COMPUTING AURIFEUILLIAN FACTORS

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Abstract. For odd square-free $n > 1$, the cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_n(x)$ satisfies an identity $\Phi_n(x) = C_n(x)^2 \pm nxD_n(x)^2$ of Aurifeuille, Le Lasseur and Lucas. Here $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ are monic polynomials with integer coefficients. These coefficients can be computed by simple algorithms which require $O(n^2)$ arithmetic operations over the integers. Also, there are explicit formulas and generating functions for $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$. This paper is a preliminary report which states the results for the case $n = 1 \bmod 4$, and gives some numerical examples. The proofs, generalisations to other square-free n, and similar results for the identities of Gauss and Dirichlet, will appear elsewhere.

1. Introduction

For integer $n > 0$, let $\Phi_n(x)$ denote the cyclotomic polynomial

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{\substack{0<j\le n\\(j,n)=1}} (x - \zeta^j), \tag{1}$$

where ζ is a primitive n-th root of unity. Clearly

$$x^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(x),$$

and the Möbius inversion formula [9] gives

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{d|n} (x^d - 1)^{\mu(n/d)}. \tag{2}$$

Equation (1) is useful for theoretical purposes, but (2) is more convenient for computation as it leads to a simple algorithm for computing the coefficients of $\Phi_n(x)$, or evaluating $\Phi_n(x)$ at integer arguments, using only integer arithmetic. If n is square-free, the relations

$$\Phi_n(x) = \begin{cases} x-1 & \text{if } n = 1,\\ \Phi_{n/p}(x^p)/\Phi_{n/p}(x) & \text{if } p \text{ is prime and } p|n, \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

give another convenient recursion for computing $\Phi_n(x)$.

In this preliminary report we omit proofs, and assume from now on that

$$n > 1 \text{ is square-free and } n = 1 \text{ mod } 4. \tag{4}$$

The results can be generalized to other square-free n, and similar results hold for the identities of Gauss and Dirichlet. The interested reader is referred to [1] for details.

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$\Phi_n(x)$ satisfies an identity

$$\Phi_n(x) = C_n(x)^2 - nxD_n(x)^2 \tag{5}$$

of Aurifeuille, Le Lasseur and Lucas[1]. For a proof, see Lucas [15] or Schinzel [17]. Here $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ are symmetric, monic polynomials with integer coefficients. For example, if $n = 5$, we have

$$\Phi_5(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 = (x^2 + 3x + 1)^2 - 5x(x + 1)^2,$$

so

$$C_5(x) = x^2 + 3x + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad D_5(x) = x + 1. \tag{6}$$

In Section 1.1 we summarize our notation. Then, in Section 2, we outline the theoretical basis for our algorithm for computing $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$. The algorithm (Algorithm L) is presented in Section 3. Algorithm L appears to be new, although the key idea (using Newton's identities to evaluate polynomial coefficients) is due to Dirichlet [8]. A different algorithm, due to Stevenhagen [18], is discussed in Section 3.1.

In Section 4 we give explicit formulas for $C_n(x)$, $D_n(x)$ etc. These may be regarded as generating functions if x is an indeterminate, or may be used to compute $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ for given argument x. In the special case $x = 1$ there is an interesting connection with Dirichlet L-functions and the theory of class numbers of quadratic fields.

One application of cyclotomic polynomials is to the factorization of integers of the form $a^n \pm b^n$: see for example [3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 16]. If $x = m^2 n$ for any integer m, then (5) is a difference of squares, giving integer factors $C_n(x) \pm mnD_n(x)$ of $x^n \pm 1$. Examples are given in Sections 3–4.

1.1. **Notation.** For consistency we follow the notation of [1] where possible, although there are simplifications due to our assumption (4).

x usually denotes an indeterminate, occasionally a real or complex variable.

$\mu(n)$ denotes the Möbius function, $\phi(n)$ denotes Euler's totient function, and (m, n) denotes the greatest common divisor of m and n. For definitions and properties of these functions, see for example [9]. Note that $\mu(1) = \phi(1) = 1$.

