

## MY TWELVE YEARS OF COLLABORATION WITH MICHAL KŘÍŽEK ON NUMBER THEORY

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### Abstract

We give a survey of the joint papers of Lawrence Somer and Michal Křížek and discuss the beginning of this collaboration.

### 1. Introduction

In the fall of 1999, I was in Prague on a one-year sabbatical from The Catholic University of America in Washington, D.C., and was teaching a course entitled “*Primality Testing and Its Application to Cryptography*” at the Faculty of Mathematics and Physics of Charles University. At the same time I met Florian Luca in Prague, whom I knew from the Fibonacci Conferences. He was preparing with Michal Křížek the book, *17 Lectures on Fermat Numbers*. Michal had been interested in the topic of Fermat numbers since he wrote a paper with Jan Chleboun for *Mathematica Bohemica* in 1994 on Fermat numbers. In November 1998, Florian Luca also submitted a paper related to Fermat numbers to *Mathematica Bohemica* for which Michal was the referee. Subsequently Michal invited Florian to visit the Institute of Mathematics in Prague in 1999–2000. While visiting Florian at the Institute, he introduced me to Michal, and soon after this, both asked me if I wanted to be a third coauthor of this book. After some thought, I agreed. Thus began my fruitful 12-year collaboration with Michal that has resulted in 30 joint papers and 2 books, primarily in the fields of number theory and combinatorics (see [1]–[32]).

Our papers were written in four languages – English, Czech, Spanish, and Chinese. As far as I know, Michal has also published papers in the six additional languages of Russian, German, Finnish, Dutch, Slovak, Serbo-Croatian.

## 2. Some of our most notable results

### 2.1. Euclidean primes

Euclid's theorem on the infinitude of primes is usually proved by a contradiction argument. It is assumed that there are only finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  and then it is shown that

$$m = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n + 1 \quad (1)$$

is a new prime or  $m$  has a new prime factor different from  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ , which is a contradiction.

Therefore, primes of the form (1) are called *Euclidean primes*. For instance,  $2 + 1 = 3$ ,  $2 \cdot 3 + 1 = 7$ ,  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 + 1 = 31$ ,  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 + 1 = 211$ ,  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 + 1 = 2311$  are Euclidean primes, but the next term

$$2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 + 1 = 59 \cdot 509$$

is composite.

Let  $p$  be a prime and let  $a$  be a natural number coprime to  $p$ . Then by Fermat's little theorem

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

We call the integer  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  a *primitive root modulo  $p$*  if

$$a^k \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

for all  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-2\}$ . For example, 3 is a primitive root modulo 5, since  $3^k \not\equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, 3$  (and  $3^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  by Fermat's little theorem).

Denote by  $A(p)$  the number of primitive roots modulo the prime  $p$ . In [20] we proved that Euclidean primes have the minimum possible number of primitive roots.

**Theorem 1.** *If  $p$  is a Euclidean prime, then for all primes  $q < p$  we have*

$$\frac{A(q)}{q} > \frac{A(p)}{p}.$$

### 2.2. Fermat primes

Recall that

$$F_m = 2^{2^m} + 1 \quad \text{for } m = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (2)$$

are called *Fermat numbers*. If  $F_m$  is prime it is termed a *Fermat prime*. For instance,

$$F_0 = 3, \quad F_1 = 5, \quad F_2 = 17, \quad F_3 = 257, \quad F_4 = 65537, \quad (3)$$

are Fermat primes, but  $F_5$  is composite.

As contrasted to Euclidean primes which have the minimum possible number of primitive roots, it is well known that Fermat primes have the maximum possible

number of primitive roots, namely  $(F_m - 1)/2$  (for a proof of this results see [16] or [3, p. 51]).

Leonhard Euler proved that any divisor of  $F_m$  is of the form  $k2^{m+1} + 1$ . Édouard Lucas refined this result by showing that each divisor of  $F_m > 5$  is of the form  $k2^{m+2} + 1$ . In [3], we proved the following result.

**Theorem 2.** *If  $k2^{m+2} + 1$  is a prime divisor of a composite Fermat number  $F_m$ , where  $k = 3, 5$  or  $6$ , then  $F_m$  has no prime divisor of the form  $\ell 2^{m+2} + 1$ , where  $1 \leq \ell < k$ , and  $k2^{m+2} + 1$  is the smallest prime divisor of  $F_m$ .*

### 2.3. Mersenne and Sophie Germain primes

In [19] we provided a relationship between Mersenne and Sophie Germain primes (see Theorem 3 below). Recall that the number  $M_p = 2^p - 1$ , where  $p$  is prime, is termed a *Mersenne number*. If  $2^p - 1$  itself is prime, then it is called a *Mersenne prime*. In particular, if

$$p = 2, 3, 5, 7, 13, 17, 19, 31, 61, 89, \dots$$

we get a Mersenne prime.

