A Potentially Fast Primality Test

Tsz-Wo Sze

February 20, 2007

1 Introduction

In 2002, Agrawal, Kayal and Saxena [3] gave the first deterministic, polynomialtime primality testing algorithm. The main step was the following.

Theorem 1.1. (AKS) Given an integer n > 1, let r be an integer such that $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) > \log^2 n$. Suppose

$$(x+a)^n \equiv x^n + a \pmod{n, x^r - 1}$$
 for $a = 1, \dots, \lfloor \sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor$. (1.1)

Then, n has a prime factor $\leq r$ or n is a prime power.

The running time is $O(r^{1.5} \log^3 n)$. It can be shown by elementary means that the required r exists in $O(\log^5 n)$. So the running time is $O(\log^{10.5} n)$. Moreover, by Fouvry's Theorem [8], such r exists in $O(\log^3 n)$, so the running time becomes $O(\log^{7.5} n)$.

In [10], Lenstra and Pomerance showed that the AKS primality test can be improved by replacing the polynomial $x^r - 1$ in equation (1.1) with a specially constructed polynomial f(x), so that the degree of f(x) is $O(\log^2 n)$. The overall running time of their algorithm is $O(\log^6 n)$.

With an extra input integer a, Berrizbeitia [6] has provided a deterministic primality test with time complexity $2^{-\min(k,\lfloor 2\log\log n\rfloor)}O(\log^6 n)$, where $2^k||n-1$ if $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $2^k||n+1$ if $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. If $k \geq \lfloor 2\log\log n\rfloor$, this algorithm runs in $O(\log^4 n)$. The algorithm is also a modification of AKS by verifying the congruent equation

$$(1+mx)^n \equiv 1+mx^n \pmod{n, x^{2^\circ}-a}$$

for a fixed s and some clever choices of m. The main drawback of this algorithm is that it requires the Jacobi symbol $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = -1$ if $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{1-a}{n}\right) = -1$ if $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Since there is no deterministic algorithm to find such a yet, Berrizbeitia's algorithm is considered as a probabilistic test.

There are several efficient probabilistic primality tests, see [11], [12], [13], [9], [5], [1], [2]. By assuming Extended Riemann Hypothesis (see [4]), Miller's primality test [11] is a deterministic algorithm with time complexity $O(\log^4 n)$.

In this paper, we attempt to improve AKS primality test in another direction. We suggest that equation (1.1) may be checked with only the single value a = -1. If a certain conjecture (Conjecture 2.7) about cyclotomic polynomials holds, we obtain deterministic a primality testing algorithm with running time $O(r \log^2 n)$. The requirement of r is exactly the same as in AKS. Therefore, the running time would be $O(\log^5 n)$ if r is $O(\log^3 n)$.

1.1 Notation

We use $\operatorname{ord}_a(b)$ to denote the order of b in $(\mathbb{Z}/a\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, given (a, b) = 1; \mathbb{F}_q to be the finite field with q elements; and $\Phi_k(x)$ to denote the k^{th} cyclotomic polynomial. All logarithms are base 2 unless otherwise specified.

2 The Algorithm

Let SimplePrimalityTest(n) be an $O(\sqrt{n})$ primality test algorithm.

Algorithm 2.1. PrimalityTest(n)

{ if $n < n_0 = 8 \times 10^5$, return SimplePrimalityTest(n); if $n = a^e$ for some prime a and some e > 1, return COMPOSITE; find smallest r such that $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) > \log^2 n$; if 1 < (a, n) < n for some $a \le r$, return COMPOSITE; if $n \le r$, return PRIME; if $(x - 1)^n \not\equiv x^n - 1 \pmod{n, x^r - 1}$, return COMPOSITE; return PRIME; }

Throughout this section, suppose n > 1 is an integer and Algorithm 2.1 returns PRIME at the last line. Therefore,

- *n* is not a non-trivial power of prime (that is, $n \neq p^e$ for some e > 1),
- $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) > \log^2 n$,
- all prime divisors of n are greater than r
- $(x-1)^n \equiv x^n 1 \pmod{n, x^r 1}$.

Let p be a prime dividing n such that $\operatorname{ord}_r(p) > 1$. Since $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) > 1$, such a prime p exists. Let

$$G = \left\{ (\frac{n}{p})^i p^j \pmod{r} : i, j \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} \subset (\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^{\times}.$$

Let t = |G|. Let h(x) be an irreducible factor of $\Phi_r(x)$ in \mathbb{F}_p . Then, $\deg(h) = \operatorname{ord}_r(p) > 1$. Let

$$F = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})[x]/(h(x)),$$

which is isomorphic to the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{p^{\deg(h)}}$. Let

$$\mathcal{G} = \{ f(x) \in F : f(x) \neq 0 \text{ and } f(x)^n = f(x^n) \text{ in } F \}.$$

In F, it can be shown that $f(x)^n = f(x^n)$ implies $f(x)^{n/p} = f(x^{n/p})$ (see [3] for a proof). Since p is the characteristic of F, we have $f(x)^p = f(x^p)$. Therefore, for all $f \in \mathcal{G}$, we have $f(x)^m = f(x^m)$ for all $m \in G$.

