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A REVERSE SIERPIŃSKI NUMBER PROBLEM

DAN KRYWARUCZENKO

ABSTRACT. A generalized Sierpiński number base b is an integer $k > 1$ for which $gcd(k+1, b-1) = 1$, k is not a rational power of b, and $k \cdot b^n + 1$ is composite for all $n > 0$. Given an integer $k > 0$, we will seek a base b for which k is a generalized Sierpinski number base b . We will show that this is not possible if k is a Mersenne number. We will give an algorithm which will work for all other k provided that there exists a composite in the sequence $\{(k^{2^m}+1)/\gcd(k+1,2)\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$.

1. introduction

A Sierpinski number $k > 0$ is an odd number such that $k \cdot 2^n + 1$ is composite for all integers $n > 0$. Waclaw Sierpiński, in 1960, proved that there are infinitely many such numbers [12] but found no exact values. (This is a dual of a problem of Euler that Erdös solved in $1950 \; [6]$.) In 1962 John Selfridge discovered what may be the smallest Sierpinski number, 78,557. He showed that each term in the sequence $78557 \cdot 2^n + 1$ is divisible by one of the primes in the covering set $\{3, 5, 7, 13, 19, 37, 73\}$. After 45 years of computing there remains only 6 possible numbers less than 78,557 that must be eliminated to prove this is true [9].

In our previous paper $[1]$, we extended the definition of Sierpinski numbers to include other bases (as below) and found Sierpinski numbers for each of the bases $2 \leq b \leq 100$. We proved that for 33 of the bases, these were the least possible Sierpiński numbers.

Definition 1.1. A Sierpinski number base b is an integer $k > 1$ for which $gcd(k+1, b-1) = 1$, k is not a rational power of b, and $k \cdot b^n + 1$ is composite for all $n > 0$.

The gcd condition is to avoid having a single prime which divides every term of the sequence; these are called trivial covers (or 1-covers). The rational power condition avoids numbers of the form $b^{2^n} + 1$, the generalized Fermat numbers. Some researchers do not exclude these and instead exclude those k which allow polynomial factorization [8]. Others have generalized the notion of Sierpinski numbers by altering the conditions on k without changing the base b [11, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7].

Key words and phrases. Sierpiński number, covering set, generalized Fermat number, Mersenne number.

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Definition 1.2. A cover for the sequence $k \cdot b^n + 1$ $(n > 0)$ is a finite set of primes $S = \{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_m\}$ for which each element of the sequence is divisible by a prime in S . S is called a **N-cover** if N is the least positive integer for which each prime in S divides $k \cdot b^n + 1$ if and only if it divides $k \cdot b^{n+N}+1$. We will call this integer N the **period of the cover** S.

In our previous paper we showed that every integer base $b > 1$ admitted a Sierpinski number k . In this paper we will reverse the problem and ask for each integer $k > 1$ is there a base b for which k is a Sierpinski number.

Using a program to find Sierpinski numbers for small bases [1] we found that every positive integer less than 3000 is a Sierpinski number (with a cover with period dividing 5040) for some base less than 10,000,000 except for $k = 2, 3, 5, 7, 15, 31, 63, 65, 127, 255, 511, 1023,$ and 2047.

A Mersenne is a number of the form $2^m - 1$ where (e.g., $2^8 - 1$). We will show that when k is a Mersenne number, $k \cdot b^n + 1$ can not have a non-trivial cover. Most Sierpinski numbers arise through covers, though it is also possible for them to arise by algebraic factorization or a combination of the two [1]. But it is very unlikely that such factorizations arise when k is a Mersenne [8, 10]. Once we eliminate the Mersenne numbers from the list above we are left with 2, 5, and 65.

It was conjectured that there is no base which makes 2 a Sierpinski number [13]. We will find bases for which 2, 5, and 65 are Sierpinski numbers, and then characterize those k which cannot be Sierpinski numbers.

