

Innovative Approach to Key Generation With Dual RSA algorithm

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of degree of

**Master of Technology
in
Computer Science and Applications**

Submitted By
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CERTIFICATE

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in the thesis entitled, "*Innovative Approach to Key Generation With Dual RSA algorithm*", in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of degree of Master of Technology in *Computer Science and Applications* submitted in Computer Science and Engineering Department of Thapar University, Patiala, is an authentic record of my own work carried out under the supervision of **Dr. Sanmeet Kaur** and referred other researcher's work which are duly listed in the reference section.

The matter presented in the thesis has not been submitted for award of any other degree of this or any other University.

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ABSTRACT

Organizations in both public and private sectors have become increasingly dependent on electronic data processing. Protecting these important data is of utmost concern to the organizations and cryptography is one of the primary ways to do the job. Public Key Cryptography is used to protect digital data going through an insecure channel from one place to another. RSA algorithm is extensively used in the popular implementations of Public Key Infrastructures. A comparison introduced in this paper between the basic RSA and the modified RSA version shows that the enhancement can easily be implemented.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Computer data often travels from one computer to another, leaving the safety of its protected physical surroundings. (Once the data is out of hand, people with bad intention could modify or forge your data, either for amusement or for their own benefit. Cryptography can reformat and transform our data, making it safer on its trip between computers. The technology is based on the essentials of secret codes), augmented by modern mathematics that protects our data in powerful ways.

- **Computer Security** - generic name for the collection of tools designed to protect data and to thwart hackers
- **Network Security** - measures to protect data during their transmission
- **Internet Security** - measures to protect data during their transmission over a collection of interconnected networks

1.1 Security Attacks, Services and Mechanisms

To assess the security needs of an organization effectively, the manager responsible for security needs (some systematic way of defining the requirements for security and characterization of approaches to satisfy those requirements. One approach is to consider three aspects of information) security:

- **Security attack** – Any action that compromises the security of information owned by an organization.
- **Security mechanism** – A mechanism that is designed to detect, prevent or recover from a security attack.
- **Security service** – A service that enhances the security of the data processing systems and the information transfers of an organization. The services are intended to counter security attacks and they make use of one or more security mechanisms to provide the service.

1.2 Basic Concepts

Code: An algorithm for transforming an intelligible message into an unintelligible one using a code-book.

Cryptography: The art or science encompassing the principles and methods of transforming an intelligible message into one that is unintelligible, and then retransforming that message back to its original form.

Plaintext: The original intelligible message.

Cipher text: The transformed message.

Cipher: An algorithm for transforming an intelligible message into one that is unintelligible by transposition and/or substitution methods.

Key: Some critical information used by the cipher, known only to the sender & receiver.

Encipher (encode): The process of converting plaintext to cipher text using a cipher and a key.

Decipher (decode): The process of converting cipher text back into plaintext using a cipher and a key.

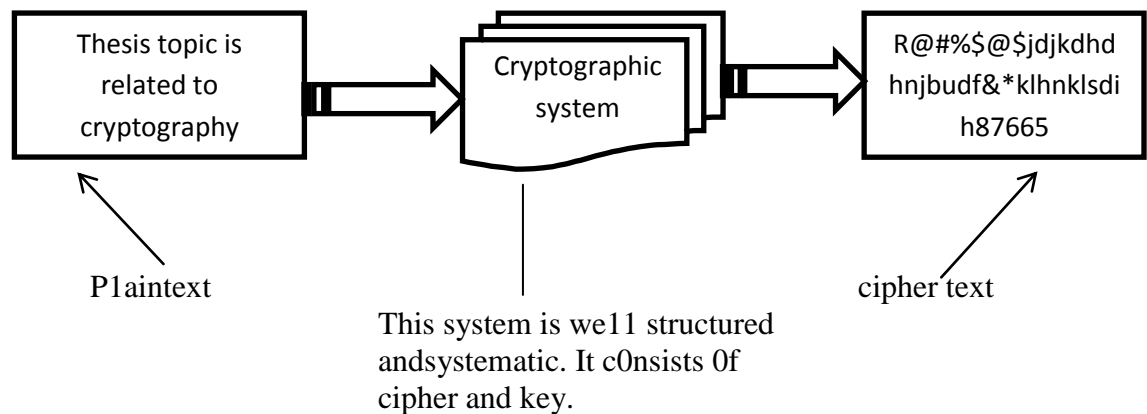


Figure 1.1: Cryptographic system

Cryptanalysis: is a method to convert a decoded message from a non-readable format back to readable format without knowing how they were initially encoded from readable format to non-readable format. In other way it is similar to code breaking using trial and error based method.

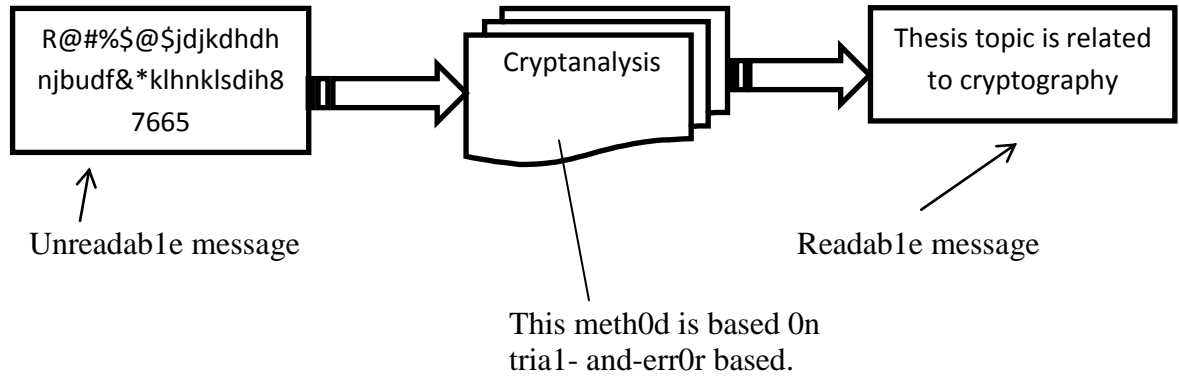


Figure 1.2: Cryptanalysis

Cryptology is a combination of cryptanalysis and cryptography.

1.3 Plain text and cipher text

Any communication in the language that we use to speak i.e. the human language, takes the form of plain text or clear text. That is, a message in the plain text can be understood by anybody knowing the language as long as the message is not encrypted in any manner. Suppose I say "Hi Amit", it is plain text as both amit and I know its meaning and intention behind it. Notably, we also use plain text during email conversation. For example, when we send an email to someone, we compose email in a language that can be understood by the sender, the recipient and also by anybody who gets access to that message. Suppose that my email to my friend is confidential for some reason. Therefore, I don't not want anyone else to understand what I have written even if he/she gets access to my mail before it reaches my friend. To accomplish this, simplest method is to use code language. For example, replace each alphabet in my conversation with some other. Consider four alphabets down the order. So each A will be replaced by E, B by F and soon. Table 1.1 shows the original alphabet in the first row and the replaced one in second row.

Table 1.1: Schemes to encrypt message by replacing each alphabet with alphabet four down the order

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C	D

Using the above scheme of replacing each alphabet with the one that is four places down the line, a message “Thapar University” will become “x1etev yrmzivwmx”. There can be many variants of the above scheme. For example, it can be four, five, and so on down the order or above the order. So, this coded message “x1etev yrmzivwmx” is known as cipher text.

