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# CRYPTANALYSIS OF A PUBLIC-KEY CRYPTOSYSTEM BASED ON DICKSON-POLYNOMIALS 

RUPERT NÖBAUER'

## 1. Introduction

One of the most important public-key cryptosystems (PKC) is undoubtedly the RSA-scheme (cf. [14]). In this cryptosystem, the plaintext alphabet and the code alphabet are given by $Z /(n)$, the ring of residue classes of the integers $Z$ modulo a natural number $n$, and the family of encryption functions is given by the group of power permutations $x \rightarrow x^{k}$ of $Z /(n)$. Variants of the RSA-scheme are obtained if the group of power permutations of $Z /(n)$ is replaced by other permutation groups of $Z /(n)$ induced by polynomials or rational functions. So far, three PKCs of this kind have been proposed. The first one (cf. [3], [10]) is based on a class of rational functions which has been introduced by L. Rédei in [13], and the second and third one (cf. [6]) are based on the so-called Dicksonpolynomials $g_{k}(a, x)$ with parameter $a=1$ or $a=-1$, respectively.

The PKC based on the Rédei-functions has been cryptanalysed in [8], and a cryptanalysis of the PKC based on the Dickson-polynomials with $a=1$ can be found in [5]. The aim of this paper is to perform a cryptanalysis of the third one of the proposed variants of the RSA-scheme. Having outlined the algebraic background and having given a short description of the scheme, we discuss several possibilities for a cryptanalytic attack, and we formulate requirements to the key parameters which guarantee the system to be secure from the described attacks.

## 2. Algebraic background

Let $a$ be an integer. The Dickson-polynomial $g_{k}(a, x) \in Z[x]$ of degree $k$ is given by

[^0]$$
g_{k}(a, x)=\sum_{t=0}^{[k 2]} \frac{k}{k-t}\binom{k-t}{t}(-a)^{t} x^{k-2 t},
$$
where $[k / 2]$ denotes the greatest integer $t \leqq k / 2$. In $Q(y)$, the field of rational functions over the field $Q$ of rational numbers, the following formula holds (cf. [12]):
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{k}\left(a, y+\frac{a}{y}\right)=y^{k}+\left(\frac{a}{y}\right)^{k} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

Since for every $b \in Q$ the equation $u+\frac{a}{u}=b$ has solutions $u_{1}, u_{2}$ in a quadratic extension field of $Q$, we obtain:

$$
\begin{align*}
g_{k}\left(a^{\prime}, g_{l}(a, b)\right) & =g_{k}\left(a^{\prime}, u_{1}^{\prime}+\left(\frac{a}{u_{1}}\right)^{\prime}\right)=u_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\left(\frac{a}{u_{1}}\right)^{h \prime}= \\
& =g_{k^{\prime}}\left(a, u_{1}+\frac{a}{u_{1}}\right)=g_{k \prime}(a, b) \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, if $=$ denotes the composition of polynomials, the polynomials $g_{k}\left(a^{\prime}, x\right)-g_{l}(a, x)$ and $g_{k l}(a, x)$ have the same function values for infinitely many numbers $b \in Q$, and consequently in $Z[x]$ the functional equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{k}\left(a^{\prime}, x\right)-g_{l}(a, x)=g_{k l}(a, x) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds.
In this paper we restrict ourselves to the case $a=-1$, and we write $g_{k}(-1, x)=g_{k}(x)$. From (3) we obtain $g_{k}(x)=g_{l}(x)=g_{k l}(x)$ for odd natural numbers $k$ and $l$.

In the following we write $\left[a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right]$ for the least common multiple and $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)$ for the greatest common divisor of the integers $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}$. Let $n$ be a natural number with the prime factorization $n: \prod_{i=1}^{r} p_{i}^{e_{i}}$, and let $v(n)$ be given by

$$
c(n)=\left[p_{1}^{e_{1}-1}\left(p_{1}^{2}-1\right), \ldots, p_{r}^{e_{r}-1}\left(p_{r}^{2}-1\right)\right] .
$$

In [11] it is proved that the mapping $x \rightarrow g_{k}(x) \bmod n$ is a permutation of $Z /(n)$ if and only if $(k, v(n))=1$.

The set $D(n)$ of all Dickson-permutations $x \rightarrow g_{k}(x) \bmod n$ forms a semigroup under composition. Indeed, let the permutations $\pi$ and $\varrho$ be induced by $g_{k}(x)$ and $g_{l}(x)$. Then $\pi=\varrho$ is induced by $g_{k}(x)=g_{l}(x)$. In the case $n>2$, the number $v(n)$ is even, hence $k$ and $l$ are odd, and therefore we have $g_{k}(x)=g_{l}(x)=g_{k l}(x)$. In the case $n=2$ we have $1=-1$, hence $g_{k}(x)=g_{k}(-1, x)=g_{k}(1, x)$, and therefore
by (3) again we have $g_{k}(x) \circ g_{l}(x)=g_{k l}(x)$. Thus we have proved: The permutation $\pi \circ \varrho$ is induced by $g_{k l}(x)$.

