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# Cipolla Pseudoprimes 

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#### Abstract

We consider the pseudoprimes that M. Cipolla constructed. We call such pseudoprimes Cipolla pseudoprimes. In this paper we find infinitely many Lucas and Lehmer pseudoprimes that are analogous to Cipolla pseudoprimes.


## 1 Introduction

Take an integer $a>1$. A pseudoprime to base $a$ is a composite number $n$ such that $a^{n-1} \equiv$ $1(\bmod n)$. In 1904, M. Cipolla [1] found infinitely many pseudoprimes to a given base $a$. To be more precise,

Theorem 1 (Cipolla [1], cf. Ribenboim [5]). Let p be a prime such that p does not divide $a\left(a^{2}-1\right)$. Put

$$
n_{1}=\frac{a^{p}-1}{a-1}, \quad n_{2}=\frac{a^{p}+1}{a+1}, \quad n=n_{1} n_{2} .
$$

Then $n$ is a pseudoprime to base a.
In this paper we call such $n$ a Cipolla pseudoprime. In the above theorem, if we set $P=a+1, Q=a$, then $n$ is written as $n=U_{2 p} / P$, where $U_{2 p}$ is a term in the Lucas sequence with parameters $P$ and $Q$. See the next section for Lucas sequences. From this observation, the following question arises. For given integers $P, Q$, are there infinitely many Lucas pseudoprimes with parameters $P$ and $Q$ of the form $U_{2 p} / P$ ? Here Lucas pseudoprimes will be defined in the next section.

The purpose of the paper is to solve the above question affirmatively under a certain condition. As a corollary to our result, we derive the result of Lehmer [4]. We are also going to consider an analogous question for Lehmer sequences.

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## 2 Cipolla-Lucas pseudoprimes

In this section we consider Lucas pseudoprimes of special type.
Let $P, Q$ be integers such that $D:=P^{2}-4 Q \neq 0$, and $\alpha, \beta$ the roots of the polynomial $z^{2}-P z+Q$. For a nonnegative integer $n$, put

$$
U_{n}=\frac{\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}}{\alpha-\beta}, \quad V_{n}=\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}
$$

For example, we have $U_{0}=1, U_{1}=1, U_{2}=P, V_{0}=2$, and $V_{1}=P$. One sees that $\left(U_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ and $\left(V_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ are integer sequences. We call the sequences $\left(U_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0},\left(V_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ the Lucas sequences with parameters $P$ and $Q$.

We exhibit some results needed afterwards. One can consult Ribenboim [5, 6] for the basic results.
(I) For a nonnegative integer $n, U_{2 n}=U_{n} V_{n}$.
(II) (a) If $P$ is odd and $Q$ is even, then $U_{n}, V_{n}(n \geq 1)$ are odd.
(b) If $P$ and $Q$ are odd, then $U_{n}, V_{n}(3 \nmid n)$ are odd.
(III) (a) When $U_{m} \neq 1, U_{m} \mid U_{n}$ if and only if $m \mid n$.
(b) When $V_{m} \neq 1, V_{m} \mid V_{n}$ if and only if $m \mid n$ and $n / m$ is odd.
(IV) For any odd prime $p$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& 2^{p-1} U_{p}=\sum_{k=0}^{(p-1) / 2}\binom{p}{2 k+1} P^{p-(2 k+1))} D^{k},  \tag{1}\\
& 2^{p-1} V_{p}=\sum_{k=0}^{(p-1) / 2}\binom{p}{2 k} P^{(p-2 k)} D^{k} .  \tag{2}\\
& U_{p} \equiv\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) \quad(\bmod p), \quad V_{p} \equiv P \quad(\bmod p) .
\end{align*}
$$

We recall Lucas pseudoprimes. A composite number $n$ is a Lucas pseudoprime with parameters $P$ and $Q$ if

$$
U_{n-\left(\frac{D}{n}\right)} \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod n)
$$

holds. Here $\left(\frac{D}{n}\right)$ is the Jacobi symbol.
Now let us define an analogue of Cipolla pseudoprimes for Lucas sequences.
Definition 2. A composite number $n$ is called a Cipolla-Lucas pseudoprime with parameters $P$ and $Q$ if it is a Lucas pseudoprime with parameters $P$ and $Q$ and has the form $U_{2 p} / P$ for a certain prime number $p$.

Our first result is as follows.
Theorem 3. Let $P$ be an odd number, and $Q$ a nonzero integer such that $\operatorname{gcd}(P, Q)=1$. Assume that $D=P^{2}-4 Q$ is square-free. Then there are infinitely many Cipolla-Lucas pseudoprimes with parameters $P$ and $Q$.

Proof. Let $p$ be an odd prime such that $\operatorname{gcd}(p, 3 P D)=1$ and $\varphi(D) \mid p-1$. Then we show that $U_{2 p} / P$ is a Lucas pseudoprime. From now on we prove the theorem step by step. Put $m=U_{2 p} / P$.

