CARMICHAEL NUMBERS AND KORSELT'S CRITERION

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Fermat's little theorem says for a prime p and all integers $a \neq 0 \mod p$ that $a^{p-1} \equiv$ 1 mod p. Conversely, if $n > 1$ and $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ for all $a \not\equiv 0 \mod n$ then n must be prime: from $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ we get $(a, n) = 1$, so n is relatively prime to all integers from 1 to $n-1$, and thus n is a prime number.

While $a \not\equiv 0 \mod p$ is the same as $(a, p) = 1$ for prime p and any integer a, the conditions $a \not\equiv 0 \mod n$ and $(a, n) = 1$ are not the same for composite n: $(a, n) = 1 \Rightarrow a \not\equiv 0 \mod n$ but the converse can fail (depending on a). If we write $a \not\equiv 0 \mod p$ in Fermat's little theorem as $(a, p) = 1$, making the theorem "for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(a, p) = 1 \Longrightarrow a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$," we have an implication that is sometimes true if we replace prime p by composite n .

Definition 1. An integer $n > 1$ is called a *Carmichael number* if n is composite and $(a, n) = 1 \Longrightarrow a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ $(a, n) = 1 \Longrightarrow a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ $(a, n) = 1 \Longrightarrow a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}^1$.

Initially it is not clear that there are any Carmichael numbers, but the first few were found by Robert Carmichael [\[3\]](#page-2-0), [\[4\]](#page-2-1) in the early 20th century, including

561, 1105, 1729, 2465, 2821.

There are infinitely many Carmichael numbers, which is a hard theorem [\[1\]](#page-2-2).

It is possible to verify an integer n is a Carmichael number without using the definition, which means you don't have to check $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$ for all a such that $(a, n) = 1$. Instead you can check properties of the prime factorization of n called Korselt's criterion.

Theorem 2 (Korselt). A composite integer $n > 1$ is a Carmichael number if and only if (i) n is squarefree and (ii) for every prime p dividing n, also $(p-1) | (n-1)$.

Proof. Assume n is a Carmichael number. First we will show n is squarefree. If a prime p divides *n* more than once, write $n = p^k n'$ where $k \ge 1$ and $(p, n') = 1$. We want to show $k = 1$, and will do this by contradiction using the Chinese remainder theorem.

Assume $k \geq 2$, so *n* is divisible by p^2 . By the Chinese remainder theorem there is an $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \equiv 1 + p \mod p^k$ and $a \equiv 1 \mod n'$. Then $(a, n) = 1$, so

$$
a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \bmod n
$$

by the definition of Carmichael numbers. Reduce the above congruence modulo p^2 , getting $(1+p)^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod p^2$. By the binomial theorem, $(1+p)^{n-1} \equiv 1 + (n-1)p \mod p^2$. Since n is divisible by $p, 1+(n-1)p \equiv 1-p \mod p^2$. Thus $1-p \equiv 1 \mod p^2$. This is a contradiction, so $k=1$.

Next we show $(p-1)$ | $(n-1)$ for each prime p dividing n. Since n is squarefree, p and n/p are relatively prime. Pick any $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that b mod p has order $p-1$ (there is a primitive root modulo any prime). By the Chinese remainder theorem there's an $a \in \mathbf{Z}$

¹Oystein Ore, in 1948 [\[7,](#page-2-3) p. 331], called such n an "F number" since they have the "Fermat property" without being prime. The term "Carmichael number" was introduced by Beeger [\[2\]](#page-2-4) in 1950.

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such that $a \equiv b \mod p$ and $a \equiv 1 \mod n/p$, so $(a, n) = 1$. Then $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$. Reducing both sides modulo p, $b^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$. This implies, by the choice of b, that $(p-1) \mid (n-1)$.

Now assume *n* is squarefree and $(p-1) | (n-1)$ for every prime p that divides n. We want to show n is Carmichael. If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfies $(a, n) = 1$ then for each prime p dividing n we have $(a, p) = 1$, so $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$. Since $p-1$ is a factor of $n-1$ we get $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$. As this holds for all primes p dividing n, and n is squarefree, we get $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$. Also *n* is composite (by hypothesis), so *n* is Carmichael.

Korselt [\[6\]](#page-2-5) proved this theorem about 10 years before Carmichael essentially rediscovered it [\[3\]](#page-2-0), [\[4\]](#page-2-1), but Korselt did not find examples of such numbers and that is why they are called Carmichael numbers rather than Korselt numbers. On that basis, however, these numbers should be called Simerka numbers since V. Simerka found the first 7 examples 25 years before Carmichael. Below is an excerpt from \check{S} imerka's article [[8\]](#page-2-6), which appeared in a Czech math journal that was not widely read.