As subsemigroup of the full permutation group of $Z /(n)$, the semigroup $D(n)$ is regular and finite, and therefore it is even a group. This implies that the inverse of a Dickson-permutation $\pi \in D(n)$ is itself a Dickson-permutation $\varrho \in D(n)$. In [4] the following result is proved: If $\pi \in D(n)$ is induced by $g_{k}(x)$ and if $l$ is a natural number with $k l \equiv 1 \bmod v(n)$, then $\pi^{-1}$ is induced by $g_{l}(x)$. Hence, if the factorization of $n$ is known, it is easy to compute the inverse of a Dicksonpermutation $x \rightarrow g_{h}(x) \bmod n$. On the other hand, no algorithms are known allowing to invert Dickson-permutations $x \rightarrow g_{k}(x) \bmod n$ if the factorization of $n$ is unknown. Therefore, exactly like in the RSA-scheme, the trapdoor information of PKCs based on Dickson-polynomials is given by the factorization of the modulus $n$ of the plaintext alphabet $Z /(n)$.

## 3. A fast evaluation algorithm

Since messages $m \in Z /(n)$ are encrypted by $m \rightarrow g_{k}(m) \bmod n$, we need a fast evaluation algorithm allowing to calculate function values of the Dickson polynomials $g_{k}(x) \bmod n$. In the following we describe an algorithm of complexity $O(\operatorname{ld}(k))(c f$. also [9]), where $\operatorname{ld}(k)$ is the logarithm dualis of $k$.

Given $b \in Z /(n)$, we want to compute $g_{k}(b) \bmod n$. For doing this, we have to solve

$$
\begin{equation*}
u-\frac{1}{u}=b \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

or equivalently

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{2}-b u-1=0 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

in some extension ring of $Z /(n)$. As can be seen easily, the factor ring $R_{h}=$ $=Z /(n)[u] /\left(u^{2}-b u-1\right)$ is an extension ring of $Z /(n)$, and every element $s \in R_{h}$ can be represented uniquely in the form

$$
s=a_{1} u+a_{0}, \quad a_{0}, a_{1} \in Z /(n) .
$$

Multiplication in $R_{h}$ can be implemented by using the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(a_{1} u+a_{0}\right)\left(b_{1} u+b_{0}\right)=\left(a_{1} b_{0}+a_{0} b_{1}+a_{1} b_{1} b\right) u+a_{0} b_{0}+a_{1} b_{1} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

By definition of $R_{b}$, the element $u \in R_{b}$ is a solution of (5). Since $u(u-b)=1$. $u$ is always invetible.

For the evaluation of $g_{h}(b)$ just calculate the power $u^{h}$ in the ring $R_{h}$ by using the "square- and multiply-technique": That is, first compute

$$
u, u^{2},\left(u^{2}\right)^{2}, \ldots,
$$

and then multiply together the appropriate factors, thus finding elements $a_{0}$, $a_{1} \in Z /(n)$ with

$$
u^{h}=a_{1} u+a_{0} .
$$

Since $\frac{-1}{u}$ also satisfies (5), the equation

$$
\left(\frac{-1}{u}\right)^{h}=\frac{-a_{1}}{u}+a_{0}
$$

holds, and therefore by (1)

$$
g_{k}(b)=g_{k}\left(u-\frac{1}{u}\right)=u^{k}+\left(\frac{-1}{u}\right)^{k}=a_{1}\left(u+\frac{-1}{u}\right)+2 a_{0}=a_{1} b+2 a_{0} .
$$

We summarize our procedure in the following
Algorithm 1.
Input $\quad n, k, b$.
Compute $\quad a_{0}, a_{1} \in Z /(n)$ with $u^{k} \equiv a_{1} u+a_{0} \bmod u^{2}-b u-1$.
Comment [use the square- and multiply-technique].
Compute $\quad g_{k}(b) \equiv a_{1} b+2 a_{0} \bmod n$.
End.

## 4. The public-key cryptosystem

Every participant $C$ of the communication network chooses a positive integer $r=r_{C}, r$ prime powers $p_{i}^{e_{1}}$, and an encryption key $k=k_{C}$ with $\left(k, p_{i}^{e_{i}-1}\left(p_{i}^{2}-1\right)\right)=1$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, r$. Then $C$ calculates the numbers $n=n_{C}=\prod_{1=1}^{r} p_{i}^{e_{1}}, v(n)=\left[p_{1}^{e_{1}-1}\left(p_{1}^{2}-1\right), \ldots, p_{r}^{e_{r}-1}\left(p_{r}^{2}-1\right)\right]$, and computes a decryption key $l=l_{C}$, that is a natural number $l$ satisfying the linear congruence

$$
\begin{equation*}
k l \equiv 1 \bmod v(n) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The public key of $C$ consists of the parameters $n$ and $k$, and the secret key is given by the prime factorization of $n$ and by $l$.

If $A$ intends to send the secret message $m \in Z /\left(n_{B}\right)$ to $B$, he has to encrypt $m$
by calculating $c \equiv g_{k_{B}}(m) \bmod n_{B}$, and then he sends $c$ to $B$. The receiver $B$ decrypts $c$ by calculating $g_{l_{B}}(c) \equiv g_{l_{B}}\left(g_{k_{B}}(m) \equiv m \bmod n_{B}\right.$.

## 5. Cryptanalysis

Since unlike to $B$ a spy does not know the factorization of $n_{B}$, he cannot compute a decryption key $l_{B}$ in the same way as $B$ does. However, he might try to use other methods of decryption, especially to do partial decryption, that is to decrypt certain ciphertexts without knowing the decryption key $l_{B}$.

