

An Unconditional, Deterministic Polynomial Time Algorithm for Primality Testing

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Based on

PRIMES is in P

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Introduction

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Why are we interested in primes?

Primality Testing

- Input: A positive number n in *binary*
- Prime? Yes or No

Primality Testing

The algorithm we present is

- Unconditional
- Deterministic
- Polynomial Time

Fermat's Little Theorem

For any prime number p , and any number a not divisible by p ,

$$a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$$

- Efficient to calculate ☺
- However, many composites n also satisfy this for some a 's ☹
- *Carmichael Numbers*: 561, 1105, 1729, ...

Other Approaches

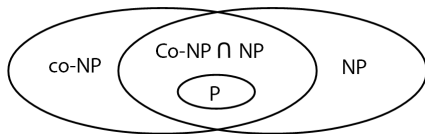
	Uncond	Det	Poly
Miller	×	✓	✓
Miller-Rabin	✓	×	✓
Solovay Strassen	✓	×	✓
APR*	✓	✓	×
Goldwasser & Kilian	×	×	✓

*APR = Adleman, Pomerance & Rumely

Computational Complexity

The problem is in

$$\text{NP} \cap \text{co-NP}$$



- Why in NP?
- Why in co-NP?

Primes in Times . . .

The New York Times (August 8, 2002) [article](#)

- *Gödel Prize ('06)*
- *Fulkerson Prize ('06)*

The Idea

The million dollar question

- Is n prime or composite?
- Is there a litmus test? YES!

Child's Binomial Theorem

- $a \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2$ and $\gcd(a, n) = 1$
- Then n is prime iff,

$$(x + a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{n}$$

The Litmus Test

Given n and a such that $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ should $(x + a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{n}$?

- If n is prime, then yes
- If n is composite, then no

How do we prove it?

- Substitute $(x + a)^n = x^n + \sum_{0 < i < n} \binom{n}{i} x^i a^{n-i} + a^n$
- $[(x + a)^n - x^n - a] \pmod{n} = 0$?

The Litmus Test: Proof

$$\begin{aligned} &\rightarrow [x^n + \sum_{0 < i < n} \binom{n}{i} x^i a^{n-i} + a^n - x^n - a] \pmod{n} \\ &\equiv \left[\sum_{0 < i < n} \binom{n}{i} x^i a^{n-i} \right] \pmod{n} + [a^n - a] \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\rightarrow \text{Since } a^n \pmod{n} = a, \\ &\equiv \left[\sum_{0 < i < n} \binom{n}{i} x^i a^{n-i} \right] \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

⇒: If n is prime

$$\rightarrow \left[\sum_{0 < i < n} \binom{n}{i} x^i a^{n-i} \right] \pmod{n} = 0$$

$$\equiv \forall 0 < i < n, \left[\frac{n!}{i!(n-i)!} \right] \pmod{n} = 0$$

→ $n - i < n$ and $i < n$ and n is prime

≡ No factor of n in denominator

$$\rightarrow \left[\frac{(i+1)(i+2)\dots n}{(n-i)!} \right] \pmod{n}$$

$$\equiv \left[\left(\frac{(i+1)(i+2)\dots(n-1)}{(n-i)!} \right) * n \right] \pmod{n}$$

$$\equiv 0$$

⇐: If n is composite

→ q : prime factor of n

→ $\exists k$ such that $q^k \parallel n$

⇐: If n is composite

→ q : prime factor of n

→ $\exists k$ such that $q^k \parallel n$

→ Coefficient of $x^{n-q}a^q$ in $(x+a)^n$

$$\equiv \left[\left(\frac{n!}{(n-q)! \cdot q!} \right) x^{n-q} a^q \right] \pmod{n}$$

$$\equiv \left[\left(\frac{(n-q+1) \dots (n)}{q!} \right) x^{n-q} a^q \right] \pmod{n}$$

⇐: If n is composite

$$\left[\left(\frac{(n-q+1)\dots(n)}{q!} \right) \right] \pmod{n}$$

$$\rightarrow \left[\left(\frac{(n-q+1)\dots(n)}{q!} \right) \right] \pmod{n} \neq 0$$

