# An open source software package for primality testing of numbers of the form $\mathrm{p} 2^{\wedge} \mathrm{n}+1$, with no constraints on the relative sizes of $p$ and $2^{\wedge} n$ 

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We develop an efficient software package to test for the primality of $p 2^{\wedge} n+1, p$ prime and $p>2^{\wedge} n$. This aids in the determination of large, non-Sierpinski numbers $p$, for prime $p$, and in cryptography. It furthermore uniquely allows for the computation of the smallest $n$ such that $p 2^{\wedge} n+1$ is prime when $p$ is large. We compute primes of this form for the first one million primes $p$ and find four primes of the form above 1000 digits. The software may also be used to test whether $\mathrm{p} 2^{\wedge} \mathrm{n}+1$ divides a generalized fermat number base 3 .

# An open source software package for primality testing of numbers of the form $p 2^{n}+1$, with no constraints on the relative sizes of $p$ and $2^{n}$ 

Tejas R. Rao


#### Abstract

We develop an efficient software package to test for the primality of $p 2^{n}+1, p$ prime and $p>2^{n}$. This aids in the determination of large, non-Sierpinski numbers $p$, for prime $p$, and in cryptography. It furthermore uniquely allows for the computation of the smallest $n$ such that $p 2^{n}+1$ is prime when $p$ is large. We compute primes of this form for the first one million primes $p$ and find four primes of the form above 1000 digits. The software may also be used to test whether $p 2^{n}+1$ divides a generalized fermat number base 3.


## INTRODUCTION

Prime numbers are used in a large number of applications. For example, RSA authentication relies on large prime numbers and has numerous uses in cryptography (Ferguson, N. and Schneier, B. , 1994). Securing communications between computers and large networks rely on this research. The novel idea presented in the article is explored for feasibility of finding additional large prime numbers to aid in encryption.

Only recently was the first polynomial time algorithm, the AKS, created for primes regardless of form, and it is still highly inefficient (Agrawal, M. and Kayal, N. and Saxena, N., 2004). However, there are many specific forms of prime numbers with their own primality tests (Grantham, J. (2001)). Of these, some of the least computationally complex are the Proth test and the Sophie-Germaine test, for finding primes of the form $k 2^{n}+1, k$ odd and $2^{n}>k$, and $2 p+1, p$ prime, respectively (Matthew, G. and Williams, H. C. (1977), Dubner, H. (1996)). In addition to the efficiency of the tests, they are of special importance to Sierpinski numbers of the second kind.

Sierpinski numbers of the second kind are odd numbers $k$ where $k 2^{n}+1$ is composite for all $n$ (Baillie, R. and Cormack, G. and Williams, H. C. (1981)). For large $k$, it is computationally prohibitive to test for the primality of $k 2^{n}+1$ without utilizing either Proth's test or the Sophie-Germaine test. However, these tests restrict the numbers able to be tested to $k 2^{n}+1$ where $n=1$ or where $2^{n}>k$ (Matthew, G. and Williams, H. C. (1977), Dubner, H. (1996)). Thus, there is a unique need for an efficient algorithm for finding the primality of $k 2^{n}+1$ for $n>1$ and $2^{n}<k$. In this paper, we introduce such an algorithm for numbers of the form $p 2^{n}+1, p$ prime. Throughout this paper, $p$ will refer to primes.

## METHODS

The method section will be divided into two parts: the theory and the software package.

Theory
A necessary concept is that of multiplicative order. The multiplicative order of $a$ modulo $n$ is defined as the first positive integer $m$ such that

$$
a^{m} \equiv 1 \bmod n
$$

Alternatively, one may think of multiplicative order as the first $m$ such that $a^{m}-1$ is divisible by $n$. For a prime $p$, we take the definition of Legendre's symbol,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\binom{a}{\hdashline p} \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \quad \bmod p \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also written as $(a \mid p)$, its possible values are contained in the set $\{-1,0,1\}$. Additionally, we utilize Gauss's quadratic reciprocity,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\binom{a}{p}=(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{a-1}{2}}\left(\frac{p}{a}+\right), \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

provided both $a$ and $p$ are prime (Lemmermeyer, F. (2000)). Proth's Theorem is well known: where $P=k 2^{n}+1, k$ odd, and $2^{n}>k$,

$$
a^{\frac{P-1}{2}} \equiv-1 \bmod P \Longleftrightarrow P \text { prime },
$$

for all $a$ where $(a \mid p)=-1$. The theory section extends a similar criterion to that of Proth's theorem for all numbers of the form $p 2^{n}+1, n>1$. Also, we utilize the definition of primover numbers found in (Shevelev, V. (2012)). Primover numbers in a base are numbers whose factors share the same multiplicative order modulo that base. Recognize that primover numbers are a type of probable prime (may be composite or prime). We furthermore denote $G F(a, z)=a^{2^{z}}+1$, the generalized Fermat numbers of base $a$. Finally we take the following two lemmas from (Shevelev, V. (2012)) and (Lemmermeyer, F. (2000)), respectively.

