

Now if $x \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, $F_x(n) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for all n , by the definition of $F_x(n)$.

If $x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, from Lemma 5 there exists a number α such that $F_x(\alpha) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, we assume that α is the least such number, and $\alpha > 1$ since $F_x(1) = 1$ for all x . It can be shown inductively that $F_x(n + \alpha) \equiv sF_x(n) \pmod{p}$ for all n , where $s \equiv F_x(\alpha + 1) \pmod{p}$, and $s \not\equiv 0$ since $s \equiv 0$ would imply $F_x(\alpha - 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then if $F_x(r) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, there exists r' such that

$$r' \equiv r \pmod{\alpha}, \quad 0 < r' \leq \alpha, \quad \text{and} \quad F_x(r') \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

By the definition of α , $r' < \alpha$ is absurd, therefore $r' = \alpha$.

Let P be prime and p a prime factor of $F_x(P)$. Then

$$F_x(P) \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad \text{and} \quad x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

since, if $x \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, $F_x(n) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for all n .

Thus $P \equiv 0 \pmod{\alpha}$ and since P is prime, $P = \alpha$. Let p' be either $p, p - 1$, or $p + 1$, such that

$$F_x(p') \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

(from Lemma 3). Then p' is an integral multiple of P and the theorem follows.

I mentioned this result to Dr. P.M. Lee of York University and he has pointed out to me that Lemma 3 can be derived from H. Siebeck's work on recurring series (L.E. Dickson, *History of the Theory of Numbers*, p. 394f). A colleague of his has also discovered a non-elementary proof of the above theorem.

I am myself only an amateur mathematician, so I would ask you to excuse any resulting awkwardnesses in my presentation of this theorem and proof.

Yours faithfully,
Alexander G. Abercrombie

[Continued from Page 146.]

There is room for considerable work regarding possible lengths of periods. For various values of p and q we found periods of lengths: 1, 2, 8, 9, 17, 25, 33, 35, 42, 43, 61, 69.

GENERALIZED PERIODS

For various sequence types, it is possible to arrive at generalized periods. Some examples are the following.

$(p, p - 1)$: $2p - 2, 2p - 3, 2p - 3, 2p - 2, 2p, 2p + 2, 2p + 3, 2p + 2, 2p$, where p is large enough to make all quantities positive.

$(p; p)$: $2p, 2p + 2, 2p, 2p + 1, 2p - 1, 2p, 2p - 1, 2p + 1$, where $p \geq 2$.

$2p - 1, 2p + 1, 2p - 1, 2p + 2, 2p, 2p + 3, 2p, 2p + 2$, where $p \geq 2$, and many others.

$(p + 1, p)$: $2p - 1, 2p, 2p + 2, 2p + 4, 2p + 5, 2p + 4, 2p + 2, 2p, 2p - 1$ for $p \geq 3$. (Period of length 9)

$2p, 2p + 1, 2p + 5, 2p + 5, 2p + 5, 2p + 1, 2p, 2p - 3, 2p - 1, 2p - 1, 2p + 4, 2p + 4, 2p + 7, 2p + 3,$

$2p + 2, 2p - 3, 2p - 2, 2p - 3, 2p + 2, 2p + 3, 2p + 8, 2p + 7, 2p + 4, 2p + 4, 2p - 1, 2p - 1, 2p - 3,$

for $p \geq 24$ (Period of length 26), and many others.

A schematic method was used which made the work of arriving at these results somewhat less laborious.

NON-PERIODIC SEQUENCES

In studying the sequences (3,4), non-periodic sequences of a quasi-periodic type were found. They have the peculiar property that alternate terms form a regular pattern in groups of four, while the intermediate terms between these pattern terms become unbounded. This situation arises in sequences (p, q) for which q is greater than p .

As an example of such a non-periodic sequence in the case (4,7) the sequence beginning with 1,3,4, follows:

1, 3, 4, 37, 59, 124, 25, 17, 2, 6, 3, 27, 22, 93, 20, 34, 3, 13, 3, 35, 13, 99, 14, 58, 4, 31, 3, 58, 9, 148, 12, 121, 4, 72, 3, 129, 8, 312, 11, 279, 4, 179, 3, 317, 8, 751, 10, 663, 4, 466, 3, 819, 8, 1922, 10, 1687, 4, 1183, 3, 2074, 8, 4850, 10, 4249, 4, 2976, 3, 5211, 8, 12170, 10, ...

Note the regular periodicity of 3,8,10,4 with the sets of intermediate terms increasing as the sequence progresses.

The various types of non-periodic sequence for (4,7) are:

[Continued on Page 184.]