## ON TESTING MERSENNE NUMBERS

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### 1. Introduction

**Definition 1.1.** A Mersenne number is a number of the form  $2^n - 1$ , where n is a positive number. We write the *n*-th Mersenne number as  $M_n$ .

Definition 1.2. A *Mersenne prime* is a prime Mersenne number.

For example, the first four Mersenne primes are 3, 7, 31, and 127. These are  $M_2, M_3, M_5$ , and  $M_7$ . You might notice these are the first four primes. That isn't exactly a coincidence, because if n is composite, then there is a simple factorization of  $M_n$ . Suppose  $n = ab$ , where  $a, b > 0$ . Then

$$
2^{n} - 1 = (2^{a} - 1)(2^{a(b-1)} + 2^{a(b-2)} + \cdots + 2^{a} + 1).
$$

So we will only concern ourselves with the numbers  $M_p$ , where p is prime. (Note that p being prime is not enough, since (for example)  $2^{11} - 1 = 2047 = 23 \cdot 89$  is composite.)

The top five largest known primes are all Mersenne primes. In fact, the largest known non-Mersenne prime has 11981518 digits - less than half as many as the largest known prime,  $2^{82589933} - 1$ , which has 24862048 digits. This is because there is a very fast primality test for Mersenne numbers, called the Lucas-Lehmer test.

#### 2. The Lucas-Lehmer Test

**Theorem 2.1** (Lucas-Lehmer test). Let  $s_0 = 4$ . For  $n > 0$ , let  $s_n = s_{n-1}^2 - 2$ . Then  $M_p$  is prime if and only if  $M_p \mid s_{p-2}$ .

*Proof.* First, we prove a closed form for  $s_i$ . Let  $\omega = 2 + \sqrt{3}$  and  $\overline{\omega} = 2 - \sqrt{3}$ √  $\overline{3}$ , and note that *Proof.* First, we prove a closed form for  $s_i$ . Let  $\omega = 2 + \sqrt{3}$  and  $\omega = 2 - \sqrt{3}$ , and note that  $\omega \overline{\omega} = 1$ . We claim that  $s_i = w^{2^i} + w^{2^i}$ . First, notice that  $\omega^{2^0} + \overline{\omega}^{2^0} = (2 + \sqrt{3}) + (2 - \sqrt{3}) =$  $4 = s_0$  as desired. Next, we check that this claimed form satisfies the recurrence relation for si . Indeed,

$$
(\omega^{2^{n-1}} + \overline{\omega}^{2^{n-1}})^2 - 2 = \omega^{2^n} + \overline{\omega}^{2^n} + 2(\omega \overline{\omega})^{2^{n-1}} - 2 = \omega^{2^n} + \overline{\omega}^{2^n}
$$

as desired.

Next, we prove the "if" direction. This proof is due to [\[1\]](#page-3-0). Suppose that  $M_p | s_{p_2}$ . Then we write

$$
\omega^{2^{p-2}} + \overline{\omega}^{2^{p-2}} = kM_p
$$

for some integer k. Multiplying both sides by  $\omega^{2^{p-2}}$  gives

$$
\omega^{2^{p-1}} + 1 = k M_p \omega^{2^{p-2}}
$$

or

(2.1) 
$$
\omega^{2^{p-1}} = k M_p \omega^{2^{p-2}} - 1
$$

and, squaring,

(2.2) 
$$
\omega^{2^p} = (kM_p\omega^{2^{p-2}} - 1)^2
$$

Now suppose for the sake of contradiction that  $M_p$  is composite. Choose a factor  $q \leq$ √ posite. Choose a factor  $q \leq \sqrt{M_p}$ of  $M_p$ , and note that q is odd. Let X denote the set  $\{a + b\sqrt{3} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}\}\$ . Addition and multiplication are defined on X in the obvious way. We can think of  $\omega, \overline{\omega}$  as elements of X, since  $q > 2$ . Clearly X is closed and thus forms a group under either of these operations. Let  $X^*$  denote the the group of invertible elements of X with respect to multiplication. Note that X contains at least one non-invertible element, namely 0, so  $|X^*| \leq |X| - 1 = q^2 - 1$ .

Now, observe that since  $q \mid M_p$ ,  $k M_p \omega^{2^{p-2}}$  is 0 as an element of X. Thus equations (2.1) and (2.2) give us that

$$
\omega^{2^{p-1}} = -1
$$

$$
\omega^{2^p} = 1
$$

in X. Equation (2.4) implies that  $\omega$  is invertible with inverse  $\omega^{2^p-1}$ , so  $\omega \in X^*$ . Furthermore, the order of  $\omega$  divides  $2^p$  but not  $2^{p-1}$ , so the order of  $\omega$  is  $2^p$ . Since the order of  $\omega$  is at most  $|X^*|,$ 

 $2^p \le q^2 - 1.$ 

But  $q^2 \leq 2^p - 1$ , so

$$
2^p \le q^2 - 1 \le 2^p - 2
$$

which is absurd. This completes the proof of the "if" direction.

