

Lucas-Lehmer primality tests

Let $D \equiv 0$ or $1 \pmod{4}$, D not a square, $D \in \mathbb{Z}$
Let $P \equiv D \pmod{2}$ and $Q = \frac{P^2 - D}{4}$, so that
 $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$\text{Let } \alpha = \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{2}, \beta = \frac{P - \sqrt{D}}{2}.$$

(Then α, β are the roots of the equation
 $x^2 - Px + Q = 0$.)

The Lucas sequences for P and D are then
defined by

$$\frac{V_k + U_k \sqrt{D}}{2} = \alpha^k, \quad k \geq 0.$$

$$\text{Hence } \begin{aligned} V_0 &= 2, & V_1 &= P, \\ U_0 &= 0, & U_1 &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Also } \frac{V_k - U_k \sqrt{D}}{2} = \beta^k,$$

$$\text{So } V_k = \alpha^k + \beta^k, \quad U_k = \frac{\alpha^k - \beta^k}{\sqrt{D}}.$$

Also we have the recurrence relations

$$\left. \begin{aligned} U_{k+2} &= P U_{k+1} - Q U_k \\ V_{k+2} &= P V_{k+1} - Q V_k \end{aligned} \right\} k \geq 0.$$

Remark When subsequently applied to Mersenne numbers,
we take $D=12, P=2, Q=-2, \alpha=1+\sqrt{3}$.

Identities

(2)

$$V_k^2 - DU_k^2 = 4Q^k$$

$$V_{2k} = V_k^2 - 2Q^k$$

$$V_{2k+1} = V_k V_{k+1} - PQ^k$$

$$U_{2k} = U_k V_k$$

$$V_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2} (PV_k + DU_k)$$

$$U_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2} (V_k + PV_k)$$

$$2U_{k+j} = U_k V_j + U_j V_k$$

$$2V_{k+j} = V_k V_j + DU_k U_j$$

We work in the ring S_D , consisting of all numbers $\frac{a+b\sqrt{D}}{2}$, where

(i) $a \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ if $D \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$,

(ii) $a \equiv b \pmod{2}$ if $D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Let N be an odd positive integer. We define congruence in $S_D \pmod{N}$:

$$\delta_1 \equiv \delta_2 \pmod{N}$$

means $\delta_1 - \delta_2 = \delta N$, $\delta \in S_D$.

Note $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq S_D$ and $\sqrt{D} \in S_D$, as $\sqrt{D} = \frac{0+2\sqrt{D}}{2}$.
Also $\alpha, \beta \in S_D$.

If $\delta_1 = \frac{a_1 + b_1\sqrt{D}}{2}$ and $\delta_2 = \frac{a_2 + b_2\sqrt{D}}{2}$, then (3)

$$\delta_1 \equiv \delta_2 \pmod{N} \Leftrightarrow a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{N} \text{ \& } b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{N}$$

We say $\delta \in S_D$ is invertible \pmod{N} if $\exists \delta' \in S_D$ such that $\delta\delta' \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$. We note that if $\delta\delta' \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$, then from $(\delta\delta')\delta'' \equiv \delta(\delta\delta'') \pmod{N}$, we deduce $\delta \equiv \delta'' \pmod{N}$. We write $\delta' = \delta^{-1}$ for any inverse of $\delta \pmod{N}$.

THEOREM Suppose $\gcd(N, DQ) = 1$, p an odd prime, p not dividing DQ . Then

(i) $\alpha, \beta, \alpha - \beta$ are invertible \pmod{N} ;

(ii) $U_k \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \Leftrightarrow (\alpha\beta^{-1})^k \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$;

(iii) Let $\delta \in S_D$. Then

$$\delta^p \equiv \begin{cases} \delta \pmod{p} & \text{if } \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 1, \\ \sigma(\delta) \pmod{p} & \text{if } \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = -1. \end{cases}$$

(Here if $\delta = \frac{a + b\sqrt{D}}{2}$, $\sigma(\delta) = \frac{a - b\sqrt{D}}{2}$.)

(iv) $U_{p-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ if $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 1$,

$U_{p+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ if $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = -1$.

PROOF Assume $\gcd(N, DQ) = 1$.

