# PRIMALITY TEST FOR FERMAT NUMBERS USING QUARTIC RECURRENCE EQUATION

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ABSTRACT. We present deterministic primality test for Fermat numbers ,  $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$ , where  $n \ge 2$ . Essentially this test is similar to the Lucas-Lehmer primality test for Mersenne numbers.

### 1. INTRODUCTION.

Fermat numbers were first studied by Pierre de Fermat , who conjuctured that all Fermat numbers are prime. This conjecture was refuted by Leonhard Euler in 1732 when he showed that  $F_5$  is composite . It is known that  $F_n$  is composite for  $5 \le n \le 32$ . Question, are there infinitely many Fermat primes is still an open problem . In 1856 Edouard Lucas has developed primality test for Mersenne numbers . Test was improved by Lucas in 1878 and Derrick Lehmer in 1930 s. The test uses a sequence  $S_i$  defined by  $S_0 = 4$  and  $S_{i+1} = S_i^2 - 2$  for  $i \ge 1$ . Mersenne number  $M_p$  is prime if and only if  $M_p$  divides  $S_{p-2}$ .

In this paper we give primality test for Fermat numbers using quartic recurrsive equation :  $S_i = S_{i-1}^4 - 4S_{i-1}^2 + 2$ . The test uses a sequence defined by this recursion .

# 2. The test and Proof of Correctness

2.1. The test. Let  $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$  with  $n \ge 2$ . In pseudocode the test might be written :

//Determine if  $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$  is prime FermatPrime(n) var S = 8var  $F = 2^{2^n} + 1$ repeat  $2^{n-1} - 1$  times :  $S = (((S \times S) - 2) \times ((S \times S) - 2) - 2) \pmod{F})$ if S = 0 return PRIME else return COMPOSITE

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2.2. Proof of correctness. Let us define sequence  $S_i$  as :

$$S_i = \begin{cases} 8 & \text{if } i = 0; \\ (S_{i-1}^2 - 2)^2 - 2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

**Theorem 2.1.**  $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1, (n \ge 2)$  is a prime if and only if  $F_n$  divides  $S_{2^{n-1}-1}$ .

Proof. Let us define  $\omega = 4 + \sqrt{15}$  and  $\bar{\omega} = 4 - \sqrt{15}$  and then define  $L_n$  to be  $\omega^{2^{2n}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n}}$ , we get  $L_0 = \omega + \bar{\omega} = 8$ , and  $L_{n+1} = \omega^{2^{2n+2}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n+2}} = (\omega^{2^{2n+1}})^2 + (\bar{\omega}^{2^{2n+1}})^2 = (\omega^{2^{2n+1}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n+1}})^2 - 2 \cdot \omega^{2^{2n+1}} \cdot \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n+1}} = ((\omega^{2^{2n}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n}})^2 - 2 \cdot \omega^{2^{2n}} \cdot \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n}})^2 - 2 \cdot \omega^{2^{2n+1}} \cdot \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n+1}} = ((\omega^{2^{2n}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2n}})^2 - 2 \cdot (\omega \cdot \bar{\omega})^{2^{2n}})^2 - 2 \cdot (\omega \cdot \bar{\omega})^{2^{2n+1}}$ and since  $\omega \cdot \bar{\omega} = 1$  we get :  $L_{n+1} = (L_n^2 - 2)^2 - 2$ 

Because the  $L_n$  satisfy the same inductive definition as the sequence  $S_i$ , the two sequences must be the same .

## **Proof of necessity** :

If  $2^{2^n} + 1$  is prime then  $S_{2^{n-1}-1}$  is divisible by  $2^{2^n} + 1$ 

We rely on simplification of the proof of Lucas-Lehmer test by Oystein J. R. Odseth, see [1]. First notice that 3 is quadratic non-residue (mod  $F_n$ ) and that 5 is quadratic non-residue (mod  $F_n$ ). Euler's criterion then gives us :

 $3^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}$  and  $5^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}$ 

On the other hand 2 is a quadratic-residue  $\pmod{F_n}$ , Euler's criterion gives:

 $2^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \pmod{F_n}$ 

Next define  $\sigma = 2\sqrt{15}$ , and define X as the multiplicative group of  $\{a + b\sqrt{15} | a, b \in Z_{F_n}\}$ . We will use following lemmas :

**Lemma 2.1.** :  $(x + y)^{F_n} = x^{F_n} + y^{F_n} \pmod{F_n}$ **Lemma 2.2.** :  $a^{F_n} \equiv a \pmod{F_n}$  (Fermat little theorem)

Then in group X we have :

 $(6 + \sigma)^{F_n} \equiv (6)^{F_n} + (\sigma)^{F_n} \pmod{F_n} = 6 + (2\sqrt{15})^{F_n} \pmod{F_n} =$ 

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$$= 6 + 2^{F_n} \cdot 15^{\frac{F_n - 1}{2}} \cdot \sqrt{15} \pmod{F_n} =$$
  
= 6 + 2 \cdot 3^{\frac{F\_n - 1}{2}} \cdot 5^{\frac{F\_n - 1}{2}} \cdot \sqrt{15} \pmod{F\_n} =  
= 6 + 2 \cdot (-1) \cdot (-1) \cdot \sqrt{15} \cdot (mod \cdot F\_n) =  
= 6 + 2\sqrt{15} \cdot (mod \cdot F\_n) = (6 + \sigma) \cdot (mod \cdot F\_n)

We chose  $\sigma$  such that  $\omega = \frac{(6+\sigma)^2}{24}$ . We can use this to compute  $\omega^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}}$ in the group X:

$$\omega^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} = \frac{(6+\sigma)^{F_n-1}}{24^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}}} = \frac{(6+\sigma)^{F_n}}{(6+\sigma)\cdot 24^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}}} \equiv \frac{(6+\sigma)}{(6+\sigma)\cdot (-1)} \pmod{F_n} = -1 \pmod{F_n}$$

where we use fact that :

$$24^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} = (2^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}})^3 \cdot (3^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}}) \equiv (1^3) \cdot (-1) \pmod{F_n} = -1 \pmod{F_n}$$

So we have shown that :

$$\omega^{\frac{F_n-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}$$

If we write this as  $\omega^{\frac{2^{2^{n}}+1-1}{2}} = \omega^{2^{2^{n}-1}} = \omega^{2^{2^{n}-2}} \cdot \omega^{2^{2^{n}-2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F_n}$ , multiply both sides by  $\bar{\omega}^{2^{2^{n-2}}}$  , and put both terms on the left hand side to write this as :  $\omega^{2^{2^{n-2}}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2^{n-2}}} \equiv 0 \pmod{F_n}$ 

$$\omega^{2^{2(2^{n-1}-1)}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2(2^{n-1}-1)}} \equiv 0 \pmod{F_n} \Rightarrow S_{2^{n-1}-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{F_n}$$

Since the left hand side is an integer this means therefore that  $S_{2^{n-1}-1}$ must be divisible by  $2^{2^n} + 1$ .

# **Proof of sufficiency :**

If  $S_{2^{n-1}-1}$  is divisible by  $2^{2^n} + 1$ , then  $2^{2^n} + 1$  is prime

We rely on simplification of the proof of Lucas-Lehmer test by J. W. Bruce , see [2]. If  $2^{2^n}+1$  is not prime then it must be divisible by some prime factor F less than or equal to the square root of  $2^{2^n} + 1$ . From the hypothesis  $S_{2^{n-1}-1}$  is divisible by  $2^{2^n} + 1$  so  $S_{2^{n-1}-1}$  is also multiple of F, so we can write :  $\omega^{2^{2(2^{n-1}-1)}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2(2^{n-1}-1)}} = K \cdot F$ , for some integer K. We can write

this equality as :

$$\omega^{2^{2^{n-2}}} + \bar{\omega}^{2^{2^{n-2}}} = K \cdot F$$

Note that  $\omega \cdot \bar{\omega} = 1$  so we can multiply both sides by  $\omega^{2^{2^{n-2}}}$  and rewrite