→ The only term q divides in the numerator is n

→ The only term q divides in the denominator is q

→ q^{k-1} is the highest power of q that divides $\binom{n}{q}$

$$\rightarrow \therefore q^k \nmid \binom{n}{q} \Rightarrow n \nmid \binom{n}{q}$$

⇐: If n is composite

$a^q \pmod{n}$

$$\rightarrow \gcd(a, n) = 1$$

$$\rightarrow \gcd(a, q^k) = 1$$

$$\rightarrow \gcd(a^q, q^k) = 1$$

Outline

- Given n, a and $\gcd(a, n) = 1$
- Calculate $f(x) := (x + a)^n - (x^n + a)$
- As $f(x) \pmod{n} = 0$
- $\sum_{0 < i < n} \binom{n}{i} x^i a^{n-i}$ - each term should be zero
- Computation of n coefficients
- $\Omega(n)$: horribly inefficient!

AKS: The Idea

→ Can we reduce the number of coefficients to be calculated?

$$x^n + \sum_{0 < i < n} \binom{n}{i} x^i a^{n-i} + a^n \pmod{n}$$

↓

$$x^r + \sum_{0 < i < r} \binom{r}{i} x^i a^{n-i} + a^n \pmod{n}$$

AKS: The Idea

- The algorithm finishes in polynomial time
- Only r number of calculations
- For a small r , check if

$$(x + a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{x^r - 1, n}$$

(we refer to this as the AKS Equation)

- Necessary and Sufficient!

Preliminaries

Group

Integers $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ under addition forms a *group*, denoted $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

→ Closure: $a + b \in \mathbb{Z}$

→ Associativity: $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$

→ Identity element: $z + 0 = z$

→ Inverse element: $n + (-n) = 0$

$(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is also an *abelian group* since it satisfies:

→ Commutativity: $a + b = b + a$

More Group Examples

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$

- Integers modulo n forms a group under addition modulo n
- Identity element is 0
- Inverse element of x is $(n - x) \bmod n$

For $n = 6$, the *abelian* group is $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}, \bar{5}\}$

$$\bar{1} + \bar{2} = \bar{3}$$

$$\bar{3} + \bar{4} = \bar{1}$$

$$\bar{5} + \bar{1} = \bar{0}$$

...

More Group Examples

For any prime p ,

- Integers modulo p is a multiplicative group
- Elements: integers 1 to $p - 1$
- Group operation: multiplication modulo p
- It's an abelian group, too

For example, if $p = 5$, group elements are $1, 2, 3, 4$

More Group Examples

When $p = 5$, the table of inverse elements:

\times	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

It is a cyclic group since the whole group can be generated by 2:

$$2^1 = 2, 2^2 = 4, 2^3 = 3, 2^4 = 1$$

Ring

Integers modulo n form a *ring* under modular *add* and *mult*, denoted $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}$

- Abelian Additive Group: \mathbb{Z}_n is an abelian group under modular addition
- Mult. Closure: $x \cdot y \in \mathbb{Z}_n$
- Mult. Associativity: $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$
- Mult. Identity: $x \cdot \bar{1} = x$
- Distributivity: $x \cdot (y + z) = (x \cdot y) + (x \cdot z)$

Ring Example: Polynomial Ring

The polynomial ring, $K[x]$, in x over a ring K is the set of polynomials in x , of the form

$$c_m x^m + c_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \cdots + c_2 x^2 + c_1 x + c_0$$

where $c_i \in K$ and x, x^2, \dots are formal symbols

→ $+$: Polynomial addition

→ \times : Polynomial multiplication

Concretely, all polynomials over ring \mathbb{Z}_n (denoted $\mathbb{Z}_n[x]$) form a polynomial ring

Field

→ Intuitively, a field F is a generalization of concept of \mathbb{R} :

We can do $+$, $-$, \times , \div in F

→ Formally, a field is a ring whose nonzero elements form an abelian group under \times

→ \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} are all fields

Field Example: Prime Field

For any prime p , integers modulo p form a field called *prime field*, denoted F_p

		Addition in F_5				
$+$		0	1	2	3	4
0		0	1	2	3	4
1		1	2	3	4	0
2		2	3	4	0	1
3		3	4	0	1	2
4		4	0	1	2	3

		Multiplication in F_5				
\times		0	1	2	3	4
0		0	0	0	0	0
1		0	1	2	3	4
2		0	2	4	1	3
3		0	3	1	4	2
4		0	4	3	2	1

