This can be verified by checking the 9 possible values for  $x$ .*



**Lemma 2.5:** If  $a$  has multiplicative inverse  $a' \in Z_n$ , then for any  $b \in Z_n$ , the equation  $a \cdot_n x = b$  has the solution  $x = a' \cdot_n b$ , and this solution is unique.

## Proof:

If  $a$  has inverse  $a' \in Z_n$  and  $(*) \ a \cdot_n x = b$

- i)  $a' \cdot_n (a \cdot_n x) = a' \cdot_n b$       Multiply both sides by  $a'$
- ii)  $(a' \cdot_n a) \cdot_n x = a' \cdot_n b$       By the associative law
- iii)  $x = a' \cdot_n b$       By definition of inverse

Since this is valid for *any*  $x$  that satisfies  $(*)$ , we conclude that *only*  $x = a' \cdot_n b$  could satisfy  $(*)$ .

To see that  $x = a' \cdot_n b$  satisfies  $(*)$  just multiply to find that

$$a \cdot_n x = a \cdot_n (a' \cdot_n b) = b$$

**Theorem 2.7:** If element  $a \in Z_n$  has a multiplicative inverse, then the inverse is **unique**

**Proof:**

Let  $a$  have some inverse  $a' \in Z_n$ .

Now apply the previous lemma with  $b = 1$ . It says that

$$\text{If } a \cdot_n x = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = a' \cdot_n 1 = a'.$$

This can be read as saying that,

“if  $a'$  is an inverse of  $a$  in  $Z_n$   
and  $x$  is also an inverse of  $a$  in  $Z_n$   
then  $x = a'$ ”,

so the inverse is unique.

For each  $n = 5, 6, 7, 8,$  and  $9,$  determine which nonzero elements  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  have multiplicative inverses and, if they do, what the inverses are.

$\mathbb{Z}_5$	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

→

$a$	1	2	3	4
$a'$	1	3	2	4

$\mathbb{Z}_6$	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	2	3	4	5
2	2	4	0	2	4
3	3	0	3	0	3
4	4	2	0	4	2
5	5	4	3	2	1

→

$a$	1	2	3	4	5
$a'$	1	X	X	X	5

*X denotes no inverse*

$Z_5:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4
$a'$	1	3	2	4

 $Z_6:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5
$a'$	1	X	X	X	5

 $Z_7:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6
$a'$	1	4	5	2	3	6

 $Z_8:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$a'$	1	X	3	X	5	X	7

 $Z_9:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$a'$	1	5	X	7	2	X	4	8

- We've just seen how to find inverses (or the lack of them) by scanning through the entire multiplication table.  
Is there a more efficient way?
- We will now see a way of proving that an inverse does not exist,
- We will then develop an efficient way of calculating inverses when they do exist.

**Corollary 2.6:** Suppose there is a  $b \in Z_n$  such that  $a \cdot_n x = b$  does not have a solution. Then  $a$  does not have a multiplicative inverse in  $Z_n$ .

**Proof (by contradiction!):**

- i) Assume  $(*)$   $a \cdot_n x = b$  does not have a solution.
- ii) Suppose further that  
 $(**)$   $a$  does have a multiplicative inverse  $a' \in Z_n$ .
- iii) Then by Lemma 2.5,  
 $x = a' \cdot_n b$  is a solution to  $a \cdot_n x = b$ .
- iv) This contradicts the hypothesis  $(*)$  that  
 $a \cdot_n x = b$  does not have a solution.

One of the assumptions —

(\*)  $a \cdot_n x = b$  does **not** have a solution.

– was the hypothesis given to us in the corollary's statement.

The only other assumption we made was

(\*\*)  $a$  does have a multiplicative inverse  $a' \in Z_n$ .

Assuming both (\*) and (\*\*) led to a **contradiction**.

It must therefore be the case that, if (\*) is true, then (\*\*) **can not** be true.

Thus, if  $a \cdot_n x = b$  does **not** have a solution, then  $a$  does **not** have a multiplicative inverse  $a' \in Z_n$ .