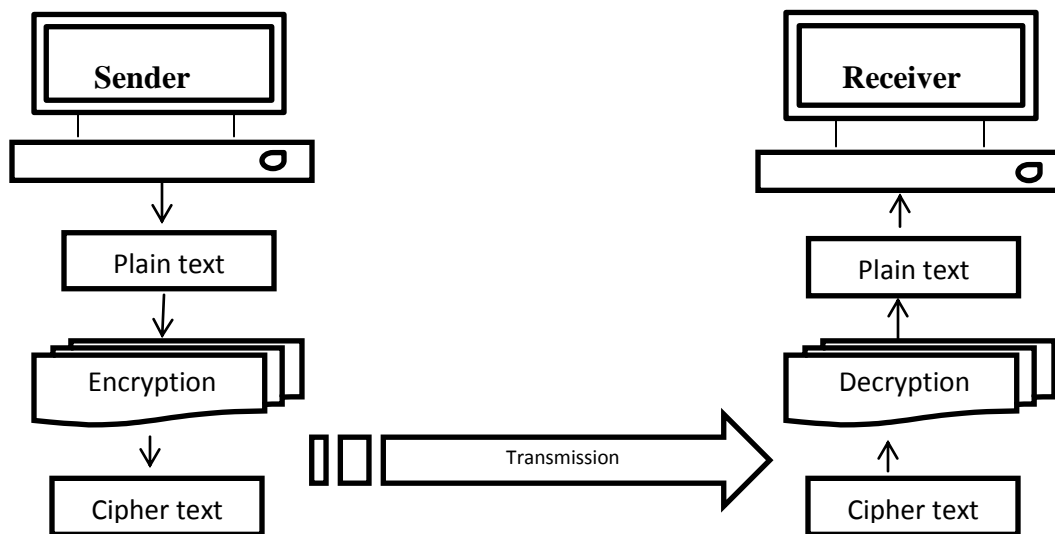


Figure 1.3: Elements Of the cryptographic Operation

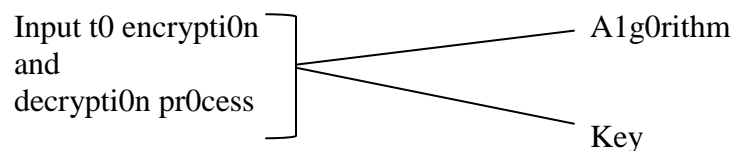
1.4 Encryption and Decryption

In technical terms, the process of encoding plain text message into cipher text message is known as encryption. The reverse process of transforming cipher text into plain text message is called as decryption.

In computer to computer communication, the computer at the sender end transforms the plain text into an encrypted text using encryption algorithm. This encrypted cipher message is then sent over the network (such as internet) to the receiver. The receiver's

computer takes the encrypted text message and performs opposite of encryption i.e. **decryption** algorithm to obtain the original message. Clearly the decryption algorithm should be similar to encryption algorithm. Otherwise decryption will not give the original message. For example, if the sender uses the rail fence technique for encryption and the receiver uses the simple columnar technique for decryption, the decryption would yield a totally different plain text.

Another important aspect of performing encryption and decryption of messages is the key.



Key for encryption and decryption can be compared to combination key and lock which we use in day to day life. The fact is that, the combination lock and how to open it (algorithm) are pieces of public knowledge. But the actual value of the key required to open the lock is kept secret.

Similarly the algorithm for encryption and decryption process is usually known to everyone. However it is the key used for encryption and decryption that makes the process of cryptography secure.

Broadly we can divide the cryptographic method based on keys in to two: **Symmetric key cryptography** and **Asymmetric key cryptography**. If same key is used both for encryption and decryption process then that mechanism is known as Symmetric key cryptography whereas when two different key are used for encryption and decryption method known as Asymmetric key cryptography.

1.5 Cryptography

Cryptographic systems are generally classified along 3 independent dimensions:

1. Type of Operations used for transforming plain text to cipher text:

All the encryption algorithms are based on two general principles: **substitution**, in which each element in the plaintext is mapped into another element, and **transposition**, in which elements in the plaintext are rearranged.

2. The number of keys used:

- If the sender and receiver uses same key then it is said to be symmetric key (or) single key (or) conventional encryption.
- If the sender and receiver use different keys then it is said to be public key encryption.

3. The way in which the plain text is processed:

- A block cipher processes the input and block of elements at a time, producing output block for each input block.
- A stream cipher processes the input elements continuously, producing output element one at a time, as it goes along.

1.6 Substitution Techniques

In the substitution cipher technique, the characters of a plain text are replaced by other character, number or symbols. There are many techniques, some of them are listed below:

1. Caesar Cipher
2. Modified version of Caesar cipher
3. Mono-alphabetic Cipher
4. Homophonic Substitution Cipher
5. Polygram Substitution Cipher
6. Polyalphabetic Substitution Cipher
7. Playfair Cipher
8. Hill Cipher

Some of the substitution techniques are discussed below:

1.6.1 Caesar Cipher

Scheme explained by replacing an alphabet with the one three places down the line was first introduced by Julius Caesar and is called as Caesar Cipher. For example, using the Caesar cipher, the plain text THESIS will become cipher text WKHVIV.

Caesar Cipher is very weak technique of hiding plain text messages. All that is required to break the cipher is do the reverse of the Caesar Cipher process i.e. replace each alphabet in a cipher text message generated by Caesar Cipher with the alphabet that is three places up the order. Simplest algorithm required to break the Caesar Cipher is as follows:

Step1: Read each alphabet of the cipher text message and search for it in the second row of the Table 1.2 given below.

Step2: When the match is found replace it with the corresponding alphabet in the first row of Table 1.2.

Step 3: Repeat the same process for the entire alphabet in the cipher text message.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C

Table 1.2: Scheme shows the Caesar Cipher encoding.

1.6.2 Modified Caesar Cipher

Let us now refine the Caesar Cipher to make it complicated for attacker to decode it. Suppose that cipher text alphabets corresponding to the plain text may not be fixed place down the order, but instead of it can be any place down the order. It means that an alphabet A in plain text will not necessarily be replaced by D but it can be replaced by any valid alphabet i.e. by F or by K or by L and soon. Once the replacement scheme is decided it will be constant for all the alphabets. There are 26 letters in the English language. Thus an alphabet B can be replaced by any of the remaining 25 alphabets.

So, One can have 25 possibilities of replacement. Algorithm to decode the Cipher text for the modified version of Caesar Cipher is as follows:

Step1: Let m be a number equal to 1.

Step 2: Read the Cipher text alphabets one by one.

Step3: Replace each Cipher text alphabet with an alphabet that is k times down the line.

Step4: Increase the m by 1.

Step5: If m is less than 26 then go to step 2. Otherwise stop the process.

Step6: Original text message corresponding to the cipher text message is one of the 25 possibilities generated by the above steps.

Consider an example, let Cipher text message be "HVSGWG" and now applying the above algorithm to decode it, from Table 1.3 it turns out that at 12 attempt gives the correct plain text "THESIS" corresponding to Cipher text.

Table 1.3: Decoding a cipher using modified version of Caesar cipher using all possibilities.

Number of Attempt	Cipher text message					
	H	V	S	G	W	G
1	I	W	T	H	X	H
2	J	X	U	I	Y	I
3	K	Y	V	J	Z	J
4	L	Z	W	K	A	K
5	M	A	X	L	B	L
6	N	B	Y	M	C	M
7	O	C	Z	N	D	N
8	P	D	A	O	E	O
9	Q	E	B	P	F	P
10	R	F	C	Q	G	Q
11	S	G	D	R	H	R

12	T	H	E	S	I	S
13	U	I	F	T	J	T
14	V	J	G	U	K	U
15	W	K	H	V	l	V
16	X	l	I	W	M	W
17	Y	M	J	X	N	X
18	Z	N	K	Y	0	Y
19	A	0	l	Z	P	Z
20	B	P	M	A	Q	A
21	C	Q	N	B	R	B
22	D	R	0	C	S	C
23	E	S	P	D	T	D
24	F	T	Q	E	U	E
25	G	U	R	F	V	F

1.6.3 Mono alphabetic cipher

Major weakness with Caesar cipher is its predictability. An attacker at max has to try 25 possibilities and he can sure of decoding the cipher message. Let us suppose, rather than using uniform coding for all the alphabet if we use random substitution for all alphabets. For example, each A can be replaced by any alphabet between B to Z and B can be replaced by any remaining 25 alphabets and soon. Now one can have $(26 \times 25 \times 24 \times 23 \dots 2)$ or 4×10^{26} possibilities.

