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FORMALIZED MATHEMATICS Vol. 22, No. 2, Pages 111-118, 2014 DOI: 10.2478/forma-2014-0013



Proth Numbers

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Summary. In this article we introduce Proth numbers and prove two theorems on such numbers being prime [3]. We also give revised versions of Pocklington's theorem and of the Legendre symbol. Finally, we prove Pepin's theorem and that the fifth Fermat number is not prime.

MSC: 11A41 03B35

Keywords: prime numbers; Pocklington's theorem; Proth's theorem; Pepin's

 ${\it theorem}$

MML identifier: NAT_6, version: 8.1.03 5.23.1207

The notation and terminology used in this paper have been introduced in the following articles: [11], [6], [14], [13], [9], [16], [10], [1], [8], [2], [5], [7], [12], [15], and [4].

1. Preliminaries

Let n be a positive natural number. Let us note that n-1 is natural.

Let n be a non trivial natural number. Observe that n-1 is positive.

Let x be an integer number and n be a natural number. Let us observe that x^n is integer.

Let us observe that 1^n reduces to 1.

Let n be an even natural number. Let us observe that $(-1)^n$ reduces to 1. Let n be an odd natural number. One can verify that $(-1)^n$ reduces to -1. Now we state the propositions:

- (1) Let us consider a positive natural number a and natural numbers n, m. If $n \ge m$, then $a^n \ge a^m$.
- (2) Let us consider a non trivial natural number a and natural numbers n, m. If n > m, then $a^n > a^m$. The theorem is a consequence of (1).

- (3) Let us consider a non zero natural number n. Then there exists a natural number k and there exists an odd natural number l such that $n = l \cdot 2^k$.
- (4) Let us consider an even natural number n. Then $n \operatorname{div} 2 = \frac{n}{2}$.
- (5) Let us consider an odd natural number n. Then $n \operatorname{div} 2 = \frac{n-1}{2}$. Let n be an even integer number. Let us observe that $\frac{n}{2}$ is integer. Let n be an even natural number. One can check that $\frac{n}{2}$ is natural.

2. Some Properties of Congruences and Prime Numbers

Let us observe that every natural number which is prime is also non trivial. Now we state the propositions:

- (6) Let us consider a prime natural number p and an integer number a. Then $gcd(a, p) \neq 1$ if and only if $p \mid a$.
- (7) Let us consider integer numbers i, j and a prime natural number p. If $p \mid i \cdot j$, then $p \mid i$ or $p \mid j$. The theorem is a consequence of (6).
- (8) Let us consider prime natural numbers x, p and a non zero natural number k. Then $x \mid p^k$ if and only if x = p.
- (9) Let us consider integer numbers x, y, n. Then $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ if and only if there exists an integer k such that $x = k \cdot n + y$.
- (10) Let us consider an integer number i and a non zero integer number j. Then $i \equiv i \mod j \pmod{j}$.
- (11) Let us consider integer numbers x, y and a positive integer number n. Then $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ if and only if $x \pmod{n} = y \pmod{n}$. The theorem is a consequence of (9) and (10).
- (12) Let us consider integer numbers i, j and a natural number n. If n < j and $i \equiv n \pmod{j}$, then $i \mod j = n$.
- (13) Let us consider a non zero natural number n and an integer number x. Then $x \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ or ... or $x \equiv n-1 \pmod{n}$. The theorem is a consequence of (10).
- (14) Let us consider a non zero natural number n, an integer number x, and natural numbers k, l. Suppose
 - (i) k < n, and
 - (ii) l < n, and
 - (iii) $x \equiv k \pmod{n}$, and
 - (iv) $x \equiv l \pmod{n}$.

Then k = l. The theorem is a consequence of (12).