*A classical example of **proof by contradiction**.*

## **Principle 2.1 (Proof by Contradiction):**

If, by assuming a statement we want to prove is false,  
we are led to a contradiction,  
then the statement we are trying to prove  
must be true.



**Corollary 2.6:** Suppose there is a  $b \in Z_n$  such that  $a \cdot_n x = b$  does not have a solution. Then  $a$  does not have a multiplicative inverse in  $Z_n$ .

Now consider  $Z_6$ . The equation  $2 \cdot_6 x = 3$  can not have a solution because  $2x$  will always be even so  $2x \bmod 6$  will always be even.

The corollary therefore tells us that  $2$  does not have a multiplicative inverse in  $Z_6$ . We originally discovered this by checking all of the possibilities, but now we don't have to.

$Z_6$ :

$a$	1	2	3	4	5
$a'$	1	X	X	X	5

$Z_5:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4
$a'$	1	3	2	4

Note that 5, 7 are prime and all of the elements in  $Z_5, Z_7$  have inverses.

 $Z_6:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5
$a'$	1	X	X	X	5

For the non-prime  $n \in 6, 8, 9$  the elements in  $Z_n$  that have inverses are exactly those elements that are relatively prime to  $n$ .

 $Z_7:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6
$a'$	1	4	5	2	3	6

 $Z_8:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$a'$	1	X	3	X	5	X	7

Nice pattern!  
Is this always true?  
Yes!

 $Z_9:$ 

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$a'$	1	5	X	7	2	X	4	8

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## Converting Modular Equations to Normal Equations

**Lemma 2.8** The modular equation  $a \cdot_n x = 1$  has a solution in  $Z_n$  if and only if there exist integers  $x, y$  such that  $(*) \quad ax + ny = 1$ .

**Proof:**

Rewrite  $a \cdot_n x = 1$  as  $ax \bmod n = 1$ .

But  $ax \bmod n$  is *defined* as remainder  $r$  that we get when we write  $ax = qn + r$ , with  $0 \leq r < n$ .

So, if  $a \cdot_n x = 1$   $\Rightarrow$  we can write  $ax + (-q)n = 1$  in form  $(*)$ .

If  $(*)$  for some  $y$  then  $ax = (-y)n + 1$  so

by definition of mod,  $ax \bmod n = 1 \Rightarrow a \cdot_n x = 1$ .

We just derived

**Lemma 2.8** The modular equation  $a \cdot_n x = 1$  has a solution in  $Z_n$  if and only if there exist integers  $x, y$  such that  $(*) \quad ax + ny = 1$ .

This can be restated as

**Theorem 2.9:** A number  $a$  has a multiplicative inverse in  $Z_n$  if and only if there are integers  $x, y$  such that  $ax + ny = 1$ .

We just characterized the *existence* of a multiplicative inverse by

**Theorem 2.9:** A number  $a$  has a multiplicative inverse in  $Z_n$  if and only if there are integers  $x, y$  such that  $ax + ny = 1$ .

Can this Theorem help us *find* the inverse? **Yes!**

**Corollary 2.10:** If  $a \in Z_n$  and  $x, y$  are integers such that  $ax + ny = 1$ , then the multiplicative inverse of  $a$  in  $Z_n$  is  $x \bmod n$ .

**Proof:** Since  $n \cdot_n y = 0$ ,

$$a \cdot_n x = a \cdot_n x +_n n \cdot_n y = (ax + ny) \bmod n = 1$$

Multiple appl of Lemma 2.3

Suppose  $ax + ny = 1$  for integers  $x, y$ .

Can  $a, n$  have any common divisors other than 1 and  $-1$ ?

- If  $a, n$  have a common divisor  $k$   
 $\Rightarrow$  must exist integers  $s$  and  $q$   
such that  $a = sk$  and  $n = qk$ .

- Plugging into  $ax + ny = 1$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= ax + ny \\ &= skx + qky \\ &= k(sx + qy). \end{aligned}$$

- But then  $k$  is a divisor of 1.

Since *only* divisors of 1 are 1,  $-1 \Rightarrow k = 1$  or  $-1$ .