1.6.4 Homophonic Substitution Cipher

The homophonic(substitution cipher is alike to mono alphabetic Cipher. The main difference between the two techniques is that the replacement alphabet set in case of simple substitution technique is fixed (e.g. replace A with D, B with E, etc.) whereas in case of homophonic substitution cipher, one plain text alphabet can map to more than one cipher text alphabet. For example, A can be replaced by H,P,R,S,T ; B can be replaced by E,I,G,J,K, etc. In brief, homophonic substitution cipher involves substitution of one plain text with a cipher text character at a time but cipher text alphabet can be any from the chosen set.

1.7 Transposition Techniques

Transposition technique adds an extra feature to the substitution technique as not only replacing an alphabet with another one but also perform some permutation over the plain text characters. Some of the techniques are as follows:

1. Rail Fence Technique
2. Simple Columnar Transposition Technique
3. Vernam Cipher (One-Time Pad)
4. Book Cipher (Running Key Cipher)

1.7.1 Rail Fence Technique

Rail fence technique uses transposition method. Algorithm is shown below:

Step1: Associate every letter in the plain text message with a number i.e. A=0, D=4 and soon.

Step2: Organize plain text matrix in the form of row matrix by the basis of association in the above step. For instance, let plain text be "AMIT". From step1 A=0, M=13 and soon. So row matrix will look like as:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 13 \\ 9 \\ 20 \end{array} \right]$$

Step3: Multiply plain text row matrix with a randomly chosen matrix $n \times n$ such that it contain n number of row which should be equal to rows of the matrix defined in step2.

Let randomly chosen matrix is:

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Step 4: Multiply the

$$\begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 13 \\ 9 \\ 20 \end{Bmatrix} \times \begin{Bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 133 \\ 42 \\ 9 \\ 33 \end{Bmatrix}$$

Step 5: Compute mod 26 value of the matrix obtained in step 4 i.e. take the remainder after dividing the above matrix values by 26.

$$\begin{Bmatrix} 3 \\ 16 \\ 9 \\ 7 \end{Bmatrix}$$

Step 6: Translate back the numbers to alphabets 3=C, 16=P and so on. So our cipher text is "CPIG"

Step 7: For decoding, take the cipher text matrix and multiply it by the inverse original key matrix.

2.1 Symmetric and Asymmetric Key Cryptography

2.1.1 Need of Two Cryptography Methods

Let us discuss why there is need for two different cryptographic methods. Consider a problem as stated:

Person M wants to send a confidential message to person N. M and N live in the same city, but separated by a few miles and cannot meet each other.

To solve the above stated problem the basic solution used by M is, M will send the letter in an envelope and post it to N and M will assume that no one will open it before it reaches to N. Problem with this solution is that there is no guarantee that an unscrupulous person does not obtain and open the letter before it reaches to N. There is a possibility that someone might open the envelope read it and re-seal the envelope.

Now M comes with another solution, M put the letter in a box and seals it with a highly secure lock and send the box to N. As the lock is highly secure nobody in between can open this box and read the confidential letter. But this gave rise to another problem that how N will open the box. This solution prevented unauthorized access and authorized access also. What if M sends the key with the box, but this will also give unauthorized access.

Now M comes with an improved plan. M decided to send the locked box to N but M will not send the key along with it. Instead M decided a place to meet N and hand over the key in person. This seems to be full proofed solution, but M can meet N in person then M can hand over the letter itself then why to have an overhead of key. Remember the whole problem started because M and N cannot meet in person they live a few miles away!!!

As a result none of the above solution is completely acceptable. Main problem is of **key distribution** and **key exchange**. Since the sender and receiver will use the same key to lock and unlock, this is called as symmetric key operation.

Now let examine the above problem with more than two people in communication. For example, let us assume that M now wants to communicate with two persons N and P. It is clear that M cannot use same lock and key pair for both the person. Thus the following situation arises:

- When M wanted to communicate only with N, M need only one pair of lock and key (M-N).
- When M wanted to communicate only with N and P, M needs two lock and key pairs (M-N and M-P). If N also wants to communicate with P, one more pair is required as (N-P). So three lock and key pair are required to serve the needs of three communicating pairs.
- Suppose four persons (M, N, O and P) want to communicate with each other. To accomplish this, six lock and key pair are required, M-N, M-O, M-P, N-O, N-P, O-P.

Table 2.1: Number of persons and their corresponding lock and key pairs.

Persons involved	Number of lock and key pair
2 (M,N)	1(M-N)
3 (M,N,P)	2(M-N, M-P, N-P)
4 (M,N,O,P)	6(M-N, M-O, M-P, N-O, N-P, O-P)

We can see examine that:

- (If the number of persons involved is 2, we need $2*(2-1) / 2 = 2 * (1) / 2 = 1$ lock and key pair).
- If the number of persons involved is 3, we need $3*(3-1) / 2 = 3 * (2) / 2 = 3$ lock and key pair.

- If the number of persons involved is 4, we need $4 \cdot (4-1) / 2 = 4 \cdot (3) / 2 = 6$ lock and key pair.)

In general, for n persons, the number of lock and key pairs is $n \cdot (n-1) / 2$. For example, if we have 1000 persons involved in the communication, $1000 \cdot (1000-1) / 2 = 1000 \cdot (999) / 2 = 99,9000 / 2 = 499,500$ lock and key pairs are required.

Moreover, a record is to be maintained by somebody about the lock and key pairs issued to which communicating pair. This record is to be maintained by somebody assume it to be T. this record is very essential it might be possible that somebody might lose the lock or key then in such situation it is the duty of the T to issue duplicate key or lock. T must be highly trustworthy and accessible to everyone. This record maintenance in itself is a very time consuming and tedious task to perform.

2.1.2. Diffie- Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm

Martin Hellman and Whitefield Diffie invented a solution to the problem of key exchange in 1976 popularly known as Diffie- Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm. In this technique let two persons who want to communicate can agree securely on a symmetric key. This symmetric key can be used for both encryption and decryption. But this algorithm can only be used for only key agreement but not for encryption and decryption. As soon as the persons agree on key then they can use symmetric key encryption algorithm for actual encryption and decryption of the message. let us assume two persons namely Frank and James want to communicate and agree on a key to be used for encryption and decryption a message. The steps of the algorithm are as follows:

Step1: Frank and James agree on two large prime numbers n and g , note that they need not to keep secret these large prime number, they can agree this on an unsecure channel.

Step2: Frank chooses another random number x and calculate A such that:

$$A = g^x \text{ mod } n$$

Step3: Frank sends this A to James.

Step4: James also choose some other random number y and calculates B such that:

$$B = g^y \text{ mod } n$$

Step5: James sends this number B to Frank.

Step6: Frank now computes the secret key using B as:

$$K1 = B^x \text{ mod } n$$

Step 7: James compute the secret key using A as:

$$K2 = A^y \text{ mod } n$$

Here K1 is equal to K2 is the symmetric key which Frank and James must keep secret and use it for encryption and decryption their messages.