Irreducible Polynomial

- $x^2 - 1$ is reducible over \mathbb{Z} since
$$x^2 - 1 = (x - 1)(x + 1)$$
- $x^2 - 5$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} but reducible over \mathbb{R} since $x^2 - 5 = (x - \sqrt{5})(x + \sqrt{5})$
- $x^2 + 1$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} but reducible over F_2
- In $F_2[x]$, $(x + 1)^2 = x^2 + 2x + 1 = x^2 + 1$

Irreducible Polynomial

- If p is prime and $h(x)$ is a polynomial of degree d and irreducible over F_p , then $F_p[x]/(h(x))$ is a finite field of order p^d
- Two fields of order 8 are $F_2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$ and $F_2[x]/(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$

Modular Operations on Polynomials

→ We can calculate $P(x) \bmod Q(x)$ using polynomial long division:

$$\begin{array}{r} x^5 + x^3 + x \\ x^2 - 1 \overline{) x^7 + 6x - 7} \\ \underline{-x^7 + x^5} \\ x^5 \\ \underline{-x^5 + x^3} \\ x^3 + 6x \\ \underline{-x^3 + x} \\ 7x \end{array}$$

Modular Operations on Polynomials

→ So $x^7 + 6x - 7 = 7x - 7 \pmod{x^2 - 1}$

→ $f(x) = g(x) \pmod{h(x), n}$ means
 $f(x) = g(x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}_n[x]/(h(x))$

Cyclotomic Polynomial

- A n^{th} cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_n(x)$ is the unique irreducible polynomial with integer coefficients
- Divisor of $x^n - 1$, not a divisor of $x^k - 1$ for any $k < n$

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ \gcd(k,n)=1}} (x - e^{2i\pi \frac{k}{n}})$$

Cyclotomic Polynomial: Examples

$$\rightarrow \Phi_{15}(x) = x^8 - x^7 + x^5 - x^4 + x^3 - x + 1$$

$$\rightarrow \Phi_{11}(x) = x^{10} + x^9 + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$$

Order of a modulo r

- Given $\gcd(a, r) = 1$, the order of a modulo r is the smallest number k such that
$$a^k = 1 \pmod{r}$$
- It is denoted as $o_r(a)$

Order of a modulo r

- Why does k exist?
- For a given r , $\{a \mid (a, r) = 1 \wedge a < r\}$ forms a finite abelian group under multiplication modulo r
- For a specific a , $\exists k_1 < k_2$, such that $a^{k_2} = a^{k_1} \pmod{r}$.
So, $a^{k_2 - k_1} = 1 \pmod{r}$

Order of a modulo r : Example

→ For $r = 20$, $a = 7$, $o_{20}(7) = 4$ since

$$7^2 = 49 = 9 \pmod{20}$$

$$7^3 = 343 = 3 \pmod{20}$$

$$7^4 = 2401 = 1 \pmod{20}$$

The Algorithm

The Main Algorithm

Input: integer $n > 1$

- (1) Preliminary test
- (2) Find a suitable r
- (3) Search for non co-prime elements
- (4) if $n \leq r$, return PRIME
- (5) for $a = 1, 2, \dots, \lceil \sqrt{r \log n} \rceil$ do
- (6) if $(X - a)^n \neq X^n - a \pmod{X^r - 1, p}$ then
 return COMPOSITE
- (7) return PRIME

The Process

(1) Preliminary test

If n is perfect power

→ Given n , if $n = a^b (b > 1)$, n is composite

→ $b < \log n + 1$

Then for every b , we can find such a using binary search

The Process

(2) Find suitable r

Find the smallest r such that $o_r(n) > (\log n)^2$

→ Recall, order $o_r(n)$ is smallest j such that
 $n^j = 1 \pmod{r}$

for $q = 1, 2, \dots, \lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil$ do

if $n^j \neq 1 \pmod{q}$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, \lceil (\log n)^2 \rceil$

$r = q$

(Why $r \leq \lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil$? We shall see later!)

