

INFORMATION SECURITY SECURITY ATTACKS & THREATS

PART 1: INFORMATION SECURITY

1. Definition of Information Security

Definition

Information Security (InfoSec) is the practice of **protecting information and information systems from unauthorized access, use, disclosure, disruption, modification, or destruction** to ensure **Confidentiality, Integrity, and Availability**.

Formal Definition (ISO/IEC 27001)

“Preservation of confidentiality, integrity, and availability of information; in addition, other properties such as authenticity, accountability, non-repudiation, and reliability may also be involved.”

2. Core Concepts of Information Security

2.1 What is Information?

Information includes:

- Digital data (files, databases, emails)
 - Physical data (documents, blueprints)
 - Intellectual property
 - Personal Identifiable Information (PII)
 - Financial records
 - Medical data
-

2.2 Information Security vs Cyber Security vs Network Security

Aspect	Information Security	Cyber Security	Network Security
Scope	All information	Digital assets	Network traffic
Medium	Digital + Physical	Digital only	Networks
Focus	CIA Triad	Cyber threats	Network attacks

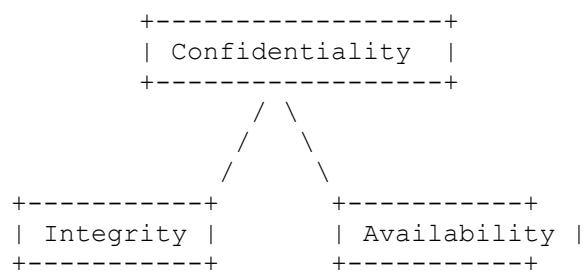
☞ **Exam Tip:** Information Security is the **umbrella discipline**.

3. Goals of Information Security

1. Protect organizational assets
 2. Maintain trust and reputation
 3. Ensure business continuity
 4. Meet legal and regulatory compliance
 5. Prevent financial losses
-

4. CIA Triad (Core Pillar of Information Security)

4.1 CIA Triad Overview



4.2 Confidentiality

☞ **Definition**

Ensuring that **information is accessible only to authorized users**.

Techniques

- Encryption (AES, RSA)
- Access Control Lists (ACLs)
- Authentication (Passwords, MFA)
- Data masking

Real-World Example

- Patient medical records accessible only to doctors
- Bank customer data protected via encryption

Failure Example

- Data breach exposing customer credit card details
-

4.3 Integrity

Definition

Ensuring that **data is accurate, complete, and unaltered**.

Techniques

- Hashing (SHA-256)
- Digital Signatures
- Checksums
- Version control

Real-World Example

- Software updates verified using hash values
- Financial transaction records protected from tampering

Failure Example

- Hacker modifies transaction amount in database
-

4.4 Availability

Definition

Ensuring systems and data are accessible when required.

Techniques

- Redundancy
- Load balancing
- Backups
- Disaster recovery plans

Real-World Example

- Online banking services available 24/7
- Cloud services with failover mechanisms

Failure Example

- DDoS attack taking down a website
-

5. Extended Security Concepts (Beyond CIA)

Concept	Description
Authentication	Verifying identity
Authorization	Granting permissions
Accountability	Tracking user actions
Non-Repudiation	Preventing denial of actions
Authenticity	Verifying data source

PART 2: SECURITY THREATS & ATTACKS

6. Security Threats – Definition

⚠ Definition

A **security threat** is any **potential danger** that can exploit a vulnerability and cause harm to information assets.

❖ Threat ≠ Attack

- Threat → Possibility
 - Attack → Actual exploitation
-

7. Types of Security Threats

7.1 Natural Threats

- Earthquakes
- Floods
- Fire
- Power failures

❖ Mitigation: DR site, backups, UPS

7.2 Human Threats

a) *Unintentional*

- Accidental deletion
- Misconfiguration
- Weak passwords

b) *Intentional (Malicious)*

- Hackers
 - Insider threats
 - Cyber criminals
-

7.3 Environmental Threats

- Hardware failure
 - Overheating
 - Network outages
-

8. Security Attacks – Definition

💧 Definition

A **security attack** is a **deliberate attempt** to compromise CIA triad.

9. Classification of Security Attacks

9.1 Passive Attacks

- Do not modify data
- Hard to detect

Examples:

- Eavesdropping
- Traffic analysis
- Sniffing

❖ Target: Confidentiality

9.2 Active Attacks

- Modify or disrupt data
- Easier to detect

Examples:

- DoS
- Man-in-the-Middle
- Data modification

❖ Target: Integrity & Availability

10. Types of Security Attacks (Detailed)

10.1 Malware Attacks

Type	Description
Virus	Attaches to files
Worm	Self-replicating
Trojan	Disguised malware
Ransomware	Encrypts data
Spyware	Steals information
Rootkit	Hides attacker presence

10.2 Network-Based Attacks

- Sniffing
 - Spoofing (IP, ARP, DNS)
 - Session hijacking
 - Man-in-the-Middle (MITM)
 - DDoS
-

10.3 Application-Level Attacks

- SQL Injection
 - Cross-Site Scripting (XSS)
 - Cross-Site Request Forgery (CSRF)
 - Buffer Overflow
-

10.4 Authentication Attacks

- Brute force

- Dictionary attack
 - Credential stuffing
 - Password spraying
-

10.5 Social Engineering Attacks

- Phishing
- Spear phishing
- Vishing
- Smishing
- Pretexting

❖ Most dangerous because it targets humans

11. Threat Actors

Actor	Motivation
Script Kiddies	Curiosity
Hacktivists	Ideology
Cyber Criminals	Financial gain
Insider Threats	Revenge / Negligence
Nation-State Actors	Espionage / Warfare
Terrorist Groups	Disruption

12. Attack Vectors

Definition

An **attack vector** is the **path or method used to gain unauthorized access**.

Common Attack Vectors

- Email attachments
- Malicious websites

- USB devices
 - Open ports
 - Weak credentials
 - Software vulnerabilities
-

13. Security Controls & Countermeasures

13.1 Administrative Controls

- Security policies
 - Training and awareness
 - Risk management
 - Incident response plan
-

13.2 Technical Controls

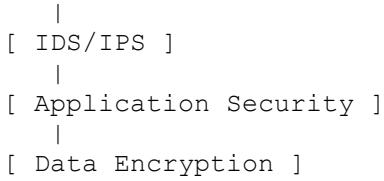
- Firewalls
 - IDS / IPS
 - Antivirus
 - Encryption
 - MFA
-

13.3 Physical Controls

- CCTV
 - Biometric access
 - Security guards
 - Locks
-

14. Defense-in-Depth Strategy

```
[ User ]  
|  
[ Authentication ]  
|  
[ Firewall ]
```



15. Real-World Case Studies

Case Study 1: WannaCry Ransomware (2017)

- Exploited SMB vulnerability
 - Affected 200,000+ systems
 - Hospitals, banks impacted
 - Lesson: Patch management is critical
-

Case Study 2: Equifax Data Breach (2017)

- 147 million records leaked
 - Unpatched Apache Struts vulnerability
 - Lesson: Vulnerability management failure
-

Case Study 3: SolarWinds Attack (2020)

- Supply chain attack
 - Malicious update injected
 - Lesson: Trust but verify third-party software
-

16. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- CIA Triad is foundation of InfoSec
- Passive vs Active attacks
- Threat ≠ Vulnerability ≠ Attack
- Human factor is weakest link
- Defense-in-depth is essential
- Insider threats are highly dangerous

17. Common Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. What is Information Security?

A: Protection of information assets to ensure confidentiality, integrity, and availability.

Q2. Difference between Threat and Attack?

A: Threat is potential danger; attack is actual exploitation.

Q3. What is the CIA Triad?

A: Confidentiality, Integrity, Availability.

Q4. What is social engineering?

A: Psychological manipulation to trick users into revealing information.

Q5. Why insider threats are dangerous?

A: Insiders already have legitimate access.

Q6. What is Defense-in-Depth?

A: Layered security approach to protect systems.

18. One-Line Revision Notes

- InfoSec protects data and systems
- CIA Triad = Core security principle
- Humans are weakest security link
- Malware, network, and social attacks are common
- Prevention + Detection + Response = Security lifecycle

SESSION 2

BASIC ENCRYPTION CONCEPTS

FILE ENCRYPTION

ENCRYPTING FOLDERS (GRAPHICAL & USING CIPHER COMMAND)

PART 1: BASIC ENCRYPTION CONCEPTS

1. Introduction to Encryption

Definition

Encryption is the process of **converting readable data (plaintext)** into an **unreadable format (ciphertext)** using a **cryptographic algorithm and a key**, so that only authorized entities can access it.

```
Plaintext + Encryption Algorithm + Key  
          ↓  
          Ciphertext
```

2. Why Encryption is Needed

- Protect sensitive data at rest and in transit
 - Prevent unauthorized access
 - Ensure confidentiality
 - Meet legal and compliance requirements (GDPR, HIPAA, PCI-DSS)
 - Secure cloud, disk, file, and network communications
-

3. Core Terminology in Encryption

Term	Meaning
Plaintext	Original readable data
Ciphertext	Encrypted unreadable data
Encryption Algorithm	Mathematical process
Key	Secret value used for encryption/decryption
Decryption	Converting ciphertext back to plaintext
Key Length	Size of cryptographic key (128-bit, 256-bit)

4. Encryption vs Encoding vs Hashing (VERY IMPORTANT)

4.1 Comparison Table

Feature	Encryption	Encoding	Hashing
Purpose	Security	Data representation	Integrity
Reversible	Yes (with key)	Yes	No
Uses Key	Yes	No	No
Example	AES, RSA	Base64, ASCII	SHA-256
Output Size	Variable	Predictable	Fixed

❖ Exam Favorite Question

4.2 Encryption

- Protects confidentiality
- Requires secret key
- Used for files, disks, communication

Example:

Hello → (AES + Key) → X7#09\$!