In the following we discuss several procedures of partial decryption. We show that in some cases these attacks can be used also for factoring $n$. All discussed attacks are analogues to well-known attacks on the RSA-scheme (cf. Schnorr [16], Simmons and Norris [17], Berkowitz [1], Herlestam [2], Rivest [14]). We restrict ourselves to the cryptographically most important case, where $n$ is the product of two distinct odd prime numbers, that is $n=p_{1} p_{2}$. We show that the PKC is secure from the described attacks if $p_{i}-1$ $(i=1,2)$ contains a large prime factor $p_{i}^{\prime}$, if $p_{i}+1(i=1,2)$ contains a large prime factor $p_{i}^{*}$, and if the order of $k \bmod p_{i}^{\prime}$ as well as the order of $k \bmod p_{i}^{*}$ $(i=1,2)$ is large. These requirements are fulfilled if, e.g., for $i=1,2$

$$
\begin{align*}
&\left\{\begin{aligned}
p_{i}-1= & a_{i} p_{i}^{\prime}, \quad a_{i}<10^{5}, \quad p_{i}^{\prime}>10^{80} \\
p_{i}+1= & b_{i} p_{i}^{*}, \quad b_{i}<10^{5}, \quad p_{i}^{*}>10^{80}
\end{aligned}\right.  \tag{8}\\
&\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\operatorname{ord}_{p_{i}^{\prime}}(k)>10^{11} \\
\operatorname{ord}_{p_{i}^{*}}(k)>10^{11}
\end{array}\right. \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

5.1. Attacks by means of numbers $s$ such that $g_{s}(c) \bmod n$
satisfies a given equation

### 5.1.1. Partial decryption

Let $c \in Z /(n)$ be a given ciphertext. Suppose, the cryptanalyst succeeds in finding a natural number $s$ such that one of the following three conditions is satisfied:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
g_{s}(c)^{2} \equiv 0 \bmod n, & \\
g_{s}(c)^{2} \equiv 4 \bmod n, & \text { s even } \\
g_{s}(c)^{2} \equiv-4 \bmod n, & \text { s odd } \tag{10c}
\end{array}
$$

Let $s=s_{1} s_{2}$, where $s_{1}$ contains all those prime factors of $s$ which divide $k$, and $s_{2}$ contains the remaining prime factors. The numbers $s_{1}$ and $s_{2}$ can be computed without the knowledge of the prime factorization of $s$ by using the following Algorithm 2.
Input $\quad k, s$.
Initialize $\quad s_{1}=1 ; s_{2}=s$.
While

$$
\left(s_{2}, k\right)>1 \text { do } s_{1}=s_{1}\left(s_{2}, k\right) ; s_{2}=\frac{s_{2}}{\left(s_{2}, k\right)}
$$

End.
Let $u_{i} \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right), i=1,2$, be solutions oí $u-\frac{1}{u}=c$. (Such solutions always exist.) If condition ( 10 a ) holds, then $g_{1}(c)^{2} \equiv 0 \bmod p_{1}$ for $i=1.2$, hence $g_{1}(c) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i}, i=1,2$, and using (1) it fol'っws that in GF $\left(p_{1}^{2}\right)$ the equation $g_{,}(c)=g_{s}\left(u_{1}-\frac{1}{u_{i}}\right)=u_{i}^{*}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{i}}\right)^{\prime}=0$ holds. This is equivalent to $u^{2 v}=$ $=-(-1)^{\prime}$, which implies $u_{i}^{4 s}=1$. If condition ( 10 b ) holds, then $g,(c)^{\prime} \equiv$ $\equiv 4 \bmod p_{1}$ for $i=1,2$, hence $g_{1}(c)^{2}=\left(u_{i}^{\prime}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{t}}\right)^{i}\right)^{2}=4, i-1,2$, and therefore $u_{i}^{\prime}+\frac{1}{u_{i}^{\prime}}= \pm 2$. This is equivalent to $\left(u_{i}^{\prime} \mp 1\right)=0$, and we obtain $u_{i}^{\prime}= \pm 1$. which implies $u_{i}^{4-}=1$. If condition (10c) holds, then $g_{,}(c)^{2} \equiv-4 \bmod p_{t}$ for $i=1,2$, and since -4 is a square $\bmod p_{i}$ iff -1 is a square $\bmod p_{i}$, it follows that $p_{i} \equiv 1 \bmod 4, i=1,2$. If $f_{i} \in Z /\left(p_{i}\right)$ is such that $f_{i}^{2} \equiv-1 \bmod p_{i}$, we have $g_{1}(c)=$ $= \pm 2 f_{i}$. From (1) we or, tain $g_{1}(c)=u_{i}^{s}-\frac{1}{u_{i}^{\prime}}= \pm 2 f_{i}$ in $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{1}^{2}\right)$, hence $u_{i}^{2 \prime} \mp 2 f_{i} u_{i}^{s}-1=0$, therefore $\left(u_{i}^{v} \mp f_{i}\right)^{2}=0$, and finally $u_{i}^{\prime}= \pm f_{i}$, which again implies $u_{i}^{4 s}=1$.

Thus we have proved: If one of the conditions (10a), (10b) and (10c) is fulfilled, and if $u_{1} \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ is a solution of $u-\frac{1}{u}=c$, then there holds $u_{1}^{4}=1$, and consequently $u_{i}^{4 y_{1}, s_{2}}=1$. Let $o_{i}$ be the order of $u_{i}$ in GF $\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)^{*}$, the multiplicdtive group of $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$. Since $\left(h, p_{i}^{2}-1\right)=1$, we have also $\left(s_{1}, p_{i}^{2}-1\right)=1$, and since $o_{l} \mid p_{i}^{2}-1$, there holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(s_{1}, o_{i}\right)=1 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

From $u_{i}^{4 s_{1}, s_{2}}=1$ we get $o_{i} \mid 4 s_{1} s_{2}$, hence $o_{i} \mid 4 s_{2}$ by (11), and therefore $u_{1}^{41_{2}}=1$. Since by assumption $p_{i}$ is odd, the number $p_{i}^{2}-1$ is even, and from $\left(k, p_{i}^{2}-1\right)=1$ we obtain $(k, 2)=1$. Further, by definition of $s_{2}$ we have $\left(k, s_{2}\right)=1$. Together this
yields $\left(k, 4 s_{2}\right)=1$, and consequently there exists an odd natural number $K$ such that $k \bar{k} \equiv 1 \bmod 4 s_{2}$. Suppose that $k \bar{k}=4 s_{2} r+1$.

