

Name: Abdus Salam

ID: IT-21016

4th Year 1st Semester

Sub: Cryptography and Cyber Law

IT-21016

Q1:

How does Shor's algorithm threaten the security of RSA and Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC), and what are the potential consequences for current digital infrastructure?

Solve:

Shor's algorithm solves two problems in polynomial time on a fault-tolerant quantum computer.

- Integer factoring - breaks RSA (private key = factors of a large modulus $N = pq$).
- Discrete logarithm (over multiplicative groups and elliptic curves) → breaks Diffie-Hellman and ECC.

This requires large, error-corrected quantum computers. We don't have those yet - but the risk is asymmetric: once they exist, all past traffic recorded today that used RSA/ECC without forward secrecy becomes readable.

Consequences for digital infrastructure :

- Confidentiality loss (retroactive): Recorded traffic without strong PFS can be decrypted later.
- Authenticity collapse (live): Attackers can forge signature, issue fake certificates, and push malicious updates.
- Systemic trust shock: PKI and software supply chains would require emergency rotations, outages and revocations would be widespread.
- Regulatory & liability exposure: Breach of data-retention and sectoral rules for data meant to stay secret for years.

~~Q-2:~~

Quantum Key Distribution (QKD) is a secure communication method that utilises principles of quantum mechanics to generate and distributes ~~encript~~ cryptographic keys.

It allows two parties to create a shared secret key that can be used to encrypt and decrypt messages, with security guaranteed by the law of physics.

Role of QKD in Future Cryptographic Systems:

1. Quantum-Safe Key Exchange:

- Secure key sharing using quantum physics
- Resistant to quantum attacks

2. Unconditional Security:

- QKD security is based on laws of quantum physics, such as:-
 - Heisenberg's uncertainty principle
 - No-cloning theorem

IT - 21016

- Any attempt to eavesdrop on the quantum channel disturbs the system, alerting the legitimate parties.

3. Eavesdropping Detection:

- Detects any interception via quantum disturbance.
- Compromised keys are discarded.

4. Post-Quantum Ready:

- Used with symmetric encryption
- Builds quantum-secure communication

5. Quantum-Internet Backbone:

- Core tech for future secure quantum networks
- Already tested via satellites & fibre optics.

6. Physics-Based Trust:

- Security from laws of nature, not hard math.
- Not breakable by any computing power.

DT-21016

7. High security use:

- Best for military, banking, government
- long-term sensitive data protection

8. Crypto-Agility:

- Frequent secure key updates.
- Adapts quickly to new threats.

Q-3 Solution:

Lattice-based cryptography and traditional number-theoretic cryptography (such as RSA and ECC) differ significantly in their mathematical foundations, security assumptions, and resistance to quantum attacks.

Lattice-based cryptography offers a significant advantage over traditional number theoretic approaches like RSA in terms of quantum resistance.

While traditional methods rely on problems that quantum computers can easily solve, lattice-based cryptography is built on problems that are believed to be difficult.

Here's more detailed breakdown of the differences:

Security Foundation:

- Traditional (RSA/ECC)
 - Relies on the difficulty of factoring large numbers or solving the discrete logarithm problem
- Lattice-based cryptography
 - Relies on the difficulty of solving problems on high-dimensional lattices such as SVP and SWE.

Mathematical Foundation:

- Traditional (RSA/ECC):

- Based on hard number-theoretic problems like integer factorization (RSA) and discrete logarithm problems.

- Lattice-Based Cryptography:

- Based on problems in high-dimensional geometry such as the shortest vector problem (SVP) and LWE.

Quantum Resistance:

- Traditional (RSA/ECC):

- Vulnerable to quantum algorithms like Shor's algorithm, which can solve their underlying problems in polynomial time.

- Lattice-Based Cryptography:

- Considered quantum-resistant, as no efficient quantum algorithms are known to solve lattice problems.