4.3 Encoding

- Used for compatibility and transmission
- NOT for security

Example:

Hello → Base64 → SGVsbG8=

4.4 Hashing

- One-way function
- Used for password storage and integrity checking

Example:

Password → SHA-256 → a94a8fe5...

5. Types of Encryption

5.1 Symmetric Encryption

- Same key for encryption and decryption
- Fast and efficient
- Used for file and disk encryption

Examples:

- AES
 - DES
 - 3DES
-

5.2 Asymmetric Encryption

- Public key + Private key
- Slower
- Used for key exchange

Examples:

- RSA
 - ECC
-

❖ File and Folder Encryption mainly uses SYMMETRIC encryption

PART 2: FILE ENCRYPTION

6. What is File Encryption?

Definition

File Encryption is the process of encrypting individual files so that **only authorized users can open, read, or modify them.**

File → Encryption → Encrypted File

7. File Encryption Mechanisms

7.1 Application-Level Encryption

- Encrypts individual files
- Example: EFS (Windows), GPG

7.2 File System-Level Encryption

- Encryption handled by OS
- Transparent to user
- Example: NTFS EFS

7.3 Disk-Level Encryption (Comparison)

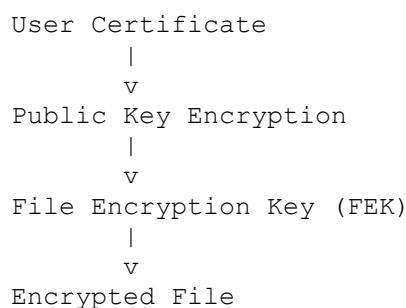
- Encrypts entire disk
 - Example: BitLocker, LUKS
-

8. Windows Encrypting File System (EFS)

8.1 Overview

- Built into NTFS
 - Uses symmetric encryption (AES)
 - File Encryption Key (FEK) generated per file
 - FEK encrypted using user's public key
-

8.2 EFS Architecture



8.3 Features of EFS

- Transparent encryption
 - Automatic encryption/decryption
 - User-based access
 - Integrated with Windows security
-

9. File Encryption – Graphical Method (Windows)

Steps:

1. Right-click file → Properties
2. Advanced
3. Check **Encrypt contents to secure data**
4. Apply

❖ Folder encryption encrypts all files inside.

10. Security Implications of File Encryption

Advantages

- Protects data even if stolen
- Prevents unauthorized access
- Transparent to user

Risks

- Loss of encryption certificate = data loss
 - Malware running under user context can access data
 - Not effective against insider misuse
-

PART 3: ENCRYPTING FOLDERS USING CIPHER COMMAND

11. What is `cipher` Command?

Definition

`cipher` is a Windows command-line utility used to **encrypt or decrypt files and folders on NTFS volumes** using EFS.

12. Cipher Command Syntax

`cipher [options] [path]`

13. Common Cipher Command Options

Option	Description
/e	Encrypt
/d	Decrypt
/s	Include subdirectories
/a	Encrypt files
/c	Continue on errors
/w	Wipe free disk space
/x	Backup encryption certificate

14. Encrypting a Folder Using Cipher

Example:

`cipher /e /s:"C:\SecureData"`

Explanation (Line by Line):

- `/e` → Enables encryption
 - `/s:` → Applies recursively to subfolders
 - `"C:\SecureData"` → Target directory
-

15. Encrypting a Single File

`cipher /e "C:\SecureData\secret.txt"`

16. Decrypting Files/Folders

```
cipher /d /s:"C:\SecureData"
```

17. Backing Up EFS Certificate (CRITICAL)

```
cipher /x
```

❖ If certificate is lost → data is unrecoverable

18. Wiping Free Space (Security Feature)

```
cipher /w:C:
```

- Overwrites deleted data
 - Prevents forensic recovery
-

19. Graphical vs Cipher Method (Comparison)

Feature	Graphical Cipher Command	
Ease of Use	Easy	Moderate
Automation	No	Yes
Scripting	No	Yes
Bulk Encryption	Limited	Excellent

PART 4: PERFORMANCE & USABILITY CONSIDERATIONS

20. Performance Impact

Factor	Impact
CPU Usage	Slight increase
Disk I/O	Minimal
Large Files	Noticeable delay

Factor	Impact
SSD	Lower impact

21. Usability Considerations

- Transparent encryption (no manual decrypt)
 - User-based access can cause confusion
 - Certificate management is critical
 - Backup policies must include encrypted files
-

PART 5: COMMON MISTAKES & TROUBLESHOOTING

22. Common Mistakes

1. Not backing up EFS certificate
 2. Encrypting system folders
 3. Assuming encryption protects against malware
 4. Forgetting encryption after OS reinstall
 5. Encrypting files on FAT/FAT32 (Not supported)
-

23. Troubleshooting Issues

Issue: Cipher command fails

- ✓ Check NTFS file system
 - ✓ Ensure user permissions
-

Issue: Files inaccessible after OS reinstall

- ✓ Restore encryption certificate
 - ✗ If certificate lost → data lost permanently
-

Issue: Other users can't access files

- ✓ EFS is user-specific
 - ✓ Use Data Recovery Agent (DRA)
-

24. Real-World Use Case

Corporate Laptop Security

- Employee encrypts sensitive project files
 - Laptop stolen
 - Attacker cannot access encrypted files
 - Business data remains secure
-

PART 6: EXAM & INTERVIEW ORIENTED CONTENT

25. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- Encryption ≠ Encoding ≠ Hashing
 - EFS uses symmetric encryption + public key protection
 - Cipher command works only on NTFS
 - Certificate backup is mandatory
 - File encryption protects data at rest
-

26. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Difference between encryption and hashing?

A: Encryption is reversible with key; hashing is irreversible.

Q2. What is EFS?

A: Windows feature for encrypting files using NTFS.

Q3. What happens if EFS certificate is lost?

A: Encrypted data becomes unrecoverable.

Q4. Purpose of cipher /w?

A: Securely wipes free disk space.

Q5. Can encrypted files be copied?

A: Yes, but encryption may be removed depending on destination file system.

27. One-Line Revision Notes

- Encryption ensures confidentiality
- EFS is file-level encryption
- Cipher command enables CLI encryption
- Backup certificates always
- Encryption ≠ Malware protection

SESSION 3

CRYPTOGRAPHIC FUNDAMENTALS

SYMMETRIC & ASYMMETRIC CIPHERS

CRYPTOGRAPHIC PROTOCOLS

PART 1: CRYPTOGRAPHIC FUNDAMENTALS

1. What is Cryptography?

Definition

Cryptography is the science of **securing information** by transforming it using **mathematical algorithms and keys** to ensure:

- Confidentiality
- Integrity
- Authentication
- Non-repudiation

❖ Difference from Encryption

Encryption is a **tool**; Cryptography is the **science** behind it.

2. Goals of Cryptography

Goal	Meaning
Confidentiality	Prevent unauthorized access
Integrity	Detect unauthorized modification
Authentication	Verify identity
Non-repudiation	Prevent denial of actions

3. Mathematical Foundations of Cryptography

3.1 Number Theory (Core of Cryptography)

a) Prime Numbers

- Numbers divisible only by 1 and itself
- Example: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11

❖ Used heavily in RSA

b) Modular Arithmetic

$a \bmod n = \text{remainder}$
Example: $17 \bmod 5 = 2$

Used in:

- Key generation
 - Encryption & decryption
-

c) *One-Way Functions*

- Easy to compute
- Hard to reverse

Example:

- Multiplication (easy)
 - Factorization (hard)
-

d) *Trapdoor Functions*

- One-way without secret
- Easy to reverse with secret

Example:

- RSA private key
-

3.2 Probability & Randomness

- Secure key generation requires **true randomness**
- Weak randomness = weak encryption

Sources:

- Hardware RNG
 - OS entropy pools
-

3.3 Computational Complexity

Problem	Status
Factoring large primes	Hard
Discrete logarithm	Hard
Brute force AES-256	Infeasible

PART 2: SYMMETRIC KEY CRYPTOGRAPHY

4. Symmetric Encryption – Concept

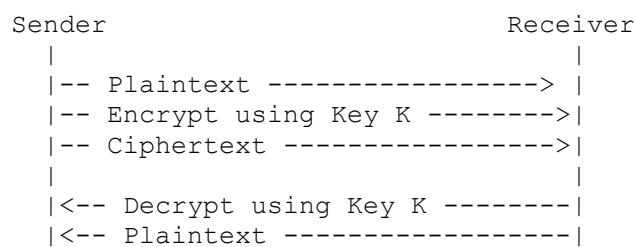
Definition

Same secret key is used for:

- Encryption
- Decryption

Plaintext → Encrypt (Key K) → Ciphertext
Ciphertext → Decrypt (Key K) → Plaintext

5. Symmetric Cipher Workflow (ASCII Diagram)



6. Types of Symmetric Ciphers

6.1 Block Ciphers

- Encrypt fixed-size blocks (64/128 bits)

Examples:

- DES (64-bit)
 - AES (128-bit)
 - 3DES
-

6.2 Stream Ciphers

- Encrypt bit-by-bit
- Faster

Examples:

- RC4 (deprecated)
 - ChaCha20
-

7. AES (Advanced Encryption Standard)

Key Features

- Block size: 128 bits
 - Key sizes: 128 / 192 / 256 bits
 - Substitution–Permutation Network
-

AES Internal Rounds

Key Size Rounds

128	10
192	12
256	14

8. Strengths & Weaknesses of Symmetric Ciphers

Strengths

- Fast
- Efficient for large data
- Strong security

Weaknesses

- Key distribution problem
 - Scalability issues
-

PART 3: ASYMMETRIC KEY CRYPTOGRAPHY

9. Asymmetric Encryption – Concept

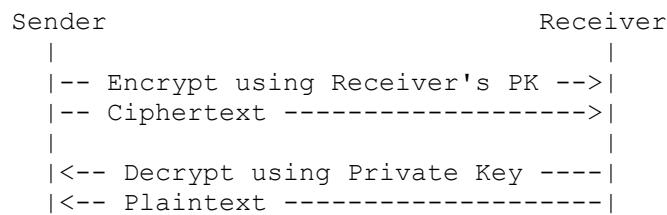
Definition

Uses **two mathematically related keys**:

- Public Key (shared)
- Private Key (secret)

Public Key \neq Private Key

10. Asymmetric Cipher Workflow



11. RSA Cryptosystem (Mathematical Overview)

Key Generation Steps

1. Choose two large primes p and q
2. Compute:

$$\begin{aligned} n &= p \times q \\ \varphi(n) &= (p-1)(q-1) \end{aligned}$$

3. Choose public key e
4. Compute private key d :

$$d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(n)}$$

Encryption

$$C = M^e \pmod{n}$$

Decryption

$$M = C^d \pmod{n}$$

12. ECC (Elliptic Curve Cryptography)

Key Idea

Security based on:

Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)

Advantages

- Smaller key sizes
 - Faster
 - Less storage
-

13. Strengths & Weaknesses of Asymmetric Ciphers

Strengths

- Solves key distribution problem
- Enables digital signatures

Weaknesses

- Slower
- Computationally expensive

PART 4: CRYPTOGRAPHIC PROTOCOLS

14. What is a Cryptographic Protocol?

Definition

A **cryptographic protocol** defines:

- How algorithms are used
 - How keys are exchanged
 - How messages are protected
-

15. History of Cryptographic Protocols

Era	Protocol
1970s	Diffie-Hellman
1990s	SSL
2000s	TLS
Modern	IPsec, SSH

16. Major Cryptographic Protocols

16.1 SSL / TLS

Usage

- Secure web communication (HTTPS)
 - Email security
 - VPNs
-

TLS Handshake (Simplified)

Client → Hello (Cipher suites)
Server → Certificate + Public Key
Client → Session Key encrypted with PK
Secure Communication (AES)

Key Generation in TLS

1. Server sends public key
 2. Client generates session key
 3. Encrypts session key using RSA/ECC
 4. Secure symmetric session begins
-

Message Ciphering in TLS

- Symmetric encryption (AES)
 - MAC for integrity
 - Certificates for authentication
-

16.2 Diffie–Hellman Key Exchange

Purpose

Securely exchange keys over insecure channel

DH Workflow (ASCII)

Public values: g, p

Alice:

$$A = g^a \bmod p$$

Bob:

$$B = g^b \bmod p$$

Shared Key:

$$K = B^a \bmod p = A^b \bmod p$$

Strengths

- No key transmission
 - Perfect Forward Secrecy
-

16.3 SSH (Secure Shell)

Usage

- Secure remote login
- Secure file transfer

Encryption Process

- Asymmetric → Authentication
 - Symmetric → Session encryption
 - Hashing → Integrity
-

16.4 IPsec

Usage

- VPNs
- Secure IP communication

Modes

- Transport mode
 - Tunnel mode
-

17. Protocol-Level Encryption Process (Generic)

```
Application Data
  |
  v
Symmetric Encryption (AES)
  |
  v
Message Authentication (HMAC)
```

|
v

Packet Transmission

PART 5: SECURITY ANALYSIS

18. Cryptographic Strengths

- Strong mathematical foundations
 - Proven algorithms
 - Industry trust
-

19. Cryptographic Weaknesses

- Poor key management
 - Weak randomness
 - Implementation flaws
 - Side-channel attacks
-

20. Common Cryptographic Attacks

Attack	Target
Brute force	Weak keys
Man-in-the-middle	Key exchange
Replay attack	Protocol flaws
Side-channel	Hardware leakage

PART 6: INDUSTRY USAGE

21. Industry Applications

Sector	Usage
Banking	Transactions
Cloud	Data at rest/in transit
IoT	Device authentication
Government	Secure communications
Healthcare	Patient data

PART 7: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

22. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- Symmetric = fast, Asymmetric = secure key exchange
 - RSA based on factorization
 - ECC is future-proof
 - TLS uses hybrid encryption
 - Protocol security > Algorithm strength
-

23. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Why hybrid encryption is used?

A: Combines speed of symmetric and security of asymmetric encryption.

Q2. Why ECC preferred over RSA?

A: Smaller keys, faster, equivalent security.

Q3. Role of Diffie-Hellman?

A: Secure key exchange without transmitting keys.

Q4. Why TLS replaced SSL?

A: SSL had multiple vulnerabilities.

24. One-Line Revision Notes

- Cryptography = Math + Algorithms
- Symmetric is fast
- Asymmetric enables trust
- Protocols define usage
- Implementation matters more than theory

SESSION 4

SYMMETRIC & ASYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS

PART 1: SYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS

1. Overview of Symmetric Encryption

Definition

Symmetric encryption uses the **same secret key** for both **encryption and decryption**.

Plaintext + Secret Key → Ciphertext
Ciphertext + Secret Key → Plaintext

Key Characteristics

- Fast
 - Efficient for bulk data
 - Key distribution is a challenge
-

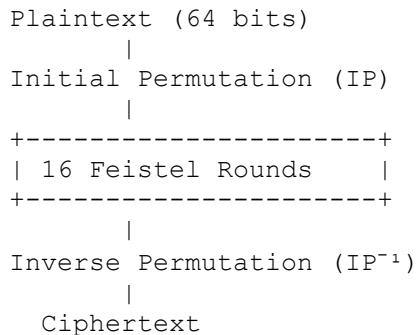
DES – DATA ENCRYPTION STANDARD

2. DES Overview

Property	Value
Developed By IBM	
Standardized	1977 (NIST)
Cipher Type	Block cipher
Block Size	64 bits
Key Size	56 bits (64 including parity)
Structure	Feistel Network
Rounds	16

3. DES Algorithm Internals

3.1 DES Architecture (Feistel Structure)



3.2 DES Round Function

$$\begin{aligned} L_i &= R_{i-1} \\ R_i &= L_{i-1} \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_i) \end{aligned}$$

Where:

- K_i = Round key
 - F = DES round function
-

3.3 DES Round Function Components

1. Expansion ($32 \rightarrow 48$ bits)
 2. XOR with round key
 3. Substitution (S-Boxes)
 4. Permutation (P-Box)
-

4. DES Encryption / Decryption Steps

Encryption

1. Initial permutation
2. Split into L₀ and R₀
3. Apply 16 Feistel rounds
4. Swap halves
5. Inverse permutation

Decryption

- Same process
 - Round keys applied in **reverse order**
-

5. DES Security Analysis

Strengths

- Simple structure
- Historically important

Weaknesses

- 56-bit key → brute-force feasible
- Susceptible to differential cryptanalysis

❖ DES is deprecated

AES – ADVANCED ENCRYPTION STANDARD

6. AES Overview

Property	Value
Standard	2001 (NIST)
Cipher Type	Block cipher
Block Size	128 bits
Key Sizes	128 / 192 / 256 bits
Structure	Substitution-Permutation Network
Rounds	10 / 12 / 14

7. AES Algorithm Internals

7.1 AES State Matrix

Plaintext → 4x4 Byte Matrix (State)

7.2 AES Encryption Rounds

Each round consists of:

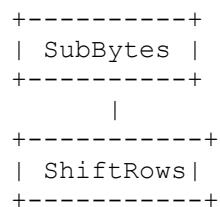
1. SubBytes
2. ShiftRows
3. MixColumns
4. AddRoundKey

Initial Round: AddRoundKey

Main Rounds: SubBytes → ShiftRows → MixColumns → AddRoundKey

Final Round: SubBytes → ShiftRows → AddRoundKey

7.3 AES Round Diagram



+-----+	MixColumns
+-----+	
+-----+	AddRoundKey
+-----+	

8. AES Encryption / Decryption

Encryption

- Uses round keys generated from key schedule
- Each round transforms state matrix

