

**Computer Science & Engineering Department**  
**IIT Kharagpur**  
*Computational Number Theory: CS60094*  
*Lecture VII*

Instructor: Goutam Biswas

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## 1 Test for prime III (Agrawal, Kayal, and Saxena)

Miller's polynomial time prime test algorithm depends on the *truth* of the *Extended Riemann Hypothesis*<sup>1</sup> which is unknown. In August 6, 2002, Agrawal, Kayal and Saxena from IIT Kanpur proposed the first polynomial time algorithm for testing prime. This is a remarkable discovery in theory of computing, but it has little practical utility. Probabilistic decision procedures e.g. Miller-Rabin is much more suitable for application, as the probability of error can be made sufficiently small and it runs in lower degree polynomial time<sup>2</sup>. Following is an overview of the AKS-algorithm.

### 1.1 Polynomial Over a Ring

Let  $(R, +, \times, 0, 1)$ , be a commutative ring with identity. The set of polynomials of one variable over  $R$ ,  $R[X]$ , is defined to be the collection of sequences  $\{a_i\}_{i=0}^{\infty}$ , where  $a_i \in R$ , and only finite number of them are non-zero. The largest value of  $i$  for a non-zero  $a_i$  is called the *degree* of the polynomial.

A polynomial is usually written as

$$a_0 + a_1X + a_2X^2 + \cdots + a_nX^n,$$

where  $a_n \neq 0$  and the degree of the polynomial is  $n$ . A polynomial of degree zero is an element of  $R$ .

If  $p$  and  $q$  are two polynomials, their addition and multiplication are defined in the usual way over the underlying  $R$ .

*Example 1.* Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}_6$  and  $p = 4X^2 + 3$  and  $q = 3X^5 + 4X^2 + 5X + 4$ . Then,  $p + q = 3X^5 + [(4+4) \bmod 6]X^2 + 5X + [(3+4) \bmod 6] = 3X^5 + 2X^2 + 5X + 1$ . And,

$$p \times q = 3X^5 + 4X^4 + 2X^3 + 4X^2 + 3X.$$

It is not difficult to prove that  $(R[X], +, \times, 0, 1)$  is also a commutative *ring* with identity.

### 1.2 AKS Algorithm

We shall present the outline of the basic idea of the *Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena*-algorithm for testing prime. We follow [MD] and [VS].

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<sup>1</sup>For all real number  $s > 1$ , the *zeta function* is defined as  $\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}$ . The infinite series converges as  $s > 1$ . The connection of  $\zeta(s)$  with the set of primes is given by *Euler's identity*,  $\zeta(s) = \prod_{\text{prime } p} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1}$ . Right-hand side is actually  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i^s}\right)^{-1}$ , where  $p_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  prime.

The thing turns out to be more interesting if we take the domain of  $\zeta()$  as complex number i.e.  $s \in \mathbb{C}$ . Now the series converges absolutely if  $\text{Res} > 1$ . In fact one can extend  $\zeta(s)$  nicely only by excluding  $s = 1$ .

The *Riemann Hypothesis* is as follows: if  $s \in \mathbb{C}$ , such that  $s = (x, y)$ ,  $0 < x < 1$ ,  $\zeta(s) = 0$ , then  $x = \frac{1}{2}$ . So the *non-trivial zeros* of  $\zeta()$  should be on the *critical line*  $(1/2, y)$ . Note that there are *trivial zeros* of  $\zeta()$  when  $s$  is a negative even integer.

<sup>2</sup>The complexity of the AKS-algorithm using simple implementation of the basic operations is  $O((\log n)^{16.5})$  in terms of bit operations. With more sophisticated implementation of basic operations it is  $O((\log n)^{10.5})$  bit operations. More sophisticated analysis of the algorithm gives a running time  $O((\log n)^{7.5})$ . Using some conjecture related to *Sophie Germain prime* this is estimated to  $O((\log n)^6)$ .

