

Mersenne Primes

Definition. A *Mersenne prime* is a prime of the form $2^n - 1$.

- Equivalently, . . . of the form $2^p - 1$ where p is a prime.
- Mersenne primes are related to *perfect numbers*. Euler showed that $\sigma(m) = 2m$, where m is even if and only if $m = 2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$ where p and $2^p - 1$ are primes.
- The largest known prime is $2^{77232917} - 1$.

The Lucas-Lehmer Test. *Let p be an odd prime, and define recursively*

$$L_0 = 4 \quad \text{and} \quad L_{n+1} = L_n^2 - 2 \pmod{2^p - 1} \quad \text{for } n \geq 0.$$

Then $2^p - 1$ is a prime if and only if $L_{p-2} = 0$.

$$v_1 = 4, \ v_2 = 14, \dots \quad v_{2^n+1} = v_{2^n}^2 - 2 \quad (n \geq 0) \quad L_n = v_{2^n}$$

$N = 2^p - 1$ is a prime $\iff v_{(N+1)/4}$ is divisible by N

$$u_n = \frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\alpha - \beta} \quad \text{and} \quad v_n = \alpha^n + \beta^n \quad \text{for } n \geq 0,$$

where $\alpha = (P + \sqrt{D})/2$ and $\beta = (P - \sqrt{D})/2$

$$D = P^2 - 4Q$$

$$u_n = \frac{(2 + \sqrt{3})^n - (2 - \sqrt{3})^n}{\sqrt{12}} \quad \text{and} \quad v_n = (2 + \sqrt{3})^n + (2 - \sqrt{3})^n$$

$$v_1 = 4, \ v_2 = 14, \ \dots \quad \quad v_{2^n+1} = v_{2^n}^2 - 2 \quad (n \geq 0)$$

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(\implies):

- $3^{(N-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{N}$ and $2^{(N-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$
- It suffices to prove $v_{(N+1)/2} \equiv -2 \pmod{N}$.
- $2 \pm \sqrt{3} = ((\sqrt{2} \pm \sqrt{6})/2)^2$
- $v_{(N+1)/2} = 2^{(1-N)/2} \sum_{j=0}^{(N+1)/2} \binom{N+1}{2j} 3^j$
- $2^{(N-1)/2} v_{(N+1)/2} \equiv 1 + 3^{(N+1)/2} \equiv -2 \pmod{N}$ ■

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(\Leftarrow): Note that this is the important direction!

- $(2 \pm \sqrt{3})^2 - 1 = \pm \sqrt{12} (2 \pm \sqrt{3})$ (all signs the same)

- $v_n = u_{n+1} - u_{n-1}$ and $u_{m+n} = u_m u_{n+1} - u_{m-1} u_n$

- If $p^e | u_n$ with $e \geq 1$, then

Future Homework

$$u_{kn} \equiv k u_{n+1}^{k-1} u_n \pmod{p^{e+1}} \quad \text{and} \quad u_{kn+1} \equiv u_{n+1}^k \pmod{p^{e+1}}.$$

BEWARE BAD NOTATION

$$p \neq p$$

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- $(2 \pm \sqrt{3})^2 - 1 = \pm \sqrt{12} (2 \pm \sqrt{3})$ (all signs the same)
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- If $p^e | u_n$ with $e \geq 1$, then $p^{e+1} | u_{pn}$.
- \forall primes p , $\exists \varepsilon = \varepsilon_p \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ such that $p | u_{p+\varepsilon}$.

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$$u_0 = 0, \quad u_1 = 1, \quad u_2 = 4, \quad u_3 = 15, \dots \quad (\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_3 = 0)$$

$$u_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor} \binom{n}{2k+1} 2^{n-2k-1} 3^k, \quad v_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n}{2k} 2^{n-2k+1} 3^k$$

$$u_p \equiv 3^{(p-1)/2} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p} \quad \text{and} \quad v_p \equiv 4 \pmod{p}$$

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- \forall primes p , $\exists \varepsilon = \varepsilon_p \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ such that $p | u_{p+\varepsilon}$.

$$u_p \equiv 3^{(p-1)/2} \equiv \textcolor{red}{\pm 1} \pmod{p} \quad \text{and} \quad v_p \equiv 4 \pmod{p}$$

$$u_{p-1} \equiv 4u_p - u_{p+1} \equiv 4u_p - v_p - u_{p-1} \equiv -u_{p-1} \pmod{p}$$

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$$u_{p+1} \equiv 4u_p - u_{p-1} \equiv 4u_p + v_p - u_{p+1} \equiv -u_{p+1} \pmod{p}$$

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- $v_n = u_{n+1} - u_{n-1}$ and $u_{m+n} = u_m u_{n+1} - u_{m-1} u_n$
- If $p^e | u_n$ with $e \geq 1$, then $p^{e+1} | u_{pn}$.
- \forall primes p , $\exists \varepsilon = \varepsilon_p \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ such that $p | u_{p+\varepsilon}$.
- $\gcd(u_n, u_{n+1}) = 1$ and $\gcd(u_n, v_n) \leq 2$

$$u_0 = 0, \quad u_1 = 1, \quad u_{n+1} = P u_n - Q u_{n-1} = 4u_n - u_{n-1}$$

$$v_0 = 2, \quad v_1 = P = 4, \quad v_{n+1} = 4v_n - v_{n-1}$$

$$Du_n = 2v_{n+1} - Pv_n \implies 6u_n = v_{n+1} - 2v_n$$

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- For $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if $\alpha = \alpha(m)$ is minimal such that $u_\alpha \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$, then $u_n \equiv 0 \pmod{m} \iff \alpha | n$.

If $p^e | u_n$ with $e \geq 1$, then

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BEWARE WE'RE BACK TO p BEING p.

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- $u_{2n} = u_n v_n \implies u_{2^{p-1}} \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \implies \alpha(N) = 2^{p-1}$

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Write $N = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$ with p_j distinct primes and $e_j \geq 1$. Set $\epsilon_j = \epsilon_{p_j}$ and $k = \text{lcm}\{p_j^{e_j-1}(p_j + \epsilon_j) : j = 1, \dots, r\}$. Then $u_k \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$. Thus, $\alpha(2^p - 1) = 2^{p-1}$ divides k . Hence, 2^{p-1} divides $p_j^{e_j-1}(p_j + \epsilon_j)$ for some j . For such j , $p_j \geq 2^{p-1} - 1$. Then $3p_j > 2^p - 1$, implying N is prime. ■

Other Primality Tests

Theorem (Selfridge-Weinberger). *Assume that the Extended Riemann Hypothesis holds. Let n be an odd integer > 1 . A necessary and sufficient condition for n to be prime is that for all positive integers $a < \min\{70(\log n)^2, n\}$, we have $a^{(n-1)/2} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$ with at least one occurrence of -1 .*

Note: Primes pass this test but 1729 does not.

Theorem (Lucas). *Let n be a positive integer. If there is an integer a such that $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ and for all primes p dividing $n - 1$ we have $a^{(n-1)/p} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, then n is prime.*

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Revised Theorem. *Let n be a positive integer. Suppose that for each prime p dividing $n - 1$, there is an $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ and $a^{(n-1)/p} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Then n is prime.*

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This test is good if and only if one can factor $n - 1$.

Idea: If $p^e \|(n - 1)$, then $p^e | \text{ord}_n a \implies p^e | \phi(n) \implies n$ prime.