First of all, we prove $m \left\lvert\, U_{m-\left(\frac{D}{m}\right)}\right.$. Since $p$ is odd, $U_{p} \equiv\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)(\bmod p), V_{p} \equiv P(\bmod p)$. So that

$$
U_{2 p}=U_{p} V_{p} \equiv P\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) \quad(\bmod p)
$$

Since $P=U_{2}, U_{2} \mid U_{2 p}$, and $\operatorname{gcd}(p, P)=1$, we have $m \equiv\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)(\bmod p)$. We recall that $P$ is odd and $\operatorname{gcd}(p, 3)=1$. Hence $U_{p}$ and $V_{p}$ are odd. We see $2 p \left\lvert\, m-\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)\right.$. From this, we have $U_{2 p} \left\lvert\, U_{m-\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}\right.$. Moreover we have $m \left\lvert\, U_{m-\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}\right.$. We prove $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=\left(\frac{D}{m}\right)$. By (1) and (2),

$$
\begin{aligned}
2^{p-1} U_{p} & \equiv p P^{p-1} \quad(\bmod D) \\
2^{p-1} V_{p} & \equiv P^{p} \quad(\bmod D)
\end{aligned}
$$

By $\varphi(D) \mid p-1$, we have $U_{p} \equiv p(\bmod D)$, $V_{p} \equiv P(\bmod D)$. Hence $U_{2 p} \equiv p P(\bmod D)$. By $\operatorname{gcd}(P, D)=1$, it follows that $m=U_{2 p} / P \equiv p(\bmod D)$. Observe that $D \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ because $P$ is odd. Thus we have $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=\left(\frac{D}{m}\right)$, which implies $m \left\lvert\, U_{m-\left(\frac{D}{m}\right)}\right.$.

We next show that $m$ is a composite number. Since $p$ is odd and $P=U_{2}=V_{1}$, one has $P \nmid U_{p}$ and $P \mid V_{p}$. Now assume that there exists an odd prime $p$ satisfying $V_{p}= \pm P$. Then one has $V_{1} \mid V_{p}$ and $V_{p} \mid V_{1}$. This implies $p=1$, which is absurd. Therefore $m$ is a composite number.

Finally, we prove the infinitude of $U_{2 p} / P$. By Dirichlet's theorem on primes in arithmetic progression, there are infinitely many primes $p$ such that $\varphi(D) \mid p-1$. The number of primes $p$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(p, 3 P D)>1$ among them is finite. This proves the claim.

As a corollary to the last theorem, we can derive a known result. We call the Lucas sequence with parameters 1 and -1 the Fibonacci sequence. We write $\left(F_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ for it. A composite number $n$ is called a Fibonacci pseudoprime if

$$
F_{n-\left(\frac{D}{n}\right)} \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod n)
$$

is valid. Using the last theorem, we have
Corollary 4 (Lehmer [4]). There are infinitely many primes $p$ such that $F_{2 p}$ is a Fibonacci pseudoprime.

Proof. Since $P=1$ and $Q=-1, U_{2 p} / P$ becomes $F_{2 p}$. In this case one has $D=5$. Hence for any prime $p>5$ with $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, the two conditions $\operatorname{gcd}(p, 3 P D)=1$ and $\varphi(D) \mid p-1$ hold. This yields the result.

## 3 Cipolla-Lehmer pseudoprimes

In this section we consider Lehmer pseudoprimes. First, we review Lehmer sequences.
Let $\alpha, \beta$ be distinct roots of the polynomial $f(z)=z^{2}-\sqrt{L} z+M$, where $L>0$ and $M$ are rational integers, and $K:=L-4 M$ is the discriminant of $f(z)$. For a nonnegative integer $n$, put

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D_{n}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\left(\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}\right) /(\alpha-\beta) & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\
\left(\alpha^{n}-\beta^{n}\right) /\left(\alpha^{2}-\beta^{2}\right) & \text { if } n \text { is even }
\end{array}\right. \\
& E_{n}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
\left(\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n}\right) /(\alpha+\beta) & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\
\alpha^{n}+\beta^{n} & \text { if } n \text { is even }
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

For example, we have $D_{0}=0, D_{1}=D_{2}=1, E_{0}=2, E_{1}=1$, and $E_{2}=L-2 M$. One sees that $\left(D_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ and $\left(E_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ are integer sequences. We call the sequences $\left(D_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ and $\left(E_{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ the the Lehmer sequences with parameters $L$ and $M$. It should be noticed that we modify the original definition of the Lehmer sequences in order to make them integer sequences.