### 1.2.1 Outline of the Algorithm

Following propositions about the polynomial ring  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]$  characterises the primality of  $n$ .

Proposition 1. If  $n$  is prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , then  $(X + a)^n = X^n + a$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]$ .

**Proof:** We use binomial theorem to expand  $(X + a)^n$ .

$$(X + a)^n = X^n + \sum_{r=1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{r} a^r X^{n-r} + a^n$$

It is known that, if  $n$  is prime then  $n \nmid \binom{n}{r}$ , for  $r = 1, \dots, n - 1$ . So we have

$$(X + a)^n = X^n + a^n$$

in  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]$ . From the Fermat's little theorem, we also have  $a^n = a$  if  $n$  is a prime. QED.

Proposition 2. If  $n$  is not a prime and  $p$  is a prime factor of  $n$ , then  $n$  does not divide  $\binom{n}{p}$ .

**Proof:** Let  $n = p^k \times m$ , where  $p \nmid m$ . Consider

$$\binom{n}{p} = \frac{n(n-1) \cdots (n-p+1)}{p!}.$$

Clearly  $n$  in the numerator is divisible by  $p^k$  but no other terms in the numerator is divisible by  $p$ . The denominator is divisible only by  $p$ . So  $\binom{n}{p}$  is divisible by  $p^{k-1}$  and not by  $p^k$ . So it is not divisible by  $n$ . QED.

Proposition 3. If  $n$  is not prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , then  $(X + a)^n \neq X^n + a$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]$ .

**Proof:** We have already proved that  $n$  does not divide  $\binom{n}{p}$  where  $p$  is a prime factor  $n$ . Again  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , so  $\gcd(a^p, n) = 1$ . So  $\binom{n}{p} a^p \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$  and a term like  $\binom{n}{p} a^p X^{n-p}$  will not be zero in the expansion of  $(X + a)^n$ . QED.

We may use this characterization to test prime. We choose  $a = 1$ , use fast exponentiation algorithm to compute  $(X + 1)^n$  and see whether it is equal to  $X^n + 1$ . Unfortunately the method is not efficient as there may be many  $O(n)$  non-zero terms in the pre-final stage and its time complexity is worst than trial division which is  $O(\sqrt{n})$ .

Example 2. Let  $n = 7 = 111_2$ . We compute in  $\mathbb{Z}_7$ .

$$\begin{aligned} & (X + 1)^7 \\ &= (X + 1)^{111_2} \\ &= (X + 1)^4 \times (X + 1)^2 \times (X + 1)^1 \\ &= (X^4 + 4X^3 + 6X^2 + 4X + 1) \times (X^3 + 3X^2 + 3X + 1) \\ &= X^7 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Now take  $n = 6 = 110_6$ . The computation is in  $\mathbb{Z}_6$ .

$$\begin{aligned} & (X + 1)^6 \\ &= (X + 1)^{110_2} \\ &= (X + 1)^4 \times (X + 1)^2 \\ &= (X^4 + 4X^3 + 6X^2 + 4X + 1) \times (X^2 + 2X + 1) \\ &= X^6 + 3X^4 + 2X^3 + 3X^2 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

The computation cost is heavy. But instead of this equality in  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]$  one may compute

$$(X + a)^n \equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1},$$

with a suitable choice of  $r$ . In this case we have to compute  $(X + a)^n \pmod{X^r - 1}$  and  $(X^n + a) \pmod{X^r - 1}$ . The second computation gives us  $X^{n \bmod r} + a$ .

Example 3.

$$\frac{X^n + a}{X^r - 1} = X^{n-r} + \frac{X^{n-r} + a}{X^r - 1} = \dots = X^{n-r} + X^{n-2r} + \dots + X^{n-qr} + \frac{X^{n \bmod r} + a}{X^r - 1}.$$

So  $(X^n + a) \bmod (X^r - 1) = X^{n \bmod r} + a$ . If  $a = 0$ , then  $X^n \bmod (X^r - 1) = X^{n \bmod r}$ .