Now we prove the "only if" direction. This proof is due to [\[2\]](#page-3-1). Suppose  $M_p$  is prime. Set  $\tau = \frac{1+\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}}$  $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ , and  $\overline{\tau} = \frac{1-\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}}$  $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ . Note that  $\tau^2 = \omega$ ,  $\overline{\tau}^2 = \overline{\omega}$ , and  $\tau\overline{\tau} = -1$ . Now we have  $\tau^{M_p} 2^{\frac{M_p-1}{2}} \sqrt{2} = (\sqrt{2}\tau)^{M_p} = (1+\sqrt{3})^{M_p} \equiv 1+\sqrt{3}^{M_p} = 1+3^{\frac{M_p-1}{2}} \sqrt{3}$ 3 (mod  $M_p$ ).

Note that  $M_p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$ , so  $(2/M_p) = 1$ , and  $M_p \equiv 7 \pmod{12}$ , so  $(3/M_p) = -1$ , by well-known properties of the Legendre symbol. Thus  $2^{\frac{M_p-1}{2}} \equiv 1$  and  $3^{\frac{M_p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{M_p}$ . Substituting this in, we see that

$$
\tau^{M_p}\sqrt{2} \equiv 1 - \sqrt{3} \pmod{M_p}
$$

so  $\tau^{M_p} \equiv \overline{\tau} \pmod{M_p}$  and thus  $\tau^{M_p+1} \equiv -1 \pmod{M_p}$ . We can also write this as  $\tau^{2^p} + 1$ (mod  $M_p$ ), or, using the fact that  $\tau^2 = \omega$ ,

$$
\omega^{2^{p-1}} + 1 \pmod{M_p}.
$$

Multiplying both sides by  $\overline{\omega}^{2^{p-2}}$  gives

$$
\omega^{2^{p-2}} + \overline{\omega}^{2^{p-2}} \equiv 0 \pmod{M_p}
$$

 $\alpha$  as desired.

$$
2 \\
$$

When implemented correctly, the most expensive part of the Lucas-Lehmer test is performing the  $O(p)$  multiplications, which can each be done in  $O(p^{1+\varepsilon})$  with the Schönhage–Strassen algorithm. So the time complexity of the Lucas-Lehmer test is  $O(p^{2+\epsilon})$ .

### 3. Jacobi Error Checking

Random hardware issues can lead to computation errors when running a Lucas-Lehmer test. To totally ensure accuracy, Lucas-Lehmer tests need to be double checked, with the final residue compared between both tests to see if it matches. However, there is a way to improve the accuracy of Lucas-Lehmer tests on unreliable hardware.

**Theorem 3.1** (Jacobi error check). Let i be any positive integer and p be an odd prime. Then

$$
\left(\frac{s_i + 2}{M_p}\right) = +1
$$

$$
\left(\frac{s_i - 2}{M_p}\right) = -1.
$$

*Proof.* Recall that  $s_i = s_{i-1}^2 - 2$ . So  $s_i + 2 = s_{i-1}^2$  must be a square, proving (3.1). Equation (3.3) requires induction. Note that for  $i = 0$ ,  $\left(\frac{s_i-2}{M}\right)$  $M_p$  $=\left(\frac{2}{M}\right)$  $M_p$  $= 1$  since  $M_p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$ . This is the base case. Now we induct. Suppose  $\left(\frac{s_i-2}{M}\right)$  $M_p$  $= -1.$  Then

$$
\left(\frac{s_{i+1}-2}{M_p}\right) = \left(\frac{s_{i-1}^2 - 4}{M_p}\right) = \left(\frac{(s_i - 2)(s_i + 2)}{M_p}\right) = \left(\frac{s_i - 2}{M_p}\right)\left(\frac{s_i + 2}{M_p}\right) = 1(-1) = -1.
$$

This completes the inductive step and the proof.

What makes Jacobi error checking useful is that it doesn't need to be performed on every iteration (which would be too expensive) - if a hardware error causes both  $\left(\frac{s_i+2}{M}\right)$  $M_p$ ) and  $\left(\frac{s_i-2}{M}\right)$  $M_p$  $\setminus$ to be  $+1$ , then they will be  $+1$  on each future iteration as well. So it's enough to only perform a Jacobi check every several thousand iterations or so.

#### 4. Modern Mersenne Prime Testing

Although the Lucas-Lehmer test is very fast, it is no longer the main test used by the Great Internet Mersenne Prime Search (GIMPS), a distributed computing project searching for Mersenne primes. Instead, GIMPS tests numbers by running a single Fermat probable prime test (PRP), which simply verifies for one a that  $a^{M_p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{M_p}$ , as would be guaranteed by Fermat's Little Theorem if  $M_p$  were prime. Large numbers are unlikely to be Fermat pseudoprimes, making a false positive unlikely. Now, PRP tests aren't any faster than LL, also having a time complexity of  $O(p^{2+\epsilon})$ , but they are preferred because of Gerbicz error checking, a technique for Fermat probable prime tests that nearly guarantees a correct result. Still, Lucas-Lehmer remains necessary for verifying any pseudoprimes found by PRP tests.

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# **REFERENCES**

- <span id="page-3-0"></span>[1] James W Bruce. "A really trivial proof of the Lucas-Lehmer test". In: The American Mathematical Monthly 100.4 (1993), pp. 370–371.
- <span id="page-3-1"></span>[2] Michael I Rosen. "A proof of the Lucas-Lehmer test". In: The American Mathematical Monthly 95.9 (1988), pp. 855–856.