F_{12}ECM

A PROGRAM FOR FINDING
THE FACTORS OF
THE TWELFTH FERMAT NUMBER

Elliptic Curve Method and Probabilities

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Chapter 1

Fermat numbers

> Si je puis une fois tenir la raison fondamentale que 3, 5, 17, etc. sont nombres premiers, il me semble que je trouverai de très belles choses en cette matière,
>
> *Fermat à Mersenne*
> *25 décembre 1640*

Pierre de Fermat conjectured that every number of the form $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$, where n is a non-negative integer, is prime [6]. Today these positive integers are named Fermat numbers. The first five Fermat numbers are prime, but Leonhard Euler proved in 1732 that 641 divides F_5.

F_6 was completely factored by T Clausen, F. Landry and H. Le Lasseur in 1855. In 1970, M. A. Morrison and J. Brillhart cracked F_7 by the Continued Fraction method [11]. In 1980, R. P. Brent and J. M. Pollard used a modification of Pollard's rho method to factor F_8. R. P. Brent completely factored F_{11} in 1988 by ECM [3]. In 1990, A. K. Lenstra, H. W. Lenstra, M. S. Manasse and J. M. Pollard organized a distributed computation on approximately 700 workstations around the world and factored F_9 by the Number Field Sieve [9]. Finally R. P. Brent completely factored F_{10} in 1995 by ECM [3].

The smallest Fermat number which is not completely factored is F_{12}. Six prime factors are known, the 54-digit factor was found by Michael Vang in 2010 using GMP–ECM [13].

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_5 &= 641 \cdot 6700417 \\
F_6 &= 274177 \cdot 67280421310721 \\
F_7 &= 59649589127497217 \cdot 5704689200685129054721 \\
F_8 &= 1238926361552897 \cdot P_{62} \\
F_9 &= 2424833 \cdot 7455602825647884208337395736200454918783366342657 \cdot P_{99} \\
F_{10} &= 45592577 \cdot 6487031809 \cdot 4659775785220018543264560743076778192897 \cdot P_{252} \\
F_{11} &= 319489 \cdot 974849 \cdot 167988556341760475137 \cdot 3560841906445833920513 \cdot P_{564} \\
\\
F_{12} &= 114689 \cdot 26017793 \cdot 63766529 \cdot 190274191361 \cdot 1256132134125569 \cdot \\
&\quad 568630647535356955169033410940867804839360742060818433 \cdot C_{1133}
\end{aligned}
$$

Chapter 2

Elliptic curves

2.1 Elliptic curves modulo p

An elliptic curve over a field K is a set of points in K^2 on the curve

$$y^2 + a_1 xy + a_3 y = x^3 + a_2 x^2 + a_4 x + a_6,$$

for some coefficients a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 and a_6 in K and an additional point at infinity O.
If K has characteristic different from 2 and 3 then the curve can be transformed into

$$y^2 = x^3 + a x + b.$$

The condition $\Delta = -16(4a^3 + 27b^2) \neq 0$ ensures that the curve is non-singular.

Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ over $K = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ and $P = (x, y)$ a point on E. The point $Q = (x, -y)$ is on the curve: $Q = -P$ is the point opposite of P. The curve has the property that if a non-vertical line intersects it at two points P and Q, then it will also have a third point R of intersection. The addition law is defined by $P + Q = -R$. If $P = Q$, the tangent of the curve at P is considered. If the line is vertical, we have $P + -P = O$. The points on an elliptic curve and the addition form an abelian group. O is the identity of the group: we have $P + O = O + P = P$.

Hasse's theorem on elliptic curves over finite fields provides an estimate of the number of points. If $\#E$ is the order of the group of an elliptic curve E over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ then

$$|\#E - (p+1)| \leq 2\sqrt{p}.$$

Given a prime $p > 3$ and any integer n such that $|n - (p+1)| \leq 2\sqrt{p}$, there exists a and b such that $|\#E(a, b)| = n$. Furthermore, the numbers of points are uniformly distributed over the interval $[p + 1 - 2\sqrt{p}, p + 1 + 2\sqrt{p}]$.

To avoid the time-consuming inversion over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$, projective coordinates are preferred for computations. X, Y, Z are integers such that $x = X/Z$ and $y = Y/Z$. If $P \neq O$ then $Z \neq 0$ and the coordinates of the identity O are $(0, Y, 0)$.

$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ is called the short Weierstrass form but there exist some alternative representations of elliptic curves. Some of them are faster for computations.

2.2 Montgomery curves

One of $\texttt{F}_{12}\texttt{ECM}$ representations is the Montgomery curve

$$B\,y^2 = x^3 + A\,x^2 + x,$$

where $A \neq \pm 2, B \neq 0$. The Montgomery curves are a subset of elliptic curves. The order of a Montgomery curve over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is always divisible by 4.

The j-invariant is $256\,(A^2-3)^3/(A^2-4)$. Because it is independent of B, the computation of y and B is not needed for the Elliptic Curve Method.

Montgomery coordinates are the two projective coordinates (X, Z).

2.3 Edwards curves

The other representation of $\texttt{F}_{12}\texttt{ECM}$ is the Edwards curve

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1 + d\,x^2 y^2,$$

where $d \notin \{0, 1\}$. It is birationally equivalent to a Montgomery curve:
if $e = 1 - d$, $u = (1+y)/(1-y)$, $v = 2u/x$ then $(1/e)\,v^2 = u^3 + (4/e - 2)\,u^2 + u$ and the point $P = (0, 1)$ is mapped to the infinity O.

However, the Montgomery curve $B\,v^2 = u^3 + A u^2 + u$ is birationally equivalent to a twisted Edwards curve: if $a = (A+2)/B$, $d = (A-2)/B$, $x = u/v$, $y = (u-1)(u+1)$ then $a\,x^2 + y^2 = 1 + d\,x^2 y^2$. It can be written in Edwards form if a is a square.

2.4 Modular curves

The Tate normal form of an elliptic curve is

$$E(b, c) : y_T^2 + (1-c)\,x_T y_T - b\,y_T = x_T^3 - b\,x_T^2.$$

It is obtained from the Weierstrass normal form by imposing the conditions: $P = (0, 0)$ is a torsion point, the straight line $x_T = 0$ is a tangent to E at P and $\mathrm{ord}(P) \neq 2, 3$.