In the computation of  $(X + a)^n \bmod (X^r - 1)$ , all coefficients are modulo  $n$  and  $X^m \equiv X^{m \bmod r} \pmod{X^r - 1}$  as  $X^m + a \bmod \equiv X^{m \bmod r} + a \pmod{X^r - 1}$ , and  $a = 0$  gives the result. In the computation process the degree of intermediate polynomials can be kept less than  $r$  and the size of the coefficients less than  $n$ .

Example 4. Let  $n = 7 = 111_2$  and  $r = 2$ . We compute in  $\mathbb{Z}_7$  and  $\bmod (X^2 - 1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} & (X + 1)^7 \\ \equiv & (X + 1)^{111_2} \\ \equiv & [(X + 1)^4 \times (X + 1)^2 \times (X + 1)^1] \\ \equiv & [(X + 1) \times 2(X + 1) \times (X + 1)] \\ \equiv & X + 1 \\ \equiv & (X^7 + 1) \bmod (X^2 - 1). \end{aligned}$$

Now take  $n = 6 = 110_6$ . The computation is in  $\mathbb{Z}_6$  and  $\bmod (X^2 - 1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} & (X + 1)^6 \\ \equiv & (X + 1)^{110_2} \\ \equiv & [(X + 1)^4 \times (X + 1)^2] \\ \equiv & [(X + 1) \times 2(X + 1)] \\ \equiv & 4(X + 1) \\ \neq & 2 \equiv (X^6 + 1) \bmod (X^2 - 1) \end{aligned}$$

If  $r$  is within  $O((\log n)^c)$ , the computation time is bounded by some polynomial of the length of input. If  $n$  is a prime number and  $a < n$ , then  $(X + a)^n \equiv X^{n \bmod r} + a \pmod{X^r - 1}$ , for all  $a$  and  $r$ .

It will be nice to get a single suitable  $r$ , not too large in size, as a witness of  $n$  as a prime. The theory of AKS-algorithm establishes the sufficiency condition for a suitable  $r$  that can be tested in polynomial time. They proved that there is such an  $r < n$ 's. In fact there is an  $r \leq 4[\log n]^2$ . As the value  $r$  is polynomial in the size of input, it may be found in polynomial time by exhaustive search.

But even with a suitable  $r$  it is necessary to check for the equivalence of  $(X + a)^n$  and  $X^n + a$  modulo  $X^r - 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  for a sequence of  $a$ 's. They proved that the number of  $a$ 's are polynomial bounded. But even then the conclusion of the main theorem about  $n$  is *not a prime*, but some *power of a prime*. But in algorithm, testing a perfect power can be done in polynomial time, so a prime can be tested in polynomial time.

While searching for  $r$ , if it is found that  $r|n$ , then  $n$  is *composite* with  $r$  as a factor. Similarly, while going through the sequence of  $a$ 's if it is found that  $(X + a)^n \not\equiv X^{n \bmod r} + a \pmod{(X^r - 1, n)}$ , then also  $n$  is composite with  $(r, a)$  as a witness. The main theorem of the AKS-algorithm is as follows.

Theorem 4. (*Main Theorem*) Let  $n$  and  $r$  be integers such that

1.  $n \geq 3$ ,
2.  $r < n$  is a prime,
3.  $a \nmid n$ , for  $2 \leq a \leq r$ ,
4. order of  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_r^*$   $> 4(\log n)^2$ ,
5.  $(X + a)^n \equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]$ , for  $1 \leq a \leq 2\sqrt{r} \log n$ ,

then  $n$  is a power of a prime.

