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#### ANALOGUE OF THE RSA-CRYPTOSYSTEM IN QUADRATIC UNIQUE FACTORIZATION DOMAINS

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In the article, the analogue of a RSA-cryptosystem in general quadratic unique factorization domains is obtained. A scheme of digital signature on the basis of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem is suggested. The analogue of Wiener's theorem on low private key is obtained. We prove the equivalence of the problems of generalized RSA-modulus factorization and private key search when the domain of all algebraic integer elements of the quadratic field is Euclidean. A method to secure the generalized RSA-cryptosystem of the iterated encryption cracking is proposed.

Keywords: RSA-cryptosystem, digital signature, unique factorization domain, euclidean domain, quadratic number field.

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## АНАЛОГ RSA-КРИПТОСИСТЕМЫ В КВАДРАТИЧНЫХ ФАКТОРИАЛЬНЫХ КОЛЬЦАХ

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Цель данной работы заключается в построении аналога RSA-криптосистемы в квадратичных факториальных кольцах. В работе предложен алгоритм построения электронной цифровой подписи. Доказан аналог поиска секретного ключа и факторизации модуля криптосистемы в случае, когда целые алгебраические элементы поля образуют Евклидово кольцо. Даны ограничения на параметры криптосистемы для защиты от метода повторного цифрования. Так же проведено исследование скорости работы и взлома полученной криптосистемы.

*Ключевые слова*: RSA-криптосистема, электронная цифровая подпись, факториальное кольцо, евклидово кольцо, квадратичное числовое поле.

In 1978 there was constructed [1] one of the most high-usage public-key cryptosystem, which is named as RSA-cryptosystem and is based on the difficulty of the factorization of big natural numbers. In the papers [2–6] there were obtained and investigated analogues of RSA-cryptosystem based on using of polynomials and Gaussian integers instead of natural numbers. The present paper is devoted to constructing and analysis of RSA-cryptosystem in the domain of algebraic integer elements of a general quadratic number field.

Let  $\rho \neq 1$  be an integer squarefree number. Denote by  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  the domain of all integer algebraic elements of the quadratic number field  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  and we assume that  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is a unique factorization domain. It is known [7] that  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] = \{a + b\sqrt{\rho} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  if  $\rho \neq 1 \pmod{4}$ , and  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] = \{(a + b\sqrt{\rho})/2 \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, a \equiv b \pmod{2}\}$  if  $\rho \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Let the norm  $v_{\rho}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  be defined by the relation  $v_{\rho}(a + b\sqrt{\rho}) = |a^2 - \rho b^2|$ ,  $a + b\sqrt{\rho} \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . We recall that a domain  $\mathbb{K}$  is called Euclidean if one can define a function  $v : \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  such that for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  the inequality  $v(ab) \ge v(a)$ holds, and for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\}$  one can find elements  $q, r \in \mathbb{K}$  such that a = bq + r, where r = 0 or v(r) < v(b). There exist exactly five Euclidean imaginary quadratic domains  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  (for  $\rho = -1, -2, -3,$ -7, -11), and exactly sixteen Euclidean real quadratic domains  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  (for  $\rho = 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19,$ 21, 29, 33, 37, 41, 57, 73) with respect to the norm  $v_{\rho}$ . In another quadratic domains there doesn't exist a norm, with respect to which these domains will be Euclidean [7].

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Let  $J_{\rho}$  be the set of all invertible elements of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  with zero. For any  $N \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  denote by  $\mathbb{Z}_{N}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  the additive group of residue classes modulo N and the multiplicative group of primitive residue classes modulo N respectively. Let  $\alpha_{\rho}(N) = |\mathbb{Z}_{N}[\sqrt{\rho}]|$ ,  $\varphi_{\rho}(N) = |\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}[\sqrt{\rho}]|$ . An element  $p \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  is called prime element if for any divisor q of p there holds  $q \in J_{\rho}$  or  $p / q \in J_{\rho}$ . Any prime element p > 1 of  $\mathbb{Z}$  will be called a prime number.

In further we suppose that  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is a unique factorization domain.

Proposition 1. For any  $N \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  there holds  $\alpha_{\rho}(N) = v_{\rho}(N)$ .

