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# On the Hastad's Attack to $\mathbf{L U C}_{4,6}$ Cryptosystem and Compared with Other RSA-Type Cryptosystem 

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#### Abstract

The $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem is a system analogy to RSA cryptosystem and extended from LUC and $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystems. Therefore, the security problem of the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem is based on integer factorization which is similar to RSA, LUC and $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystems. The Hastad's attack is one of the polynomial attack which relied on the polynomial structure of RSA-type cryptosystem. In this paper, Hastad's Theorem will be used to solve a system of multivariate modular equations and Coppersmith Theorem will be used to find a root of a modular equation. Thus, the number of plaintexts which are required to succeed the attack can be found.


Keywords: Hastad's Theorem, Coppersmith Theorem, Lucas Sequence, Dickson Polynomial.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The fourth and sixth order of LUC cryptosystem or $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem (Wong (2007) had been proposed in 2007. This cryptosystem is analogous to the RSA cryptosystem and extended from LUC and $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystems. The $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem was derived from the fourth order linear recurrence relation which is related to Quartic polynomial and based on the Lucas function.

The security problem for $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem is based on integer factorization which is similar to RSA (Rivest, Shamir and Adleman (1978)), LUC (Smith and Lennon (1993)) and $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystems [Said and John]. The Hastad's attack is one of the polynomial attack which relied on the polynomial structure of RSA-type cryptosystem. Therefore, the Hastad's attack is able to solve the underlying intractable problem which the attack do not factor the RSA- modulus, $n$ for the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem directly. It used the other solution to recover the plaintext.

In 1986, Hastad showed that using RSA with low public exponent is insecure if the users are sending linearly related plaintexts over a large network (Hastad (1986)). Therefore, Hastad develop a technique to solve a system of univariate modular equations to succeed his attack. Besides that, Coppersmith proposed a new method for finding a root of a modular equation (Coppersmith (1996)), which turned out to be a better way to succeed a successful attack in 1996.

In this paper, the Hastad's attack will be attack on the RSA, LUC and $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystems, and extended on the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem. The cryptosystem will be presented in Section 2. The theorems which are used in the attack will be presented in Section 3. In section 4, the Hastad's attack will be proposed and discussed. Finally, the conclusion had been make in the last section.

## 2. THE CRYPTOSYSTEM

### 2.1 RSA Cryptosystem

In the RSA cryptosystem, a plaintext $M$ can use an encryption key $(e, n)$ to encrypt it become a ciphertext $C$. The encryption process as follows.

First, the user can use any standard representation to represent the plaintext as an integer between 0 and $n-1$. The purpose is getting the plaintext in the numeric form for process encryption used.

Then, the user encrypt the plaintext, $M$ become ciphertext, $C$. The encryption algorithm defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(M)=C \equiv M^{e} \bmod n \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

When the receiver want to decrypt the ciphertext, the user must has a decryption key denote by $d \equiv e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$, where $n=p q$ and Euler function, $\phi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$. Then, the decryption algorithms defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(C) \equiv C^{d} \bmod n \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that, the encryption key, $e$ must be relative prime to $p-1$ and $q-1$. By the extended Euclidean algorithm, the decryption key, $d$ can be compute as follows.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{gcd}(d,(p-1)(q-1))=1  \tag{3}\\
& e d \equiv 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1) \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

where $g c d$ is greatest common divisor and $d, n$ are also relatively prime.

### 2.2 LUC Cryptosystem

Let $n$ be the product of two different odd primes, $p$ and $q$, and the number $e$ must be relatively primes to $p-1, p+1, q-1$ and $q+1$. The encryption process of LUC cryptosystem can be defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(M)=C \equiv V_{e}(M, 1) \bmod n \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{e}(M, 1)$ is second order Lucas sequence, $M$ is the plaintext and $C$ is the ciphertext.