Decryption

- Uses inverse operations:
 - InvSubBytes
 - InvShiftRows
 - InvMixColumns

9. AES Security Analysis

Strengths

- Strong key sizes
- Resistant to known cryptanalysis
- Hardware acceleration available

Weaknesses

- Side-channel attacks (timing, power)
- Weak key management can break security

❖ AES is current industry standard

❖ RC5 – RIVEST CIPHER 5

10. RC5 Overview

Property	Value
Designed By	Ron Rivest
Cipher Type	Block cipher
Block Size	32 / 64 / 128 bits
Key Size	Variable (0–2040 bits)
Rounds	Variable
Structure	Data-dependent rotations

11. RC5 Algorithm Internals

Core Operations

- XOR
 - Modular addition
 - Data-dependent rotations
-

RC5 Encryption Formula

$$\begin{aligned} A &= A + B \\ A &= A \lll B \\ A &= A \oplus S[i] \end{aligned}$$

12. RC5 Encryption / Decryption

Encryption

- Uses expanded key table
- Multiple rounds of mixing

Decryption

- Reverse operations
 - Modular subtraction and rotations
-

13. RC5 Security Analysis

Strengths

- Flexible parameters
- Simple design

Weaknesses

- Less analyzed than AES
- Not widely standardized

PART 2: ASYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS

RSA – RIVEST SHAMIR ADLEMAN

14. RSA Overview

Property	Value
Type	Public-key cryptosystem
Security Basis	Integer factorization
Key Sizes	1024 – 4096 bits
Usage	Encryption, Digital signatures

15. RSA Algorithm Internals

15.1 Key Generation Steps

1. Choose primes p, q
2. Compute:

$$\begin{aligned} n &= p \times q \\ \varphi(n) &= (p-1)(q-1) \end{aligned}$$

3. Choose e such that $\gcd(e, \varphi)=1$

4. Compute d :

$$d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$$

15.2 RSA Encryption

Ciphertext $C = M^e \pmod{n}$

15.3 RSA Decryption

Plaintext $M = C^d \pmod{n}$

16. RSA Security Analysis

Strengths

- Well-studied
- Widely used

Weaknesses

- Large key sizes
 - Vulnerable to quantum attacks
 - Slow performance
-

ECC – ELLIPTIC CURVE CRYPTOGRAPHY

17. ECC Overview

Property	Value
Security Basis	Elliptic Curve Discrete Log
Key Size	Small (256 bits)
Performance	Fast
Usage	TLS, Mobile, IoT

18. ECC Mathematical Foundation

Elliptic Curve Equation:

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

Operations:

- Point addition
 - Scalar multiplication
-

19. ECC Encryption / Decryption

Key Generation

- Private key: random integer
- Public key: private key \times generator point

Encryption

- Uses ECIES (Elliptic Curve Integrated Encryption Scheme)
-

20. ECC Security Analysis

Strengths

- Strong security per bit
- Low computational cost
- Efficient for constrained devices

Weaknesses

- Complex mathematics
 - Implementation sensitive
-

PART 3: COMPARISON & PERFORMANCE

21. Symmetric vs Asymmetric Comparison

Feature	Symmetric	Asymmetric
Speed	Fast	Slow
Key Size	Small	Large
Key Distribution	Hard	Easy
Usage	Data encryption	Key exchange

22. Algorithm Comparison Table

Algorithm	Key Size	Speed	Security	Usage
DES	56	Fast	Weak	Legacy
AES	128–256	Very Fast	Strong	Standard
RC5	Variable	Fast	Medium	Limited
RSA	2048+	Slow	Strong	PKI
ECC	256	Fast	Very Strong	Modern

23. Scalability & Performance

Algorithm	Scalability
AES	Excellent
RSA	Poor for bulk
ECC	Excellent
DES	Obsolete

PART 4: SECURITY VULNERABILITIES

24. Common Vulnerabilities

- Weak key sizes
- Poor random number generation
- Side-channel attacks
- Improper padding (RSA)

25. Real-World Usage

- AES → Disk, File, VPN
 - RSA → Certificates
 - ECC → Mobile TLS
 - RC5 → Research
-

PART 5: EXAM & INTERVIEW

26. Exam Key Points

- DES is insecure
 - AES is standard
 - RSA based on factoring
 - ECC offers same security with smaller keys
-

27. Interview Questions

Q1. Why AES preferred over DES?

A: Larger key size and stronger security.

Q2. Why ECC replacing RSA?

A: Smaller keys, better performance.

28. One-Line Revision

- AES secures the world
- RSA builds trust
- ECC is the future
- DES is history

SESSION 4

SYMMETRIC & ASYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS

PART 1: SYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS

1. Overview of Symmetric Encryption

Definition

Symmetric encryption uses the **same secret key** for both **encryption and decryption**.

Plaintext + Secret Key → Ciphertext
Ciphertext + Secret Key → Plaintext

Key Characteristics

- Fast
 - Efficient for bulk data
 - Key distribution is a challenge
-

DES – DATA ENCRYPTION STANDARD

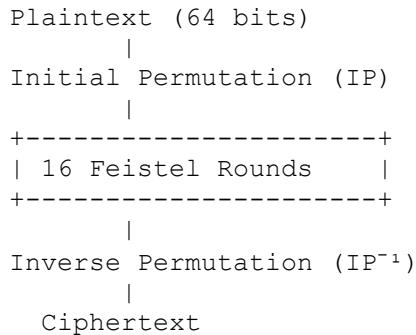
2. DES Overview

Property	Value
Developed By IBM	
Standardized	1977 (NIST)
Cipher Type	Block cipher
Block Size	64 bits
Key Size	56 bits (64 including parity)
Structure	Feistel Network

Property	Value
Rounds	16

3. DES Algorithm Internals

3.1 DES Architecture (Feistel Structure)



3.2 DES Round Function

$$\begin{aligned} L_i &= R_{i-1} \\ R_i &= L_{i-1} \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_i) \end{aligned}$$

Where:

- K_i = Round key
- F = DES round function

3.3 DES Round Function Components

1. Expansion ($32 \rightarrow 48$ bits)
2. XOR with round key
3. Substitution (S-Boxes)
4. Permutation (P-Box)

4. DES Encryption / Decryption Steps

Encryption

1. Initial permutation
2. Split into L₀ and R₀
3. Apply 16 Feistel rounds
4. Swap halves
5. Inverse permutation

Decryption

- Same process
 - Round keys applied in **reverse order**
-

5. DES Security Analysis

Strengths

- Simple structure
- Historically important

Weaknesses

- 56-bit key → brute-force feasible
- Susceptible to differential cryptanalysis

⚠ DES is deprecated

⌚ AES – ADVANCED ENCRYPTION STANDARD

6. AES Overview

Property	Value
Standard	2001 (NIST)
Cipher Type	Block cipher
Block Size	128 bits
Key Sizes	128 / 192 / 256 bits
Structure	Substitution-Permutation Network
Rounds	10 / 12 / 14

7. AES Algorithm Internals

7.1 AES State Matrix

Plaintext → 4x4 Byte Matrix (State)

7.2 AES Encryption Rounds

Each round consists of:

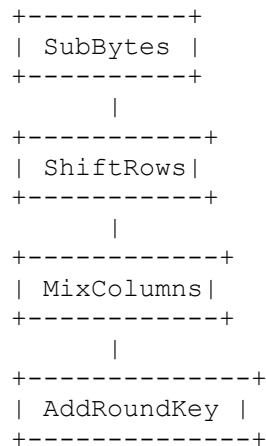
1. SubBytes
2. ShiftRows
3. MixColumns
4. AddRoundKey

Initial Round: AddRoundKey

Main Rounds: SubBytes → ShiftRows → MixColumns → AddRoundKey

Final Round: SubBytes → ShiftRows → AddRoundKey

7.3 AES Round Diagram



8. AES Encryption / Decryption

Encryption

- Uses round keys generated from key schedule
- Each round transforms state matrix

Decryption

- Uses inverse operations:
 - InvSubBytes
 - InvShiftRows
 - InvMixColumns
-

9. AES Security Analysis

Strengths

- Strong key sizes
- Resistant to known cryptanalysis
- Hardware acceleration available

Weaknesses

- Side-channel attacks (timing, power)
- Weak key management can break security

❖ AES is current industry standard

RC5 – RIVEST CIPHER 5

10. RC5 Overview

Property	Value
Designed By	Ron Rivest
Cipher Type	Block cipher
Block Size	32 / 64 / 128 bits
Key Size	Variable (0–2040 bits)
Rounds	Variable
Structure	Data-dependent rotations

11. RC5 Algorithm Internals

Core Operations

- XOR
 - Modular addition
 - Data-dependent rotations
-

RC5 Encryption Formula

```
A = A + B  
A = A <<< B  
A = A ⊕ S[i]
```

12. RC5 Encryption / Decryption

Encryption

- Uses expanded key table
- Multiple rounds of mixing

Decryption

- Reverse operations
 - Modular subtraction and rotations
-

13. RC5 Security Analysis

Strengths

- Flexible parameters
- Simple design

Weaknesses

- Less analyzed than AES
 - Not widely standardized
-

PART 2: ASYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS

RSA – RIVEST SHAMIR ADLEMAN

14. RSA Overview

Property	Value
Type	Public-key cryptosystem
Security Basis	Integer factorization
Key Sizes	1024 – 4096 bits
Usage	Encryption, Digital signatures

