Gauss Factorials, Jacobi Primes, and Generalized Fermat Numbers

Karl Dilcher

Number Theory Seminar, September 28, 2018

Joint work with



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Dublin, Ireland

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Thus, with Wilson's Theorem,

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This was apparently first observed by Lagrange (1773).





John Wilson 1741–1793 Joseph-Louis Lagrange 1736–1813 This congruence,

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has the following consequences:

For $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ the RHS is -1, so

$$\operatorname{ord}_{\rho}\left(\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!\right) = 4 \quad \text{for} \quad \rho \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

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What is the sign on the right?

Theorem 1 (Mordell, 1961)

For a prime $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$,

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First mentioned in a book by Venkov (1937, in Russian). Discovered independently by Chowla.

This completely determines the order mod *p* of $\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!$.





Louis J. Mordell 1888–1972 Sarvadaman Chowla 1907–1995

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Theorem 2 (The Gauss-Wilson Theorem)

For any $n \ge 2$,

$$(n-1)_n! \equiv \begin{cases} -1 \pmod{n} & \text{for} \quad n = 2, 4, p^{\alpha}, \text{ or } 2p^{\alpha}, \\ 1 \pmod{n} & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}$$

where p is an odd prime and $\alpha \geq 1$.

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in particular their multiplicative orders (mod n), but also, if possible, their values (mod n).

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 - If *n* has **at least 3** different prime factors $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, then $\left(\frac{n-1}{M}\right)_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$;

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 - If *n* has **at least 3** different prime factors $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, then $\left(\frac{n-1}{M}\right)_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$;
 - If *n* has **two** different prime factors $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, then the order of $(\frac{n-1}{M})_n!$ is a divisor of *M*.

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Some further aspects:

 Other partial products of the "full" product (n - 1)_n! have also been studied (JBC & KD, 2013). (Not in this talk).

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Some further aspects:

- Other partial products of the "full" product (n 1)_n! have also been studied (JBC & KD, 2013). (Not in this talk).
- Some meaningful results also when n ≠ 1 (mod M); in this case consider Lⁿ⁻¹/_M J_n!. (Later in this talk).

2. Binomial Coefficient Congruences

First application of Gauss factorials:

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Theorem 3 (Gauss, 1828)

Let p and a be as above. Then

$$\binom{\frac{p-1}{2}}{\frac{p-1}{4}} \equiv 2a \pmod{p}.$$

This can be extended:

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Theorem 4

With p and a as above and $\alpha \ge 2$, we have

$$\frac{\left(\frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{2}\right)_{p}!}{\left(\left(\frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{4}\right)_{p}!\right)^{2}} \equiv 2a-1\cdot\frac{p}{2a}-1\cdot\frac{p^{2}}{8a^{3}}-2\cdot\frac{p^{3}}{(2a)^{5}}-5\cdot\frac{p^{4}}{(2a)^{7}} -14\cdot\frac{p^{5}}{(2a)^{9}}-\ldots-C_{\alpha-2}\frac{p^{\alpha-1}}{(2a)^{2\alpha-1}} \pmod{p^{\alpha}}.$$

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With p and a as above and $\alpha \geq$ 2, we have



 $C_n := \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \in \mathbb{N}$ is the *n*th Catalan number.

Jacobi proved a similar theorem to that of Gauss:

Theorem 5 (Jacobi, 1837)

Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, and write $4p = r^2 + 27t^2$, $r \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, which uniquely determines the integer *r*. Then

$$\binom{\frac{2(p-1)}{3}}{\frac{p-1}{3}} \equiv -r \pmod{p}.$$

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These and others also have "Catalan analogues" (JBC & KD, 2010; Al-Shaghay, 2014; JBC & KD, 2016).





C. F. Gauss 1777–1855

C. G. J. Jacobi 1804–1851

For the second part of this talk, the main objects of study are: For $M \ge 2$ and prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, define

$$\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(\boldsymbol{p}) := \operatorname{ord}_{\boldsymbol{p}^{\alpha}}\left(\left(\frac{\boldsymbol{p}^{\alpha}-1}{M}\right)_{\boldsymbol{p}^{\alpha}}!\right).$$

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Let's look at some examples with M = 4:

α/p	5	13	17	29	37
1	1	12	16	7	18
2	10	156	272	406	333
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- Are there more patterns?
- Do we always have $1, p, p^2, p^3, \dots$?