If $P = (x_0,\, y_0)$ then $-P = (x_0,\, -y_0 - (1-c)\,x_0 + b)$. Starting from $P = (0,\, 0)$, we can calculate $2\,P = (b,\, b\,c)$, $3\,P = (c,\, b - c)$, $4\,P = \big((-b\,c + b^2)/c^2,\, (b^2\,c^2 + b^2\,c - b^3)/c^3\big)$. Define $r = b/c$, we have $4\,P = \big(r\,(r-1),\, r^2\,(c - r + 1)\big)$.

We can remove the $x_T y_T$ term with the transform $x = x_T$ and $y = y_T + ((1-c)\,x_T - b)/2$. We get

$$E'(b, c) : y^2 = x^3 + \frac{(c-1)^2 - 4\,b}{4} x^2 + \frac{b\,(c-1)}{2} x + \frac{b^2}{4}.$$

2.4.1 Torsion group $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$

If $c = 0$ then $P_4 = (0, 0)$ is a point of order 4 on the Tate normal form. Hence the equation is

$$y^2 = x^3 + \frac{1-4b}{4}x^2 - \frac{b}{2}x + \frac{b^2}{4}.$$

The subgroup of order 4 is $\{(0, -b/2); (b, 0); (0, b/2); O\}$.

If $2P = O$ then the y-coordinate of P is zero. The x-solutions are b, $(\pm\sqrt{16b+1}-1)/8$. Define $b = v^2 - 1/16$. The two new solutions are $(\pm 4v - 1)/8$. Since $((-4v-1)/8,\ 0) + (b,\ 0) = ((4v-1)/8,\ 0)$, the new subgroup of order 2 is $\{((4v-1)/8,\ 0); O\}$. Note that the discriminant of the Weierstrass form is $\Delta = b^4(16b+1)$.

We have

$$y^2 = \left(x - \left(v^2 - \frac{1}{16}\right)\right)\left(x - \frac{4v-1}{8}\right)\left(x - \frac{-4v-1}{8}\right),$$

and $P = ((4v-1)/8,\ 0)$ is a point of order 2.

Define $x = z + (-4v-1)/8$, we have

$$64y^2 = 64z^3 - 4(16v^2 + 24v + 1)z^2 + 4v(4v+1)^2 z.$$

Define $A = -((4v+1)^2 + 16v)$ and $B = 16v(4v+1)^2$. A coordinate transform leads to the curve

$$y^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + Bx.$$

We search for x such that $x + A + B/x = u^2$. We take $x = 4v + 1$ then the modular curve is

$$48v^2 - 4v = u^2.$$

It has genus 0 and one solution is $v = 0$, $u = 0$. If $v = \alpha u$ then $u = 4\alpha/(48\alpha^2 - 1)$.

Theorem 2.1. *Define $v = 4\alpha^2/(48\alpha^2 - 1)$, $A = -((4v+1)^2 + 16v)$, $B = 16v(4v+1)^2$. For any prime $p > 3$ the order of $y^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + Bx$ over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is divisible by 8 and $(4v+1, v(4v+1)/\alpha)$ is a point of order greater than 8.*

2.4.2 Torsion group $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ over $\mathbb{Q}(i)$

We can try to extend the torsion group: we search for Q such that $2Q = P = ((4v-1)/8,\ 0)$.

From [7, Theorem 4.2], $(4v-1)/8 - (v^2 - 1/16) = -(4v-1)^2/16$ and $(4v-1)/8 - (-4v-1)/8 = v$ must be squares. Then $v = w^2$, the field is $\mathbb{Q}(i)$ and the torsion group is $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$.

The equation is $48w^4 - 4w^2 = u^2$. Let $s = 2w$ and $t = u/s$, we have the modular curve

$$3s^2 - 1 = t^2.$$

It has genus 0 and $s = 0$, $t = i$ is a solution in $\mathbb{Q}(i)$. If $z = t - i$ and $s = \alpha z$ we have $z = 2i/(3\alpha^2 - 1)$ and $w = i\alpha/(3\alpha^2 - 1)$.

Theorem 2.2. *Define* $v = -\alpha^2/(3\,\alpha^2-1)^2$, $A = -((4\,v+1)^2+16\,v)$, $B = 16\,v\,(4\,v+1)^2$. *For any prime* $p \equiv 1 \pmod 4$*, the order of* $y^2 = x^3 + A\,x^2 + B\,x$ *over* $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ *is divisible by 16 and* $(\,4\,v+1, -2\,v\,(4\,v+1)(3\,\alpha^2+1)/\alpha\,)$ *is a point of order greater than 16.*

By the coordinate changes $x = \sqrt{B}\,x_M$, $y = \sqrt{B}\,y_M$, we get the Montgomery form

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{B}}\,y_M^2 = x_M^3 + \frac{A}{\sqrt{B}}\,x_M^2 + x_M.$$

The equivalence with a twisted Edwards curve is the map $x_T = x_M/y_M$, $y_T = (x_M-1)/(x_M+1)$,

$$(A+2\,\sqrt{B})\,x_T^2 + y_T^2 = 1 + (A-2\sqrt{B})\,x_T^2 y_T^2.$$

We have $A \pm 2\,\sqrt{B} = -(4\,w^2+1 \mp 4\,w)^2 = -(2\,w \mp 1)^4$. Finally if $x_E = i\,(2\,w-1)^2\,x_T$, $y_E = y_T$, we get the Edwards form $x_E^2 + y_E^2 = 1 + \left(\frac{2\,w+1}{2\,w-1}\right)^4\,x_E^2\,y_E^2$.