The corresponding decryption key, $d$ can be generated by

$$
\begin{equation*}
e d \equiv 1 \bmod S(n) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $S(n)=\left(p-\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)\right)\left(q-\left(\frac{D}{q}\right)\right), \quad D=C^{2}-4$, and $\left.\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)\right),\left(\frac{D}{q}\right)$ are the Legendre symbols of $D$ with respect to $p$ and $q$. Therefore, there are four possible decryption keys,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \equiv e^{-1} \bmod ((p+1)(q+1)) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& d \equiv e^{-1} \bmod ((p+1)(q-1))  \tag{8}\\
& d \equiv e^{-1} \bmod ((p-1)(q+1))  \tag{9}\\
& d \equiv e^{-1} \bmod ((p-1)(q-1)) \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

The decryption process is similar to the encryption process, with $e$ replaced by $d$ and $M$ replaced by $C$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
M \equiv V_{d}(C, 1) \bmod n \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.3 LUC $\mathbf{L H}_{3}$ Cryptosystem

As in the RSA and LUC cryptosystems, the Cubic analogue to the RSA cryptosystem or $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystem has a number $n$ or we called RSAmodulus which is the product of two prime numbers $p$ and $q$. In the encryption process, the encryption key, $e$ must chosen be relatively prime to the Euler totient function $\Phi(n)=\bar{p} \bar{q}$ because it is necessary to solve the congruence $e d \equiv 1 \bmod \Phi(n)$ to find the decryption key $d$.

The Euler totient function is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(n)=p_{1}^{b_{1}-1} \overline{p_{1}} \cdot p_{2}^{b_{2}-1} \overline{p_{2}} \cdots p_{r}^{b_{r}-1} \overline{p_{r}}, \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\overline{p_{i}}= \begin{cases}p_{i}^{2}+p_{i}+1, & \text { if } f(x) \text { is of type } t[3] \bmod p_{i}  \tag{13}\\ p_{i}^{2}-1, & \text { if } f(x) \text { is of type } t[2,1] \bmod p_{i} \\ p_{i}-1, & \text { if } f(x) \text { is of type } t[1] \bmod p_{i}\end{cases}
$$

In practice, since $\Phi(n)$ depends on the type of an auxiliary polynomial, we choose $e$ prime to $p-1, q-1, p+1, q+1, p^{2}+p+1$ and $q^{2}+q+1$ to cover all possible cases.

The $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystem is set up based on the third order Lucas sequence $V_{n}$ derived from the cubic polynomial $x^{3}-M_{1} x^{2}+M_{2} x-1=0$, where $M_{1}$ $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ constitutes the plaintexts. Then, the encryption function is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)=\left(V_{e}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}, 1\right), V_{e}\left(M_{2}, M_{1}, 1\right)\right) \equiv\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right) \bmod n \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $n=p q$ as above, $V_{e}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}, 1\right)$ and $V_{e}\left(M_{2}, M_{1}, 1\right)$ are the $e$-th term of the third order Lucas sequence defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{k}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, 1\right) \equiv x_{1} V_{k}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, 1\right)-x_{2} V_{k}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, 1\right)+V_{k}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, 1\right) \bmod n, \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

with initial values $V_{0}=3, V_{1}=x_{1}$ and $V_{2}=x_{1}^{2}-2 x_{2}$.
The decryption key is $(d, n)$ where $d$ is the inverse of $e$ modulo $\Phi(n)$. To decrypt the plaintext, the receiver must know or be able to compute $\Phi(n)$ and then calculate

$$
\begin{equation*}
D\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=\left(V_{d}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}, 1\right), V_{d}\left(C_{2}, C_{1}, 1\right)\right) \equiv\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \bmod n, \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

which recovers the original plaintext $\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)$.

