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On Carmichael numbers, Poulet numbers, Mersenne numbers and Fermat numbers

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§ 1. Introduction. The theorem of Fermat says that $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for all primes p and for all integers a which are prime to p.

For odd p and a=2 this result was already known to the Chinese, who incorrectly believed that also the converse of this theorem is true, which says that all integers satisfying

$$(1) 2^{m-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

are prime. If this were true it would give us a means for testing a number m on primality. In order still to be able to apply this test for integers which are not too large, Poulet 1) made a table of composite m which are $< 10^8$ and satisfy (1).

We shall call every composite m which satisfies (1) a Poulet number or pseudo prime. Banachiewicz ²) gave in 1909 five Poulet numbers < 2000 and later found the two others < 2000.

We shall prove that there exist infinitely many Poulet numbers. Proofs of this result were already given by Sierpiński 3) and Jarden 4).

Sierpiński considered numbers mo, m1,..., satisfying

I
$$m_{h+1} = 2^{m_h} - 1$$
 $(h = 0, 1, ...),$ $(h, prime)$

whereas Jarden used the sequence

II
$$u_h = 2^{2^h} + 1$$
 $(h = 0, 1, ...).$

We shall generalise their results and deduce further results on the sequences I and II.

Further we consider composite integers m for which (1) holds for all integers a prime to m. We shall call these integers of which Carmichael 5) proved some properties Carmichael numbers and derive properties of them.

\S 2. The sequence I.

<u>Definition</u>. A Mersenne number is a number of the form 2^p-1 , where p is prime. Consequently a prime of the form 2^p-1 is a Mersenne number. <u>Theorem 1</u>. If m satisfies (1), then $M = 2^m-1$ also satisfies (1) 3). <u>Proof.</u> From m $2^{m-1}-1$ we infer

 $M = 2^{m} - 1 | 2^{2^{m-1} - 1} - 1 | 2^{2^{m} - 2} - 1 = 2^{M-1} - 1.$

Corollary · Every Mersenne number is a prime or pseudo prime.

Theorem 2. There exist infinitely many Poulet numbers 3).

Proof. The sequence I with $m_0 = 11$ gives in virtue of $m_1 = 2^{11}-1 = 23.89$ for all integer $h \ge 1$ composite numbers m_h which by theorem 1 satisfy (1). Hence there exist infinitely many Poulet numbers.

We deduce further properties of the Mersenne numbers and of sequence I.

Obviously either every element of sequence I is prime or there exists a positive integer k such that \mathbf{m}_k is prime, \mathbf{m}_{k+1} is composite. From theorem 1 we then see that all elements \mathbf{m}_h with $h \ge k+1$ are pseudo prime.

In order to find a further result on composite numbers of sequence I we use a special case of a result of Bang generalised by C.G. Lekker-kerker 6) which says that for every odd m the number 2^m-1 possesses a prime factor which does not occur in any number 2^d-1 with 0 < d < m. We use this result to prove the following

Theorem 3. If the number m possesses at least s different odd prime factors, then M = 2^m-1 possesses at least S = 2^s-1 different prime factors. Proof. Put m = $p_1p_2...p_sn$, where $p_1,...,p_s$ are different primes. Now let $i_1,...,i_t$ be a combination of t of the s integers 1,...,s $(1 \le t \le s). \text{ Put } q_1,...,i_t = 2 - 1. \text{ Then any } q = q_1,...,i_t \text{ possesses at least one prime factor which does not occur in any } q_1,...,i_t \text{ with } u = 1,...,t, \text{ which differ from } q. \text{ In fact every common prime factor of } q_1,...,i_t \text{ and such a } q_1,...,i_t \text{ is a prime factor of a } q_1,...,i_t \text{ with } v < t \text{ and by Bang's result a prime factor of } q \text{ exists which does not occur in any } q_1,...,i_t \text{ with } v < t. \text{ Consequently by considering all } \binom{s}{t} \text{ divisors } q_1,...,i_t \text{ of } M \text{ we find } \binom{s}{t} \text{ different prime divisors of } M. \text{ Using this result for } t = s, s-1,...,1 \text{ we obtain certainly } \sum_{i=1}^{s} \binom{s}{i} = 2^s-1 \text{ different}$

Corollary 1. By the general result of Bang we can apply the theorem also to expressions of the form $\frac{a^m-b^m}{a-b}$ instead of 2^m-1 for all $m\geqslant m_0$ where m_0 only depends on a and b.

prime factors of M.

Corollary 2. If s(m) denotes the number of different prime factors of m and $T(m) = 2^m-1$, then the result of theorem 3 may be formulated as follows s(T(m)) > T(s(m)).