Theorem 2.3. *Define*

$$d = \left(\frac{3\,\alpha^2+2\,i\,\alpha-1}{3\,\alpha^2-2\,i\,\alpha-1}\right)^4, \quad x_P = \frac{i\,(3\,\alpha^2-2\,i\,\alpha-1)^2}{2\,\alpha\,(3\,\alpha^2+1)}, \quad y_P = \frac{(\alpha-i)(3\,\alpha-i)}{(\alpha+i)(3\,\alpha+i)}.$$

For any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod 4$*, the order of* $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + d\,x^2 y^2$ *over* $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ *is divisible by 16 and* (x_P, y_P) *is a point of order greater than 16.*

Chapter 3

Elliptic Curve Method

3.1 Algorithm

The elliptic curve factorization method (ECM) is an extension of Pollard's $p-1$ algorithm [12].

Pollard's $p-1$ algorithm finds the prime factors p such that $p-1$ is B-smooth.
If $p > 2$ and e is a multiple of $p-1$ then by Fermat's little theorem we have $2^e \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. For a fixed bound B, $M = \prod_{\substack{p \leq B \\ p \text{ prime}}} p^{\lfloor \log_p B \rfloor}$ is computed modulo n and finally $g = \gcd(2^M - 1, n)$.
If n is a composite integer, $p \mid n$, $p-1$ is B-powersmooth and $q \mid n$ but $q-1$ is not B-powersmooth then $1 < g < n$ and g is a multiple of p.
In practice, a two-stage variant of the algorithm is implemented: instead of requiring that $p-1$ has all its factors less than B, if all but one of them are less than B_1 and the remaining factor is less than B_2 then the range $]B_1; B_2]$ can be tested more quickly. M is computed for $B = B1$ and the second stage is $M' = \prod_{\substack{B_1 < p \leq B_2 \\ p \text{ prime}}} \left((2^M)^p - 1\right)$. If p_n and p_{n+1} are two consecutive prime numbers then $A^{p_{n+1}} = A^{p_n} \cdot A^{d_n}$ where $d_n = p_{n+1} - p_n$. The d_n are relatively small then the values of $A^2, A^4, A^6, \ldots$ can be precomputed. Then $\left(2^M\right)^p$ is calculated with a single multiplication.

Fermat's little theorem can be extended to a group G such that each element of G is invertible. Pollard's $p-1$ is based on $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$. A finite field of order q exists if and only if $q = p^k$, where p is a prime number and k is a positive integer. The order of $\mathbf{F}_q^\times$ is $p^k - 1$. A factor of $p^k - 1$ is sufficient for Pollard's method and the factors of $p^k - 1$ are the cyclotomic polynomials [1]. But in practice this algorithm is slower than ECM except $p+1$.

Since the points on an elliptic curve over $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ forms an abelian group, Pollard's algorithm can be extended to this set. Because of Hasse's theorem, ECM is a "$p+1-a$" algorithm. a is unknown and $a \in [-2\sqrt{p}, 2\sqrt{p}]$. With different curves, we can expect that a is a random number in a large range.

If $\mathscr{P}$ is the probability that $p+1-a$ is B-smooth, with n curves the likelihood of success is $\mathscr{P}_n = 1 - (1-\mathscr{P})^n$. If $\mathscr{P} \ll 1$ and $n \sim 1/\mathscr{P}$ then $\mathscr{P}_n = 1 - e^{-1} \approx 63.2\%$.
If $\mathscr{P}$ is 1% with Pollard's $p-1$, the likelihood of success with ECM is 63.2% with 100 curves and 99.99% with 1000 curves.

3.2 Largest prime factors

Dickman [5] proved that the probability that a large integer n has no prime factor exceeding n^α approaches a limit $F(\alpha)$ as $n \to \infty$, where

$$F(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 1 - \int_\alpha^1 F\left(\frac{t}{1-t}\right)\frac{dt}{t} & \text{if } 0 \le \alpha < 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } \alpha \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

Let $u = 1/\alpha$. $F(1/u) = 1 - \int_{1/u}^1 F\left(\frac{t}{1-t}\right)\frac{dt}{t}$. If $t' = 1/t$ we have $\frac{t}{1-t} = \frac{1}{t'-1}$ and $\frac{dt}{t} = -\frac{dt'}{t'}$ then $F(1/u) = 1 - \int_1^u F\left(\frac{1}{t'-1}\right)\frac{dt'}{t'}$. The relation becomes

$$F(1/u) = \rho(u) = \begin{cases} 1 - \int_1^u \frac{\rho(t-1)}{t}\,dt & \text{if } u > 1, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

ρ is the Dickman function used to estimate the proportion of smooth numbers up to a given bound.

Differentiating both sides of the definition of $\rho(u)$ for $u > 1$ gives $t\,\rho'(t) = -\rho(t-1)$. Integration by parts of $\rho(t)$ and t is $\int_1^u \rho(t)\,dt = [t\,\rho(t)]_1^u - \int_1^u t\,\rho'(t)\,dt$. Hence $\int_1^u \rho(t)\,dt = u\,\rho(u) - 1 + \int_0^{u-1}\rho(t)\,dt$. Since $\int_0^1 \rho(t)\,dt = 1$ we have

$$\rho(u) = \frac{1}{u}\int_{u-1}^{u} \rho(t)\,dt.$$

This relation can be used for the numerical computation of ρ by approximating the integral with the trapezoidal formula [10]. If $1 \le u < 2$, $\rho(u) = 1 - \int_1^u \frac{dt}{t} = 1 - \log u$.

Knuth and Trabb Pardo [8] extended Dickman's theorem and shown that the probability that the k^{th} largest prime factor of a number n is at most n^α tends to a limiting distribution $F_k(\alpha)$ as $n \to \infty$, where $F_0(\alpha) = 0$ for all α by convention and for $k \ge 1$

$$F_k(\alpha) = \begin{cases} 1 - \int_\alpha^1 \left(F_k\left(\frac{t}{1-t}\right) - F_{k-1}\left(\frac{t}{1-t}\right)\right)\frac{dt}{t} & \text{if } 0 \le \alpha < 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } \alpha \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

We can define the generalized Dickman function $\rho_k(u) = F_k(1/u)$ and we have

$$\rho_k(u) = \begin{cases} 1 - \int_1^u (\rho_k(t-1) - \rho_{k-1}(t-1))\frac{dt}{t} & \text{if } u > 1 \text{ and } k \ge 1, \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 < u \le 1 \text{ and } k \ge 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The differential equation is $t\,\rho_k'(t) = -\rho_k(t-1) + \rho_{k-1}(t-1)$. Integrating by parts, we get

$$\rho_k(u) = \frac{1}{u}\left(\int_{u-1}^{u} \rho_k(t)\,dt + \int_0^{u-1} \rho_{k-1}(t)\,dt\right).$$

This relation can be used for the numerical computation of ρ_2.