If $m \equiv g_{k}^{-1}(c) \equiv g_{l}(c) \bmod n$ is the plaintext corresponding to $c$, then the equation $m=g_{l}(c)=g_{l}\left(u_{i}-\frac{1}{u_{i}}\right)=u_{i}^{\prime}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{i}}\right)^{l}$ holds in $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Therefore we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
g_{k}(c)=g_{k}\left(g_{k}(m)\right)=g_{k k}(m)=g_{k k}\left(u_{i}^{\prime}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{i}}\right)^{\prime}\right)= \\
=u_{i}^{1 k k}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{i}}\right)^{1 k k}=u_{i}^{144_{2} r^{r}+\ell}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{i}}\right)^{14_{2} r_{1}+\prime}=u_{i}^{l}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{i}}\right)^{\prime}=m
\end{gathered}
$$

in GF $\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$. By the Chinese remainder theorem we obtain $g_{k}(c) \equiv m \bmod n$.
If we assume that the search of an $s$ such that (10a) or (10b) or (10c) holds is done by trial and error, and more concretely by testing all s between 1 and $10^{5}$, we can summarize our attack in the following

Algorithm 3 (Deciphering the cryptogram $c \in Z /(n)$ ).
Input $n, k, c$.
Initialize $s=0$.
Repeat $\quad s=s+1$ until $g_{s}\left(c^{2} \equiv 0 \bmod n\right.$ or $\left(g_{s}(c)^{2} \equiv 4 \bmod n\right.$ and $s$ even $)$ or $\left(g_{s}(c)^{2} \equiv-4 \bmod n\right.$ and $s$ odd $)$ or $s>10^{5}$.
If $s>10^{5}$, then stop; comment [algorithm unsuccessful].
Else
Compute $s=s_{1} s_{2}$, where $s_{1}$ contains all those prime factors of $s$ which divide $k$, and $s_{2}$ contains the remaining prime factors of $s$; comment [use algorithm 2].
Compute a natural number $k$ such that $k \bar{k} \equiv 1 \bmod 4 s_{2}$.
Decipher $c$ by calculating $g_{k}(c) \equiv m \bmod n$.

## Endif.

End.
Now we will show that the PKC is secure from attack 5.1.1. if the key parameters satisfy (8). In the following let $i, 1 \leqq i \leqq 2$, be fixed. We consider the $p_{i}$ equations $z-\frac{1}{z}=\varrho, \varrho \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)$, or equivalently, the $p_{i}$ quadratic equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
z^{2}-\varrho z-1=0, \quad \varrho \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}\right) . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Each of these equations has two eventually coincident solutions $u, v \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$. Let $M_{i}$ be the set of all those elements of GF $\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ which are solutions of any of the equations (12). If $u \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{\imath}\right)$ and $u \neq 0$, then $u-\frac{1}{u}=\varrho \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{\imath}\right)$ hence $u \in M_{i}$. Now let $u \in M_{i}$ and $u \notin \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)$. Then $u$ solves one of the equations (12). Since $\delta \rightarrow \delta^{p_{i}}$ is an automorphism of GF ( $p_{i}^{2}$ ) that fixes the elements of $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{l}\right)$, this equation is also fulfilled by $u^{p_{i}} \neq u$, and therefore we have $u^{p_{1}+1}=-1$. Conversely, if $u^{p_{i}+1}=-1$, then $u-\frac{1}{u}=u+u^{p_{i}}=\varrho \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)$, hence $u \in M_{1}$. Thus we have proved (cf. also [12])

$$
M_{i}=\left\{u \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right): u^{p_{i} \quad 1}=1\right\} \cup\left\{u \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right): u^{p_{i}+1}=-1\right\}
$$

Let $\omega_{i}$ be a generator of $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)^{*}$, and let $t_{t}=\omega_{t}^{\left(p_{t}\right.}{ }^{112}$. We have $t_{i}^{p_{1}+1}=\omega_{i}^{\left(p_{i}^{-}-1\right) 2}=-1$. Moreover, we define two subgroups $K_{l}, L_{1}$ of $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{1}^{2}\right)^{*}$ by $K_{i}=\left\{\omega_{i}^{\left(p_{i}+1\right) r}: r=0,1, \ldots, p_{i}-2\right\}$ and $L_{i}=\left\{\omega_{1}^{\left(p_{1}\right.}{ }^{1)}: s=0,1, \ldots, p_{1}\right\}$. From $K_{i}=\left\{u \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right): u^{p_{i}-1}=1\right\}$ and $L_{i}=\left\{u \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right): u^{p_{1}+1}=1\right\}$ it follows that $K_{i}=\mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)^{*}$ and $M_{i}=K_{i} \cup t_{i} L_{i}$. If $u \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ solves one of the equations (12), then $-\frac{1}{u}$ solves this equation, too. With $u \in K_{i}$ also $-\frac{1}{u} \in K_{i}$, and with $u \in t_{i} L_{i}$ also $-\frac{1}{u} \in t_{i} L_{i}$. We have $u=-\frac{1}{u}$ if and only if $u^{2}=-1$, and all solutions of $z^{2}=-1$ in $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ are given by $f_{i}=\omega_{i}^{\left(p_{i}^{2}\right.}{ }^{1) 4}$ and $-f_{i}=\omega_{i}^{3\left(p_{i}^{2}-n\right) 4}$. The element $f_{i}$ is contained in $K_{i} \cup t_{i} L_{i}$, iff $f_{i}$ solves one of the equations (12), that is iff $f_{i}-\frac{1}{f_{i}} \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)$. Because of $-\frac{1}{f_{i}}=f_{i}$ this is equivalent to $2 f_{i} \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)$. Since by assumption $p_{i}$ is odd, this holds if and only if $f_{i} \in \operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)$, hence if and only if the equation $z^{2}=-1$ is solvable in $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}\right)$, and consequently if and only if $p_{i} \equiv 1 \bmod 4$.

