

# Some remarks on Kurepa's left factorial

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## Abstract

We establish a connection between the subfactorial function  $S(n)$  and the left factorial function of Kurepa  $K(n)$ . Some elementary properties and congruences of both functions are described. Finally, we give a calculated distribution of primes below 10000 of  $K(n)$ .

**Keywords:** Left factorial function, subfactorial function, derangements

**Mathematics Subject Classification 2000:** 11B65

## 1 Introduction

The subfactorial function is defined by

$$S(n) = n! \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

which gives the number of permutations of  $n$  elements without any fixpoints, also called derangements of  $n$  elements, see [6, p. 195]. This was already proven by P. R. de Montmort [2] in 1713. L. Euler [3] independently gave a proof in 1753, see also [4]. This function has the properties ( $e \approx 2.71828$  is Euler's number)

$$S(n) = nS(n-1) + (-1)^n, \quad (1.1)$$

$$S(n) = (n-1)(S(n-1) + S(n-2)), \quad (1.2)$$

$$S(n) = \left\lfloor \frac{n!}{e} \right\rfloor + \delta_n \quad \text{with} \quad \delta_n = \begin{cases} 0, & 2 \nmid n \\ 1, & 2 \mid n \end{cases}. \quad (1.3)$$

Kurepa's left factorial function is defined by

$$K(0) = 0, \quad K(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k!, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

In 1971 Đ. Kurepa [8] introduced the left factorial function which is denoted by  $!n = K(n)$ . Sometimes the subfactorial function is also denoted by  $!n$ , so we do not use this notation to avoid confusion. For more details of the following conjecture see a overview of A. Ivić and Ž. Mijajlović [7].

**Conjecture 1.1 (Kurepa's left factorial hypothesis)**

The following equivalent statements hold

$$\begin{aligned} (K(n), n!) &= 2, & n &\geq 2, \\ K(n) &\not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}, & n &> 2, \\ K(p) &\not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}, & p &\text{ odd prime.} \end{aligned} \tag{KH}$$

Recently, D. Barsky and B. Benzaghou [1] have given a proof of this hypothesis. Since  $K(n)$  is also related to Bell numbers  $\mathcal{B}_n$  via

$$K(p) \equiv \mathcal{B}_{p-1} - 1 \pmod{p}$$

for any prime  $p$ , they actually proved that  $\mathcal{B}_{p-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  is always valid for any odd prime  $p$ .

Gessel [5, Sect. 7/10] gives some recursive identities of  $S(n)$ ,  $\mathcal{B}_n$ , and others with umbral calculus. Define symbolically  $S^n = S(n)$  and  $\mathcal{B}^n = \mathcal{B}_n$  with  $S^0 = \mathcal{B}^0 = 1$ , then one may write

$$\mathcal{B}^{n+1} = (\mathcal{B} + 1)^n \quad \text{and} \quad n! = (S + 1)^n, \quad n \geq 0. \tag{1.4}$$

Interestingly, both sequences have the same property as follows.

**Lemma 1.2** *Let  $p$  be a prime. Then*

$$\sum_{k=0}^p (-1)^k \mathcal{B}_k \equiv \sum_{k=0}^p (-1)^k S(k) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

with

$$\mathcal{B}_p \equiv 2 \pmod{p} \quad \text{and} \quad S(p) \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

PROOF. By (1.1) and Wilson's theorem, we have  $S(p) \equiv -1 \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$ . Hence, we can rewrite (1.4) by  $\mathcal{B}^p \equiv (\mathcal{B} + 1)^{p-1}$  and  $S^p \equiv (S + 1)^{p-1} \pmod{p}$ . Since  $\binom{p-1}{k} \equiv (-1)^k \pmod{p}$  for  $0 \leq k < p$ , this provides the proposed congruence. Now, we use a congruence of Touchard for Bell numbers, see [5, Sect. 10, Theorem 10.1]. Then

$$\mathcal{B}_{n+p} - \mathcal{B}_{n+1} - \mathcal{B}_n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \quad n \geq 0.$$

With  $n = 0$  and  $\mathcal{B}_0 = \mathcal{B}_1 = 1$ , we obtain  $\mathcal{B}_p \equiv 2 \pmod{p}$ . □

First values of  $K(n)$ ,  $S(n)$ , and  $\mathcal{B}_n$  are given in the following table.

