

Primality Testing: A Comprehensive Analysis of Methods and Time Complexity

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Abstract

This paper examines various primality testing algorithms and analyzes their time complexity. The algorithms we examine include the trial division, which is straightforward but becomes inefficient with large numbers; Fermat's little theorem which is a probabilistic method included in Monte Carlo type of randomized algorithm; the Solovay–Strassen, based on properties from number theory, particularly those related to Euler's criterion and Jacobi symbols; and the Miller–Rabin Probabilistic Test, which balances efficiency and accuracy, providing probable results for very large numbers. The advantages and disadvantages of each algorithm are evaluated, considering both their theoretical efficiency and practical use in real-world scenarios. Additionally, we analyze the applicability of these algorithms in cryptography and other real-world contexts where identifying prime numbers is critical.

Keywords: Primality testing, trial division, probabilistic method, randomized algorithm

INTRODUCTION

Prime numbers serve as the fundamental building blocks of the number system and play a crucial role in diverse fields, such as cryptography, coding theory, and computational mathematics. The primality test is essential to determine whether a given number is prime. This test has applications that extend far beyond theoretical mathematics, touching upon areas such as secure communications and digital currencies [1].

This research on primality testing aims to demystify these enigmatic numbers through computational efficiency and innovative design [2].

This research paper is not just about implementing and comparing algorithms. It is about understanding the underlying principles, appreciating the beauty of mathematical logic, and recognizing

the practical implications of these theories. Prime numbers may appear to be a specialized topic, but their applications are wide-ranging and diverse. The importance of prime numbers cannot be overstated by securing online transactions to efficiently compress data [3].

PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

Trial Division

The trial division method is one of the simplest and most straightforward methods for testing whether a number is prime. It is an entry-level algorithm widely taught in introductory programming and mathematics courses because it is easy to understand and implement [4].

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Algorithm

Algorithm Trial Division Primality Test(n):

```

if n <= 1:
    return False
if n == 2 or n == 3:
    return True
if n % 2 == 0:
    return False
for i = 2 to sqrt(n):
    if n % i == 0:
        return False
return True

```

Fermat's Little Theorem

Fermat's theorem is a fundamental concept in number theory, providing an intriguing approach to primality testing, although it is not entirely reliable [5].

Fermat's Little Theorem states that if p is a prime number and a is an integer not divisible by p , then $a^{(p-1)} = 1 \pmod{p}$.

Algorithm

Algorithm Fermat Test(n, k):

```

if n <= 1:
    return False
if n == 2 or n == 3:
    return True
if n % 2 == 0:
    return False
for i = 1 to k do:
    a = random(2, n - 2)
    if mod_exp(a, n-1, n) != 1:
        return False
return True
function mod_exp(base, exp, mod):
    result = 1
    while exp > 0:
        if exp % 2 == 1:
            result = (result * base) % mod
        base = (base * base) % mod
        exp = exp / 2
    return result

```

Miller–Rabin Test

The Miller–Rabin test relies on the principles of modular arithmetic. It is probabilistic, meaning that it can indicate that a number is composite with certainty, but it can only suggest probable primality [6].

It involves selecting a random integer a between 2 and $p-2$, computing the value of $b = a^{(p-1)} \pmod{p}$, and checking whether b is not equal to 1. If b is not equal to 1, then the number p is a composite. If b is equal to 1, the strong Fermat test is performed, which involves factorizing $p-1$ as $2^k * m$, computing $x = a^m \pmod{p}$, and checking whether x is equal to 1 or $p-1$. If x is equal to 1 or $p-1$, the number p is likely to be primed. Otherwise, for $i = 1$ to $k-1$, x is the squared modulo p , and if the result is equal to $p-1$, the number p is likely to be prime [7]. Otherwise, p is a composite value. To increase the probability of correctness, the test was repeated multiple times using different random bases. The greater the number of iterations, the lower the probability of a false positive (a composite number incorrectly identified as prime).

