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# Dixon's factorization method

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In [number theory](#), **Dixon's factorization method** (also **Dixon's random squares method**<sup>[1]</sup> or **Dixon's algorithm**) is a general-purpose [integer factorization algorithm](#); it is the prototypical [factor base](#) method, and the only factor base method for which a run-time bound not reliant on conjectures about the smoothness properties of values of a polynomial is known.

The algorithm was designed by [John D. Dixon](#), a mathematician at [Carleton University](#), and was published in 1981.<sup>[2]</sup>

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## Basic idea [\[edit\]](#)

Dixon's method is based on finding a [congruence of squares](#) modulo the integer *N* which we intend to factor. [Fermat's factorization algorithm](#) finds such a congruence by selecting random or [pseudo-random](#) *x* values and hoping that the integer *x*<sup>2</sup> mod *N* is a [perfect square](#) (in the integers):

$$x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{N}, \quad x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{N}.$$

For example, if *N* = 84923, we notice (by starting at 292, the first number greater than  $\sqrt{N}$  and counting up) that 505<sup>2</sup> mod 84923 is 256, the square of 16. So (505 − 16)(505 + 16) = 0 mod 84923. Computing the [greatest common divisor](#) of 505 − 16 and *N* using [Euclid's algorithm](#) gives us 163, which is a factor of *N*.

In practice, selecting random *x* values will take an impractically long time to find a congruence of squares, since there are only  $\sqrt{N}$  squares less than *N*.

Dixon's method replaces the condition "is the square of an integer" with the much weaker one "has only small prime factors"; for example, there are 292 squares smaller than 84923; 662 numbers smaller than 84923 whose prime factors are only 2,3,5 or 7; and 4767 whose prime factors are all less than 30. (Such numbers are called [B-smooth](#) with respect to some bound *B*.)

If we have lots of numbers *a*<sub>1</sub> . . . *a*<sub>*n*</sub> whose squares can be factorized as *a*<sub>*i*</sub><sup>2</sup> mod *N* =  $\prod_{j=1}^m b_j^{e_{ij}}$  for a fixed set

*b*<sub>1</sub> . . . *b*<sub>*m*</sub> of small primes, linear algebra modulo 2 on the matrix *e*<sub>*ij*</sub> will give us a subset of the *a*<sub>*i*</sub> whose squares combine to a product of small primes to an even power — that is, a subset of the *a*<sub>*i*</sub> whose squares multiply to the square of a (hopefully different) number mod *N*.

## Method [\[edit\]](#)

Suppose we are trying to factor the composite number *N*. We choose a bound *B*, and identify the [factor base](#) (which we will call *P*), the set of all primes less than or equal to *B*. Next, we search for positive integers *z* such that *z*<sup>2</sup> mod *N* is *B*-smooth. We can therefore write, for suitable exponents *a*<sub>*k*</sub>,

$$z^2 \equiv \prod_{p_i \in P} p_i^{a_i} \pmod{N}$$

When we have generated enough of these relations (it's generally sufficient that the number of relations be a few more than the size of *P*), we can use the methods of [linear algebra](#) (for example, [Gaussian elimination](#)) to multiply together these various relations in such a way that the exponents of the primes on the right-hand side are all even:

$$z_1^2 z_2^2 \cdots z_k^2 \equiv \prod_{p_i \in P} p_i^{a_{i,1} + a_{i,2} + \cdots + a_{i,k}} \pmod{N} \quad (\text{where } a_{i,1} + a_{i,2} + \cdots + a_{i,k} \equiv 0 \pmod{2})$$

This gives us a [congruence of squares](#) of the form *a*<sup>2</sup> ≡ *b*<sup>2</sup> (mod *N*), which can be turned into a factorization of *N*, *N* = [gcd](#)(*a* + *b*, *N*) × (*N*/[gcd](#)(*a* + *b*, *N*)). This factorization might turn out to be trivial (i.e. *N* = *N* × 1), which can only happen if *a* ≡ ±*b* (mod *N*), in which case we have to try again with a different combination of relations; but with luck we will get a nontrivial pair of factors of *N*, and the algorithm will terminate.

## Example [\[edit\]](#)

We will try to factor  $N = 84923$  using bound  $B = 7$ . Our [factor base](#) is then  $P = \{2, 3, 5, 7\}$ . We then search randomly for integers between  $\left\lceil \sqrt{84923} \right\rceil = 292$  and  $N$  whose squares are [B-smooth](#). Suppose that two of the numbers we find are 513 and 537:

$$\begin{aligned} 513^2 \bmod 84923 &= 8400 = 2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7 \\ 537^2 \bmod 84923 &= 33600 = 2^6 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7 \end{aligned}$$

So

$$(513 \cdot 537)^2 \bmod 84923 = 2^{10} \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^4 \cdot 7^2$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (513 \cdot 537)^2 \bmod 84923 &= (275481)^2 \bmod 84923 \\ &= (84923 \cdot 3 + 20712)^2 \bmod 84923 \\ &= (84923 \cdot 3)^2 + 2 \cdot (84923 \cdot 3 \cdot 20712) + 20712^2 \bmod 84923 \\ &= 0 + 0 + 20712^2 \bmod 84923 \end{aligned}$$

That is,  $20712^2 \bmod 84923 = (2^5 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7)^2 \bmod 84923 = 16800^2 \bmod 84923$ .

The resulting factorization is  $84923 = \gcd(20712 - 16800, 84923) \times \gcd(20712 + 16800, 84923) = 163 \times 521$ .

## Optimizations [\[edit\]](#)

The [quadratic sieve](#) is an optimization of Dixon's method. It selects values of  $x$  close to the square root of  $N$  such that  $x^2$  modulo  $N$  is small, thereby largely increasing the chance of obtaining a smooth number.

Other ways to optimize Dixon's method include using a better algorithm to solve the matrix equation, taking advantage of the sparsity of the matrix: a number  $z$  cannot have more than  $\log_2 z$  factors, so each row of the matrix is almost all zeros. In practice, the [block Lanczos algorithm](#) is often used. Also, the size of the factor base must be chosen carefully: if it is too small, it will be difficult to find numbers that factorize completely over it, and if it is too large, more relations will have to be collected.

A more sophisticated analysis, using the approximation that a number has all its prime factors less than  $N^{1/a}$  with probability about  $a^{-a}$  (an approximation to the [Dickman–de Bruijn function](#)), indicates that choosing too small a factor base is much worse than too large, and that the ideal factor base size is some power of  $\exp\left(\sqrt{\log N \log \log N}\right)$ .

The optimal complexity of Dixon's method is

$$O\left(\exp\left(2\sqrt{2}\sqrt{\log n \log \log n}\right)\right)$$

in [big-O notation](#), or

$$L_n[1/2, 2\sqrt{2}]$$

in [L-notation](#).

## References [\[edit\]](#)

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- ↑ Dixon, J. D. (1981). "Asymptotically fast factorization of integers". *Math. Comp.* **36** (153): 255–260. doi:10.1090/S0025-5718-1981-0595059-1 [↗](#). JSTOR 2007743 [↗](#).

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