(4)

(i) Let $W \in \mathbb{Z}$, $QW \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$. Then

$$\alpha\beta W = QW \equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

Hence α^{-1} and β^{-1} exist \pmod{N} .

$$\text{Also } \alpha - \beta = \sqrt{D}, \quad (\alpha - \beta)^2 \phi(N) = D \phi(N) \equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

Hence $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$ exists \pmod{N} .

(ii) $U_k = \frac{\alpha^k - \beta^k}{\alpha - \beta}$. Hence as $(\alpha - \beta)^{-1}$ exists \pmod{N} , we have

$$U_k \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \Leftrightarrow \alpha^k \equiv \beta^k \pmod{N}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\alpha\beta^{-1})^k \equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

(iii) Let $\delta = \frac{a + b\sqrt{D}}{2}$ and assume $p \nmid DQ$. Then

$$2\delta^p \equiv 2^p \delta^p \equiv (2\delta)^p \equiv (a + b\sqrt{D})^p \pmod{p}$$

$$\equiv a^p + (b\sqrt{D})^p \pmod{p}$$

$$\equiv a^p + b^p \sqrt{D} D^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}$$

$$\equiv a + b\sqrt{D} \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$$

Hence $\delta^p \equiv \frac{a + b\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)\sqrt{D}}{2} \pmod{p}$.

$$= \begin{cases} \delta & \text{if } \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 1, \\ \sigma(\delta) & \text{if } \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = -1. \end{cases}$$

(iv) (a) Let $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 1$. Then $\alpha^p \equiv \alpha \pmod{p}$, so $\alpha^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Similarly $\beta^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Hence $(\alpha\beta^{-1})^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and by part (ii), we have $U_{p-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

(b) Let $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = -1$. Then

$$\alpha^{p+1} \equiv \alpha^p \alpha \equiv 0(\alpha) \alpha \equiv \beta \alpha \pmod{p}$$

Also $\beta^{p+1} \equiv \alpha \beta \pmod{p}$. Hence $(\alpha\beta^{-1})^{p+1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and by part (ii), we have $U_{p+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

COROLLARY (Lucas pseudoprime test)

Let N be an odd integer, $D = P^2 - 4Q$, $\gcd(N, PQ) = 1$, $\left(\frac{D}{N}\right) = -1$, $D \equiv 0 \text{ or } 1 \pmod{4}$. Then N is composite if $U_{N+1} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{N}$.

DEFINITION If N is odd and N divides U_{N+1} , but N is composite, N is called a Lucas pseudoprime.

REMARK In practice, one finds the least $|D|$ such that $D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $\left(\frac{D}{N}\right) = -1$. Then we take $P = 1$, $Q = \frac{1-D}{4}$. If $U_{N+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$ and N also passes the base 2 strong pseudoprime test, there is a very good chance that N is prime. This is the test lucas(N) used in CALC.

THEOREM (Lucas-Lehmer primality test) (6)

Let N be odd, $\gcd(N, DQ) = 1$ and suppose

(i) $\left(\frac{D}{N}\right) = -1$, (ii) $U_{N+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$,

(iii) $\gcd\left(\frac{U_{N+1}}{q}, N\right) = 1$ for all primes q dividing $N+1$.

Then N is a prime.

PROOF Suppose N satisfies (i), (ii) and (iii). Let r be a prime factor of N satisfying $\left(\frac{D}{r}\right) = -1$.

Then $U_{N+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$ implies

$$(\alpha\beta^{-1})^{N+1} \equiv 1 \pmod{r}. \quad (1)$$

Let k be the least positive integer such that

$$(\alpha\beta^{-1})^k \equiv 1 \pmod{r}. \text{ Then (1) implies } k \mid N+1.$$

But $\frac{U_{N+1}}{q} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{r}$ implies $(\alpha\beta^{-1})^{\frac{N+1}{q}} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{r}$

if q is a prime dividing $N+1$. Hence $k = N+1$.

But $U_{r+1} \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$, so $(\alpha\beta^{-1})^{r+1} \equiv 1 \pmod{r}$.

Hence $N+1 \mid r+1$, so $N+1 \leq r+1$ and $N \leq r$.

But $r \mid N$, so $r \leq N$ & hence $r = N$.

To apply this theorem to Mersenne numbers we need the following two lemmas:

LEMMA 1

$$V_{p - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)} \equiv 2Q \frac{1 - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}{2} \pmod{p} \quad (7)$$

if p is an ^{odd} prime not dividing QD .