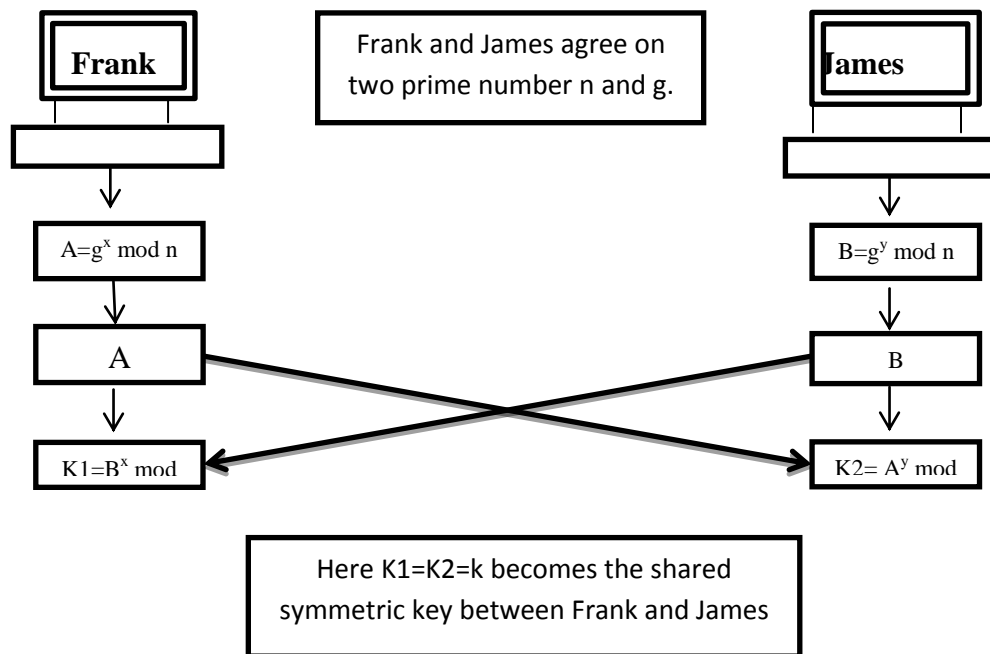


Figure 2.1: Diffie- Hellman Key Exchange Algorithms.

Proof: let us take the equation in step 6

$$K1 = B^x \text{ mod } n$$

Substituting the value of B from equation 4 as:

$$k1 = (g^y)^x \text{ mod } n = g^{yx} \text{ mod } n \quad (1)$$

Now consider the equation in step 7 as:

$$K2 = A^y \text{ mod } n$$

Substituting the value of A from equation 2 as:

$$K2 = (g^x)^y \text{ mod } n = g^{xy} \text{ mod } n \quad (2)$$

From equation 1 and 2 it can be interpreted that $K1 = K2$. Hence proved.

A question may arise if Frank and James can calculate the keys independently then an attacker can also do it!!!!. But the whole security depends on the prime numbers n and g shared by James and Frank. Based on these values it is very difficult to calculate the values of x and y that is known to Frank and James only respectively. If the prime numbers are sufficiently large then it makes it more complex to calculate the values of x and y . So it makes difficult for the attacker to calculate k .

Problem with Diffie- Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm

Problem with Diffie- (Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm can fall prey to the man-in-the-middle attack. In cryptography and computer security, a man-in-the-middle attack (often abbreviated to MITM, MitM, MIM, MiM or MITMA) is an attack where the attacker secretly relays and possibly alters the communication between two parties who believe they are directly communicating with each other. One example is active eavesdropping, in which the attacker makes independent connections with the victims and relays messages between them to make them believe they are talking directly to each other over a (private) connection, when in fact the entire conversation is controlled by the attacker. The attacker must be able to intercept all relevant messages passing

between the two victims and inject new ones. This is straightforward in many circumstances; for example, an attacker within reception range of an unencrypted Wi-Fi wireless access point, can insert himself as a man-in-the-middle.

As an attack that aims at circumventing mutual authentication, or lack thereof, a man-in-the-middle attack (can succeed only when the attacker can impersonate each endpoint to their satisfaction as expected from the legitimate other end. Most cryptographic protocols include some form of endpoint authentication specifically to prevent MITM attacks.

Consider an example,

Suppose Amit (wishes to communicate with James. Meanwhile, Tom wishes to intercept the conversation to eavesdrop and possibly (although this step is unnecessary) deliver a false message to James.

First, Amit asks James for his public key. If James sends his public key to Amit, but Tom is able to intercept it, a man-in-the-middle attack can begin. Tom sends a forged message to Amit that claims to be from James, but instead includes Tom's public key.

Amit, believing this public key to be James's, encrypts her message with Tom's key and sends the enciphered message back to James. Tom again intercepts, deciphers the message using her private key, possibly alters it if she wants, and re-enciphers it using the public key James originally sent to Amit. When James receives the newly enciphered message, he believes it came from Amit.

1. Amit sends a message to James, which is intercepted by Tom:

Amit "Hi James, it's Amit. Give me your key." → Tom James

2. Tom relays this message to James; James cannot tell it is not really from Amit:

Amit Tom "Hi James, it's Amit. Give me your key." → James

3. James responds with his encryption key:

Amit Tom ← [James's key] James

4. Tom replaces James's key with her own, and relays this to Amit, claiming that it is James's key:

Amit \leftarrow [Tom's key] Tom James

5. Amit encrypts a message with what she believes to be James's key, thinking that only James can read it:

Amit "Meet me at the bus stop!" [encrypted with Tom's key] \rightarrow Tom James

6. However, because it was actually encrypted with Tom's key, Tom can decrypt it, read it, modify it (if desired), re-encrypt with James's key, and forward it to James:

Amit Tom "Meet me in the windowless van on 22nd Ave!" [encrypted with James's key] \rightarrow James

7. James thinks that this message is a secure communication from Amit.

This example shows the need for Amit and James to have some way to ensure that they are truly using each other's public keys, rather than the public key of an attacker.

2.1.3 Asymmetric Key Cryptography

Asymmetric cryptography, (also known as Public-key cryptography, is a class of cryptographic protocols based on algorithms that require two separate keys, one of which is *secret* (or *private*) and one of which is *public*. The public key is used, for example, to encrypt plaintext; whereas the private key is used to decrypt cipher text. The term "asymmetric" stems from the use of different keys to perform these opposite functions, each the inverse of the other – as contrasted with (conventional ("symmetric") cryptography which relies on the same key to perform both.

Public-key algorithms are (based on mathematical problems that currently admit no efficient solution and are inherent in certain integer factorization, discrete logarithm, and elliptic curve relationships. It is computationally easy for a user to generate a public and private key-pair and to use it for encryption and decryption. The strength lies in the "impossibility" (computational impracticality) for a properly generated private key to be determined from its corresponding public key. Thus the public key may be published without compromising security. Security depends only on keeping the private key private. Public key algorithms, unlike symmetric key algorithms, do *not* require a secure channel for the initial exchange of one (or more) secret keys between the parties.

Because of the (computational complexity of asymmetrical encryption, it is typically used only to transfer a symmetrical encryption key by which the message (and usually the entire conversation) is encrypted. The symmetrical encryption/decryption is based on simpler algorithms and is) much faster.

Open networked (environments are susceptible to a variety of communication security problems such as man-in-the-middle attacks and other security threats. Security properties required for communication typically include that the communication being sent must not be readable during transit (preserving confidentiality), the communication must not be modified during transit (preserving the integrity of the communication), the communication must originate from an identified party (sender authenticity) and to ensure non-repudiation or non-denial of the sending of the communication. Combining public-key cryptography with an Encrypted Public Key Encryption (EPKE) method, allows for the secure sending of a communication over an open networked environment.

The distinguishing(technique used in public-key cryptography is the use of asymmetric key algorithms, where a key used by one party to perform either encryption or decryption is not the same as the key used by another in the counterpart operation. Each user has a pair of cryptographic keys – a public encryption key and a private decryption key. Two of the best-known uses of public-key) cryptography are:

- ***Public-key encryption***, in which a message is encrypted with a recipient's public key. The message cannot be (decrypted by anyone who does not possess the matching private key, who is thus presumed to be the owner of that key and the person associated with the public key.) This is used in an attempt to ensure confidentiality.
- ***Digital signatures***, in which a (message is signed with the sender's private key and can be verified by anyone who has access to the sender's public key. This verification proves that the sender had access to the private key), and therefore is likely to be the person associated with the public key. This also ensures that the message has not (been tampered with, as any manipulation of the message

will result in changes to the encoded message digest), which otherwise remains unchanged between the sender and receiver.