Lemma 1. All factors of $G F(a, z)$ are primover in base a with $2^{z+1}$ as the multiplicative order of a modulo every factor.

Lemma 2. Where $r$ is the multiplicative order of a modulo $N, r \mid z$ if and only if $N \mid a^{z}-1$.
Let $R=p 2^{n}+1, p>3$ prime and $n>1$.

Proposition 1. For all such R,

$$
3^{\frac{R-1}{2}} \equiv-1 \bmod R \Longleftrightarrow R \text { is prime or } R \text { divides } G F(3, n-1) \text { and is primover. }
$$

For necessity, first assume $R$ is prime. We can also assume $3 \nmid R$, because then the equivalence above would not hold. Since $p>3$, we thus have that $k \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 3$ and $2^{n} \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 3$. We cannot have $k \not \equiv 2^{n} \bmod 3$, because then $3 \mid R$. Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R & \equiv 1+1 \\
& \equiv-1-1 \\
& \equiv-1 \quad \bmod 3 .
\end{aligned}
$$

This means that $(R \mid 3)=-1$, by Equation 1 . Additionally, we have $R \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ since $n>1$. This means we can write $R=4 m+1$, for $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Using Equation 2,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{3}{R}\right) & =(-1)^{\frac{3-1}{2} \frac{R-1}{2}}\left(\frac{R}{3}\right) \\
& =(-1)^{(1) \frac{4 m}{2}}(-1) \\
& =(-1)^{2 m+1} \\
& =-1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since we assume $R$ is prime, the necessity for prime numbers follows from Equation 1 . For the second part of the necessity, if $R$ is composite but divides $G F(3, n-1)$, the order of 3 modulo $f$ is $2^{n}$, for all factors $f$ of $R$, from Lemma 1 .

For sufficiency, we assume $R$ is composite and does not divide $G F(3, n-1)$. Due to the conditions, we have $3^{R-1} \equiv 1 \bmod R$. Therefore, the multiplicative order of $3 \bmod R$ divides $R-1=p 2^{n}$ but does not divide $p 2^{n-1}$ by Lemma 2 and the conditions specified in the theorem. The multiplicative order is thus precisely $2^{n}$. Furthermore, $3^{\frac{R-1}{2}} \equiv-1 \bmod R$ implies that all factors of $R$ divide $3^{\frac{R-1}{2}}+1$. This means that no factors divide $3^{\frac{R-1}{2}}-1$. But since the order of 3 modulo $R$ is $2^{n}$, all factors of $R$ must therefore share this order. Therefore all of the factors $f$ of $R$ have multiplicative order of 3 modulo $f$ as $2^{n}$. Therefore we can write

$$
3^{2^{n}}-1=\left(3^{2^{n-1}}-1\right)\left(3^{2^{n-1}}+1\right) \equiv 0 \bmod R .
$$

and deduce that $3^{2^{n-1}}+1 \equiv 0 \bmod R$ by Lemma 2 . We arrive at a contradiction: a composite solution must divide $G F(3, n-1)$. Since all divisors of Fermat numbers are primover, we prove the conditions.

Remark 1. If the conditions of Proth's theorem are satisfied and/or if $p>1 / 2\left(3^{2^{n}}+1\right)$, we know $R$ is prime iff it satisfies the above condition.

Remark 2. We can alternatively check that the number $R$ is not a Fermat factor of $G F(3, n-1)$ to prove that $R$ is prime after it passes the initial test.

## Code

First, it is necessary to understand and utilize the BigInteger Java class, which is a class of immutable, arbitrary-precision integers (Oracle (n. d.)). In addition to handling arbitrarily large integers, the class also contains multiple optimization techniques for modular multiplication, such as the Schönhage-Strassen algorithm.