DT-21016

Q-4 Solution:

Here's a python PRNG (Pseudo-Random Generator) that uses current system time and a custom seed value to generate random numbers. S/V also include sample output S/D

Python program:

```
import time
def custom-prng (seed, count):
    current-time = int(time.time() * 1000)
    combined-seed = seed ^ current-time
    a = 1664525
    c = 1013904223
    m = 1024 * 321
    random-numbers = []
    x = combined-seed
    for _ in range(count):
        x = (a * x + c) % m
        random-numbers.append(x)
    return random-numbers
```

Seed-value = 12345

DT - 21016

seed count = 5

```
Numbers = custom_prng (seed value, count)
print ("custom PRNG output:")
for ; num in enumerate (numbers, 1):
    print ("Random Number {i}: {num}")
```

Sample Output:

Custom PRNG output:

Random Number 1: 1885951992

Random Number 2: 2910389135

Random Number 3: 2475739278

Random Number 4: 33994785

Random Number 5: 1326364488

Explanation:

① Seed initialization → Combines custom seed

and system time (nanoseconds) using
XOR for randomness

→ LCG Formula → uses $(a \times x + c) \% m$ to
generate pseudo-random numbers.

Q-5 Solution:

Sieve of Eratosthenes is an ancient and efficient method for finding all prime numbers up to a given limit n . It works by progressively eliminating the multiples of each prime number, starting from the smallest prime (2).

Algorithm Steps:

1. Create a list of integers from 2 to n
2. Start with the first number in the list ($p=2$), which is prime.
3. Eliminate all multiples of p .
4. Find the next number in the list that is not marked, this is the next prime.
5. Repeat steps 3-4 until all multiples up to \sqrt{n} have been processed
6. The remaining unmarked numbers are all primes.

DT-21016

Find all primes less than 50

Let's use the sieve of Eratosthenes to find all prime numbers less than 50.

1. Create a list of numbers from 2 to 49:

2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18,
19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32,
33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46
47, 48, 49.

2. Start with the first prime 2 then eliminate all ~~numbers~~ multiples of 2:

2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27,
29, 31, 33, 35, 37, 39, 41, 43, 45, 47, 49

3. The next unmarked number 3. Eliminate all multiple of 3:

2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 25, 29, 31, 35, 37,
41, 43, 47, 49

4. The next unmarked number 5 Eliminate all multiple of 5:

2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43,
47, 49.

A-6 Solution

Definition: A carmichael number is a composite integer n such that

$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

for every integer a with $\gcd(a, n) = 1$

A positive composite integer n is a carmichael number if all three conditions hold;

1. n is composite

2. n is square-free

3. For every prime p dividing n , $(p-1)$ divides $(n-1)$; i.e. $p-1 \mid n-1$

Verification for the given numbers:

We check each n against Korselt's criterion.

1. $n = 561$

- Factorization: $561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17 \rightarrow$ composite and square free.
- Compute $n-1 = 560$

DT-21016

- For $p = 3$: $p-1 = 2 \cdot 21560$ ($560/2 = 280$)
- For $p = 11$: $p-1 = 10 \cdot 101560$ ($560/10 = 56$)
- For $p = 17$: $p-1 = 16 \cdot 16/560$ ($560/16 = 35$)

All conditions satisfied $\rightarrow 561$ is a Carmichael number.

2. $n = 1105$

- Factorization: $1105 = 5 \times 13 \times 17 \rightarrow$ composite and square-free
- Compute $n-1 = 1104$

3. $n = 1729$

- Factorization: $1729 = 7 \times 13 \times 19 \rightarrow$ composite and square-free
- Compute $n-1 = 1728$
- For $p = 7$: $p-1 = 6 \cdot 6/1728$ ($1728/6 = 288$)
- For $p = 13$: $p-1 = 12 \cdot 12/1728$ ($1728/12 = 144$)
- For $p = 19$: $p-1 = 18 \cdot 18/1728$ ($1728/18 = 96$)

All conditions are satisfied $\rightarrow 1729$ is a Carmichael number.

Q-7

Yes, In fact \mathbb{Z}_{11} is a commutative ring with unity and moreover a field.

Justification:

- $(\mathbb{Z}_{11}, +)$ is an abelian group : closure, associativity, identity 0, inverses ($-a \equiv 11-a$) and commutativity hold (addition mod 11)
 - multiplication mod 11 is closed and associative, and distributes over addition
 - There is a multiplicative identity $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_{11}$
 - Because 11 is prime, every nonzero element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{11}$ has a multiplicative inverse mod 11, Thus all ring axioms hold and every nonzero element is invertible $\rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{11}$ is a field.
- Yes, $(\mathbb{Z}_{37}, +)$ is a Abelian group.

