

SOME PROPERTIES OF A SPECIAL SET OF RECURRING SEQUENCES

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Several number theoretic and identity properties of three special second order recurring sequences are established. These are used to develop a necessary and sufficient condition for any integer of the form $2^n 3^m A - 1$ ($A < 2^{n+1} 3^m - 1$) to be prime. This condition can be easily implemented on a computer.

1. Introduction. Various tests for primality of integers of the form $2^n A - 1$ and $3^n A - 1$ are currently available; for example, Lehmer [2] and Riesel [5] have developed necessary and sufficient conditions for $2^n A - 1$ to be prime when $A < 2^n$ and Williams [6] has given a necessary and sufficient condition for the primality of $2A3^n - 1$ when $A < 4 \cdot 3^n - 1$. Of special concern to Riesel was the determination of the primality of $3A2^n - 1$; in this paper we present a simple necessary and sufficient condition for $2^n 3^m A - 1$ to be prime when $A < 2^{n+1} 3^m - 1$. In order to obtain this result we must first develop some properties of a special set of second order linear recurring sequences.

Let a, b be two integers and put $\alpha = a + b\rho$, $\beta = a + b\rho^2$, where $\rho^2 + \rho + 1 = 0$. We define for any integer n

$$\begin{aligned} R_n &= \frac{\rho\alpha^n - \rho^2\beta^n}{\rho - \rho^2}, \\ S_n &= \frac{\rho^2\alpha^n - \rho\beta^n}{\rho - \rho^2}, \\ T_n &= \frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\rho - \rho^2}. \end{aligned}$$

We see that $R_0 = 1$, $S_0 = -1$, $T_0 = 0$, $R_1 = a - b$, $S_1 = -a$, $T_1 = b$. Putting $G = \alpha + \beta = 2a - b$ and $H = \alpha\beta = a^2 - ab + b^2$, we get

$$(1.1) \quad \begin{aligned} R_{n+2} &= GR_{n+1} - HR_n, \\ S_{n+2} &= GS_{n+1} - HS_n, \\ T_{n+2} &= GT_{n+1} - HT_n. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that R_n, S_n, T_n are integers for any nonnegative integral value of n .

In the next sections of this paper we present a number of identities satisfied by the R_n, S_n, T_n functions. We also develop some of their number theoretic properties. It should be noted that

the function T_n is simply a constant multiple b of the Lucas function $U = (\alpha^n - \beta^n)/(\alpha - \beta)$; hence, many of its properties are easily deduced from the well-known (see, for example, [2]) properties of the Lucas functions.

2. Some identities. We first note that from the definition of R_n, S_n, T_n , we obtain the fundamental identity

$$R_n + S_n + T_n = 0.$$

We can easily verify for any integers m, n that

$$(2.1) \quad \begin{aligned} R_{m+n} &= R_m R_n - T_m T_n, \\ S_{m+n} &= T_m T_n - S_m S_n, \\ T_{m+n} &= S_m S_n - R_m R_n = T_m R_n - S_m T_n = R_m T_n - T_m S_n. \end{aligned}$$

Putting $m = 1$, we get

$$R_{n+1} = aR_n + bS_n, \quad S_{n+1} = (a-b)S_n - bR_n, \quad T_{n+1} = (b-a)R_n - aS_n.$$

Putting $n = m$, we see that

$$(2.2) \quad \begin{aligned} R_{2n} &= -S_n(2R_n + S_n), & S_{2n} &= R_n(2S_n + R_n), \\ T_{2n} &= T_n(R_n - S_n); \end{aligned}$$

also, by using these results and putting $m = 2n$ above, we get

$$\begin{aligned} R_{3n} &= S_n^3 - 3S_n R_n^2 - R_n^3, & S_{3n} &= R_n^3 - 3S_n^2 R_n - S_n^3, \\ T_{3n} &= -3R_n S_n T_n = -(R_n^3 + S_n^3 + T_n^3). \quad (\text{Use } -R_n^3 = (S_n + T_n)^3.) \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$H^n R_{-n} = -S_n, \quad H^n S_{-n} = -R_n, \quad H^n T_{-n} = -T_n,$$

it follows that

$$(2.3) \quad \begin{aligned} H^m R_{n-m} &= T_m T_n - S_m R_n, & H^m S_{n-m} &= R_m S_n - T_m T_n, \\ H^m T_{n-m} &= S_m R_n - R_m S_n = R_m T_n - T_m R_n = T_m S_n - R_m T_n. \end{aligned}$$

If, in the first of these formulas, we put $n = m$, we have $R_0 H^n = T_n^2 - R_n S_n$; hence, we can deduce the following:

$$(2.4) \quad \begin{aligned} T_n^2 - R_n S_n &= R_n^2 - T_n S_n = S_n^2 - T_n R_n = H^n, \\ T_n^2 + R_n T_n + R_n^2 &= R_n^2 + S_n R_n + S_n^2 = S_n^2 + T_n S_n + T_n^2 = H^n, \\ T_n S_n + S_n R_n + R_n T_n &= -H^n. \end{aligned}$$