Next, we must utilize repeated modular exponentiation to find the large power of 3 , for any number with over a thousand digits will overload most systems as an exponent. By repeatedly squaring and reducing modulo $R$ at each step, one can calculate $3^{2^{n}} \bmod R$ :

```
public static BigInteger result (BigInteger base, int n, BigInteger R) {
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        base = base.pow(2).mod(R);
    }
    return base;
}
It is a well known result that every integer can be written as the sum of powers of two. To write a number in binary, simply decompose it as the sum of powers of 2 as follows. The code returns an array of the powers of 2 that make up \(R\) from least to greatest. For example, if \(R=11\), then the method will return \([0,1,3]\), because \(11=2^{3}+2^{1}+2^{0}\).
```

```
private static Integer [] findpowers (BigInteger R) {
```

private static Integer [] findpowers (BigInteger R) {
int c = 0;
ArrayList<Integer> list = new ArrayList<Integer>();
String r = R.toString(2);
for (int i = 0; i < r.length(); i++) {
if (r.charAt(i) == '1') {
list.add(r.length()-(i+1));
}
}
arrlis = list.toArray(new Integer[list.size()]);
Integer[] arrlisFlipped = new Integer[arrlis.length];
for (int i = arrlis.length - 1; i >= 0; i-- ) {
arrlisFlipped[c++] = arrlis[i];
}
return arrlisFlipped;
}

```

This methodology becomes useful in discerning \(3^{\frac{R-1}{2}} \bmod R\), which is what we must compute. We find the binary form of \(\frac{R-1}{2}\) and then calculate and multiply together 3 to the resulting powers of 2 . For example, we can simplify as follows:
\[
3^{11} \bmod R=\left(3^{2^{3}} \bmod R\right) *\left(3^{2^{1}} \bmod R\right) *\left(3^{2^{0}} \bmod R\right) \bmod R
\]

Therefore, after finding the array of powers of two, we implement modular exponentiation through repeated squaring to find \(3^{\frac{R-1}{2}} \bmod R\) as desired.

For sufficiently large \(R\), this process becomes prohibitively slow. When searching for large primes of the form \(p 2^{n}+1\), many values of \(n\) and \(p\) must be tested. It is therefore necessary to quickly rule out multiple values of \(n\) for any given \(p\). To do this, we implement trial division by the first two million primes for each \(p 2^{n}+1\) before implementing the main test, as many composites are found and ruled out by this method.

The two expensive operations are repeated squaring and the modular multiplication of 3 to the powers of two. To account for this, multithreading is utilized (Intel (n. d.)). In the process of calculating \(3^{2^{a}} \bmod R\), where \(a\) is the highest power of two returned in findpowers \(\left(\frac{R-1}{2}\right)\), we save all of the \(3^{2^{z}} \bmod R\) that have \(z\) as a value returned from the findpowers method. Because of multi-threading, we can concurrently calculate \(3^{2^{a}} \bmod R\) and multiply each \(3^{2^{z}} \bmod R\) we save together. Since there will always be a greater than or equal amount of modular multiplications in calculating \(3^{2^{a}} \bmod R\) relative to multiplying each \(3^{2^{z}} \bmod R\) together, the whole process will complete in the time it takes to do the one repeated modular squaring. In the most extreme situation, when calculating \(3^{M} \bmod R\), where \(M\) is a Mersenne number (one less than a power of two), there are \(a+1\) powers of two in the binary representation of \(M\) and thus \(a\) modular multiplications of 3 to the powers of 2 returned by the findpowers method, the same amount of multiplications as calculating \(3^{2^{a}} \bmod R\) via repeated modular squaring. In this case, if multithreading was not used, the time of completion would be roughly doubled. Regardless, in all cases, multithreading saves a significant amount of time that positively correlates with the number of powers of two in the binary representation of the input.

We implement similar methodology to check Remark 2 for all numbers that pass the original test. It is left up to the user to determine whether Remark 1 is satisfied, if they choose to do so.

\section*{RESULTS}

The theory and methodology culminated in the package referenced below. Its code repository can be found in Table 2.


Figure 1. User interface for primality testing software package.

The first button supplies the primary test: those that pass the test are either prime or primover and divide a specific base 3 generalized Fermat number. To test for numbers of the form \(p 2^{n}+1\), one must first specify
the original prime \(p\). Since these values are often too large for the integer class, they must be specified with an integer multiplier, base, pow, and offset in the following format:
\[
\text { multiplier } * \text { base }{ }^{\text {pow }}+\text { offset } .
\]

This is readily accomplished for most of the largest known primes, such as Proth primes and Mersenne primes.