15. RSA Algorithm Internals

15.1 Key Generation Steps

1. Choose primes p, q
2. Compute:

$$\begin{aligned} n &= p \times q \\ \varphi(n) &= (p-1)(q-1) \end{aligned}$$

3. Choose e such that $\gcd(e, \varphi)=1$
4. Compute d :

$$d = e^{-1} \bmod \varphi(n)$$

15.2 RSA Encryption

$$\text{Ciphertext } C = M^e \bmod n$$

15.3 RSA Decryption

$$\text{Plaintext } M = C^d \bmod n$$

16. RSA Security Analysis

Strengths

- Well-studied
- Widely used

Weaknesses

- Large key sizes
 - Vulnerable to quantum attacks
 - Slow performance
-



ECC – ELLIPTIC CURVE CRYPTOGRAPHY

17. ECC Overview

Property	Value
Security Basis	Elliptic Curve Discrete Log
Key Size	Small (256 bits)
Performance	Fast
Usage	TLS, Mobile, IoT

18. ECC Mathematical Foundation

Elliptic Curve Equation:

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

Operations:

- Point addition
 - Scalar multiplication
-

19. ECC Encryption / Decryption

Key Generation

- Private key: random integer
- Public key: private key \times generator point

Encryption

- Uses ECIES (Elliptic Curve Integrated Encryption Scheme)
-

20. ECC Security Analysis

Strengths

- Strong security per bit
- Low computational cost
- Efficient for constrained devices

Weaknesses

- Complex mathematics
 - Implementation sensitive
-

PART 3: COMPARISON & PERFORMANCE

21. Symmetric vs Asymmetric Comparison

Feature	Symmetric	Asymmetric
Speed	Fast	Slow
Key Size	Small	Large
Key Distribution	Hard	Easy
Usage	Data encryption	Key exchange

22. Algorithm Comparison Table

Algorithm	Key Size	Speed	Security	Usage
DES	56	Fast	Weak	Legacy
AES	128–256	Very Fast	Strong	Standard
RC5	Variable	Fast	Medium	Limited
RSA	2048+	Slow	Strong	PKI

Algorithm	Key Size	Speed	Security	Usage
ECC	256	Fast	Very Strong	Modern

23. Scalability & Performance

Algorithm Scalability

AES	Excellent
RSA	Poor for bulk
ECC	Excellent
DES	Obsolete

PART 4: SECURITY VULNERABILITIES

24. Common Vulnerabilities

- Weak key sizes
 - Poor random number generation
 - Side-channel attacks
 - Improper padding (RSA)
-

25. Real-World Usage

- AES → Disk, File, VPN
 - RSA → Certificates
 - ECC → Mobile TLS
 - RC5 → Research
-

PART 5: EXAM & INTERVIEW

26. Exam Key Points

- DES is insecure

-
- AES is standard
 - RSA based on factoring
 - ECC offers same security with smaller keys
-

27. Interview Questions

Q1. Why AES preferred over DES?

A: Larger key size and stronger security.

Q2. Why ECC replacing RSA?

A: Smaller keys, better performance.

28. One-Line Revision

- AES secures the world
- RSA builds trust
- ECC is the future
- DES is history

SESSION 6

PART 1: SECURE HASHING METHODS

1. What is Hashing?

Definition

Hashing is the process of converting **arbitrary-length input data** into a **fixed-length output**, called a **hash value (message digest)**, using a **hash function**.

Input (any size) → Hash Function → Fixed-size Hash

 Hashing is a **one-way** operation (non-reversible)

2. Purpose of Secure Hashing

Hashing is used to ensure:

- Data Integrity
- Authentication
- Password Protection
- Digital Signatures
- Message Authentication

❖ Hashing does **NOT** provide confidentiality

3. Hashing vs Encryption vs Encoding (Quick Recap)

Feature	Hashing	Encryption	Encoding
Reversible	✗ No	✓ Yes	✓ Yes
Uses Key	✗ No	✓ Yes	✗ No
Output Length	Fixed	Variable	Predictable
Purpose	Integrity	Confidentiality	Compatibility

4. Properties of a Secure Hash Function (VERY IMPORTANT)

A cryptographic hash function **must satisfy ALL properties below:**

4.1 Deterministic

- Same input → Same hash always

$H("hello") = H("hello")$

4.2 Fixed Output Length

- Output size is constant

Example:

- SHA-256 → 256-bit output
-

4.3 Efficient Computation

- Hash must be fast to compute
-

4.4 Pre-Image Resistance

Given a hash h , it should be computationally infeasible to find input m such that:

$$H(m) = h$$

❖ Protects passwords

4.5 Second Pre-Image Resistance

Given input m_1 , it should be infeasible to find m_2 such that:

$$H(m_1) = H(m_2)$$

4.6 Collision Resistance (CRITICAL)

It should be infeasible to find **any two different inputs** $m_1 \neq m_2$ such that:

$$H(m_1) = H(m_2)$$

❖ Stronger than second pre-image resistance

5. Collision Attacks

5.1 What is a Collision?

Two different inputs producing the same hash.

$H(A) = H(B)$, where $A \neq B$

5.2 Birthday Paradox

- Probability of collision increases faster than expected
- For an n-bit hash:

Collision probability $\approx 2^{(n/2)}$

Example:

- SHA-256 $\rightarrow 2^{128}$ operations required
-

5.3 Real-World Collision Example

Algorithm	Status
MD5	Broken
SHA-1	Broken (2017 Google attack)
SHA-256	Secure

6. Common Secure Hashing Algorithms (Overview)

Algorithm	Output Size	Status
MD5	128-bit	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Broken
SHA-1	160-bit	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Broken
SHA-2	224–512	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Secure
SHA-3	224–512	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Secure

PART 2: SHA (SECURE HASH ALGORITHM)

7. History of SHA Family

Version	Year	Notes
SHA-0	1993	Withdrawn

Version	Year	Notes
SHA-1	1995	Broken
SHA-2	2001	Widely used
SHA-3	2015	New design

8. SHA-1 (Deprecated)

Properties

- Output: 160 bits
- Vulnerable to collision attacks

☒ Not recommended for any security use

9. SHA-2 Family (Industry Standard)

SHA-2 Variants

Algorithm Output

SHA-224 224 bits

SHA-256 256 bits

SHA-384 384 bits

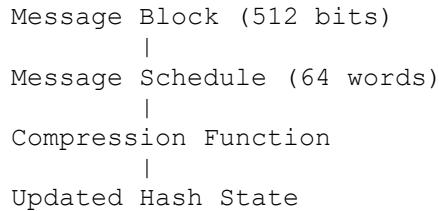
SHA-512 512 bits

10. SHA-256 Internal Workflow (Important)

10.1 High-Level Steps

1. Padding message
 2. Message parsing into blocks
 3. Initialize hash values
 4. Compression function
 5. Final hash output
-

10.2 SHA-256 Block Processing



10.3 SHA-256 Compression Loop

```

for i = 0 to 63:
    T1 = h + Σ1(e) + Ch(e,f,g) + K[i] + W[i]
    T2 = Σ0(a) + Maj(a,b,c)
    h = g
    g = f
    f = e
    e = d + T1
    d = c
    c = b
    b = a
    a = T1 + T2

```

❖ Uses:

- Bitwise operations
- Modular addition
- Logical functions

11. SHA-3 (Keccak)

Why SHA-3?

- Different internal design
- Resistant to future cryptanalytic attacks

Structure

- Sponge construction (not Merkle-Damgård)

Input → Absorb → Permute → Squeeze → Hash

12. Strengths & Weaknesses of SHA

Strengths

- Strong integrity assurance
- Resistant to brute force
- Widely supported

Weaknesses

- No authentication
 - Vulnerable if used alone for passwords
-

PART 3: HMAC (HASH-BASED MESSAGE AUTHENTICATION CODE)

13. What is HMAC?

Definition

HMAC is a mechanism that combines:

- A **cryptographic hash function**
- A **secret key**

to provide **message integrity and authentication**.

