

THE LUCAS–LEHMER TEST

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1. INTRODUCTION

If $2^n - 1$ is prime then n is prime, since

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

and the factors on the right exceed 1 when $a > 1$ and $b > 1$. When $p \leq 7$ is prime, $2^p - 1$ is prime : $2^2 - 1 = 3$, $2^3 - 1 = 7$, $2^5 - 1 = 31$, and $2^7 - 1 = 127$. But $2^{11} - 1 = 2047 = 23 \cdot 89$, so primality of p is necessary for $2^p - 1$ to be prime but *not* sufficient.

Primes of the form $M_p := 2^p - 1$ are called *Mersenne primes*. It is conjectured that there are infinitely many such primes, but data suggest they are rare: there are over 5.7 million primes $p < 100,000,000$ and in this range only 51 primes values of M_p have been found. The table below indicates for prime $p \leq 47$ when M_p is prime. A table of all known Mersenne primes is on <https://t5k.org/mersenne/>.

p	2	3	5	7	11	13	17	19	23	29	31	37	41	43	47
M_p prime?	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓				

Using the the equivalences

$$2 \equiv \square \pmod{p} \iff p = 2 \text{ or } p \equiv 1, 7 \pmod{8},$$

$$3 \equiv \square \pmod{p} \iff p = 2, 3 \text{ or } p \equiv 1, 11 \pmod{12},$$

and Euler's criterion $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$, we will derive a primality test for Mersenne primes that is called the Lucas–Lehmer test.

2. DETERMINING PRIMALITY OF MERSENNE NUMBERS

The test we give for primality of M_p uses the sequence $\{S_k\}_{k \geq 0}$ where $S_0 = 4$ and $S_k = S_{k-1}^2 - 2$ when $k \geq 1$. It begins 4, 14, 194, and 37634. We will start with a formula for S_k in terms of powers of $2 + \sqrt{3}$ and $2 - \sqrt{3}$.

Lemma 2.1. *Let $\alpha = 2 + \sqrt{3}$ and $\bar{\alpha} = 2 - \sqrt{3}$. For $k \geq 0$, $S_k = \alpha^{2^k} + \bar{\alpha}^{2^k}$.*

Proof. Let $x_k = \alpha^{2^k} + \bar{\alpha}^{2^k}$. Then $x_0 = \alpha + \bar{\alpha} = 4 = S_0$ and since $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = 1$, for $k \geq 1$ we have

$$x_{k-1}^2 - 2 = (\alpha^{2^{k-1}} + \bar{\alpha}^{2^{k-1}})^2 - 2 = \alpha^{2^k} + 2 + \bar{\alpha}^{2^k} - 2 = \alpha^{2^k} + \bar{\alpha}^{2^k} = x_k,$$

so $x_k = S_k$ for all $k \geq 0$ by induction. □

Theorem 2.2 (Lucas–Lehmer). *For odd primes p , M_p is prime $\iff S_{p-2} \equiv 0 \pmod{M_p}$.*

The proof here, different from the original, is by Rosen [7] for (\implies) and Bruce [1] for (\impliedby) . In both directions we will use modular arithmetic in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$.

Proof. (\implies) When M_p is prime, the M_p -th power map in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]/(M_p)$ is additive, so

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + \sqrt{3})^{M_p} &\equiv 1 + \sqrt{3}^{M_p} \pmod{M_p} \\ &\equiv 1 + \sqrt{3}^{M_p-1} \sqrt{3} \pmod{M_p} \\ &\equiv 1 + (\sqrt{3}^2)^{(M_p-1)/2} \sqrt{3} \pmod{M_p} \\ &\equiv 1 + 3^{(M_p-1)/2} \sqrt{3} \pmod{M_p}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $p \geq 3$, $M_p = 2^p - 1 \equiv -1 \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$ and $M_p = 2^p - 1 = (-1)^p - 1 = -2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, so $M_p \equiv 7 \pmod{12}$. Thus $3 \not\equiv \square \pmod{M_p}$ by the rule about when 3 is a square modulo primes, so $3^{(M_p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{M_p}$ by Euler's criterion. Thus

$$(2.1) \quad (1 + \sqrt{3})^{M_p} \equiv 1 + 3^{(M_p-1)/2} \sqrt{3} \equiv 1 - \sqrt{3} \pmod{M_p}.$$

We will now calculate $(1 + \sqrt{3})^{M_p} \pmod{M_p}$ in a second way. In $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$,

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + \sqrt{3})^{M_p} &= (1 + \sqrt{3})(1 + \sqrt{3})^{M_p-1} = (1 + \sqrt{3})((1 + \sqrt{3})^2)^{(M_p-1)/2} \\ &= (1 + \sqrt{3})(4 + 2\sqrt{3})^{(M_p-1)/2} \\ &= (1 + \sqrt{3})2^{(M_p-1)/2}(2 + \sqrt{3})^{(M_p-1)/2} \\ &= (1 + \sqrt{3})2^{(M_p-1)/2}\alpha^{(M_p-1)/2}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha = 2 + \sqrt{3}$ as in Lemma 2.1. Since $M_p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, $2 \equiv \square \pmod{M_p}$ by the rule about when 2 is a square modulo primes, so $2^{(M_p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{M_p}$. Thus

$$(2.2) \quad (1 + \sqrt{3})^{M_p} \equiv (1 + \sqrt{3})\alpha^{(M_p-1)/2} \equiv (1 + \sqrt{3})\alpha^{2^{p-1}-1} \pmod{M_p}.$$

