

ON NUMBERS ANALOGOUS TO THE CARMICHAEL NUMBERS

BY
H. C. WILLIAMS

1. **Introduction.** A base a pseudoprime is an integer n such that

$$(1) \quad a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

A Carmichael number is a composite integer n such that (1) is true for all a such that $(a, n) = 1$. It was shown by Carmichael [1] that, if n is a Carmichael number, then n is the product of $k (> 2)$ distinct primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_k$ and $p_i - 1 \mid n - 1$ ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$). The smallest such number is $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$.

The Lucas functions $V_n(P, Q), U_n(P, Q)$ are defined as

$$\begin{aligned} V_n(P, Q) &= \alpha^n + \beta^n, \\ U_n(P, Q) &= (\alpha^n - \beta^n)/(\alpha - \beta), \end{aligned}$$

where α, β are the zeros of $x^2 - Px + Q$, and P, Q are coprime integers. We also define Δ to be the discriminant $P^2 - 4Q$ of the above quadratic function. The following theorem concerning Lucas functions is well known.

THEOREM 1. *If p is an odd prime and $p \nmid Q$, then*

$$U_{\delta(p)}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

where $\delta(p) = p - \epsilon(p)$, $\epsilon(p) = (\Delta \mid p)$, and $(\Delta \mid p)$ is the Legendre symbol.

Rotkiewicz [4] considered a composite integer n such that

$$U_{n-\epsilon(n)}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

to be a type of pseudoprime with respect to the Lucas functions. Here $\epsilon(n)$ is defined to be the value of the Jacobi symbol $(\Delta \mid n)$. We shall concern ourselves here with those odd composite integers n which possess, for a given value of Δ , the property (A) below.

$$(A) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{For all integers } P, Q \text{ such that} \\ (P, Q) = 1, P^2 - 4Q = \Delta, \quad (n, Q\Delta) = 1, \\ \text{we have} \\ U_{n-\epsilon(n)}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}. \end{array} \right.$$

In view of the preceding remarks, we see that such integers are analogous to

Received by the editors, in revised form, January 13, 1977

Carmichael numbers; in fact, it can be shown that if $\Delta = 1$ and n satisfies (A), then n is a Carmichael number. In this paper we shall characterize and develop some properties of those integers which satisfy (A) for any given Δ .

2. **Preliminary results.** In order to establish some properties of the numbers we are seeking, it is necessary to first make some preliminary observations.

We first note that

$$(2) \quad \begin{aligned} 2^{n-1} V_k(P, Q) &= \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor k/2 \rfloor} \binom{k}{2r} P^{k-2r} (P^2 - 4Q)^r \\ 2^{n-1} U_k(P, Q) &= \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor k/2 \rfloor} \binom{k}{2r+1} P^{k-2r-1} (P^2 - 4Q)^r. \end{aligned}$$

If, for a fixed Δ , we define the polynomials $T_k(x)$ and $S_k(x)$ by the formulas

$$\begin{aligned} T_k(x) &= \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor k/2 \rfloor} \binom{k}{2r+1} x^{k-2r-1} \Delta^r, \\ S_k(x) &= \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor k/2 \rfloor} \binom{k}{2r} x^{k-2r} \Delta^r, \end{aligned}$$

then we have

$$(3) \quad \begin{aligned} 2^{n-1} U_k(P, Q) &= T_k(P), \\ 2^{n-1} V_k(P, Q) &= S_k(P), \end{aligned}$$

when $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$. We also have the result

$$T_{k+m}(x) = 2S_m(x)T_k(x) - (x^2 - \Delta)^m T_{k-m}(x)$$

and from this it follows easily by induction that if $m \mid k$,

$$T_k(x) = T_m(x)Q_{k,m}(x),$$

where $Q_{k,m}(x)$ is a polynomial in x with integer coefficients.

Before proceeding any further we require the following simple lemma.