An analogy to public-key encryption is that of a locked mailbox with a mail slot. The mail slot is exposed and accessible to the public – its location (the street address) is, in essence, the public key. Anyone knowing the street address can go to the door and drop a written message through the slot. However, only the person who possesses the key can open the mailbox and read the message.

An analogy for digital signatures is the sealing of an envelope with a personal wax seal. The message can be opened by anyone, but the presence of the unique seal authenticates the sender.

2.2 RSA Algorithm

RSA is one of the first practical public-key cryptosystems and is widely used for secure data transmission. In such a cryptosystem, the encryption key is public and differs from the decryption key which is kept secret. In RSA, this asymmetry is based on the practical difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers, the factoring problem. RSA is made of the initials of the surnames of Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman, who first publicly described the algorithm in 1977. Clifford Cocks, an English mathematician, had developed an equivalent system in 1973, but it was not declassified until 1997.

A user of RSA (creates and then publishes a public key based on the two large prime numbers, along with an auxiliary value. The prime numbers must be kept secret. Anyone can use the public key to encrypt a message, but with currently published methods, if the public key is large enough, only someone with knowledge of the prime numbers can feasibly decode the message). Breaking RSA encryption is known as the RSA problem; whether it is as hard as the factoring problem remains an open question.

2.2.1 Operations in RSA

The RSA algorithm involves three steps: key generation, encryption and decryption.

Key generation

RSA involves a *public key* and a *private key*. The public key can be known by everyone and is used for encrypting messages. Messages encrypted with the public key can only be decrypted in a reasonable amount of time using the private key. The keys for the RSA algorithm are generated the following way:

1. Choose two (distinct prime numbers p and q .
 - For security purposes, the integers p and q should be chosen at random, and should be of similar bit-length. Prime integers can be efficiently found using a primality test.
2. Compute $n = pq$.
 - n is used as the modulus for both the public and private keys. Its length, usually expressed in bits, is the key length.
3. Compute

$$\phi(n) = \phi(p)\phi(q) = (p - 1)(q - 1) = n - (p + q - 1),$$

Where,

ϕ is Euler's totient function. This value is kept private.

4. Choose an integer e such that $1 < e < \phi(n)$ and $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$; i.e., e and $\phi(n)$ are coprime.
 - e is released as the public key exponent.
 - e having a short bit-length and small Hamming weight results in more efficient encryption – most commonly $2^{16} + 1 = 65,537$. However, much smaller values of e (such as 3) have been shown to be less secure in some settings. [15]
5. Determine d as $d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$; i.e., d is the modular multiplicative inverse of $e \pmod{\phi(n)}$.

- This is more clearly stated as: solve for d given $d \cdot e \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
- This is often computed using the extended Euclidean algorithm. Using the pseudocode in the *Modular integers* section, inputs a and n correspond to e and $\varphi(n)$, respectively.
- d is kept as the private key exponent.

The *public key* consists of the modulus n and the public (or encryption) exponent e . The *private key* consists of the modulus n and the private (or decryption) exponent d , which must be kept secret. p , q , and $\varphi(n)$ must also be kept secret because they can be used to calculate d .

- An alternative, used by PKCS#1, is to choose d matching $de \equiv 1 \pmod{\lambda}$ with $\lambda = \text{lcm}(p-1, q-1)$, where lcm is the least common multiple. Using λ instead of $\varphi(n)$ allows more choices for d . λ can also be defined using the Carmichael function, $\lambda(n)$.

Encryption

Alice transmits her public key (n, e) to Bob and keeps the private key d secret. Bob then wishes to send message M to Alice.

He first turns M into an integer m , such that $0 \leq m < n$ and $\text{gcd}(m, n) = 1$ by using an agreed-upon reversible protocol known as a padding scheme. He then computes the ciphertext c corresponding to

$$c \equiv m^e \pmod{n}$$

This can be done efficiently, even for 500-bit numbers, using Modular exponentiation. Bob then transmits c to Alice.

Note that at least nine values of m will yield a ciphertext c equal to m .

Decryption

Alice can recover m from c by using her private key exponent d via computing

$$m \equiv c^d \pmod{n}$$

Given m , she can recover the original message M by reversing the padding scheme.

Consider a numerical example,

The parameters used here are artificially small, but one can also use OpenSSL to generate and examine a real keypair.

1. Choose two distinct prime numbers, such as

$$p = 61 \text{ and } q = 53$$

2. Compute $n = pq$ giving

$$n = 61 \times 53 = 3233$$

3. Compute the totient of the product as $\varphi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ giving

$$\varphi(3233) = (61 - 1)(53 - 1) = 3120$$

4. Choose any number $1 < e < 3120$ that is coprime to 3120. Choosing a prime number for e leaves us only to check that e is not a divisor of 3120.

$$\text{let } e = 17$$

5. Compute d , the modular multiplicative inverse of e (mod $\varphi(n)$) yielding,

$$d = 2753$$

Worked example for the modular multiplicative inverse:

$$e \times d \pmod{\varphi(n)} = 1$$

$$17 \times 2753 \pmod{3120} = 1$$

The public key is $(n = 3233, e = 17)$. For a padded plaintext message m , the encryption function is

$$c(m) = m^{17} \pmod{3233}$$

The private key is $(d = 2753)$. For an encrypted ciphertext c , the decryption function is

$$m(c) = c^{2753} \pmod{3233}$$

For instance, in order to encrypt $m = 65$, we calculate

$$c = 65^{17} \pmod{3233} = 2790$$

To decrypt $c = 2790$, we calculate

$$m = 2790^{2753} \bmod 3233 = 65$$

Both of (these calculations can be computed efficiently using the square-and-multiply algorithm for modular exponentiation. In real-life situations the primes selected would be much larger; in our example it would be trivial to factor n , 3233 (obtained from the freely available public key) back to the primes p and q . Given e , also from the public key, we could then compute d and so acquire the private key.

Practical implementations use the Chinese remainder theorem to speed up the calculation using modulus of factors (mod pq using mod p and mod q).

The values d_p , d_q and q_{inv} , which are part of the private key are computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}d_p &= d \bmod (p - 1) = 2753 \bmod (61 - 1) = 53 \\d_q &= d \bmod (q - 1) = 2753 \bmod (53 - 1) = 49 \\q_{\text{inv}} &= q^{-1} \bmod p = 53^{-1} \bmod 61 = 38 \\&\Rightarrow (q_{\text{inv}} \times q) \bmod p = 38 \times 53 \bmod 61 = 1\end{aligned}$$

Here is how d_p , d_q and q_{inv} are used for efficient decryption. (Encryption is efficient by choice of public exponent e)

$$\begin{aligned}m_1 &= c^{d_p} \bmod p = 2790^{53} \bmod 61 = 4 \\m_2 &= c^{d_q} \bmod q = 2790^{49} \bmod 53 = 12 \\h &= (q_{\text{inv}} \times (m_1 - m_2)) \bmod p = (38 \times -8) \bmod 61 = 1 \\m &= m_2 + h \times q = 12 + 1 \times 53 = 65\end{aligned}$$

2.3 Related Work

R. Rivest, A. Shamir, and I. Adleman has proposed a method for implementing a public-key cryptosystem whose security rests in a part on the difficulty of factoring the large numbers. It permits secure communication to be established without the use of couriers to carry key and it also permits one to 'sign' digitized documents [18].

An Encryption method is presented with the novel property that publically revealing an Encryption key does not thereby reveal the corresponding decryption key. This has two important consequences:

- Couriers (or other secure means are not needed to transmit keys, since a message can be enciphered using an encryption key publicly revealed by the intended recipient. Only he can decipher the message, since only he knows the corresponding decryption key [19].
- A message can be (“signed” using a privately held decryption key. Anyone can verify this signature using the corresponding publicly revealed encryption key. Signature cannot be forged; a signer cannot deny the validity of his signature [19].