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this relation as :

this relation as :  $\omega^{2^{2^{n}-1}} = K \cdot F \cdot \omega^{2^{2^{n}-2}} - 1$ . If we square both sides we get :  $\omega^{2^{2^{n}}} = (K \cdot F \cdot \omega^{2^{2^{n}-2}} - 1)^{2}$ 

Now consider the set of numbers  $a + b\sqrt{15}$  for integers a and b where  $a + b\sqrt{15}$  and  $c + d\sqrt{15}$  are considered equivalent if a and c differ by a multiple of F, and the same is true for b and d. There are  $F^2$  of these numbers, and addition and multiplication can be verified to be well-defined on sets of equivalent numbers. Given the element  $\omega$  (considered as representative of an equivalence class), the associative law allows us to use exponential notation for repeated products :  $\omega^n = \omega \cdot \omega \cdots \omega$ , where the product contains n factors and the usual rules for exponents can be justified. Consider the sequence of elements  $\omega, \omega^2, \omega^3$ ...

. Because  $\omega$  has the inverse  $\bar{\omega}$  every element in this sequence has an inverse. So there can be at most  $F^2 - 1$  different elements of this sequence. Thus there must be at least two different exponents where  $\omega^j = \omega^k$  with  $j < k \leq F^2$ . Multiply j times by inverse of  $\omega$  to get that  $\omega^{k-j} = 1$  with  $1 \leq k - j \leq F^2 - 1$ .

So we have proven that  $\omega$  satisfies  $\omega^n = 1$  for some positive exponent n less than or equal to  $F^2 - 1$ . Define the order of  $\omega$  to be smallest positive integer d such that  $\omega^d = 1$ . So if n is any other positive integer satisfying  $\omega^n = 1$  then n must be multiple of d. Write  $n = q \cdot d + r$  with r < d. Then if  $r \neq 0$  we have  $1 = \omega^n = \omega^{q \cdot d + r} = (\omega^d)^q \cdot \omega^r = 1^q \cdot \omega^r = \omega^r$  contradicting the minimality of d so r = 0 and n is multiple of d.

contradicting the minimality of d so r = 0 and n is multiple of d. The relation  $\omega^{2^{2^n}} = (K \cdot F \cdot \omega^{2^{2^n-2}} - 1)^2$  shows that  $\omega^{2^{2^n}} \equiv 1 \pmod{F}$ . So that  $2^{2^n}$  must be multiple of the order of  $\omega$ . But the relation  $\omega^{2^{2^n-1}} = K \cdot F \cdot \omega^{2^{2^n-2}} - 1$  shows that  $\omega^{2^{2^n-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{F}$  so the order cannot be any proper factor of  $2^{2^n}$ , therefore the order must be  $2^{2^n}$ . Since this order is less than or equal to  $F^2 - 1$  and F is less or equal to the square root of  $2^{2^n} + 1$  we have relation:  $2^{2^n} \leq F^2 - 1 \leq 2^{2^n}$ . This is true only if  $2^{2^n} = F^2 - 1 \Rightarrow 2^{2^n} + 1 = F^2$ . We will show that Fermat number cannot be square of prime factor.

**Theorem 2.2.** Any prime divisor p of  $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$  is of the form  $k \cdot 2^{n+2} + 1$  whenever n is greater than one.

*Proof.* For proof see [3]

So prime factor F must be of the form  $k\cdot 2^{n+2}+1$ , therefore we can write :  $2^{2^n}+1=(k\cdot 2^{n+2}+1)^2$  $2^{2^n}+1=k^2\cdot 2^{2n+4}+2\cdot k\cdot 2^{n+2}+1$ 

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 $2^{2^n} = k \cdot 2^{n+3} \cdot (k \cdot 2^{n+1} + 1)$ 

The last equality cannot be true since  $k \cdot 2^{n+1} + 1$  is an odd number and  $2^{2^n}$  has no odd prime factors so  $2^{2^n} + 1 \neq F^2$  and therefore we have relation  $2^{2^n} < F^2 - 1 < 2^{2^n}$  which is contradiction so therefore  $2^{2^n} + 1$ must be prime.

## 3. Acknowledgments

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## References

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