If $p_{i} \equiv 1 \bmod 4$, then $\left( \pm f_{i}\right)^{p_{i}-1}=1$ and $\left( \pm f_{i}\right)^{p_{i}+1}=-1$, and therefore $\pm f_{i} \in K_{i} \cap t_{i} L_{i}$. On the other hand, if $u \in K_{i} \cap t L_{i}$, then $u^{p_{i}-1}=1$ and $u^{p_{i}+1}=-1$, and therefore $u^{2}=-1$. This implies that for $p_{i} \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ we have $K_{i} \cap t L_{i}=\left\{f_{i},-f_{i}\right\}$, and for $p_{i} \equiv 3 \bmod 4$ we have $K_{i} \cap t_{i} L_{i}=\{ \}$.

So far we have proved: For $p_{i} \equiv 1 \bmod 4, \varrho \neq \pm 2 f_{i}$, and for $p_{i} \equiv 3 \bmod 4$, the equations (12) have exactly two solutions $u,-\frac{1}{u} \in \operatorname{Gf}\left(p_{1}^{2}\right)$, which are either both elements of $K_{i}$ or of $t_{i} L_{i}$. For $p_{i} \equiv 1 \bmod 4, \varrho= \pm 2 f_{i}$, these equations have
exactly one solution in $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$, namely $u=f_{i}$ or $u=-f_{i}$ respectively, and this solution is an element of $K_{i} \cap t_{i} L_{i}$.

We introduce another subgroup of $\mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)^{*}$ by $R_{i}=L_{i} \cup t_{i} L_{i}$. Obviously, $R_{i}=\left\{u \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right): u^{2\left(p_{i}+1\right)}=1\right\}=\left\{\omega_{i}^{r\left(p_{i}-1\right) / 2}: r=0,1, \ldots, 2 p_{i}+1\right\}$. The groups $K_{i}$, $L_{i}$ and $R_{i}$ are cyclic, and by (8), the orders of these groups are given by $\left|K_{,}\right|=p_{i}-1=a_{i} p_{i}^{\prime},\left|L_{i}\right|=p_{i}+1=b_{i} p_{i}^{*}$ and by $\left|R_{i}\right|=2\left|L_{i}\right|=2 b_{i} p_{i}^{*}$. If $u \in K_{i}$, then ord $(u) \leqq 4.10^{5}$ holds if and only if ord $(u) \mid a_{i}$. If $d \mid a_{i}$, then the number of elements $u \in K_{i}$ with ord $(u)=d$ is given by $\varphi(d)$, and therefore the number of elements $u \in K_{i}$ with ord $(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}$ is given by $\sum_{d \mid a_{i}} \varphi(d)=a_{i}$. Thus we have proved

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\left\{u \in K_{i}: \operatorname{ord}(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}\right\}\right|=a_{i} . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, we obtain $\left|\left\{u \in t_{i} L_{i}: \operatorname{ord}(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}\right\}\right|=\left|\left\{u \in R_{i}: \operatorname{ord}(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}\right\}\right|-$ $-\left|\left\{u \in L_{i}: \operatorname{ord}(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}\right\}\right|=2 b_{i}-b_{i}$, and therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\left\{u \in t_{i} L_{i}: \operatorname{ord}(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}\right\}\right|=b_{i} . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a given ciphertext $c \in Z /(n)$, algorithm 3 is successful if and only if there exists an $s$ with $1 \leqq s \leqq 10^{5}$ such that one of the conditions (10a), (10b) and (10c) is satisfied. For $i=1,2$, let $u_{i} \in K_{i} \cup t_{i} L_{i}$ be a solution of $z-\frac{1}{z}=c$. We have proved above that each of the conditions (10a), (10b) and (10c) implies $u_{i}^{4 s}=1$, $i=1,2$. Hence, if there exists an $s$ with $1 \leqq \mathrm{~s} \leqq 10^{5}$ such that ( 10 a ), ( 10 b ) or (10c) holds, then ord $\left(u_{i}\right) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}$. From what we have proved about the solutions of $z-\frac{1}{z}=c$ in $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right), i=1,2$, and from (13) and (14) it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mid\left\{c \in Z /(n): \exists s \text { with } 1 \leqq s \leqq 10^{5}\right. \text { such that one of the conditions } \\
& \text { (10a), (10b) and (10c) is satisfied }\} \mid \leqq \\
& \leqq \prod_{i=1}^{2}\left[\frac{1}{2}\left|\left\{u \in K_{i}: \operatorname{ord}(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}\right\}\right|+\frac{1}{2}\left|\left\{u \in t_{i} L_{i}: \operatorname{ord}(u) \leqq 4 \cdot 10^{5}\right\}\right|\right]= \\
& =\frac{1}{4} \prod_{i=1}^{2}\left(a_{i}+b_{i}\right)<10^{10} \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, if condition (8) holds and if $c$ is uniformly distributed on $Z /(n)$, then the probability that $c$ can be decrypted by algorithm 3 is bounded by $10^{10} / 10^{160}=10^{-150}$.