Proof. At first we prove that the function  $\alpha_{\rho}: \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho} \to \mathbb{N}$  is totally multiplicative. Let  $N_1$ ,  $N_2 \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$ ,  $\alpha_{\rho}(N_1) = m_1$ ,  $\alpha_{\rho}(N_2) = m_2$ . Let  $x_1, \dots, x_{m_1}, y_1, \dots, y_{m_2}$  be elements of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  such that  $x_i \neq x_j \pmod{N_1}$  for any  $i, j = 1, \dots, m_1, i \neq j$ , and  $y_i \neq y_j \pmod{N_2}$  for any  $i, j = 1, \dots, m_2, i \neq j$ . It's easy to see that the set  $\{x_i + N_1y_j \mid i = 1, \dots, m_1, j = 1, \dots, m_2\}$  forms a complete residues system modulo  $N_1N_2$ , hence,  $\alpha_{\rho}(N_1N_2) = m_1m_2$ .

Let  $N \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus J_{\rho}$ . If  $\rho \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , then  $a_1 + b_1 \sqrt{\rho} \equiv a_2 + b_2 \sqrt{\rho} \pmod{N}$  iff  $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{N}$  and  $b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{N}$ , hence,  $\alpha_{\rho}(N) = N^2$ . If  $\rho \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and N is odd, then  $(a_1 + b_1 \sqrt{\rho})/2 \equiv (a_2 + b_2 \sqrt{\rho})/2 \pmod{N}$  iff  $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{N}$  and  $b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{N}$ , hence,  $\alpha_{\rho}(N) = N^2$ . Suppose that  $\rho \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,  $N = 2^k$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $(a_1 + b_1 \sqrt{\rho})/2 \equiv (a_2 + b_2 \sqrt{\rho})/2 \pmod{N}$ , where  $a_1 \equiv b_1 \pmod{N}$ ,  $a_2 \equiv b_2 \pmod{N}$ . It's easy to see that there exist exactly  $2^{2k-1}$  pairs  $(a_1, b_1), \dots, (a_{2^{2k-1}}, b_{2^{2k-1}})$  such that  $(a_i + b_i \sqrt{\rho})/2 \not\equiv (a_j + b_j \sqrt{\rho})/2 \pmod{N}$  for any  $i, j = 1, \dots, 2^{2k-1}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , where  $a_i, b_i, a_j, b_j$  are even. Analogously there exist exactly  $2^{2k-1}$  pairs  $(\alpha_1, \beta_1), \dots, (\alpha_{2^{2k-1}}, \beta_{2^{2k-1}})$  such that  $(\alpha_i + \beta_i \sqrt{\rho})/2 \not\equiv (\alpha_j + \beta_j \sqrt{\rho})/2 \pmod{N}$  for any  $i, j = 1, \dots, 2^{2k-1}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , where  $\alpha_i, \beta_i, \alpha_j, \beta_j$  are odd. Hence,  $\alpha_{\rho}(2^k) = 2^{2k-1} + 2^{2k-1} = 2^{2k}$ . Taking into account the total multiplicativity of the function  $\alpha_{\rho}$  we conclude that  $\alpha_{\rho}(N) = v_{\rho}(N)$  for any  $N \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus J_{\rho}$ .

Let  $N \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$ . Since  $x \equiv y \pmod{N}$  iff  $\overline{x} \equiv \overline{y} \pmod{\overline{N}}$  for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ , so  $\alpha_{\rho}(N) = \alpha_{\rho}(\overline{N})$ , where  $\overline{N}$  is the conjugate number to N. So,  $\alpha_{\rho}(N) = \sqrt{\alpha_{\rho}(N)\alpha_{\rho}(\overline{N})} = \sqrt{\alpha_{\rho}(N\overline{N})} = \sqrt{\nu_{\rho}(N\overline{N})} = \nu_{\rho}(N)$ . The proposition is proved.

Proposition 2. For any  $N \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  there holds  $\varphi_{\rho}(N) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} (v_{\rho}(p_i))^{q_i-1} (v_{\rho}(p_i)-1)$ , where  $N = \prod_{i=1}^{k} p_i^{q_i}$ ,  $p_i$  are distinct prime elements from  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ ,  $q_i \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof. Let  $N_1$ ,  $N_2 \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  be coprime. Since  $\mathbb{Z}_{N_1N_2}^*[\rho] \cong \mathbb{Z}_{N_1}^*[\rho] \times \mathbb{Z}_{N_2}^*[\rho]$ , so  $\varphi_{\rho}(N_1N_2) = \varphi_{\rho}(N_1)\varphi_{\rho}(N_2)$ .