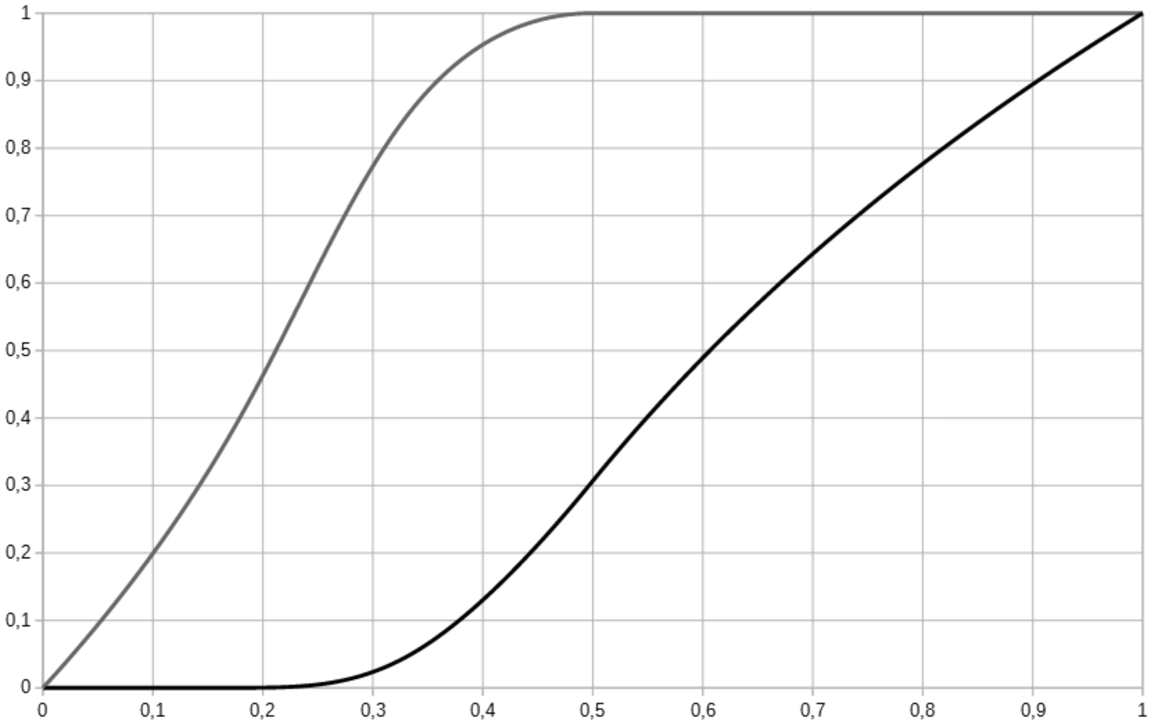

Figure 3.1: $F(\alpha)$ and $F_2(\alpha)$.

The sizes of the two largest prime factors are correlated: let $n \approx 10^{100}$ and $p \approx 10^{30}$ be the largest prime factor of n. We have $\alpha = 0.3$ and $F(\alpha) \approx 0.02365$. However $F_2(0.0131) \approx 0.02365$ and $n^{0.0131} \approx 20.4$. The probability that the largest prime factor of n is at most 10^{30} is equal to the probability that its second largest prime factor is at most 20.4. But this result cannot be used to set B_1 and B_2. If the largest prime factor of n is a 30-digit prime, the second largest prime factor is certainly larger than 20.4 (see subsection 3.3.1).

3.3 Probabilities

Let B_1 and B_2 be the bounds of a two-stage ECM, n be the number of curves and p be a prime factor of F_{12}. $\mathscr{P}(B_1, B_2, n, p)$ is the chance for ECM to find p.

If ECM finds p, because of Hasse's theorem we have $\#E \approx p$. $F(\alpha)$ is the probability that the largest prime factor of $\#E$ is at most p^α. One must have $B_2 \gtrsim p^\alpha$. Let $P(B_2) = F(\log B_2 \,/\, \log p)$. If the second largest prime factor is larger than B_1 then the likelihood of success for ECM is $\mathscr{P}(B_2, B_2, n, p) = 1 - (1 - P(B_2))^n$.

Note that $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1 - x/n)^n = e^{-x}$. Hence, if $P(B_2) \ll 1$ we have $\mathscr{P}(B_2, B_2, n, p) \approx 1 - e^{-P(B_2)\,n}$. If $\mathscr{P}^*(B_2, B_2, n, p) = 1 - e^{-1} \approx 63.2\%$ is chosen as an acceptable likelihood of success, we have the condition $P(B_2)\,n = 1$.

The number of operations per curve is about $\log(B_1\#) \sim B_1$ for stage 1 and about $B_2/\log B_2$ for stage 2 if $B_1 \ll B_2$. Hence, computation time is proportional to $(B_1 + B_2/\log B_2)\,n$. If $B_1 = K \cdot B_2/\log B_2$

then $(B_2/\log B_2)\, n$ must be minimal.

Finally the conditions are B_2 is the maximum point of $P(B_2)\log B_2/B_2$ and $n = 1/P(B_2)$.