In 1819, the French mathematician Sophie Germain demonstrated that if  $p$  and  $2p + 1$  are both prime, then the so-called first case of Fermat's Last Theorem holds for the exponent  $p$ . Odd primes  $p$  for which  $2p + 1$  is also a prime are thus called *Sophie Germain primes*. For example 5, 11, and 23 are Sophie Germain primes.

Furthermore, we examine some connections of number theory with graph theory. We assign to each pair of positive integers  $k \geq 2$  and  $n$  a digraph  $G(n, k)$  whose set of vertices is  $H = \{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$  and for which there exists a directed edge from  $a \in H$  to  $b \in H$  if  $a^k \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . The cycles of length  $q$  are said to be *q-cycles*. All cycles are assumed to be oriented counterclockwise (see Figure 1 for  $n = 47$ ).

In [19] we proved the following relatively simple statements.

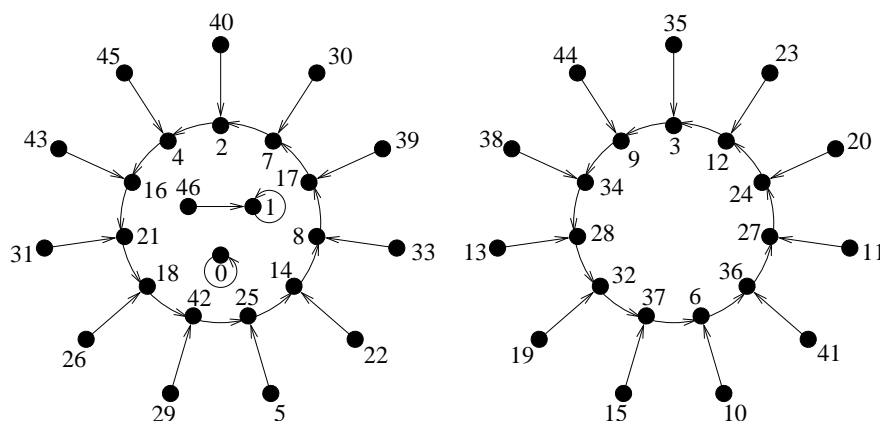


Figure 1: Iteration digraph corresponding to  $n = 47$ .

**Theorem 3.** Let  $M_q$  be a Mersenne prime with  $q > 2$ . Then there does not exist a Sophie Germain prime  $p$  such that  $G(2p + 1, 2)$  contains a  $q$ -cycle.

We proved the following characterization of Sophie Germain primes.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $p$  be a Sophie Germain prime. Then  $G(2p + 1, 2)$  has two trivial components: the isolated fixed point 0 and the component  $\{1, 2p\}$  having the fixed point 1. Each of the other components has  $2t$  vertices and contains a  $t$ -cycle. The number of directed edges coming into a vertex of a  $t$ -cycle is exactly 2.

See Figure 1 for the iteration digraph  $G(2p + 1, 2)$ , where  $p = 23$  is a Sophie Germain prime.

If the quadratic congruence

$$x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

has no solution  $x$  then  $a$  is said to be a quadratic nonresidue modulo  $p$ .

**Theorem 5.** Let  $p$  be a Sophie Germain prime. Then all quadratic nonresidues are primitive roots modulo  $2p + 1$ , except for exactly one number  $2p$ , which is a quadratic nonresidue, but not a primitive root.

#### 2.4. Semiregular iteration digraphs modulo $n$

The *indegree* of a vertex  $a \in H$  of  $G(n, k)$  is the number of directed edges coming into  $a$ . The digraph  $G(n, k)$  is said to be *semiregular* if there exists a positive integer  $d$  such that each vertex of the digraph has indegree  $d$  or 0.

