

# Elementary Number Theory : §6

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## The Chinese Remainder Theorem

Often, we will be faced with problems or situations in which it is helpful to break congruence down into a system of congruences. Conversely, it can be useful to assemble a single congruence that uniquely describes a system of smaller congruences. Our tool for doing so is the Chinese Remainder Theorem, which allows us to relate congruence across different moduli. Speaking loosely, if our modulus  $m$  can be decomposed into coprime factors, say  $d$  and  $e$ , every congruence modulo  $m$  is equivalent to a compound congruence  $[a, b] \bmod [d, e]$ . The bracket notation means *congruent to  $a$  modulo  $d$ , and  $b$  modulo  $e$* . More formally, we can say the following

**Theorem 1** (Chinese Remainder Theorem). *If  $d$  and  $e$  are a pair of coprime numbers, then there exists a bijective correspondence between the set of pairs  $[a, b]$ , where  $0 \leq a < d$ , and  $0 \leq b < e$ , and the set of integers  $n$  for which  $0 \leq n < de$ .*

*In other words, the pairs of residues  $[a, b] \bmod [d, e]$  map uniquely to the residues  $n \bmod (de)$ .*

*Proof.* The sets that we're working with are the same size. So, if we can find an injective map from the set of pairs  $[a, b]$  to the set of integers from 0 to  $de - 1$ , we've found our bijection. So how do we map  $n \mapsto [a, b]$ ? There's a natural choice.

Let  $n \mapsto [a, b]$  be defined by the rule that  $n \mapsto [a, b]$  if and only if  $n \equiv [a, b] \bmod de$ .

We need to show that this map is injective, so suppose that we have a pair of values  $0 \leq m < de$  and  $0 \leq n < de$ , such that  $n \equiv [a, b] \bmod de$  and  $m \equiv [a, b] \bmod [d, e]$ . Naturally, then,  $n - m \equiv [0, 0] \bmod [d, e]$ . In turn, this implies that  $n - m$  is a multiple of both  $d$  and  $e$ . As  $d$  and  $e$  are coprime, this forces that  $n - m$  is a multiple of the least common multiple of  $d$  and  $e$ . In this case, this means that  $n - m$  is a multiple of  $de$ . Yet, both  $m$  and  $n$  are strictly less than  $de$ , so their difference  $n - m$  is surely less than  $de$ . The only multiple of  $de$  less than  $de$  is 0, so  $m - n = 0$ , and  $m = n$ .

Having shown that the map is injective, the fact that our two sets (the set of pairs, and the set of residue classes modulo  $de$ ) are the same size implies that the map is bijective.

As the map is bijective, this implies that every congruence modulo  $de$  corresponds to a unique congruence  $[a, b] \bmod [d, e]$ , **provided that  $d$  and  $e$  are coprime.**  $\square$

## Disassembling and Reassembling Congruence

The extreme utility of the Chinese Remainder Theorem is that it enables us to reduce complex congruences to systems of simpler congruences, and vice versa.

**Example 1.** Break  $x \equiv 45 \pmod{56}$  into a system of simpler congruences.

*Breaking down congruence couldn't be simpler. All we need to do is find two (or more) co-prime factors of 56. 7 and 8 seem like a good choice.  $45 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ , and  $45 \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ , so  $45 \equiv [3, 5] \pmod{[7, 8]}$ . Brilliant.*

**Example 2.** What is  $x$ , if...

*$x$  is no more than 100. Counting by 3, we have one left over.*

*Counting by 22, we have three left over.*

*Counting by 7, we have 4 left over.*

*We'll start the problem, and leave the reader to finish it.*

*The statement of the problem implies that  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $3 \pmod{22}$ , and  $4 \pmod{7}$ . Each one of these linear congruences is really hiding a linear diophantine equation, which gives us the following system of equations:*

$$x - 3y = 1$$

$$x - 22z = 3$$

$$x - 7w = 4$$

*You do the rest! Hint: use the first two equations to come up with a congruence modulo 66. This can be translated back into the language of linear diophantine equations, and re-combined with the last equation to construct a congruence in terms of 462.*

**Example 3.** Find all solutions to  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{21}$ .

*By the CRT, we can decompose this into two congruences,  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$  and  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ . Modulo 7, this means that we have two solutions:  $x \equiv 6$ , or  $x \equiv 1$ . Modulo 3, we also have two solutions,  $x \equiv 1$  or  $x \equiv 2$ . Two options for each smaller congruence gives us four possible combinations:*

$$x \equiv [1, 1] \pmod{[3, 7]}$$

$$x \equiv [1, 6] \pmod{[3, 7]}$$

$$x \equiv [2, 1] \pmod{[3, 7]}$$

$$x \equiv [2, 6] \pmod{[3, 7]}$$

*Respectively, these simpler congruences resolve to  $x \equiv 1, 8, 13, 20 \pmod{21}$ , which characterizes all solutions to  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{21}$ .*

The last example here characterizes a useful generalization. Solutions to the congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{de}$  are in one-to-one correspondence with the pairs of solutions  $(u, v)$  to the congruences  $u^2 \equiv a \pmod{d}$  and  $v^2 \equiv a \pmod{e}$ . In other words,  $a$  is a square modulo  $de$  (meaning  $a \equiv x^2$  for some  $x \pmod{de}$ ) if and only if  $a$  is a square modulo  $d$  and modulo  $e$ . We'll dive into squares (the *quadratic residues*) a bit more further down the road.