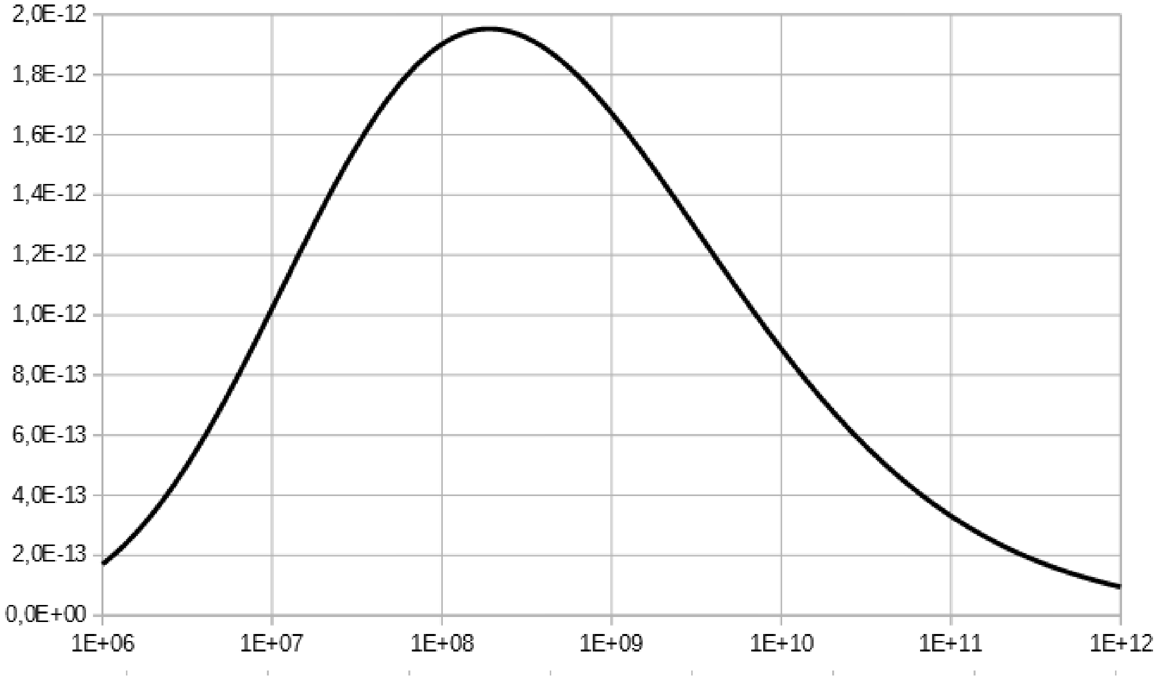

Figure 3.2: $P(B_2)\log B_2/B_2$ for $p = 5\cdot 10^{49}$.

Let $p = 5\cdot 10^{49}$ be an average 50-digit prime. $P(B_2)\log B_2/B_2$ is maximum at $B_2 \approx 1.9\cdot 10^8$. We have $P(B_2) \approx 1.95\cdot 10^{-5}$ and $n \approx 51400$.

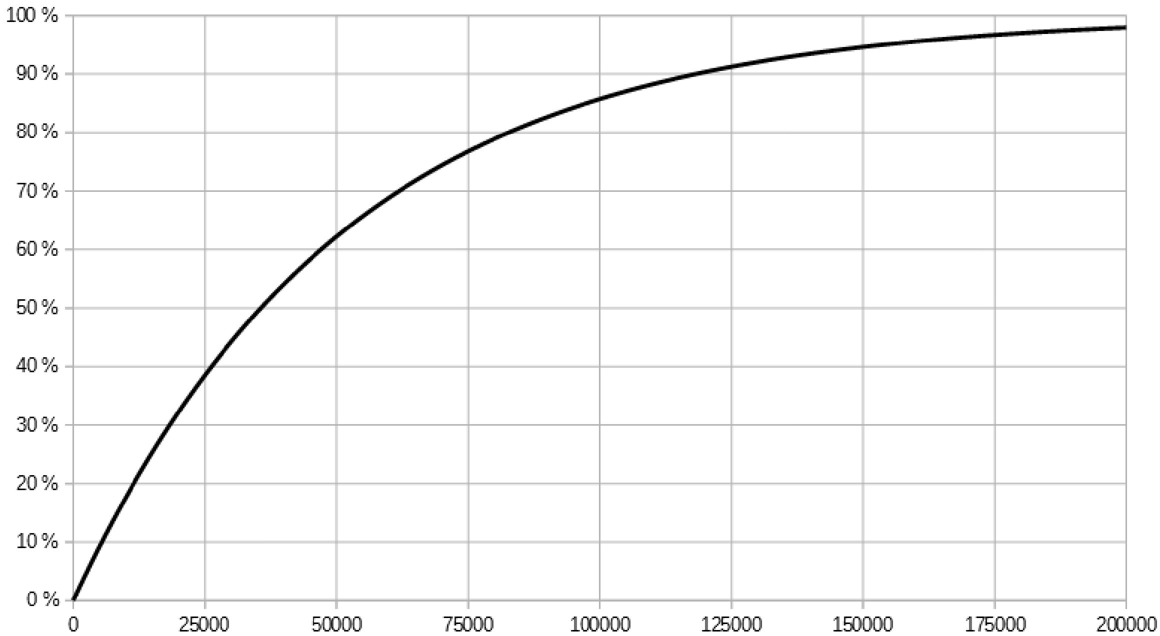

Figure 3.3: Probability of success for n curves, $p = 5\cdot 10^{49}$ and $B_2 = 1.9\cdot 10^8$.

