

## Factorization of the Eighth Fermat Number

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**Abstract.** We describe a Monte Carlo factorization algorithm which was used to factorize the Fermat number  $F_8 = 2^{256} + 1$ . Previously  $F_8$  was known to be composite, but its factors were unknown.

**1. Introduction.** Brent [1] recently proposed an improvement to Pollard's Monte Carlo factorization algorithm [4]. Both algorithms can usually find a prime factor  $p$  of a large integer in  $O(p^{1/2})$  operations.

In this paper we describe a modification of Brent's algorithm which is useful when the factors are known to lie in a certain congruence class. To test its effectiveness, the algorithm was applied to the Fermat numbers  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$ ,  $5 \leq k \leq 13$ . The least factors of all but  $F_8$  were known [2], and  $F_8$  was known to be composite. The algorithm rediscovered the known factors and also found the previously unknown factor 1,238,926,361,552,897 of  $F_8$ .\*

**2. The Factorization Algorithm and a Conjecture.** To factor a number  $N$ , we consider a sequence defined by a recurrence relation

$$x_i = f(x_{i-1}) \pmod{N}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots,$$

where  $f$  is a polynomial of degree at least 2, with some suitable  $x_0$ . One variant of Brent's algorithm computes  $\text{GCD}(x_i - x_j, N)$  for  $i = 0, 1, 3, 7, 15, \dots$  and  $j = i + 1, \dots, 2i + 1$  until either  $x_i = x_j \pmod{N}$  (in which case a different  $f$  or  $x_0$  must be tried) or a nontrivial GCD (and hence a factor of  $N$ ) is found. As in [1], [4] we can reduce the cost of a GCD computation essentially to that of a multiplication mod  $N$ , and this is assumed below.

If nothing is known about the factors, we normally choose a quadratic polynomial  $x^2 + c$  ( $c \neq 0, -2$ ). However, it is conjectured in [4] that the expected number of steps for Pollard's algorithm can be reduced by a factor  $\sqrt{m-1}$  if the factors  $p$  are known to satisfy  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  and we use a polynomial of the form  $x^m + c$ . This conjecture is equally applicable to the algorithms of [1].

We sketch the informal argument leading to the conjecture. Suppose we are given a function  $g(x)$  on a set  $U$  of  $p$  elements and define a sequence of elements by  $x_i = g(x_{i-1})$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ . Suppose that the elements of the set  $S = \{x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$  are distinct. For a random function  $g$ , the probability that the next

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\* The epigram "I am now entirely persuaded to employ the method, a handy trick, on gigantic composite numbers" may appeal to readers who wish to memorize this factor.

element  $x_n$  is in  $S$  is just  $n/p$  (from which the formulae of [1], [4] are derived). We require the corresponding probability when  $g$  is chosen at random out of a subset of the functions on our set, namely those producing a graph in which, for each  $i$ , a fraction  $q_i$  of nodes have in-degree  $i$ : here the  $q_i$  are any given nonnegative numbers with  $\sum_i q_i = \sum_i i q_i = 1$ . (For the application to factorization, the argument could be simplified, but as presented it applies to wider classes of functions such as those of [5], at least in the first approximation.)

Let  $T$  be the set of elements  $y \in U \setminus S$  with  $g(y) \in S$ . To estimate the expected size of  $T$ , we argue that the probability of any node appearing in  $S$  is proportional to the node's in-degree  $i$ . Thus  $T$  has the expected size

$$n \sum_i i q_i (i - 1) = n \sum_i q_i (i - 1)^2 = nV,$$

where  $V$  is the variance of the in-degree. If  $x_n \notin S$ , we shall have  $x_{n+1} \in S$  if and only if  $x_n \in T$ , an event with probability  $nV/(p - n) \simeq n/(p/V)$  (since we are concerned with the situation  $n = O(p^{1/2})$ ,  $p$  large).

For a random mapping, the in-degree has a Poisson distribution with mean and variance 1, and the two arguments agree. For the application to factorization, we take  $g(x) = f(x) \pmod{p}$ ,  $f(x) = x^m + c \pmod{N}$ . Since  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ , the in-degree is  $m$  for a fraction  $1/m$  of the nodes, and zero for the remainder (neglecting one node,  $c$ ), so the variance of the in-degree is essentially  $V = m - 1$ . This motivates the conjecture.

Our conjecture must clearly be applied with discretion. Consider, for example, the function  $g(x) = x + 1$  or  $x + 2 \pmod{p}$  according as  $x$  is a quadratic residue or a nonresidue of  $p$ : since the cycle is of order  $p$  (in fact  $2p/3 + O(p^{1/2} \log^2 p)$ ) it benefits us little to compute  $V \simeq \frac{1}{2}$ .

**3. Behavior of the Polynomial  $x^m + 1$ .** To illustrate our conjecture, we give some numerical results for the polynomial  $g(x) = x^m + 1 \pmod{p}$ ,  $m = 2^k$ , for  $1 \leq k \leq 10$ . For each  $k$ , we give in Table 1 the mean values of  $t(p)/\sqrt{p/(m-1)}$  and  $c(p)/\sqrt{p/(m-1)}$  for the  $10^4$  smallest primes  $p > 10^6$  satisfying  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ ; here  $t(p)$  and  $c(p)$  denote, respectively, the length of the tail (nonperiodic part) and of the cycle (periodic part) of the sequence  $(x_i)$ , starting with  $x_0 = 1$ . The conjectured expectations are  $(\pi/8)^{1/2} \simeq 0.627$ .

