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A method to investigate primality.

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E.W.Dijkstra.



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A Method to Investigate Primality

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The method determines the smallest odd prime factor of a number N by testing the remainders left after division by the successive odd numbers 3, 5, \cdots $f_m - 2$, f_m : here, f_m is the largest odd number not exceeding $N^{\frac{1}{2}}$. If none of these remainders vanishes, N is a prime number.

Let f be one of the odd trial divisors. Remainder r_0 and quotient q_0 are defined by the relations

$$N = r_0 + fq_0, \quad 0 \le r_0 < f.$$

Now q_0 is divided by f + 2, giving

$$q_0 = r_1 + (f+2)q_1, \quad 0 \le r_1 < f+2.$$

Then q_1 is divided by (f + 4), etc., and this process is continued till a quotient (q_n, say) equal to zero is found; r_n is the last remainder in the sequence unequal to zero. After elimination of the q_i we get the relations

(1)
$$N = r_0 + fr_1 + f(f+2)r_2 + f(f+2)(f+4)r_3 + \cdots + f(f+2) \cdots (f+2n-2)r_n$$

and

$$(2) 0 \le r_i < f + 2i.$$

Once the sequence r_i is known for a given value of f, it is easy to compute the corresponding sequence r_i^* , defined by the relations (1) and (2) with respect to $f^* = f + 2$, as they are expressed in terms of the r_i by the recurrence relations

(3)
$$b_0 = 0$$
, $r_i^* = r_i - 2(i+1)r_{i+1} - b_i + (f^* + 2i)b_{i+1}$, $(i = 0, 1, \dots, n)$.

The relation corresponding to (1) is satisfied for arbitrary values of the numbers b_i with $i \ge 1$; they are fixed, however, by the relations corresponding to (2)

(2*)
$$0 \le r_i^* < f^* + 2i$$

On account of the inequalities (2) and (2^{*})—and $b_0 = 0$ —the b_i satisfy the inequalities

$$(4) 0 \le b_i \le 2i.$$

We have chosen $b_0 = 0$. Then the relations (3) and (2^{*}) with i = 0 determine r_0^* and b_1 ; once b_1 is known, (3) and (2^{*}) with i = 1 determine r_1^* and b_2 , etc. The process is easily programmed.

As $r_{n+1} = 0$, and the inequalities (2^{*}) with i = n are always satisfied with $b_{n+1} = 0$, the process terminates with

 $r_n^* = r_n - b_n.$

A METHOD TO INVESTIGATE PRIMALITY

As soon as $r_n^* = 0$ is found—in that case it can be proved that $r_{n-1}^* \neq 0$ —the index *n*, marking the last $r_i \neq 0$ in the sequence, is lowered by 1.

In order to find the smallest odd prime factor of N, the r_i defined by (2) and (3) and f = 3 are computed. Here the only divisions in the process are carried out. At the same time the initial value of n is found. If N is large, this value may be considerable: for instance n = 11 is found for $N = 10^{13}$. The amount of work involved in each step is roughly proportional to n^2 . Fortunately large initial values of n decrease very rapidly. As soon as $f \cdot (f + 2) \cdot (f + 4) > N$, n takes the value 2. This is its minimum value: when $r_n^* = 0$ with n = 2 is found, $(f^* + 2)^2 > N$ holds and N is a prime number. (If not, we should have found an $r_0 = 0$ earlier and should have stopped there.)

The process still may be speeded up. Let b_n' be the minimum of b_n for fixed n up till a certain moment: then it can be shown that the next b_n satisfies

$$(5) b_n \leq b_n' + 1.$$

Let us apply this to the last stage n = 2. According to (4) b_2 satisfies $0 \le b_2 \le 4$. According to (5), however, the only possible values for b_2 are 0 and 1 as soon as a value $b_2 = 0$ once has been found. This is bound to happen for f ranging (roughly) from $(4N)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ to $(8N)^{\frac{1}{2}}$. In the case $b_2 = 0$ it is apparently unnecessary to test whether $r_2 = 0$ is reached. (If $N \ge 144$, the case $b_n = 0$ with n = 2 occurs, before $r_n^* = 0$ with n = 2 is found; prime numbers are then always detected in this last stage.)

The less efficient steps of the process for large n (i.e., small f) could be avoided by carrying out divisions for small values of f (see Alway [1]). However we strongly advise against doing this.

If the process described above is started at f = 3, the *whole* computation can be checked at the end by inserting the final values of f and r_i into (1). As all the intermediate results are used in the computation, this check seems satisfactory.

If a double-length number N is to be investigated, another argument can be added: division of N by small f may give a double-length quotient, i.e., two divisions (and two multiplications to check) are needed for each f. In our case only part of the initial n divisions are double-length divisions.

The process described above has been programmed for the ARMAC (Automatische Rekenmachine van het Mathematisch Centrum). The speed of this machine is about 2400 operations per second. A twelve decimal number was identified as the square of a prime in less than 23 minutes.

E. W. DIJKSTRA

Mathematical Centre Computation Department Amsterdam, The Netherlands

1. G. G. ALWAY, "A method of factorisation using a high-speed computer," MTAC, v. 6, 1952, p. 59-60.