Justification:

- Set $\mathbb{Z}_{37} = \{0, 1, \dots, 36\}$ with addition modulo 37
- closure, associativity and commutativity follow from integer addition.
- Identity is 0. For each a , additive inverse is $37-a$.

Thus $(\mathbb{Z}_{37}, +)$ satisfied all group axioms, and \mathbb{Z} is abelian.

No, $(\mathbb{Z}_{35}, +)$ is not a group.

Although multiplication mod 35, is associative and has identity 1, not every element has a multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z}_{35} .

TT-21016

Q-8
Ans:

We want r with $0 \leq r < 31$ and $-52 \equiv r \pmod{31}$

Compute:

$$-52 + 2 \cdot 31 = -52 + 62 = 10$$

$$\text{So, } -52 \equiv 10 \pmod{31}$$

$$\text{alternate: } -52 \equiv -52 + 31 = -21 = -21 + 31 \equiv 10$$

so, the remainder is 10.

Q-9 Ans:

we solve $7x \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$ or find integers
 x, y with $7x + 26y = 1$

use the Euclidean algorithm:

$$26 = 3 \cdot 7 + 5,$$

$$7 = 1 \cdot 5 + 2,$$

$$5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1,$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

DT-21016

Back-Substitute to express 1 as a linear combination:

$$1 = 5 - 2 \cdot 2$$

$$= 5 - 2(7 - 1 \cdot 5) = 3 \cdot 5 - 2 \cdot 7$$

$$= 3 \cdot (26 - 3 \cdot 7) - 2 \cdot 7 = 3 \cdot 26 - 11 \cdot 7$$

Thus $-11 \cdot 7 + 3 \cdot 26 = 1$. Therefore $x \equiv -11 \pmod{26}$

$$x \equiv -11 \equiv 15 \pmod{26}$$

The multiplicative inverse of 7 modulo 26 is 15.

Q-10 Ans:

Step-1 - Multiply the number:

$$-8 \times 5 = -40$$

Step-2 - Reduce modulo 17:

We find the equivalent positive remainder:

$$-40 + 3 \times 17 = -40 + 51 = 11$$

$$-40 \equiv 11 \pmod{17}$$

$$(-8 \times 5) \pmod{17} = 11$$

PT-21016

Explain of simplification method?

Negative numbers in modular arithmetic

Can be converted to their positive equivalent before multiplying.

$$-8 \equiv 9 \pmod{17}$$

$$9 \times 5 = 45$$

Reduce 45 modulo 17:

$$45 - 2 \times 17 = 45 - 34 = 11$$

This match the previous result

∴ Final answer $\equiv 11$.

DT-21016

Q-11 Ans:

For integers a and b not both zero, there exist integers x, y such that

$$ax+by = \gcd(a, b)$$

In particular, if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ there are integers x, y with $ax+by = 1$; then x is the multiplicative inverse of a modulo b .

Proof: let, $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

- By the Euclidian algorithm, d divides both a and b .
- The set of all integers of the form $am+bn$ is closed under addition and subtraction.
- Let m be the smallest positive number in this set then m divides both a and b .

PT-2016

- Hence $m=d$, and there exist integers x, y such that $ax+by=d$

Finding the multiplicative inverse of 97.

Modulo 385:

We want n such that:

$$97n \equiv 1 \pmod{385}$$

This is equivalent to:

$$97x + 385y = 1$$

we have

$$1 = (-127) \cdot 97 + 32 \cdot 385$$

Therefore $n = -127 \pmod{385}$.

We want the positive inverse:

$$-127 \equiv 385 - 127 = 258 \pmod{385}$$

The multiplicative inverse of 97 mod 385

is 258.

DT-21016

Q-12 Ans:

Bézout Identity Statement:

For any integers a and b , there exist integers x and y such that:

$$ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$$

Proof:

1. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. By definition, d divides both a and b , so $a = da'$ and $b = db'$ where a', b' are integers with $\gcd(d, b') = 1$.