 HMAC ≠ Encryption

14. Why HMAC is Needed

Problem with plain hashing:

- Anyone can recompute hash
- No authentication

Solution:

- Secret key ensures authenticity
-

15. HMAC Construction (VERY IMPORTANT)

Formula

$$\text{HMAC}(K, M) = H(K \oplus \text{opad} || H(K \oplus \text{ipad} || M))$$

Where:

- K = Secret key
 - M = Message
 - ipad = Inner padding
 - opad = Outer padding
-

16. HMAC Workflow (ASCII Diagram)

```
Key K
|
| -- XOR ipad --> K'
|
|           |
|           Message M
|
|           |
|           H(K' || M)
|
| -- XOR opad --> K''
|
|           |
|           H(K'' || inner_hash)
|
Final HMAC Output
```

17. HMAC with SHA (Common Combinations)

HMAC Type	Security
HMAC-SHA1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Weak
HMAC-SHA256	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Strong
HMAC-SHA512	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Very Strong

18. Security Properties of HMAC

- Message integrity
- Sender authentication
- Resistant to length extension attacks

- Secure even if hash function has minor weaknesses
-

19. HMAC vs Digital Signature

Feature	HMAC	Digital Signature
Key Type	Symmetric	Asymmetric
Non-Repudiation	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes
Speed	Fast	Slow
Usage	APIs, TLS	Legal documents

PART 4: USE CASES & APPLICATIONS

20. Hashing Use Cases

20.1 Password Storage

Password → Hash → Stored



- Salt + Hash
 - bcrypt, PBKDF2, scrypt
-

20.2 Data Integrity Verification

- Software downloads
 - File integrity checks
-

20.3 Digital Signatures

Message → Hash → Sign Hash

21. HMAC Use Cases

21.1 API Authentication

Request + Secret Key → HMAC

Used by:

- AWS
 - Google APIs
 - Payment gateways
-

21.2 TLS & SSL

- HMAC ensures message integrity
-

21.3 Secure Messaging

- Prevent message tampering
-

22. Real-World Failures Related to Hashing

22.1 MD5 in Password Storage

- Rainbow table attacks
 - Fast hashing = insecure passwords
-

22.2 SHA-1 Certificate Forgery

- Fake TLS certificates
 - Forced migration to SHA-256
-

23. Secure Implementation Strategies

Best Practices

- Never use MD5 or SHA-1
 - Always use salt with password hashing
 - Use HMAC for authentication
 - Prefer SHA-256 or SHA-3
 - Protect secret keys
-

PART 5: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

24. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- Hashing ensures integrity, not confidentiality
 - Collision resistance is critical
 - SHA-1 is broken
 - HMAC provides authentication + integrity
 - HMAC uses symmetric keys
-

25. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Why hashing is one-way?

A: Hash functions are designed to be computationally infeasible to reverse.

Q2. Why HMAC is better than plain hash?

A: It adds authentication using a secret key.

Q3. Can SHA-256 be decrypted?

A: No, hashing is irreversible.

Q4. Why salting is required?

A: To prevent rainbow table attacks.

26. One-Line Revision Notes

- Hashing = integrity
- Collision resistance is essential
- SHA-256 is industry standard
- HMAC adds authentication
- Never trust broken hashes

SESSION 7

PART 1: PUBLIC KEY INFRASTRUCTURE (PKI) FUNDAMENTALS

1. What is PKI?

Definition

Public Key Infrastructure (PKI) is a framework of hardware, software, policies, procedures, and people used to create, manage, distribute, store, and revoke digital certificates and public-key cryptography.

PKI enables:

- Secure communication
 - Authentication
 - Integrity
 - Non-repudiation
-

2. Why PKI is Required

Core Problems PKI Solves

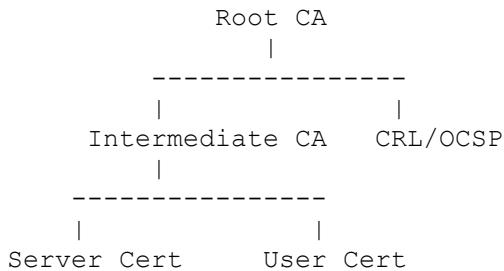
- How do we **trust a public key**?
- How do we **bind identity to a key**?
- How do we **revoke compromised keys**?

❖ Without PKI, public-key cryptography **cannot scale securely**

3. Core Components of PKI

Component	Role
Certificate Authority (CA)	Issues & signs certificates
Registration Authority (RA)	Verifies identity
Digital Certificate	Binds identity to public key
Certificate Repository	Stores certificates & CRLs
CRL / OCSP	Certificate revocation
End Entities	Users, servers, devices

4. PKI Architecture (ASCII Diagram)



❖ **Root CA is implicitly trusted**

5. Certificate Authority (CA)

Definition

A **CA** is a trusted entity that:

- Verifies identities
- Issues certificates
- Digitally signs certificates

Types of CAs

Type	Description
Root CA	Top-level trusted authority
Intermediate CA	Delegated authority
Issuing CA	Issues end-entity certs
Private CA	Internal organizational use
Public CA	Trusted globally (DigiCert, Let's Encrypt)

6. Registration Authority (RA)

Role

- Performs **identity verification**
- Acts as intermediary between user and CA

❖ CA trusts RA for validation

7. Trust Model in PKI

7.1 Hierarchical Trust Model (Most Common)

User → Server → Intermediate CA → Root CA

- Used by SSL/TLS
 - Easy to manage
-

7.2 Web of Trust

- Used by PGP
 - Peer-based trust
 - No central authority
-

7.3 Bridge Trust Model

- Connects multiple PKIs

- Used by governments
-

PART 2: TRUST CHAINS (CHAIN OF TRUST)

8. What is a Trust Chain?

Definition

A **trust chain** is a sequence of certificates where **each certificate is signed by a higher authority**, ending at a **trusted root CA**.

9. Chain of Trust Verification (Step-by-Step)

1. Client receives server certificate
 2. Verifies server cert signature
 3. Checks Intermediate CA cert
 4. Verifies Root CA signature
 5. Root CA is trusted locally
→ Trust established
-

10. Trust Chain Failure Scenarios

- Missing intermediate certificate
- Expired certificate
- Revoked certificate
- Untrusted root CA

❖ Results in browser warnings (HTTPS errors)

PART 3: DIGITAL SIGNATURES

11. What is a Digital Signature?

❖ **Definition**

A **digital signature** is a **cryptographic mechanism** that ensures:

- **Authentication**
- **Integrity**
- **Non-repudiation**

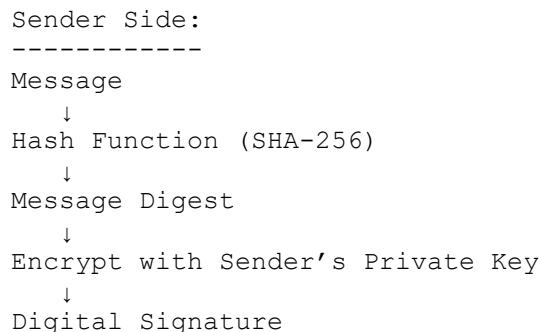
❖ Digital signature ≠ Scanned signature

12. Digital Signature vs Encryption

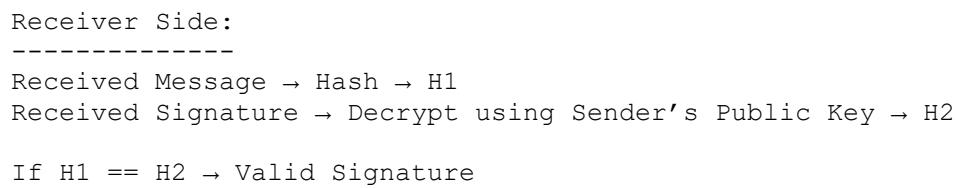
Feature	Digital Signature	Encryption
Purpose	Integrity & Auth	Confidentiality
Uses Private Key	Yes	Sometimes
Uses Hashing	Yes	No
Output	Signature	Ciphertext

13. Digital Signature Generation Process

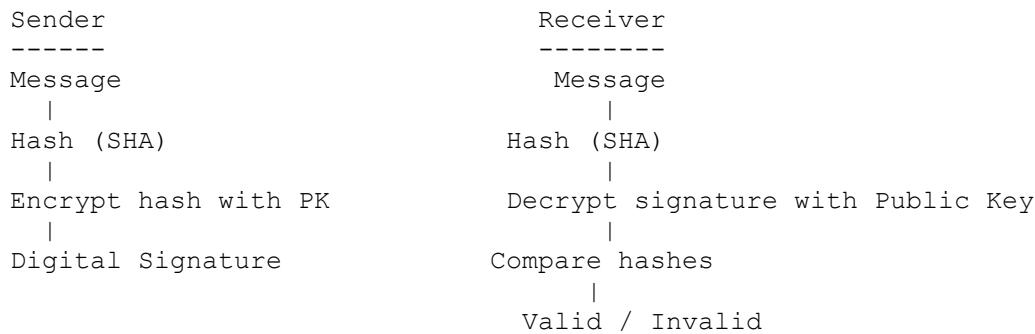
Step-by-Step (VERY IMPORTANT)



14. Digital Signature Verification Process



15. Digital Signature Workflow (ASCII Diagram)



16. Algorithms Used in Digital Signatures

Algorithm	Status
RSA	Widely used
DSA	Government use
ECDSA	Modern, efficient

17. Security Properties of Digital Signatures

Property	Achieved
Authentication	Yes
Integrity	Yes
Non-repudiation	Yes
Confidentiality	No

PART 4: DIGITAL CERTIFICATES

18. What is a Digital Certificate?

Definition

A digital certificate is an electronic document that binds:

- Identity

- Public key
- CA's digital signature

❖ Based on **X.509 standard**

19. Purpose of Digital Certificates

- Authenticate servers and users
 - Enable encrypted communication
 - Establish trust in public keys
-

20. X.509 Digital Certificate Structure

Certificate Fields (CRITICAL FOR EXAMS)

Field	Description
Version	X.509 version
Serial Number	Unique identifier
Signature Algorithm	Used by CA
Issuer	CA identity
Validity	Start & expiry
Subject	Owner identity
Subject Public Key Info	Public key
Extensions	Key usage, SAN
CA Signature	CA's digital signature

21. Certificate Structure (ASCII)

```
-----  
| Subject Name          |  
| Subject Public Key    |  
| Validity Period       |  
| Issuer Name           |  
| Extensions            |  
| CA Digital Signature  |  
-----
```

22. Types of Digital Certificates

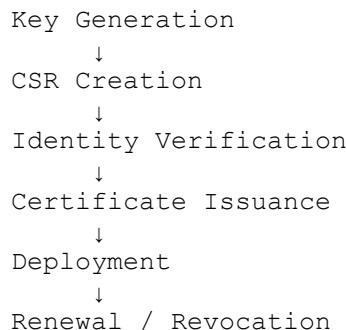
22.1 Based on Usage

Type	Usage
SSL/TLS	Secure websites
Code Signing	Software integrity
Email (S/MIME)	Secure email
Client Cert	User authentication

22.2 Based on Validation Level

Type	Validation
DV	Domain only
OV	Organization verified
EV	Extended legal validation

23. Certificate Lifecycle



24. Certificate Revocation

Why Revoke?