The Process

(3) Search for non co-prime elements

If $\gcd(a, n) > 1$ for some $a \leq r$, COMPOSITE

Use Euclidean algorithm for each a to check if

$\gcd(a, n) > 1$

If such an a exists, then n is composite

The Process

(5--6) Main loop

```
for  $a = 1$  to  $\lceil \sqrt{r} \log n \rceil$  do
    if  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1, n}$  then
        return COMPOSITE
```

Use standard mod calculation with fast exponentiation

Putting it all together

Input: integer $n > 1$

- (1) if $n = a^b$, for $a, b \geq 2$ && $b < \log n + 1$ then
return COMPOSITE
- (2) choose smallest r such that $o_r(n) > (\log n)^2$
- (3) if $\exists \gcd(a, n) < n$ for some $a < r$
return COMPOSITE
- (4) if $n \leq r$, return PRIME
- (5) for $a = 1, 2, \dots, \lceil \sqrt{r} \log n \rceil$ do
- (6) if $(X + a)^n \neq X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1, p}$ then
return COMPOSITE
- (7) return PRIME

Time Complexity Analysis

Arithmetic Computation & \tilde{O}

- If a and b are two positive integers, each with no more than m digits in binary
- $+$ and $-$ take $O(m)$ bit operations
- \times takes $O(m(\log m)^{O(1)})$

We define $\tilde{O}(m) = O(m(\log m)^{O(1)})$

- For two d degree polynomials with m bit coefficients, multiplication takes $\tilde{O}(d \cdot m)$

Complexity Analysis

(1) Given n , if $n = a^b (b > 1)$, n is composite

→ Bound on b : $b < \log n + 1 \Rightarrow O(\log n)$

→ For every b , find a using binary search $\Rightarrow O(\log n)$

→ To compute $a^b \Rightarrow \tilde{O}(\log n)$

Complexity of Step 1: $\tilde{O}((\log n)^3)$ bit operations

Complexity Analysis

(2) Find the smallest r such that $o_r(n) > (\log n)^2$

for $q = 1, 2, \dots, \lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil$ do

if $n^j \not\equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, \lceil (\log n)^2 \rceil$

$r = q$

→ First for loop $\Rightarrow O(r)$; worst case $O((\log n)^5)$

→ Second for loop $\Rightarrow \tilde{O}((\log n)^2)$

Complexity of Step 2: $\tilde{O}(r(\log n)^2) = \tilde{O}((\log n)^7)$

Complexity Analysis

(3) If $\gcd(a, n) > 1$ for some $a \leq r$, n is COMPOSITE

- Euclidean algorithm complexity $\Rightarrow O(\log n)$
- As $a \leq r$, in worst case need $O(r)$ computation

This can be done in $O(r(\log n)) = O((\log n)^6)$

Complexity Analysis

- (5) for $a = 1$ to $\lceil \sqrt{r \log n} \rceil$ do
- (6) if $(X + a)^n \neq X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1, n}$ then
 return COMPOSITE

We have, a degree r polynomial with $\log n$ bits

- Bitwise multiplication $\Rightarrow \tilde{O}(r(\log n)^2)$
- for loop runs from 1 to $\sqrt{r \log n}$
- Now, the complexity is: $\tilde{O}(r(\log n)^2 \cdot \sqrt{r \log n})$
 $= \tilde{O}(r^{\frac{3}{2}}(\log n)^3) = \tilde{O}((\log n)^{\frac{21}{2}})$

Complexity Analysis

Overall complexity

- Step 1: $\tilde{O}((\log n)^3)$
- Step 2: $\tilde{O}(r(\log n)^2)$
- Step 3: $O(r(\log n))$
- Final loop: $\tilde{O}((\log n)^{\frac{21}{2}})$

Complexity of the final loop dominates all others

Hence, overall complexity: $\tilde{O}((\log n)^{\frac{21}{2}})$

Proof of Correctness

AKS Theorem

For the smallest r such that $o_r(n) > (\log n)^2$
 n is prime iff

- n is not a perfect power,
- n does not have any prime factor $\leq r$,
- $(x + a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{(n, x^r - 1)}$ for each integer a , $1 \leq a \leq A = \lceil \sqrt{r \log n} \rceil$

If n is prime

- If n is prime, steps (1) and (3) can never return COMPOSITE
- The for loop can not return COMPOSITE either
- Hence the algorithm will output PRIME

We are only left with the other side of the proof!