2. Since a' and b' are coprime, there exists integers x_0, y_0 such that:

$$a'x_0 + b'y_0 = 1$$

3. Multiplying through by d gives:

$$a(dx_0) + b(dy_0) = d$$

Thus $x = x_0$ and $y = y_0$ are integer solutions to: $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$

IT-21016

Find n such that $43n \equiv 1 \pmod{240}$;

This asks for the multiplicative inverse of 43 modulo 240. We solve the Diophantine equation: ~~43x - 240y = 1~~

by the Extended Euclidean Algorithm.

Compute gcd chain (Euclidean algorithm):

$$240 = 5 \cdot 43 + 25$$

$$43 = 1 \cdot 25 + 18$$

$$25 = 1 \cdot 18 + 7$$

$$18 = 2 \cdot 7 + 4$$

$$7 = 1 \cdot 4 + 3$$

$$4 = 1 \cdot 3 + 1$$

$$3 = 3 \cdot 1 + 0$$

Thus $43 \cdot 67 - 240 \cdot 12 = 1$

So, $n=67$ is a solution.

$$43^{-1} \equiv 67 \pmod{240} \text{ or } ^*$$

$$43 \cdot 67 \equiv 1 \pmod{240}$$

IT-21016

Q-13 Solution:

Fermat's Little theorem (FLT) - statement:

If p is a prime number and a is any integer with $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

Proof:

Consider the nonzero residues modulo

$p: 1, 2, \dots, p-1$ multiply each by

a (with $\gcd(a, p) = 1$) the set $a \cdot 1, a \cdot 2, \dots, a \cdot (p-1)$

is a permutation of $1, 2, \dots, p-1$ modulo p .

Taking the product of all elements in both sets and reducing mod p gives -

$$a^{p-1} = (1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \pmod{p}$$

canceling the nonzero product $1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)$

which is invertible $(\bmod p)$ & yields $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

IT-21616

Primality Test using FLT:

choose a with $1 < a < p$ and $\gcd(a, p) = 1$

If $a^{p-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ $\Rightarrow p$ is composite. If it is 1, p may be prime - but there are composites (carmichael numbers) that also pass.

Is 561 prime?

Take $a = 2$, $\gcd(2, 561) = 1$,

$$561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$$

By Chinese Remainder Theorem and FLT:

$$2^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, 1 \pmod{11}, 1 \pmod{17}$$

so, $2^{560} \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$ - 561 passes FLT. But is not prime. It's a carmichael number.

Q-14 Ans.:

Statement: The Chinese Remainder Theorem states that a system of linear congruences with pairwise coprime modulo has a unique solution modulo the product of the modulo. If m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k are pairwise coprime positive integers and a_1, \dots, a_k are any integers, Then the system

$$x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}, \quad (i=1, \dots, k)$$

has a unique solution modulo $M = m_1 m_2 \dots m_k$

Proof:

Let $M = \prod_{i=1}^k m_i$ and $M_i = \frac{M}{m_i}$ since $\gcd(m_i, M) = 1$, there exists an inverse y_i such that $M_i \cdot y_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$ Then

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i M_i y_i$$

Solve the system:

Start with $x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ put $n = 2 + 3k$

Plug into mod 5:

$$2 + 3k \equiv 2 \pmod{5} \Rightarrow 3k \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$$

Inverse of 3 mod 5 is 2 (since $3 \cdot 2 = 6 \equiv 1$) so,

$$k \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \Rightarrow k = 5t$$

$$\text{Thus } n = 2 + 3k = 2 + 3(5t) = 8 + 15t$$

Now impose mod 7:

$$8 + 15t \equiv 2 \pmod{7} \Rightarrow 15t \equiv 6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Since $15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, this gives $t \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$

So, $t = 1 + 7s$, then

$$n = 8 + 15(1 + 7s) = 8 + 15 + 105s = 23 + 105s$$

Therefore the solution modulo $3, 5, 7 \equiv 105$

$$n \equiv 23 \pmod{105}$$

Q-15 Ans:

The CIA triad stands for confidentiality, integrity and availability. It is a fundamental for information security.

• Confidentiality:

- Ensures data is disclosed only authorized parties.
- Mechanisms: encryption, access controls, authentication, secure channels.

• Integrity:

- Ensures data is accurate and has not been tampered with
- Mechanisms: Cryptographic hashes, digital signatures, NACs, checksums, version control.