More generally, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_n^2 - R_{n-m}R_{n+m} &= S_n^2 - S_{n-m}S_{n+m} = T_n^2 - T_{n-m}T_{n+m} = H^{n-m}T_m^2, \\
 R_n^2 - T_{n-m}S_{n+m} &= S_n^2 - R_{n-m}T_{n+m} = T_n^2 - S_{n-m}R_{n+m} = H^{n-m}R_m^2, \\
 R_n^2 - S_{n-m}T_{n+m} &= S_n^2 - T_{n-m}R_{n+m} = T_n^2 - R_{n-m}S_{n+m} = H^{n-m}S_m^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

We also have

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_{n+m}^2 - H^{2m}R_{n-m}^2 &= T_{2m}S_{2n}, \quad S_{n+m}^2 - H^{2m}S_{n-m}^2 = T_{2m}R_{2n}, \\
 T_{n+m}^2 - H^{2m}T_{n-m}^2 &= T_{2m}T_{2n}.
 \end{aligned}$$

A great many other identities satisfied by these functions can be developed; for example, since

$$R_n + S_n + T_n = 0, \quad R_nS_n + S_nT_n + R_nT_n = -H^n,$$

we can use Waring's formula (see, for example, [4] p. 5) to obtain

$$R_n^m + S_n^m + T_n^m = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=0}^{[r/3]} \frac{(r-j-1)!2r}{(2j)!(r-3j)!} H^{(r-3j)n} (R_nS_nT_n)^{2j} & (m = 2r) \\ \sum_{j=0}^{[(r-1)/3]} \frac{(r-1-j)!(2r+1)}{(2j+1)!(r-1-3j)!} H^{(r-1-3j)n} (R_nS_nT_n)^{2j+1} & (m = 2r+1) \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (R_nS_n)^m + (S_nT_n)^m + (T_nR_n)^m \\
 = (-1)^m \sum_{j=0}^{[m/3]} (-1)^j \frac{(m-2j-1)!m}{(m-3j)!j!} H^{n(m-3j)} (R_nS_nT_n)^{2j}
 \end{aligned}$$

for $m > 0$. From these we deduce the rather interesting identities

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_n^4 + S_n^4 + T_n^4 &= 2H^{2n}, \\
 R_n^7 + S_n^7 + T_n^7 &= 7H^{2n}R_nS_nT_n, \\
 R_n^{10} + S_n^{10} + T_n^{10} &= 2H^{5n} + 15H^{2n}R_n^2S_n^2T_n^2, \\
 R_n^5S_n^5 + R_n^5T_n^5 + S_n^5T_n^5 &= 5H^{2n}R_n^2S_n^2T_n^2 - H^{5n}.
 \end{aligned}$$

The following identities are also of some interest:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (S_n(S_n^2 - 3H^n))^3 + (T_n(T_n^2 - 3H^n))^3 + (R_n(R_n^2 - 3H^n))^3 \\
 = 3(R_nS_nT_n)^3, \\
 (R_nS_n(H^n + T_n^2))^4 + (R_nT_n(H^n + S_n^2))^4 + (S_nT_n(H^n + R_n^2))^4 \\
 = H^{8n} + 28H^{2n}(R_nS_nT_n)^4.
 \end{aligned}$$

Both of these formulas can be derived by expanding the powers of the binomials and using the formulas above for expressions of the form $R_n^j + S_n^j + T_n^j$ and $(R_nS_n)^j + (S_nT_n)^j + (T_nR_n)^j$.

If we put $W_n = R_n - S_n$, $X_n = S_n - T_n = 2S_n + R_n$, $Y_n = T_n - R_n = -2R_n - S_n$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
W_n + X_n + Y_n &= 0, \\
3R_n &= W_n - Y_n, & 3S_n &= X_n - W_n, & 3T_n &= Y_n - X_n \\
R_{2n} &= S_n Y_n, & S_{2n} &= R_n X_n, & T_{2n} &= T_n W_n.
\end{aligned}$$

We also have

$$\begin{aligned}
3W_{m+n} &= W_m W_n + Y_m X_n + Y_n X_m, \\
3X_{m+n} &= Y_m Y_n + X_m W_n + W_m X_n, \\
3Y_{m+n} &= X_m X_n + Y_m W_n + W_m Y_n,
\end{aligned}$$

and from these we are able to derive

$$\begin{aligned}
W_{2n} &= (W_n^2 + 2X_n Y_n)/3 = X_n Y_n + H^n = W_n^2 - 2H^n, \\
Y_{2n} &= (X_n^2 + 2W_n Y_n)/3 = W_n Y_n + H^n = X_n^2 - 2H^n, \\
X_{2n} &= (Y_n^2 + 2X_n W_n)/3 = W_n X_n + H^n = Y_n^2 - 2H^n,
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
3X_{3n} &= X_n^3 + 3X_n^2 Y_n - Y_n^3, \\
3Y_{3n} &= Y_n^3 + 3Y_n^2 X_n - X_n^3, \\
W_{3n} &= X_n Y_n W_n.
\end{aligned}$$

Many other identities similar to those satisfied by the R_n , S_n , T_n functions are satisfied by W_n , X_n , Y_n functions.