Algorithm

Algorithm MillerRabin(n, k):

```
if  $n \leq 1$ :
    return False
if  $n == 2$  or  $n == 3$ :
    return True
if  $n \% 2 == 0$ :
    return False

 $s = 0$ 
 $d = n - 1$ 
while  $d \% 2 == 0$ :
     $d = d / 2$ 
     $s = s + 1$ 

for  $i = 0$  to  $k - 1$ :
     $a = \text{random}(2, n - 2)$ 
     $x = \text{mod\_exp}(a, d, n)$ 
    if  $x == 1$  or  $x == n - 1$ :
        continue
    for  $r = 0$  to  $s - 1$ :
         $x = \text{mod\_exp}(x, 2, n)$ 
        if  $x == n - 1$ :
            break
    if  $x != n - 1$ :
        return False

return True
```

function $\text{mod_exp}(\text{base}, \text{exp}, \text{mod})$:

```
result = 1
while  $\text{exp} > 0$ :
    if  $\text{exp} \% 2 == 1$ :
        result = (result * base) % mod
    base = (base * base) % mod
    exp = exp / 2
return result
```

Solovay–Strassen Test

The Solovay–Strassen primality test is a probabilistic method that was developed by Solovay and Strassen. Solovay and Volker Strassen were involved in checking a condition derived from Euler's criterion using the Jacobi symbol. This test can reliably determine whether a number is composite or likely prime. The test never states a prime number as a composite number, similar to the Fermat and Miller–Rabin primality tests [8]. It is used in cryptography because of its very low error probability.

Algorithm

Algorithm SolovayStrassen(n, k):

```
if  $n \leq 2$  or  $n \% 2 == 0$ :
    return False
for  $i = 1$  to  $k$  do:
     $a = \text{random}(2, n - 1)$ 
    jacobi = computeJacobiSymbol( $a, n$ )
    if jacobi = 0 or  $\text{mod\_exp}(a, (n-1)/2, n) != \text{jacobi} \% n$ :
        return False
```

```
return True
```

Algorithm computeJacobiSymbol(a, n):

```
# Compute Jacobi symbol (a/n)
```

```
# This is a placeholder function; actual implementation requires the handling of edge cases [9].
```

Algorithm mod_exp(base, exp, mod):

```
result = 1
```

```
while exp > 0:
```

```
    if exp % 2 == 1:
```

```
        result = (result * base) % mod
```

```
    base = (base * base) % mod
```

```
    exp = exp / 2
```

```
return result
```

RESULTS AND COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

Figures 1–5 represent the results and the complexity analysis of the proposed model.

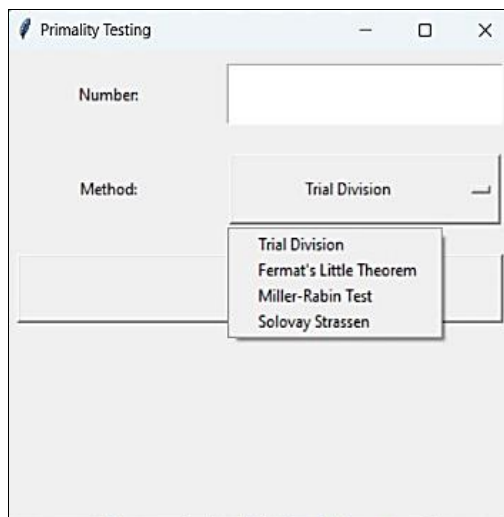


Figure 1. GUI for primality testing and time complexity analysis.