This has obvious applications in “Electronic mail” and “electronic fund transfer” system.

XinZhou and Xiaofei (Tang proposed an implementation of a complete and practical RSA encrypt/decrypt solution based on the study of RSA public key algorithm [20]. In addition, the encrypt procedure and code implementation is provided in details. Encryption and decryption algorithm's security depends on the algorithm [20], it also depends on the key confidentiality. Key in the encryption algorithm has a pivotal position, once the key was leaked, it means that anyone can be in the encryption system to encrypt and decrypt information; it means the encryption algorithm is useless. Therefore, what kind of data you choose to be a key), how to distribute the private key, and how to save both data transmission keys are very important issues in the encryption and decryption algorithm.

Ishwarya M and Dr.Ramesh Kumar proposed implementation of the RSA algorithm during data transmission between different communication networks and Internet, which is calculated to generate the keys by a program and then save these values of the keys in the databases. Its advancing the existing database systems and increasing the security and efficiency of the systems. This is achieved with a new concept to implement a real world anonymous database [17] which improves the secure efficient system for

protection of data, restricting the access to data even by the administrator thus maintaining the secrecy of individual patients [17].

Aayush Chhabra, Sruthi Mathur proposed that the security of RSA can be further increased with the use of third prime number along with a new approach for encryption and decryption [16]. This approach eliminates the need to transfer n , the product of two random but essentially big prime numbers, in the public key due to which it becomes difficult for the intruder to guess the factors of n and hence the encrypted message remains safe from the hackers. Thus this approach provides a more secure path for transmission and reception of messages through public key cryptography [16].

In this particular chapter, the gaps which exist in the current work, problem statement of our proposed work, the objectives which are to be achieved and the method for achieving these objectives are discussed.

3.1 Gap Analysis:

In the literature survey chapter, different Cryptography algorithm and related problems are discussed and in the existing work following gaps exists:

1. A disadvantage of using public-key cryptography for encryption is speed.
2. Public-key cryptography may be vulnerable to impersonation, even if users' private keys are not available.

3.2 Problem Statement

To increase security of computation of RSA algorithm we need to modify the RSA algorithm which can be done by applying DUA1 RSA and using four prime numbers and using a new variable for Encryption and Decryption.

3.3 Objectives

1. To study different Cryptography algorithms.
2. To focus on improving the security by applying DUA1 RSA.
3. Using the concept of prime numbers and making it more complex for the attacker by using four large prime numbers.

4.1 Proposed Method:

In the proposed method, we are using four prime numbers to generate the modulus N_1 and N_2 and four prime numbers [3] along with N_1 and N_2 is used to generate a new key, which is used for Encryption and Decryption of data. We have also applied dual RSA algorithm to enhance the security.

Three phases are as follows:

- Key Generation
- Encryption
- Decryption

Proposed algorithm

Step 1: Take four prime numbers P, Q, R, and S.

Step 2: Compute:

$$N_1 = P * Q * R * S$$

$$N_2 = P * Q$$

Step 3: Compute:

$$\phi(N) = (P-1) * (Q-1) * (R-1) * (S-1)$$

Step 4: Find e,

$$\text{Such that } \text{GCD} \{e, \phi(N)\} = 1$$

Step 5: Find d,

$$\text{Such that } d * e = 1 \text{ mod } \{\phi(N)\}$$

Or

$$D = e^{-1} \text{ mod } \{\phi(N)\}$$

Or

$$1 = d * e \text{ mod } \{\phi(N)\}$$

From the steps; we can derive the following keys:

Private Key = {e, N1}

Public Key = {d, N2}

The flow chart for the proposed RSA algorithm is shown below in Figure 4.1.

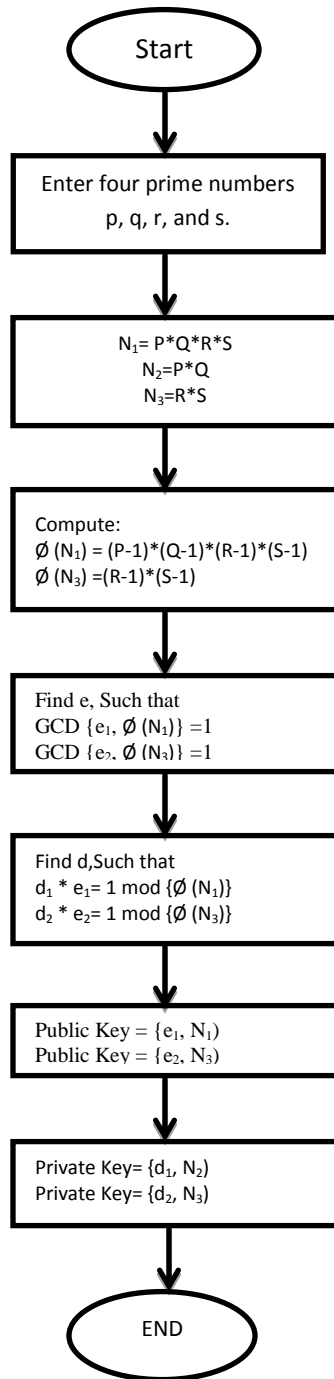


Figure 4.1: Flow chart

Consider a real time example,

As shown (in Figure 4.2, the process is more direct than with Diffie-He11man. Let's suppose you want to send your credit card number to Flipkart.com. Then in the simplest variant, Flipkart picks four large prime numbers, p , q , r and s with the condition that $p-1$, $q-1$, $r-1$ and $s-1$ is divisible by 3. It then multiplies them together to get $N_1 = p \times q \times r \times s$ and $N_2 = p \times q$ sends N_1 to you. On retrieving N_1 , you calculate $y = x^3 \text{ mod } N_1$, where x is your credit card number, and send y back to Flipkart, Flipkart then faces the problem of how to recover x given y . In other words, how does it take a cube root mod N ? Fortunately, it can do that given using its knowledge of the prime factors p and q , together with the following formula) discovered by the mathematician Leonhard Euler in the 1700's:

$$x^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \text{ mod } N_1$$

Note: Basically, because $(p-1)(q-1)$ is the order of the multiplicative group mod N_1 , consisting of all numbers from 1 to N_1 that are relatively prime to N_1 .

If Flipkart can only find an integer k such that $3k = 1 \text{ mod } (p-1)(q-1)$, then $y^k = x^{3k} = x^{c(p-1)(q-1)+1} = x \text{ mod } N_2$, (where c is some integer. But the fact that neither $p-1$ nor $q-1$ is divisible by 3 implies that such an integer k must exist – and furthermore k can be found in polynomial time given p and q , for example by using Euclid's algorithm. And once Flipkart has k , it can also compute $y^k \text{ mod } N_2 = x$ in polynomial time using repeated squaring. It can thereby recover your credit card number x , as desired. The obvious question is, how secure is this system? Well, any adversary who could factor N_2 into $p \times q$ could obviously decrypt the message x , by using the same algorithm that Flipkart itself uses. Hence this whole system is predicated on the presumed intractability of factoring large integers and of course, any proof that factoring is hard would also prove **P != NP**.