### 2.4 LUC $\mathbf{L}_{4,6}$ Cryptosystem

A fourth order linear recurrence of Lucas function is a sequence of integers $V_{k}$ defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{k}=\sum_{i=1}^{4}(-1)^{i+1} a_{i} V_{k-i} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

with initial values $V_{0}=4, V_{1}=a_{1}, V_{2}=a_{1}^{2}-2 a_{2} \quad$ and $V_{3}=a_{1}^{3}-3 a_{1}, a_{2}+3 a_{3}$, and $a_{i}$ are coefficients in quartic polynomial,

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{4}-a_{1} x^{3}+a_{2} x^{2}-a_{3} x+a_{4}=0 \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, the encryption function for the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4.6}$ cryptosystem is defined as

$$
\begin{align*}
& E\left(M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}\right) \\
& \equiv\left(V_{e}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}, 1\right)\right. \\
& \quad V_{e}\left(M_{2}, M_{1} M_{3}-1, M_{1}^{2}+M_{3}{ }^{2}-2 M_{2}, M_{1} M_{3}-1, M_{2}, 1\right),  \tag{19}\\
& \left.\quad V_{e}\left(M_{3}, M_{2}, M_{1}, 1\right)\right) \bmod n \\
& \equiv\left(C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3}\right) \bmod n,
\end{align*}
$$

where $n=p q,\left(M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}\right)$ constitute the plaintexts and the encryption key, $e$ relative prime to $p-1, q-1, p+1, q+1, p^{2}+p+1, q^{2}+q+1, p^{3}+$ $p^{2}+p+1$, and $q^{3}+q^{2}+q+1$. Besides that, $V_{e}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}, 1\right)$ and $V_{e}\left(M_{3}, M_{2}, M_{1}, 1\right)$ are the $e$-th term of the fourth order Lucas sequence and $V_{e}\left(M_{2}, M_{1} M_{3}-1, M_{1}{ }^{2}+M_{3}{ }^{2}-2 M_{2}, M_{1} M_{3}-1, M_{2}, 1\right)$ is $e$-th term of the sixth order Lucas sequence.

To decipher the plaintexts, the receiver must know or be able to compute the Euler totient function $\Phi(n)$ for the purpose to compute the decryption key is $(d, n)$ where $d$ is the inverse of $e \bmod \Phi(n)$. The Euler totient function $\Phi(n)$ for this case can be defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(n)=\bar{p} \cdot \bar{q}, \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\bar{p}=\left\{\begin{array}{lc}
p^{3}+p^{2}+p+1, & \text { if } f(x) \bmod p \text { is an irreducible quartic }  \tag{21}\\
& \text { polynomial } \\
p^{3}-1, & \text { if } f(x) \bmod p \text { is an irreducible cubic } \\
p^{2}-1, & \text { polynomial times a linear factor } \\
& \text { if } f(x) \bmod p \text { is an irreducible quadratic }, \\
p+1, & \text { polynomial times two linear factors } \\
& \text { if } f(x) \bmod p \text { is two irreducible } \\
p-1, & \text { quadratic polynomials } \\
\text { if } f(x) \bmod p \text { is four linear factors }
\end{array}\right.
$$

with $f(x)=x^{4}-C_{1} x^{3}+C_{2} x^{2}-C_{3} x+1$. Similarly for $\bar{q}$.
Thus, the decryption function define as

$$
\begin{align*}
& D\left(C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3}\right) \\
& \equiv\left(V_{d}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3}, 1\right),\right. \\
& \quad V_{d}\left(C_{2}, C_{1} C_{3}-1, C_{1}^{2}+C_{3}^{2}-2 C_{2}, C_{1} C_{3}-1, C_{2}, 1\right),  \tag{22}\\
& \left.\quad V_{d}\left(C_{3}, C_{2}, C_{1}, 1\right)\right) \bmod n \\
& \equiv\left(M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}\right) \bmod n,
\end{align*}
$$

which recovers the original plaintexts $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}\right)$.

## 3. METHODOLOGY

The Hastad's attack is used Hastad's Theorem to show that using RSA with low public exponent is insecure if the users are sending linearly related plaintexts over a large network (Hastad (1986)).

## Theorem 1 (Hastad's Theorem)

Let $N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$ and $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{i}$. Given a set of $k$ equations $\sum_{j=0}^{\delta} a_{i, j} x^{j} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i}$ where the moduli $n_{i}$ are pairwise relatively prime and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\left\langle a_{i, j}\right\rangle_{j=0}^{\delta}, n_{i}\right)=1$ for all $i$. Then it is possible to find $x<n$ in polynomial time if $N>2^{(\delta+1)(\delta+2) / 4}(\delta+1)^{\delta+1} n^{\delta(\delta+1) / 2}$.