$(m|n)$ denotes the Jacobi symbol[2] except that $(m|n)$ is defined as 0 if $(m, n) > 1$. Thus, when specifying a condition such as $(m|n) = 1$ we may omit the condition $(m, n) = 1$. As usual, $m|n$ without parentheses means that m divides n.

n denotes a positive integer satisfying (4), which implies that $(-1|n) = 1$. It is convenient to write g_k for (k, n).

For given n, we define $s' = (2|n)$. In view of (4), the following are equivalent:

$$s' = (2|n) = (-1)^{(n^2-1)/8} = (-1)^{(n-1)/4} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } n = 1 \bmod 8, \\ -1 & \text{if } n = 5 \bmod 8. \end{cases}$$

The Aurifeuillian factors of $\Phi_n(x)$ are

$$F_n^+(x) = C_n(x) + \sqrt{nx}D_n(x) \quad \text{and} \quad F_n^-(x) = C_n(x) - \sqrt{nx}D_n(x).$$

From (5) we have $\Phi_n(x) = F_n^-(x)F_n^+(x)$.

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[1]Lucas [13, page 276] states "Les formules et les conséquences précédentes sont dues à la collaboration de M. Aurifeuille, ancien Professeur au lycée de Toulouse, actuellement décédé, et de M. Le Lasseur, de Nantes". See also [14, page 785].

[2]See, for example, Riesel [16]. To avoid ambiguity, we *never* write the Jacobi symbol as $\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)$.

2. Theoretical results

In this section we summarise some theoretical results which form the basis for Algorithm L. Let $\zeta = e^{\pi i/n}$ be a primitive $2n$-th root of unity. The particular choice of primitive root is only significant for the sign of the square root in (9). Consider the polynomial

$$L_n(x) = \sum_{\substack{0<j<n \\ (j|n)=(-1)^j}} (x-\zeta^j)(x-\zeta^{-j}),$$

which we may write as

$$L_n(x) = \sum_{\substack{0<j<n \\ (j|n)=(-1)^j}} \left(x^2 - 2\left(\cos\frac{\pi j}{n}\right)x + 1\right). \tag{7}$$

$L_n(x)$ has degree $\phi(n)$. Also, from (7), $L_n(x)$ is symmetric and has real coefficients. Schinzel [17] shows that

$$L_n(x) = C_n(x^2) - s'x\sqrt{n}D_n(x^2) \tag{8}$$

where $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ are the polynomials of (5), and $s' = (2|n)$ as usual. Clearly $F_n^-(x) = L_n(s'\sqrt{x})$ and $F_n^+(x) = L_n(-s'\sqrt{x})$.

For example, suppose $n = 5$. Then (7) gives

$$L_5(x) = \left(x^2 - 2\left(\cos\frac{3\pi}{5}\right)x + 1\right)\left(x^2 - 2\left(\cos\frac{4\pi}{5}\right)x + 1\right),$$

but $\cos 3\pi/5 = (1-\sqrt{5})/4$ and $\cos 4\pi/5 = -(1+\sqrt{5})/4$, so it is easily verified that

$$L_5(x) = x^4 + \sqrt{5}x^3 + 3x^2 + \sqrt{5}x + 1 = C_5(x^2) + x\sqrt{5}D_5(x^2),$$

where $C_5(x)$ and $D_5(x)$ are as in (6).