Let *p* be a prime element of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . It's easy to see that  $\varphi_{\rho}(p) = \alpha_{\rho}(p) - 1$ , and  $\varphi_{\rho}(p^{k}) = \alpha_{\rho}(p^{k}) - \alpha_{\rho}(p^{k-1})$  if k > 1. By proposition 1, we have  $\varphi_{\rho}(p^{k}) = (v_{\rho}(p))^{k-1}(v_{\rho}(p) - 1)$ . Since the function  $\varphi_{\rho}$  is multiplicative, so the statement of the proposition is valid.

The Lagrange theorem immediately implies the following statement, which is an analogue of the Euler theorem.

Proposition 3. Let  $N \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$ , then for any  $m \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ , (m, N) = 1, there holds  $m^{\varphi_{\rho}(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ .

C or ollary 1. Let p be a prime element of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ , then for any  $m \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  there holds  $m^{v_{\rho}(p)} \equiv m \pmod{p}$ .

It's easy to see that there holds an analogue of the Chinese remainder theorem in the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . Proposition 4. Let  $m_1, \dots, m_k, c_1, \dots, c_k \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}], (m_i, m_j) = 1$  for any  $i \neq j$ . Then the system of congruencies  $x \equiv c_i \pmod{m_i}, i = 1, \dots, k$ , has a unique solution  $x \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k c_i x_i \frac{m}{m_i} \pmod{m}$ , where  $m = \prod_{i=1}^k m_i, x_i \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}], \frac{m}{m_i} x_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}, i = 1, \dots, k$ .

The following three statements are analogues of Wilson's, Lucas' [8] and Pocklington's criterions [9] of primality.

Proposition 5. An element  $p \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  is prime iff there holds the congruence

$$\prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{p[\sqrt{\rho}], x \neq 0} x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

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Proof. If *p* is prime, then for any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*[\sqrt{\rho}]$ ,  $x \neq \pm 1 \pmod{p}$  there exists a unique  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*[\sqrt{\rho}]$ ,  $y \neq x$ , such that  $xy \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Hence,  $\prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p[\sqrt{\rho}], x \neq 0} x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . If *p* is not prime, then the ring  $\mathbb{Z}_p[\sqrt{\rho}]$  has divisors of zero, so  $\prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p[\sqrt{\rho}], x \neq 0} x \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . This contradiction finishes the proof.

Proposition 6. An element  $N \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  is prime iff there exists  $a \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ , (a, N) = 1, such that there holds: 1)  $a^{v_{\rho}(N)-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ , 2)  $a^{(v_{\rho}(N)-1)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  for any prime divisor q of  $v_{\rho}(N)-1$ .

P r o o f. If N is prime, then  $\mathbb{Z}_N[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is a finite field, and we can get any primitive element *a* of this field. Conditions 1) and 2) of the proposition are satisfied.

Let for any *a* there hold conditions 1) and 2) of the proposition. Hence, ord  $a = v_{\rho}(N) - 1$  in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . The Lagrange theorem implies that  $(v_{\rho}(N)-1)|\phi_{\rho}(N)$ . By proposition 1,  $\phi_{\rho}(N) \le \alpha_{\rho}(N) - 1 = v_{\rho}(N) - 1$ . Consequently,  $\phi_{\rho}(N) = \alpha_{\rho}(N) - 1$ . The last one implies the primality of the element *N*. The proposition is proved.

Proposition 7. Let  $N \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus J_{\rho}$  and there exists a prime number  $q > \sqrt{v_{\rho}(N)} - 1$  such that  $q \mid (v_{\rho}(N) - 1)$ . If there exists an element  $a \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  such that the following two conditions hold: 1)  $a^{v_{\rho}(N)-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ , 2)  $(a^{(v_{\rho}(N)-1)/q} - 1, N) = 1$ ; then the element N is prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ .

P r o o f. Let the conditions of the proposition be satisfied but N is not prime element of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . Hence, there exists a prime element  $p \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  such that  $p \mid N$  and  $v_{\rho}(p) \leq \sqrt{v_{\rho}(N)}$ . Since  $q > \sqrt{v_{\rho}(N)} - 1$ , so  $(q, v_{\rho}(p) - 1) = 1$  and therefore there exists a natural number u such that  $uq \equiv 1 \pmod{v_{\rho}(p) - 1}$ . Consequently, by condition 1) and proposition 3, we have

$$a^{(v_{\rho}(N)-1)/q} \equiv a^{uq(v_{\rho}(N)-1)/q} \equiv a^{u(v_{\rho}(N)-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

The last one contradicts with condition 2). The proposition is proved.

Algorithm of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem. Any subscriber A chooses two distinct big prime elements  $p_A$ ,  $q_A \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  and calculates  $\varphi_{\rho}(N_A)$ , where  $N_A = p_A q_A$ . Further A chooses a random natural number  $e_A \in [1, \varphi_{\rho}(N_A)]$  and finds a natural number  $d_A$  such that  $e_A d_A \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi_{\rho}(N_A)}$ with the help of the extended Euclidean algorithm [8]. The pair  $(N_A, e_A)$  is a public key of A, the pair  $(N_A, d_A)$  is a private key of A. Then  $f_A : \mathbb{Z}_{N_A}[\sqrt{\rho}] \to \mathbb{Z}_{N_A}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ ,  $f_A(x) \equiv x^{e_A} \pmod{N_A}$ , is an encryption function of A, the function  $f_A^{-1} : \mathbb{Z}_{N_A}[\sqrt{\rho}] \to \mathbb{Z}_{N_A}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ ,  $f_A^{-1}(x) \equiv x^{d_A} \pmod{N_A}$  is a decryption function of A. Any such triple  $(N_A, e_A, d_A)$  is called parameters of the generalized RSAcryptosystem. Corollary 1 implies the correctness of the work of the the generalized RSA-cryptosystem.

Scheme of digital signature based on the generalized RSA-cryptosystem. Suppose that a subscriber *A* wants to send to a subscriber *B* a signed message (m, P), where  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{N_B}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is a secret message,  $P \in \mathbb{Z}_N[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is a signature of *A* (open text), where  $N = N_A$  if  $v_\rho(N_A) \le v_\rho(N_B)$ , and  $N = N_B$  if  $v_\rho(N_A) \ge v_\rho(N_B)$ . Suppose that for any two RSA-modulus  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ ,  $v_\rho(N_1) \le v_\rho(N_2)$ , there is defined an injective mapping  $g_{N_1,N_2} : \mathbb{Z}_{N_1}[\sqrt{\rho}] \to \mathbb{Z}_{N_2}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  such that values of the mappings  $g_{N_1,N_2}$  and  $g_{N_1,N_2}^{-1}$  are easy computable. If  $v_\rho(N_A) \le v_\rho(N_B)$ , then the subscriber *A* send to *B* the pair  $(m_1, P_1)$ , where  $m_1 = f_B(m)$ ,  $P_1 = f_B(g_{N_A,N_B}(f_A^{-1}(P)))$ . The subscriber *B* computes  $m_2 = f_B^{-1}(m_1)$ ,  $P_2 = f_A(g_{N_A,N_B}^{-1}(f_B^{-1}(P_1)))$ . If  $v_\rho(N_A) \ge v_\rho(N_B)$ , then the subscriber *A* send to *B* the pair  $(m_1, P_1)$ , where  $m_1 = f_B(m)$ ,  $P_1 = f_A^{-1}(g_{N_B,N_A}(f_B(P)))$ . The subscriber *B* computes  $m_2 = f_B^{-1}(m_1)$ ,  $P_2 = f_B^{-1}(m_1)$ ,  $P_1 = f_A^{-1}(g_{N_B,N_A}(f_B(P)))$ . The subscriber *B* computes  $m_2 = f_B^{-1}(m_1)$ ,  $P_2 = f_B^{-1}(g_{N_B,N_A}(f_A(P_1)))$ . Then, by corollary 1,  $m_2 = m$ ,  $P_2 = P$ .

Analysis of security of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem. It's easy that knowledge of the RSA-modulus factorization N = pq gives an effective way to find the private key. The following theorem establishes the inverse statement and in the case of classical RSA-cryptosystem is given in [11, Ch. 14].