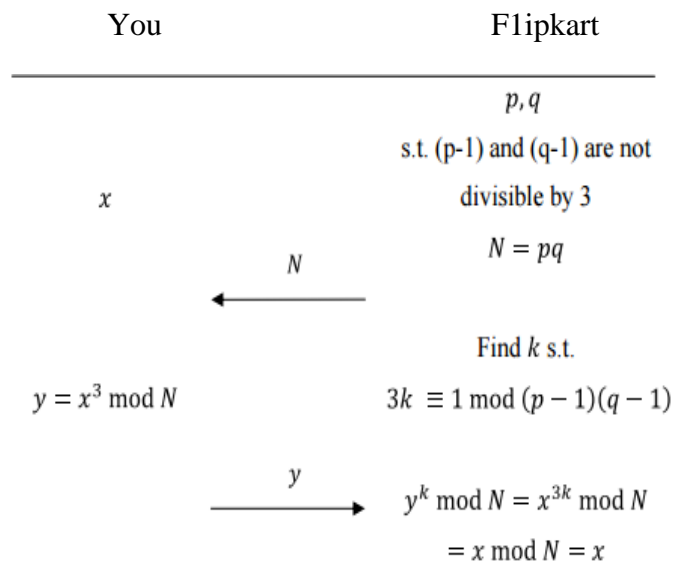


Figure 4.2: Conversation between Flipkart and user.

The strength of large prime number depends on four variables p, q, r and s. It is difficult to break the large prime number into four. Dual RSA has added extra security to the system.

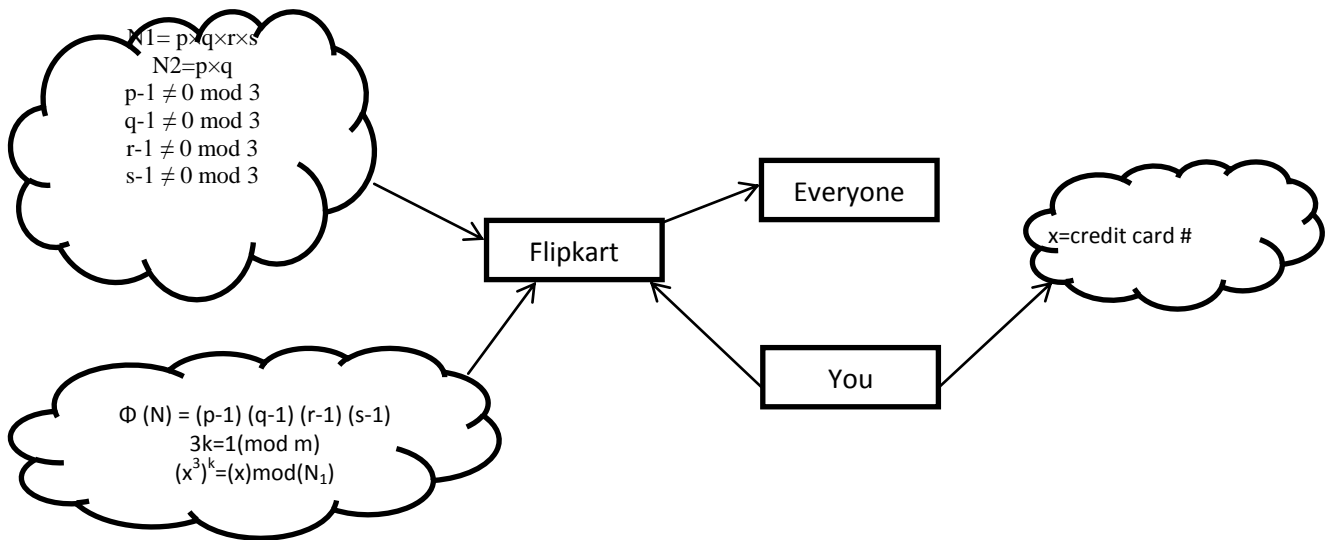


Figure 5.1: Encryption and decryption process between user and Flipkart.

The first step is taken by the recipient of the message, by generating two giant prime numbers p and q and (setting $N_2 = p \times q$. Note that p and q must be chosen such that $p - 1$, $r - 1, s - 1$ and $q - 1$ are not divisible by 3. The recipient keeps p and q a closely-guarded secret, but gives out N_1 to anyone who asks. Suppose a sender has a secret message x that she wants to send to the recipient. The sender calculates $x^3 \text{ mod } N_1$ and sends it to the recipient. Now it's the recipient's turn to recover the message. He can use some number theory together with the fact that he knows p and q , the factors of N_2 . The recipient first finds an integer k such that $3^k = 1 \text{ mod } (p - 1) \times (q - 1)$, which can be done in polynomial time via Euclid's algorithm, and then takes $(x^3)^k \text{ mod } N = x^{3k} \text{ mod } N = x$. The exponentiation can be done in polynomial time by using the trick of repeated squaring. Voila! When you look at this procedure, you might wonder why are we cubing

as opposed to (raising to another power; is there anything special about 3? As it turns out, 3 is just the first choice that's convenient. Squaring would lead to a ciphertext that had multiple decryptions (corresponding to the multiple square roots mod N_1), while we want the decryption to be unique. Indeed, if we wanted the square root to be unique, then we'd need $p-1$ and $q-1$ to not be divisible by 2, which is a problem since p and q (being large prime numbers) are odd! You could, however, raise to a power higher than 3, and in fact that's what people usually do. If the other components of the cryptosystem—such as the padding out of messages with random garbage—aren't implemented properly, then there's a class of attacks called “small-exponent attacks” which break RSA with small exponents though not with large ones). On the other hand, if everything else is implemented properly, then as far as we know $x^3 \bmod N_1$ is already secure.

```

File Edit Search Run Compile Debug Project Options Window Help
RSAAAA.CPP
#include<stdio.h>
#include<conio.h>
#include<stdlib.h>
#include<math.h>
#include<string.h>
#include<time.h>

long int p,q,n1,n2,n3,t,t1,flag,e[100],d[100],temp[100],j,m[100],en[100],i,r,s;
char msg[100];
int prime(long int);
void ce();
long int cd(long int);
void encrypt();
void decrypt();
void main()
{ int i;
clrscr();
printf("\nEnter 1st Prime Number\n");
scanf("%d",&p);
//for(i=0;i<4;i++)
//{ if(i==0)
1:32
F1 Help F2 Save F3 Open Alt-F9 Compile F9 Make F10 Menu

```

Figure 5.2: Shows the library and prototype of function.

```

File Edit Search Run Compile Debug Project Options Window Help
RSAAAA.CPP 1=[+]
//{
// printf("\nWRONG INPUT\n");
// getch();
// exit(1);
//}

printf("\nEnter 2nd Prime Number\n");
scanf("%d",&q);
flag=prime(q);
printf("\nEnter 3rd Prime Number\n");
scanf("%d",&r);
flag=prime(r);
printf("\nEnter 4th Prime Number\n");
scanf("%d",&s);
flag=prime(s);
if(flag==0 || ip==q)
{
printf("\nWRONG INPUT\n");
getch();
exit(1);
}
63:1
F1 Help F2 Save F3 Open Alt-F9 Compile F9 Make F10 Menu

```

Figure 5.3: The process of testing whether a number is prime or not.

```

File Edit Search Run Compile Debug Project Options Window Help
RSAAAA.CPP 1=[+]
}
printf("\nEnter Message\n");
fflush(stdin);
scanf("%s",msg);
for(i=0;msg[i]!=NULL;i++)
m[i]=msg[i];
n1=p*q*r*s;
n2=p*q;
n3=r*s;
t=(p-1)*(q-1)*(r-1)*(s-1);
t1=(r-1)*(s-1);
ce();
//printf("\nPOSSIBLE VALUES OF e AND d ARE\n");
//for(i=0;i<j-1;i++)
//printf("\n%ld\t%ld",e[i],d[i]);
encrypt();
decrypt();
getch();
}
int prime(long int pr)
{
84:1
F1 Help F2 Save F3 Open Alt-F9 Compile F9 Make F10 Menu

```

Figure 5.4: The proposed algorithm.

```
File Edit Search Run Compile Debug Project Options Window Help
RSAAAA.CPP 1-[+/-]
}
}
void encrypt()
{
long int pt,ct,key=e[0],k,len;
i=0;
len=strlen(msg);
while(i!=len)
{
    pt=m[i];
    pt=pt-96;
    k=1;
    for(j=0;j<key;j++)
    {
        k=k*pt;
        k=k%n1;
    }
    temp[i]=k;
    ct=k+96;
    en[i]=ct;
    i++;
}
145:1
F1 Help F2 Save F3 Open Alt-F9 Compile F9 Make F10 Menu
```

Figure 5.5: The encryption algorithm.

```
File Edit Search Run Compile Debug Project Options Window Help
RSAAAA.CPP 1-[+/-]
}
en[i]=-1;
printf("\nTHE ENCRYPTED MESSAGE IS\n");
for(i=0;en[i]!=-1;i++)
printf("%c",en[i]);
}
void decrypt()
{
long int pt,ct,key=d[0],k;
i=0;
while(en[i]!=-1)
{
    ct=temp[i];
    k=1;
    for(j=0;j<key;j++)
    {
        k=k*ct;
        k=k%n2;
    }
    pt=k+96;
    m[i]=pt;
}
166:1
F1 Help F2 Save F3 Open Alt-F9 Compile F9 Make F10 Menu
```

Figure 5.6: The decryption process.