Let $g_k = (k, n)$. It may be shown that the Gaussian sums p_k of k-th powers of roots of $L_n(x)$ are

$$p_k = \begin{cases} (n|k)s'\sqrt{n} & \text{if } k \text{ is odd,} \\ \mu(n/g_k)\phi(g_k) & \text{if } k \text{ is even.} \end{cases} \tag{9}$$

3. An algorithm for computing C_n and D_n

In this section we consider the computation of C_n and D_n. Define $d = \phi(n)/2$. Thus $\deg L_n = 2d$, $\deg C_n = d$, and $\deg D_n = d-1$. From (8) it is enough to compute the coefficients a_k of $L_n(x)$. Using (9), the coefficients of $L_n(x)$, and hence of $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$, may be evaluated from Newton's identities. In order to work over the integers, we define

$$q_k = \begin{cases} s'p_k/\sqrt{n} & \text{if } k \text{ is odd,} \\ p_k & \text{if } k \text{ is even,} \end{cases}$$

where p_k is the sum of k-th powers of roots of $L_n(x)$. Thus, from (9),

$$q_k = \begin{cases} (n|k) & \text{if } k \text{ is odd,} \\ \mu(n/g_k)\phi(g_k) & \text{if } k \text{ is even.} \end{cases} \tag{10}$$

If

$$C_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{d} \gamma_j x^{d-j}, \qquad D_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} \delta_j x^{d-1-j},$$

then, from (8),

$$\gamma_k = a_{2k}, \qquad \delta_k = -s'a_{2k+1}/\sqrt{n}.$$

In particular, $\gamma_0 = \delta_0 = 1$. Using Newton's identities, we obtain the recurrences

$$\gamma_k = \frac{1}{2k} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (nq_{2k-2j-1}\delta_j - q_{2k-2j}\gamma_j) \tag{11}$$

and

$$\delta_k = \frac{1}{2k+1} \left(\gamma_k + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (q_{2k+1-2j}\gamma_j - q_{2k-2j}\delta_j) \right) \tag{12}$$

for $k > 0$.

We can use the fact that $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ are symmetric to reduce the number of times the recurrences (11)–(12) need to be applied. An algorithm which incorporates this refinement is:

Algorithm L

1. Evaluate q_k for $k = 1, \ldots, d$ using the definition (10).
2. Set $\gamma_0 \leftarrow 1$ and $\delta_0 \leftarrow 1$.
3. Evaluate γ_k for $k = 1, \ldots, \lfloor d/2 \rfloor$ and δ_k for $k = 1, \ldots, \lfloor (d-1)/2 \rfloor$ using equations (11)–(12).
4. Evaluate γ_k for $k = \lfloor d/2 \rfloor + 1, \ldots, d$ using $\gamma_k = \gamma_{d-k}$.
5. Evaluate δ_k for $k = \lfloor (d+1)/2 \rfloor, \ldots, d-1$ using $\delta_k = \delta_{d-1-k}$.

Examples.

1. Consider the case $n = 5$. We have $s' = (2|5) = -1$, $d = \phi(5)/2 = 2$. Thus

$$q_1 = (5|1) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad q_2 = \mu(5)\phi(1) = -1.$$

The initial conditions are $\gamma_0 = \delta_0 = 1$. The recurrence (11) gives

$$\gamma_1 = (5q_1\delta_0 - q_2\gamma_0)/2 = 3.$$

Using symmetry we obtain $\gamma_2 = \gamma_0 = 1$ and $\delta_1 = \delta_0 = 1$. Thus

$$C_5(x) = x^2 + 3x + 1, \qquad D_5(x) = x + 1,$$

and it is easy to verify that $\Phi_5(x)^2 = C_5(x)^2 - 5xD_5(x)^2$, as expected from (5).

2. Now consider $n = 33$. We have $s' = (2|33) = 1$, $d = \phi(33)/2 = 10$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
q_1 &= (33|1) = 1, & q_2 &= \mu(33)\phi(1) = 1,\\
q_3 &= (33|3) = 0, & q_4 &= \mu(33)\phi(1) = 1,\\
q_5 &= (33|5) = -1, & q_6 &= \mu(11)\phi(3) = -2,\\
q_7 &= (33|7) = -1, & q_8 &= \mu(33)\phi(1) = 1,\\
q_9 &= (33|9) = 0, & q_{10} &= \mu(33)\phi(1) = 1.
\end{aligned}$$