• Availability:

- Ensures authorized users can access data and services when needed
- Mechanisms: redundancy, backups, DDoS protection, fault tolerance, monitoring.

Q-16 Ans:

Difference: Steganography vs cryptography

- Cryptography transforms plaintext into an unreadable form (ciphertext) so that the content is hidden (confidential), but the existence of the message is usually the enigma's obituary. Good unreadability without the key.

- Steganography: hides the existence of the message by embedding it into another innocuous subject (image, audio, video, text)

Goal: Secrecy of existence (covert communication)

They can be used together. First encrypt the secret, then hide the ciphertext with steganography.

Common Steganography techniques (digital media):

1. LSB (Least significant Bit) Substitution change (audio): replaces least significant bits of pixels / samples with message bits. Simple and high capacity but vulnerable to processing / noise.
2. Masking and dithering (images): hide data in perceptually significant areas (watermarking). Style down against image processing.
3. Transform - domain methods : embed data in frequency co-efficients. More robust to compression and common edits.
4. Spread - spectrum Steganography : spread message bits across many samples, low detectability and robust.

Q-17. Ans:

Phishing:

Method: Social engineering - attackers send deceptive emails/message or create fake website to trick users into revealing credentials, personal data, or clicking malicious links.

Goal/Impact: Credential theft, identify theft initial foothold in networks.

Defences: User education, email filtering, multi-factor authentication(MFA), URL/webpage scanners, anti-phishing policies.

Malware:

Method: Software (viruses, worms, Trojans, ransomware, spyware) delivered via email attachments, drive-by-downloads, infected devices or, malicious installers.

Goal/Impact: Data theft, destruction, system compromise, encryption for ransom, establishing persistent backdoors.

Defences: Endpoint protection/AV; application white-listing, patch management, least privilege, network segmentation, backups.

(Q-18 Ans)

legal frameworks and cybersecurity : Role of GDPR:

The General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) is a European Union (EU) law designed to strengthen the protection of personal data and privacy of individuals. It plays an important role in mitigating cyber attack and protecting user privacy through the following ways.

DT-21016

Data Minimization: GDPR requires organizations to collect only necessary personal data, reducing the amount of sensitive information that can be stolen in a cyber-attack.

Security Measures: It mandates strong technical and organizational measures to safeguard data against unauthorized access, alteration, or loss.

Breach Notification: Organizations must report personal data breaches to authorities within 72 hours. This ensures quick containment and response to cyber attacks.

User Rights: Individuals have rights such as access to their data correction, deletion and data portability.

DT-21016

Q-19 Ans:

Basic working of the DES Algorithm:

The Data Encryption Standard (DES) is a symmetric-key block cipher that encrypts data in fixed-size blocks.

It operates on:

- plaintext block: 64 bits (8 bytes)
- key = 56 bits
- output: 64-bit ciphertext

1. Initial Permutation (IP)

- The 64-bit plaintext is rearranged according to a fixed table.
- This step does not involve the key it simply changes bit positions to prepare for the rounds.
 - Example: If the plaintext is $P = [P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots, P_{64}]$ the IP might move P_{58} to position 1, P_{50} to position 2, etc.

2. Rounds (16 Iterations)

The output of R_P is divided into two halves :

- Left half (L_0) : first 32 bits.
- Right half (R_0) : ~~first~~ ^{last} 32 bits.

a) Expansion (E-box) :

- The 32-bit right half (R) is expanded to 48 bits by duplicating certain bits, using the E expansion table.

b) Key mixing

- A 48 bit subkey is generated from the main 56-bit key using a key schedule.
- The expanded R is XORed with the subkey: $R\text{-expanded} \oplus \text{subkey}$.