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- Can the "skipped p" occur elsewhere in the sequence?

Theorem 6

Let $M \ge 2$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{M}$ and $\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p)$ as above. When $p \equiv 1 \pmod{2M}$, then

$$\gamma_{\alpha+1}^{M}(p) = p \gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) \quad or \quad \gamma_{\alpha+1}^{M}(p) = \gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p).$$

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When $p \equiv M + 1 \pmod{2M}$, then

$$\gamma_{\alpha+1}^{M}(p) = \begin{cases} p\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) & \text{or} \quad \gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) & \text{if} \quad \gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ \frac{1}{2}p\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) & \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{2}\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) & \text{if} \quad \gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) \equiv 2 \pmod{4}, \\ 2p\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) & \text{or} \quad 2\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) & \text{if} \quad \gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p) \equiv 1 \pmod{2}. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 6

Let $M \ge 2$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{M}$ and $\gamma_{\alpha}^{M}(p)$ as above. When $p \equiv 1 \pmod{2M}$, then

$$\gamma^{\mathcal{M}}_{\alpha+1}(p) = p \gamma^{\mathcal{M}}_{\alpha}(p) \quad or \quad \gamma^{\mathcal{M}}_{\alpha+1}(p) = \gamma^{\mathcal{M}}_{\alpha}(p).$$

When $p \equiv M + 1 \pmod{2M}$, then

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When the second alternative holds in one of the cases, we call p an α -exceptional prime for M.

How often does this happen?

How often does this happen?

Μ	p	up to
3	13, 181, 2521, 76543, 489061	10 ¹²
4	29789	10 ¹¹
5	71	2 · 10 ⁶
6	13, 181, 2521, 76543, 489061	10 ¹²
10	11	2 · 10 ⁶
18	1 090 891	2 · 10 ⁶
21	211, 15583	2 · 10 ⁶
23	3 0 3 7	2 · 10 ⁶
24	73	2 · 10 ⁶
29	59	2 · 10 ⁶
35	1 471	2 · 10 ⁶
44	617	2 · 10 ⁶
48	97	2 · 10 ⁶

Table 2: 1-exceptional primes *p* for $3 \le M \le 100$.

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However, it is awkward and computationally expensive. Can we do better?

In the cases M = 3, 4 and 6 we can use the theory of Jacobi sums to obtain some strong criteria, in addition to further insight.

Here: Consider M = 3, 6; M = 4 is similar.

But also, as we saw: M = 3, 6 are connected in some special ways.

Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ be a prime.

Known: The representation $p = a^2 + 3b^2$ is unique up to sign, but the signs are crucial here.

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With *a* and *b* as above, we obtain two closely related pairs r, s and u, v which also satisfy sums-of-squares identities:

$$4p = r^2 + 3s^2$$
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$$4p = r^2 + 3s^2$$
, $4p = u^2 + 3v^2$, $r \equiv u \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$

The numbers *u* occur in the following analogue of the binomial coefficient theorems of Gauss and Jacobi:

Theorem 7 (Hudson and Williams, 1984)

Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ be a prime and u as above. Then

$$\binom{\frac{p-1}{3}}{\frac{p-1}{6}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{6}+1} u \pmod{p}.$$

Theorem 7 (Hudson and Williams, 1984)

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This has the following "Catalan extension":

Theorem 8

Let p and u be as above. Then for $\alpha \ge 1$ we have

$$\frac{\left(\frac{p^{\alpha+1}-1}{3}\right)_{p}!}{\left(\left(\frac{p^{\alpha+1}-1}{6}\right)_{p}!\right)^{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{6}+1}$$
$$\times \left(u - \frac{p}{u} - \frac{p^{2}}{u^{3}} - \dots - C_{\alpha-1}\frac{p^{\alpha}}{u^{2\alpha-1}}\right) \pmod{p^{\alpha+1}}.$$





Kenneth S. Williams b. 1940

Eugène Catalan 1814–1894 The next result will be the basis for all that follows.