2.1 Upper bounds of $|\mathcal{G}|$

Some upper bounds of the size of $|\mathcal{G}|$ can be shown as follows.

Lemma 2.2. Suppose n is not a power of p. Then, $|\mathcal{G}| \leq n^{\sqrt{t}}$.

Proof. The proof is essentially the same as the proof of Lemma 4.8 in [3]. \Box

Lemma 2.3. Suppose n is not a power of p. If $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) > \sqrt{t} \ge \sqrt{384}$, then $|\mathcal{G}| \le n^{\sqrt{t}-2/5}$.

Proof. Suppose $n^{2/5} \leq p \leq n^{3/5}$. Let

$$\hat{I} = \left\{ (\frac{n}{p})^i p^j : 0 \le i, j \le \lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor \right\}.$$

The size of \hat{I} satisfies $|\hat{I}| = (\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor + 1)^2 > t$. Since $G = \hat{I} \pmod{r}$ and |G| = t, there exist $m_1, m_2 \in \hat{I}$ with $m_1 < m_2$ such that $m_1 \equiv m_2 \pmod{r}$. Consider the polynomial $\psi(T) = T^{m_2-m_1} - 1 \in F[T]$. For all $f(x) \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\psi(f(x)) = f(x)^{m_2 - m_1} - 1$$

= $\frac{f(x^{m_2})}{f(x^{m_1})} - 1$
= 0.

Therefore, $\psi(T)$ has at least $|\mathcal{G}|$ roots in F.

Let

$$M = \max\left\{ (\frac{n}{p})^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor} p^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor - 1}, (\frac{n}{p})^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor - 1} p^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor} \right\}.$$

Note that $M \leq n^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor - 2/5} \leq n^{\sqrt{t} - 2/5}$ since both $p, \frac{n}{p} \geq n^{2/5}$. We claim that m_1, m_2 can be chosen such that $m_2 - m_1 \leq M$. This implies that $|\mathcal{G}| \leq \deg(\psi) = m_2 - m_1 \leq n^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor - 2/5}$.

To prove the claim, let $m'_1 \equiv m'_2 \pmod{r}$ with $m'_1, m'_2 \in \hat{I}$ and $m'_1 < m'_2$.

If $m'_2 < n^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor}$, then $m'_2 \leq (n/p)^i p^j$ with either $i < \lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor$ or $j < \lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor$. Then $m'_2 \leq M$, so $m'_2 - m'_1 \leq M$. We can set $m_1 = m'_1$ and $m_2 = m'_2$. The case $m'_1 = 1$ and $m'_2 = n^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor}$ is not possible; otherwise, $1 \equiv n^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor} \pmod{r}$, so $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) \leq \lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor$. Finally, assume $1 \neq m'_1 < m'_2 = n^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor}$. The definition of \hat{I} shows that $m'_1 | n^{\lfloor \sqrt{t} \rfloor} = m'_2$. Choose $m_1 = 1$ and $m_2 = m'_2/m'_1$. Since $m'_1 \geq \min\left\{p, \frac{n}{p}\right\} \geq n^{2/5}$, this completes the proof of the claim.

Now suppose that $p < n^{2/5}$ or $p > n^{3/5}$, Let $n^{\delta} = \min\left\{p, \frac{n}{p}\right\}$ with $0 < \delta < \frac{2}{5}$. Then $n^{1-\delta} = \max\left\{p, \frac{n}{p}\right\}$. Let

$$\tilde{I} = \left\{ n^{\delta i} n^{(1-\delta)j} : 0 \le i \le A \text{ and } 0 \le j \le B \right\},\$$

where $A = \left\lfloor \sqrt{\frac{t(1-\delta)}{\delta}} \right\rfloor$ and $B = \left\lfloor \sqrt{\frac{t\delta}{1-\delta}} \right\rfloor$. Then $|\tilde{I}| = (A+1)(B+1) > t$. As before, there exist $m_3, m_4 \in \tilde{I}$, such that $m_3 \equiv m_4 \pmod{r}$ with $m_3 < m_4$.

Note that $m_4 \leq n^{A\delta} n^{B(1-\delta)} \leq n^2 \sqrt{t\delta(1-\delta)} \leq n^{\sqrt{24t/25}} < n^{\sqrt{t}-2/5}$ for $t \geq 384$. All the elements in \mathcal{G} are the roots of the polynomial $T^{m_4} - T^{m_3}$. Therefore, $|\mathcal{G}| \leq m_4 \leq n^{\sqrt{t}-2/5}$.

2.2 Producing elements of G

One way to find a lower bound on the size of \mathcal{G} is to produce a large number of elements of \mathcal{G} . If we have chosen r so that n is a primitive root mod r, then this is easy.