If the Algorithm Returns PRIME

Proof by contradiction

- Let's assume n is composite
- Thus, there exists a prime p such that $p|n$

We assume

- n is not a perfect power
- n does not have any prime factor $\leq r$

If the Algorithm Returns PRIME

The master plan:

- We show that there exists a *suitable* r
- We construct a nice group \mathbb{G} assuming $p|n$
- We prove a contradiction on the size of \mathbb{G}
 - ⇒ There is no such \mathbb{G}
- Hence, n is not composite

We assume $\text{lcm} \{1, \dots, m\} \geq 2^m$ for $m \geq 7$

Existence of a Suitable r

There exists an $r \leq \max(3, \lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil)$ such that

$$o_r(n) > (\log n)^2$$

- When $n = 2, r = 3$. We assume $n > 2$, thus $\lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil > 10$
- Consider $\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_t\}$ such that either $o_r(n) \leq (\log n)^2$ or $r_i | n$
- Thus, every r_i divides

$$n \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{\lceil (\log n)^2 \rceil} (n^i - 1) < n^{(\log n)^4} \leq 2^{(\log n)^5}$$

Existence of a Suitable r

But the lcm of the first $\lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil$ numbers is at least $2^{\lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil}$

Thus, $\exists s \leq \lceil (\log n)^5 \rceil$, such that $s \notin \{r_1, \dots, r_t\}$

→ If $\gcd(s, n) = 1$, then $o_s(n) > (\log n)^2$

→ If $\gcd(s, n) > 1$, then since $s \nmid n$ and $(s, n) \in \{r_1, \dots, r_t\}$, $r = \frac{s}{\gcd(s, n)} \notin \{r_1, \dots, r_t\}$ and so $o_r(n) > (\log n)^2$

Find a Nice Group \mathbb{G}

For each integer $a, 1 \leq a \leq A,$

→ We know

$$(x + a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{x^r - 1, n}$$

→ $p|n,$ hence

$$(x + a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{x^r - 1, p}$$

→ Let $h(x)$ be an irreducible factor of $\Phi_r(x)$
 \pmod{p} (i.e. in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})[x]$), then

$$(x + a)^n = x^n + a \pmod{h(x), p}$$

Find a Nice Group \mathbb{G}

- Given $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{Z}[x]/(p, h(x))$, non-zero elements of \mathbb{F} form a cyclic group of order $p^m - 1$
- Let H be the multiplicative group modulo $(x^r - 1, p)$ generated by $x, x + 1, x + 2, \dots, x + A$
- Let \mathbb{G} be the (multiplicative) subgroup of \mathbb{F} generated by $x, x + 1, x + 2, \dots, x + A$
- All the elements of \mathbb{G} are non-zero

Bounds on $|\mathbb{G}|$

$g(x) = \prod_{0 \leq a \leq A} (x + a)^{e_a} \in H$, then

$$\begin{aligned} g(x)^n &= \prod_a ((x + a)^n)^{e_a} \pmod{x^r - 1, p} \\ &= \prod_a (x^n + a)^{e_a} \pmod{x^r - 1, p} \\ &= g(x^n) \pmod{x^r - 1, p} \end{aligned}$$

Bounds on $|\mathbb{G}|$

Define S to be the set of positive integers k for which $g(x^k) = g(x)^k \pmod{x^r - 1, p}$ for all $g \in H$

$\rightarrow p, n \in S$

A few properties of S :

\rightarrow If $a, b \in S$, $ab \in S$ (Lemma 1)

\rightarrow If $a, b \in S$ and $a = b \pmod{r}$,
then $a = b \pmod{|\mathbb{G}|}$ (Lemma 2)

Upper Bound on $|\mathbb{G}|$

- Let R be the subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^*$ generated by n and p
- There exist more than $|R|$ integers of the form $n^i p^j$ with distinct $0 \leq i, j \leq \sqrt{|R|}$
- Two of them must be congruent $(\text{mod } r)$
- Say, $n^i p^j = n^i p^j (\text{mod } r)$
- $|\mathbb{G}| \leq |n^i p^j - n^i p^j| \leq (np)^{\sqrt{|R|-1}} \leq n^2 \sqrt{|R|-1}$
- If $n/p \in S$, $|\mathbb{G}| \leq n \sqrt{|R|-1}$