The next row allows for specification of the range of \(n\) one would like to test. If values are left unspecified, then the test will range from 2 and go on to the maximum integer value Java can store. Additionally, one can specify whether the program should stop after finding the first primover number when clicking the primover test button. After running, the values of \(n\) in the specified range that make \(p 2^{n}+1\) primover will be returned, as well as the number of digits in each primover \(p 2^{n}+1\).

The second button specifies whether \(p 2^{n}+1\) is guaranteed prime or primover and divides \(G F(3, n-1)\), given that the number passed the primary test. One inputs the original prime \(p\) as before, as well as a value of \(n\) returned from the primary test. The software will return true if it divides \(G F(3, n-1)\) and false if it does not and is therefore guaranteed prime provided it passes the primary test.

In a preliminary test of the first \(1,000,000\) primes \(p, 696,281\) of the first \(1,000,000\) primes had some \(p 2^{n}+1,2^{n}<p\) that was prime. The other 303,719 are possible Sierpinski numbers of the second kind. Some of them, such as 10223, are proven not to be. Furthermore, all of these primover numbers were shown not to divide \(G F(3, n-1)\), meaning they are all prime by Remark 2 and not Fermat Divisors base 3. The list of these primes is provided in the supplemental information section.

Additionally, in the first week of use, a preliminary result was achieved: four primes above one thousand digits were found. Note that, once again, all primes that passed the primary test were guaranteed prime by the second.
\begin{tabular}{l|r|r} 
Original Prime \(p\) & Exponent \(n\) & \# of Digits \\
\hline\((305136484659) 2^{11471}+2^{72}+1\) & 5659 & 5169 \\
\((305136484659) 2^{11399}+1\) & 72 & 3465 \\
\((699549860111847) 2^{4244}+11\) & 2745 & 2119 \\
\((699549860111847) 2^{4244}+7\) & 1030 & 1603
\end{tabular}

Table 1. Some primes of the form \(p 2^{n}+1,2^{n}<p\).

\section*{Software Specifications}

The summary of the main characteristics, availability, and requirements is given in the following table.
\begin{tabular}{l|l} 
& RPrimes Package \\
\hline Language & Java \\
Operating system & Platform independent; requires Java distribution \\
Dependencies & NONE \\
Software location & DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1560703 \\
Code repository & https://github.com/tejasrao42/RPrimes \\
License & MIT
\end{tabular}

Table 2. Software characteristics, requirements and availability for RPrimes package.

\section*{DISCUSSION}

Due to the similarity of this test to Proth's test, the computational complexity of this test is \(\widetilde{O}\left(\log ^{2}(N)\right)\). More importantly, only one modular exponentiation is required. This efficiency makes it as efficient as

Proth's theorem for testing for the largest primes.

This inclusion bridges the gap between Sophie-Germain and Proth primality tests. Utilizing all three tests, one can now determine the first \(n\) for which \(p 2^{n}+1\) is prime for previously prohibitively large primes \(p\), which can greatly improve sequences such as (Sloane, N. J. A. (n. d.)). Additionally, if no \(n\) are found that make \(p 2^{n}+1\) prime, one has found a large prime \(p\) that is under suspicion of being a Sierpinski number of the second kind. Usually, small numbers such as 10223 were computationally thought to be Sierpinski numbers of the second kind partly because for all \(2^{n}<p\), the numbers were small enough to check for primality using trial division, and no primes were found. Recall that for numbers \(2^{n}>p\), Proth's test applies. For large \(p\), one cannot use trial division to check primality when \(2^{n}<p\), so our test is of unique significance in those circumstances. Combined with the aforementioned tests, all \(p 2^{n}+1\) may be checked for primality, and large primes \(p\) can now be computationally put under suspicion of being Sierpinski numbers of the second kind.

Furthermore, the first million primes \(p\) have no \(p 2^{n}+1\) that pass the primary test but factor a Generalized Fermat number base 3 . This additionally held true for the four prime numbers found above 1000 digits. The result hints at the overall efficiency of the primary test: it is likely passed predominantly by primes numbers and only rarely by composite numbers. For each \(n\), there can only be a small, finite amount of \(p 2^{n}+1\) that pass the primary test, but not the second, because they all must factor \(G F(3, n-1)\). Furthermore, these numbers (if they exist) may be identified through online resources through finding a factorization of \(G F(3, n-1)\). For these \(n\), the primary test becomes not only a test for primover numbers, but moreover a primality test independent of having to compute the second test for all \(p\) where \(p 2^{n}+1\) is not found in the factorization of \(G F(3, n-1)\).

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