We exhibit some results needed afterwards. One can consult Lehmer [3] for the basic results.
(I) For a prime $p, D_{2 p}=D_{p} E_{p}$.
(II) $D_{n}$ is even in the following cases only
(a) $L=4 k, M=2 l+1, n=2 h$,
(b) $L=4 k+2, M=2 l+1, n=4 h$,
(c) $L=4 k \pm 1, M=2 l+1, n=3 h$.
(III) $E_{n}$ is even in the following cases only
(a) $L=4 k, M=2 l+1$,
(b) $L=4 k+2, M=2 l+1, n=2 h$,
(c) $L=4 k \pm 1, M=2 l+1, n=3 h$.
(IV) If $m \mid n$, then $D_{m} \mid D_{n}$.
(V) For any odd prime $p$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& 2^{p-1} D_{p}=\sum_{k=0}^{(p-1) / 2}\binom{p}{2 k+1} L^{(p-2 k-1) / 2} K^{k}  \tag{3}\\
& 2^{p-1} E_{p}=\sum_{k=0}^{(p-1) / 2}\binom{p}{2 k} L^{(p-2 k) / 2} K^{k} .  \tag{4}\\
& D_{p} \equiv\left(\frac{K}{p}\right) \quad(\bmod p), \quad E_{p} \equiv\left(\frac{L}{p}\right) \quad(\bmod p) .
\end{align*}
$$

Next, we review Lehmer pseudoprimes. A composite number $n$ is called a Lehmer pseudoprime with parameters $L$ and $M$ if

$$
D_{n-\left(\frac{K L}{n}\right)} \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod n)
$$

holds. Here $\left(\frac{K L}{n}\right)$ denotes the Jacobi symbol.
Any Cipolla pseudoprime is written as $D_{2 p}$ for some prime $p$. Hence we define Lehmer pseudoprimes related to Cipolla pseudoprimes as follows.

Definition 5. A composite number $n$ is called a Cipolla-Lehmer pseudoprime with parameters $L$ and $M$ if it is a Lehmer pseudoprime with parameters $L$ and $M$ and has the form $D_{2 p}$ for a certain prime $p$

Our second result is as follows.
Theorem 6. Let $L$ be a square-free odd number and $M$ an integer such that $\operatorname{gcd}(L, M)=1$. Assume that $K=L-4 M$ is square-free. Then there are infinitely many Cipolla-Lehmer pseudoprimes with parameters $L$ and $M$.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Theorem 3. Let $p$ be an odd prime such that $\operatorname{gcd}(p, K L)=1$ and $\varphi(K L) \mid p-1$. Then we prove that $D_{2 p}$ is a Lehmer pseudoprime. Put $m=D_{2 p}$.

We first show $m \left\lvert\, D_{m-\left(\frac{K L}{m}\right)}\right.$. Since $p$ is odd, $D_{p} \equiv\left(\frac{K}{p}\right)(\bmod p), E_{p} \equiv\left(\frac{L}{p}\right)(\bmod p)$. Hence

$$
m=D_{2 p}=D_{p} E_{p} \equiv\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right) \quad(\bmod p)
$$

That is to say, $p \left\lvert\, m-\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right)\right.$. Since $L$ is odd, $D_{p}$ and $E_{p}$ are odd. Hence $m$ is odd. We find that $m-\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right)$ is even. Thus $2 p \left\lvert\, m-\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right)\right.$. Using this, we have $D_{2 p} \left\lvert\, D_{m-\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right)}\right.$, which shows $m \left\lvert\, D_{m-\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right)}\right.$. We must prove $\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right)=\left(\frac{K L}{m}\right)$. Since $K$ is odd, by (3) and (4),

$$
\begin{aligned}
2^{p-1} D_{p} & \equiv p L^{\frac{p-1}{2}}+K^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \quad(\bmod K L) \\
2^{p-1} E_{p} & \equiv L^{\frac{p-1}{2}}+p K^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \quad(\bmod K L)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\varphi(K L) \mid p-1$ and $2 \nmid K L$ hold, $2^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod K L)$. Hence we have

$$
m=D_{p} E_{p} \equiv p\left(K^{p-1}+L^{p-1}\right) \quad(\bmod K L)
$$

It should be noted that $K^{p-1}+L^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod K L)$. Indeed, because of $\operatorname{gcd}(K, L)=1$, the condition $\varphi(K) \varphi(L) \mid p-1$ implies $L^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod K)$ and $K^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod L)$. For any prime divisor $l$ of $K, l \mid K^{p-1}+L^{p-1}-1$. Hence we have $K^{p-1}+L^{p-1}-1 \equiv 0(\bmod K)$. In the same way, we have $K^{p-1}+L^{p-1}-1 \equiv 0(\bmod L)$. Therefore our claim is proven. Using this observation, we obtain $m \equiv p(\bmod K L)$. By the way, we see $K L=L^{2}-4 M L \equiv L^{2} \equiv$ $1(\bmod 4)$. Thus we conclude that $\left(\frac{K L}{p}\right)=\left(\frac{K L}{m}\right)$. We get $m \left\lvert\, D_{m-\left(\frac{K L}{m}\right)}\right.$.

Clearly $m=D_{p} E_{p}$ is a composite number.
Finally we show the infinitude of $D_{2 p}$. By Dirichlet's theorem on primes in arithmetic progression, there are infinitely many primes $p$ such that $\varphi(K L) \mid p-1$. The number of primes $p$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(p, K L)>1$ among them is finite. This proves the claim.

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