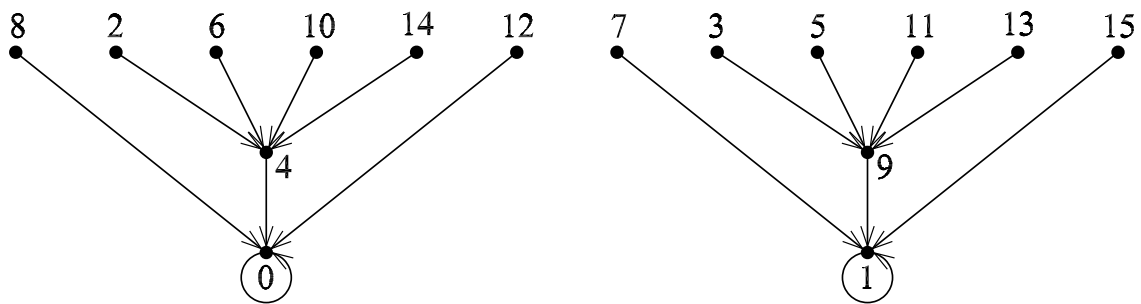


Figure 2: The semiregular iteration digraph  $G(16, 2)$ .

By Figure 2 we see that  $G(16, 2)$  is semiregular. In Theorem 6 which was proved in [30], we characterize the structure all semiregular digraphs  $G(n, k)$ .

We use the notation  $\prod_{i=1}^0 a_i$  to denote that the corresponding product is empty and set equal to 1 by convention.

**Theorem 6.** Let  $k \geq 2$  be a fixed integer with the factorization

$$k = Q \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} p_i^{\alpha_i},$$

where each  $p_i$  is a prime such that  $\gcd(p_i - 1, k) = 1$  and in addition,  $\ell \geq 1$ ,  $\alpha_i \geq 1$ , and  $\gcd(q - 1, k) > 1$  for each prime  $q$  dividing  $Q$ . Let  $n \geq 2$  have the prime power factorization

$$n = S \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} p_i^{\beta_i} \prod_{i=1}^m q_i^{\gamma_i},$$

where  $\beta_i \geq 0$ ,  $m \geq 0$ ,  $\gamma_i \geq 1$ ,  $\gcd(q_i(q_i - 1), k) = 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , and  $\gcd(t - 1, k) > 1$  for each prime  $t$  dividing  $S$ .

Then  $G(n, k)$  is semiregular if and only if one of the following conditions holds:

- (a)  $n = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} p_i^{\beta_i} \prod_{i=1}^m q_i$  for  $0 \leq \beta_i \leq \alpha_i + 1$  and  $m \geq 0$  when  $p_i$  is odd for each  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, \ell\}$ ,
- (b)  $n = 2^{\beta_1}$  for  $\beta_1 \in \{1, 2, 4\}$  when  $k = 2$ ,
- (c)  $n = 2^{\beta_1}$  for  $1 \leq \beta_1 \leq 5$  when  $k = 2^2$ ,
- (d)  $n = 2^{\beta_1}$  for  $1 \leq \beta_1 \leq \alpha_1 + 2$  when  $p_1 = 2$  and  $k \geq 6$ .

## 2.5. Symmetric iteration digraphs modulo $n$

A *component* of the iteration digraph is a subdigraph which is a maximal connected subgraph of the associated nondirected graph. The digraph  $G(n, k)$  is symmetric of order  $M$  if its set of components can be partitioned into disjoint subsets, each containing exactly  $M$  isomorphic components.

By Figure 3, the digraph  $G(39, 3)$  is symmetric of order 3. Before proceeding further, we need to define the Carmichael lambda-function  $\lambda(n)$ .

**Definition 1.** Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Then the *Carmichael lambda-function*  $\lambda(n)$  is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(1) &= \lambda(2) = 1, \\ \lambda(4) &= 2, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(2^k) &= 2^{k-2} \text{ for } k \geq 3, \\ \lambda(p^k) &= (p-1)p^{k-1} \text{ for any odd prime } p \text{ and } k \geq 1, \\ \lambda(p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \cdots p_r^{k_r}) &= \text{lcm}[\lambda(p_1^{k_1}), \lambda(p_2^{k_2}), \dots, \lambda(p_r^{k_r})], \end{aligned}$$

where  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r$  are distinct primes and  $k_i \geq 1$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, r\}$ .