Lemma 2.4. Assume that n is a primitive root mod r and that $(x-1)^n \equiv x^n - 1 \pmod{n}$, $x^r - 1$. If (m, r) = 1, then

$$x^m - 1 \equiv (x - 1)^e \pmod{n, x^r - 1}$$

for some integer e.

Proof. Write $m \equiv n^f \pmod{r}$. Then

$$x^m - 1 \equiv x^{n^f} - 1 \equiv (x - 1)^{n^f}$$

Consider the cyclotomic field of rth roots of unity $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$, where ζ is a primitive rth root of unity. The cyclotomic units are generated by the quotients $(\zeta^a - 1)/(\zeta - 1)$ with (a, r) = 1. The index of these units in the full group of units of the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is the class number of the real subfield $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta + \zeta^{-1})$. This class number tends to be rather small, so the cyclotomic units are of small index in the full group of units. Let p be prime and let \mathfrak{p} be a prime ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ dividing p. The field $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]/\mathfrak{p}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{F}_p[x]/(p, h(x))$, where h(x) is an irreducible factor mod p of $\Phi_r(x)$. Work on Artin's primitive root conjecture (see, for example, [7]) shows that the reduction mod \mathfrak{p} of the group of units of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ should often be quite large. In fact, it is conjectured to be the full multiplicative group of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]/\mathfrak{p}$ for a positive density of primes p. Since the index of the cyclotomic units tends to be small, we expect that the cyclotomic units also generate a large subgroup of the multiplicative group. Therefore, the polynomials $x^m - 1$ should generate a large subgroup of $\mathbb{F}_p[x]/(p, h(x))$, so we expect that the group \mathcal{G} should be large for many p.

In the next section, we formulate a conjecture on cyclotomic polynomials (Conjecture 2.7) that can be regarded as a way of producing a large number of introspective polynomials. In the case that n is a primitive root mod r, the following lemma shows that the group obtained is contained in the group generated by x - 1.

Lemma 2.5. If n is a primitive root mod r and $(x-1)^n \equiv x^n-1 \pmod{n, x^r-1}$, then

$$\Phi_m(x) \in \{(x-1)^e : e \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subset F^{\times}$$

for (m, r) = 1.

Proof. Since

$$\Phi_m(x) = \prod_{d|m} (x^{m/d} - 1)^{\mu(d)}$$

where $\mu(d)$ is the Möbius function, the previous lemma yields the result. \Box

2.3 Cyclotomic polymonials

We conjecture that once equation (1.1) is verified with a = -1, the size of \mathcal{G} is larger than the upper bounds in Lemma 2.2 and 2.3. If the conjecture is true, then n must be a prime when Algorithm 2.1 returns PRIME at the last line.

In particular, we have the m^{th} cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_m(x) \in \mathcal{G}$ for all m > 0 with (m, r) = 1 as shown in Lemma 2.6. Since there are infinitely distinct $\Phi_m(x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, some of them must congruent to each other in F. Note that there exist r distinct $\Phi_q(x)$'s in F for q prime (see Lemma 3.3). By Lemma 3.4, for primes p_1 and q_1 , $\Phi_{p_1}(x)$ and $\Phi_{q_1}(x)$ are distinct whenever $p_1 \neq q_1 \pmod{r}$. Conjecture 2.7 suggests a generalized situation that $\Phi_{p_1 \cdots p_k}(x)$ and $\Phi_{q_1 \cdots q_k}(x)$ are distinct unless $p_i \equiv q_{\sigma(i)} \pmod{r}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$ and some permutation σ . Proposition 3.5 proves Conjecture 2.7 with k = 2.

Lemma 2.6. If $(x-1)^n \equiv x^n - 1 \pmod{n, x^r - 1}$, then for $k \ge 1$ with (k, r) = 1,

$$\Phi_k(x)^n \equiv \Phi_k(x^n) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$
(2.2)

Proof. We use induction. By the hypothesis, $\Phi_1(x) = x - 1$ satisfies the conclusion because p|n and $\Phi_r(x)$ divides $x^r - 1$. Suppose $\Phi_i(x)^n \equiv \Phi_i(x^n)$ (mod $p, \Phi_r(x)$) for $1 \le i < k$ with (i, r) = 1.

For k>1 with (k,r)=1, the congruence $(x-1)^n\equiv x^n-1 \pmod{n,x^r-1}$ implies that

$$(x^k - 1)^n \equiv x^{kn} - 1 \pmod{n, x^{kr} - 1}$$
.