Following is the AKS-algorithm.

```

isPrimeAKS(n) // n ≥ 2
1  if n = ab, where a, b ≥ 2, then return 0
2  r ← 2
3  while r < n do
4      if r|n return 0
5      if isPrime(r) then
6          if ni mod r ≠ 1, ∀i, 1 ≤ i ≤ 4⌈log n⌉2 then break
7          r ← r + 1
8  if r = n then return 1
9  for a ← 1 to 2⌈√r⌉⌈log n⌉ do
10     if (X + a)n mod (Xr - 1, n) ≠ Xn mod r + a then return 0
11 return 1

```

We assume the correctness of the main theorem and argue that the time complexity of the algorithm is bounded by a polynomial of  $\log n$ , the input length. We shall not go for any sophisticated analysis.

### 1.2.2 Analysis of the Algorithm

We assume that the number is represented in binary. For an input  $n$ , the largest number generated during computation will not exceed  $n^2$ . The size of all intermediate data are bounded by length  $2 \log n$ . So the number of bit operations for all basic arithmetic operations on this data is quadratic of input length,  $O((\log n)^2)$ .

1. The number of arithmetic operations to test perfect power is  $O((\log n)^2 \log \log n)$ . The algorithm to test a perfect power and its analysis is given afterward.
2. We claim (without any proof at this point) that the loop of *line 3-7* will be executed for  $O((\log n)^5)$  times. We take the number of iteration as  $l(n)$ . The value of  $r$  is incremented in each iteration of the loop and is bounded by  $l(n) + 2$ .
3. The number of divisions in *line-4* is also  $l(n)$ .
4. In *line-5* we test whether  $r$  is prime. The value of  $r$  is bounded by  $l(n)$ . Even if we use trial division, it takes  $O(\sqrt{r})$  trials for each  $r$ . So the total number of trials will be  $O(l(n)^{3/2})$ . If  $l(n) = O((\log n)^5)$ , the number of iterations is a polynomial of input length<sup>3</sup>.
5. If  $r$  is a prime, then in *line-6* we test whether the order of  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_r^*$  is greater than  $4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ . If the order of  $n$  is  $\leq 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ , we go for the next  $r$ . Otherwise we break.

For each  $r$ , we calculate  $n^i \bmod r$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ . Given an  $r$ , the number of multiplications modulo  $r$  are  $O((\log n)^2)$  ( $n_0 = n \bmod r, n_1 = (n_0 \times n) \bmod r, (n_1 \times n) \bmod r, \dots, n_k = (n_{k-1} \times n) \bmod r$ ), where  $k = 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ ). Considering all iterations ( $r$ 's), the total number of multiplications are  $O(l(n)(\log n)^2)$ .

6. If the loop in *line 3-7* terminates at *line 3* (for small values of  $n$ ), then *line-8* returns 1, indicating  $n$  as prime. But when the loop terminates by **break**, the loop of *line 9-10* will be executed with the corresponding value of  $r$ .
7. Computation of  $\sqrt{r}$  takes  $O(r)$  time.  
For each  $a, 1 \leq a \leq 2\lceil \sqrt{r} \rceil \lceil \log n \rceil$ , the calculation of  $(X + a)^n \bmod (X^r - 1, n)$  takes place and is compared with  $X^{n \bmod r} + a$ .

$(X + a)^n$  takes  $O(\log n)$  number of polynomial multiplications over the ring  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]/(X^r - 1)$ . Computation of *modulo*  $X^r - 1$  is a simple, it replaces  $X^s$  by  $X^{s-r}$ , whenever  $r \leq s < 2r - 1$ . So the degree of a polynomial is always smaller than  $r$ . Each polynomial multiplication and addition over the ring

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<sup>3</sup>A better method is to prepare a *prime table* incrementally. The table contains the primes from 2 to  $2^i$ , when  $2^{i-1} < r \leq 2^i$ . A variation of the *Sieve of Eratosthenes* is used for the purpose. When the value of  $r$  exceeds  $2^i$ , the table is augmented with primes up to  $2^{i+1}$ . The total table building cost can be shown to be equal to  $O(l(n) \log l(n))$ .