DT-21016

Q-20 Ans:

Given: $R_0 = \text{0x } F0F0F0F0$

Round key $k_1 = \text{X}_0\text{OFOFOF}$

$L_0 = \text{0x } AAAAAAAA$

Step-1: Compute $f(R_0, 14)$ assuming XOR operation only

$$f(R_0, 14) = R_0 \oplus R_1 = \text{0x } F0F0F0F0 \oplus \text{0x } F0F0F0F0$$

Perform XOR byte-wise:

$$\cdot F0 \oplus OF = FF$$

$$\text{So, } f(R_0, 14) = \text{0x } FFFFFFFF$$

Step-2: Compute $L_1 = R_0 = \text{X}_0\text{OFOFOF}$

Step-3: Compute $R_1 = L_0 \oplus f(R_0, 14)$

$$R_1 = \text{0x } AAAAAAAA} \oplus \text{0x } FFFFFFFF$$

XOR byte-wise:

$$\cdot AA \oplus FF = 55$$

$$\text{So, } R_1 = \text{0x } 55555555$$

$$\therefore L_1 = \text{0x } F0F0F0F0, R_1 = \text{0x } 55555555$$

(Answer)

Q-21 Ans:

Given the input word:

 $[0x23, 0xA7, 0x4C, 0x19]$

use the following partial AES S-box to perform the nibbles transformation provide the result output word.

Row Col \rightarrow 3 4 7 9 A C

Row \ Col	3	4	7	9	A	C
1	6D	.	.	C6	.	.
2	D4
4	.	A1	.	.	.	2E
A	.	.	63	D2	.	.

Given Input word: $[X_{023}, X_{A7}, X_{4C}, X_{19}]$

Partial AES S-box table:

Row\Col \rightarrow	3	4	7	9	A	C
1	6D	.	.	C6	.	.
2	D4
4	.	A1	.	.	2E	.
A	.	.	63	D2	.	.

For each byte, the high nibble (4 bits) is the row and the low nibble is the column.

Q.22 Ans:

The Add Roundkey Step in AES encryption involves performing a bitwise XOR operation between the input word and the round keyword.

Given: input word: [0x1A, 0x2B, 0x3C, 0x4D]

Round keyword: [0x55, 0x66, 0x77, 0x88]

Compute the output word (XOR each byte)

Solution (byte-wise XOR):

$$0x1A \oplus 0x55 = 0x4F (00011010 \oplus 0101011 = 01001111)$$

$$0x2B \oplus 0x66 = 0x4D (00101011 \oplus 01100110 = 01001101)$$

$$0x3C \oplus 0x77 = 0x4B (00111100 \oplus 01110111 = 01001011)$$

$$0x4D \oplus 0x88 = 0xC5 (01001101 \oplus 10001000 = 11000101)$$

Resulting output word: [0x4F, 0x4D, 0x4B, 0xC5]

Explanation: The Add Roundkey step performs a bitwise XOR between each byte of the round key producing the output word shown above.

RT-21016

A-23 Ans:

The Mixcolumns operation is AES worked by multiplying each column of the state matrix by a fixed matrix over the Galois field $GF(2^8)$. Given that,

Input column (bytes):

$$a = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0x01 \\ 0x02 \\ 0x03 \\ 0x04 \end{bmatrix}$$

Mixcolumns Matrix:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 02 & 03 & 01 & 01 \\ 01 & 02 & 03 & 01 \\ 01 & 01 & 02 & 03 \\ 03 & 01 & 01 & 02 \end{bmatrix}$$

So the output column is $b = M \cdot a$ where each entry is bytewise $GF(2^8)$ arithmetic (XOR for addition).

Multiplication rules used (AES)

- Multiply by 01: value itself
- Multiply by 02 (called \times time); left shift
- Multiply by 03: $03 \cdot x = 02 \cdot x \oplus 01 \cdot x$

Q - 25 Ans

AES Modes causing Error Propagation:

Some AES Modes Error Propagation cause an error in a ciphertext block to affect multiple plaintext blocks during decryption. This reduces the integrity of the decrypted message because even a single-bit error can corrupt more than one block.

CBC (cipher block chaining)

→ Decryption formula: $P_i = \text{AES}^{-1}(c_i) \oplus c_{i-1}$

→ Error effect:

- if c_i has a 1-bit error $\rightarrow P_i$ completely random
- The same bit position in P_{i+1} will also be flipped

CFB (cipher feedback) Mode

→ Decryption Formula: $P_i = c_i \oplus \text{AES}(c_{i-1})$

→ Error effect:

- if c_i has a 1-bit error \rightarrow the same bit in P_i is wrong
- P_{i+1} becomes completely random
- After that, decryption returns to normal.