3. Some number theoretic results. In the discussion that follows we will assume that a and b satisfy the following two properties:

$$\begin{aligned}
(1) \quad & (a, b) = 1, \\
(2) \quad & a \not\equiv -b \pmod{3}.
\end{aligned}$$

It follows from (1) and (2) that $(G, H) = 1$. We can now develop several divisibility properties of the R_n , S_n , T_n functions. We will also assume in what follows that n , m represent positive integers.

LEMMA 1. For any n , $(R_n, H) = (S_n, H) = (T_n, H) = 1$.

Proof. If p is any prime divisor of R_n and H , then by (1.1) p is a divisor of R_{n-1} . By continuing this reasoning, we see that $p|R_1$. If $p|R_1$ and $p|H$, then $R_0 = 1$ and $p|G$, which is impossible. In the same way we see that $(S_n, H) = 1$. Also, if $p|(T_n, H)$, then by

the above reasoning $p|T_1 = b$. Since $p|H$, we have $p|a$ and consequently $p|G$.

LEMMA 2. For any n , $(R_n, S_n) = (S_n, T_n) = (T_n, R_n) = 1$.

Proof. If p is any prime divisor of any two of R_n, S_n, T_n , then by (2.4) p must divide H , which is impossible by the preceding lemma.

Since T_n is a simple multiple of the Lucas function U_n , $\{T_n\}$ is divisibility sequence, i.e., $T_n|T_m$ whenever $n|m$. The analogous properties of R_n and S_n are given in

THEOREM 1. Suppose $n|m$. If $m/n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, then $R_n|R_m$ and $S_n|S_m$; if $m/n \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, then $R_n|S_m, S_n|R_m$; if $m/n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, then $R_n|T_m, S_n|T_m$.

Proof. From the identities of §1 we see that $R_n|S_{2n}, S_n|R_{2n}, R_n|T_{3n}, S_n|T_{3n}$. Now since $T_{3n}|T_{3kn}$,

$$\begin{aligned} R_{(3k+t)n} &= R_{3kn}R_{tn} - T_{3kn}T_{tn} \\ &\equiv R_{3kn}R_{tn} \pmod{R_nS_n}. \end{aligned}$$

If $t = 1$, $R_n|R_{(3k+1)n}$; if $t = 2$, $S_n|R_{(3k+2)n}$. The remaining results are proved in a similar manner.

Let $T_{\omega(m)}$ be the first term of the sequence

$$T_1, T_2, T_3, \dots, T_n,$$

in which m occurs as a factor. We will call $\omega = \omega(m)$ the "rank of apparition" of m . From the theory of Lucas functions, it follows that if $m|T_n$, then $\omega(m)|n$ and consequently that $(T_m, T_n) = T_{(m,n)}$. We also have the result that if $(H, m) = 1$, then $\omega(m)$ always exists.

We now define $\omega_1 = \omega_1(m)$ and $\omega_2 = \omega_2(m)$ as analogues of $\omega(m)$. We say for a given m that R_{ω_1} and S_{ω_2} are respectively the first term of the sequences

$$\{R_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{ and } \{S_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{ which } m \text{ divides.}$$

It is not in general true that $\omega_1(m)$ or $\omega_2(m)$ exist for any m such that $(m, H) = 1$. In the results that follow we give some characterization of those values of m such that $\omega_1(m)$ or $\omega_2(m)$ do exist. In Theorems 2, 3, 4, and Lemma 3 we give results concerning R_n and ω_1 only; however, analogous results involving S_n and ω_2 for each of these are also true and their proofs are similar.

THEOREM 2. If $(m, H) = 1$ and ω_1 exists, then ω_2 exists, $3|\omega$, $\omega_1 = \omega/3$ or $2\omega/3$, and $\omega_1 + \omega_2 = \omega$.

Proof. Suppose $\omega_1 \geq \omega$. We have

$$\omega_1 = q\omega + r \quad (0 \leq r < \omega \leq \omega_1)$$

and

$$0 \equiv R_{\omega_1} = R_{q\omega}R_r - T_{q\omega}T_r \equiv R_{q\omega}R_r \pmod{m}.$$

Since $m|T_{q\omega}$ and $(T_{q\omega}, R_{q\omega}) = 1$, we see that $m|R_r$, which is impossible. Thus, $\omega_1 < \omega$.