Proof . See Joye (1997), Corollary 3.2.
In 1996, Coppersmith extended the result from Hastad's theorem that eventually becomes the Coppersmith's theorem (Coppersmith (1996)). This theorem is specific for a monic integer polynomial of degree $\delta$.

## Theorem 2 (Coppersmith's Theorem)

Let a monic integer polynomial $P(x)$ of degree $\delta$ and a positive integer $N$ of unknown factorization. In time polynomial in $\log N$ and $\delta$, we can find all integer solutions $x_{0}$ to $P\left(x_{0}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod N$ with $\left|x_{0}\right|<N^{1 / \delta}$.

Proof: See Coppersmith (1996), Corollary 2.
Joye (1997) had improved the Hastad's theorem as follows.
Theorem 3. Consider a system of $k$ modular polynomial equations of degree $\leq \delta$ with $l$ variables given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j_{1}, j_{2}, \ldots, j_{l}=0}^{j_{1}+j_{2}+\cdots+j_{l} \leq \delta} a_{i, j_{1}, j_{2}, \ldots, j_{l}} x_{1}^{j_{1}} x_{2}^{j_{2}} \ldots x_{l}^{j_{l}} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i=1, \ldots, k$ and where $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i}<n$ and $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{i}$. Let $N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}, f=\sum_{m=1}^{\delta} m\binom{m+l-1}{m}$ and $g=\sum_{m=0}^{\delta}\binom{l+m-1}{m}$, if the
moduli $n_{i}$ are coprime, then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\left\langle a_{i, j_{1}, j_{2}, \ldots, j_{l}}\right\rangle_{j_{1}, j_{2} \ldots, j_{l}}^{j_{1}+j_{2}+\cdots+j_{l} \leq \delta}, n_{i}\right)=1$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$ and if

$$
\begin{equation*}
N>2^{g(g+1) / 4} g^{g} n^{f} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

the result is in polynomial time a real-valued equation which is equivalent to Equation (23).

Proof. See Joye (1997), Theorem 3.1.

## 4. HASTAD'S ATTACK

### 4.1 Attack on the RSA Cryptosystem

Suppose that $m$ is the plaintext of RSA cryptosystem. Let $N=\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$, where $\left(n_{i}, n_{j}\right)=1, \quad$ for $i \neq j, \quad$ then the corresponding ciphertexts are $c_{i} \equiv M^{e} \bmod n_{i}$.

We can find $C \equiv M^{e} \bmod N$ by Chinese remainder theorem.

$$
\begin{equation*}
C \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} u_{i} \bmod N \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $u_{j} \equiv \delta_{i j} \bmod n_{i}$. However, since $C<N$, it can be recovered.
Corollary 1. In the RSA cryptosystem, a set of $k$ linearly related plaintexts can be recovered if $k>e(e+1) / 2$ and $n_{i}>2^{(e+1)(e+2) / 4}(e+1)^{e+1}$.

Proof. See (Joye 1997), Corollary 3.3.

### 4.2 Attack on the LUC Cryptosystem

In 1995, Pinch extend the Hastad's attack to the LUC cryptosystem (Pinch (1995)). Suppose that $N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$ and $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{i}$. Let $M$ is the plaintext of LUC cryptosystem, then $m_{i} \equiv \alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i} \bmod n_{i}$ and the ciphertext, $c_{i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i}$. The Dickson polynomial (Lidl (1993)) and Lucas sequence are equality already proved by Lidl.

Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \equiv D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}, 1\right)$ is Dickson polynomial, which define as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}, 1\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{\left\lfloor e_{i}\right\rfloor}\left(\frac{e_{i}}{e_{i}-i}\right)\binom{e_{i}-i}{i}(-1)^{i}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}\right)^{e_{i}-2 i} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, $c_{i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i}$ can be considered as polynomials in $M$ of degree $e_{i}$.