LEMMA 1. *If P, Q are any two integers such that $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, then for any odd integer m , where $(m, \Delta) = 1$, there exist integers P', Q' such that $P' \equiv P, Q' \equiv Q \pmod{m}$, $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$, and $(P', Q') = 1$.*

Proof. Select some integer d such that $(d, \Delta) = 2^i (0 \leq i \leq 2)$, where the value of i is determined by

$$d \equiv P + 2Q - 2 \pmod{4}.$$

Solve

$$(4) \quad 2mK \equiv d - P \pmod{4}$$

for K . If $2 \mid P$, then $4 \mid \Delta$ and $K \equiv (d - P)/2 \equiv (Q + 1) \pmod{2}$. Put $P^1 = P + 2Km$,

$Q' = Q + Km(P + mK)$. We see that $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$ and it suffices to show that $(P', Q') = 1$. If q is a prime and $q \mid (P', Q')$, then q must be odd; for, if $q = 2$, then $2 \mid \Delta$, $2 \mid P$, and $Q' \equiv 2Q + 1 \pmod{2}$. If q is odd, then $q \mid \Delta$, and by (4) $q \mid d$, which, by selection of d , is impossible.

Finally, it should be noted that if X is any integer, then

$$T_{\delta(p)}(X) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

where p is any odd prime such that $(p, (X^2 - \Delta)) = 1$. This result follows easily from Theorem 1, (3), and Lemma 1.

3. Some results concerning the Lucas functions. The rank of apparition modulo m of the Lucas sequence $\{U_k(P, Q)\}$ is defined to be the least positive value of k such that $m \mid U_k(P, Q)$. We denote this value of k by $\omega(m; P, Q)$. If $m \mid U_r(P, Q)$, then $\omega(m; P, Q) \mid r$; hence, $\omega(p; P, Q) \mid \delta(p)$ when p is a prime.

For a fixed discriminant Δ and a fixed odd prime p , let the function $\psi(d)$, where $d \mid \delta(p)$, be the number of distinct values of P modulo p such that $\omega(p; P, Q) = d$. In the following theorem we evaluate $\psi(d)$.

THEOREM 2. *If $d > 1$, $\psi(d) = \phi(d)$, where $\phi(x)$ is Euler's totient function.*

Proof. If $\epsilon(p) = 0$, the theorem follows easily. Suppose $\epsilon(p) \neq 0$ and put $\delta = \delta(p)$. If $d < \delta$, let the polynomial congruence

$$(5) \quad T_d(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

have j solutions. Referring to the remarks at the beginning of this section and Lemma 1, we see that

$$\sum_{h \mid d} \psi(h) = j.$$

Since $T_d(x)$ is a polynomial of degree $d - 1$ with leading coefficient d we have $j \leq d - 1$. Also

$$(6) \quad T_\delta(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

has exactly $\delta - 1$ solutions \pmod{p} . For, if $\epsilon(p) = 1$, (6) is satisfied by any x except the two values of x which satisfy $x^2 \equiv \Delta \pmod{p}$; if $\epsilon(p) = -1$, (6) is satisfied by any value of x since there is no x such that $x^2 \equiv \Delta \pmod{p}$.

Now

$$T_\delta(x) = T_d(x)Q_{\delta,d}(x);$$

Thus, if (5) has j solutions, then

$$(7) \quad Q_{\delta,d}(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

has $\delta - 1 - j$ solutions. Since the degree of $Q_{\delta,d}(x)$ is $\delta - d$ and its leading coefficient is prime to p , (7) can have no more than $\delta - d$ solutions. If $j < d - 1$, then $\delta - 1 - j > \delta - d$; consequently, $j = d - 1$.

Putting

$$\chi(h) = \psi(h) \ (h \neq 1), \quad \chi(1) = 1,$$

we get

$$\sum_{h|d} \chi(h) = d;$$

by Möbius inversion $\chi(d) = \phi(d)$.

COROLLARY. *If Δ is any fixed discriminant, p is any odd prime, and $d(> 1)$ is any divisor of $\delta(p)$, there exist integers P, Q such that $(P, Q) = 1, P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, and $\psi(p; P, Q) = d$.*

Define

$$C_k(P, Q) = \frac{\partial}{\partial P} U_k(P, Q)$$

$$D_k(P, Q) = \frac{\partial}{\partial Q} U_k(P, Q).$$

Since $U_k(P, Q)$ is a polynomial in P and Q with integer coefficients, so are $C_k(P, Q)$ and $D_k(P, Q)$.

We will assume here that P, Q are fixed and write U_k for $U_k(P, Q)$, C_k for $C_k(P, Q)$ etc.