$n$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$K(n)$	0	1	2	4	10	34	154	874	5914	46234	409114
$S(n)$	1	0	1	2	9	44	265	1854	14833	133496	1334961
$\mathcal{B}_n$	1	1	2	5	15	52	203	877	4140	21147	115975

## 2 Congruences between $K(n)$ and $S(n)$

**Lemma 2.1** *Let  $n$  be a positive integer, then*

$$K(n) \equiv (-1)^{n-1} S(n-1) \pmod{n}.$$

PROOF. Case  $n = 1$  is trivial. Let  $n \geq 2$ . Then we have

$$(-1)^{n-1} S(n-1) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{n-1}{k} (n-1-k)! = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^k \binom{n-1}{k} k!$$

by turning the summation. Since it is valid for  $0 \leq k < n$

$$(-1)^k \binom{n-1}{k} k! = (-1)^k (n-1) \cdots (n-k) \equiv k! \pmod{n},$$

this provides, term by term, the congruence claimed above.  $\square$

By Lemma 2.1 and (1.3), we easily obtain a generalization, however, which is only noted for primes elsewhere.

**Corollary 2.2** *Let  $n$  be a positive integer, then*

$$K(n) \equiv (-1)^{n-1} \left\lfloor \frac{(n-1)!}{e} \right\rfloor + \delta_{n-1} \pmod{n}.$$

Hence, (KH) is equivalent to

$$\left\lfloor \frac{(n-1)!}{e} \right\rfloor \not\equiv -\delta_{n-1} \pmod{n}, \quad n > 2,$$

while by recursive property (1.1)

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n!}{e} \right\rfloor \equiv -\delta_{n-1} \pmod{n}, \quad n \geq 1$$

is always valid.

**Corollary 2.3** *Let  $n$  be a positive integer, then (KH) is equivalent to*

$$\left\lfloor \frac{n!}{e} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{(n-1)!}{e} \right\rfloor \equiv 0 \pmod{n} \iff n = 1, 2.$$

**Lemma 2.4** *Let  $p$  be a prime, then*

$$K(p) - K(p-l) \equiv -\frac{S(l-1)}{(l-1)!} \pmod{p}, \quad l = 1, \dots, p.$$

PROOF. Let  $l \in \{1, \dots, p\}$ . We then have

$$K(p) - K(p-l) = \sum_{k=p-l}^{p-1} k! = \sum_{k=1}^l (p-k)! \equiv \sum_{k=1}^l \frac{(-1)^k}{(k-1)!} = -\frac{S(l-1)}{(l-1)!} \pmod{p},$$

since

$$(p-k)! \equiv \frac{(-1)^k}{(k-1)!} \pmod{p} \tag{2.1}$$

follows by Wilson's theorem.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.5** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime, then (KH) implies for  $0 \leq l < p$*

$$K(p-1-l) \not\equiv \frac{S(l)}{l!} \pmod{p}$$

respectively

$$l! K(p-1-l) \not\equiv \left\lfloor \frac{l!}{e} \right\rfloor + \delta_l \pmod{p}.$$

Since (KH) is true, we obtain, as an example, the following congruences

$$K(p) \not\equiv 0, \quad K(p-1) \not\equiv 1, \quad K(p-2) \not\equiv 0, \quad K(p-3) \not\equiv \frac{1}{2}, \quad K(p-4) \not\equiv \frac{1}{3} \pmod{p}.$$

### 3 Properties of $K(n)$

To describe some interesting properties of  $K(n)$ , we introduce the following definition which we name after Kurepa.

**Definition 3.1** Let  $p$  be an odd prime. The pair  $(p, n)$  is called a *Kurepa pair* if  $p^r \mid K(n)$  with some integer  $r \geq 1$ . The max. integer  $r$  is called the *order* of  $(p, n)$ . The *index* of  $p$  is defined by

$$i_K(p) = \#\{n : (p, n) \text{ is a Kurepa pair}\}.$$

If  $i_K(p) > 0$ , then  $p$  is called a *Kurepa prime*.

We have, e.g., the Kurepa pairs  $(19, 7)$ ,  $(19, 12)$ , and  $(19, 16)$ . If (KH) would fail at an odd prime  $p$ , then this would imply  $i_K(p) = \infty$ . This is an easy consequence of

$$p \mid K(p), \quad p \mid (p+m)! \quad \text{for } m \geq 0.$$

The case  $p = 2$  is handled separately. One easily sees that  $2 \mid K(n)$  for  $n \geq 2$  and  $K(n) \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$  for  $n \geq 4$ . First values of  $i_K(p)$  are given in the following table.

