## Primality Tests and PRIMES in P

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- 1 Introduction to Primality Testing
- 2 Fermat's Little Theorem
- 3 Algorithmic Complexity and P

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- 4 The AKS Primality Test
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## 1 Introduction to Primality Testing

- 2 Fermat's Little Theorem
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# Primality Testing

## Definition

A **primality test** is an algorithm that takes in a positive integer n as input and returns whether n is prime or composite.

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# Primality Testing

#### Definition

A **primality test** is an algorithm that takes in a positive integer n as input and returns whether n is prime or composite.

#### Example

**Algorithm** Check the primality of a positive integer  $n \ge 2$ .

**Input:**  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n \geq 2$ .

**Output:** Output PRIME if *n* is prime; otherwise output COMPOSITE.

for all 1 < k < n do

if k | n then

return COMPOSITE.

return PRIME.

## 1 Introduction to Primality Testing

## 2 Fermat's Little Theorem

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5 Conclusion

#### Theorem (Fermat's Little Theorem)

Let p be prime and  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  with p  $\not|a$ . Then

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$ 

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#### Example

When a = 2, p = 7:

$$2^{7-1} = 64 = 7 \cdot 9 + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}.$$

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But does Fermat's Little Theorem describe primality test? That is, is the converse true?

## Conjecture

Let  $n, a \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n \nmid a$ . If

 $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$ 

then n is prime.

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Let  $n, a \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n \nmid a$ . If

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Counterexample

When a = 5 and p = 4,

$$5^{4-1} = 125 = 31 \cdot 4 + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

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However, p = 4 is composite.

# Converse of Fermat's Little Theorem (Second Attempt)

## Conjecture

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If for all  $b \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \nmid b$ ,

$$b^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

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then n is prime.

## Conjecture

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If for all  $b \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n \nmid b$ ,

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then n is prime.

Counterexample

For all  $n \nmid b$ ,

 $b^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{561},$ but  $560 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 16.$ 

561 is a Carmichael number.

# Lucas's Primality Test

#### Theorem

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with gcd(n, a) = 1. If for all primes  $p \mid n - 1$ ,  $a^{(n-1)/p} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then n is prime.

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#### Theorem

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with gcd(n, a) = 1. If for all primes  $p \mid n - 1$ ,  $a^{(n-1)/p} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , then n is prime.

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True!

# Generalization of Fermat's Little Theorem

#### Theorem

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with gcd(a, n) = 1 and  $n \ge 2$ . n is prime if and only if

$$(X+a)^n \equiv X^n + a \pmod{n}.$$

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#### Proof.

**Sufficiency** ( $\implies$ ). Suppose *n* is prime, and let 0 < i < n. No positive integer less than the prime *n* divides *n*, so

$$\binom{n}{i} = \frac{n!}{(n-i)! \, i!} = n \cdot \underbrace{\frac{(n-1)!}{(n-i)! \, i!}}_{\in \mathbb{N}} \implies n \mid \binom{n}{i}$$
$$\implies \binom{n}{i} Xa^{i} \equiv 0 \pmod{n}.$$

Finally,  $a^n \equiv a \pmod{n}$  by Fermat's Little Theorem. Thus  $(X + a)^n \equiv X^n + a \pmod{n}$ .

# Generalization of Fermat's Little Theorem

#### Proof.

**Necessity**  $(\neg \implies \neg)$ . Suppose *n* is composite. There exists a prime power  $p^k \mid n$  but  $p^{k+1} \nmid n$ . Consider the term

$$\binom{n}{p}X^{n-p}a^p = \frac{n!}{(n-p)!\,p!}X^{n-p}a^p \stackrel{?}{\equiv} 0 \pmod{n}.$$

Let f(m) denote the number of times p divides m.

$$f(n!) = f((n-p)!) + f(n) = f((n-p)!) + k$$
  
and  $f(p!) = 1$   
$$\implies f\binom{n}{p} = f(n!) - f((n-p)!) - f(p!)$$
  
$$= f((n-p)!) + k - f((n-p)!) - 1$$
  
$$= k - 1.$$

## Proof.

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Necessity 
$$(\neg \implies \neg)$$
.  
Therefore,  $p^{k-1} \mid {n \choose p}$  but  $p^k \nmid {n \choose p}$ .  
Thus  $n \nmid {n \choose p}$ .  
But  $gcd(a, n) = 1$ , so  
 ${n \choose p} X^{n-p} a^p \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$   
 $\implies (X+a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{n}$ .

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## Definition (P)

P denotes the set of problems that can be solved by some algorithm in polynomial time on the length of the input n.