The initial conditions are $\gamma_0 = \delta_0 = 1$. The recurrences (11)–(12) give

$$\begin{aligned}
\gamma_1 &= (33q_1\delta_0 - q_2\gamma_0)/2 = 16,\\
\delta_1 &= (\gamma_1 + q_3\gamma_0 - q_2\delta_0)/3 = 5,\\
\gamma_2 &= (33q_3\delta_0 - q_4\gamma_0 + 33q_1\delta_1 - q_2\gamma_1)/4 = 37,\\
\delta_2 &= (\gamma_2 + q_5\gamma_0 - q_4\delta_0 + q_3\gamma_1 - q_2\delta_1)/5 = 6,\\
\gamma_3 &= (33q_5\delta_0 - q_6\gamma_0 + 33q_3\delta_1 - q_4\gamma_1 + 33q_1\delta_2 - q_2\gamma_2)/6 = 19,\\
\delta_3 &= (\gamma_3 + q_7\gamma_0 - q_6\delta_0 + q_5\gamma_1 - q_4\delta_1 + q_3\gamma_2 - q_2\delta_2)/7 = -1,\\
\gamma_4 &= (33q_7\delta_0 - q_8\gamma_0 + \cdots + 33q_1\delta_3 - q_2\gamma_3)/8 = -32,\\
\delta_4 &= (\gamma_4 + q_9\gamma_0 - q_8\delta_0 + \cdots + q_3\gamma_3 - q_2\delta_3)/9 = -9,\\
\gamma_5 &= (33q_9\delta_0 - q_{10}\gamma_0 + \cdots + 33q_1\delta_4 - q_2\gamma_4)/10 = -59.
\end{aligned}$$

Using symmetry, we obtain

$$C_{33}(x) = x^{10} + 16x^9 + 37x^8 + 19x^7 - 32x^6 - 59x^5 - 32x^4 + 19x^3 + 37x^2 + 16x + 1$$

and

$$D_{33}(x) = x^9 + 5x^8 + 6x^7 - x^6 - 9x^5 - 9x^4 - x^3 + 6x^2 + 5x + 1.$$

From the recurrence (3),

$$\Phi_{33}(x) = \Phi_3(x^{11})/\Phi_3(x) = \frac{x^{22} + x^{11} + 1}{x^2 + x + 1},$$

and it is straightforward to verify that $\Phi_{33}(x) = C_{33}(x)^2 - 33xD_{33}(x)^2$.

3.1. **Stevenhagen's algorithm.** Stevenhagen [18] gives a different algorithm for computing the polynomials $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$. His algorithm depends on the application of the Euclidean algorithm to two polynomials with integer coefficients and degree $O(n)$. $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ may be computed as soon as a polynomial of degree at most $\phi(n)/2$ is generated by the Euclidean algorithm. Thus, the algorithm requires $O(n^2)$ arithmetic operations, the same order[3] as our Algorithm L.

Unfortunately, Stevenhagen's algorithm suffers from a well-known problem of the Euclidean algorithm [10] – although the initial and final polynomials have small integer coefficients, the intermediate results grow exponentially large. When implemented in 32-bit integer arithmetic, Stevenhagen's algorithm fails due to integer overflow for $n \geq 35$.

Algorithm L does not suffer from this problem. It is easy to see from the recurrences (11)–(12) that intermediate results can grow only slightly larger than the final coefficients γ_k and δ_k. A straightforward implementation of Algorithm L can compute C_n and D_n for $n < 180$ without encountering integer overflow in 32-bit arithmetic. When it does eventually occur, overflow is easily detected because the division by $2k$ in (11) or by $2k+1$ in (12) gives a non-integer result.

4. Explicit expressions for C_n and D_n

In this section we give generating functions for the coefficients of C_n and D_n. These generating functions seem to be new. They can be used to evaluate the coefficients of $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ in $O(n \log n)$ arithmetic operations, via the fast power series algorithms of [2, Section 5]. Also, where they converge, they give explicit formulas which can be used to compute $C_n(x)$ and $D_n(x)$ at particular arguments x. However, it may be more efficient to compute the coefficients of the polynomials using Algorithm L, and then evaluate the polynomials by Horner's rule.