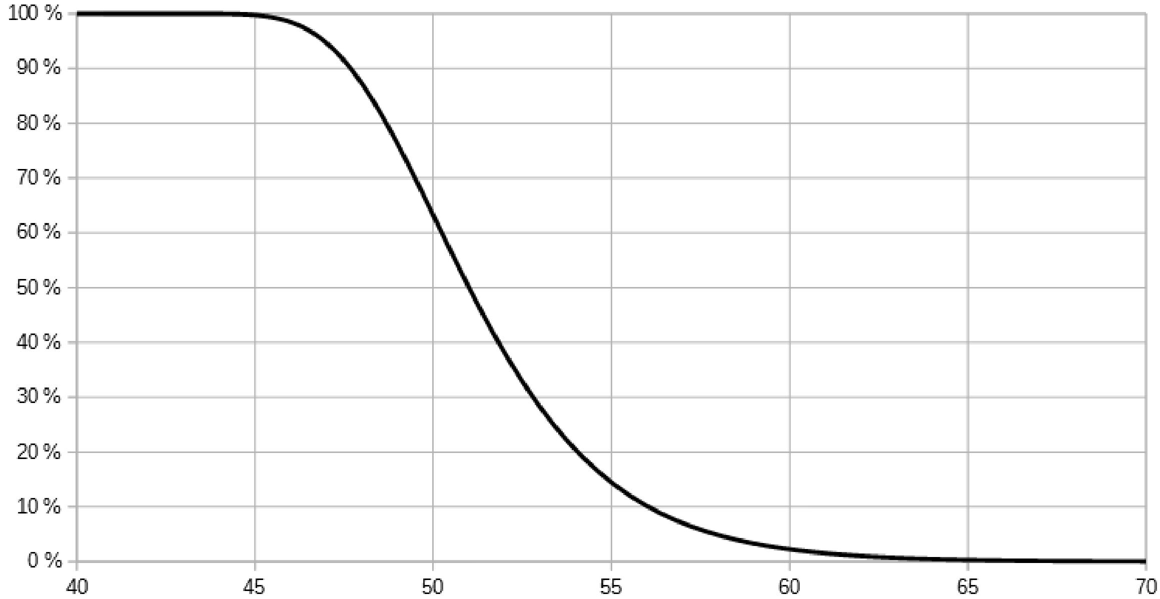

Figure 3.4: Chance to find a x-digit factor, $B_2 = 190 \cdot 10^6$ and $n = 51400$.

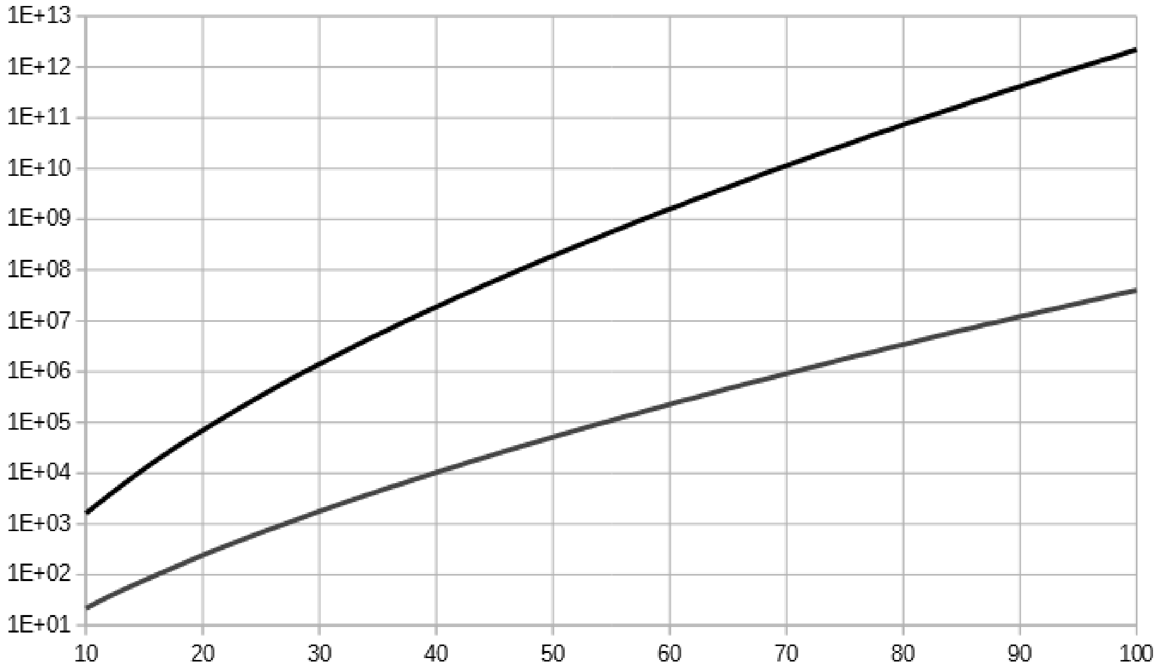

Figure 3.5: Optimal B_2 and number of curves as a function of the number of digits.

3.3.1 The ratio B_2/B_1

The generalized Dickman function F_2 cannot be used to compute B_1 as a function of B_2 (see section 3.2). Let $G(\alpha,\beta)$ be the probability that the largest prime factor of a number n is at most n^α and that the second largest prime factor of n is at most n^β. Following Knuth and Trabb Pardo [8] heuristic derivation, we have:

$$G(\alpha,\beta) = \begin{cases} F(\beta) + \int_\beta^\alpha F\left(\frac{\beta}{1-t}\right)\frac{dt}{t} & \text{if } 0 \le \beta < \alpha, \\ F(\alpha) & \text{if } \beta \ge \alpha. \end{cases}$$

If $\beta \le \alpha$ we have $G(\alpha,\beta) = F(\beta) + \int_\beta^\alpha \rho\left(\frac{1-t}{\beta}\right)\frac{dt}{t}$ and $G(1/u,1/v) = \rho(v) + \int_{1/v}^{1/u} \rho((1-t)v)\frac{dt}{t}$.

Let $t' = (1-t)v + 1$. We have $t = (v+1-t')/v$, $dt = -dt'/v$ and $\frac{dt}{t} = -\frac{dt'}{v+1-t'}$. Hence,

$$G(1/u,1/v) = \sigma(u,v) = \rho(v) + \int_{v+1-v/u}^{v} \frac{\rho(t-1)\,dt}{v+1-t}.$$

This relation can be used for the numerical computation of σ.

$P(B_2) = F(\log B_2 / \log p)$ can be replaced with $P(B_2,B_1) = G(\log B_2/\log p, \log B_1/\log p)$. Now the likelihood of success for ECM is $\mathscr{P}(B_2,B_1,n,p) = 1-(1-P(B_2,B_1))^n$.