Corollary 2. In the LUC cryptosystem, a set of $k$ linearly related plaintexts can be recovered if $k>e(e+1) / 2$ and $n_{i}>2^{(e+1)(e+2) / 4}(e+1)^{e+1}$, where $e=\max _{1 \leq i \leq k} e_{i}$.

Proof. See Pinch (1995), Theorem 3.

### 4.3 Attack on the $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ Cryptosystem

Suppose that $N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$ and $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{i}$. Let $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are a set of the plaintexts of $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystem, then $M_{1, i} \equiv \alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i} \bmod n_{i}$ and $M_{2, i} \equiv \alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i} \bmod n_{i}$.
The ciphertexts are $C_{1, i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i} \quad$ and $C_{2, i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i}$. As we known, the third order of Dickson polynomial (Lidl (1993)) and Lucas sequence are equality. Therefore,

$$
\begin{align*}
& V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \\
& \equiv D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i} \tag{27}
\end{align*}
$$

where $D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right)$ is Dickson polynomial, which define as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.D_{e_{i}}(x, y, 1)=\sum_{i=0}^{\left\lfloor\frac{9}{2}\right\rfloor} \sum_{j=0}^{\varphi_{i} / 3}\right\rfloor\left(\frac{e_{i}(-1)^{i}}{e_{i}-i-2 j}\right)\binom{e_{i}-i-2 j}{i+j}\binom{i+j}{i} x^{e_{i}-2 i-3 j} y^{i}, \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $2 i+3 j \leq e_{i}$. Similar for $V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, 1\right)$.
Thus, $\quad C_{1, i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i} \quad$ and $\quad C_{2, i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}\right.$, $\left.\alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i}$ can be considered as polynomials in $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ of degree $e_{i}$.

Corollary 3. Let $N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$ and $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{i}$. Given a set of $k$ equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j_{1}, j_{2}=0}^{j_{1}+j_{2} \leq \delta} a_{i, j_{1}, j_{2}} x_{1}^{j_{1}} x_{2}^{j_{2}} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the moduli $n_{i}$ are pairwise relatively prime and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\left\langle a_{i, j_{1}, j_{2}}\right\rangle_{j_{1}, j_{2}=0}^{j_{1}+j_{2} \leq \delta}, n_{i}\right)=1$ for all $i$. Then it is possible to find $x<n$ in polynomial time if

$$
\begin{equation*}
N>2 \frac{(\delta+1)(\delta+2)\left(\delta^{2}+3 \delta+4\right)}{16}\left(\frac{1}{2}(\delta+1)(\delta+2)\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(\delta+1)(\delta+2)} n^{\frac{1}{3} \delta(\delta+1)(\delta+2)} . \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. In two variable case for Theorem 1.

$$
\begin{gather*}
f=\sum_{m=1}^{\delta} m\binom{m+1}{m}=\frac{1}{3} \delta(\delta+1)(\delta+2),  \tag{31}\\
g=\sum_{m=0}^{\delta}\binom{m+1}{m}=\frac{1}{2}(\delta+1)(\delta+2) . \tag{32}
\end{gather*}
$$

Then, substitute Equations (32) and (33) into (24) will get Equation (31).
Corollary 4. In the $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystem, a set of $k$ linearly related plaintexts can be recovered if $k>\frac{1}{3} e(e+1)(e+2) \quad$ and $n_{i}>2^{\frac{(e+1)(e+2)\left(e^{2}+3 e+4\right)}{16}}\left(\frac{1}{2}(e+1)(e+2)\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(e+1)(e+2)}$, where $e=\max _{1 \leq i \leq k} e_{i}$.

Proof. The proving for this corollary is to verify that the conditions of Corollary 4.3 is fulfilled. From the $k$ sets of ciphertexts, there exist $k$ equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& P_{1, i}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \equiv D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right)-C_{1, i} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i},  \tag{33}\\
& P_{2, i}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \equiv D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} M_{2}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} M_{1}+\beta_{i}, 1\right)-C_{2, i} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i} . \tag{34}
\end{align*}
$$

Suppose that the moduli $n_{i}$ are pairwise coprime and also that the coefficients of polynomials $P_{1, i}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)$ and $P_{2, i}\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)$ are relatively prime to $n_{i}$, otherwise the plaintexts can be recovered by factoring $n_{i}$.