Since

$$U_{k+1} = PU_k - QU_{k-1},$$

we get differentiation

$$(8) \quad \begin{aligned} C_{k+1} &= PC_k + U_k - QC_{k-1} \\ D_{k+1} &= PD_k - QD_{k-1} - U_{k-1}. \end{aligned}$$

By induction we can show that

$$(9) \quad D_k = -C_{k-1}.$$

Also, by differentiating the second formula of (2) with respect to P and Q and putting $k = p$ (an odd prime, $(p, \Delta Q) = 1$), we get

$$\Delta C_p \equiv -P\epsilon(p) \pmod{p}$$

$$\Delta D_p \equiv 2\epsilon(p) \pmod{p}.$$

Using (8) and (9) together with the fact that

$$U_p \equiv \epsilon(p) \pmod{p},$$

we have

$$\Delta C_{p+1} \equiv -2Q\epsilon(p) \pmod{p}$$

and if $\epsilon(p) = 1$,

$$Q\Delta C_{p-1} \equiv -P \pmod{p}.$$

It follows that

$$PC_\delta + 2QD_\delta \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

and $p \nmid C_\delta$, where $\delta = \delta(p)$.

By using Taylor's Expansion, we see that

$$U_\delta(P + 2Kp, Q + Mp) \equiv U_\delta(P, Q) + p[2KC_\delta(D, Q) + MD_\delta(P, Q)] \pmod{p^2}.$$

If $p^2 \mid U_\delta(P, Q)$, select a value for K such that $p \nmid K$ and put $M = KP + pK^2$. Then if $P' = P + 2Kp$, $Q' = Q + Mp$, we have $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$.

Now if

$$4Qu \equiv P \pmod{p},$$

then since $p \nmid \Delta$,

$$1 - uP \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

$$K(1 - uP) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

and

$$K \not\equiv 2uM \pmod{p};$$

hence, $p^2 \nmid U_\delta(P', Q')$. By using Lemma 1, we can show that for any Δ there exists a pair of integers P'', Q'' such that $(P'', Q'') = 1$, $P''^2 - 4Q'' = \Delta$, $(p, Q'') = 1$, and $p^2 \nmid U_\delta(P'', Q'')$.

Since $\omega(p; P'', Q'') = \omega(p; P, Q)$ when $P'' \equiv P$, $Q'' \equiv Q \pmod{p}$ and $\omega(p; P, Q) \mid \delta(p)$, we deduce from Theorem 2 the fact that, for any given Δ , any odd prime $p((p, \Delta) = 1)$, and d any divisor of $\delta(p)$ ($d > 1$), there exist integers P'', Q'' such that $p \nmid Q''$, $(P'', Q'') = 1$, $P''^2 - 4Q'' = \Delta$, $\omega(p; P'', Q'') = d$, $\omega(p^2; P'', Q'') > d$.

By using the Law of Repetition of Lucas Functions, we have

THEOREM 3. *For any given Δ , any odd prime $p((p, \Delta) = 1)$, and d any divisor of $\delta(p)$ ($d > 1$), there exist integers P'', Q'' such that $p \nmid Q''$, $(P'', Q'') = 1$, $P''^2 - 4Q'' = \Delta$, and $\omega(p^k, P'', Q'') = p^{k-1}d$.*

4. Characterization of integers with property (A). In this section we will find the forms of those integers which possess the property (A) for a given fixed Δ . In order to do this we first require two lemmas. We give these lemmas here in a form somewhat stronger than we need to obtain the results of this section; however, we will need the stronger results in section 5.

LEMMA 2. *If r, Δ, η are three given integers such that r is odd, $(r, \Delta) = 1$, $|\eta| = 1$ (we restrict η to be 1 when r is a perfect square and if $\Delta \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$), we restrict η*

to be -1 when $r = 3t^2$), then there exists a pair of integers y, γ such that

$$y^2 \equiv 4\gamma + \Delta \pmod{r}$$

and $(\gamma | r) = \eta$, where $(\gamma | r)$ is the Jacobi symbol.