Since $m|T_{3\omega_1}$, we must have $\omega|3\omega_1$; since $\omega > \omega_1$, we see that $3|\omega$ and $\omega_1 = \omega/3$ or $2\omega/3$. Now

$$H^{\omega_1}S_{\omega-\omega_1} = S_{\omega}R_{\omega_1} - T_{\omega}T_{\omega_1} \equiv 0 \pmod{m};$$

thus, $m|S_{\omega-\omega_1}$ and $\omega_2 \leq \omega - \omega_1 < \omega$. Since as with ω_1 , $m|T_{3\omega_2}$, it follows that $\omega|3\omega_2$, so $\omega_2 = \omega/3$ or $2\omega/3$. Now if $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = \omega/3$ or $2\omega/3$, then $R_{\omega_1} + S_{\omega_1} + T_{\omega_1} = 0$ implies $m|T_{\omega_1}$, which is a contradiction since $\omega_1 < \omega$. Thus, since $\omega_1 \neq \omega_2$, we must have $\omega_1 + \omega_2 = \omega$.

THEOREM 3. *If $(m, H) = 1$ and $m|R_n$, then ω_1 exists and either $\omega_1|n$ and $n/\omega_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ or $\omega_2|n$, $\omega_2 = \omega_1/2$ and $n/\omega_2 \equiv -1 \pmod{6}$.*

Proof. Let $n = 3\omega_1q + r$ ($0 \leq r < 3\omega_1$); then

$$0 \equiv R_n = R_{3\omega_1q}R_r - T_{3\omega_1q}T_r \equiv R_{3\omega_1q}R_r \pmod{m}$$

and $m|R_r$. We now distinguish two cases.

Case 1. $\omega_1 = \omega/3$. Here we have $r < \omega$ and $3r < 3\omega$. Since $m|T_{3r}$, we see that $3r = \omega$ or 2ω . If $3r = 2\omega$, then $r = \omega_2$, which, since $(R_r, S_r) = 1$, is impossible. Thus, $r = \omega/3 = \omega_1$, $\omega_1|n$ and $n/\omega_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

Case 2. $\omega_1 = 2\omega/3$. In this case we see that $r < 2\omega$ and $3r < 6\omega$. Thus, $3r$ is one of ω , 2ω , 4ω , 5ω . If $3r = \omega$ or 4ω , then $r = \omega_2$ or $4\omega_2$. Since $(R_r, S_r) = 1$, this is impossible. Thus $r = \omega_1$ or $\omega + \omega_1$. If $r = \omega_1$, we have $\omega_1|n$ and $n/\omega_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$; if $r = \omega + \omega_1$, then $n = 3\omega_1q + \omega + \omega_1 = 6\omega_2q + 3\omega_2 + 2\omega_2 = (6q + 5)\omega_2$.

COROLLARY. *Under the conditions of Theorem 3, we must have $n \equiv \omega_1 \pmod{3^{\nu+1}}$, where $3^{\nu}||\omega_1$, $\nu \geq 0$.*

THEOREM 4. *If m and n are integers such that $(m, n) = 1$, then $\omega_1(mn)$ exists if and only if $\omega_1(m)$ and $\omega_1(n)$ exist and $\omega_1(m) \equiv \omega_1(n) \pmod{3^{\nu+1}}$, where $3^{\nu}||\omega_1(m)$, $\nu \geq 0$.*

Proof. Suppose $\Omega_1 = \omega_1(mn)$ exists; then clearly $\omega_1 = \omega_1(m)$ and $\omega_1^* = \omega_1(n)$ exist and

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_1 &\equiv \omega_1 \pmod{3^{\nu+1}} & (3^\nu \parallel \omega_1), \\ \Omega_1 &\equiv \omega_1^* \pmod{3^{\nu^*+1}} & (3^{\nu^*} \parallel \omega_1^*). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $\nu = \nu^*$ and $\omega_1 \equiv \omega_1^* \pmod{3^{\nu+1}}$.

If ω_1 and ω_1^* exist and $\omega_1 \equiv \omega_1^* \pmod{3^{\nu+1}}$ ($3^\nu \parallel \omega_1$), put $\Omega = [\omega_1, \omega_1^*]$. We see that

$$\frac{\Omega}{\omega_1} \equiv \frac{\Omega}{\omega_1^*} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}.$$

If $\Omega/\omega_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, then $R_\Omega \equiv 0 \pmod{mn}$; if $\Omega/\omega_1 \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, then $S_\Omega \equiv R_{2\Omega} \equiv 0 \pmod{mn}$. In either case we see that $\omega_1(mn)$ must exist.

In order to continue our discussion of the existence of $\omega_1(m)$ and $\omega_2(m)$ it is necessary to consider the question of the existence of $\omega_1(p^n)$, $\omega_2(p^n)$, where p is a prime. This is done in the next section.

4. Some results modulo p . From the theory of Lucas functions we know that if $p^\lambda > 2$, and $p^\lambda \parallel T_n$ then $p^{\lambda+\nu} \parallel T_{np^\nu}$; also, if $p^\lambda = 2$ and $2 \mid T_n$, then $4 \mid T_{2n}$. We will attempt to discover similar results for R_n and S_n . We must deal with the special case $p = 3$ separately.