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## Definition (P)

P denotes the set of problems that can be solved by some algorithm in polynomial time on the length of the input n.

When  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the "length" of *n* is the number of bits (binary digits) in *n*, i.e.  $\lceil \log_2(n) \rceil$ .

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Given an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  and input  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let

T(A, n) = number of "steps" A takes to terminate on input n.

lf

$$T(\mathcal{A},n)=O(\log^k n)$$

for some  $k \geq 0$ , then  $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{P}$ .

#### Example

The question POW10 "is  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  a power of 10" is in P because it can be solved by the following algorithm:

```
while n > 1 do

n \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{n}{10} \rfloor

return YES if n = 1; NO if n = 0

This algorithm terminates in \lceil \log_{10} n \rceil steps, so POW10 \in P.
```



## Definition

PRIMES denotes the question, given any positive integer  $n \ge 2$ , "is *n* prime?"

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## Theorem

 $PRIMES \in P.$ 

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#### Theorem

 $PRIMES \in P.$ 

That is, there exists an algorithm that solves PRIMES in  $O(\log^k n)$  steps for some  $k \ge 0$ .

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## 1 Introduction to Primality Testing

- 2 Fermat's Little Theorem
- 3 Algorithmic Complexity and P

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- 4 The AKS Primality Test
- 5 Conclusion

# The AKS Primality Test



# "PRIMES is in P"

Authors: Manindra Agrawal, Neeraj Kayal, and Nitin Saxena

Grad students at the Indian Institute of Technology Kapur

- Published in 2002.
- Appeared in Annals of Mathematics

**Algorithm** Check the primality of a positive integer  $n \ge 2$ .

**Input:**  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with n > 2. **Output:** PRIME when *n* is prime; COMPOSITE when *n* is composite. if  $n = a^b$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$  with b > 2 then return COMPOSITE Find the smallest  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $o_r(n) > \log^2(n)$ . if 1 < gcd(a, n) < n for some  $a \le r$  then return COMPOSITE if n < r then return PRIME for all  $0 \le a \le \lfloor \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor$  do if  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1}$ , *n*) then return COMPOSITE return PRIME

**Algorithm** Check the primality of a positive integer  $n \ge 2$ .

**Input:**  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with n > 2. **Output:** PRIME when *n* is prime; COMPOSITE when *n* is composite. if  $n = a^b$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$  with b > 2 then return COMPOSITE Find the smallest  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $o_r(n) > \log^2(n)$ . if  $1 < \gcd(a, n) < n$  for some  $a \le r$  then return COMPOSITE if n < r then return PRIME for all  $0 \le a \le \lfloor \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor$  do if  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1}$ , *n*) then return COMPOSITE return PRIME

# The AKS Primality Test: Insights

#### Generalization of FIT

if  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{n}$  then return COMPOSITE else return PRIME

# The AKS Primality Test: Insights

#### Generalization of FIT

if  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{n}$  then return COMPOSITE else return PRIME

## AKS Algorithm (Last Step)

for all 
$$0 \le a \le \lfloor \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor$$
 do  
if  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1, n}$  then  
return COMPOSITE  
return PRIME

# The AKS Primality Test: Time Complexity

#### Theorem

The algorithm terminates in  $O\left(\log^{21/2} n\right)$  time.

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# The AKS Primality Test: Time Complexity

#### Theorem

The algorithm terminates in 
$$O\left(\log^{21/2} n\right)$$
 time.

## Sketch of proof.

The bottleneck is the last step.  $\lfloor \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor$  different equations must be verified.

for all 
$$0 \le a \le \lfloor \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor$$
 do  
if  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1, n}$  then  
return COMPOSITE

• 
$$\phi(r) = O(r)$$
.  
•  $r = O(\log^5 n)$ .  
• Verify  $\lfloor \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor = O(\sqrt{r} \log n) = O(\log^{7/2} n)$  equations.

# The AKS Primality Test: Time Complexity

#### Sketch of proof.

- Binary exponentiation on (X + a)<sup>n</sup> requires only O(log n) polynomial multiplications.
- Each polynomial multiplication is either a square or multiplication by (X + a), requiring at most O(r) coefficient multiplications.

- Coefficients can be multiplied in O(log n) time.
- Thus each congruence can be verified in  $O(r \log^2 n) = O(\log^7 n).$
- So all equations can be verified in  $O(\log^{7/2} n \cdot \log^7 n) = O(\log^{21/2} n)$  time.

# Conclusion

That AKS algorithm runs in polynomial time doesn't mean that the AKS algorithm is *fast* for all *n*.

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• There exist far better algorithms for smaller  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

## References I

## [1, 2, 3]

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