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## Otokar Grošek <br> Remarks concerning RSA-cryptosystem exponents

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# REMARKS CONCERNING RSA-CRYPTOSYSTEM EXPONENTS 

OTOKAR GROŠEK<br>(Communicated by Štefan Porubský )


#### Abstract

Two problems associated with RSA-encryption exponents are discussed. Firstly, how many plaintexts are to be read by the Simmons and Norris attack for given exponent and modulus. Secondly, what is the number of exponents belonging to a possible $k$-attack for given $k$ and modulus. The goal is to find an explicit formula for the cardinality of all encryption exponents with the greatest period in a case when strong pseudoprimes are used.


The RSA cryptosystem is a mapping (permutation) $\pi_{s}: S_{m} \rightarrow S_{m}$, where $S_{m}=\{0,1,2, \ldots, m-1\}$ is the multiplicative semigroup of integers modulo $m$. For any $x \in S_{m}, \pi_{s}(x) \equiv x^{s} \bmod m$, where $\operatorname{GCD}(s, \phi(m))=1$, and $\phi$ is the Euler $\phi$-function. In fact, for $x=0$ and 1 the cryptosystem is useless. But if () and 1 are messages as well, we can use the structure of the semigroup $S_{m}$. This semigroup has been described in many papers. We recall only two simple facts:

1. If $m=p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot p_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}}$, then the semigroup $S_{m}$ contains exactly $2^{r}$ idempotents including 0 and 1.
2. To every idempotent $e \in S_{m}$ there is a unique largest group $G(c)$ (sub)group of $S$ ) containing $e$ as its identity element.

Simmons and Norris [9] observed that there exists a very simple attack in some cases, but in those nothing was learned about the factorization of the modulus $m=p \cdot q$. Their attack was based on the fact that in some cases

$$
\pi_{s}^{k+1}(x)=\pi_{s}\left(\pi_{s}\left(\ldots \pi_{s}(x)\right) \ldots\right)=x^{s^{k+1}}=x^{s}=\pi_{s}(x),
$$

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hence $\pi_{s}^{k}(x)$ must have been a plaintext message. This is referred to as a $k$-attack.

Rivest in [8] formulated the practical requirements to make such situations to be very unlikely: A necessary but not sufficient condition which must be imposed to protect against the kind of weakness illustrated above is to require that $\operatorname{GCD}(\phi(p), \phi(q))$ be small and that very large primes divide $o(p)$ and $\phi(q)$, respectively. Such primes are called strong primes. More precisel: :

A prime $p$ is called strong [6] if the following congruences are true:

$$
p \equiv 1 \quad \bmod r, \quad p \equiv t-1 \quad \bmod t, \quad r \equiv 1 \bmod j .
$$

where $r, t, j$ are large random primes, respectively.
How many plaintexts $x \in S$ will be decrypted by a $k$-iteration process $\pi_{:}^{k}$ for given encryption exponent $s$ ? The answer is well known. It is the number of solutions of

$$
x^{s^{k}}=x \quad \text { or } \quad x^{s^{k+1}}=x^{s}, \quad \text { i.e. } \quad \pi_{s}^{k+1}(x)=\pi_{s}(x)
$$

All these solutions form a semigroup $Z_{k}=Z\left(s^{k}, 1, p \cdot q\right)$, and their cardinalit! is $([1]-[6],[10])$

$$
\left|Z_{k}\right|=\left[1+\operatorname{GCD}\left(s^{k}-1, p-1\right)\right]\left[1+\operatorname{GCD}\left(s^{k}-1, q-1\right)\right] .
$$

Clearly, for different $k, Z_{k}$ might possess the same elements. Now the question is: Using step-by-step $k=1,2,3, \ldots$, how many new cryptograms can we decrypt by $k$ ? The answer is given by the two following lemmas.

## LEMMA 1.

a) $\quad Z_{l} \cap Z_{k}=Z_{d}$, where $d=\operatorname{GCD}(l, k)$;
b) if $l \mid k$, then $Z_{l} \subset Z_{k}$.

Proof.
a) Let $x$ belong to the group $G(f)$, where $f \neq 0$ is one of the three non-zero idempotents of $S_{m}$. The equations

$$
x^{s^{1}-1}=f \quad \text { and } \quad x^{s^{k}-1}=f
$$

have common solutions if and only if $\operatorname{GCD}\left(s^{l}-1, s^{k}-1\right)=s^{d}-1$ for $d=\operatorname{GCD}(l, k)$.