$\mathbb{Z}_n[X]/(X^r - 1)$  takes  $O(r^2)$  multiplication and addition operations of the coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . So the overall cost of  $O(\log n)$  polynomial multiplication is  $O((\log n)r^2)$ . Taking all  $a$ 's together we have the following bounds of the number of arithmetic operations. We take the size of  $r$  as  $l(n)$ .

$$O(\sqrt{l(n)}(\log n) \times l(n)^2 \log n) = O(l(n)^{5/2}(\log n)^2).$$

Clearly the computation cost of loop in *line 9-10* dominates. If we take  $l(n) = O((\log n)^5)$  which we shall prove, the number of arithmetic operations are  $O((\log n)^{14.5})$  and the number of bit operations are  $O((\log n)^{16.5})$ , as numbers are bounded by  $n^2$ .

A sophisticated implementation of the operations and their analysis will give the corresponding figures as  $O^\sim((\log n)^{9.5})$  and  $O^\sim((\log n)^{10.5})$ .

### 1.2.3 Small Witness $r$

AKS proved that the loop of *line 3-7* of their prime testing algorithm will terminate within  $20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$  steps. For *small*  $n$  where  $n < 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$  e.g.  $2^{28} < 20(\lceil \log 2^{28} \rceil)^5$  but  $2^{29} < 20(\lceil \log 2^{29} \rceil)^5$ , it may terminate when  $r = n$  at *line-3*.

For a *large*  $n$  there are two possibilities of termination - either  $r$  is a divisor of  $n$  (*line-4*) or there is a prime number  $r$  ( $r < 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$ ) such that the order of  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_r^*$  is greater than  $4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ . Following is the proposition.

Proposition 5. (A) For  $n \geq 2$  there is a prime number  $r$ ,  $2 \leq r \leq 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$  so that, either  $r|n$ , or if  $r \nmid n$ , then the order of  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_r^*$  (smallest  $i$  for which  $n^i \equiv 1 \pmod{r}$ ) is larger than  $4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ .

We shall use the following proposition without proof.

Lemma 6. (B) If  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$\prod_{p \text{ is a prime } \leq 2n} p > 2^n.$$

**Proof:** (A) If  $n$  is “small” i.e if  $n < 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$ , then  $n$  has a prime divisor  $< 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$ .

For larger  $n$  we shall argue that there is a prime  $r$  in the range of  $2 \leq r \leq 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$ , such that  $n^i \not\equiv 1 \pmod{r}$ , for all  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ .

We define

$$P = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2} (n^i - 1).$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} P &< \prod_{1 \leq i \leq 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2} n^i \\ &= n^{1+2+\dots+4\lceil \log n \rceil^2} \\ &= n^{\frac{1}{2}4\lceil \log n \rceil^2(4\lceil \log n \rceil^2+1)} \\ &= n^{8\lceil \log n \rceil^4+2\lceil \log n \rceil^2} \\ &< 2^{10\lceil \log n \rceil^5}, \text{ for } n \geq 4. \end{aligned}$$

<sup>4</sup> Using the proposition (B) we get

$$\prod_{p \text{ is a prime } \leq 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5} p > 2^{10\lceil \log n \rceil^5} > P.$$

The product of all the primes  $\leq 20\lceil \log n \rceil^5$  exceeds  $P$ , so there is a prime  $r$  that does not divide  $P$  - if all of them divides  $P$ , then their product also divides  $P$ .

As  $r$  does not divide  $P = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2} (n^i - 1)$ , it does not divide  $n^i - 1$ , for any  $i = 1, \dots, 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$ .

If  $r|n$ , then  $n$  is composite; otherwise  $n^i \not\equiv 1 \pmod{r}$ , for any  $i = 1, \dots, 4\lceil \log n \rceil^2$  QED.