- Private key compromise
- Certificate misuse
- Employee exit

Revocation Methods

Method	Description
CRL	Certificate Revocation List
OCSP	Online real-time status

❖ OCSP is faster and scalable

PART 5: LEGAL & SECURITY RELEVANCE

25. Legal Validity of Digital Signatures

Legal Recognition

- IT Act 2000 (India)
- eIDAS (EU)
- ESIGN Act (USA)

❖ Digital signatures are **legally binding**

26. Security Relevance in Industry

Domain	Usage
Banking	Transactions
Government	e-Governance
Cloud	TLS & IAM
Software	Code signing
Healthcare	Data integrity

27. Real-World PKI Failures

27.1 DigiNotar Breach (2011)

- CA compromised
 - Fake certificates issued
 - CA trust revoked globally
-

27.2 Expired Certificates Outages

- Google, Microsoft, Airlines
- Caused service downtime

❖ PKI failures have **global impact**

PART 6: SECURE IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

28. PKI Best Practices

- Protect CA private keys (HSM)
 - Use strong algorithms (RSA-2048 / ECC-256)
 - Enforce certificate expiration
 - Monitor revocation
 - Avoid self-signed certs in production
-

29. Common Mistakes

- Ignoring certificate expiry
 - Hardcoding certificates
 - Trusting unknown CAs
 - Weak key sizes
-

PART 7: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

30. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- PKI = trust framework
 - Digital signatures ensure non-repudiation
 - Certificates bind identity to public key
 - Chain of trust is critical
 - CA compromise breaks trust
-

31. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Why PKI is needed if we have encryption?

A: PKI provides trust, authentication, and key validation.

Q2. What is non-repudiation?

A: Assurance that a sender cannot deny sending a message.

Q3. Difference between HMAC and Digital Signature?

A: HMAC is symmetric; digital signatures use asymmetric keys and support non-repudiation.

Q4. What happens if a Root CA is compromised?

A: Entire trust chain becomes invalid.

32. One-Line Revision Notes

- PKI builds trust
- Digital signatures prove authenticity
- Certificates bind identity & key
- Trust chain is everything
- Crypto fails if trust fails

SESSION 8

PART 1: CERTIFICATE AUTHORITY (CA)

1. What is a Certificate Authority?

Definition

A Certificate Authority (CA) is a **trusted third-party entity** that **issues, signs, manages, and revokes digital certificates**, thereby binding a **public key to a verified identity**.

❖ The CA is the **root of trust** in PKI.

2. Role & Responsibilities of a CA

Responsibility	Description
Identity Validation	Confirms identity of requester
Certificate Issuance	Generates & signs certificates
Certificate Revocation	Invalidates compromised certs
Trust Maintenance	Maintains PKI integrity
Policy Enforcement	Enforces CP & CPS

3. CA Architecture & Hierarchy

3.1 Root CA

- Top-level trusted authority
- Self-signed certificate
- Usually kept **offline**

Root CA (Offline)

3.2 Intermediate CA

- Delegated authority
- Signs end-entity certificates
- Limits impact if compromised

```
Root CA
  |
Intermediate CA
```

3.3 Issuing CA

- Directly issues certificates to users/servers
-

4. Public vs Private CAs

Feature	Public CA	Private CA
Trust Scope	Global	Organization
Cost	Paid/Free	Internal
Use Case	HTTPS websites	Enterprise PKI
Examples	DigiCert, Let's Encrypt	Microsoft AD CS

5. CA Security Importance

❖ If a CA is compromised, trust collapses

Famous CA Failures

- DigiNotar (2011)
 - Symantec trust revocation (2018)
-

PART 2: TRUST MODELS

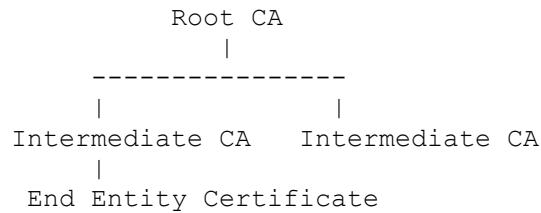
6. What is a Trust Model?

Definition

A **trust model** defines **how trust is established, verified, and propagated** between entities in PKI.

7. Hierarchical Trust Model (Most Common)

Structure



Characteristics

- Centralized trust
- Scalable
- Easy revocation control

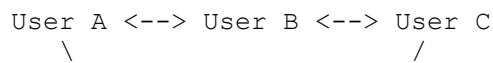
Usage

- SSL/TLS
- Enterprise PKI
- Government PKI

❖ Used by web browsers

8. Web-of-Trust Model

Structure



Characteristics

- Decentralized
- Peer-to-peer trust
- No central CA

Usage

- PGP/GPG email encryption

Limitations

- Hard to scale
 - Trust evaluation is subjective
-

9. Bridge Trust Model

Purpose

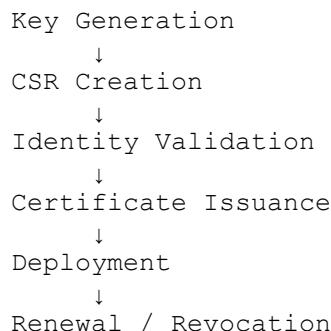
- Connects multiple PKIs
 - Used by large federated organizations
-

10. Trust Model Comparison

Feature	Hierarchical	Web-of-Trust
Trust Authority	Central CA	Peers
Scalability	High	Low
Revocation	Centralized	Difficult
Usage	Web PKI	PGP

PART 3: CERTIFICATE ISSUANCE PROCESS

11. Certificate Lifecycle Overview



12. Step-by-Step Certificate Issuance Process

12.1 Key Pair Generation

- Public key + Private key generated by requester
 - Private key **never leaves system**
-

12.2 Certificate Signing Request (CSR)

CSR Contains:

- Subject information
- Public key
- Signature using private key

☞ CSR proves **key ownership**

12.3 Identity Verification

Cert Type	Validation
DV	Domain ownership
OV	Organization identity
EV	Legal & physical verification

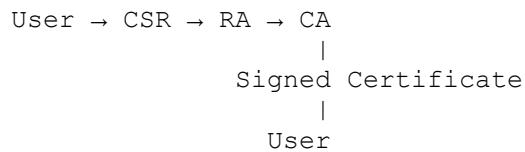
12.4 Certificate Signing

CA:
Hash Certificate Data
↓
Sign with CA Private Key
↓
Certificate Issued

12.5 Certificate Deployment

- Installed on server/user/device
 - Used in TLS handshake
-

13. Certificate Issuance Workflow (ASCII)



PART 4: CERTIFICATE REVOCATION

14. What is Certificate Revocation?

Definition

Certificate revocation is the process of **invalidating a certificate before its expiry date**.

15. Reasons for Revocation

- Private key compromise
 - Certificate misuse
 - Employee resignation
 - CA compromise
-

16. Certificate Revocation List (CRL)

16.1 What is CRL?

- Periodically published list of revoked certificates
 - Maintained by CA
-

16.2 CRL Workflow

Client → Download CRL → Check Serial Number

16.3 CRL Limitations

- Large size
 - Delayed updates
 - Scalability issues
-

17. Online Certificate Status Protocol (OCSP)

17.1 What is OCSP?

- Real-time certificate status check
 - Query-response protocol
-

17.2 OCSP Workflow

Client → OCSP Request → CA/Responder
Client ← Good / Revoked / Unknown

17.3 OCSP Stapling

- Server provides OCSP response
 - Reduces client latency
 - Improves privacy
-

18. CRL vs OCSP Comparison

Feature	CRL	OCSP
Update Type	Periodic	Real-time
Performance	Slower	Faster
Scalability	Poor	Good
Privacy	Good	Client leaks info