<u>Corollary 3</u>. Considering the sequence I with $m_0 = 11$, we have $s(m_1) = 2$, hence by theorem 1 there exist Poulet numbers the number of prime factors of which is greater than every given integer.

Theorem 4. If in sequence I the element $m=m_k$ is prime, $M=m_{k+1}$ composite, then every composite divisor of M is a pseudo prime 7).

<u>Proof.</u> For the composite divisor M of M the assertion follows from theorem 1. Now let n be a composite divisor of M. We prove the theorem by induction and may assume the assertion proved for any divisor > n of M. Let N be a composite divisor of M such that $q = \frac{N}{n}$ is prime. Since $q \mid 2^m-1$ and since m is prime we have m $\mid q-1$. Hence $n \mid M = 2^m-1 = 2^{q-1}-1$. Since N > n we have by induction $n \mid N \mid 2^{N-1}-1 = 2^{qn-1}-1$. Hence $n \mid 2^{n-1}-1$.

Remark. It is not true that if m has the property that all its divisors are prime or pseudo prime, also $M = 2^m - 1$ has this property. For instance take $m = 2^{11} - 1 = 23.89$. By theorem 1 the integer m is a pseudo prime of two factors, hence all divisors of m are prime. The number $M = 2^m - 1$ possesses the factors $2^{23} - 1$, $2^{89} - 1$ and hence also the factor 47 of $2^{23} - 1$. The divisor $d = 47(2^{89} - 1)$ of M however does not satisfy $2^{d-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$ for $2^{89} - 1 \nmid 2^{47(2^{89} - 1) - 1} - 1$, because $47(2^{89} - 1) - 1 \equiv 46 \pmod{89}$.

In order to find Poulet numbers of the form m=pq, where p and q are different primes, we remark that $\operatorname{from} p \mid m \mid 2^{m-1}-1$ and $p \mid 2^{p-1}-1$ follows $p \mid 2^{q-1}-1$ and similarly $q \mid 2^{p-1}-1$. Conversely from the last two relations follows for different primes p and q that pq satisfies (1). For instance, take p=11, then $q \mid 2^{10}-1=3\cdot 11\cdot 41$, hence we must try either q=3 or q=41. Now q=3 does not satisfy $11 \mid 2^{q-1}-1$, but q=41 does. So $m=11\cdot 41$ is a pseudo prime.

Similarly Poulet numbers of the form m=pqr (where p, q and r are different primes) can be found from $p \mid 2^{qr-1}-1$, $q \mid 2^{pr-1}-1$, $r \mid 2^{pq-1}-1$ and so on. For instance p=3, q=5 gives m=3.5.43=645.

§ 3. The sequence II.

Definition. A Fermat number is a number of the form $2^2 + 1$ where h is a non negative integer. Consequently every prime of the form $2^n + 1$ is a Fermat number.

Theorem 5. If $0 \le k \le 2^n - n - 1$, the number $u = \prod_{h=n}^{n+k} (2^{2^h} + 1)$ is a Poulet number. Remark. For k = 0 and k = 1 (supposed $n \ge 2$) this property was proved by Jarden 4).

Proof. Put $u_h = 2^{2^h} + 1$ (h = 0,1,...). Consider an arbitrary positive integer n and an integer k satisfying $0 \le k \le 2^n - n - 1$. If $0 \le i < j$ the integers u_{n+j} and u_{n+j} are relatively prime, for if a prime p divides u_{n+j}

 $2^{2^{n+i}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}, \ 2^{2^{n+i+1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}, \ 2^{2^{n+j}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p},$

hence p \downarrow u_{n+j} . Consequently to prove the theorem it is sufficient to prove $u_i \downarrow 2^{u-1}-1$ for $i=0,1,\ldots,k$. Now for $i=0,1,\ldots,k$ we get on account of $n+i+1 \leqslant n+k+1 \leqslant 2^n$ the relations

$$2^{n+i+1} | 2^{2^n} | (2^{2^n+1})(2^{2^{n+1}+1}) \cdot \cdot \cdot (2^{2^{n+k}+1}) = u-1,$$

hence

$$u_{n+i} = 2^{2^{n+i}} + 1 \left[2^{2^{n+i+1}} - 1 \right] 2^{u-1} = 1,$$

which proves the theorem.

<u>Corollary</u>. For all $n \ge 0$ the integer k may be taken = 0, hence every non prime Fermat number is a Poulet number.

Second proof of theorem 2.

By theorem 5 there exist Poulet numbers with arbitrary many prime factors. This proves theorem 2.

Theorem 6. If the number $M = 2^{2^m}+1$ is composite, every composite factor of M is a Poulet number.