The orem 1. Let the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  be Euclidean, (N, e, d) be parameters of the generalized RSAcryptosystem. If the number d is known, then the number N can be effectively factorized with probability at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  at polynomial, with respect to  $\log v_{\rho}(N)$ , number of arithmetic operations in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ .

Proof of Let  $s = ed - 1 = 2^t u$ , where t,  $u \in \mathbb{N}$ , u is odd. Since  $\varphi_p(N) | s$ , so  $x^s \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  for any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*[\rho]$ . Construct the set

$$B = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}[\rho] \mid \exists j \in \{0, \dots, t-1\} : x^{2^{j}u} \equiv -1 \pmod{N} \text{ or } x^{u} \equiv 1 \pmod{N} \}.$$

Let  $A = \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}[\rho] \setminus B$ . Let's consider an arbitrary element  $a \in A$ . Take the smallest natural number k such that  $a^{2^{k}u} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ . Let  $b \equiv a^{2^{k-1}u} \pmod{N}$ . It's easy to see that  $b^{2} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  and  $b \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{N}$ . Hence, (b-1,N) is a nontrivial divisor of N. There exists a constant  $\gamma_{\rho} \in (0,1)$  such that for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}] \setminus \{0\}, v_{\rho}(a) \ge v_{\rho}(b)$ , one can find  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  such that a = bq + r, where r = 0 or  $v_{\rho}(r) \le \gamma_{\rho}v_{\rho}(b)$  [10]. Hence, the greatest divisor (b-1,N) can be computed with the help of the Euclidean algorithm at polynomial number on  $\log v_{\rho}(N)$  of arithmetic operations in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  [7]. It remains to show that  $|B| \le \frac{\varphi_{\rho}(N)}{2}$ .

that  $|B| \le \frac{\varphi_{\rho}(N)}{2}$ . Let N = pq, where p, q are distinct prime elements of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . Let  $\varphi_{\rho}(p) = 2^{v_1}u_1$ ,  $\varphi_{\rho}(q) = 2^{v_2}u_2$ , where  $v_1, v_2, u_1, u_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  are odd. Denote  $v = \min\{v_1, v_2\}$ ,  $K = (u, u_1)(u, u_2)$ . It's easy to see that the congruence  $x^u \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  is equivalent to the system  $u\log_{\alpha}x \equiv 0 \pmod{\varphi_{\rho}(p)}$ ,  $u\log_{\beta}x \equiv 0 \pmod{\varphi_{\rho}(q)}$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are primitive elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*[\rho]$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_q^*[\rho]$  respectively. Since u is odd, so, by proposition 4, the congruence  $x^u \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  has exactly K solutions. Let's consider the congruence  $x^{2^{j}u} \equiv -1 \pmod{N}$ , where  $j \in \{0, \dots, t-1\}$ . If j < v, then the similar arguments imply that the number of solutions is  $4^j K$ . If  $j \ge v$ , then the congruence has no solutions. Therefore  $|B| = (1+1+4+\ldots+4^{v-1})K = \frac{4^v+2}{3}K$ . Since  $\varphi_{\rho}(N) = 2^{v_1+v_2}u_1u_2 \ge 4^v K$ , so  $\frac{|B|}{\varphi_{\rho}(N)} \le \frac{1}{2}$ . The theorem is proved.

R e m a r k 1. As in the case of classical RSA-cryptosystem the question on the equivalence of breaking of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem and factorization of the RSA-modulus is open.

The following theorem is an analogue of the Wiener theorem on low private key for the classical RSA-cryptosystem [11, Ch. 14].

The orem 2. Let (N, e, d), N = pq, be parameters of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem such that  $v_{\rho}(q) < v_{\rho}(p) < \alpha^2 v_{\rho}(q)$ , where  $\alpha > 1$ . If  $d < \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\alpha + 2}} (v_{\rho}(N))^{1/4}$ , then the number d can be effectively computed at polynomial, with respect to  $\log v_{\rho}(N)$ , number of arithmetic operations in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof. Let N = pq, where p, q are distinct prime elements of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . Let  $ed -1 = k\varphi_{\rho}(N), k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $v_{\rho}(p) + v_{\rho}(q) < (\alpha + 1)\sqrt{v_{\rho}(N)}$ , so

$$v_{\rho}(N) - \varphi_{\rho}(N) = v_{\rho}(p) + v_{\rho}(q) - 1 < (\alpha + 1)\sqrt{v_{\rho}(N)}.$$
(1)