Since
$k>\frac{1}{3} e(e+1)(e+2)$ and $n_{i}>2^{\frac{(e+1)(e+2)\left(e^{2}+3 e+4\right)}{16}}\left(\frac{1}{2}(e+1)(e+2)\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(e+1)(e+2)}$,
it follows

$$
\begin{align*}
N & =\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i} \geq n_{1} \prod_{i=2}^{\frac{1}{3}(e+1)(e+2)+1} n_{i}  \tag{35}\\
& >2 \frac{(e+1)(e+2)\left(e^{2}+3 e+4\right)}{16}\left(\frac{1}{2}(e+1)(e+2)\right)^{\frac{1}{2}(e+1)(e+2)} n^{\frac{1}{e}(e+1)(e+2)},
\end{align*}
$$

where $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{1}$.

### 4.4 Attack on the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ Cryptosystem

Suppose that $N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$ and $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{i}$. Let $m_{1}, m_{2}$ and $m_{3}$ are a set of the plaintexts of $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem, then $m_{1, i} \equiv \alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i} \bmod n_{i}$, $m_{2, i} \equiv \alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i} \bmod n_{i} \quad, \quad$ and $\quad m_{3, i} \equiv \alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i} \bmod n_{i}$. Therefore, the ciphertexts are

$$
\begin{gather*}
c_{1, i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i},  \tag{36}\\
c_{2, i} \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i},\left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}\right)\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}\right)-1,\right. \\
\left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}\right)^{2}+\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}\right)^{2}-2\left(\alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}\right),  \tag{37}\\
\left.\left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}\right)\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}\right)-1, \alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i}, \\
c_{3, i} \equiv  \tag{38}\\
=V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}, 1\right) \bmod n_{i},
\end{gather*}
$$

Since the Hastad'd attack is relied on the polynomial structure, then the Lucas sequence should be transform to polynomial. In this situation, the Dickson polynomial (Dickson (1987)) is able to transform it. That mean,
the fourth order and sixth order of Dickson polynomials and Lucas sequences both are equivalent.

Proposition 1. The fourth order Lucas sequence are equivalent to the three variables of Dickson polynomials, which is defined as

$$
\begin{align*}
V_{e_{i}}(x, y, z, 1)= & D_{e_{i}}(x, y, z, 1) \\
= & \left.\sum_{i=0}^{\left\lfloor\left.\frac{e_{i}}{2} \right\rvert\,\right\rfloor} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{e_{i}}{3}}\right\rfloor \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{e_{i}}{4}}\left(\frac{e_{i}(-1)^{i+k}}{e_{i}-i-2 j-3 k}\right)\binom{e_{i}-i-2 j-3 k}{i+j+k}\binom{i+j+k}{i+j}  \tag{39}\\
& \times\binom{ i+j}{i} x^{e_{i}-2 i-3 j-4 k} y^{i} z^{j}
\end{align*}
$$

where $2 i+3 j+4 k \leq e_{i}$.
Proof. See Wong (2011), Proposition 3.5.
Proposition 2. The sixth order Lucas sequence is equivalent to the five variables of Dickson polynomials, which is define as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V_{e_{i}}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, 1\right) \\
& =D_{e_{i}}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, 1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \times\binom{ e_{i}-i_{1}-2 i_{2}-3 i_{3}-4 i_{4}-5 i_{5}}{i_{1}+i_{2}+i_{3}+i_{4}+i_{5}}\binom{i_{1}+i_{2}+i_{3}+i_{4}+i_{5}}{i_{1}+i_{2}+i_{3}+i_{4}}  \tag{40}\\
& \times\binom{ i_{1}+i_{2}+i_{3}+i_{4}}{i_{1}+i_{2}+i_{3}}\binom{i_{1}+i_{2}+i_{3}}{i_{1}+i_{2}}\binom{i_{1}+i_{2}}{i_{1}} x_{1}^{i_{1}-2 i_{1}-3 i i_{2}-4 \dot{3}-5 i 4-6 i 5} \\
& \times x_{2}^{i i} x_{3}^{i 2} x_{4}^{i s} x_{5}^{i_{4}} \text {, }
\end{align*}
$$