<u>Proof.</u> For the divisor M of M the assertion follows from theorem 5, corollary. Now let n be a composite divisor of M. We prove the theorem by induction and may assume the assertion proved for any divisor > n of M. Let N be a composite divisor of M such that $q = \frac{N}{n}$ is prime. Since $q \mid 2^{2^{n}} + 1$ we have $q \mid 2^{2^{n+1}} - 1$ and $q \nmid 2^{n} - 1$ for $0 < b < 2^{n+1}$. Hence $2^{n+1} \mid p-1$, $2^{n+1} \mid 2^{n-1} - 1$ and on account of $p \mid m = 2^{n+1} \mid 2^{n+1} - 1$ we have $p \mid 2^{n+1} - 1$. Since N > n we have by induction $p \mid m \mid 2^{n-1} - 1 = 2^{n} - 1$. Hence $p \mid 2^{n-1} - 1$.

§ 4. Carmichael numbers.

We now consider the above defined Carmichael numbers. By definition they satisfy

$$(2) a^{m-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

for each a which is prime to m. Obviously every Carmichael number is a Poulet number. In order to deduce some properties of these numbers we prove the

Lemma. If a, m and n are positive integers with (a,m) = 1, then there exists a positive integer b satisfying $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$ and (b,mn) = 1.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose $n = n_1 n_2$, where n_1 contains only prime factors which divide m and where $(n_2, m) = 1$. Then by the Chinese remainder theorem an integer b exists with

$$b \equiv a \pmod{m}$$
; $b \equiv 1 \pmod{n_2}$.

We then have

$$(b,n_2) = 1$$
, $(b,m) = (a,m) = 1$, hence $(b,n_1) = 1$,

whence we find

$$(b,mn) = (b,mn_1n_2) = 1.$$

Corollary. If a primitive root mod m exists, there also exists a primitive root mod m which is prime to mn, where n is an arbitrary integer.

In fact let a be a primitive root mod m, then (a,m) = 1. By the lemma there exists an integer b with $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$ (hence also b is a primitive root mod m) and with (b,mn) = 1.

Theorem 7. A Carmichael number is 5):

- 1°. Odd;
- 2°. Quadratfrei;
- 3°. The product of at least three different prime factors.

Proof.

1°. If m = 2pn, where p is an odd prime, is a Carmichael number, then by the corollary of our lemma a primitive root b of p exists which is prime to m. From $b^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $b^{2pn-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ we deduce p-1 | 2pn-1, which is impossible since p-1 is even and 2pn-1 odd.

In the case no odd prime divides the composite even number m we have $m=2^h$ (h \geqslant 2). If h=2, thus m=4 we have the relation $3^3\equiv -1\not\equiv 1\pmod 4$, hence m is no Carmichael number. If $h\geqslant 3$ a number a can be found satisfying $a^{2^h-2}\equiv 1\pmod {2^h}$, $a^k\not\equiv 1\pmod {2^h}$ if $0< k<2^{h-2}$. If a were a Carmichael number we had $a^{2^h-1}\equiv 1\pmod {2^h}$ hence $2^{h-2}\mid 2^h-1$, which is impossible.

- 2°. Suppose that $m=p^2n$, where p is an odd prime, is a Carmichael number. By the corollary of the lemma an integer b exists which is a primitive root mod p^2 with (b,m)=1. Then from $b^{p(p-1)}\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$ and $b^{p^2}n-1\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$ we deduce $p(p-1)|p^2n-1$ which is impossible since p does not divide p^2n-1 .
- 3°: Suppose m = pq, where p and q are different odd primes. By the corollary of the lemma a primitive root b mod p exists which is prime to m. From $b^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $b^{pq-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ we deduce $p-1 \mid pq-1$, hence $p-1 \mid q-1$. Similarly $q-1 \mid p-1$, hence p-1 = q-1, p=q which contradicts the assertion.

Theorem 8. If $m = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_s$ where p_1, \cdots, p_s are different primes and $s \geqslant 3$, then the number m is a Carmichael number if and only if

$$p_{i}-1 \mid m_{i}-1$$
, where $m_{i} = \frac{m}{p_{i}}$ (i = 1,...,s).

<u>Proof.</u> For $i=1,\ldots,s$ we know by our lemma the existence of a primitive root $a_i \mod p_i$ which is prime to m. Then from $a_i = 1 \pmod p_i$, $a_i = 1 \pmod p_i$ we obtain $p_i - 1 \pmod p_i - 1$, hence $p_i - 1 \pmod p_i - 1$.

Conversely if p_i-1/m_i-1 for $i=1,\ldots,s$, then we have for $i=1,\ldots,s$ $p_i-1/m-1$, hence for all a prime to m we have

 $p_{i} = \begin{vmatrix} a^{p_{i}-1} - 1 \\ a^{m-1} - 1 \end{vmatrix}$, thus $m = a^{m-1} - 1$.