Proof. Let

$$r = \prod_{i=1}^k q_i^{\beta_i}$$

where $q_i (i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k)$ are distinct odd primes and q_1 is the least of these k primes. Select $\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \dots, \eta_k$ such that $|\eta_i| = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$ (restrict η_1 to be -1 if $q_1 = 3$ and $\Delta \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$) and

$$\prod_{i=1}^k \eta_i^{\beta_i} = \eta.$$

It is well known that if q is a prime and $q \nmid \Delta$, then there are $q - 1$ solutions (x, y) of

$$(10) \quad y^2 - x^2 \equiv \Delta \pmod{q}$$

and at least $q - 3$ of these have $x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$. Thus, if $q > 3$, there exist y and λ such that

$$(11) \quad y^2 \equiv 4\lambda + \Delta \pmod{q}$$

and $(\lambda | q) = +1$. If $q = 3$ and $\Delta \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$ we see that $y \equiv 0, \lambda \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ is a solution of (11) with $(\lambda | q) = +1$.

If for each $y \pmod{q}$ there were a value of $x \pmod{q}$ such that (10) held, there would be at least $2q - 2$ solutions of (10) with $x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$. Since $2q - 2 > q - 1$, there must be values of y and λ such that (11) is satisfied and $(\lambda | q) = -1$.

It follows that for each q_i which divides r there must exist a pair of integers (y_i, λ_i) such that

$$y_i^2 \equiv 4\lambda_i + \Delta \pmod{q_i}$$

and $(\lambda_i | q_i) = \eta_i$. We can then find integers Y_i and γ_i such that

$$Y_i^2 \equiv 4\gamma_i + \Delta \pmod{q_i^{\beta_i}}$$

and $\gamma_i \equiv \lambda_i \pmod{q_i}$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there exist integers γ and y such that $y \equiv Y_i; \gamma \equiv \gamma_i \pmod{q_i^{\beta_i}} (i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k)$. Thus we have

$$y^2 \equiv 4\gamma + \Delta \pmod{r}$$

and $(\gamma | r) = \eta$.

LEMMA 3. Let r, m, Δ, η be given integers such that r is odd, $(r, m\Delta) = 1$, $|\eta| = 1$ ($\eta = 1$ when r is a perfect square; $\eta = -1$ when $\Delta \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$) and $r = 3t^2$. If $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, there exists a pair of integers P', Q' such that $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$, $P' \equiv P \pmod{m}$ and $(Q' | r) = \eta$.

Proof. Let γ and y be selected such that $(\gamma | r) = \eta$

$$y^2 \equiv 4\gamma + \Delta \pmod{r}$$

Select K such that

$$2mK + P \equiv y \pmod{r}.$$

If we put

$$\begin{aligned} P' &= P + 2mK, \\ Q' &= Q + Km(P + mK), \end{aligned}$$

we have $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$, $P' \equiv P \pmod{m}$, $Q' \equiv Q \pmod{m}$ and $Q' \equiv \gamma \pmod{r}$.

COROLLARY. Let r, Δ, m be three integers such that r is odd and $(r, m\Delta) = 1$. If $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, there exists a pair of integers P', Q' such that $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$, $P' \equiv P \pmod{m}$, $Q' \equiv Q \pmod{m}$ and $(Q', r) = 1$.

We are now able to prove our main theorem.

THEOREM 4. If for a fixed Δ , n possesses property (A), then n is the product of k distinct primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_k$ and

$$p_i - \epsilon(p_i) | n - \epsilon(n) \quad (i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k).$$

Proof. Let p be any odd prime divisor of n and let $n = p^\alpha r$, where $(r, p) = 1$. Find P, Q such that $(P, Q) = 1$, $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, $\omega(p^\alpha; P, Q) = p^{\alpha-1} \delta(p)$. By the Corollary of Lemma 3, there exist P', Q' , such that $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$, $P' \equiv P \pmod{p^\alpha}$, $Q' \equiv Q \pmod{p^\alpha}$ and $(Q', r) = 1$; also, by Lemma 1, we can find P'', Q'' such that $P''^2 - 4Q'' = \Delta$, $P'' \equiv P', Q'' \equiv Q' \pmod{n}$ and $(P'', Q'') = 1$. Since $(n, Q''\Delta) = 1$ and $P'' \equiv P, Q'' \equiv Q \pmod{p^\alpha}$, we have

$$U_{n-\epsilon(n)}(P'', Q'') \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

and

$$\omega(p^\alpha; P'', Q'') = p^{\alpha-1} \delta(p);$$

hence,

$$p^{\alpha-1} \delta(p) | p^\alpha r - \epsilon$$

where $|\epsilon| = 1$. We see that $\alpha = 1$ and the theorem follows.