Theorem 9

Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ and r, u as above. Then for all $\alpha \ge 1$ we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} r - \frac{p}{r} - \dots - \frac{C_{\alpha-1}p^{\alpha}}{r^{2\alpha-1}} \end{pmatrix}^{3} \\ \equiv \left(u - \frac{p}{u} - \dots - \frac{C_{\alpha-1}p^{\alpha}}{u^{2\alpha-1}} \right)^{3} \pmod{p^{\alpha+1}},$$

where C_n is the nth Catalan number.
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Main ingredients in proof:

- An identity between the third powers of certain Jacobi sums;
- congruences (mod p^{α+1}) between these Jacobi sums and both sides in Theorem 9;
- quotients of certain Gauss factorials are involved as intermediate steps.

For any $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ and $\alpha \ge 1$ we have $\left(\left(\frac{p^{\alpha} - 1}{3} \right)_{p} ! \right)^{24} \equiv \left(\left(\frac{p^{\alpha} - 1}{6} \right)_{p} ! \right)^{12} \pmod{p^{\alpha}}.$

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This, in turn, implies (after some work):

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Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ and $\alpha \ge 1$. Then p is α -exceptional for M = 3 iff it's α -exceptional for M = 6.

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This confirms our observation from Table 1.

For any $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ and $\alpha \ge 1$ we have $\left(\left(\frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{3} \right)_{p} ! \right)^{24} \equiv \left(\left(\frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{6} \right)_{p} ! \right)^{12} \pmod{p^{\alpha}}.$

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This confirms our observation from Table 1.

Another consequence is the desired exceptionality criterion:

Theorem 12

Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ and u as before. Then for a fixed $\alpha \ge 1$, p is α -exceptional for M = 3 (and M = 6) iff

$$\left(u - \frac{p}{u} - \frac{p^2}{u^3} - 2\frac{p^3}{u^5} - \dots - C_{\alpha-1}\frac{p^{\alpha}}{u^{2\alpha-1}}\right)^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{\alpha+1}},$$

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Theorem 12

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where C_n is the nth Catalan number.

Special case:

Corollary 13

Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ and u as before. Then p is 1-exceptional for $M = 3 \pmod{M = 6}$ iff

$$\left(u-\frac{p}{u}\right)^{p-1}\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}.$$

It turns out: 1-exceptionality is the most important case:

Theorem 14

Let $M \ge 2$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, and $\alpha \ge 2$. If p is α -exceptional, then it's also $(\alpha - 1)$ -exceptional (for M). It turns out: 1-exceptionality is the most important case:

Theorem 14 Let $M \ge 2$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, and $\alpha \ge 2$. If p is α -exceptional, then it's also $(\alpha - 1)$ -exceptional (for M).

This means that only 1-exceptional primes need to be checked for 2-exceptionality.

Results:

• M = 3, 6: Searched up to 10^{12} . No new 1-exceptional primes found. Results:

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- *M* = 4: A similar new criterion. Searched up to 10¹¹. No new 1-exceptional primes found.

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- *M* = 4: A similar new criterion.
 Searched up to 10¹¹.
 No new 1-exceptional primes found.
- All M ≤ 100:

None of the known 1-exceptional primes are 2-exceptional.

How are we doing with time?



Salvador Dalí, The Persistence of Memory, 1931.

Karl Dilcher Gauss factorials

This is the third part of this talk.

Now: given a fixed $M \ge 1$, we consider the question: which integers *n* satisfy

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- M = 2: Completely determined (JBC & KD, 2008).

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- M = 3, 4, 6: Most interesting cases.
 - -M = 4: Previously studied (JBC & KD, 2014).
 - -M = 3, 6: Similar to each other, but different from M = 4; topic of the remainder of this talk.

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 (1)

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- If *n* has **at least 3** different prime factors $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, then (1) always holds for $n \equiv 1 \pmod{M}$.