2. Preliminary Theorems

Theorem 2.1. Suppose $k \cdot b^n + 1$ has a cover S with period N. Then each prime in S divides $(-k)^N - 1$ and $b^N - 1$.

Proof. Let S be such a cover and let $p \in S$. Then p divides $k \cdot b^n + 1$ for some n with $1 \leq n \leq N$. Since N is our period and $p \in S$ we know p divides $k \cdot b^n + 1$, $k \cdot b^{n+N} + 1$, and their difference $k \cdot b^n (b^N - 1)$, but does not divide $k \cdot b^n$. So $b^N \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Now $k \cdot b^n + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ so $k \equiv -b^{-n} \pmod{p}$ and $(-k)^N \equiv (b^{-n})^N \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Notice 2 cannot be a member of a non-trivial cover because if 2 divides $k \cdot b^n + 1$ and 2 divides $b^N - 1$, then 2 divides $gcd(b-1, k+1)$.

Theorem 2.2. If k is a Mersenne number and $n \geq 0$, then $k \cdot b^n + 1$ cannot have a non-trivial cover.

Proof. We will prove the contrapositive. Let S be a non-trivial cover of $k \cdot b^n + 1$ with period N. Then there is some odd prime $p \in S$ which divides $k \cdot b^N + 1$. By the previous theorem, $b^N \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, so p divides $k+1$. This means $k+1$ has an odd prime divisor. Therefore, $k+1$ is not a power of 2. \Box

These theorem suggests the following approach to finding a base b which makes k a Sierpinski number. First, select a period N for the cover. Then

factor $(-k)^N - 1$. Using each of its prime divisors p, we would find a specific b value such that p divides $b^N - 1$, but not $b - 1$, and p divides $k \cdot b^n + 1$ for some $n \leq N$. If this is possible, then a list could be formed showing the specific b values and n values satisfying the requirements for each prime. After repeating this for each prime, determine whether there is a set of bases and primes such that the entire set of N terms would be covered. If so, we then solve the problem by using the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

We used this method to solve for b when $k = 12$. We have $(-12)^6 - 1 =$ $7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 19 \cdot 157$. Using the primes 7, 13, and 19 coupled respectively with base residues 4, 3, and 7 for b, the Chinese Remainder Theorem gave the result $b = 900$. The primes in the cover $\{7, 13, 19\}$ divide the sequence of terms $12 \cdot 900^n + 1$ with period 3 in the following pattern.

$$
[7, 19, 13, 7, 19, 13, \ldots
$$

 $\overline{}$ $\overline{\$ However, with $k = 2$ we ran into difficulties. The approach appeared to fail for all periods $N \leq 60$. For example, when we set our period at 60 (a smooth number which is likely to yield results), we cover either $2 \cdot b^{15} + 1$ or $2 \cdot b^{45} + 1$ but not both. When we set the period at 48, this process would fail at one of these specific *n* values: $\{3, 9, 17, 15, 21, 27, 33, 39, 41, 45\}$. The key problem is that $k \cdot b^n + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ may be impossible to solve for a certain k , n , and p ; so we will give an alternative approach in the next section.

3. Period length a power of two

We need a few more results before we present our alternate method.

Theorem 3.1. If $n > m \ge 0$, then $gcd(k^{2^m} + 1, k^{2^n} + 1) = gcd(k + 1, 2)$.

Proof. Note $k^{2^m} + 1$ is one of the terms on the left of

$$
(k-1)(k+1)(k2+1)\cdot\ldots\cdot(k2n-1+1)=k2n-1=(k2n+1)-2,
$$

so $gcd(k^{2^m} + 1, k^{2^n} + 1)$ divides 2. If k is even then the greatest common divisor is one; otherwise it is 2.

Theorem 3.2. If $n > 0$ and $k > 1$, then $k^{2^n} + 1$ has an odd prime factor.

Proof. If k is even, then $k^{2^n} + 1$ is an odd number greater than 1, so we are done. If instead k is odd, then $gcd(k^{2^n} + 1, 4) = 2$ and $(k^{2^n} + 1)/2$ is an odd number greater than or equal to 5, so again it has an odd prime factor.