Since p|n and $\Phi_r(x)$ divides $x^{kr} - 1$,

$$(x^k - 1)^n \equiv (x^n)^k - 1 \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$

By the identity $T^k - 1 = \prod_{d|k} \Phi_d(T)$,

$$\left(\prod_{d|k} \Phi_d(x)\right)^n \equiv \prod_{d|k} \Phi_d(x^n) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$
(2.3)

For any proper divisor d' of k, (d', r) = 1 and $\Phi_{d'}(x)^n \equiv \Phi_{d'}(x^n) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$ by the induction assumption. Let $g(x) = (\Phi_{d'}(x), \Phi_r(x)) \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$. If $g(x) \neq 1$, let $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ be a root of g(x). Then, $\alpha^{d'} = 1$ and $\alpha^r = 1$. But (d', r) = 1 implies that $\alpha = 1$. However, $\Phi_r(1) = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} 1 = r \neq 0$ in \mathbb{F}_p since r, p are distinct primes. Therefore, $(\Phi_{d'}(x), \Phi_r(x)) = 1$. so equation 2.3 yields

$$\Phi_k(x)^n \equiv \Phi_k(x^n) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$

-	-

Conjecture 2.7. Let p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k be prime numbers that are distinct mod r and none of them are congruent to $-1, 0, 1 \pmod{r}$. Similarly, let q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k be primes that are distinct mod r and none of them are congruent to $-1, 0, 1 \pmod{r}$. Let h(x) be an irreducible factor of $\Phi_r(x)$ mod p. Then,

$$\Phi_{p_1p_2\cdots p_k}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1q_2\cdots q_k}(x) \pmod{p, h(x)}$$

if and only if there is a permutation σ of $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ such that

$$p_i \equiv q_{\sigma(i)} \pmod{r}$$
 for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, k$

One direction of this conjecture can be proved. In Section 3, we give evidence for the other direction.

Proof of " \Leftarrow ". We prove a stronger version of the statement:

$$p_i \equiv q_i \pmod{r}$$
 for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, k$,

implies

$$\Phi_{p_1p_2\cdots p_k}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1q_2\cdots q_k}(x) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$

We show it by induction. For k = 1, the statement is true by Lemma 3.4. For k > 1, suppose $p_i \equiv q_i \pmod{r}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. By the induction assumption,

$$\Phi_{p_1p_2\cdots p_{k-1}}(y) \equiv \Phi_{q_1q_2\cdots q_{k-1}}(y) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(y)}.$$

Put $y = x^{p_k}$. We have

$$\Phi_{p_1p_2\cdots p_{k-1}}(x^{p_k}) \equiv \Phi_{q_1q_2\cdots q_{k-1}}(x^{p_k}) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x^{p_k})}.$$

Since $\Phi_r(x)$ divides $\Phi_r(x^{p_k})$,

$$\Phi_{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_{k-1}}(x^{p_k}) \equiv \Phi_{q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{k-1}}(x^{p_k}) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$$

We claim that $\Phi_{p_1p_2\cdots p_{k-1}}(x)$ and $\Phi_r(x)$ are relatively prime mod p. To see this, let $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{F}_p}$ be a common root mod p of the two polynomials. Then $\alpha^{p_1p_2\cdots p_{k-1}} = 1 = \alpha^r$, so $\alpha = 1$. But $\Phi_r(1) = r \neq 0 \pmod{p}$. Therfore, the two polynomials have no common root mod p, which proves the claim. So $\Phi_{p_1p_2\cdots p_{k-1}}(x)$ is a unit mod $\Phi_r(x)$. Finally,

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k}(x) &= \frac{\Phi_{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_{k-1}}(x^{p_k})}{\Phi_{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_{k-1}}(x)} \\ &\equiv \frac{\Phi_{q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{k-1}}(x^{p_k})}{\Phi_{q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{k-1}}(x)} \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)} \\ &\equiv \frac{\Phi_{q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{k-1}}(x^{q_k})}{\Phi_{q_1 q_2 \cdots q_{k-1}}(x)} \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)} \\ &= \Phi_{q_1 q_2 \cdots q_k}(x). \end{split}$$

In Conjecture 2.7, we require $p_i, q_i \not\equiv -1, 0, 1 \pmod{r}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, otherwise, the conjecture is obviously false. For any prime q, if $q \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$, then q = r and $\Phi_q(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{\Phi_r(x)}$ is not a unit. If $q \equiv 1 \pmod{r}$, we have $\Phi_q(x) \equiv 1 \pmod{\Phi_r(x)}$, which is the multiplicative identity. Then, $\Phi_{qm}(x) \equiv 1 \pmod{\Phi_r(x)}$, for any integer m > 0. If $q \equiv -1 \pmod{r}$, then $\Phi_q(x) \equiv -x^{-1} \pmod{\Phi_r(x)}$. The subgroup of F^{\times} generated by $-x^{-1}$ has only 2r elements, where $F = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})[x]/(h(x))$. We have $\Phi_{qm_1}(x) \equiv \Phi_{qm_2} \pmod{\Phi_r(x)}$ for some $m_1 \equiv m_2 \pmod{2r}$.

2.4 Lower bound for $|\mathcal{G}|$

Assuming Conjecture 2.7 is true, we establish a lower bound for $|\mathcal{G}|$ in Lemma 2.9 that implies the correctness of Algorithm 2.1. See Theorem 2.10.

Recall the following.