A special case of attack 5.1.1. is given if the cryptanalyst succeeds in finding an even natural number $s$ with $g_{s}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod n$. Frequently, knowing such an $s$ not only allows to decipher $c$, but also to factorize $n$.

For the following considerations we put $v_{2}(s)=\max \left\{e \in N: 2^{c} \mid s\right\}$. Suppose that the cryptanalyst knows an even $s$ such that $g_{1}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod n$. For $i=1,2$ let $u_{i} \in \operatorname{CF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ be a solution of $u-\frac{1}{u}=c$. Then in GF $\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ we have $u_{i}^{\prime}+\frac{1}{u_{i}^{`}}=2$, and therefore $u_{i}^{s}=1, \quad i=1,2$. Let $j:=\max \left\{r \in\left\{0,1, \ldots, v_{2}(s)-1\right\}: \quad u_{i}^{r}{ }^{r}=1\right.$, $i=1,2\}=\max \left\{r \in\left\{0,1, \ldots, v_{2}(s)-1\right\}: g_{s 2^{\prime}}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod n\right\}$. Since the equation $x^{2}=1$ has just the two solutions 1 and -1 in the cyclic group $\operatorname{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)^{*}, i=1$, 2 , one of the following four cases holds:
(i) $j=v_{2}(s)-1$
(ii) $j<v_{2}(s)-1, \quad u_{1}^{2^{2 \prime}}{ }^{\prime}=1, \quad u_{2}^{2^{2+1}}=-1$
(iii) $j<v_{2}(s)-1, \quad u_{1}^{s}{ }^{\prime}=-1, \quad u_{2}^{s{ }^{\prime+1}}=1$
(iv) $j<v_{2}(s)-1, \quad u_{1}^{s^{\prime \prime}}=-1, \quad u_{2}^{j^{\prime \prime \prime}}=-1$.

Case (i) is equivalent to $g_{s 2^{v_{2}(1)}}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod n$, case (iv) is equivalent to $g_{s / 2+1}(c) \equiv-2 \bmod n$, and in these cases our procedure does not provide the factorization of $n$. If case (ii) holds, then $g_{s_{21+1}}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod p_{1}$ and $g_{s 2^{i+1}}(c) \neq 2 \bmod p_{2}$, and therefore $\left(g_{s 2^{i+1}}(c)-2, n\right)=p_{1}$. Similarly, in case (iii) there holds $\left(g_{s / 2 i+1}(c)-2, n\right)==p_{2}$.

If we assume that searching for an $s$ such that $g_{s}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod n$ is done by testing all even $s$ between 1 and $10^{5}$, we can summarize the attack in the following

Algorithm 4.
Input $n, c$.
Initialize $\quad s=0$.
100 Repeat $s=s+2$ until $g_{s}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod n$ or $s>10^{5}$.
If $\quad s>10^{5}$ stop; comment [algorithm unsuccessful]
Compute $\quad v_{2}(s)$.
Compute $\quad j=\max \left\{r \in\left\{0,1, \ldots, v_{2}(s)-1\right\}: g_{s 2^{r}} \equiv 2 \bmod n\right\}$.
If $\quad j=v_{2}(s)-1$, then goto 100 ; comment [case (i); test next $s$ ].
Else if $g_{s^{j+1}}(c) \equiv-2 \bmod n$ goto $100 ;$ comment
[case (iv); test next s].
Else compute $d=\left(g_{\mathrm{s} / 2 j+1}(c)-2, n\right)$; comment
[d is a nontrivial factor of $n$ ].

Endif;
End.
Since algorithm 4 is successful only with ciphertexts $c$ which can be decrypted by algorithm 3, this algorithm does not represent a real threat to our PKC: If condition (8) holds and if $c$ is uniformly distributed on $Z /(n)$, then the probability that algorithm 4 provides a nontrivial factor of $n$ is bounded by $10^{-150}$.