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- If *n* has **at least 3** different prime factors $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, then (1) always holds for $n \equiv 1 \pmod{M}$.
- If *n* has **two** different prime factors $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$, then the order of $(\frac{n-1}{M})_n! \pmod{n}$ is a divisor of *M*. In certain cases, solutions of (1) can be characterized.
- If *n* has **one** prime factor $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$: Most interesting case.
- If *n* has **no** prime factor $\equiv 1 \pmod{M}$: Very little can be said.

Setting the stage: We'll consider integers of the form

$$n = p^{\alpha} w$$
, with $w = q_1^{\beta_1} \dots q_s^{\beta_s}$

 $(s \ge 0, \alpha, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_s \in \mathbb{N})$, where

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Here: study integers of this type for which

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n},\tag{2}$$

or

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{6} \right\rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n}. \tag{3}$$

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:

$$\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n}, \qquad \lfloor \frac{n-1}{6} \rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n}:$$

n	factored	n	factored
26	2 · 13	1105	5 · 13 · 17
244	2 ² ⋅ 61	14365	5 · 13 ² · 17
305	5 · 61	34765	5 · 17 · 409
338	2 · 13²	303535	5 · 17 · 3571
9755	5 · 1951	309485	5 · 11 · 17 · 331
18205	5 · 11 · 331	353365	5 · 29 · 2437
33076	2 ² · 8269	508255	5 · 11 · 9241
48775	5 ² · 1951	510605	5 · 102121
60707	17 · 3571	527945	5 · 11 · 29 · 331

In bold: $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

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How can we characterize these solutions?

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How can we characterize these solutions? Let's consider some specific $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

Example. Let p = 7, the smallest admissible p in

$$n=p^{\alpha}q_1^{\beta_1}\ldots q_s^{\beta_s}.$$

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Combination of theory and computation shows:

• For $s = 0, 1, \dots, 6$: no solutions.
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(a) Solutions of $\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$:

Combination of theory and computation shows:

• For $s = 0, 1, \ldots, 6$: no solutions.

• For s = 7: exactly 27 solutions, the smallest and largest of which are

 $n = 7 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 169553 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 531968664833$,

$$n = \mathbf{7} \cdot 2^9 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 47072139617$$
$$\cdot 531968664833,$$

with 30 and 36 decimal digits, respectively.

$$n=p^{lpha}q_1^{eta_1}\ldots q_s^{eta_s}.$$

$$n=p^{\alpha}q_1^{\beta_1}\ldots q_s^{\beta_s}.$$

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- For s = 6: single 40-digit solution

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Questions:

(i) What determines presence/absence of solutions?

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Questions:

- (i) What determines presence/absence of solutions?
- (ii) What are the factors q_i when solutions exist?
- (iii) For what *p* can solutions exist?



"You know. most people's favourite number is 7, but mine is 627399010364832991004825304810385572229571004927401015482947738885917389."

The solutions, again: For M = 3:

. . .

 $n = 7 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 169553 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 531968664833$,

 $n = 7 \cdot 2^9 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 47072139617 \cdot 531968664833.$ For M = 6:

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Note:

The solutions, again: For M = 3: $n = 7 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 169553 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 531968664833$, ... $n = 7 \cdot 2^9 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 47072139617 \cdot 531968664833$. For M = 6: $n = 7 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 169553 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 47072139617 \cdot 531968664833$.

Note:

Also: $7^{2^2} + 1$ has no prime factor $q \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$;

The solutions, again: For M = 3: $n = 7 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 169553 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 531968664833$, ... $n = 7 \cdot 2^9 \cdot 5 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 47072139617 \cdot 531968664833$. For M = 6: $n = 7 \cdot 17 \cdot 353 \cdot 169553 \cdot 7699649 \cdot 47072139617 \cdot 531968664833$.