Theorem 2.8. (Stirling's approximation) For N > 0,

$$\sqrt{2\pi N} (\frac{N}{e})^N e^{1/(12N+1)} < N! < \sqrt{2\pi N} (\frac{N}{e})^N e^{1/(12N)}$$

Lemma 2.9. If Conjecture 2.7 is true, then $|\mathcal{G}| > \frac{1}{11} \frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}}$.

Proof. If $r \leq 5$, then $\frac{1}{11} \frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}} < 2 \leq |\mathcal{G}|$ since \mathcal{G} has as least two elements, x and x - 1.

Suppose r > 5, i.e. $r \ge 7$. If Conjecture 2.7 is true, there are $\binom{r-3}{k}$ distinct $\Phi_{p_1p_2\cdots p_k}(x)$ in \mathcal{G} by Lemma 2.6 and Dirichlet's Theorem (Theorem 3.2).

Consider $k = \frac{r-3}{2}$. By Theorem 2.8,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(r-3)!}{(((r-3)/2)!)^2} &> \quad \frac{(\frac{r-3}{e})^{r-3}e^{1/(12r-35)}\sqrt{2\pi(r-3)}}{\left((\frac{r-3}{2e})^{(r-3)/2}e^{1/(6r-18)}\sqrt{2\pi(\frac{r-3}{2})}\right)^2} \\ &= \quad \frac{2^r}{\sqrt{32\pi(r-3)}}e^{\frac{1}{12r-35}-\frac{1}{3r-9}} \\ &> \quad \frac{e^{\frac{1}{49}-\frac{1}{12}}}{\sqrt{32\pi}}\frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}} \\ &> \quad \frac{1}{11}\frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $|\mathcal{G}| \ge {\binom{r-3}{(r-3)/2}} > \frac{1}{11} \frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}}$, as required.

Theorem 2.10. If Conjecture 2.7 is true, then Algorithm 2.1 returns PRIME at the last line only if n is a prime.

Proof. If algorithm 2.1 returns PRIME at the last line, then r is an odd prime, n is not a nontrivial power of a prime, $n \ge n_0 = 8 \times 10^5$, and $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) = r - 1 > \log^2 n$. Moreover, all prime divisors of n are greater than r, and $(x-1)^n \equiv x^n - 1 \pmod{n}$, $x^r - 1$.

Suppose $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) > \sqrt{t} \ge \sqrt{384}$. Let $c = (\log^2 n)/r > 1$ and let

$$f(c,n) = \frac{n^{2/5}}{\log n} \left(\frac{n^{(c-\sqrt{c})\log n}}{\sqrt{c}} \right).$$

Note that $\frac{n^{2/5}}{\log n}$ is increasing for $n > \sqrt{32}$. So f(c, n) is increasing in n for $n > \sqrt{32}$ and $c \ge 1$. The term $\frac{n^{(c-\sqrt{c})\log n}}{\sqrt{c}}$ is increasing in c for $c \ge 1$. For n > 392 and $c \ge c_0 = 1.084$,

$$\frac{n^{2/5}}{\log n} \left(\frac{n^{(c-\sqrt{c})\log n}}{\sqrt{c}} \right) = f(c,n) > f(c_0, 384) > 11$$

which implies that

$$\frac{1}{11}\frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}} = \frac{1}{11}\left(\frac{n^{c\log n}}{\sqrt{c\log n}}\right) > n^{\sqrt{c}\log n - \frac{2}{5}} = n^{\sqrt{r} - \frac{2}{5}}.$$

If $1 \le c < c_0$ and $n \ge n_0$, then $\frac{n^{2/5}}{\log n} > 11\sqrt{c_0}$ for $n \ge n_0$ and

$$\frac{1}{11}\frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}} > \frac{1}{11}\left(\frac{n^{\sqrt{r}}}{\sqrt{c_0}\log n}\right) > n^{\sqrt{r} - \frac{2}{5}}.$$

If n is not a power of p, then Lemma 2.3 and Lemma 2.9 together imply that

$$n^{\sqrt{n}-\frac{2}{5}} \ge |\mathcal{G}| > n^{\sqrt{n}-\frac{2}{5}}.$$

which is a contradiction. Since the algorithm removes nontrivial powers of primes, we must have that n is a prime.

Now suppose that $\operatorname{ord}_r(n) \leq \sqrt{t}$. Then, $r > t \geq (\operatorname{ord}_r n)^2 > \log^4 n$. We have

$$\frac{1}{11}\frac{2^r}{\sqrt{r}} \geq \frac{1}{11}\frac{n^{\log n\sqrt{r}}}{\sqrt{r}} > n^{\sqrt{r}}$$

for $n \ge 5$ and $r \ge 3$, which includes all possible values of n and r. By Lemma 2.2 and Lemma 2.9, n is a prime.

Note that it is possible to minimize the value of n_0 by manipulating the parameters in the proof of Theorem 2.10. However, such minimization is unnecessary for any practical use of Algorithm 2.1 because $n_0 = 8 \times 10^5$ is small enough for running an $O(\sqrt{n})$ algorithm.