- (15) Let us consider an integer number x. Then
 - (i) $x^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, or

- (ii) $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.
- The theorem is a consequence of (13).
- (16) Let us consider a prime natural number p, elements x, y of $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}^*$, and integer numbers i, j. If x = i and y = j, then $x \cdot y = i \cdot j \mod p$.
- (17) Let us consider a prime natural number p, an element x of $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}^*$, an integer number i, and a natural number n. If x = i, then $x^n = i^n \mod p$. PROOF: Define $\mathcal{P}[\text{natural number}] \equiv x^{\$_1} = i^{\$_1} \mod p$. For every natural number k, $\mathcal{P}[k]$ from [1, Sch. 2]. \square
- (18) Let us consider a prime natural number p and an integer number x. Then $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if and only if $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ or $x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. The theorem is a consequence of (7).
- (19) Let us consider a natural number n. Then $-1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ if and only if n = 2 or n = 1.
- (20) Let us consider an integer number i. Then $-1 \equiv 1 \pmod{i}$ if and only if i = 2 or i = 1 or i = -2 or i = -1. The theorem is a consequence of (19).

3. Some basic properties of relation ">"

Let n, x be natural numbers. We say that x is greater than n if and only if (Def. 1) x > n.

Let n be a natural number. Observe that there exists a natural number which is greater than n and odd and there exists a natural number which is greater than n and even.

Let us observe that every natural number which is greater than n is also n or greater.

One can check that every natural number which is (n+1) or greater is also n or greater and every natural number which is greater than (n+1) is also greater than n and every natural number which is greater than n is also (n+1) or greater.

Let m be a non trivial natural number. One can verify that every natural number which is m or greater is also non trivial.

Let a be a positive natural number, m be a natural number, and n be an m or greater natural number. Let us note that a^n is a^m or greater.

Let a be a non trivial natural number. Let n be a greater than m natural number. Let us observe that a^n is greater than a^m and every natural number which is 2 or greater is also non trivial and every natural number which is non trivial is also 2 or greater and every natural number which is non trivial and odd is also greater than 2.

Let n be a greater than 2 natural number. One can verify that n-1 is non trivial.

Let n be a 2 or greater natural number. Let us observe that n-2 is natural. Let m be a non zero natural number and n be an m or greater natural number. One can check that n-1 is natural and every prime natural number which is greater than 2 is also odd.

Let n be a natural number. One can check that there exists a natural number which is greater than n and prime.

4. Pocklington's Theorem Revisited

Let n be a natural number.

A divisor of n is a natural number and is defined by

(Def. 2) $it \mid n$.

Let n be a non trivial natural number. One can check that there exists a divisor of n which is non trivial.

Note that every divisor of n is non zero.

Let n be a positive natural number. One can verify that every divisor of n is positive.

Let n be a non zero natural number. Observe that every divisor of n is n or smaller.

Let us note that there exists a divisor of n which is prime.

Let n be a natural number and q be a divisor of n. Let us note that $\frac{n}{q}$ is natural.

Let s be a divisor of n and q be a divisor of s. Let us note that $\frac{n}{q}$ is natural. Now we state the proposition:

(21) Pocklington's Theorem:

Let us consider a greater than 2 natural number n and a non trivial divisor s of n-1. Suppose

- (i) $s > \sqrt{n}$, and
- (ii) there exists a natural number a such that $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ and for every prime divisor q of s, $\gcd(a^{\frac{n-1}{q}}-1,n)=1$.

Then n is prime.

5. Euler's Criterion

Let a be an integer number and p be a natural number.

Now we state the propositions:

(22) Let us consider a positive natural number p and an integer number a. Then a is quadratic residue modulo p if and only if there exists an integer number x such that $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$. PROOF: If a is quadratic residue

modulo p, then there exists an integer number x such that $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ by [13, (59)], [8, (81)]. \square

(23) 2 is quadratic non residue modulo 3. The theorem is a consequence of (15), (14), and (22).

Let p be a natural number and a be an integer number. The Legendre symbol(a,p) yielding an integer number is defined by the term

(Def. 3)
$$\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \gcd(a,p) = 1 \text{ and } a \text{ is quadratic residue modulo } p \text{ and } p \neq 1, \\ 0, & \text{if } p \mid a, \\ -1, & \text{if } \gcd(a,p) = 1 \text{ and } a \text{ is quadratic non residue modulo } p \text{ and } p \neq 1. \end{cases}$$

Let p be a prime natural number. Note that the Legendre symbol (a,p) is defined by the term

$$(\text{Def. 4}) \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1, \quad \text{ if } \gcd(a,p) = 1 \text{ and } a \text{ is quadratic residue modulo } p, \\ 0, \quad \text{ if } p \mid a, \\ -1, \quad \text{if } \gcd(a,p) = 1 \text{ and } a \text{ is quadratic non residue modulo } p. \end{array} \right.$$

Let p be a natural number. We introduce $(\frac{a}{p})$ as a synonym of the Legendre symbol(a,p).