Note:

Also: $7^{2^2} + 1$ has no prime factor $q \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$; 2^9 is the exact power of 2 that divides

$$(7-1)(7+1)(7^{2^1}+1)\dots(7^{2^5}+1).$$

We can find necessary and sufficient conditions for the solutions of

$$\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \rfloor_n !^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$
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- denominator M = 3;
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Main approach: Find criteria for

$$\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \rfloor_n !^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{w}$$
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then combine the two using the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

8. Generalized Fermat numbers

Congruences modulo w:

We define the partial totient function

$$\varphi(\boldsymbol{M}, \boldsymbol{w}) = \#\{\tau \mid 1 \leq \tau \leq \frac{w-1}{M}, \gcd(\tau, \boldsymbol{w}) = 1\}.$$

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Lemma 15

With n as before, we have

$$\left(\frac{n-1}{3}\right)_n! \equiv \frac{1}{p^{\varphi(3,w)}} \pmod{w}, \qquad \varphi(3,w) = \frac{1}{3}(\varphi(w) + 2^{s-1}).$$

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Proof is very technical. Basic idea: Write

$$\frac{n-1}{3} = \frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{3}w + \frac{w-1}{3} \qquad (n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}).$$

(slightly different when $n \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$).

$$\frac{n-1}{3}=\frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{3}W+\frac{W-1}{3}.$$

 $\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \rfloor_n!$ is a product of

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• Similar result also for arbitrary denominators $M \ge 2$.



Now we can see how generalized Fermat numbers enter:

Raise both sides of Lemma to 3rd power.

Then

$$\left(\frac{n-1}{3}\right)_{n}!^{3} \equiv p^{-\varphi(w)-2^{s-1}} \equiv p^{-2^{s-1}} \pmod{w}, \qquad \delta = \pm 1.$$

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This factors:

$$p^{2^{s-1}} - 1 = (p-1)(p+1)(p^2+1)\dots(p^{2^{s-2}}+1).$$

We have therefore shown:

Theorem 16

Let *n* be as before, with $s \ge 1$. Then

$$\left(\frac{n-1}{3}\right)_n!^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{w}$$

iff every $q_i^{\beta_i}$ is a divisor of $p^{2^{s-1}} - 1$; i.e., iff every

$$q_{j}^{\beta_{i}} \text{ divides} egin{cases} p-1, & \text{for } s=1, \ (p-1)(p+1)(p^{2}+1)\dots(p^{2^{s-2}}+1), & \text{for } s\geq 2. \end{cases}$$

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Note: This is in fact true for

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{w}.$$

9. Jacobi primes

Congruences modulo p^{α} :

The following is the second crucial ingredient.

Lemma 17
Let
$$n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$
 be as before. Then for $s \ge 2$,
 $\left(\frac{n-1}{3}\right)_n! \equiv (q_1 \dots q_s)^{(-1)^{s-1} \frac{\varphi(p^{\alpha})}{3}} \left(\left(\frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{3}\right)_p!\right)^{2^s} \pmod{p^{\alpha}}.$

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Once again:

- Lemma holds in greater generality;
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Once again:

- Lemma holds in greater generality;
- proof is very technical.

To apply this lemma, first observe: By cubing both sides, the $(q_1 \dots q_s)$ term becomes 1 (mod p^{α}). Therefore the main conditions is

$$\left(\frac{p^{\alpha}-1}{3}\right)_{p}!^{3\cdot 2^{s}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{\alpha}}.$$
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Using the notation

$$\gamma_{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{p}) := \operatorname{ord}_{\boldsymbol{p}^{\alpha}}((\frac{\boldsymbol{p}^{\alpha}-1}{3})_{\boldsymbol{p}}!) \qquad \boldsymbol{p} \equiv 1 \pmod{3},$$

for the multiplicative order modulo p^{α} ,

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 (5)

We saw earlier:

Sequence $\gamma_1(p), \gamma_2(p), \ldots$ behaves in a very specific way; this means that (5) implies

$$\gamma_1(p) = 2^\ell$$
 or $3 \cdot 2^\ell$.