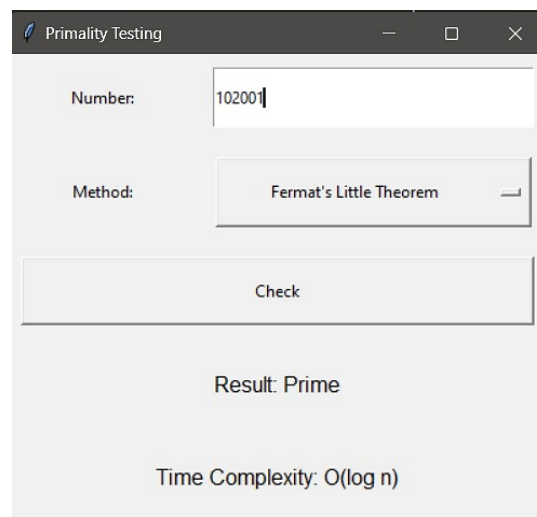


Figure 2. Fermat's Little Theorem.

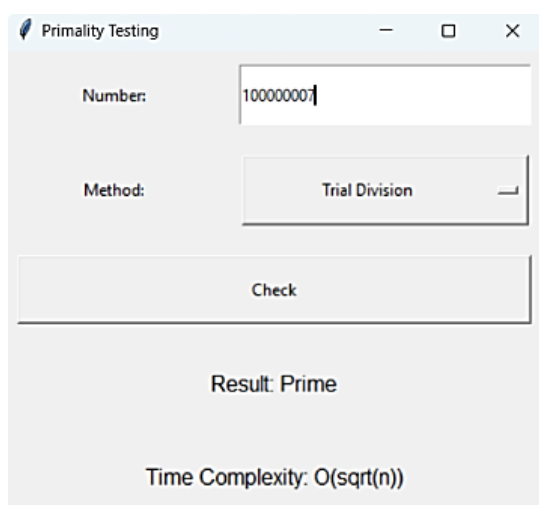


Figure 3. Trial division.

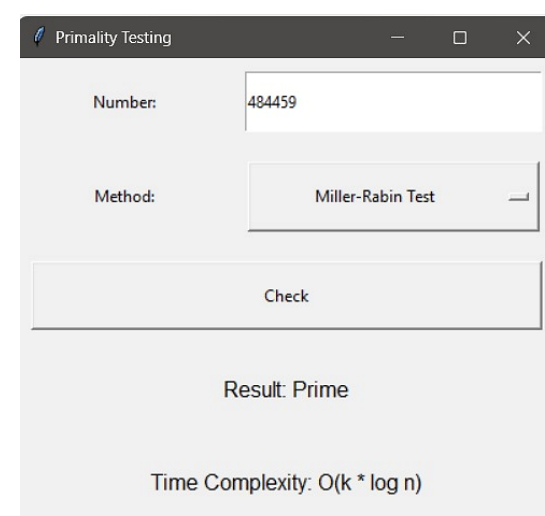


Figure 4. Miller-Rabin Test.

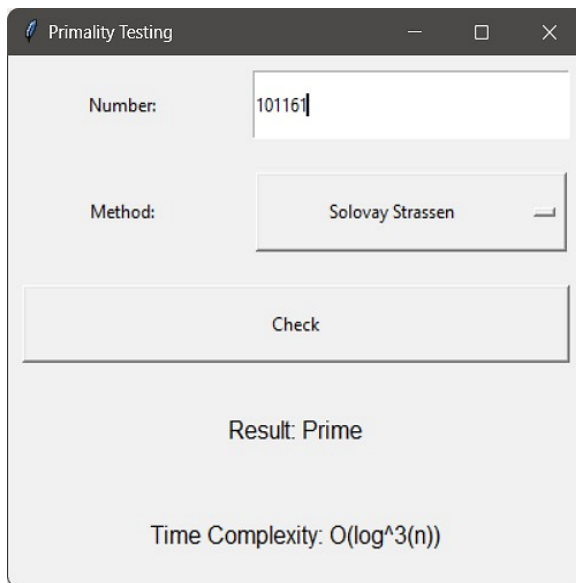


Figure 5. Solovay–Strassen method.