where $2 i_{1}+3 i_{2}+4 i_{3}+5 i_{4}+6 i_{5} \leq e_{i}$.
Proof. See Wong (2011), Proposition 3.6.
By Proposition 1 and Proposition 2, Equations (37), (38), and (39) can be considered as polynomials in $m_{1}, m_{2}$ and $m_{3}$ of degree $e_{i}$.

For Hastad's Theorem, there is a variable to be considered. However, the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem had three variables. Therefore, there are necessary to modify the Hastad's Theorem.

Corollary 5: Let $N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$ and $n=\min _{\text {Lisk } k} n_{i}$. Given a set of $k$ equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j_{1}, j_{2}, j_{3}=0}^{j+j_{2+j}^{j} \leq \delta} a_{i, j, j, j, j, j_{3}} x_{1}^{j_{1}} x_{2}^{j_{2}} x_{3}^{j_{3}} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i} \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the moduli $n_{i}$ are pairwise relatively prime and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(\left\langle a_{i, j_{1}, j_{2}, J_{3}}\right\rangle_{j_{1}, j_{2}, j_{3}}^{i+j_{3}}, n_{i}\right)=1$ for all $i$. Then it is possible to find $x<n$ in polynomial time if

$$
\begin{align*}
N> & 2^{\frac{(\delta+1)(\delta+2)(\delta+3)(\delta+4)\left(\delta^{2}+2 \delta+3\right)}{144}}\left(\frac{1}{6}(\delta+1)(\delta+2)(\delta+3)\right)^{\frac{1}{6}(\delta+1)(\delta+2)(\delta+3)}  \tag{42}\\
& \times n^{\frac{1}{8} \delta(\delta+1)(\delta+2)(\delta+3)},
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. In three variables case for Theorem 3,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f=\sum_{m=1}^{\delta} m\binom{m+2}{m}=\frac{1}{8} \delta(\delta+1)(\delta+2)(\delta+3), \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
g=\sum_{m=0}^{\delta} m\binom{m+2}{m}=\frac{1}{6} \delta(\delta+1)(\delta+2)(\delta+3) \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, substitute Equations (45) and (46) into Equation (24), get Equation (43).

Corollary 6. In the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem, a set of $k$ linearly related plaintexts can be recovered if

$$
\begin{equation*}
k>\frac{1}{8} e(e+1)(e+2)(e+3), \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i}>2^{\frac{(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)(e+4)\left(e^{2}+2 e+3\right)}{144}}\left(\frac{1}{6}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)\right)^{\frac{1}{6}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)} \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $e=\max _{1 \leq i \leq k} e_{i}$.
Proof. The proving for this corollary is to verify that the conditions of Corollary 1 are fulfilled. From the $k$ sets of ciphertexts, there exist $k$ equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{1, i}\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}\right) \equiv D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}, 1\right)-c_{1, i} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i} . \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& P_{1, i}\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}\right) \equiv V_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i},\left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}\right)\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}\right)-1,\right. \\
& \left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}\right)^{2}+\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}\right)^{2}-2\left(\alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}\right),  \tag{48}\\
& \left.\left(\alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}\right)\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}\right)-1, \alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}, 1\right)-c_{2, i} \bmod n_{i} \\
& \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i}, \\
& P_{3, i}\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}\right) \equiv D_{e_{i}}\left(\alpha_{i} m_{3}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{2}+\beta_{i}, \alpha_{i} m_{1}+\beta_{i}, 1\right)-c_{3, i} \equiv 0 \bmod n_{i}, \tag{49}
\end{align*}
$$