3 Evidence for Conjecture 2.7

In this section, we give evidence for Conjecture 2.7. In particular, we prove it for k = 1, 2. Recall that p and r are primes as in Conjecture 2.7.

Lemma 3.1. For any positive integer M,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{M-1} x^k \equiv 0 \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)} \iff M \equiv 0 \pmod{r}.$$

Proof. Let $m \equiv M \pmod{r}$ with $0 \leq m < r$. Then,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{M-1} x^{k} \equiv 0 \qquad (\text{mod } p, \Phi_{r}(x))$$

$$\iff \qquad \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} x^{k} \equiv 0 \qquad (\text{mod } p, \Phi_{r}(x))$$

$$\iff \qquad m = 0$$

$$\iff \qquad M \equiv 0 \qquad (\text{mod } r)$$

The following result is well known.

Theorem 3.2. (Dirichlet's theorem) Let a, d be two positive coprime integers. Then, there are infinitely many primes comgruent to a mod d.

Lemma 3.3. For any positive integer N with (N, r) = 1, there exist infinitely many primes q such that

$$\Phi_q(x) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x^k \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$

Proof. Given N > 0 and (N, r) = 1, by Theorem 3.2 there exists a prime q with $q \equiv N \pmod{r}$. By Lemma 3.1,

$$\Phi_q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} x^k = x^N \left(\sum_{k=0}^{q-N-1} x^k \right) + \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x^k \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x^k \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$

Proposition 3.4.

 $\Phi_{p_1}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1}(x) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)} \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad p_1 \equiv q_1 \pmod{r},$

where p_1, q_1 are primes.

Proof. If $p_1 = q_1$, the proposition is trivially true.

Without loss of generality, suppose $p_1 < q_1$. Then,

$$\begin{array}{ll} \Phi_{p_1}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1}(x) & (\mod p, \Phi_r(x)) \\ \Leftrightarrow & \displaystyle \sum_{k=0}^{p_1-1} x^k \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{q_1-1} x^k & (\mod p, \Phi_r(x)) \\ \Leftrightarrow & \displaystyle \sum_{k=0}^{q_1-p_1-1} x^k \equiv 0 & (\mod p, \Phi_r(x)) \\ \Leftrightarrow & p_1 \equiv q_1 & (\mod r), \end{array}$$

by Lemma 3.1.

Proposition 3.5. Let p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2 be primes p_1, p_2 distinct mod r, and with q_1, q_2 distinct mod r. Moreover, assume that $p_i \neq 1 \pmod{r}$ for i = 1, 2. Then,

$$\Phi_{p_1p_2}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1q_2}(x) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$$
(3.4)

implies

$$p_1 \equiv q_i \pmod{r}$$
 and $p_2 \equiv q_j \pmod{r}$,

where $\{i, j\} = \{1, 2\}.$

Proof. Case 1: Suppose that all p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2 are distinct mod r. Then, r is at least 7. For primes $p_0 \neq q_0$, $\Phi_{p_0q_0}(x) = \frac{(x^{p_0q_0}-1)(x-1)}{(x^{p_0}-1)(x^{q_0}-1)}$. Therefore, $\Phi_{p_1p_2}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1q_2}(x) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$ implies

$$\frac{(x^{p_1p_2}-1)(x-1)}{(x^{p_1}-1)(x^{p_2}-1)} \equiv \frac{(x^{q_1q_2}-1)(x-1)}{(x^{q_1}-1)(x^{q_2}-1)} \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$$

Multiply both sides by the denominators:

$$(x^{p_1p_2} - 1)(x^{q_1} - 1)(x^{q_2} - 1) \equiv (x^{q_1q_2} - 1)(x^{p_1} - 1)(x^{p_2} - 1) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$
(3.5)

If $p_1p_2 \equiv q_1q_2 \pmod{r}$, congruence (3.5) becomes

$$(x^{q_1} - 1)(x^{q_2} - 1) \equiv (x^{p_1} - 1)(x^{p_2} - 1) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}, x^{q_1 + q_2} + x^{p_1} + x^{p_2} \equiv x^{p_1 + p_2} + x^{q_1} + x^{q_2} \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}.$$