[3]The complexity of both algorithms can be reduced to $O(n(\log n)^2)$ arithmetic operations by standard "divide and conquer" techniques.

The generating functions may be written in terms of an analytic function g_n, which we now define. We continue to assume that (4) holds.

4.1. **The analytic functions f_n and g_n.** In this subsection x is a complex variable. For x inside the unit circle, and on the boundary $|x| = 1$ where the series converge, define

$$f_n(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (j|n) \frac{x^j}{j} \tag{13}$$

and

$$g_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (n|2j+1) \frac{x^{2j+1}}{2j+1}. \tag{14}$$

Observe that $g_n(x)$ is an odd function, so $g_n(-x) = -g_n(x)$. Our assumption (4) implies that $(n|2j+1) = (2j+1|n)$, so

$$2g_n(x) = f_n(x) - f_n(-x). \tag{15}$$

Also, since $(2j|n) = (2|n)(j|n) = s'(j|n)$, it is easy to see that

$$f_n(x) + f_n(-x) = s' f_n(x^2). \tag{16}$$

In [1] it is shown that analytic continuations of $f_n(x)$ and $g_n(x)$ outside the unit circle are given by the simple functional equations

$$f_n(x) = f_n(1/x), \qquad g_n(x) = g_n(1/x).$$

$f_n(1)$ is related to the class number $h(n)$ of the quadratic field $Q[\sqrt{n}]$ with discriminant n. In the notation of Davenport [7], $f_n(1) = L_{-1}(1) = L(1) = L(1, \chi)$, where $\chi(j) = (j|n)$ is the real, nonprincipal Dirichlet character appearing in (13). Thus, using well-known results,

$$f_n(1) = \frac{\ln \varepsilon}{\sqrt{n}} h(n).$$

Here ε is the "fundamental unit", i.e. $\varepsilon = (|u| + \sqrt{n}|v|)/2$, where (u, v) is a minimal nontrivial solution of $u^2 - nv^2 = 4$. For example, if $n = 5$, then $\varepsilon = (3 + \sqrt{5})/2$, $h(5) = 1$, and we have $f_5(1) = (\ln \varepsilon)/\sqrt{5} = 0.4304\ldots$

Using (15)–(16), we obtain a simple relation between $g_n(1)$ and $f_n(1)$:

$$g_n(1) = \left(1 - \frac{s'}{2}\right) f_n(1).$$

Thus, in our example, $g_5(1) = 3f_5(1)/2$.

4.2. **Generating functions.** In [1] it is shown that

$$L_n(x) = \sqrt{\Phi_n(x^2)} \exp\left(-s'\sqrt{n} g_n(x)\right).$$

This leads to the following theorem. As usual, we continue to assume that n satisfies (4).

Theorem 1. *The Aurifeuillian factors $F_n^{\pm}(x) = C_n(x) \pm \sqrt{nx} D_n(x)$ of $\Phi_n(x)$ are given by*

$$F_n^{\pm}(x) = \sqrt{\Phi_n(x)} \exp\left(\pm\sqrt{n} g_n(\sqrt{x})\right).$$

Also,

$$C_n(x) = \sqrt{\Phi_n(x)} \cosh\left(\sqrt{n} g_n(\sqrt{x})\right)$$

and

$$D_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{\Phi_n(x)}{nx}} \sinh\left(\sqrt{n} g_n(\sqrt{x})\right).$$

4.3. **Application to integer factorization.** In this section we illustrate how the results of Sections 3 and 4.2 can be used to obtain factors of integers of the form $a^n \pm b^n$. Other examples can be found in [1, 3, 4].