PROOF

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{p-1} (V_p + U_p \sqrt{D}) &= (p + \sqrt{D})^p \\ &= p^p + \binom{p}{1} p^{p-1} \sqrt{D} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} p (\sqrt{D})^{p-1} + \sqrt{D}^p \end{aligned}$$

Hence $2^{p-1} V_p \equiv p^p \pmod{p},$

$$2^{p-1} U_p \equiv D^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}.$$

Hence

$$V_p \equiv p \pmod{p},$$

$$U_p \equiv \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) \pmod{p}.$$

Now

$$2V_{p+1} = V_p p + D U_p \equiv p^2 + D \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) \pmod{p}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i) } \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = -1 &\Rightarrow 2V_{p+1} \equiv p^2 - D \equiv 4Q \pmod{p}, \\ &\Rightarrow V_{p+1} \equiv 2Q \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(ii) } \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 1 &\Rightarrow 2Q V_{p-1} = V_p p - D U_p \\ &\equiv p^2 - D \equiv 4Q \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{p-1} \equiv 2 \pmod{p}.$$

LEMMA 2 Let p be an odd prime not dividing DQ . Then (8)

$$\frac{V_{p - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}}{2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{Q}{p}\right) = -1.$$

PROOF. In the identity $V_i^2 = V_{2i} + 2Q^i$,

let $i = \frac{p - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}{2}$. Then by Lemma 1,

$$\begin{aligned} V_{\frac{p - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}{2}}^2 &\equiv 2Q^{\frac{1 - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}{2}} + 2Q^{\frac{p - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}{2}} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv 2Q^{\frac{1 - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}{2}} (1 + Q^{\frac{p-1}{2}}) \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv 2Q^{\frac{1 - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}{2}} (1 + \left(\frac{Q}{p}\right)) \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence } p \mid \frac{V_{p - \left(\frac{D}{p}\right)}}{2} \Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{Q}{p}\right) = -1.$$

COROLLARY (The Lucas-Lehmer primality test for $M_n = 2^n - 1$, $n > 2$.)

Let $S_1 = 4$, $S_t = S_{t-1}^2 - 2$ for $t > 2$. Then M_n is prime if and only if $M_n \mid S_{n-1}$.

PROOF Consider the Lucas-Lehmer sequence (9) defined by

$$D=12, P=2, Q=-2, \alpha=1+\sqrt{3}, \beta=1-\sqrt{3}.$$

Then

$$V_{i+1} = 2V_i + 2V_{i-1}, \quad V_0 = 2 = V_1.$$

$$V_{2i} = V_i^2 - 2(-2)^i = V_i^2 - 2^{i+1} \text{ if } i \text{ even.}$$

Take $i=2^{t-1}$. Then

$$V_{2^t} = V_{2^{t-1}}^2 - 2 \times 2^{2^{t-1}},$$

so if $S_t = V_{2^t} / 2^{2^{t-1}}$, we have

$$S_1 = 4 \text{ and } S_t = S_{t-1}^2 - 2.$$

\Rightarrow Let $M_n = p$, a prime. Then

$$\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{12}{M_n}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{M_n}\right) = -\left(\frac{M_n}{3}\right) = -\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = -1,$$

as $M_n \equiv -1 \pmod{8}$ and $M_n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

$$\text{Also } \left(\frac{Q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-2}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)(1) = -1.$$

Then by Lemma 1, we have

$$p \mid \frac{V_{p+1}}{2} = V_{2^{n-1}} = 2^{2^{n-2}} S_{n-1}, \text{ so } p \mid S_{n-1}.$$

← Suppose $M_n | S_{n-1}$. Then $M_n | V_{2^{n-1}}$.

Hence $M_n | U_{2^n} = U_{2^{n-1}} V_{2^{n-1}}$.

Also $\gcd(M_n, \frac{U_{M_{n+1}}}{2}) = 1$. For taking $i = 2^{n-1}$ in the identity

$$V_i^2 - D U_i^2 = 4 Q^i = 4(-2)^i$$

shows $\gcd(M_n, U_{2^{n-1}}) = 1$. Hence M_n is prime by the Lucas-Lehmer test, as $(\frac{D}{M_n}) = -1$.