If $n = p_1 p_2$, we must have $\epsilon(n) = \epsilon(p_1) \epsilon(p_2)$ and if $\epsilon_i = \epsilon(p_i)$,

$$p_1 - \epsilon_1 | p_1 p_2 - \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2, \quad p_2 - \epsilon_2 | p_1 p_2 - \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2.$$

That is $p_1 - \epsilon_1 \mid p_2 - \epsilon_2$ and $p_2 - \epsilon_2 \mid p_1 - \epsilon_1$; hence, $p_1 - \epsilon_1 = p_2 - \epsilon_2$. If we assume $p_1 < p_2$, we have $\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2 = -2$, i.e. $\epsilon_1 = -1$, $\epsilon_2 = 1$ and $p_1 = p_2 - 2$.

Thus, n can be the product of two primes and satisfy property (A) for a fixed Δ if and only if

$$n = p_1 p_2,$$

where

$$p_1 = p_2 - 2; \quad (\Delta \mid p_1) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad (\Delta \mid p_2) = +1.$$

For example, if $\Delta = 5$, $p_1 = 17$, $p_2 = 19$, then $n = 17 \cdot 19$ satisfies (A).

Integers with property (A) and $k > 2$ can frequently be found by using a modification of the method of Chernick [2]. For example, let $k = 3$ and prescribe values for $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3$. If d satisfies the congruence

$$(10) \quad d(\epsilon_1 r_2 r_3 + \epsilon_2 r_1 r_3 + \epsilon_3 r_1 r_2) + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2 r_3 + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_3 r_2 + \epsilon_2 \epsilon_3 r_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{r_1 r_2 r_3}$$

for values of r_1, r_2, r_3 such that $(\Delta \mid dr_i - \epsilon_i) = \epsilon_i$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$) and $dr_1 + \epsilon_1, dr_2 + \epsilon_2, dr_3 + \epsilon_3$ are distinct primes, then

$$n = (dr_1 + \epsilon_1)(dr_2 + \epsilon_2)(dr_3 + \epsilon_3)$$

has property (A).

If we have $\Delta = 8$ and put $\epsilon_1 = -1, \epsilon_2 = \epsilon_3 = 1$, we must have $p_1 = dr_1 - 1, p_2 = dr_2 + 1, p_3 = dr_3 + 1$ and $(2 \mid p_i) = \epsilon_i$. Let $p_1 \equiv 3, p_2 \equiv p_3 \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$. We get $d = 2d''$ and

$$d''r_1 \equiv 2, \quad d''r_2 \equiv d''r_3 \equiv 3 \pmod{4};$$

hence, putting $r_1 = 2, r_2 = 3, r_3 = 7$, we have $d'' \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and by (10), $d'' \equiv -4 \pmod{21}$. When $d'' = 17$, we get $p_1 = 67, p_2 = 103, p_3 = 239$ and $n = p_1 p_2 p_3$ has property (A) for $\Delta = 8$. In fact, this number has property (A) for $\Delta = 8m^2$ for any m such that $(m, n) = 1$.

5. Some further remarks. Recently Lehmer [3] has considered the problem of the existence of strong Carmichael numbers. These are integers which satisfy the following congruence

$$a^{(n-1)/2} \equiv (a \mid n) \pmod{n}$$

for all a such that $(a, n) = 1$. In [3] it is shown that there are no strong Carmichael numbers. In this section we will find a result analogous to that of Lehmer.

The result in the theory of Lucas functions which is analogous to

$$a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (a \mid p) \pmod{p},$$

where p is an odd prime and $(a, p) = 1$, is given in the following theorem.

THEOREM 5. *If $\epsilon = (\Delta | p)$, then*

$$U_{(p-\epsilon)/2}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \text{ when } (Q | p) = 1,$$

and

$$V_{(p-\epsilon)/2}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \text{ when } (Q | p) = -1.$$

We say that an odd integer n satisfies property (B) for a given Δ if

(B) For all P, Q such that $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, $(P, Q) = 1$ and $(n, \Delta Q) = 1$ we have

$$U_{(n-\epsilon(n))/2}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

whenever $(Q | n) = +1$ and

$$V_{(n-\epsilon(n))/2}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

whenever $(Q | n) = -1$.