For b) we have $\operatorname{GCD}(l, k)=l$. Hence $Z_{i} \cap Z_{k}=Z_{l}, Z_{l} \subset Z_{k}$.

Lemma 2. Let $Z_{k}^{*}=\left\{x \mid x=x^{s^{k}}, x^{s^{l}} \neq x\right.$ for all $\left.l<k\right\}$. Then
a) $Z_{k}^{*}=Z_{k} \backslash \bigcup_{d \mid k, d \neq k} Z_{d}$;
b) $\left|Z_{k}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{k}\right|-\left[\sum\left|Z_{d}\right|-\sum\left|Z_{d_{i}} \cap Z_{d_{j}}\right|+\cdots+(-1)^{\tau(k)-1}\left|\cap Z_{d}\right|\right]$, where the sums run over all $d \mid k, d \neq k$ and $\tau(k)$ denotes the number of positive divisors of $k$;
c) if $k=p^{\alpha}$, p prime, then $\left|Z_{k}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{k}\right|-\left|Z_{\frac{k}{p}}\right|$.

Proof. If $x \in Z_{k}^{*}$, then $x \notin Z_{l}$ for any $l<k, \operatorname{GCD}(l, k) \neq 1$. Hence $Z_{k}^{*} \subset Z_{k} \backslash \underset{\substack{(l, k) \neq 1 \\ l \neq k}}{\bigcup} Z_{l}$. The opposite inclusion is obvious. Hence $Z_{k}=$ $Z_{k}^{*} \backslash \bigcup Z_{l} \cap Z_{k}=Z_{k} \backslash \bigcup_{d \mid k, d \neq k} Z_{d}$. Now $\bigcup Z_{d} \subset Z_{k}$ and $\left|Z_{k}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{k}\right|-\left|\bigcup Z_{d}\right|$.

Formula b) is a consequence of elementary set theory.
Formula c) follows from

$$
Z_{1} \subset Z_{p} \subset Z_{p^{2}} \subset \cdots \subset Z_{p^{\alpha-1}}
$$

and $\bigcup_{d \mid k, d \neq k} Z_{d}=Z_{\frac{k}{p}}$.

Remark 1. Let $\lambda$ denote the Carmichael function defined for $m=$ $p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot p_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}}$ by

$$
\lambda(m)= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } m=1 \\ 2^{\alpha-2} & \text { if } m=2^{\alpha}, \alpha>2 \\ \phi(m) & \text { if } m=2,4, p^{\alpha} \\ & \text { with } p \text { an odd prime } \\ \operatorname{LCM}\left\{\lambda\left(p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}\right), \lambda\left(p_{2}^{\alpha_{2}}\right), \ldots, \lambda\left(p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}}\right)\right\} & \text { in other cases } .\end{cases}
$$

Then, using [10; Proposition 6.4], the group of all permutations $\pi_{s}$ of $S_{m}$ is isomorphic with the group of units of $S_{\lambda(m)}$. Hence $\pi_{s}=\pi_{s+\lambda(m)}$, and the period $\lambda(m)$ cannot be replaced by a smaller number. Moreover, in our special case $m=p \cdot q, \pi_{s}^{\lambda(\lambda(m))}=$ id for all $s$, and the exponent $\lambda(\lambda(m))$ cannot be replaced by a smaller one. Hence all $k$ for which $\left|Z_{k}^{*}\right| \neq 0$ should be divisors of $\lambda(\lambda(m))$.

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Example 1. Let $p=3, q=59, s=17$. Then $\lambda(\lambda(3 \cdot 59))=28$. and for $k=1,2,4,7$ and 14 , according to Lemmas 1 and 2 , we obtain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|Z_{1}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{1}\right|=9 \\
& \left|Z_{2}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{2}\right|-\left|Z_{1}\right|=0 \\
& \left|Z_{4}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{4}\right|-\left|Z_{2}\right|=168 \\
& \left|Z_{7}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{7}\right|-\left|Z_{1}\right|=0 \\
& \left|Z_{14}^{*}\right|=\left|Z_{14}\right|-\left[\left|Z_{1}\right|+\left|Z_{2}\right|+\left|Z_{7}\right|-3 \cdot\left|Z_{1}\right|+\left|Z_{1}\right|\right]=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

As we can see in our simple example, although we have four "candidates" for a possible $k$-attack, only two are actual possibilities, and clearly $\left|Z_{1}^{*}\right|+\left|Z_{1}^{*}\right|=$ $\left|S_{m}\right|$. It is known that the universal deciphering exponent $t$ is the solution of $17 \cdot t \equiv 1 \bmod \phi(3 \cdot 59), t=6$.