LEMMA 3. *If $3^\nu \parallel R_m$ when $\nu \geq 1$, then $3^\nu \parallel R_{m_n}$ when $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$; otherwise, $3 \nmid R_{m_n}$.*

Proof. Certainly $3^\nu \parallel R_{m_n}$ when $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ (Theorem 1); suppose $3^{\nu+1} \mid R_{m_n}$. Now $3^{\nu+2} \mid T_{9m}$ and $3^{\nu+2} \mid T_{3mn}$; hence, $3^{\nu+2} \mid T_{3m} = (T_{9m}, T_{3mn})$, which is impossible. If $3 \mid R_{m_n}$ when $n \not\equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, then since $3 \mid R_m$, we have $3 \mid (T_m, R_m)$ or $3 \mid (R_m, S_m)$, neither of which is possible.

We deal now with any prime $p \neq 3$.

THEOREM 5. *Let p be any prime which is not 3 and suppose $\lambda > 1$. If $p^\lambda \neq 2$ and $p^\lambda \parallel R_m$, then $p^{\lambda+\nu} \parallel R_{mp^\nu}$ when $p^\nu \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ and $p^{\lambda+\nu} \parallel S_{mp^\nu}$ when $p^\nu \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$. If $p^\lambda \neq 2$ and $p^\lambda \parallel S_m$, then $p^{\lambda+\nu} \parallel S_{mp^\nu}$ when $p^\nu \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$ and $p^{\lambda+\nu} \parallel R_{mp^\nu}$ when $p^\nu \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. If $2 \mid R_m$, then $4 \mid S_{2m}$; if $2 \mid S_m$, then $4 \mid R_{2m}$.*

Proof. From the definitions of R_n and S_n it is easy to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^2 S_{mp} - \rho R_{mp} &= (\rho^2 S_m - \rho R_m)^p, \\ \rho S_{mp} - \rho^2 R_{mp} &= (\rho S_m - \rho^2 R_m)^p. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose $p \neq 2$. If $p^\lambda \parallel R_m$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^2 S_{mp} - \rho R_{mp} &\equiv \rho^{2p} S_m^p - p \rho^{2p-1} R_m S_m^{p-1} \pmod{p^{\lambda+2}}, \\ \rho S_{mp} - \rho^2 R_{mp} &\equiv \rho^p S_m^p - p \rho^{p+1} R_m S_m^{p-1} \pmod{p^{\lambda+2}}; \end{aligned}$$

therefore,

$$R_{mp} \equiv p R_m S_m^{p-1} \pmod{p^{\lambda+2}} \quad \text{when } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

and

$$S_{mp} \equiv p R_m S_m^{p-1} \pmod{p^{\lambda+2}} \quad \text{when } p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}.$$

We get similar results when $p^\lambda \parallel S_m$. Thus the theorem is true for $\nu = 1$. That it is true for a general ν can be easily shown by induction on ν . When $p = 2$ we prove the theorem by using the identities (2.2).

When $p \neq 3$, we see that $\omega_1(p^n)$ and $\omega_2(p^n)$ both exist when $\omega_1(p)$ and $\omega_2(p)$ exist. We need now only consider the problem of when $\omega_1(p)$, $\omega_2(p)$ exist. Since $3 \mid T_3$, we see that $\omega_1(3^n)$ exists only if $3^n \mid R_1$ or $3^n \mid S_1$ and similarly for $\omega_2(3^n)$.

Let $p (\neq 3)$ be a prime. If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, let

$$\pi = r + s\rho,$$

where $r \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, $3 \mid s$ and $N(\pi) = \pi\bar{\pi} = r^2 - sr + s^2 = p$; if $p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, let $\pi = \bar{\pi} = p$, $N(\pi) = p^2$. We have π a prime in the Eisenstein field $Q(\rho)$ and we define $[\mu|\pi]$ to the cubic character of $\mu \in Q[\rho]$ modulo π . That is

$$\mu^{(N(\pi)-1)/3} \equiv \left[\frac{\mu}{\pi} \right] \pmod{\pi}$$

and

$$\left[\frac{\mu}{\pi} \right] = 1, \quad \rho, \quad \text{or} \quad \rho^2.$$

THEOREM 6. *If $p \equiv \varepsilon \pmod{3}$, where $|\varepsilon| = 1$, and $[H\alpha|\pi] = \rho^\eta$, then $p \mid R_{(p-\varepsilon)/3}$ when $\eta = 2$, $p \mid S_{(p-\varepsilon)/3}$ when $\eta = 1$, and $\rho \mid T_{(p-\varepsilon)/3}$ when $\eta = 0$.*

Proof. We consider two possible cases.