Suppose that the moduli $n_{i}$ are pairwise coprime and also that the coefficients of polynomials $\quad P_{1, i}\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}\right), \quad P_{2, i}\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}\right) \quad$ and $P_{3, i}\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}\right)$ are relatively prime to $n_{i}$; otherwise the plaintexts can be recovered by factoring $n_{i .}$
Since

$$
\begin{gather*}
k>\frac{1}{8} e(e+1)(e+2)(e+3),,  \tag{50}\\
n_{i}>2^{\frac{(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)(e+4)\left(e^{2}+2 e+3\right)}{144}}\left(\frac{1}{6}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)\right)^{\frac{1}{6}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)}, \tag{51}
\end{gather*}
$$

it follows

$$
\begin{align*}
N & =\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_{i} \geq \prod_{2}^{\frac{1}{8}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)+1} n_{i} \\
& >2^{\frac{(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)(e+4)\left(e^{2}+2 e+3\right)}{144}}\left(\frac{1}{6}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)\right)^{\frac{1}{6}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)}  \tag{52}\\
& \times n^{\frac{1}{8}(e+1)(e+2)(e+3)},
\end{align*}
$$

where $n=\min _{1 \leq i \leq k} n_{i}$.
Coppersmith based variation method is based on the Coppersmith's theorem which is defined in Theorem 2. With this method, sending more than $e$ linearly related plaintexts that are encrypted via RSA or LUC cryptosystem with encryption key, $e$ and RSA-moduli $n_{i}$ is dangerous. However, this method cannot be directly applied to $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystems. This is because one of the conditions in Coppersmith's theorem is that the polynomial, which is analyzed should be a monic polynomial, but the polynomials in $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystems are multivariable polynomials.

Nevertheless, Julta improved the theorem to multivariable polynomials (Julta (1998)). In that article, the author states the following:
"Let $P\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod N$ be a modular multivariable polynomial equation, in $m$ variables, and total degree $k$ with a root $x_{0, i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq m$. Let $\left|x_{0, i}\right|<N^{\alpha_{i}}$, $\sum \alpha_{i}<1 / k$ and $k$ linear independent integer polynomial equations (in $m$ variables) of total degree polynomial in $m k \log N$, in polynomial time in $m k \log N$, such that each of the equations has $x_{0, i}$ as a root."

Therefore, all integer solution $x_{0, i}$ to $P\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right) \equiv 0 \bmod N$ can be found with $\left|x_{0, i}\right|<N^{1 / k}$.

## 5. CONCLUSION

For $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem, Dickson polynomial is enabling the Lucas sequence to transform into multivariate polynomial. When the plaintexts transform from the sequence to the polynomial, then the number of plaintexts are required to succeed the Hastad's attack can be found. By Coppersmith based variation and the statement from Julta, we can conclude that the result of sending more than $e$ linearly related plaintexts that are encrypted via $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem with encryption key, $e$ and RSA-moduli $n_{i}$ is dangerous.

Based on Corollary 1, 2, 4, and 6, the number of plaintexts are required to succeed the Hastad'd attack for the RSA, LUC, $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$, and $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystems can be found. Hence, the comparison of the requirement of the number of plaintexts between RSA, LUC, $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ and $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ had been shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1: The number of plaintexts, $k$ required to succeed the Hastad's Attack

| $e$ | 3 | 5 | 7 | 11 | 13 | 17 | 19 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RSA | 7 | 16 | 29 | 67 | 92 | 154 | 191 |
| LUC | 7 | 16 | 29 | 67 | 92 | 154 | 191 |
| LUC $_{3}$ | 21 | 71 | 169 | 573 | 911 | 1939 | 2661 |
| LUC $_{4,6}$ | 46 | 211 | 631 | 3004 | 5461 | 14536 | 21946 |

Table 1 show that the requirement of the number of plaintexts to succeed the Hastad's attack for the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem is the highest. For $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem, if public key, $e=19$, at least 21946 plaintexts is required to hack the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem using Hastad's attack. If the cryptosystem is 128 -bit, how many number of plaintext is required? It is almost 504 bits of number. Thus, the $\mathrm{LUC}_{4,6}$ cryptosystem is more secure than RSA, LUC and $\mathrm{LUC}_{3}$ cryptosystems.

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