Our additional observation is as follows: Given a modulus $m=p \cdot q$ and $k$, enumerate the number of permutations $\pi_{s}$ of order $k$, i.e. the number of solutions $\pi_{s}^{k+1}=\pi_{s}$ or $\pi_{s}^{k}=\mathrm{id}$.

As we pointed out in Remark 1, all admissible permutations $\pi_{s}$ form a group of units of $S_{\lambda(m)}$. The identity mapping $\operatorname{id}(x)=x$ now plays the role of the unit element 1 . Let us denote it by $G_{\lambda}(1)$. It should be emphasized that $S_{\lambda(m)}$ has a structure more complicated than that of $S_{m}$. Following [10] we denote the semigroup of solutions of $\pi_{s}^{k+1}=\pi_{s}$ by $\tilde{Z}_{k}=Z(k+1,1, p \cdot q, e=1)$.

Let $\lambda(p \cdot q)=p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdot p_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{r}^{\alpha_{r}}$. Then, from the same article, one can derive the formula for the cardinality of $\tilde{Z}_{k}$ (another approach is in [1]-[4]):

$$
\left|\tilde{Z}_{k}\right|=\delta_{1} \cdot \delta_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot \delta_{r}
$$

where

$$
\delta_{i}= \begin{cases}\operatorname{GCD}\left(k, \phi\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}\right)\right) & \text { if } p_{i} \text { is odd, or } p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}=2 \text { or } 4 . \\ \operatorname{GCD}(k, 2) \cdot \operatorname{GCD}\left(k, 2^{\alpha-2}\right) & \text { if } p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}=2^{\alpha}, \alpha \geq 3\end{cases}
$$

The following illustrates the remarks made above. Now the set $\tilde{Z}_{k}^{*}$ plays the same role in $S_{\lambda(m)}$ as $Z_{k}^{*}$ in $S_{m}$.

Example 2. Using the same modulus $p \cdot q$ as in Example 1. we can compute the number of different permutations, i.e. different $\pi_{s}$ "having weakness $k$ ". Firstly, $\lambda(p \cdot q)=58, \delta_{1}=\operatorname{GCD}(k, 1)=1, \delta_{2}=\operatorname{GCD}(k, 28)=1.2 .7$ or $28,\left|\tilde{Z}_{k}\right|=\delta_{1} \cdot \delta_{2}=\delta_{2}=\operatorname{GCD}(k, 28)$.

Now, by Lemma 2, we obtain:
If $k=1$, then there exists only one - trivial - encryption exponent $s=1$, $\pi_{s}^{1}=\pi_{s}$ for all $x \in S_{m}$. The same result gives our formulae $\left|\tilde{Z}_{1}^{*}\right|=\left|\tilde{Z}_{1}\right|=1$.

If $k=2$, then $\left|\tilde{Z}_{2}\right|=\operatorname{GCD}(2,28)=2$ and $\left|\tilde{Z}_{2}^{*}\right|=\left|\tilde{Z}_{2}\right|-\left|\tilde{Z}_{1}\right|=1$, which conforms with $s=57$.

If $k=4$, then $\left|\tilde{Z}_{4}^{*}\right|=\left|\tilde{Z}_{4}\right| \backslash\left|\tilde{Z}_{2}\right|=4-2=2$, or concretely $s=17$ and 41.
If $k=7$, then $\left|\tilde{Z}_{7}^{*}\right|=\left|\tilde{Z}_{7}\right|-\left|\tilde{Z}_{1}\right|=7-1=6$, or $s \in\{7,23,25,45,49,53\}$.
Finally, for $k=14$ we have $\left|\tilde{Z}_{14}^{*}\right|=\left|\tilde{Z}_{14} \backslash\left(\tilde{Z}_{1} \cup \tilde{Z}_{2} \cup \tilde{Z}_{7}\right)\right|=\left|\tilde{Z}_{14}\right|$ -$\left(\left|\dot{Z}_{2}\right|+\left|\tilde{Z}_{7}\right|-\left|\tilde{Z}_{1}\right|\right)=6$, and, similarly, for $k=28$ we obtain $\left|\tilde{Z}_{28}^{*}\right|=12$. In the last two cases, encryption exponents belong to $\{5,9,13,33,35,51\}$ or $\{3,11,15,19,21,27,31,37,39,43,47,55\}$, respectively. Altogether we have for $m=3 \cdot 59$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k \mid \lambda(\lambda(m))}\left|\tilde{Z}_{k}^{*}\right|=\phi(\lambda(m))=28 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 2. It is well known that $\phi(a)=\lambda(a)$ if and only if $a=2,4, p_{1}^{*}$ or $2 p p_{1}^{n}$ with $p_{1}$ an odd prime. Hence, for $a=\lambda(p \cdot q)=\operatorname{LCM}(p-1, q-1)$ we have the following solutions except for commutativity:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { If } a=\lambda(p \cdot q)=2 \text {, then } p=2 \text { or } 3, q=3 \\
& \text { if } a=\lambda(p \cdot q)=4 \text {, then } p=2,3 \text { or } 5, q=5 ; \\
& \text { if } a=\lambda(p \cdot q)=2 p_{1}^{\alpha}, \text { then } p=2,3 \text { or } 2 p_{1}^{\alpha}+1, q=2 p_{1}^{\beta}+1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The case $a=\lambda(p \cdot q)=p_{1}^{\alpha}$ is obviously impossible.
The formula (1) and Remark 2 naturally suggest the use of the Möbius inversion formula ([7]):