Note that $p_1 + p_2 \not\equiv q_1 + q_2 \pmod{r}$. Otherwise, p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2 are distinct roots of $T^2 - (p_1 + p_2)T + p_1p_2$ in \mathbb{F}_r , which is a contradiction. Then, $x^{q_1+q_2} + x^{p_1} + x^{p_2} \pmod{p, x^r - 1}$ and $x^{p_1+p_2} + x^{q_1} + x^{q_2} \pmod{p, x^r - 1}$ are polynomials with different degrees since the three terms $x^{q_1+q_2}, x^{p_1}, x^{p_2}$ are not congruent to any of $x^{p_1+p_2}, x^{q_1}, x^{q_2}$. Therefore, since $\Phi_r(x) = (x^r - 1)/(x - 1)$,

$$x^{q_1+q_2} + x^{p_1} + x^{p_2} \not\equiv x^{p_1+p_2} + x^{q_1} + x^{q_2} \pmod{p, x^r - 1}$$

$$\implies \qquad \frac{x^{q_1+q_2}-x^{p_1+p_2}}{x-1} \neq \frac{x^{q_1}-x^{p_1}}{x-1} + \frac{x^{q_2}-x^{p_2}}{x-1} \qquad (\text{mod } p, \Phi_r(x))$$

$$\implies x^{q_1+q_2} + x^{p_1} + x^{p_2} \not\equiv x^{p_1+p_2} + x^{q_1} + x^{q_2} \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$$

This contradiction implies that $p_1p_2 \not\equiv q_1q_2 \pmod{r}$.

Expanding the terms in congruence (3.5), we have

$$x^{p_1p_2+q_1+q_2} - x^{p_1p_2+q_1} - x^{p_1p_2+q_2} - x^{q_1+q_2} + x^{p_1p_2} + x^{q_1} + x^{q_2} - 1$$

$$\equiv x^{q_1q_2+p_1+p_2} - x^{q_1q_2+p_1} - x^{q_1q_2+p_2} - x^{p_1+p_2} + x^{q_1q_2} + x^{p_1} + x^{p_2} - 1$$

(mod $p, \Phi_r(x)$)

Let
$$f(x) = x^{p_1 p_2 + q_1 + q_2} + x^{q_1 q_2 + p_1} + x^{q_1 q_2 + p_2} + x^{p_1 + p_2} + x^{p_1 p_2} + x^{q_1} + x^{q_2},$$

 $g(x) = x^{q_1 q_2 + p_1 + p_2} + x^{p_1 p_2 + q_1} + x^{p_1 p_2 + q_2} + x^{q_1 + q_2} + x^{q_1 q_2} + x^{p_1} + x^{p_2}.$

As before, we first show that $f(x) \not\equiv g(x) \pmod{p, x^r - 1}$. Since x - 1 divides f(x) - g(x), we must have $f(x) \not\equiv g(x) \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$. As a result, congruence (3.5) leads to a contradiction.

The sum of the coefficients in $f(x) \pmod{x^r-1}$ is exactly 7. There are only 7 terms in f(x). Since each power of x is congruent mod x^r-1 to a power x^j with $0 \leq j < r$, we see that f(x) is congruent mod x^r-1 to a sum of seven not necessarily distinct such powers x^j . Since $p > r \geq 7$, these cannot cancel each other mod p. A similar result holds for g(x). If $f(x) \equiv g(x) \pmod{p, x^r-1}$, then x^{p_2} is congruent to some term in f(x). The only possibilities are $x^{p_1p_2+q_1+q_2}$ and $x^{q_1q_2+p_1}$. Similarly, x^{p_1} must be congruent to $x^{p_1p_2+q_1+q_2}$ or $x^{q_1q_2+p_2}$.

If

$$p_2 \equiv q_1 q_2 + p_1 \pmod{r},$$
 (3.6)

then $p_1 \not\equiv q_1q_2 + p_2 \pmod{r}$; otherwise, $p_2 - p_1 \equiv q_1q_2 \equiv p_1 - p_2 \pmod{r}$, which is impossible. Therefore, $p_1 \equiv p_1p_2 + q_1 + q_2 \pmod{r}$. Then, using these congruences for p_1 and p_2 , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x^{q_1q_2+p_2} + x^{p_1+p_2} + x^{p_1p_2} + x^{q_1} + x^{q_2} \\ &\equiv x^{q_1q_2+p_1+p_2} + x^{p_1p_2+q_1} + x^{p_1p_2+q_2} + x^{q_1+q_2} + x^{q_1q_2} \pmod{p, x^r - 1} \end{aligned}$$

The only possible term in the left-hand side congruent to $x^{q_1q_2}$ is $x^{p_1+p_2}$. But congruence (3.6) implies $q_1q_2 \equiv p_2 - p_1 \pmod{r}$. So $q_1q_2 \not\equiv p_1 + p_2 \pmod{r}$. Hence, $f(x) \not\equiv g(x) \pmod{p, x^r - 1}$.

If $p_2 \equiv p_1p_2 + q_1 + q_2 \pmod{r}$, then $p_1 \equiv q_1q_2 + p_2 \pmod{r}$. The case is the same as before by switching the roles of p_1 and p_2 .