We will show that there are no odd composite integers satisfying (B) and we will do this by first characterizing all those odd composite integers n which satisfy property (C) below.

(C) for all P, Q such that $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, $(P, Q) = 1$, $(n, \Delta Q) = 1$, and $(Q | n) = -1$, we have

$$V_{(n-\epsilon(n))/2}(P, Q) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}.$$

THEOREM 6. *If n (odd, composite) is not a perfect square or if $n \neq 15$ whenever $\Delta \equiv 4 \pmod{15}$, then n can not satisfy (C).*

Proof. Suppose that some odd n satisfies (C) and that n is not a perfect square. Let p be any prime divisor of n and let $n = p^\alpha r$ where $(r, p) = 1$.

Put $\theta = \theta(p) = 1$ if $r = 3r^2$ and $\Delta \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$; otherwise, put $\theta = 0$. Find P, Q such that $(P, Q) = 1$, $P^2 - 4Q = \Delta$, $\omega(p^\alpha; P, Q) = \kappa\delta(p)p^{\alpha-1}$, where $\kappa = 1 - \theta/2$; then $(Q | p) = (-1)^{\theta-1}$. We now find P', Q' such that $P'^2 - 4Q' = \Delta$ and $P' \equiv P, Q' \equiv Q \pmod{p^\alpha}$, $(Q' | r) = (-1)^{\alpha(\theta-1)+1}$. From these we can determine P'', Q'' such that $(P'', Q'') = 1$, $(n, Q'') = 1$, $P''^2 - 4Q'' = \Delta$, $\omega(p^\alpha; P'', Q'') = \kappa p^{\alpha-1} \delta(p)$, $(Q'' | n) = (Q | p)^\alpha (Q' | r) = (-1)^{2\alpha(\theta-1)+1} = -1$.

Now since $p^\alpha | n$,

$$V_{(n-\epsilon(n))/2}(P'', Q'') \equiv 0 \pmod{p^\alpha};$$

hence

$$U_{n-\epsilon(n)}(P'', Q'') \equiv 0 \pmod{p^\alpha}$$

and $\kappa\delta(p)p^{\alpha-1} | n - \epsilon(n)$. We conclude that $\alpha = 1$ and by repeating the above argument on all primes which divide n , we see that n must be a product of distinct primes. It follows that, if $\theta = 1$ for some prime p which divides n , then $n/p = 3$. Also $(\Delta | 3) = 1$ and $(p - \epsilon(p))/2 | 3p - \epsilon(p)$; hence, we must have $p = 5$ and $\epsilon(5) = +1$. Since $(\Delta | 5) = (\Delta | 3) = 1$, $(Q | 3) = -1$, and $(Q | 5) = +1$, we also must have $\Delta \equiv 4 \pmod{15}$. Thus, if $n \neq 15$ whenever $\Delta \equiv 4 \pmod{15}$, we see

that $\theta(p)$ must be zero for each prime p which divides n and consequently $\delta(p) \mid n - \epsilon(n)$.

Let $n = pr$, where p is a prime and $p \neq 3$ and select P, Q such that $(P, Q) = 1, P^2 - 4Q = \Delta, \omega(p; P, Q) = \delta(p)/2$. We can then find P'', Q'' such that $(P'', Q'') = 1, (n, Q'') = 1, P''^2 - 4Q'' = \Delta, \omega(p; P'', Q'') = \delta(p)/2, (Q'' \mid n) = -1$.

Since

$$V_{(n-\epsilon(n))/2}(P'', Q'') \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

and $p \nmid (V_m(P'', Q''), U_m(P'', Q''))$ for any m , we see that $\omega(p; P'', Q'') \nmid (n - \epsilon(n)/2)$. However, $\omega(p; P'', Q'') = \delta(p)/2$ and $\delta(p) \mid n - \epsilon(n)$; hence, $\delta(p)/2 \mid (n - \epsilon(n))/2$, which is a contradiction.