Trial Division

The trial division method has a time complexity of $O(n)$. This is because to test whether a number n is prime, divisors need to be checked up to n [10].

Fermat’s Little Theorem

Modular exponentiation: This can be performed in $O(\log n)$ time using the method of exponentiation by squaring. This is efficient, even for large exponents.

Fermat’s test loop: The test is repeated k times for accuracy, and each iteration involves a single modular exponentiation. Consequently, the total time complexity was $O(k \log n)$

Miller–Rabin Test

Preprocessing step (finding s and d): This step involves repeatedly dividing $n-1$ by 2, which requires $O(\log n)$ time [11].

Main loop: Each iteration involves modular exponentiation, which can be performed in $O(\log n)$ time.

Overall complexity: Because the test is run k times for reliability, the total time complexity is $O(k \log n)$

Solovay–Strassen Method

Modular exponentiation: Done in $O(\log n)$ time using exponentiation by squaring.

Jacobi symbol calculation: Also takes $O(k \log n)$ time.

Overall complexity: Because the test is repeated k times for accuracy, the total time complexity is $O(k \log n)$.

CONCLUSION

Various primality testing algorithms offer a trade-off between simplicity, efficiency, and accuracy, making them suitable for different applications. The trial division method, while simple, has a high time complexity of $O(n)$, making it impractical for large numbers because of the need to check divisors up

to n . Fermat's Little Theorem, with modular exponentiation performed in $O(\log n)$ time, improves efficiency, but its reliability depends on the number of iterations k , resulting in a total time complexity of $O(k \log n)$.

The Miller–Rabin test further improves upon Fermat's test by introducing a preprocessing step to break down the problem, which requires $O(\log n)$ time, and its main modular exponentiation loop operates in $O(\log n)$ time. The overall time complexity is $O(k \log n)$ by repeating the test k times to increase accuracy. Similarly, the Solovay–Strassen method employs modular exponentiation in $O(\log n)$ time, coupled with the Jacobi symbol calculation, which also operates in $O(k \log n)$, resulting in the same overall complexity.

Each of these algorithms provides a balance between computational cost and accuracy, with the Miller–Rabin Test and Solovay–Strassen method being the most widely used because of their efficiency and probabilistic guarantees. In practice, the choice of algorithm depends on the size of n , the required level of certainty, and the computational resources available. For large-scale cryptographic applications, probabilistic methods such as Miller–Rabin tend to be favored because of their significantly lower computational complexity when compared to deterministic methods such as trial division.

Applications and Future Scope

Primality testing, the process of determining whether a number is prime, plays a vital role in several fields and has significant potential for future advancements. In cryptography, it is important to generate large prime numbers, which are integral to encryption algorithms such as Rivest-Shamir-Adleman (RSA), which secure online transactions and communications [12, 13]. Efficient primality tests are also critical in computer science, aiding the design of algorithms, improving computational efficiency, and addressing integer factorization challenges. In the fields of blockchain and cryptocurrencies, primality testing plays a crucial role in maintaining the security and integrity of decentralized systems. In pure mathematics, it is employed to analyze the distribution of prime numbers and verify various mathematical conjectures. Additionally, prime numbers are essential in scientific computing, contributing to the precision of numerical simulations and large-scale computations [14].

The future of primality testing appears promising and expansive. Researchers are continually striving to develop faster and more efficient algorithms with ongoing efforts to improve the Azure Kubernetes Service (AKS) primality test for wider practical use. Quantum computing has the potential to transform primality testing by introducing exponentially faster methods for integer factorization. As encryption demands increase, there is an increasing need for more robust primality tests capable of handling larger prime numbers and supporting advanced encryption methods such as post-quantum cryptography [15]. The integration of artificial intelligence and machine learning can further enhance the field, allowing AI to predict prime numbers and create new testing algorithms. Primality testing is expected to find applications across diverse sectors, including finance, genetics, logistics, and AI, thereby influencing the digital and scientific domains of the future.

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