The computation time is proportional to $(K\cdot B_1 + B_2/\log B_2)\,n$, where $K \approx 5.6$ depends on the implementation. Hence, $(B_2;B_1)$ must be the maximum point of the function

$$\frac{P(B_2,B_1)}{K\cdot B_1 + B_2/\log B_2}.$$

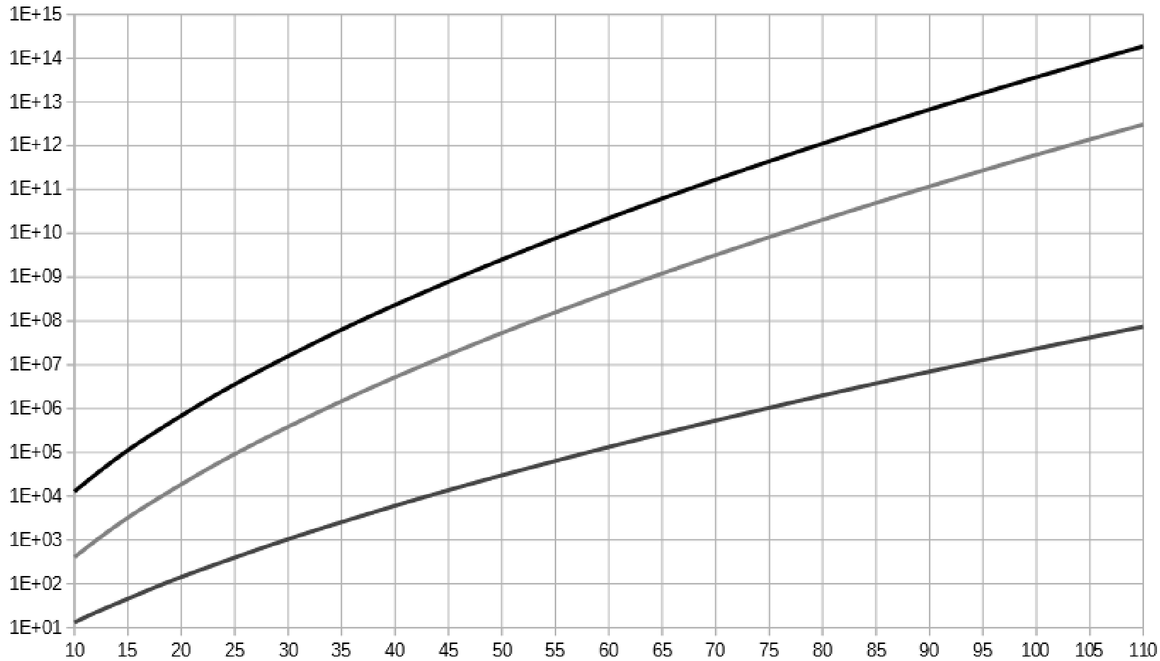

Figure 3.6: Optimal B_2, B_1 and number of curves as a function of the number of digits.

3.3.2 ECM and F_{12}

The present status is
$$F_{12} = P_6 \cdot P_8 \cdot P_8 \cdot P_{12} \cdot P_{16} \cdot P_{54} \cdot C_{1133}.$$
The size of the next prime factor is unknown and we can't set B_1 and B_2 as a function of its number of digits. The number of curves needed to find a new factor is unknown but it is a variable that will increase over time. We can set the searched prime factor as a function of the index of the curve.

The number of digits, B_1 and B_2 can be computed as a function of number of curves with subsection 3.3.1. But now we don't check n curves with a fixed set of parameters but the i^{th} curve is tested with different settings $B_1(i)$ and $B_2(i)$.

However subsection 3.3.1 can be the starting point. For integer values of $\log p$, $n(\lfloor \log p \rfloor)$ is calculated. If n curves are tested for each value of $\lfloor \log p \rfloor$, the probability of success is larger than $1-e^{-1}$ because $n(\lfloor \log p \rfloor - 1), n(\lfloor \log p \rfloor - 2), \ldots$ have already been tested. If $n(\lfloor \log p \rfloor) - n(\lfloor \log p \rfloor - 1)$ curves are tested then the probability is smaller than $1-e^{-1}$ because $B_1(\lfloor \log p \rfloor - 1) < B_1(\lfloor \log p \rfloor)$ and $B_2(\lfloor \log p \rfloor - 1) < B_2(\lfloor \log p \rfloor)$.

We search for λ such that if $n'(\lfloor \log p \rfloor) = n(\lfloor \log p \rfloor) - \lambda \cdot n(\lfloor \log p \rfloor - 1)$ then the probability remains constant and equal to $1-e^{-1}$. $\lambda \approx 0.92$ is suitable. By inverting this function, for each index an estimate of $\log p$ is computed and then $B_1(\log p)$ and $B_2(\log p)$.