If x has the form m^2n, where m is a positive integer, then $\sqrt{nx} = mn$ is an integer, and the Aurifeuillian factors $F_n^{\pm}(x) = C_n(x) \pm mnD_n(x)$ give integer factors of $\Phi_n(x)$, and hence of $x^n - 1 = m^{2n}n^n - 1$. For example, if $m = n^k$, we obtain factors of $n^{(2k+1)n} - 1$.

Before giving numerical examples, we state explicitly how Theorem 1 can be used to compute $F_n^{\pm}(m^2n)$ with a finite number of arithmetic operations. The following theorem shows how many terms have to be taken in the infinite series (14) defining g_n. Because there is a little slack in the proof of the theorem, there is no practical difficulty in evaluating the exponential and square root to sufficient accuracy.

Theorem 2. *Let m, n be positive integers, $n > 1$ square-free, $n = 1 \bmod 4$, $x = m^2n$, and $\lambda = \phi(n)/2$. Then the Aurifeuillian factors of $\Phi_n(x)$ are*

$$F_n^-(x) = \lfloor \widehat{F} + 1/2 \rfloor$$

and

$$F_n^+(x) = \Phi_n(x)/F_n^-(x),$$

where

$$\widehat{F} = \sqrt{\Phi_n(x)}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{m}\sum_{j=0}^{\lambda-1}\frac{(n|2j+1)}{(2j+1)x^j}\right).$$

Examples.

3. Consider $n = 5$, $m = 3$, so $x = m^2n = 45$ and $\lambda = \phi(5)/2 = 2$. Thus

$$\Phi_5(x) = (x^5 - 1)/(x - 1) = 4193821,$$

$$\widehat{F} = \sqrt{\Phi_5(x)}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{3m^3n}\right) = \sqrt{4193821}\exp(-134/405) = 1470.99924\ldots$$

and rounding to the nearest integer gives the factor 1471 of $\Phi_5(x)$. By division we obtain the other factor 2851. Thus

$$45^5 - 1 = 44\Phi_5(x) = 2^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 1471 \cdot 2851.$$

In this example the Aurifeuillian factors are prime.

4. Consider $n = 5$, $m = 40$, so $x = m^2n = 8000$ and $x^n - 1 = 20^{15} - 1$. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{F} &= \sqrt{\Phi_5(x)}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{3m^3n}\right)\\ &= 64004000.37\ldots \times 0.9753109279\ldots = 62423800.99\ldots\end{aligned}$$

and rounding to the nearest integer gives an Aurifeuillian factor $F_5^- = 62423801$ of $\Phi_5(x)$. By division we obtain the other Aurifeuillian factor $F_5^+ = 65624201$. Alternatively, we can find the same factors from (6) by evaluating $C_5(x)$ and $D_5(x)$. Neither of the Aurifeuillian factors is prime, but $20^{15} - 1$ also has "algebraic" factors $20^3 - 1 = 19 \cdot 421$ and $20^5 - 1 = 11 \cdot 19 \cdot 61 \cdot 251$. Thus, it is easy to find that $F_5^- = 11 \cdot 19 \cdot 61 \cdot 3001$, $F_5^+ = 251 \cdot 261451$, and

$$20^{15} - 1 = 11 \cdot 19 \cdot 31 \cdot 61 \cdot 251 \cdot 421 \cdot 3001 \cdot 261451.$$