Case 2: Suppose that some p_i is congruent to some $q_j \mod r$. we may assume that $p_1 \equiv q_1 \equiv m \pmod{r}$ for some 1 < m < r. Note that $m \neq 1$ by assumption. By Lemma 3.4, $\Phi_{p_1}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1}(x) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} x^k \pmod{p, \Phi_r(x)}$. Therefore,

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{p_1p_2}(x) &\equiv \Phi_{q_1q_2}(x) & (\text{mod } p, x^r - 1) \\ \implies & \Phi_{p_1}(x) \Phi_{p_1p_2}(x) \equiv \Phi_{q_1}(x) \Phi_{q_1q_2}(x) & (\text{mod } p, x^r - 1) \\ \implies & \Phi_{p_1}(x^{p_2}) \equiv \Phi_{q_1}(x^{q_2}) & (\text{mod } p, x^r - 1) \\ \implies & \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x^{kp_2} \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} x^{kq_2} & (\text{mod } p, x^r - 1) \end{split}$$

Let $M = \{1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$. We see that $p_2M = q_2M$ as subsets of $\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z}$. Let $a \equiv p_0q_0^{-1} \pmod{r}$. Then multiplication by $a \pmod{r}$ is a permutation of M. By Lemma 3.6 below, a = 1. Therefore, $p_2 \equiv q_2 \pmod{r}$.

Lemma 3.6. Let q be a prime and let 1 < m < q. Let $M = \{1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$. Suppose $0 \le a < q$ and aM = M in \mathbb{F}_q . Then, a = 1.

Proof. If a = 0, then $aM = \{0\} \neq M$, so we may assume that $a \geq 1$. For any $1 \leq a < q$, multiplication by $a \pmod{q}$ is a permutation of $\{1, 2, \dots, q-1\}$. If aM = M, multiplication by $a \pmod{q}$ is also a permutation of M. As a consequence, multiplication by $a \pmod{q}$ also permutes $\overline{M} \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{m, \dots, q-1\}$. Both M and \overline{M} are not empty since 1 < m < q.

Suppose $a \neq 1$. Let q = ua + v, where the quotient $u = \lfloor q/a \rfloor \geq 1$ and the remainder v = q - ua < a. This implies ua > q/2. We claim that $\{1, 2, \dots, ua\} \subseteq M$ and $\{q - 1, q - 2, \dots, q - ua\} \subseteq \overline{M}$. Then, $|M| + |\overline{M}| > q$, which leads to a contradiction.

We show by induction that $A_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{1, 2, \dots, ak\} \subseteq M$ for $1 \leq k \leq u$. Note that A_k is a set of exactly ak elements in \mathbb{F}_q because $ak \leq au < q$. Since $1 \in M$, we have $a \cdot 1 \in M$. Therefore, $1 \leq a \leq m-1$, so $A_1 \subseteq M$. Assume $A_{k-1} \subseteq M$ for k > 1. We have $k \in A_{k-1}$ because $k \leq 2(k-1) \leq a(k-1)$. Then, $ak \in aM = M$, which implies $A_k \subseteq M$.

The statement $\{q-1, q-2, \cdots, q-ak\} \subseteq \overline{M}$ can be shown by a similar argument, beginning with $q-1 \in \overline{M}$.

Acknowledgments We thank Lawrence C. Washington for many useful suggestions and discussions.

References

- William Adams and Daniel Shanks. Strong primality tests that are not sufficient. Math. Comp., 39(159):255–300, 1982.
- [2] Manindra Agrawal and Somenath Biswas. Primality and identity testing via Chinese remaindering. J. ACM, 50(4):429–443, 2003.
- [3] Manindra Agrawal, Neeraj Kayal, and Nitin Saxena. PRIMES is in P. Ann. of Math. (2), 160(2):781–793, 2004.
- [4] N. C. Ankeny. The least quadratic non residue. Ann. of Math. (2), 55:65– 72, 1952.
- [5] A. O. L. Atkin and F. Morain. Elliptic curves and primality proving. *Math. Comp.*, 61(203):29–68, 1993.
- [6] Pedro Berrizbeitia. Sharpening "PRIMES is in P" for a large family of numbers. Math. Comp., 74(252):2043–2059 (electronic), 2005.
- [7] David A. Clark and M. Ram Murty. The Euclidean algorithm for Galois extensions of Q. J. Reine Angew. Math., 459:151–162, 1995.
- [8] Etienne Fouvry. Théorème de Brun-Titchmarsh; application au théorème de Fermat. 79(2):383–407, 1985.
- [9] Shafi Goldwasser and Joe Kilian. Primality testing using elliptic curves. J. ACM, 46(4):450–472, 1999.
- [10] Hendrik W. Lenstra Jr. and Carl Pomerance. Primality testing with gaussian periods. 2005. Preliminary version. Available from http://www.math.dartmouth.edu/~carlp/PDF/complexity12.pdf.
- [11] Gary L. Miller. Riemann's hypothesis and tests for primality. In STOC '75: Proceedings of seventh annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing, pages 234–239, New York, NY, USA, 1975. ACM Press.
- [12] Michael O. Rabin. Probabilistic algorithm for testing primality. J. Number Theory, 12(1):128–138, 1980.
- [13] Robert Solovay and V. Strassen. A fast Monte-Carlo test for primality. SIAM Journal on Computing, 6(1):84–85, 1977.