Remark. Using this property Ore finds Carmichael numbers 8).

I do not know whether there are infinitely many Carmichael numbers.

<u>Remark</u>. It is obvious that there are only a finite number of Carmichael numbers $m = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_s$ $(p_1, \cdots, p_s \text{ prime})$ of which s-1 of the s prime factors are given. In fact by theorem 9 we have for the remaining prime p_s the relation $p_s-1 \mid p_1 p_2 \cdots p_{s-1}-1$, so only a finite number of values of p_s are possible.

Beeger 9) proved that there are only a finite number of Carmichael numbers m = pqr (p,q,r prime), the smallest prime factor of which is given (if one of the other prime factors is given, this property is obvious from the above remark).

I prove the following extension of Beeger's theorem. Theorem 9. There exist only a finite number of Carmichael numbers $p_1p_2\cdots p_s$ (p_1,\cdots,p_s prime) of which s-2 prime factors are given 10). Proof. Without loss of generality we may suppose that the Carmichael number m = npq, where n is given and where the primes p and q satisfy the relation p < q.

By theorem 8 positive integers x and y must exist with

(3)
$$qn-1 = x(p-1); pn-1 = y(q-1).$$

We then have x > y, and further $x \neq 1$, $y \neq 1$ (since p and q are prime), Eliminating q from the relations (3) we find

(4)
$$p-1 = \frac{(n-1)(n+y)}{xy-n^2}.$$

Since $p \le q-2$ the second relation (3) gives

$$y = \frac{pn-1}{q-1} \le \frac{pn-1}{p+1} = n - \frac{n+1}{p+1},$$

thus

$$(5) y \leqslant n-1.$$

We now distinguish two cases.

1°.
$$xy-n^{\frac{7}{2}} \ge 2$$
. Then from (4) and (5) it follows $p \le 1 + \frac{(n-1)(2n-1)}{2} < 1 + (n-1)(2n+\frac{1}{2}-\sqrt{n-\frac{3}{4}})$.

2°. $xy-n^2 = 1$. By (5) and $y \neq 1$ we may put y = n-d with $1 \leq d \leq n-2$.

Then we have $x = \frac{n^2+1}{y} = \frac{n^2+1}{n-d} = n+d+\frac{d^2+1}{n-d}$, hence $x \ge n+d+1$. Thus

$$1 = xy-n^2 \ge (n+d+1)(n-d)-n^2 = -d^2+n-d$$

hence

$$d \ge -\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{n - \frac{3}{4}}$$
.

Then (4) gives

(6)
$$p \le 1 + (n-1)(2n + \frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{n-\frac{3}{4}}).$$

From the second relation (3) and $y \ge 2$ we conclude $q \le 1 + \frac{1}{2} (pn-1)$, which proves the assertion.

Remark. The relation (6) is rather sharp as is seen by taking n=43, in which case it giv_es $p \le 3361$ and actually m=43.3361.3907 is a Carmichael number.

- 1) P. Poulet, Table des nombres composés vérifiant le théorème de Fermat pour le module 2 jusqu'à 100 000 000, Sphinx 8(1938), 42-52.
- 2) T. Banachiewicz, Spraw Tow Nauk, Warsaw 2(1909), 7-10, found the 5 numbers

341=11.31; 561=3.11.17; 1387=19.73; 1729=7.13.19; 1905=3.5.127, to which he added afterwards

645=3.5.43; 1105=5.13.17.

- 3) W. Sierpiński, Remarque sur une hypothèse des chinois concernant les nombres $\frac{2^{n}-2}{n}$, Coll. Math. I(1947), 9.
- 4) D. Jarden, Existence of an infinitude of composite n for which $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, Riv. Lemat. 4(1950), 65-67.
- 5) R.D. Carmichael, Note on a new number theoretic function, Bull. Amer. Math. Soc. 16(1909), 232-238.
 - R.D. Carmichael, On composite numbers P which satisfy the Fermat Congruence $a^{P-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{P}$, Amer. Math. Monthly 19(1912), 22-27.
- 6) C.G. Lekkerkerker, Prime factors of the elements of certain sequences of integers, Math. Centrum, Rapport ZW 1953-003.
- 7) H.J.A. Duparc, On Mersenne numbers and Poulet numbers, Math. Centrum, Rapport ZW 1953-001.
- 8) O. Ore, Number theory and its history, New York 1948, 329-339.
- 9) N.G.W.H. Beeger, On composite numbers n for which $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ for every a prime to n, Scripta Math. 16(1950), 133-135.

Instead of (8) he proves the relation $p \le 1+2(n-1)^2$, which is stronger than our result only for n=3 and 5.

10) H.J.A. Duparc, On Carmichael numbers, Simon Stevin, 29(1952), 21-24.