

- (b) If  $n$  is a pseudoprime to the bases  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  (where  $\text{g.c.d.}(b_1, n) = \text{g.c.d.}(b_2, n) = 1$ ), then  $n$  is a pseudoprime to the base  $b_1 b_2$  and also to the base  $b_1 b_2^{-1}$  (where  $b_2^{-1}$  is an integer which is inverse to  $b_2$  modulo  $n$ ).
- (c) If  $n$  fails the test (1) for a single base  $b \in (\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z})^*$ , then  $n$  fails (1) for at least half of the possible bases  $b \in (\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z})^*$ .

**Proof.** Parts (a) and (b) are very easy, and will be left to the reader. To prove (c), let  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_s\}$  be the set of all bases for which  $n$  is a pseudoprime, i.e., the set of all integers  $0 < b_i < n$  for which the congruence (1) holds. Let  $b$  be a fixed base for which  $n$  is not a pseudoprime. If  $n$  were a pseudoprime for any of the bases  $bb_i$ , then, by part (b), it would be a pseudoprime for the base  $b \equiv (bb_i)b_i^{-1} \pmod{n}$ , which is not the case. Thus, for the  $s$  distinct residues  $\{bb_1, bb_2, \dots, bb_s\}$  the integer  $n$  fails the test (1). Hence, there are at least as many bases in  $(\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z})^*$  for which  $n$  fails to be a pseudoprime as there are bases for which (1) holds. This completes the proof.

Thus, unless  $n$  happens to pass the test (1) for *all* possible  $b$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}(b, n) = 1$ , we have at least a 50% chance that  $n$  will fail (1) for a randomly chosen  $b$ . That is, suppose we want to know if a large odd integer  $n$  is prime. We might choose a random  $b$  in the range  $0 < b < n$ . We first find  $d = \text{g.c.d.}(b, n)$  using the Euclidean algorithm. If  $d > 1$ , we know that  $n$  is not prime, and in fact we have found a nontrivial factor  $d|n$ . If  $d = 1$ , then we raise  $b$  to the  $(n-1)$ -st power (using the repeated squaring method of modular exponentiation, see §I.3). If (1) fails, we know that  $n$  is composite. If (1) holds, we have some evidence that perhaps  $n$  is prime. We then try another  $b$  and go through the same process. If (1) fails for any  $b$ , then we can stop, secure in the knowledge that  $n$  is composite. Suppose that we try  $k$  different  $b$ 's and find that  $n$  is a pseudoprime for all of the  $k$  bases. By Proposition V.1.1, the chance that  $n$  is still composite despite passing the  $k$  tests is at most 1 out of  $2^k$ , unless  $n$  happens to have the very special property that (1) holds for every single  $b \in (\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z})^*$ . If  $k$  is large, we can be sure "with a high probability" that  $n$  is prime (unless  $n$  has the property of being a pseudoprime for all bases). This method of finding prime numbers is called a *probabilistic* method. It differs from a *deterministic* method: the word "deterministic" means that the method will either reveal  $n$  to be composite or else determine with 100% certainty that  $n$  is prime.

Can it ever happen for a composite  $n$  that (1) holds for every  $b$ ? In that case our probabilistic method fails to reveal the fact that  $n$  is composite (unless we are lucky and hit upon a  $b$  with  $\text{g.c.d.}(b, n) > 1$ ). The answer is yes, and such a number is called a *Carmichael number*.

**Definition.** A *Carmichael number* is a composite integer  $n$  such that (1) holds for every  $b \in (\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z})^*$ .

**Proposition V.1.2.** Let  $n$  be an odd composite integer.

- (a) If  $n$  is divisible by a perfect square  $> 1$ , then  $n$  is not a Carmichael number.