We have  $k\phi_{\rho}(N) \le ed$ ,  $e \le \phi_{\rho}(N)$ . Therefore  $k \le d$ . The last one implies the relations

$$\frac{(\alpha+1)k}{d\sqrt{\nu_{\rho}(N)}} \le \frac{(\alpha+1)}{\sqrt{\nu_{\rho}(N)}} < \frac{1}{2d^2}.$$
(2)

In view of (1) and (2) we get

$$\left|\frac{e}{v_{\rho}(N)} - \frac{k}{d}\right| = \left|\frac{1 - k(v_{\rho}(N) - \varphi_{\rho}(N))}{v_{\rho}(N)d}\right| \le \frac{(\alpha + 1)\sqrt{v_{\rho}(N)}}{v_{\rho}(N)d} < \frac{1}{2d^{2}}.$$
(3)

Relation (3) means that  $\frac{k}{d}$  is a successive fraction for the non-secret fraction  $\frac{e}{v_{\rho}(N)}$ . Hence, the fraction  $\frac{k}{d}$  can be computed effectively with the help of the Euclidean algorithm in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . The theorem is proved.

One of the well-known methods of breaking of RSA-cryptosystem is the method of iterated encryption. Let (N, e, d) be parameters of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem. Let  $y = x^e \pmod{N}$  be an encrypted message  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . To try to find the original text x a cryptanalytic computes the terms of the sequence  $y_i = y^{e^i} \pmod{N}$ , i = 1, 2, ..., until one has  $y_m = y$  for the first time. It's easy to see that  $y_{m-1} = x$ . So, we need to choose the parameters of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem to make the value m to be quite big.

Proposition 8. Let N = pq, p, q be distinct prime elements of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ ,  $\varphi_{\rho}(p) = rk$ ,  $\varphi_{\rho}(q) = sl$ , where r and s are distinct prime numbers, (r,k) = (s,l) = 1. If  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is a random element, then  $\mathbb{P}(rs \mid \text{ord } v) = (1 - r^{-1})(1 - s^{-1}).$ 

P r o o f. For any  $t_1 | k, t_2 | l$  there exist exactly  $\varphi(rt_1)\varphi(st_2)$  of elements  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*[\sqrt{\rho}]$  such that ord  $y = rs(t_1, t_2)$ . Consequently, the number of elements  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*[\sqrt{\rho}]$  such that rs | ord y is equal to

$$\sum_{t_1|k,t_2|l} \varphi(rt_1)\varphi(st_2) = (r-1)(s-1)\sum_{t_1|k,t_2|l} \varphi(t_1)\varphi(t_2) = (r-1)(s-1)kl.$$
(4)

So, the statement of the proposition follows from relation (4) and equality  $|\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}[\sqrt{\rho}]| = rksl$ .

The orem 3. Let (N, e, d), N = pq, be parameters of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem. Suppose that the numbers  $\varphi_{\rho}(p)$ ,  $\varphi_{\rho}(q)$  have distinct prime divisors r, s respectively, and the numbers r-1, s-1 have prime divisors  $r_1$ ,  $s_1$  respectively, then  $\mathbb{P}(m \ge r_1 s_1) \ge (1-r_1^{-1})(1-r_1^{-1})(1-r_1^{-1})$ , where m is the smallest natural number such that  $y^{e^m} = y \pmod{N}$ ,  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is a random element. P r o o f. Note that  $y^{e^m} = y \pmod{N}$  iff ord  $y \mid (e^m - 1)$ . By proposition 8,

 $\mathbb{P}(rs \mid (e^m - 1)) \ge \mathbb{P}(rs \mid ord y) = (1 - r^{-1})(1 - s^{-1}).$ 

Applying Theorem 14.1 [11], we conclude that

$$\mathbb{P}(m \ge r_1 s_1) \ge \mathbb{P}(r_1 s_1 \mid m) \ge \mathbb{P}(r_1 s_1 \mid \text{ord } e, rs \mid \text{ord } y) \ge (1 - r^{-1})(1 - s^{-1})(1 - r_1^{-1})(1 - s_1^{-1}).$$

The theorem is proved.