In the following theorem we obtain our result.

THEOREM 7. *There are no odd composite integers which satisfy (B) for any Δ .*

Proof. If n satisfies (B) for some Δ , it must satisfy (A) for that same Δ . Hence n is the product of distinct primes and not a perfect square. Since n must also satisfy (C) we see that n can only be 15 when $\Delta \equiv 4 \pmod{15}$; however, in this case, we do not have $\delta(5) \mid 15 - \epsilon(15)$.

Another problem of some interest is that of whether there exists a Carmichael number n which possesses property (A) for some Δ such that $(\Delta \mid n) = -1$. It is not difficult to show that if such numbers Δ and n exist, n must be the product of an odd number of distinct primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_k, \epsilon(p_i) = -1$ ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$), and $p_i + 1 \mid n + 1, p_i - 1 \mid n - 1$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$. For suppose $p \mid n$ and $\epsilon(p) = +1$, then $p - 1 \mid n + 1$ and $p - 1 \mid n - 1$, which means that $p = 3$. If q is any other prime divisor of n , then $\epsilon(q) = -1, q + 1 \mid n + 1$ and $q - 1 \mid n - 1$. If $3 \mid n$, this is impossible; hence, $\epsilon(p) = -1$ for any $p \mid n$. Since $\epsilon(n) = -1 = \epsilon_n(p_1)\epsilon(p_2) \cdots \epsilon(p_n) = (-1)^k, k$ must be odd.

It is not known to the author whether any such numbers exist. It can be shown, however, that if n is such a number, $k \geq 5$. To show this it suffices to show that $k \neq 3$. Suppose $k = 3$ and $n = p_1 p_2 p_3$ with $p_1 < p_2 < p_3$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} p_1 p_2 - 1 &\equiv 0 \pmod{p_3 - 1} \\ -p_1 p_2 + 1 &\equiv 0 \pmod{p_3 + 1}; \end{aligned}$$

hence, $(p_3^2 - 1)/2$ is a divisor of $p_1 p_2 - 1$. Since $p_3 > p_2, p_1$, we have $p_3^2 + 1 = 2p_1 p_2$. It is also true that $p_2 p_3 - 1$ is divisible by $(p_1^2 - 1)/2$ and $p_1 p_3 - 1$ is divisible by $(p_2^2 - 1)/2$. Thus,

$$\frac{p_2 p_3 - 1}{(p_1^2 - 1)/2} > \frac{p_1 p_3 - 1}{(p_2^2 - 1)/2} > \frac{p_1 p_2 - 1}{(p_3^2 - 1)/2}$$

and each of these three numbers is an integer. Since

$$p_1 p_3 \neq p_2^2, p_1 p_2 - 1 \geq 3(p_2^2 - 1)/2, p_2 p_3 - 1 \geq 4(p_1^2 - 1)/2$$

and

$$p_1 p_2 + p_2 p_3 + p_3 p_1 - 3 \geq (p_3^2 - 1)/2 + 3(p_2^2 - 1)/2 + 4(p_1^2 - 1)/2.$$

Since

$$p_1 p_2 + p_2 p_3 + p_3 p_1 \leq p_1^2 + p_2^2 + p_3^2,$$

we have

$$2(p_1^2 + p_2^2 + p_3^2) \geq p_3^2 + 3p_1^2 + 4p_1^2 - 2;$$

hence,

$$p_3^2 + 1 \geq p_2^2 + 2p_1^2 - 1 > p_2^2 + p_1^2 \geq 2p_1 p_2,$$

which is impossible.

REFERENCES

1. R. D. Carmichael. *A new number theory function*, Bull. Amer. Math. Soc., **19** (1910), pp. 232–238.
2. Jack Chernick, *On Fermat's simple theorem*, Bull. Amer. Math. Soc., **45** (1939), pp. 269–274.
3. D. H. Lehmer, *Strong Carmichael numbers*, J. Aust. Math. Soc., Ser. A, **21** (1976) pp. 508–510.
4. A Rotkiewicz, *On the pseudoprimes with respect to the Lucas sequences*, Bull. Acad. Polon. Sci. Sér. Sci. Math. Astronom. Phys., **21** (1973), pp. 793–797.

UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA.
WINNIPEG, MAN. R3T 2N2