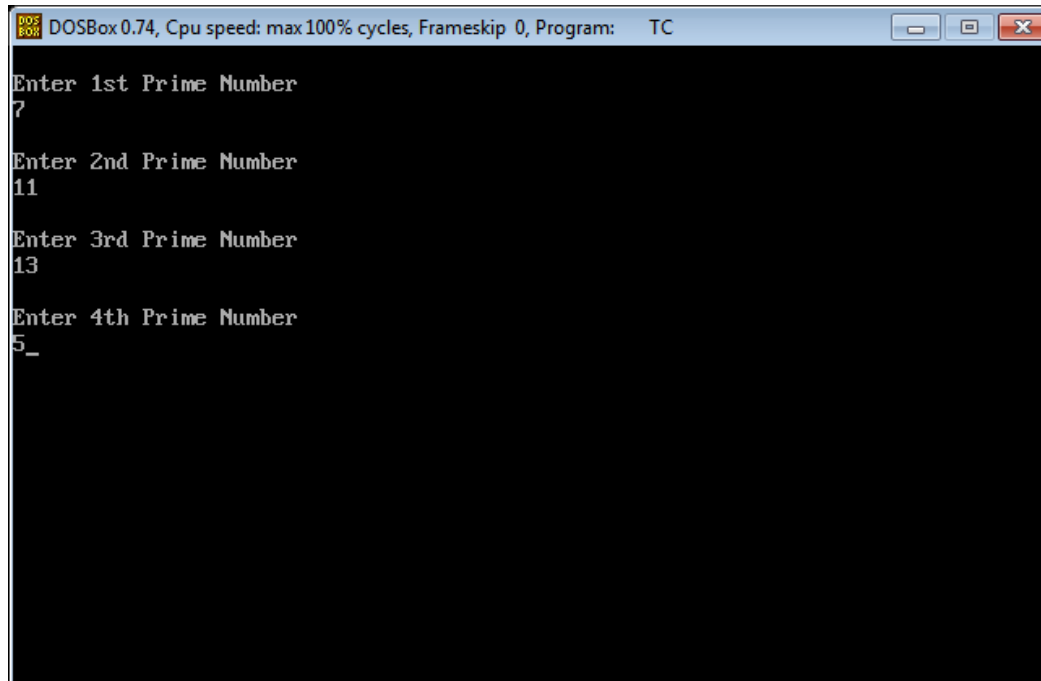


Figure 5.7: The input given to the program.

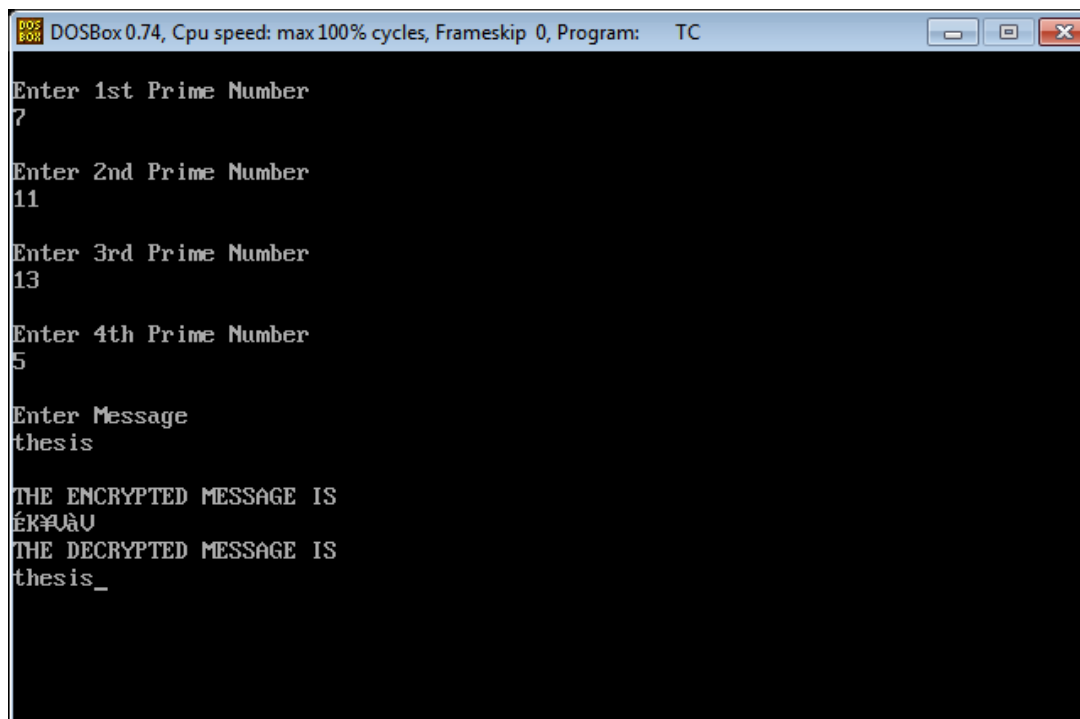


Figure 5.8: The encrypted and decrypted process.

5.1. Advantages of Proposed Method

- The strength of large prime number depends on four variables p , q , r and s . It is difficult to break the large prime number into four.
- Eliminate the use of common modulus n by generating a new variable from value of n and the prime numbers.
- Using new variable for encryption and decryption gives more security for data transfer.
- By using four prime numbers RSA decryption phase speed is increased as the value of N_2 is very large.
- Dual RSA has added extra security to the system.

Table 5.1: Comparison of existing and proposed method

Existing RSA system	Proposed RSA system
Two prime numbers are selected to generate common modulus n .	Four prime are selected to generate the common modulus n
Strength of large number depends on two variables.	Strength of large prime number depends on four prime numbers.
Common modulus n is used for Encryption and Decryption.	Two variable N_1 and N_2 are and generated used for encryption and decryption.

The most widely used [5]RSA is based on arithmetic modulo large numbers which will lead to slow in operation in RSA decryption. The Encrypt Assistant Multi-Prime RSA (EAMRSA) will speed up the decryption process by reducing modulus and private exponents in modular exponentiation.

A new variant of RSA is called EAMRSA (Encrypt Assistant Multi-Prime RSA) will effectively combine Multi-Prime RSA [3] [4] and RSA-S2 system [5]. It can obtain a higher speedup than the basic RSA and the above two RSA variants. The variant also has obvious parallel characteristics and is easy to be implemented in parallel.

6.1 Conclusions

The proposed method is more secure than RSA algorithm as the public key exponent d can be found out only by knowing the four prime numbers p, q, r and s and which can be known only through N_2 , but as N_2 is not transmitted in public key, thus it is very difficult to know the value of d , hence the encrypted message cannot be read easily.

6.2 Future scope

We can also use 'n' prime numbers which is provided the security over the networks. In which we endeavored to get the quality that make easier the cryptography to have a good use of 'n' prime numbers. The 'n' prime numbers act (play) very important role in RSA cryptosystem.

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