Lower Bound on $|\mathbb{G}|$

- The products $\prod_{a \in T} (x + a)$ give distinct elements of \mathbb{G} for every proper subset T of $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, \lceil \sqrt{|R|} \log n \rceil\}$
- $|\mathbb{G}| \geq 2^{\lceil \sqrt{|R|} \log n \rceil + 1} - 1 > n\sqrt{|R|} - 1$

The upper and lower bounds conflict, thus making our only assumption wrong

There exists no such \mathbb{G}

Hence, n is not composite, completing the proof of correctness

Supplementary Material

Supplementary Material

If $a, b \in S, ab \in S$

→ If $g(x) \in H, g(x^b) = g(x)^b \pmod{x^r - 1, p}$

→ Replacing x by x^a , we get

$g((x^a)^b) = g(x^a)^b \pmod{(x^a)^r - 1, p}$ and
hence $\pmod{x^r - 1, p}$

→

$$\begin{aligned}g(x)^{ab} &= g((x^a)^b) && \dots (a \in S) \\ &= g(x^a)^b && \dots (b \in S) \\ &= g(x^{ab}) \pmod{x^r - 1, p}\end{aligned}$$

Supplementary Material

If $a, b \in S$ and $a = b \pmod{r}$, then $a = b \pmod{|\mathbb{G}|}$

$$\rightarrow (x^r - 1) \mid (x^{a-b} - 1) \text{ and } (x^{a-b} - 1) \mid (x^a - x^b)$$

$$\rightarrow (x^a - x^b) \mid (g(x^a) - g(x^b))$$

$$\rightarrow (x^r - 1) \mid (g(x^a) - g(x^b))$$

$$\rightarrow g(x) \in H, \text{ then } g(x)^a = g(x)^b \pmod{x^r - 1, p}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{If } g(x) \in \mathbb{G}, g(x)^{a-b} = 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{F}$$

\rightarrow Since \mathbb{G} is cyclic, taking generator g , $|\mathbb{G}|$ divides $a - b$

Statements Not Proved

- $\text{lcm} \{1, \dots, m\} \geq 2^m$ for $m \geq 7$
- $n/p \in S$
- Two distinct polynomials of the form $\prod_a (x + a)$ of degree $< |R|$ will map to different elements of \mathbb{G}

Limitations and Future Work

Usefulness

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AKS in SAGE* takes ≈ 70 min for the above number!

*(Software for Algebra and Geometry Experimentation)

Comparison

Practical alternatives

- APR primality runs in $\tilde{O}((\log n)^{\log \log \log n})$ and yet performs better than AKS
- Miller-Rabin and other randomized algorithms, which takes average time $\tilde{O}(\log n)^3$, are used in practice

Agrawal's Conjecture

- The for loop in the algorithm (in step 5) runs $\lceil (\sqrt{r} \log n) \rceil$ times
- This can be reduced assuming the following conjecture:

If r is a prime number that does not divide n and if $(x + 1)^n = x^n + 1 \pmod{x^r - 1, n}$ then either n is prime or $n^2 = 1 \pmod{r}$

Agrawal's Conjecture: Consequences

- We can modify the algorithm to search for an r which does not divide $n^2 - 1$
- Such an r exists in $[2, 4 \log n]$ (product of prime numbers less than x is at least e^x)
- Verifying the congruence takes $\tilde{O}(r(\log n)^2)$.
- Overall complexity: $\tilde{O}(\log n)^3$

Agrawal's Conjecture: Progress

- 2003: Lenstra and Pomerance gave a heuristic argument that suggested that the conjecture is false.
- 2005: A group at UT Austin proved that the conjecture is true if $r > n/2$

Other Improvements

Possible improvements in implementation

- Mapping the polynomial rings onto integer rings
- Using suitable libraries (NTL better than LiDIA)

Summary

- Efficient to work with Child's Binomial Theorem by reducing its degree by a factor r
- Use this for primality test which runs in polynomial time
- Possible improvements

Take Away

The ground breaking AKS Primality Test is

- unconditional
- deterministic
- polynomial time

References

1. Granville, Andrew. "It is easy to determine whether a given integer is prime." *Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society* 42.1 (2005): 3-38.
2. Student Talks by S Ramprasad [The AKS Primality Test](#)
3. Lang, Serge. *Undergraduate algebra*. Springer, 2005.

Thank You!
Questions?