Combining (2.1) and (2.2),

$$(1 + \sqrt{3})\alpha^{2^{p-1}-1} \equiv 1 - \sqrt{3} \pmod{M_p}.$$

Multiply both sides by $1 + \sqrt{3}$, with $(1 + \sqrt{3})^2 = 4 + 2\sqrt{3} = 2\alpha$:

$$(2\alpha)\alpha^{2^{p-1}-1} \equiv -2 \pmod{M_p}.$$

Since M_p is odd, $2 \pmod{M_p}$ is invertible, so we can cancel the 2 on both sides:

$$\alpha^{2^{p-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{M_p}.$$

Write 2^{p-1} in the exponent as $2^{p-2} + 2^{p-2}$:

$$\alpha^{2^{p-2}} \alpha^{2^{p-2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{M_p}.$$

Multiply both sides by $\bar{\alpha}^{2^{p-2}}$. Since $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = 1$,

$$\alpha^{2^{p-2}} \equiv -\bar{\alpha}^{2^{p-2}} \pmod{M_p}.$$

Thus $\alpha^{2^{p-2}} + \bar{\alpha}^{2^{p-2}} \equiv 0 \pmod{M_p}$, so $S_{p-2} \equiv 0 \pmod{M_p}$ by Lemma 2.1. That congruence is in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$, so $M_p(a + b\sqrt{3}) = S_{p-2}$ for some $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$. Thus $M_p a = S_{p-2}$ and $M_p b = 0$, so $M_p a = S_{p-2}$, which means $S_{p-2} \equiv 0 \pmod{M_p}$ in \mathbf{Z} .

(\impliedby) To show M_p is prime, we argue by contradiction. Assume M_p is composite, so it has a prime factor $q \leq \sqrt{M_p}$. Since M_p is odd, q is odd. We will work in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]/(q)$.

Since $S_{p-2} \equiv 0 \pmod{M_p}$ in \mathbf{Z} , $S_{p-2} = M_p N$ for $N \in \mathbf{Z}$, which says $\alpha^{2^{p-2}} + \bar{\alpha}^{2^{p-2}} = M_p N$ by Lemma 2.1. Since $q \mid M_p$, $\alpha^{2^{p-2}} \equiv -\bar{\alpha}^{2^{p-2}} \pmod{q}$. Multiply both sides by $\alpha^{2^{p-2}}$. Since $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = 1$,

$$(2.3) \quad \alpha^{2^{p-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{q},$$

so $\alpha^{2^p} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. Thus α in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]/(q)$ has order dividing 2^p . The order doesn't divide 2^{p-1} by (2.3)¹, so the order is 2^p . Thus 2^p divides $|(\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]/(q))^\times| \leq |\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{3}]/(q)| - 1 = q^2 - 1$, so

$$2^p \leq q^2 - 1 < q^2 \leq M_p = 2^p - 1,$$

which is a contradiction. Thus M_p is not composite, so it is prime. \square

Example 2.3. To show $M_{19} = 2^{19} - 1 = 524287$ is prime, the table below lists $S_k \pmod{M_{19}}$, starting at $k = 2$ so the table fits within the margins, and $S_{17} \equiv 0 \pmod{M_{19}}$.

k	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$S_k \pmod{M_{19}}$	194	37634	218767	510066	386344	323156	218526	504140
k	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
$S_k \pmod{M_{19}}$	103469	417706	307417	382989	275842	85226	523263	0

Remark 2.4. The Lucas–Lehmer test is valid with a sequence $\{s_k\}$ where $s_k = s_{k-1}^2 - 2$ and the Jacobi symbols $(\frac{s_0-2}{M_q})$ and $(\frac{-s_0-2}{M_q})$ are 1, such as $s_0 = 4$ and $s_0 = 10$. See Theorem 2.1 in Jansen's PhD thesis <https://math.leidenuniv.nl/scripts/PhDJansen.pdf>.

Here is some history about the Lucas–Lehmer test. In 1876 Lucas gave (without proof) a sufficient, but not necessary, condition for M_p to be prime if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ [5, Théorème I] and said [4, p. 167] he was able to show M_{127} is prime². In 1878 he gave (again without proof) tests when $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ [6, Théorème, p. 316] and $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ [6, Théorème II, p. 305]. In 1930, Lehmer [2, Theorem 5.4] showed the primality test given by Lucas for M_p when $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ can be sharpened to the necessary and sufficient conditions in Theorem 2.2 and he proved it holds for all primes $p > 2$.

REFERENCES

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- [7] M. I. Rosen, “A proof of the Lucas–Lehmer test,” *Amer. Math. Monthly* **64** (1988), 855–856.

¹Here we are using $q > 2$, since $1 \equiv -1 \pmod{2}$.

²The number M_{127} , with 39 digits, was the largest known prime until computers were used in the 1950s.