Theorem 3.3. Let p be an odd prime which divides $k^{2^m} + 1$ for some fixed integer $m > 0$. For all odd integers n it is possible to solve $k \cdot b^n + 1 \equiv 0$ (mod p) for a solution $b = (-k)^j$. This solution satisfies $k \cdot b^M + 1 \equiv 0$ p if and only if ord_p (b) divides $M - n$.

Proof. Let $m > 0$. From what we are given $(-k)^{2^m} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$, hence $(-k)^{2^{m+1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. So we know $-k$ has order 2^{m+1} modulo p. To solve $k \cdot b^n + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ for b, let $b = (-k)^j$ for some $j \ge 0$ and solve

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 $(-k)^{j \cdot n+1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. It is sufficient to solve $j \cdot n+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p(-k)}$ which is possible because *n* and the order of $-k \pmod{p}$ are relatively prime. Note that j must be odd, so the solution b has order 2^{m+1} also. \square

We are now able to present our new approach as Algorithm 1.

1 input $k > 1$ 2 if k is a Mersenne number then 3 **return** "[probably] not possible" 4 else $5 \mid m \leftarrow -1$ 6 repeat 7 | $m \leftarrow m + 1$ $p_m \leftarrow$ the least odd prime which divides $k^{2^m}+1$ 9 $\mid n \leftarrow 2^m + 1$ 10 | solve $k \cdot b_m^n + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p_m}$ for b_m 11 until $m > 0$ and there is another odd prime which divides $k^{2^m}+1$ 12 | call this second prime p_{m+1} 13 define b_{m+1} by $k \cdot b_{m+1} + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p_{m+1}}$ 14 find b so that $b \equiv b_i \pmod{p_i}$ for $0 \le i \le m+1$, and $gcd(k + 1, b - 1) = 1$ 15 **return** base b, cover $S = \{p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_{m+1}\}\text{, period } 2^{m+1}$ 16 endif

Theorem 3.4. Suppose $k > 1$ is not a Mersenne number. If there is a term in the sequence

(3.1)
$$
\{(k^{2^m}+1)/\gcd(k+1,2)\}\qquad (m>0)
$$

divisible by at least two distinct primes, then Algorithm 1 will find a base b for which k is a Sierpinski number.

Before we present the proof, we will illustrate the use of this algorithm with $k = 2$. After the first time through the loop (steps 6 through 11), $m = 0$, $p_0 = 3$, $n = 2$, and $b_0 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. So after we solve for $b \equiv b_0$, 3 will divide the second term of the sequence $k \cdot b^v + 1$ for $v = \{1, 2, \ldots, \}$ and every other term because b has period 2 modulo 3. This prime begins our cover and at this stage the pattern with which the primes in the cover divides the terms $k \cdot b^v + 1$ for $v = \{1, 2, \ldots\}$ and looks like the following:

$$
\underbrace{-, 3, -, 3, \cdots}
$$

That is, 3 divides $2 \cdot b^v + 1$ for $v = 2, 4, 6, ...$

After the second time through the loop, $m = 1$, $p_1 = 5$, $n = 3$, and $b_1 \equiv 3$ (mod 5). So 5 divides the third term and then every fourth because $2^{1+1} = 4$ is the period of $b_1(modp_1)$ by Theorem 3.3. So our divisibility pattern now looks like:

$$
_,\ 3,\ 5,\ 3,\ _,\ _,\ 3,\ 5,\ 3,\ \ldots
$$

| {z } | {z } After the third time through $p_2 = 17$ and b_2 has order 8, so we now have a pattern with period 2³

$$
..., 3, 5, 3, 17, 3, 5, 3, \ldots
$$

 $\overline{}$

 $\overline{}$

The primes for iterations four and five are 257 and 65537 see (Table 1), leaving a pattern with period 2^5 .