$p$	3	5	7	11	13	17	19	23	29	31	37	41	43	47	53	59	61
$i_K(p)$	0	1	1	1	0	1	3	1	0	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	1

**Theorem 3.2** *Let  $(p, n)$  be a Kurepa pair. Then  $p > n > 3$  is valid with*

$$K(p) \equiv (-1)^n n! S(p-1-n) \pmod{p}$$

*which implies  $p \nmid S(p-1-n)$ . Furthermore one has  $i_K(p) \leq \lfloor \frac{p-1}{4} \rfloor$ . Consequently, there exist infinitely many Kurepa primes.*

PROOF. For now, let  $p$  be an odd prime. Let  $(p, n)$  be a Kurepa pair. Since  $p \nmid K(p+m)$  for  $m \geq 0$  by validity of (KH) and first values of  $K(\cdot)$  are 0, 1, 2, 4, this yields  $p > n > 3$ . We use Lemma 2.4 with  $n = p - l$ , then we have

$$0 \neq K(p) \equiv K(p) - K(n) \equiv -\frac{S(p-1-n)}{(p-1-n)!} \pmod{p}$$

which provides the result by means of (2.1) and also  $p \nmid S(p-1-n)$ . Now, we have to count possible Kurepa pairs. Corollary 2.5 shows that  $K(p-2) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . If  $p \mid K(n)$  then  $p \nmid K(n+l)$  for  $l = 1, 2, 3$ . This is seen by  $n! \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  and

$$n! + (n+1)! = (n+2)n! \not\equiv 0, \quad n! + (n+1)! + (n+2)! = (n+2)^2 n! \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p},$$

since  $n \neq p-2$ . On the other side, we have  $4 \leq n \leq p-1$ . Then a simple counting argument provides  $i_K(p) \leq \lfloor \frac{p-1}{4} \rfloor$ . Finally,  $K(n) \rightarrow \infty$  for  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $p \mid K(n) \Rightarrow p > n$  for odd primes imply infinitely many Kurepa primes.  $\square$

Now, the remarkable fact of  $K(n)$  is the finiteness of Kurepa pairs for all odd primes. In  $p$ -adic analysis, the series

$$K(\infty) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k!$$

is an example of a convergent series resp.  $K(n)$  is a convergent sequence which lies in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , the ring of  $p$ -adic integers. Then (KH) is equivalent to  $K(\infty)$  is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  for all odd primes  $p$ . The behavior  $(\text{mod } p^r)$  is illustrated by the following theorem. Note that  $l_r$  is related to the so-called Smarandache function for factorials.

**Theorem 3.3** *Let  $p, r$  be positive integers with  $p$  prime. Then the sequence*

$$K(n) \pmod{p^r}, \quad n \geq 0$$

*is constant for  $n \geq l_r p$  with  $r \geq l_r$  and*

$$l_r = \min_l \left\{ l : l + \frac{l - \sigma_p(l)}{p-1} \geq r \right\},$$

*where  $\sigma_p(l)$  gives the sum of digits of  $l$  in base  $p$ .*

PROOF. We have to determine a minimal  $l$  with the property  $\text{ord}_p(lp)! \geq r$ . Counting factors which are divisible by  $p$ , we obtain

$$\text{ord}_p(lp)! = l + \text{ord}_p l! = l + \frac{l - \sigma_p(l)}{p-1}$$

by means of the  $p$ -adic valuation of factorials, see [9, Section 3.1, p. 241].  $\square$

At the end, we give some results of calculated Kurepa pairs. There are  $N = \pi(10000) - 1 = 1228$  odd primes below 10000. Let  $N_r$  be the number of odd primes with index  $i_K(p) = r$  in this range. The following table shows the distribution of the index  $i_K$ .

$r$	0	1	2	3	4	5
$N_r$	459	472	213	58	23	3
$N_r/N$	0.37378	0.38436	0.17345	0.04723	0.01873	0.00244

The calculated Kurepa pairs with index  $i_K(p) = 5$  are as follows.

(2203,277)	(2203,788)	(2203,837)	(2203,1246)	(2203,1927)
(5227,850)	(5227,1752)	(5227,3451)	(5227,4363)	(5227,4716)
(6689,1716)	(6689,2404)	(6689,3641)	(6689,3969)	(6689,6601)

All primes below 10000 appear with a simple power in  $K(n)$ , except  $K(3) = 4$ . On the other side, the occurrence of higher powers  $p^r$  in  $K(n)$  seems to be very rare. M. Zivkovic [10] gives the first example  $54503^2 \mid K(26541)$ . There are two Kurepa pairs  $(54503, 26541)$  and  $(54503, 49783)$ , but only the first of them has order two.

One may ask whether the distribution of Kurepa pairs resp. the index  $i_K$  can be asymptotically determined and even proven. Are there infinitely many non-Kurepa primes  $p$  with  $i_K(p) = 0$ ? It seems that this subject of  $K(n)$  and its distribution of primes will be much simpler to attack as, for example, the more complicated but in a sense similar case of the distribution of irregular primes of Bernoulli numbers.

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