Case 1. $\varepsilon = +1$. In this case $N(\pi) = p$,

$$\alpha^p \equiv \alpha \pmod{p}, \quad \text{and} \quad (\alpha H)^{(p-1)/3} \equiv \rho^\eta \pmod{\pi};$$

hence,

$$\alpha^{2(p-1)/3}\beta^{(p-1)/3} \equiv \rho^\eta \pmod{\pi}$$

and

$$\alpha^{(p-1)/3} \equiv \rho^{2\eta}\beta^{(p-1)/3} \pmod{\pi}.$$

The theorem follows easily from this result and the definition of R_n, S_n and T_n .

Case 2. $\varepsilon = -1$. In this case $N(\pi) = p^2, \alpha^p \equiv \beta \pmod{p}$,

$$(\alpha H)^{(p^2-1)/3} \equiv \alpha^{(p^2-1)/3} \equiv (\alpha^{p-1})^{(p+1)/3} \equiv (\beta/\alpha)^{(p+1)/3} \pmod{p}.$$

It follows that

$$\alpha^{(p+1)/3} \equiv \rho^{2\eta}\beta^{(p+1)/3} \pmod{p}.$$

If $\eta = 0$ and $p \not\equiv \varepsilon \pmod{9}$, then $\omega_1(p)$ and $\omega_2(p)$ can not exist; for, in this case, $\omega \mid (p - \varepsilon)/3$ and $3 \nmid \omega$. If, on the other hand, $\eta \neq 0$, then ω_1 and ω_2 do exist and

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_1 &\equiv 2\eta(p - \varepsilon)/3 \pmod{3^v} \\ \omega_2 &\equiv \eta(p - \varepsilon)/3 \pmod{3^v} \end{aligned}$$

where $3^v \parallel p - \varepsilon$. The question of whether $\omega_1 = 2\omega_2$ or $\omega_1 = \omega_2/2$ seems to be rather difficult. We can give some simple results on this but we first require

THEOREM 7. *If p is a prime such that $p \equiv \varepsilon \pmod{6}$, $|\varepsilon| = 1$, $\lambda = (p - \varepsilon)/6$, and $\sigma = (H \mid p)$ (Legendre symbol), then one and only one of $W_\lambda, X_\lambda, Y_\lambda, R_\lambda, S_\lambda, T_\lambda$ is divisible by p and that one is given in the table below according to the value of σ and η .*

$\sigma \backslash \eta$	0	1	2
-1	W_λ	X_λ	Y_λ
1	T_λ	R_λ	S_λ

Proof. If $\varepsilon = 1, \alpha^{p-\varepsilon} \equiv \beta^{p-\varepsilon} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$; if $\varepsilon = -1, \alpha^{p-\varepsilon} \equiv \beta^{p-\varepsilon} \equiv \alpha\beta = H \pmod{p}$; hence, we easily obtain the result that

$$R_{6\lambda} \equiv H^{(1-\varepsilon)/2}, \quad S_{6\lambda} \equiv -H^{(1-\varepsilon)/2}, \quad T_{6\lambda} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Thus, $W_{6\lambda} \equiv 2H^{(1-\varepsilon)/2}$ and

$$2H^{(1-\varepsilon)/2} \equiv W_{3\lambda}^2 - 2H^{(p-\varepsilon)/2} \equiv W_{3\lambda}^2 - 2\sigma H^{(1-\varepsilon)/2} \pmod{p}.$$

If $\sigma = -1$, then $p \mid W_{3\lambda}$ and since

$$W_n^2 + 3T_n^2 = 4H^n,$$

$p \nmid T_{3\lambda}$. Now $p \mid W_\lambda X_\lambda Y_\lambda$ and the prime p can divide only one of W_λ , X_λ or Y_λ ; for, if it divided any two of these it would divide the third. It follows that it would also divide R_λ , S_λ , and T_λ , which is impossible. If $p \mid W_\lambda$, then $p \mid T_{2\lambda}$ and $\eta = 0$; if $p \mid X_\lambda$, then $p \mid S_{2\lambda}$ and $\eta = 1$; if $p \mid Y_\lambda$, then $p \mid R_{2\lambda}$ and $\eta = 2$.

If $\sigma = 1$, then $p \nmid W_{3\lambda}$ and since $T_{6\lambda} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, we must have $p \mid T_{3\lambda}$; thus, $p \mid T_\lambda S_\lambda R_\lambda$. If $p \mid T_\lambda$, then $p \mid T_{2\lambda}$ and $\eta = 0$; if $p \mid S_\lambda$ then $p \mid R_{2\lambda}$ and $\eta = 2$; if $p \mid R_\lambda$, then $p \mid S_{2\lambda}$ and $\eta = 1$.