We just saw that, if  $ax + ny = 1$  for integers  $x, y$  then the only common divisors of  $a, n$  are  $1, -1$ .

This can be restated as

**Lemma 2.11:** Given  $a$  and  $n$ , if there exist integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $ax + ny = 1$ , then  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  — that is,  $a$  and  $n$  are relatively prime.



# The Story So Far ....

- **Theorem 2.9:**  $a$  has a multiplicative inverse in  $Z_n$  if and only if there are integers  $x, y$  such that  $ax + ny = 1$ .
- **Corollary 2.10:** If  $a \in Z_n$  and  $x, y$  are integers s.t.  $ax + ny = 1$ , then the solution to  $a \cdot_n \bar{x} = 1$  is  $\bar{x} = x \bmod n$ .
- **Lemma 2.11:** Given  $a, n$ , if there exist integers  $x, y$  such that  $ax + ny = 1$ , then  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

## What's missing?

- If  $x, y$  exist, how do we find them (and via  $x$ , the multiplicative inverses)?
- If  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , do there always exist  $x, y$  s.t.  $ax + ny = 1$ ?

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# What's missing?

- If  $x, y$  exist, how do we find them (and via  $x$ , the multiplicative inverses)?
- If  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , do there always exist  $x, y$  s.t.  $ax + ny = 1$ ?

We will be able to find the  $x, y$  using the  
**Extended GCD Algorithm.**

As a side effect, it will also prove that, if  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ ,  
there always exists  $x, y$  s.t.  $ax + ny = 1$ .

Combining with Lemma 2.11 this will show that

$\gcd(a, n) = 1$  iff there exists  $x, y$  s.t.  $ax + ny = 1$

# Extended GCD Algorithm

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Returns not only GCD, of  $j, k$  with  $j < k$  but also  $x, y$  such that  $\gcd(j, k) = jx + ky$ .

(i) Base case:  $k = jq$ :

$\gcd(j, k) = j$  with  $x = 1, y = 0$ .

(ii) Nonbase case:  $k \neq jq$  so  $k = jq + r$  with  $0 < r < j$

Recursively compute  $\gcd(r, j)$   
and  $x', y'$  s.t.  $\gcd(r, j) = rx' + jy'$ .

Because  $r = k - jq$ ,

$$\gcd(r, j) = (k - jq)x' + jy' = kx' + j(y' - qx')$$

so  $\gcd(k, j) = \gcd(r, j) = jx + ky$   
where  $y = x'$  and  $x = y' - qx'$ .

- 1)  $GCD(k, j)$  where  $0 \leq j < k$   
Returns  $gcd(k, j)$  and  
 $x, y$  s.t.  $jx + ky = gcd(k, j)$
- 2) If  $k = jq$ , return  $gcd(k, j) = j$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$
- 3) Else
- 4) Write  $k = jq + r$  where  $r = k \bmod j$
- 5) Run  $GCD(r, j)$  to find  $gcd(r, j)$   
and  $x', y'$  s.t.  $gcd(r, j) = rx' + jy'$
- 6) Return  $gcd(r, j)$ ,  $x = y' - qx'$  and  $y = x'$

Can implement this in two different ways

- (i) Recursively (if you know about recursion already) or
- (ii) Iteratively. First run the standard GCD algorithm  
“top-down”, calculating all of the  $k, j, r, q$ .

Then run the extended part “bottom-up”,  
calculating the values of the  $x, y$ .

We will now see an example of the iterative version.

We start at  $i = 0$  with our original  $j, k$  and increase  $i$  each time we descend. This means that, given  $j[i], k[i]$ , we calculate

$$q[i], r[i] \text{ such that } k[i] = j[i]q[i] + r[i] \text{ where} \\ r[i] = k[i] \bmod j[i]$$

and also  $x[i], y[i]$  such that

$$j[i]x[i] + k[i]y[i] = \gcd(k[i], j[i])$$

Note that, in this notation

$$y[i - 1] = x[i] \text{ and } x[i - 1] = y[i] - q[i - 1]x[i]$$

Recall that **(\*\*)**  $y[i-1] = x[i]$  and **(\*)**  $x[i-1] = y[i] - q[i-1]x[i]$   
 and we want  $j[i]x[i] + k[i]y[i] = \gcd(k[i], j[i])$