### 5.2. Factoring by means of fixed points

Let $s$ be an d natural number, and let $c$ be a fixed point of $g_{s}(x) \bmod n$ with $\left(c^{2}+4, n\right)=1$. Clearly $c$ is also a fixed point of $g_{s}(x) \bmod p_{i}$ for $i=1,2$. Let $u_{i} \in \mathrm{GF}\left(p_{i}^{2}\right)$ be a solution of $u-\frac{1}{u}=c, i=1,2$. Then we have $g_{s}\left(u_{i}-\frac{1}{u_{i}}\right)=u_{i}^{s}-\frac{1}{u_{i}^{s}}=u_{i}-\frac{1}{u_{i}}$, hence $\left(u_{i}^{s+1}+1\right)\left(u_{i}^{s-1}-1\right)=0$, and therefore for $i=1,2$ one of the equations $u_{i}^{s+1}=-1$ and $u_{i}^{s-1}=1$ holds. If for an $i$, $1 \leqq i \leqq 2$, both equations hold, then $u_{i}^{2}=-1$, hence $u_{i}=-\frac{1}{u_{i}}$, therefore $c=u_{i}-\frac{1}{u_{i}}=u_{i}+u_{i}=2 u_{i}$, and consequently $c^{2}=4 u_{i}^{2}=-4 \bmod p_{i}$, which yields a contradiction to $\left(c^{2}+4, n\right)=1$. Since $s+1$ and $s-1$ are even, $u_{i}^{s+1}=-1$ is equivalent to $u_{i}^{s+1}+\left(\frac{-1}{u_{i}}\right)^{s+1}=-2$ hence to $g_{s+1}(c) \equiv$ $\equiv-2 \bmod p_{i}$, and $u_{i}^{s-1}=1$ is equivalent to $g_{s-1}(c) \equiv 2 \bmod p_{i}$. If $u_{1}^{s+1}=-1$ and $u_{2}^{s-1}=1$ or $u_{1}^{s-1}=1$ and $u_{2}^{s+1}=-1$, then $\left(g_{s-1}(c)-2, n\right) \in\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}\right\}$, and a factor of $n$ is found. However, if $u_{1}^{s+1}=-1$ and $u_{2}^{s+1}=-1$ or $u_{1}^{s-1}=1$ and $u_{2}^{s-1}=1$, then we have found an even number $\bar{s}$ with $g_{\bar{s}}(c)^{2} \equiv 4 \bmod n$, and therefore attack 5.1.2. can be applied.

A special case of this attack is given when $s=k$. Then $c$ is a fixed point of the enciphering polynomial $g_{k}(x) \bmod n$.

As there is not known any systematic algorithm for the search of fixed points of $g_{s}(x) \bmod n$, only trial and error methods can be used. Therefore, the Dick-son-scheme is secure from attack 5.2. if the number fix $(n, s)$ of fixed points of $g_{s}(x) \bmod n$ is small. By the Chinese remainder theorem we have fix $(n, s)=$ $=\prod_{i=1}^{2}$ fix $\left(p_{i}, s\right)$, and from the results proved in [7] it follows that

$$
\operatorname{fix}\left(p_{i}, s\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(s-1, p_{i}-1\right)+\alpha_{1}\left(s+1, p_{i}-1\right)+\right.
$$

$$
\left.+\alpha_{2}\left(s-1, p_{i}+1\right)+\alpha_{3}\left(s+1, p_{i}+1\right)\right]-2 \alpha_{4}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha_{1}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } v_{2}(s+1)<v_{2}\left(p_{i}-1\right) \\
0 & \text { if } v_{2}(s+1) \geqq v_{2}\left(p_{i}-1\right),\end{cases} \\
& \alpha_{2}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } v_{2}(s-1)>v_{2}\left(p_{i}+1\right) \\
0 & \text { if } v_{2}(s-1) \leqq v_{2}\left(p_{i}+1\right),\end{cases} \\
& \alpha_{3}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } v_{2}(s+1)=v_{2}\left(p_{i}+1\right) \\
0 & \text { if } v_{2}(s+1) \neq v_{2}\left(p_{1}+1\right),\end{cases} \\
& \alpha_{4}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } v_{2}(s-1) \geqq 2 \text { and } v_{2}\left(p_{i}-1\right) \geqq 2 \\
0 & \text { if } v_{2}(s-1)<2 \text { or } v_{2}\left(p_{i}-1\right)<2\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

If the key parameters satisfy (8), then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{fix}\left(p_{i}, s\right) & \leqq \frac{1}{2}\left[\left(s-1, a_{i}\right)\left(s-1, p_{i}^{\prime}\right)+\left(s+1, a_{i}\right)\left(s+1, p_{i}^{\prime}\right)+\right. \\
& \left.+\left(s-1, b_{i}\right)\left(s-1, p_{i}^{*}\right)+\left(s+1, b_{i}\right)\left(s+1, p_{i}^{*}\right)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us write $a \nmid b$ for " $a$ does not divide $b$ ". If for $i=1,2$

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{i}^{\prime} \nmid s-1, p_{i}^{\prime} \nmid s+1, p_{i}^{*} \nmid s-1, p_{i}^{*} \nmid s+1 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

then fix $\left(p_{i}, s\right) \leqq 10^{6}$, and consequently fix $(n, s) \leqq 10^{12}$. In this case, the probability that a uniformly distributed $c \in Z /(n)$ is a fixed point of $g_{s}(x) \bmod n$ is bounded by $10^{12} / 10^{160}=10^{-148}$, and the task of finding fixed points is computationally unfeasible.

Let us assume that the number $s$ itself is chosen according to a uniform distribution on $M=\{1,2, \ldots, r\}$, where $r$ is a large positive integer, e.g. $r=10^{100}$. In the following we write $[x]$ for the greatest integer which is less or equal than the real number $x$. There are exactly $\left[\frac{r-1}{p_{i}^{\prime}}\right]+1$ numbers $s \in M$ such that $p_{i}^{\prime} \mid s-1$, namely the numbers $1,1+p_{i}^{\prime}, 1+2 p_{i}^{\prime}, \ldots, 1+\left[\frac{r-1}{p_{1}^{\prime}}\right] p_{i}^{\prime}$. Similarly, there are exactly $\left[\frac{r-1}{p_{i}^{*}}\right]+1$ numbers $s \in M$ such that $p_{i}^{*} \mid s-1$, there are exactly $\left[\frac{r+1}{p_{i}^{\prime}}\right]$ numbers $s \in M$ such that $p_{i}^{\prime} \mid s+1$, and there are exactly $\left[\frac{r+1}{p_{i}^{*}}\right]$
numbers $s \in M$ such that $p_{i}^{*} \mid s+1$. Since $p_{i}^{\prime}>10^{80}$, we obtain