This gives rise to the following definition:

Definition 18

A prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ is called a *Jacobi prime of level* ℓ if

$$\operatorname{ord}_{\rho}\left(\frac{p-1}{3}!\right) = 2^{\ell} \quad \operatorname{or} \quad \operatorname{ord}_{\rho}\left(\frac{p-1}{3}!\right) = 3 \cdot 2^{\ell}.$$

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Examples: We consider the first three primes $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ and compute:

$$p = 7: \quad \frac{p-1}{3}! = 2, \quad \text{ord}_{p}\left(\frac{p-1}{3}!\right) = 3 = 3 \cdot 2^{0};$$

$$p = 13: \quad \frac{p-1}{3}! = 24, \quad \text{ord}_{p}\left(\frac{p-1}{3}!\right) = 12 = 3 \cdot 2^{2};$$

$$p = 19: \quad \frac{p-1}{3}! = 720, \quad \text{ord}_{p}\left(\frac{p-1}{3}!\right) = 9.$$

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Thus, 7 and 13 are Jacobi primes of levels 0, resp. 2; 19 is not a Jacobi prime.

Why "Jacobi prime"? Recall:

Theorem 19 (Jacobi, 1837)

Let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, and write $4p = r^2 + 27t^2$, $r \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, which uniquely determines the integer *r*. Then

$$\binom{\frac{2(p-1)}{3}}{\frac{p-1}{3}} \equiv -r \pmod{p}.$$

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An easy consequence:

Corollary 20

Let p and r be as above. Then

$$\left(\frac{p-1}{3}\right)!^3 \equiv \frac{1}{r} \pmod{p}.$$
 (6)

This leads to equivalent definition:

Corollary 21

A prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ is a Jacobi prime of level ℓ iff

$$\operatorname{ord}_{\rho}(r) = 2^{\ell}.$$

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A prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ is a Jacobi prime of level ℓ iff

 $\operatorname{ord}_{p}(r) = 2^{\ell}.$

Examples:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \rho=7: & 4\rho=1^2+27\cdot 1^2, & {\rm ord}_\rho(1)=2^0; \\ \rho=13: & 4\rho=(-5)^2+27\cdot 1^2, & {\rm ord}_\rho(-5)=2^2; \\ \rho=19: & 4\rho=7^2+27\cdot 1^2, & {\rm ord}_\rho(7)=3. \end{array}$$

Consistent with previous examples.

Some further properties:

Theorem 22

(a) A prime p is a level-0 Jacobi prime if and only if

$$p=27X^2+27X+7\qquad (X\in\mathbb{Z}).$$

(b) There is no level-1 Jacobi prime.
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Remarks: (1) As expected, level-0 Jacobi primes are quite abundant; the first few (up to 1000) are 7, 61, 331 and 547; a total of 215105 up to 10^{14} .

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(2) On the other hand, Jacobi primes of levels $\ell \geq 3$ are very rare, with only 44 up to 10^{14} . The first few are 13, 97, 193, 409, 769. Using a slightly more general setting again, with $n \equiv w \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{3}$, we have

Theorem 23

Let n be as above, with $\alpha \ge 1$ and $s \ge 2$. Then a necessary and sufficient condition for

$$\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \rfloor_n !^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

to hold is that all of the following be satisfied:

(a) p is $(\alpha - 1)$ -exceptional if $\alpha > 1$; (b) p is a level- ℓ Jacobi prime for some $0 \le \ell \le s$; (c) $q_i^{\beta_i} \mid (p-1)(p+1)(p^2+1)\dots(p^{2^{s-2}}+1)$ for all $1 \le i \le s$. Using a slightly more general setting again, with $n \equiv w \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{3}$, we have

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Relevant here:

$$p = 13$$
 is **the only** Jacobi prime $< 10^{12}$ that is also 1-exceptional.

Let's return to our original table:

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$$\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \qquad \lfloor \frac{n-1}{6} \rfloor_n! \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

n	factored	n	factored
26	2 · 13	1105	5 · 13 · 17
244	2 ² · 61	14365	5 · 13 ² · 17
305	5 · 61	34765	5 · 17 · 409
338	2 · 13 ²	303535	5 · 17 · 3571
9755	5 · 1951	309485	5 · 11 · 17 · 331
18205	5 · 11 · 331	353365	5 · 29 · 2437
33076	2 ² · 8269	508255	5 · 11 · 9241
48775	5 ² · 1951	510605	5 · 102121
60707	17 · 3571	527945	5 · 11 · 29 · 331

In bold: $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

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We have seen: Only p = 13 can possibly appear to a higher power, for $p < 10^{12}$.

Thank you



Karl Dilcher Gauss factorials