Example:  $k = 24, j = 14$

$i$	$k[i]$	$=$	$j[i]q[i]$	$+$	$r[i]$	$k[i]$	$j[i]$	$r[i]$	$q[i]$	$y[i]$	$x[i]$
0	24	$=$	$14(1)$	$+$	10	24	14	10	1	3	-5
1	14	$=$	$10(1)$	$+$	4	14	10	4	1	-2	3
2	10	$=$	$4(2)$	$+$	2	10	4	2	2	1	-2
3	4	$=$	$2(2)$	$+$	0	4	2	0	2	0	1

- 1) First run the regular GCD algorithm: get  $\gcd(24, 14) = 2$
- 2) Then calculate  $y[3] = 0, x[3] = 1$
- 3) Continue bottom-up, calculating the  $x[i], y[i]$  from **(\*)** and **(\*\*)**
- 4) We are done! Note that  $24(3) + 14(-5) = 2 = \gcd(24, 14)$ .

Euclid's extended GCD algorithm then gives

**Theorem 2.14:** Given two integers  $j, k$ , Euclid's extended GCD algorithm computes  $\gcd(j, k)$  and two integers  $x, y$  such that  $\gcd(j, k) = jx + ky$ .

We can now extend Lemma 2.11 to

**Theorem 2.15:** Two positive integers  $j, k$  have  $\gcd(j, k) = 1$  (and thus are relatively prime) if and only if there are integers  $x, y$  such that  $jx + ky = 1$ .

**Proof:** “if” comes from Lemma 2.11  
“only if” comes from Theorem 2.14



Recall

**Lemma 2.8** The equation  $a \cdot_n x = 1$  has a solution in  $Z_n$  iff there exist integers  $x, y$  such that  $ax + ny = 1$ .

Combining this and Theorem 2.15 gives

**Corollary 2.16:** For any positive integer  $n$ ,  $a \in Z_n$  has a multiplicative inverse iff  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

Using the fact that if  $n$  is prime,  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  for all nonzero  $a \in Z_n$ , we obtain

**Corollary 2.17:** For any prime  $p$ , every nonzero  $a \in Z_p$  has a multiplicative inverse.

$$Z_5:$$

$a$	1	2	3	4
$a'$	1	3	2	4

$$Z_6:$$

$a$	1	2	3	4	5
$a'$	1	X	X	X	5

$$Z_7:$$

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6
$a'$	1	4	5	2	3	6

$$Z_8:$$

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$a'$	1	X	3	X	5	X	7

$$Z_9:$$

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$a'$	1	5	X	7	2	X	4	8

We noted that 5, 7 are prime and all of the elements in  $Z_5, Z_7$  have inverses.

For the non-prime  $n \in 6, 8, 9$  the elements in  $Z_n$  that have inverses are exactly those elements that are relatively prime to  $n$ .

Nice pattern!!  
We now know that it's always true

## 2.2 Inverses and Greatest Common Divisors

- Greatest Common Divisors
- Euclid's Division Theorem
- Euclid's GCD Algorithm
- Solutions to Equations and Inverses mod  $n$
- Converting Modular Equations to Normal Equations
- Extended GCD Algorithm
- Computing Inverses

# Computing Inverses

**Corollary 2.18:** If an element  $a \in Z_n$  has an inverse, we can compute it by running Euclid's extended GCD algorithm to determine integers  $x, y$  so that  $ax + ny = 1$ . The inverse of  $a \in Z_n$  is  $x \bmod n$ .

**Example:** Given  $a = 27$ ,  $n = 58$  we can use the Extended GCD algorithm to find that

$$27(-15) + 58(7) = 1.$$

Thus the multiplicative inverse of 27 in  $Z_{58}$  is

$$-15 \bmod 58 = 43.$$

Reality check:  $27 \cdot 43 = 1161 = 20 \cdot 58 + 1$

We now know how to *efficiently*  
find inverses  $\text{mod } n$ .

We are almost ready to learn the  
RSA public-key algorithm.