TECHNICAL NOTES AND SHORT PAPERS

A Method to Investigate Primality

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

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

Now q_0 is divided by $f + 2$, giving

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

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

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

and

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

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

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

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

$$(2^*) \qquad 0 \leq r_i^* < f^* + 2i.$$

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

$$(4) \qquad 0 \leq b_i \leq 2i.$$

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

$$r_n^* = r_n - b_n.$$

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 $N \approx 10^{13}$. 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

$$b_n \leq b_n' + 1. \tag{5}$$

Let us apply this to the last stage $n = 2$. According to (4) b_2 satisfies $0 \leq b_2 \leq 4$. 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 $N \geq 144$, 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.