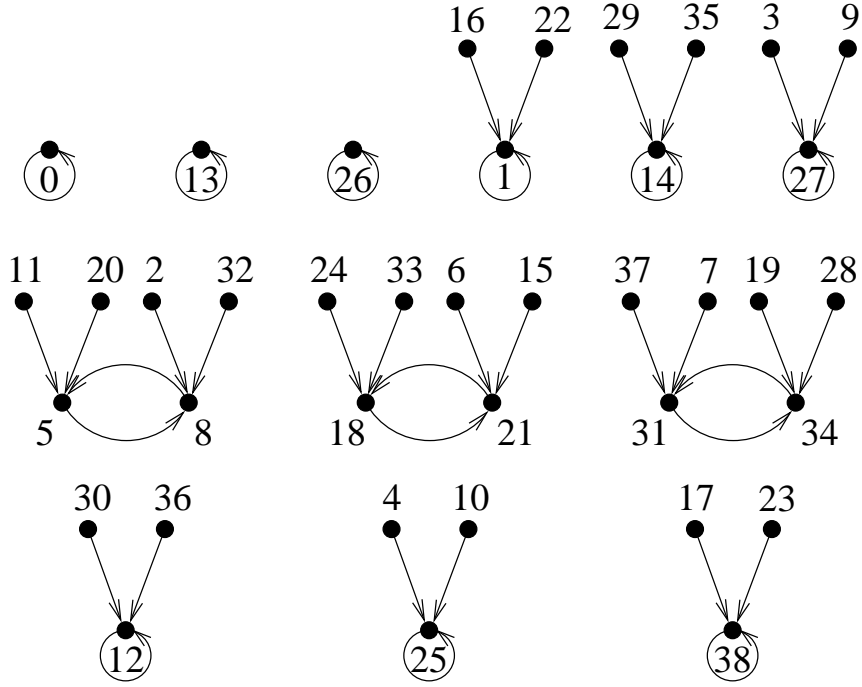


Figure 3: The symmetric iteration digraph  $G(39, 3)$  of order 3.

In Theorem 7 which was proved in [31], we give several sufficient conditions for a digraph  $G(n, k)$  to be symmetric of order  $M \geq 2$ .

**Theorem 7.** Let  $n = n_1 n_2$ , where  $n_1 > 1$ ,  $n_2 \geq 1$ , and  $\gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$ .

- (i) Suppose that  $n_1 = p^\alpha$ , where  $p$  is an odd prime and  $\alpha \geq 1$ . Suppose further that  $k \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}$  and  $p^{\alpha-1} \mid k$ . Then  $G(n, k)$  is symmetric of order  $p$ .
- (ii) Suppose that  $n_1 = 2^\alpha$ , where  $\alpha \geq 1$ . Then  $G(n, k)$  is symmetric of order 2 if one of the following conditions holds:
  - (a)  $\alpha \leq 2$ ,  $k \geq 2$ , and  $2^{\alpha-1} \mid k$ ,
  - (b)  $\alpha \geq 3$ ,  $k > 2$ , and  $2^{\alpha-2} \mid k$ ,
  - (c)  $\alpha = 4$  and  $k = 2$ .
- (iii) Suppose that  $n_1 = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$ , where the  $q_i$ 's are distinct primes, not necessarily odd, and  $s \geq 2$ . Suppose that  $k \equiv 1 \pmod{\lambda(n_1)}$ . Then  $G(n, k)$  is symmetric of order  $n_1$ .
- (iv) Suppose that  $n_1 = p^\alpha q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$ , where  $p$  is an odd prime,  $\alpha \geq 2$ ,  $s \geq 1$ , and the  $q_i$ 's are distinct primes such that  $p \neq q_i$  and  $p \nmid q_i - 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, s$ . Suppose further that  $k \equiv 1 \pmod{\lambda(pq_1 q_2 \cdots q_s)}$  and  $p^{\alpha-1} \mid k$ . Then  $G(n, k)$  is symmetric of order  $pq_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$ .

## 2.6. Elite primes

Motivated by a generalization of the Pepin primality test (see [3, pp. 42–43]) for Fermat numbers (2), Aigner introduced the notion of *elite primes* which are the primes  $p$  such that  $F_m$  is a quadratic nonresidue modulo  $p$  for all but finitely many  $m$ . For example, 3, 5, 7, and 41 are elite primes. Denoting by  $E$  the set of all elite primes, the following statement holds (see [4]):

**Theorem 8.** *The series*

$$\sum_{p \in E} \frac{1}{p}$$

*is convergent.*

Note that  $\sum_{p \in P} \frac{1}{p}$  over the set  $P$  of all primes is divergent.

Since the sequence of Fermat numbers is eventually periodic modulo any prime  $p$  with at most  $p$  distinct elements in the image, the period length  $t_p$  is bounded by  $p$  and the number of arithmetic operations modulo  $p$  to test  $p$  for being elite is bounded by  $O(p \log p)$ . In [2] (published in *Journal of Integer Sequences*) we showed that  $t_p = O(p^{3/4})$ , in particular improving the estimate  $t_p \leq (p + 1)/4$  of Müller and Reinhart in 2008. The same order of magnitude  $O(p^{3/4})$  is also derived for the so-called *anti-elite primes* which are introduced in [2]. This paper generalizes some of our previous paper [4] published in *Journal of Number Theory*.