$$
\begin{gathered}
{\left[\frac{r-1}{p_{i}^{\prime}}\right]+1 \leqq\left[\frac{r}{p_{i}^{\prime}}\right]+1 \leqq\left[\frac{r}{10^{80}}\right]+1,} \\
{\left[\frac{r+1}{p_{i}^{\prime}}\right] \leqq\left[\frac{r}{p_{i}^{\prime}}\right]+1 \leqq\left[\frac{r}{10^{80}}\right]+1,}
\end{gathered}
$$

and the same inequalities hold also with $p_{i}^{*}$ instead of $p_{i}^{\prime}$. Therefore, an upper bound for the number of elements $s \in M$ with

$$
p_{i}^{\prime} \mid s-1 \text { or } p_{i}^{\prime} \mid s+1 \text { or } p_{i}^{*} \mid s-1 \text { or } p_{i}^{*} \mid s+1
$$

is given by $4\left(\left[\frac{r}{10^{80}}\right]+1\right)$. Consequently, a lower bound for the probability that a uniformly distributed $s \in M$ satisfies (15) is given by

$$
\left(r-\frac{4 r}{10^{80}}-4\right) / r=1-\frac{4}{10^{80}}-\frac{4}{r} .
$$

Therefore, a uniformly distributed $s \in\{1,2, \ldots, r\}$ satisfies (15) almost certainly.
Altogether we obtain: If the key parameters satisfy (8), then the task of finding an $s \in N$ and a $c \in Z /(n)$ such that $c$ is a fixed point of $g_{s}(x) \bmod n$ is computationally unfeasible.

### 5.3. Superenciphering

Let $c \in Z /(n)$ be a given ciphertext, and let $m \equiv g_{k}^{-1}(c) \bmod n$ be the plaintext corresponding to $c$. We consider $g_{k}(c), g_{k}^{2}(c), g_{k}^{3}(c), \ldots$, where $g_{k}^{r}(x)$ denotes the function $g_{k}(x)$ iterated $r$ times. Since $Z /(n)$ is finite, there are two exponents $r$ and $s$ such that $g_{k}^{r}(c) \equiv g_{k}^{s}(c) \bmod n$, and this implies the existence of a positive integer $t$ such that $g_{k}^{t}(c) \equiv c \bmod n$. Applying $g_{k}^{-1}(x) \bmod n$ on both sides yields $g_{k}^{\prime-1}(c) \equiv g_{k}^{-1}(c) \equiv m \bmod n$, and the plaintext is obtained.

Sometimes superenciphering also yields the factorization of $n$. Indeed, from $g_{k}^{\prime}(x)=g_{k^{\prime}}(x)$ we obtain that every $c$ with $g_{k}^{\prime}(c) \equiv c \bmod n$ is a fixed point of $g_{k^{\prime}}(x) \bmod n$, and since $k^{t}$ is odd, attack 5.2. can be applied. Superenciphering is successful iff there exists a small $t$ - say $t \leqq 10^{10}$ - such that $c$ is a fixed point of $g_{h^{\prime}}(x) \bmod n$. Thus the Dickson-scheme is secure from superenciphering if for all $t \leqq 10^{10}$ the mapping $x \rightarrow g_{k^{\prime}}(x) \bmod n$ has only a small number of fixed points. Let us assume that the conditions (8) and (9) are satisfied. Then all $t$ between 1 and $10^{10}$ fulfill $k^{t} \neq \pm 1 \bmod p_{i}^{\prime}$ and $k^{t} \equiv \pm 1 \bmod p_{i}^{*}$. Hence fix $\left(p_{i}\right.$,
$\left.k^{\prime}\right) \leqq \frac{1}{2}\left[\left(k^{t}-1, a_{i} p_{i}^{\prime}\right)+\left(k^{\prime}+1, a_{i} p_{i}^{\prime}\right)+\left(k^{t}-1, b_{i} p_{i}^{*}\right)+\left(k^{\prime}+1, b_{i} p_{i}^{*}\right)\right] \leqq a_{i}+$ $+b_{i}<10^{6}$, and therefore fix $\left(n, k^{t}\right)<10^{12}$. This yields
$\mid\left\{c \in Z /(n): \exists t\right.$ with $1 \leqq t \leqq 10^{10}$ such that $\left.g_{k^{\prime}}(c) \equiv c \bmod n\right\} \mid \leqq$

$$
\leqq \sum_{t=1}^{10^{10}} \mathrm{fix}\left(n, k^{t}\right)<10^{10} \cdot 10^{12}=10^{22}
$$

Therefore, if the conditions (8) and (9) are fulfilled, then the fraction of ciphertexts $c \in Z /(n)$ which can be decrypted by superenciphering is bounded by $10^{22} / 10^{160}=10^{-138}$.

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Universität für Bildungswissenschaften
Institut für Mathematik
Universitätsstraße 65-67
A-9010 Klagenfurt
Austria

# АНАЛИЗ КРИПТОСИСТЕМЫ С НЕТАЙНЫМ КЛЮЧОМ ПОСТРОЕННОЙ С ПОМОЩЪЮ ПОЛИНОМОВ ДИКСОНА 

Rupert Nöbauer

## Резюме

В статье с помощью полиномов Диксона строится криптосистема. Обсуждаются различные атаки против етой системы. Указываются условия на параметры ключа, которые гарантируют устойчивость системы при всех известных атаках.


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