R e m a r k 2. To secure the generalized RSA-cryptosystem of the iterated encryption attack we should take prime elements p,  $q \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{p}]$  such that one can find big distinct prime divisors r, s of  $\varphi_{\rho}(p)$ ,  $\varphi_{\rho}(q)$  and one can find big prime divisors  $r_1, s_1$  of r-1, s-1.

R e m a r k 3. If N = pq, where p and q are such that the difference  $|v_{\rho}(p) - v_{\rho}(q)|$  is small, then it is easy to find the representation  $N = t^2 - s^2$ , where t,  $s \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  and this representation gives us the factorization of N. Hence, the difference  $|v_{\rho}(p) - v_{\rho}(q)|$  should be quite large.

R e m a r k 4. The generalized RSA-cryptosystem provides more security than the classical variant of RSA-cryptosystem, since the number of elements which are chosen to represent the message m is about square of those used in the classical variant. This advantage enables to use shorter keys than in the classical version of RSA-cryptosystem. Note that all our results cover the case of the classical RSAcryptosystem: it's enough to take the ring  $\mathbb{Z}$  instead of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ , and to define the norm of  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  as the absolute value |a|.

Estimate of computational efficiency of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem in imaginary quadratic **domains.** Let  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  – imaginary quadratic domain. We say that an element  $x = x_1 + x_2 \sqrt{\rho} \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  is *n*-bit if integers  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  have less than n+1 bits in the binary value. Let  $p = p_1 + p_2 \sqrt{\rho}$ ,  $q = q_1 + q_2 \sqrt{\rho}$ be distinct prime *n*-bit elements of the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . Let's call RSA-cryptosystem with parameters p and *q n*-bit. Multiplication modulo N = pq of two *n*-bit elements of the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  has the complexity  $O(n^2)$  and involution of *n*-bit element  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  in the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  has the complexity  $O(n^2 \log k)$ . So encryption and decryption using the generalized RSA-cryptosystem in the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  have the complexity  $O(n^2 \log n)$ . The complexity of generating the pair of keys d, e is defined by the complexity of calculating of inverse element in the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ . So it has the complexity  $O(n^2)$ . Note that the complexity of encrypting, decrypting and generation of keys d, e using n-bit RSA-cryptosystem in the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  can be estimated as O(M), where M – the number of binary operations to encrypt, decrypt and generation of keys in classical n-bit RSA-cryptosystem. Breaking of classical n-bit cryptosystem using checking of every possible message <u>has</u> the complexity  $O(4^n n^2 \log n)$ , analogical breaking for *n*-bit RSA-cryptosystem in the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  has the complexity  $O(16^n n^2 \log n)$ . And also the number of binary operations to factorize RSA-modulus in the domain  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$ , is not less than the number of binary operations to factorize RSA-modulus in classical RSA-cryptosystem.

E x a m p l e. Let the subscriber A wishes to send the secret message m = 1 + i with the signature P = 2i to the subscriber B with the help of the generalized RSA-cryptosystem in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{\rho}]$  with  $\rho = -1$ . Let  $(N_A, e_A, d_A) = (589, 7, 98743)$  and  $(N_B, e_B, d_B) = (559, 13, 167173)$ ,  $g_{N_B, N_A}(X) = x_1 + ix_2 + N_A \mathbb{Z}[i]$ ,  $X \in \mathbb{Z}_{N_B}[i]$ , where  $x_1, x_2$  are the smallest nonnegative integers such that  $X = x_1 + ix_2 + N_B \mathbb{Z}[i]$ . The subscriber *A* computes

$$m_1 = m^{e_B} \pmod{N_B} = 495 + 495i$$

and

$$P_1 = (P^{e_B} \pmod{N_B})^{d_A} \pmod{N_A} = 192i.$$

So, the encrypted signed message is  $(m_1, P_1) = (495 + 495i, 192i)$ . The subscriber *B* gets the pair  $(m_1, P_1)$  and calculates

$$m_2 = m_1^{d_B} \pmod{N_B} = 1 + i$$

and

$$P_2 = (P_1^{e_A} \pmod{N_A})^{d_B} \pmod{N_B} = 2i.$$

So the pair  $(m_2, P_2)$  is the decrypted message.

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