## 2.7. Šindel sequences

In [10] we found that there is a remarkable relationship between the triangular numbers  $T_k = 1 + 2 + \dots + k$  and the bellworks of the astronomical clock (horologe) of Prague.

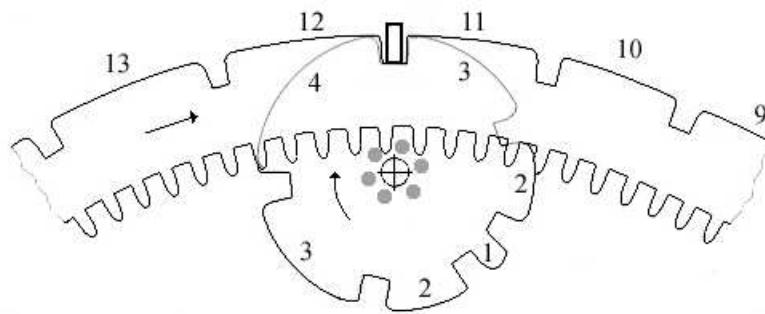


Figure 4: The number of bell strokes is denoted by the numbers  $\dots, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, \dots$  along the large gear. The small gear placed behind it is divided by slots into segments of arc lengths 1, 2, 3, 4, 3, 2.

When the small gear of the bellworks revolves (see Figure 4) it generates by means of its slots a periodic sequence whose particular sums correspond to the number of strokes of the bell at each hour:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \underbrace{3 & 2}_{5} & \underbrace{1 & 2 & 3}_{6} & \underbrace{4 & 3}_{7} \\
\hline
\underbrace{2 & 1 & 2 & 3}_{8} & \underbrace{4 & 3 & 2}_{9} & \underbrace{1 & 2 & 3 & 4}_{10} & \underbrace{3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3}_{11} & \underbrace{4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 2}_{12} \\
\hline
\underbrace{3 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1}_{13} & \underbrace{2 & 3 & 4 & 3 & 2}_{14} & \underbrace{1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 3 & 2}_{15} \dots
\end{array} \tag{4}$$

The mathematical model of the astronomical clock of Prague was probably invented by Jan Šindel around 1410. In honor of this great achievement we introduced in [10] a new term, the *Šindel sequence*  $\{a_i\} \subset \mathbb{N}$  of natural numbers as such a periodic sequence with period  $p$  that satisfies the following condition: for any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$T_k = a_1 + \dots + a_n. \tag{5}$$

This condition guarantees a functioning of the bellworks, which is controlled by the horologe (for details see [10]). In [10] we made a systematic investigation of Šindel sequences.

In the next theorem from [10] we show that we could continue in (4) indefinitely in this way. Let

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^p a_i.$$

**Theorem 9.** *A periodic sequence  $\{a_i\}$  for  $s$  odd is a Šindel sequence if (5) holds for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, (s-1)/2$ .*

In [10] we, moreover, give a necessary and sufficient condition for a periodic sequence to be a Šindel sequence. We also present an algorithm which produces the so-called primitive Šindel sequence, which is uniquely determined for a given  $s = a_1 + \dots + a_p$ .

### 3. Our monographs

In 2001, Michal, Florian Luca, and I published the book *17 Lectures on Fermat numbers* [3] in honor of the 400th anniversary of Fermat's birth. The book had 3 authors, took 5 years to prepare, consisted of 17 lectures, had 257 pages, and hopefully will make USD 65 537 in royalties (compare with (3)). This book contains a lot of known results, but some theorems are also ours. Its second edition appeared in 2011.

In 2009, Michal, Alena Šolcová, and I published another book *Kouzlo čísel* [26] (Magic of numbers). This book won the Josef Hlávka Prize for the best scientific book



published in the Czech Republic in 2009 in the category of the science of inanimate nature. The second edition of this book appeared in 2011.

Finally, let us mention one interesting result from [26]. Magic squares consisting solely of primes have been of considerable interest. Based on the Green-Tao theorem, which states that there are arithmetic progressions of arbitrary length containing only primes, we proved the following statement.

**Theorem 10.** *For any natural number  $n$  there exists a magic square of order  $n$  containing only primes.*

This theorem can be easily generalized to any set that contains arithmetic progressions of arbitrary length.

#### 4. Closing remark

It has been a fruitful twelve years of collaboration with Michal and I look forward to many more years of joint research.

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