DT-2016

Q-2b Ans

Recommended Modes: AES-CTR^o (Counter - Mode)

Justification:

- Parallel processing
 - In CTR, each block is encrypted by XORing the plaintext with a key stream generated from AES (key, counter)
 - The counter values for all blocks are known in advance, so encryption and decryption of different blocks can happen independently and in parallel.
- Performance:
 - No chaining between block-factor than CBC for large files
- Security:
 - Unlike ECB, CTR does not produce identical ciphertext for identical plaintext blocks.
 - As secure as CBC when IV/nonce is unique.

Why not ECB?

- Reveals pattern in the data - insecure for large files.

Why not CBC?

- Each block depends on the previous ciphertext block \rightarrow cannot be parallel in encryption

For large file encryption with parallel processing

AES-CTR is best because it is secure and highly parallelizable.

Q-27

Ans: Given, $M=1, C=5, n=14, d=11$

Encryption: $C \equiv M^d \pmod{n} = 1^5 \pmod{14} = 1$

Decryption:

$$M \equiv C^d \pmod{n} = 1^{11} \pmod{14} = 1$$

Why this works: RSA relies on $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{n}$ when $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$.

DT-21016

Here, $Q(14) = 6$ and $c \cdot d \equiv 5 \cdot 11 = 55 \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$
So, decryption recovers M .

∴ ciphertext $c=1$ and Decrypted message, $M=5$

Q-28 Ans:

Given : hash $H(m) = 5$, $d = 3$, $n = 33$

Signature generation (Sign with private key d):

We need to generate a digital signature for a message hash.

- The message hash is $H(m) = 5$

- The RSA private key is $p(d, n) = (3, 33)$

- The digital signature s is computed using the formula:

$$s = H(m)^d \pmod{n}$$

$$s = 125 \pmod{33}$$

- $125 = 3 \times 33 + 26$, So, $125 \pmod{33} = 26$

- The digital signature is 26.

Q-29 Ans:

We'll compute the public keys for Aleya and Badol based on the Diffie-Hellman protocol.

- Public values: prime module $p=17$, base $g=3$,

- Aleya's private key : $a=4$

- Badol's private key : $b=5$

- Aleya's public key (A):

$$\rightarrow A = g^a \pmod{p} = 3^4 \pmod{17} = 81 \pmod{17}$$

$$\rightarrow 81 = 4 \times 17 + 13. \text{ So } 81 \pmod{17} = 13$$

→ Aleya's public key is 13

→ Badol's public key (B):

$$\rightarrow B = g^b \pmod{p} = 3^5 \pmod{17} = 243 \pmod{17}$$

$$\rightarrow 243 = 14 \times 17 + 5, \text{ so } 243 \pmod{17} = 5$$

→ Badol's public key is 5

Q-30 Ans:Definition:

$$H(x) = (\sum \text{ASCII(chars in } x)) \bmod 100$$

ASCII values: A = 65, B = 66

Compute hashes:

$$H("AB") = (65 + 66) \bmod 100 = 131 \bmod 100 = 31$$

$$H("BA") = (66 + 65) \bmod 100 = 131 \bmod 100 = 31$$

Result:

Both "AB" and "BA" produce the same hash \rightarrow collision

Collision Resistance:

- The two different messages, "AB" and "BA" produce the same hash value. This is called collision.
- This hash function is not collision resistant because it's based on a simple modular sum.

Q-31 Ans:

Given, message, $M = 15$, $K = 7$

Compute MAC:

$$MAC = (15 + 7) \bmod 17 = 22 \bmod 17 = 5$$

Attackers scenario: Suppose attacker's changes message to $M' = 10$ but does not known K

Read MAC m' is:

$$MAC' = (10 + 7) \bmod 17 = 17 \bmod 17 = 0$$

Why forging is easy (Explain):

Because MAC is linear: $MAC = M + K \pmod{17}$
 if, attacker knows one valid pair (M, MAC) and wants to create $M' = M + 1$, they can compute $MAC' = 5 + 12 = 17 = 0$, which matches the true MAC.

Conclusion: This MAC is insecure it is trivially forgeable because it $\&$ has linear relation with the message.