Notice that each time through the loop the period doubles; however, since we have added just one prime to each stop we are still left with one hole. If we were to ever get a case in which there were two odd primes dividing $k^{2^m}+1$ then we can fill in that hole! In our example, it is the sixth iteration in which this first occurs (when $2^{2^5} + 1 = 641 \cdot 6700417$), so we double the period again but we can also now fill in the last hole. Finally, we solve for b using the Chinese Remainder Theorem. Thus, when $k = 2$, we find $b = 16979062410086072498$ and the cover $\{3, 5, 17, 257, 641, 65537, 6700417\}$ that repeats with period 64.

Similarly, with $k = 5$, we find $b = 140324348$ and the cover $\{3, 13, 17, 313,$ 11489} with a period of 16. Finally, for $k = 65$, $b = 19030688904264$ with cover {3, 17, 113, 2113, 8925313} with a period of 16.

Proof of Theorem 3.4. The algorithm starts with an input $k > 1$. If k is a Mersenne number, the algorithm throws it out because of Theorem 2.2. Next, we start the loop with $m = 0$, and find the least odd prime p_0 that divides $k + 1$ (we know this exists because k is not a Mersenne). When $m = 0$, it is also possible to solve $k \cdot b_0^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, because $k \equiv -1$ (mod p). So if we let $b_0 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$, then $k \cdot b_0^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Note that if $b \equiv b_0 \pmod{p_0}$ then p_0 divides every other term in the sequence $k \cdot b^n + 1$ because b_0 has order 2 mod p_0 .

During the next loop $m = 1$ and we know that $k^{2^1} + 1$ has an odd prime factor (for all $m > 0$) from Theorem 3.2. Thus, we solve $k \cdot b_1^n + 1 \equiv 0$ (mod p_1) for base b_1 , which is possible (for all $m > 0$) by Theorem 3.3. By Theorem 3.2, we know our solution has order $2^{m+1} = 4$ so we have a pattern

$$
\underbrace{\quad \quad _ \quad p_0, p_1, p_0, \quad _ \quad p_0, p_1, p_0, \quad \dots
$$

We repeat this process (steps $6 - 11$) until there are two odd primes which divide $k^{2^m} + 1$. For the first prime p_m , the algorithm solves (as usual) $k \cdot b_m^n + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p_m}$. With the second prime, p_{m+1} , the algorithm solves $k \cdot b_{m+1} + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p_{m+1}}$ for base b_{m+1} to fill in the last hole in our pattern. So we have a cover $\{p_1, \ldots, p_{m+1}\}$ which divide the terms $k \cdot b^n + 1$

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with a pattern determined by Theorem 3.3 to be

$$
p_{m+1}, p_0, p_1, p_0, p_2, p_0, \ldots p_m, \ldots p_0, p_1, p_0.
$$

 $\overline{}$ We then use the Chinese Remainder Theorem (step 13) to solve for b. However, we must make sure the cover is not trivial so if $gcd(k+1, b-1) \neq 1$, we can add $p_1p_2 \cdots p_{m+1}$ to b to get b'. Now $gcd(k+1, b'-1) = 1$ by Theorem 3.1. We are then left with a base b that makes k a Sierpinski Number with a cover S and a period equal to 2^{m+1} . .

m	$k^{\overline{2^m}}$ $+1$	p_m	$\it n$	\pmod{p} b_m
0	3	3	2	
1	5	5	3	3
2	17	17	5	9
3	257	257	9	129
$\overline{4}$	65537	65537	17	32769
5	$641 \cdot 6700417$	641	33	321
		6700417		3350208

Table 1. The Algorithm Table

4. CONCLUSION

It is highly unlikely that there exists an integer k for which the sequence of generalized Fermat numbers of equation 3.1 are all prime. So given a k , we have shown how to find bases b for which $k \cdot b^n + 1$ has non-trivial cover, for all k for which these exist! However, this does not mean our choice of b is the least. Computations have shown that our solution for $k = 5$ is the smallest with period dividing 5040, but we do not know if the others are the smallest.

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