Let us consider a prime natural number p and an integer number a. Now we state the propositions:

- (24) (i) $(\frac{a}{n}) = 1$, or
 - (ii) $(\frac{a}{p}) = 0$, or
 - (iii) $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$.

PROOF: gcd(a, p) = 1 by [9, (21)]. \Box

- (25) (i) $(\frac{a}{p}) = 1$ iff gcd(a, p) = 1 and a is quadratic residue modulo p, and
 - (ii) $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 0$ iff $p \mid a$, and
 - (iii) $(\frac{a}{p}) = -1$ iff gcd(a, p) = 1 and a is quadratic non residue modulo p. The theorem is a consequence of (6).

Now we state the propositions:

- (26) Let us consider a natural number p. Then $(\frac{p}{p}) = 0$.
- (27) Let us consider an integer number a. Then $(\frac{a}{2}) = a \mod 2$. The theorem is a consequence of (22).

Let us consider a greater than 2 prime natural number p and integer numbers a, b. Now we state the propositions:

- (28) If gcd(a, p) = 1 and gcd(b, p) = 1 and $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$, then $(\frac{a}{p}) = (\frac{b}{p})$.
- (29) If gcd(a, p) = 1 and gcd(b, p) = 1, then $(\frac{a \cdot b}{p}) = (\frac{a}{p}) \cdot (\frac{b}{p})$. Now we state the proposition:
- (30) Let us consider greater than 2 prime natural numbers p, q. Suppose $p \neq q$. Then $(\frac{p}{q}) \cdot (\frac{q}{p}) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}}$. The theorem is a consequence of (4).

Now we state the proposition:

(31) EULER'S CRITERION:

Let us consider a greater than 2 prime natural number p and an integer number a. Suppose gcd(a,p) = 1. Then $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv$ the Legendre symbol $(a,p) \pmod{p}$. The theorem is a consequence of (4).

6. Proth Numbers

Let p be a natural number. We say that p is Proth if and only if

(Def. 5) There exists an odd natural number k and there exists a positive natural number n such that $2^n > k$ and $p = k \cdot 2^n + 1$.

One can check that there exists a natural number which is Proth and prime and there exists a natural number which is Proth and non prime and every natural number which is Proth is also non trivial and odd.

Now we state the propositions:

- (32) 3 is Proth.
- (33) 5 is Proth.
- (34) 9 is Proth.
- (35) 13 is Proth.
- (36) 17 is Proth.
- (37) 641 is Proth.
- (38) 11777 is Proth.
- (39) 13313 is Proth.

Now we state the proposition:

(40) Proth's Theorem - Version 1:

Let us consider a Proth natural number n. Then n is prime if and only if there exists a natural number a such that $a^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$. The theorem is a consequence of (1), (8), (20), (21), (17), (10), (12), and (18).

Now we state the propositions:

(41) Proth's Theorem - Version 2:

Let us consider a 2 or greater natural number l and a positive natural number k. Suppose

- (i) $3 \nmid k$, and
- (ii) $k \le 2^l 1$.

Then $k \cdot 2^l + 1$ is prime if and only if $3^{k \cdot 2^{l-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{k \cdot 2^l + 1}$. The theorem is a consequence of (1), (8), (20), (21), (15), (6), (13), (30), (28), (23), and (31).

(42) 641 is prime. The theorem is a consequence of (40) and (37).

7. Fermat Numbers

Let l be a natural number. Note that Fermat l is Proth. Now we state the propositions:

- (43) Pepin's Theorem:
 - Let us consider a non zero natural number l. Then Fermat l is prime if and only if $3^{\frac{\text{Fermat }l-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \pmod{\text{Fermat }l}$. The theorem is a consequence of (1), (4), and (41).
- (44) Fermat 5 is not prime. The theorem is a consequence of (2).

8. Cullen Numbers

Let n be a natural number. The Cullen number of n yielding a natural number is defined by the term

(Def. 6) $n \cdot 2^n + 1$.

Let n be a non zero natural number. Let us observe that the Cullen number of n is Proth.

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Received June 9, 2014