PT-21016

Q-32 Ans:

TLS Handshake steps and symmetric key establishment:

1. Client Hello: Client sends supported TLS version, cipher suites, random numbers.
2. ServerHello: Server selects TLS version, and cipher suite sends its random number
3. Server certificate: Contains server's public key signed by CA for Authentication,
4. key Exchange → • RSA Mode
• ECDHE / DHE mode
5. Pre-Master Secret: → Master secret
6. Session key: From master secret
7. finished Messages → Both parties send encrypted "finished" message to confirm the handshake.

Q-33 Ans:

SSH refers to "secure shell" is a protocol that provides a secure channel over an unsecured network. It has a layered architecture consisting of three main layers.

1. Transport Layer Protocol:

This is the lowest layer, responsible for managing the secure connection;

- Handles encryption
- Integrity protection
- compression

2. User Authentication Protocol:

This layer runs on top of the transport layer and handles client authentication.

3. Connection Protocol:

Multiplexes the encrypted channel into multiple logical channels. This is the highest layer.

CT-2101b

Q-34 Ans:

TLS handshake process steps:

1. Client Hello \rightarrow proposes connection parameters
2. Server Hello \rightarrow Proposes connection parameter
3. Certificate \rightarrow proposed comm and key exchange
4. Generate Master secret
5. Generate session keys
6. Finished Messages
7. Secure communication.

Q-35 Ans:

The general form of an elliptic curve equation over a finite field is:

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$$

Here, p is a large prime number that defines the finite field, and a and b are constants such that

$$4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0 \pmod{p}$$

ensures no singularities

Use in cryptography:

Provides a group structure for Elliptic curve cryptography (ECC), enabling secure key exchange, signature and encryption with smaller keys.

Q-36 Ans:

Elliptic curve cryptography (ECC) is a public key cryptography technique that provides the same cryptographic strength as RSA but with much smaller key sizes. The main reason lies in the underlying mathematical problems.

Mathematical Foundation:

→ RSA is based on the Integer factorization problem (IFP)

→ Ece is based on the Elliptic Curve ECDLP.

Key Size Comparison:

- ECC 256-bit \approx RSA 3072-bit security level
- ECC 384-bit \approx RSA 7680-bit security level

Conclusion:

ECC provides strong security with reduced key sizes due to the computational hardness of the ECDLP compared to integer.

Q-37 Ans

Given that,

$$\text{curve: } y^2 \equiv x^3 + 2x + 3 \pmod{97}$$

$$\text{point: } P = (3, 6)$$

$$\text{LHS} = y^2 = 6^2 = 36 \pmod{97}$$

$$\text{RHS} = x^3 + 2x + 3 = 27 + 6 + 3 = 36 \pmod{97}$$

Since,

$LHS = RHS$ - point lies on the curve.

Q-38 Ans.

To compute the ElGamal ciphertext, we use the following public values :

$p=23$, $g=5$, $h=8$, and the message $m=10$, The random number is $k=6$.

The ciphertext consist of two points (c_1, c_2)

c_1 computation:

$$c_1 = g^k \pmod{p}$$

$$c_1 = 5^6 \pmod{23}$$

$$5^2 = 25 \equiv 2 \pmod{23}$$

$$5^4 = (5^2)^2 = 2^2 = 4 \pmod{23}$$

$$5^6 = 5^4 \times 5^2 = 4 \times 2 = 8 \pmod{23}$$

$$\text{So, } c_1 = 8$$

c_2 computation: $c_2 = m \times h^k \pmod{p}$

First, we calculate h^k : $h^k = 8^6 \pmod{23}$

$$= 8^2 = 64 = 2 \times 23 + 18 \equiv 18 \pmod{23}$$

$$8^4 = (8^2)^2 = 18^2 = 324 = 14 \times 23 + 2 \equiv 2 \pmod{23}$$

$$8^6 = 8^4 \times 8^2 = 2 \times 18 = 36 = 12 \times 23 + 12 \equiv 12 \pmod{23}$$

$$c_2 = 10 \times 12 \pmod{23} = 120 \pmod{23}$$

$$120 = 5 \times 23 + 15 \equiv 15 \pmod{23}$$

$$\text{So, } c_2 = 15 \quad \boxed{c_1, c_2 = (8, 15)}$$