Table 1. Some Aurifeuillian factorisations

a^n	$a^n - 1$
21^{189}	$2^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 43 \cdot 109 \cdot 127 \cdot 163 \cdot 379 \cdot 463 \cdot 631 \cdot 757 \cdot 3319 \cdot 4789 \cdot$ $6427 \cdot 51787 \cdot 4779433 \cdot 85775383 \cdot 227633407 \cdot 4167831781 \cdot$ $22125429901 \cdot 7429452749713 \cdot 27186384126763 \cdot$ $100595851688887003 \cdot 559529226207687925351 \cdot$ $5928236118285741631544626246374816701587923349 81 \cdot P_{60}$
33^{99}	$2^5 \cdot 37 \cdot 67 \cdot 199 \cdot 991 \cdot 1123 \cdot 2113 \cdot 19009 \cdot 90619 \cdot$ $34905511 \cdot 91402147 \cdot 747487377451 \cdot 4098986195943739 \cdot$ $9878399619525368754006622104322228 99 \cdot P_{46}$
33^{165}	$2^5 \cdot 31 \cdot 67 \cdot 331 \cdot 1123 \cdot 1321 \cdot 2113 \cdot 4951 \cdot 8581 \cdot 9241 \cdot 39451 \cdot$ $90619 \cdot 9540301 \cdot 91402147 \cdot 204970261 \cdot 275465191 \cdot 10125617371 \cdot$ $47284185301 \cdot 180115639771 \cdot 747487377451 \cdot 4098986195943739 \cdot$ $1119356062398019215 1 \cdot 1076141944549238849546221 \cdot$ $1423360768655377015279057937915830 51 \cdot P_{44}$
77^{77}	$2^2 \cdot 19 \cdot 23 \cdot 617 \cdot 757 \cdot 25411 \cdot 52344007 \cdot 278949511 \cdot 6165802127 \cdot$ $124161232472680239 77 \cdot 188456985084507821054922117467601 79 \cdot P_{53}$
97^{97}	$2^5 \cdot 3 \cdot 389 \cdot 363751 \cdot 684640163 \cdot 1194372873374129476439060215 3 \cdot$ $5491803611993247244183734662719129317102715340737 73 \cdot P_{95}$
101^{101}	$2^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 607 \cdot 1213 \cdot 5657 \cdot 157561 \cdot$ $9931988588681 \cdot 102208068907493 \cdot 393101595766008847 \cdot$ $1260296562653610987238421629708576030882329452274601 7 \cdot P_{89}$
105^{105}	$2^3 \cdot 13 \cdot 151 \cdot 211 \cdot 421 \cdot 631 \cdot 1009 \cdot 1201 \cdot 1621 \cdot 2731 \cdot 11131 \cdot 102181 \cdot$ $485689 \cdot 18416161 \cdot 1340912959 \cdot 59785910251 \cdot 3662332210521480889 \cdot$ $2396546294931397077 1 \cdot 4974399548014294337472227709 1 \cdot$ $538457955274685483133820415668398303 1 \cdot P_{43}$

5. For an example with larger λ, consider $m = 1$, $n = 13$, so $x = m^2 n = 13$, $x^n - 1 = 13^{13} - 1$, and $\lambda = \phi(13)/2 = 6$. Theorem 2 gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{F} &= \sqrt{\Phi_{13}(13)} \exp\left(-\sum_{j=0}^{5} \frac{(13|2j+1)}{(2j+1)13^j}\right) \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{13^{13}-1}{13-1}} \exp\left(-1 - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 13} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 13^2} + \frac{1}{7 \cdot 13^3} - \frac{1}{9 \cdot 13^4} + \frac{1}{11 \cdot 13^5}\right) \\
&= 5023902.0906\ldots \times 0.3590131665\ldots = 1803646.998\ldots,
\end{aligned}
$$

and rounding to the nearest integer gives an Aurifeuillian factor $F_{13}^- = 1803647$ of $\Phi_{13}(13)$. The same factor could have been found from the polynomials

$$C_{13}(x) = x^6 + 7x^5 + 15x^4 + 19x^3 + 15x^2 + 7x + 1$$

and

$$D_{13}(x) = x^5 + 3x^4 + 5x^3 + 5x^2 + 3x + 1.$$

It is easy to deduce that

$$13^{13} - 1 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 53 \cdot 264031 \cdot 1803647.$$

6. An illustrative sample of other factorisations which can be obtained from Algorithm L or Theorem 2, and would have been difficult to obtain in any other way, is given in Table 1. The factors given explicitly in Table 1 are prime. As usual, large k-digit primes are written as P_k if they can be found by division.

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