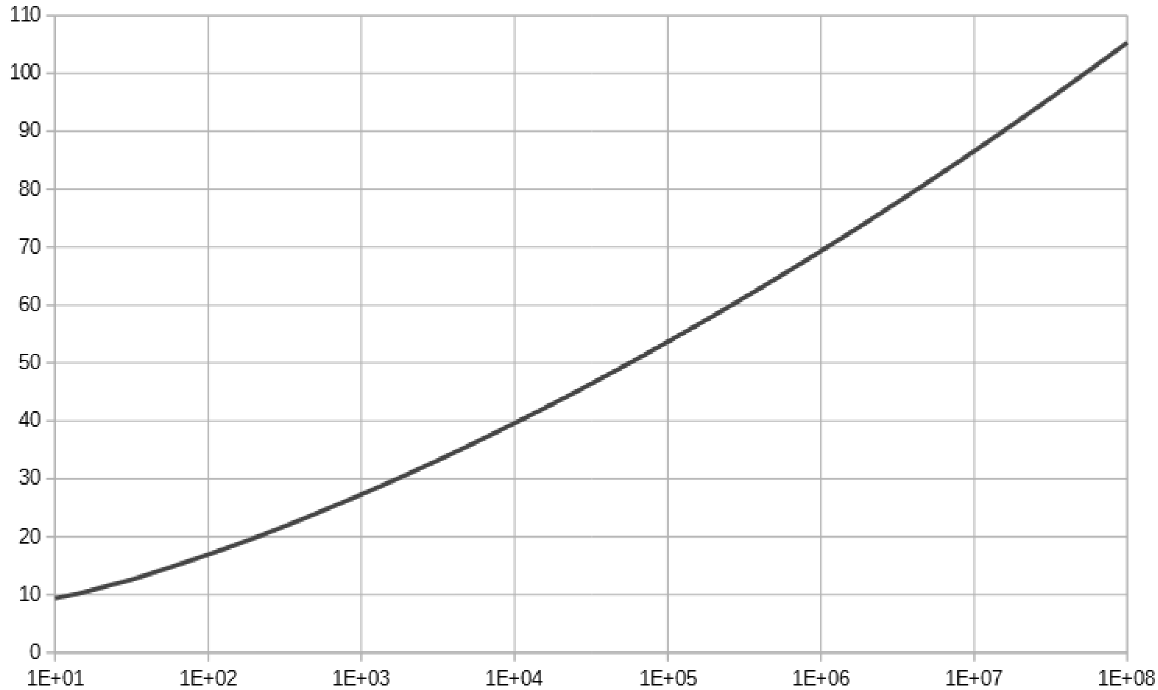

Figure 3.7: Expected number of digits as a function of the index of the curve.

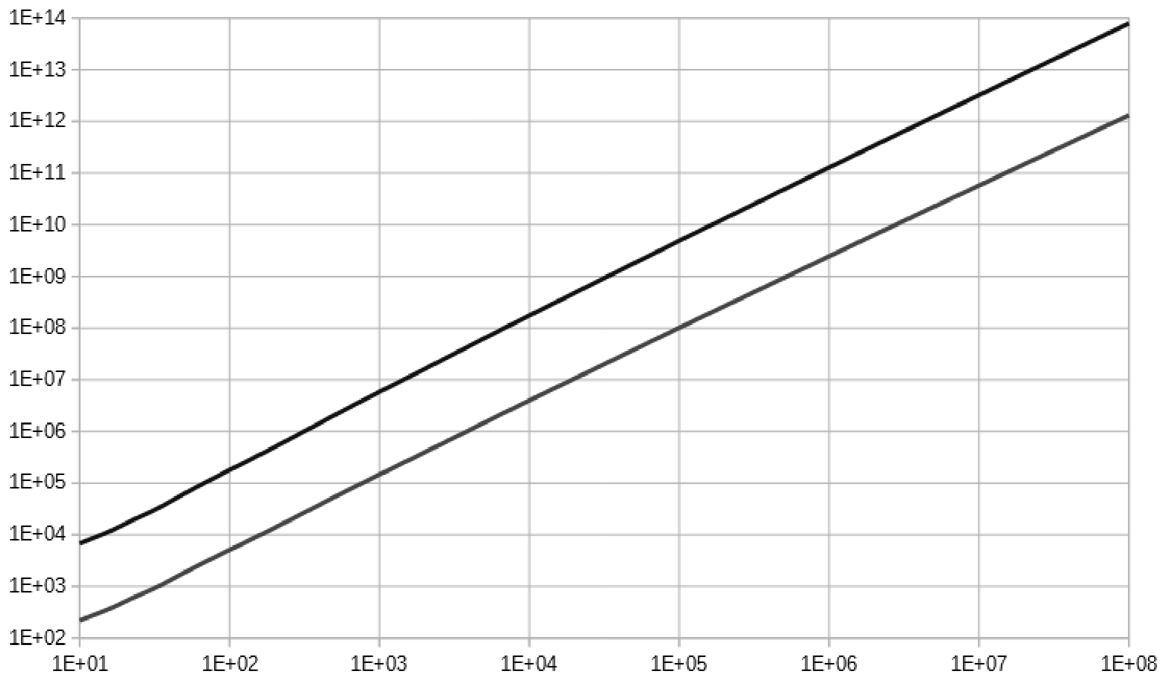

Figure 3.8: B_2 and B_1 as a function of the index of the curve.

$\log B_2 = f(\log i)$ where i is the i^{th} curve is close to a linear function. The error of the estimate $B_2 = 400\, i^{\sqrt{2}}$ is less than 5% for $10^4 \le i \le 10^8$. The ratio of $B_2 / B_1 = 26 + 1.8 \log i$ is always slightly larger than the optimal value. Finally we have $\log p \approx (3 + 1.3 \log i)^{5/3}$.

The following parameters are applied: let i be the i^{th} curve and d be the expected number of digits of the prime factor, then

$$B_2 = 400\, i^{\sqrt{2}},$$
$$B_1 = B_2 / (26 + 1.8 \log i),$$
$$d = (1.8 + 0.79 \log i)^{5/3}.$$

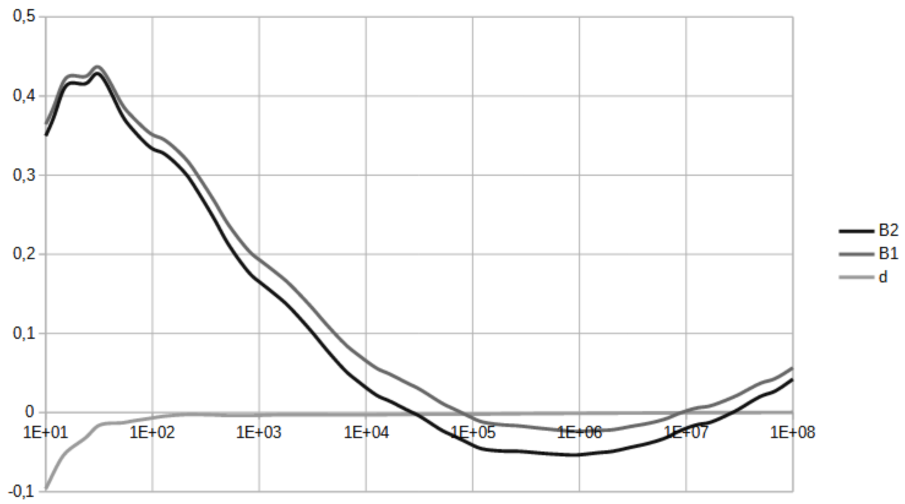

Figure 3.9: Relative error with applied parameters as a function of the index of the curve.

3.3.3 Test of the probabilistic model

Chapter 4

Implementation

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