THEOREM. Let the relation $\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))=\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))$ be valid. Then the set of all cncryption exponents $s$, i.e. $\operatorname{GCD}(s, \phi(p \cdot q))=1$ with the greatest period $k=\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))$ has the cardinality $\left|\tilde{Z}_{k}^{*}\right|=\phi(\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q)))$.

I'roof. Recall that the sets $\tilde{Z}_{k}^{*}$ are mutually disjoint and the number of all possible $s$ is $\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))$. Hence summands in

$$
\sum_{k \mid \lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))}\left|\tilde{Z}_{k}^{*}\right|=\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))
$$

represent "functions" of $k$. On behalf of the assumption $\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))=\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))$ and by the Möbius formula

$$
F(n)=\sum_{k \mid n} f(k) \Longleftrightarrow f(n)=\sum_{k \mid n} \mu(k) F\left(\frac{n}{k}\right)
$$

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for

$$
F=\operatorname{id}, \quad f(k)=\left|\tilde{Z}_{k}^{*}\right| \quad \text { and } \quad n=\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))
$$

we obtain the desired result

$$
f(n)=\sum_{k \mid n} \mu(k) \cdot \frac{n}{k}=\phi(n) .
$$

Example 3. In case $p=3, q=2 \cdot 29+1==59$ discussed above. we have $\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))=\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))=28$ and

$$
\left|\tilde{Z}_{\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))}^{*}\right|=\phi(\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q)))=\phi(28)=12 .
$$

For all such $s \in \tilde{Z}_{28}^{*}=\{3,11, \ldots, 55\}, \pi_{s}^{28}(x)=x$, and if $x \notin Z_{1}$, the exponent $k=28$ cannot be replaced by a smaller one.

COROLLARY 1. For the pair of primes $p=2 p_{1}^{\alpha}+1, q=2 p_{1}^{\beta}+1$ with $\alpha<j$ we have exactly

$$
\left|\tilde{Z}_{\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))}^{*}\right|=\phi(\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q)))=p_{1}^{3-2} \cdot\left(p_{1}-1\right) \phi\left(p_{1}-1\right)
$$

possible encryption exponents with the greatest "weakness". Hence the ratio of the "best" encryption exponents to all possible ones is $\frac{\phi\left(p_{1}-1\right)}{p_{1}}$ in this case. and if $p$ is a strong prime, this ratio is close to 1.

COROLLARY 2. Let $p=2 p_{1}^{\alpha}+1, q=2 q_{1}^{\beta}+1$, and $\operatorname{GCD}\left(p_{1} \cdot q_{1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{GCD}\left(p_{1}, q_{1}-1\right)=\operatorname{GCD}\left(p_{1}-1, q_{1}\right)=1$. Then

$$
\left|\tilde{Z}_{\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))}^{*}\right|=\phi(\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))) \cdot \operatorname{GCD}\left(p_{1}-1, q_{1}-1\right)
$$

Proof. In this case the relation $\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))=\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q))$ is not valid. bu: it is not difficult to derive the relation

$$
\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))=\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q)) \cdot \operatorname{GCD}\left(p_{1}-1, q_{1}-1\right)
$$

Again the ratio of the best encryption exponents to all possible ones in this case is

$$
\frac{\phi(\lambda(\lambda(p \cdot q)))}{\phi(\lambda(p \cdot q))}=\frac{\phi\left(\operatorname{LCM}\left(p_{1}-1, q_{1}-1\right)\right)}{p_{1} \cdot q_{1}}
$$

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