TABLE 1  
*Behavior of polynomials  $x^m + 1$  for  $10^4$  primes with  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ ,  $m = 2^k$*

$k$	mean $t(p)/\sqrt{p/(m-1)}$	mean $c(p)/\sqrt{p/(m-1)}$
1	0.619	0.618
2	0.627	0.619
3	0.625	0.620
4	0.625	0.626
5	0.629	0.619
6	0.628	0.617
7	0.629	0.622
8	0.630	0.618
9	0.625	0.625
10	0.619	0.625

A more obvious conjecture replaces our  $\sqrt{m-1}$  by  $\sqrt{m}$ ; this results from the idea that the recurrence relation corresponding to  $g(x) = x^m + 1 \pmod{p}$  operates on a set of  $(p-1)/m$  residues when  $p = 1 \pmod{m}$ . The difference is important when  $m = 2$ , as in the standard form of Brent's and Pollard's algorithms. The empirical results of Brent [1] (for  $m = 2$  and all odd primes  $p < 10^8$ ) and Table 1 discredit this conjecture.

**4. Application to Factorization of Fermat Numbers.** The factors  $p_k$  of a Fermat number  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$  ( $k > 1$ ) satisfy  $p_k = 1 \pmod{2^{k+2}}$ , so to factorize  $F_k$  we took  $f(x) = x^{2^{k+2}} + 1 \pmod{F_k}$  and  $x_0 = 3$  in the algorithm of Section 2 ( $x_0 = 0$  or  $1$  is not satisfactory here). By the conjecture of Section 2, compared to Brent's algorithm [1, Section 5], the expected number of steps is reduced by a factor  $(2^{k+2} - 1)^{1/2}$ , but the number of multiplications  $\pmod{F_k}$  per step is increased from 2 to  $k + 3$ . Thus, from [1, Eq. (6.2)], the expected number of multiplications  $\pmod{F_k}$  to find the least prime factor  $p_k$  of  $F_k$  is

$$(1) \quad E_k = (k + 3)(\pi p_k / 8)^{1/2} (3 / \ln 4 + 1) / (2^{k+2} - 1)^{1/2},$$

and for  $k = 8$  this is  $0.682p_k^{1/2}$ . For the algorithm of [4] (with a quadratic polynomial), the corresponding number is  $4(\pi/2)^{5/2}p_k^{1/2}/3 \simeq 4.123p_k^{1/2}$ , larger by a factor of six.

We did not employ the modification of [1, Section 7] which is not worthwhile unless  $m$  is small. Some improvements might have been achieved in other ways, but we preferred to keep the method as simple as possible.

In Table 2,  $p_k$  is the least prime factor of  $F_k$ ,  $M_k$  is the number of multiplications  $\pmod{F_k}$  required to find it (by the algorithm just described), and  $E_k$  is given by (1). The computation for  $F_7$  took 6 hours 50 minutes on a Univac 1100/82 computer, comparable to the time required by the continued fraction algorithm [3]; that for  $F_{13}$  took 3 hours 20 minutes on the same machine. The factorization of  $F_8$  took 2 hours on a Univac 1100/42 computer (a slightly slower machine). The other computations took only a few seconds.

TABLE 2  
Least prime factors  $p_k$  of Fermat numbers  $F_k = 2^{2^k} + 1$

$k$	$p_k$	$M_k$	$M_k/E_k$
5	641	16	0.45
6	274,177	855	1.46
7	59,649,589,127,497,217	$2.67 \times 10^8$	1.24
8	1,238,926,361,552,897	$2.29 \times 10^7$	0.95
9	2,424,833	420	0.51
10	45,592,577	1,521	0.56
11	319,489	112	0.65
12	114,689	30	0.38
13	2,710,954,639,361	38,896	0.13

The application of more than 100 trials of Rabin's probabilistic algorithm lead us to suspect that the cofactor  $q_8 = F_8/p_8 = 93,461,639,715,357,977,769,163,558,199,606,896,584,051,237,541,638,188,580,280,321$  was prime. Professor H. C.

Williams kindly proved the primality of  $q_8$ , using the methods of [7] and the partial factorizations

$$\begin{aligned} q_8 - 1 &= 2^{11} \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 13 \cdot r_1, \\ q_8 + 1 &= 2 \cdot r_2, \\ q_8^2 + 1 &= 2 \cdot 17 \cdot 21649 \cdot 31081 \cdot 2347789 \cdot r_4, \\ q_8^2 + q_8 + 1 &= 3 \cdot r_3, \\ q_8^2 - q_8 + 1 &= 37 \cdot 1459 \cdot 266401 \cdot r_6, \end{aligned}$$

where  $r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4, r_6$  are composite but have no factors less than  $5 \times 10^7$ . (D. H. Lehmer found that their factors exceed  $2 \times 10^9$ , but this is more than is required for the proof of primality of  $q_8$ .) Thus, the factorization of  $F_k$  is now complete for  $k < 8$  ( $F_k$  is prime for  $1 \leq k \leq 4$ , composite with two prime factors for  $5 \leq k \leq 8$ ).

We are currently applying a slight modification of the algorithm in an attempt to factorize  $q_9 = F_9/p_9$ , a number of 148 decimal digits which is known to be composite, and  $F_{14}$ . The algorithm could also be used to factorize Mersenne numbers  $M_k = 2^k - 1$  ( $k$  prime), whose prime factors  $p$  satisfy  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{2k}$ .

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*Note Added in Proof.* A simpler proof of the primality of  $q_8$  is possible, using the factorization  $r_1 = 31618624099079 \cdot r'_1$ , where  $r'_1$  is a 43-digit prime. The factorization of  $r_1$  was obtained by the method of [1].

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