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<sup>4</sup>If  $n^{8(\log n)^4+2(\log n)^2} < 2^{10(\log n)^5}$ , then  $(8(\log n)^4 + 2(\log n)^2) \log n < 10(\log n)^5$  i.e.  $8(\log n)^5 + 2(\log n)^3 < 10(\log n)^5$ . If  $n = 4$ , the left-hand side of the inequality is  $8 \cdot 2^5 + 2 \cdot 2^3 = 256 + 16 = 272$  and the right-hand side is  $10 \cdot 32 = 320$ .

### 1.2.4 Correctness Proof

If the main theorem is correct, we have the correctness proof of the algorithm. Theorem 7. If `isPrimeAKS(n)` runs on  $n \geq 2$ , then it returns 1 if and only if  $n$  is a prime.

**Proof:**  $n$  is a prime number ( $\Leftrightarrow$ ):

- $n$  is not a perfect power, the test of *line 1* fails.
- When within the loop of *line 3-7*,  $r < n$  and  $n$  is a prime, so  $r \nmid n$ , and the test in *line 4* fails.
- If the loop of *line 3-7* terminates at *line 3* (for small  $n$ ), then  $r = n$  is prime and 1 is returned in *line 8*.
- If the loop terminates at **break**, the order of  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_r^*$  is greater than  $4(\log n)^2$ . And the order of  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_r^*$  must be less than  $r$ . So  $r > 4(\log n)^2$  i.e.  $\sqrt{r} > 2(\log n)$ . Therefore  $n > r > 2\sqrt{r} \log n$ .
- As  $n$  is prime, the inequality of *line 9-10* does not hold for any  $a$ ,  $1 \leq a \leq 2\lceil\sqrt{r}\rceil\lceil\log n\rceil$ . So 1 is returned in *line-11*.

The algorithm returns 1: This can happen in *line 8* and *line 11*.

- *Line 8* returns 1, only if the exit from the loop is from *line 3* i.e.  $r = n$  and no integer in the range 2 to  $n - 1$  divides  $n$ . So  $n$  is prime.
  - *Line 11* returns 1, only if the loop of *line 3-7* is terminated by a **break**. We claim that  $n$  and  $r$  satisfies all the conditions of the *main theorem*. So  $n$  should be power of a prime, but perfect power is excluded in *line 1*. So  $n$  is a prime.
1. The initial value of  $r$  was 2 and at **break**  $r < n$ . So  $n \geq 3$ .
  2. It is tested whether  $r < n$  is a prime at *line 5*.
  3. The value of  $a$  in the loop of *line 9-10* are in the range of  $1, \dots, 2\sqrt{r} \log n < r$  i.e. the values of  $a$  are the values of  $r$  in earlier iterations of the loop of *line 3-7*. None of these values divide  $n$ , otherwise the loop would have been terminated at *line 4*.
  4. The order of  $n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_r^* > 4(\log n)^2$  is tested in *line 6* as the condition for **break**.
  5. The condition  $(X + a)^n \equiv X^n + a \pmod{X^r - 1}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n[X]$ , for  $1 \leq a \leq 2\sqrt{r} \log n$  is also tested in the loop of *line 9-10*.

QED.

### 1.3 Perfect Power Test

Following algorithm can be used for perfect power test. We want to see whether the input  $n = a^b$ , where  $a, b \geq 2$ .

```

isperfectPower(n) // n ≥ 2
1  b ← 2
2  while 2b ≤ n do
3    l ← 1, h ← n
4    while h - l ≥ 2 do
5      mid ←  $\frac{l+h}{2}$ 
6      temp ← min{midb, n + 1}
7      if n = temp then return (mid, b)
8      if temp < n then l ← mid
9      else h ← mid
10  b ← b + 1
11  return (-1, -1).

```

It is not necessary to calculate  $mid^b$  beyond  $n + 1$  in *line-6*. The outer loop is executed  $O(\log n)$  times. The inner loop is executed  $O(\log n)$  times. The exponentiation takes  $O(\log b) = O(\log \log n)$  operations. So the number of operations are  $O((\log n)^2 \log \log n)$ .

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