> bývá. Tak na př. při $561 \equiv 3.11.17$, $b \equiv 2$ nalezneme $2_{10} = -98$, $2_{20} = 67$, $2_{40} = 1$, $(2_{40})^{14} = 2_{560} = 1$. Tolikéž u čísel $1105 = 5.13.17$, $1729 = 7.13.19$, $2465 = 5.17.29$, $2821 = 7.13.31, 6601 = 7.23.41, 8911 = 7.19.67$ a j.v., kdykoli b s modulem nesoudělné jest.

FIGURE 1. Carmichael numbers found by Simerka before Carmichael.

Example 3. We use Korselt's criterion to verify a construction of Carmichael numbers due to Chernick [\[5\]](#page-2-7): if k is a positive integer such that $6k+1$, $12k+1$, and $18k+1$ are all prime then the product $n = (6k+1)(12k+1)(18k+1)$ is a Carmichael number. For instance, $7 \cdot 13 \cdot 19 = 1729$ is a Carmichael number.

The first condition of Korselt's criterion, that n be squarefree, obviously holds. To check the second criterion we want to show $n-1$ is divisible by 6k, 12k, and 18k. Since 6 | 12 it suffices to look at n mod 12k and n mod 18k. Modulo 12k we have $n \equiv (6k+1)(6k+1) \equiv$ 1 mod 12k, and modulo 18k we have $n \equiv (6k + 1)(12k + 1) \equiv 1 \mod 18k$. Thus $n - 1$ is divisible by the desired factors, so it is a Carmichael number when its three factors are all prime.

This method of Chernick is very convenient if you want to construct an example of a large Carmichael number, such as if you are giving a lecture on Carmichael numbers and want to give an example other than the examples that are in all the books. Run a computer algebra package to find big k where $6k + 1$, $12k + 1$, and $18k + 1$ are all prime (it's believed this should happen infinitely often, and in any case it usually doesn't take long to find such a choice of k), take their product, and you're done.

As an exercise, verify with Korselt's criterion that if $6k+1$, $12k+1$, $18k+1$, and $36k+1$ are all prime then the product of these four numbers is a Carmichael number.

Corollary 4. A composite integer n is a Carmichael number if and only if $a^n \equiv a \mod n$ for all $a \in \mathbf{Z}$.

Proof. If $a^n \equiv a \mod n$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then when $(a, n) = 1$ we can cancel a from both sides and get $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$, so n is a Carmichael number since it is composite.

Conversely, assume *n* is Carmichael. To prove, for each $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, that $a^n \equiv a \mod n$ it suffices since *n* is squarefree to prove $a^n \equiv a \mod p$ for each prime *p* dividing *n*. This congruence is obvious if $a \equiv 0 \mod p$. If $a \not\equiv 0 \mod p$ then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$ by Fermat's little theorem, and $p-1$ is a factor of $n-1$, so $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$, and thus $a^n \equiv a \mod p$. □

Here are some further properties (but not characterizations) of Carmichael numbers.

Theorem 5. Every Carmichael number n is odd, has at least three different prime factors, **Theorem 5.** Every Carmichaet number n is
and every prime factor of n is less than \sqrt{n} .

Proof. Since $n-1$ is relatively prime to n, we have $(n-1)^{n-1} \equiv 1 \mod n$, so $(-1)^{n-1} \equiv$ 1 mod *n* and we know $(-1)^{n-1} = \pm 1$. Since $n > 2$ we have $-1 \not\equiv 1 \mod n$, so $(-1)^{n-1} = 1$. Thus $n-1$ is even, so n is odd.

Suppose $n = pq$ for primes p and q. Since n is squarefree, $p \neq q$. We may assume without loss of generality that $p > q$. By Korselt's criterion, $(p - 1) | (n - 1)$. Since

$$
\frac{n-1}{p-1} = \frac{pq-1}{p-1} = \frac{(p-1)q+q-1}{p-1} = q + \frac{q-1}{p-1},
$$

we must have $(p-1) | (q-1)$. But this is impossible since $q-1 < p-1$. Thus n has at least three different prime factors.

If p is a prime factor of n , then

$$
\frac{n-1}{p-1} = \frac{p(n/p)-1}{p-1} = \frac{(p-1)(n/p)+n/p-1}{p-1} = \frac{n}{p} + \frac{n/p-1}{p-1},
$$

so $(p-1) | (n/p-1)$. Thus $p \leq n/p$, and the inequality must be strict (otherwise $n = p^2$, so $(p-1) \mid (n/p-1)$. Thus $p \le n/p$, and the mequality must be strict (otherwise $n = p$,
which is impossible), so $p < \sqrt{n}$. Incidentally, this gives another proof that n has at least which is impossible), so $p < \sqrt{n}$. Includentally, this gives another proof that *n* has at least
three prime factors: if $n = pq$ with $p < \sqrt{n}$ and $q < \sqrt{n}$ then $n = pq < \sqrt{n}\sqrt{n} = n$, which is a contradiction.

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