When p is a prime, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$, and $(H \mid p) = 1$, we can obtain a further refinement of the results of Theorem 7. We first require

LEMMA 4. *If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$, $\alpha = a + b\rho$, $p \nmid a^2 - ab + b^2$, $\pi_p = r + s\rho$ and $\tau = (as - br \mid p)$ (Legendre symbol), then in $\mathbb{Q}(\rho)$*

$$\alpha^{(p-1)/2} \equiv \tau \pmod{\pi_p}.$$

Proof. The proof of this result is completely analogous to the proof given by Dirichlet [1] of a similar result concerning the value of $\alpha^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{\pi}$, when $\alpha, \pi \in \mathbb{Q}(i)$, $i^2 = -1$.

THEOREM 8. *Let p be a prime such that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$, $(H \mid p) = 1$, $\pi_p = r + s\rho$. If $\tau = (as - br \mid p)$, $\nu = \tau(H \mid p)_4$, and $\mu = (p - 1)/12$, then one and only one of $W_\mu, X_\mu, Y_\mu, R_\mu, S_\mu, T_\mu$ is divisible by p and that one is given in the table below according to the value of ν and η .*

$\eta \backslash \nu$	0	1	2
-1	W_μ	Y_μ	X_μ
1	T_μ	S_μ	R_μ

Proof. Since $W_{(p-1)/2} = \alpha^{(p-1)/2} + \beta^{(p-1)/2}$ and $\alpha^{(p-1)/2} \beta^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, we see that $W_{(p-1)/2} \equiv 2\tau \pmod{\pi_p}$ and consequently $W_{(p-1)/2} \equiv 2\tau \pmod{p}$.

Now

$$W_{(p-1)/2} = W_{(p-1)/4}^2 - 2H^{(p-1)/4};$$

thus, $p \mid W_{3\mu}$ when $\nu = -1$ and $p \mid T_{3\mu}$ when $\nu = 1$.

The remainder of the theorem follows by using reasoning similar to that used in the proof of Theorem 7.

Using Theorem 7, we see that if $\eta \neq 0$, $\sigma = -1$, and if $(p - \varepsilon)/3$ has no prime divisors which are of the form $6t - 1$, then $\omega_1 = \omega_2/2$

when $\eta = 2$ and $\omega_2 = \omega_1/2$ when $\eta = 1$. For suppose $\eta = 2$, $\sigma = -1$ and $2\lambda = (p - \varepsilon)/3$. Since $Y_\lambda \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ we see that $S_\lambda \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $R_{2\lambda} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

Hence

$$2\lambda = \omega_1(3k + 1),$$

or

$$2\lambda = \omega_2(6k - 1), \quad \text{where } \omega_1 = 2\omega_2.$$

Since no prime factor of the form $6t - 1$ divides λ , we must have

$$2\lambda = \omega_1(3k + 1).$$

If $\omega_1 = 2\omega_2$, $\lambda = (3k + 1)\omega_2$ and $p|S_\lambda$ which is not so; thus, $\omega_1 = \omega_2/2$.

5. Primality testing and pseudoprimes. In this section we require the symbol $[A + B\rho|C + D\rho]$ of Williams and Holte [7]. In [7] it is shown how this symbol may be easily evaluated. It is also pointed out that if $C + D\rho$ is a prime of $Q(\rho)$, then $[A + B\rho|C + D\rho]$ is the cubic character of $A + B\rho$ modulo $C + D\rho$. We are now able to give the main result of this paper.

THEOREM 9. *Let $N = 2^n 3^m A - 1$, where $n > 1$, A is odd, and $A < 2^{n+1} 3^m - 1$. If $(H|N) = -1$ (Jacobi symbol), $[a + b\rho|N] = \rho^\eta$ ($\eta \neq 0$), then N is a prime if and only if*

$$X_L \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \quad \text{when } \eta = 1$$

or

$$Y_L \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \quad \text{when } \eta = 2.$$

Here $L = (N + 1)/6$.

Proof. If N is a prime, $[a + b\rho|N]$ is the cubic character of αH modulo N ; hence, $N|X_L$ when $\eta = 1$ and $N|Y_L$ when $\eta = 2$.

If $N|X_L$, then $N|T_{6L}$. If p is any prime divisor of T_{2L} or T_{3L} , then p must divide one of T_L, W_L, R_L, S_L . From the simple identities which relate R_k, S_k, T_k to W_k, X_k, Y_k , we see that if $p|X_L$, then p must divide two of R_L, S_L , and T_L , which is impossible; hence $(N, T_{2L}) = (N, T_{3L}) = 1$. Let p be any prime divisor of N and let $\omega = \omega(p)$. We have $\omega|6L$ but $\omega \nmid 2L$ and $\omega \nmid 3L$; thus, $2^n|\omega$ and $3^m|\omega$. Since $\omega|p \pm 1$, we have

$$p = 2^n 3^m u \pm 1.$$

Since $N = pS$ for some S , we have $S = 2^n 3^m v \pm 1$ and $A = 2^n 3^m uv \pm$

$(v - u)$. Now A is odd and $n > 1$; hence, one of u, v must be even and $A \geq 2^{n+1}3^m - 1$, which is not possible; thus, N is a prime. Similarly, it can be shown that if $N|Y_L$, then N is a prime.

This criterion for the primality of N can be easily implemented on a computer by making use of the identities

$$\begin{aligned} R_{2k} &= -S_k(2R_k + S_k) \\ S_{2k} &= R_k(2S_k + R_k) \\ R_{k+1} &= aR_k + bS_k \\ S_{k+1} &= (a - b)S_k - bR_k. \end{aligned}$$

The values of a, b can be easily found by trial and then R_L, S_L determined modulo N by using the above identities in conjunction with a power technique such as that of Lehmer [3].

It is of some interest to determine whether there exist composite values of $N = 2^n 3^m A - 1$ such that $A \geq 2^{n+1}3^m - 1$, $[a + b\rho|N] = \rho^\eta$, $\eta \neq 0$, $(H|N) = -1$, and

$$X_L \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \quad \text{when } \eta = 1$$

or

$$Y_L \equiv 0 \pmod{N} \quad \text{when } \eta = 2 \quad (L = (N + 1)/6).$$

Such values of N can be considered as a type of pseudoprime. In fact, if $N \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, $[H(a + b\rho)|N] = \rho^\eta$, $\sigma = (H|N)$, we define N to be an α -pseudoprime to base $a + b\rho$ if it divides the appropriate entry of Table 1 with $\lambda = (N + 1)/6$. For example, if $\sigma = -1$, $\rho = 2$, N is an α -pseudoprime if

$$Y_{(N+1)/6} \equiv 0 \pmod{N}.$$

A systematic search of all composite α -pseudoprimes ($< 10^8$) to base $2 + 3\rho$ produced the following:

$$\begin{array}{lll} N = 5777 = 53 \cdot 109 & \eta = 1, & \sigma = 1, \\ N = 31877 = 127 \cdot 251 & \eta = 0, & \sigma = -1, \\ N = 513197 = 41 \cdot 12517 & \eta = 0, & \sigma = -1, \\ N = 915983 = 47 \cdot 19489 & \eta = 1, & \sigma = 1. \end{array}$$

None of these has both $\sigma = -1$ and $\eta \neq 0$. Such α -pseudoprimes seem to be rather rare; however, they do exist. For example, let q, p_1 , be primes such that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, $p_1 = 6q - 1$ and select a, b such that $[a + b\rho|p_1] = \rho^2$ and $(H|p_1) = -1$. If p_2 is prime such that $p_2 \equiv 13 \pmod{36}$, $(p_2, p_1(2b - a)) = 1$ and $Y_q \equiv 0 \pmod{p_2}$, then $N = p_1 p_2$ is an α -pseudoprime to base $a + b\rho$ and

$$N \mid X_{(N+1)/6} ,$$

$(N \mid H) = -1, [a + b\rho \mid N] = \rho$. To prove this we first note that $p_1 \mid Y_q$ and $p_2 \mid Y_q$; hence, $N \mid Y_q$. We also have $p_2 \mid R_{2q}, p_2 \nmid S_q$ and $p_2 \nmid R_2 = Y_1 S_1$; therefore, $\omega_1(p_2) = 2q, \omega_2(p_2) = 4q$ and $\omega(p_2) = 6q$. Since $\omega(p_2) \mid p_2 - 1$, we see that $12q \mid p_2 - 1$ and $(p_2 - 1)/12q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$; consequently, $R_{(p_2-1)/6} \equiv 0 \pmod{p_2}, (H \mid p_2) = +1$, and $[H(a + b\rho) \mid \pi_2] = \rho$. Now $p_1 p_2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{6q}$ and $(p_1 p_2 + 1)/6q \equiv -1 \pmod{6}$; hence,

$$X_{(p_1 p_2 + 1)/6} \equiv 0 \pmod{p_1 p_2} ,$$

$(H \mid p_1 p_2) = (H \mid p_1)(H \mid p_2) = -1$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \left[\frac{a + b\rho}{p_1 p_2} \right] &= \left[\frac{a + b\rho}{p_1} \right] \left[\frac{H(a + b\rho)}{\pi_2} \right] \left[\frac{H(a + b\rho)}{\bar{\pi}_2} \right] = \left[\frac{(a + b\rho)^2(a + b\rho^2)}{\bar{\pi}_2} \right] \\ &= \left[\frac{(a + b\rho^2)^2(a + b\rho)}{\pi_2} \right] = \left[\frac{(a + b\rho)^2(a + b\rho^2)}{\pi_2} \right]^{-1} = \rho . \end{aligned}$$

If we put $q = 5449, p_1 = 32693, a = 2, b = 3$, we have $(H \mid p_1) = -1, [a + b\rho \mid p_1] = \rho^2$. We also find that the prime 653881 divides Y_{5449} ; hence, $N = 32693 \cdot 653881 = 21377331533$ is an α -pseudoprime to base $2 + 3\rho$ and $N \mid X_{(N+1)/6}$.

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