PART 5: TYPES & CLASSES OF CERTIFICATES

19. Types of Certificates (By Usage)

19.1 SSL/TLS Certificates

- Secure web communication
 - HTTPS
-

19.2 Client Authentication Certificates

- User identity verification
 - VPN, Wi-Fi, Zero Trust
-

19.3 Code Signing Certificates

- Software integrity
 - Prevent malware tampering
-

19.4 Email Certificates (S/MIME)

- Email encryption
 - Email signatures
-

20. Certificate Classes (By Validation Level)

20.1 Domain Validation (DV)

- Verifies domain ownership
- Fast & cheap

- No org identity
-

20.2 Organization Validation (OV)

- Verifies business identity
 - Moderate trust
-

20.3 Extended Validation (EV)

- Highest trust
 - Legal verification
 - Used for banking & finance
-

21. Certificate Comparison Table

Feature	DV	OV	EV
Validation Level	Low	Medium	High
Identity Display	No	Yes	Yes
Trust Level	Basic	Good	Very High
Cost	Low	Medium	High

PART 6: ENTERPRISE PKI USAGE

22. Enterprise PKI Overview

Definition

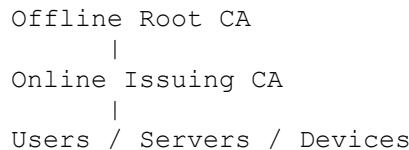
Enterprise PKI is an internal PKI used to:

- Authenticate users/devices
 - Secure internal communications
 - Enforce security policies
-

23. Enterprise PKI Use Cases

Use Case	Description
Active Directory	User authentication
VPN	Secure remote access
Wi-Fi (802.1X)	Device authentication
Email	S/MIME
Zero Trust	Identity-based access

24. Enterprise PKI Architecture



25. Benefits of Enterprise PKI

- Centralized identity management
 - Strong authentication
 - Reduced password reliance
 - Compliance support
-

PART 7: SECURITY & BEST PRACTICES

26. CA & PKI Security Best Practices

- Keep Root CA offline
 - Use HSMs
 - Enforce certificate expiry
 - Monitor revocation
 - Audit CA operations
-

27. Common Mistakes

- Long certificate validity
 - Ignoring revocation
 - Weak algorithms
 - Hardcoded certificates
-

PART 8: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

28. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- CA is root of trust
 - Hierarchical trust dominates web PKI
 - OCSP is better than CRL
 - Certificate lifecycle is critical
 - Enterprise PKI enables Zero Trust
-

29. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Difference between Root CA and Intermediate CA?

A: Root CA is ultimate trust anchor; Intermediate CA delegates authority and reduces risk.

Q2. Why OCSP is preferred over CRL?

A: Real-time validation and better scalability.

Q3. Why Enterprise PKI is important?

A: Enables secure, identity-based access across organization.

30. One-Line Revision Notes

- CA builds trust
- Trust models define validation
- Certificates prove identity
- Revocation saves security
- Enterprise PKI scales trust

SESSION 9

PART 1: AADHAAR – DIGITAL IDENTITY FRAMEWORK OF INDIA

1. What is Aadhaar?

Definition

Aadhaar is a **12-digit unique digital identity number** issued by **UIDAI (Unique Identification Authority of India)** to residents of India, based on **biometric and demographic data**.

 Aadhaar is **identity**, not citizenship.

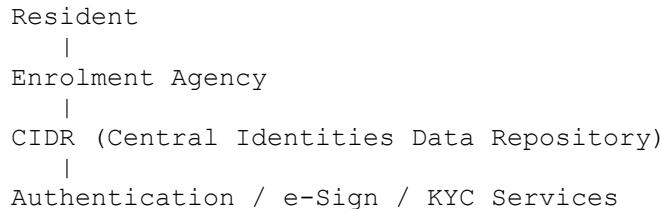
2. Objectives of Aadhaar

- Unique identity for residents
 - Prevent identity fraud
 - Enable secure digital services
 - Support Direct Benefit Transfer (DBT)
 - Facilitate paperless governance
-

3. Aadhaar Data Components

Category	Data
Demographic	Name, DOB, Address, Gender
Biometric	Fingerprints, Iris scan, Face
Aadhaar Number	12-digit unique ID

4. Aadhaar System Architecture (High Level)



❖ **CIDR is the core Aadhaar database**

5. Aadhaar Authentication Mechanisms

5.1 Types of Aadhaar Authentication

Type	Description
Demographic	Name, DOB, Address
OTP	One-Time Password
Biometric	Fingerprint / Iris
Multi-factor	Combination

5.2 Aadhaar Authentication Flow

User → Auth Request → UIDAI
UIDAI → Yes / No Response

❖ Aadhaar authentication returns **only YES/NO**, no personal data.

PART 2: e-SIGN (ELECTRONIC SIGNATURE USING AADHAAR)

6. What is e-Sign?

❖ **Definition**

e-Sign is an **online electronic signature service** in India that allows users to **digitally sign documents using Aadhaar authentication**, without needing a physical USB token or smart card.

7. Why e-Sign is Needed

Problems with traditional digital signatures:

- USB token dependency
- Installation issues
- Physical presence required

e-Sign solves:

- Paperless signing
 - Remote signing
 - Mass adoption of digital services
-

8. Legal Validity of e-Sign (CRITICAL)

Under Indian Law:

- IT Act, 2000 – Section 3A
- e-Sign is **legally equivalent to handwritten signature**
- Accepted in courts and government

❖ e-Sign = legally binding digital signature

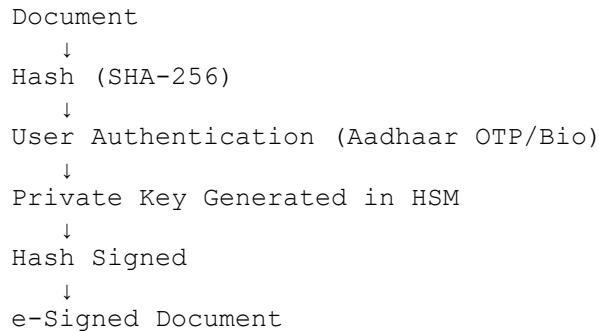
9. Cryptographic Backing of e-Sign

9.1 Core Technologies Used

Component	Technology
Identity Verification	Aadhaar Authentication
Signature Algorithm	RSA / ECDSA
Hashing	SHA-256
PKI	Licensed CA

Component	Technology
Key Storage	HSM (Hardware Security Module)

9.2 e-Sign Cryptographic Workflow



❖ **Private key is ephemeral** (generated per transaction)

10. e-Sign Process – Step by Step

1. User uploads document
 2. User authenticates via Aadhaar
 3. ASP sends request to e-Sign provider
 4. CA generates key pair in HSM
 5. Hash is digitally signed
 6. Signed document returned
-

11. Components Involved in e-Sign Ecosystem

Entity	Role
User	Signs document
ASP	Application Service Provider
UIDAI	Identity authentication
CA	Digital certificate issuer
HSM	Secure key storage

12. Security Properties of e-Sign

Property	Achieved
Authentication	✓
Integrity	✓
Non-repudiation	✓
Confidentiality	✗ (Handled separately)

13. Real-World Applications of e-Sign in India

- Income tax returns
 - GST filings
 - Bank account opening
 - Loan agreements
 - Insurance documents
 - Government portals (DigiLocker)
-

PART 3: SECURITY & PRIVACY CONCERNS (AADHAAR & e-SIGN)

14. Aadhaar Security Concerns

14.1 Data Centralization Risk

- Single large database (CIDR)
 - High-value attack target
-

14.2 Biometric Issues

- Biometrics cannot be changed
 - False positives / negatives
-

14.3 Insider Threats

- Authorized misuse
 - Data leakage
-

15. Aadhaar Privacy Concerns

- Surveillance fears
- Profiling risks
- Consent misuse

❖ Addressed by:

- Aadhaar Act amendments
 - Virtual ID (VID)
 - Limited KYC
-

16. Security Measures in Aadhaar System

- End-to-end encryption
 - Secure HSM usage
 - Minimal data disclosure
 - Regular audits
-

17. e-Sign Security Considerations

Strengths

- No long-term private key storage
- HSM-based signing
- Strong legal backing

Risks

- Compromised OTP
 - Phishing attacks
 - ASP security weaknesses
-

PART 4: TIME STAMPING SERVICES (TSS)

18. What is Time Stamping?

Definition

Time Stamping is the process of **digitally recording the exact date and time** at which a document or transaction existed, in a **tamper-proof and verifiable manner**.

 Provided by **Time Stamping Authority (TSA)**

19. Why Time Stamping is Required

- Prove document existence at a time
 - Prevent backdating or postdating
 - Legal and forensic evidence
 - Compliance and audits
-

20. Legal Validity of Time Stamping in India

- Recognized under **IT Act, 2000**
- Used in:
 - Courts
 - E-governance
 - Financial transactions

 Time stamp = **legal proof of time**

21. Cryptographic Backing of Time Stamping

Technologies Used

Component	Technology
Hashing	SHA-256
Digital Signature	RSA / ECDSA
PKI	Licensed TSA
Secure Time Source	Atomic clock / GPS

22. Time Stamping Workflow (VERY IMPORTANT)

```

Document
↓
Hash Generated
↓
Hash Sent to TSA
↓
TSA adds Trusted Time
↓
TSA signs hash + time
↓
Time Stamp Token (TST)

```

❖ TSA never sees document content – only hash.

23. Time Stamp Token (TST) Contents

- Document hash
 - Date & time
 - TSA identity
 - TSA digital signature
-

24. Verification of Time Stamp

1. Recompute document hash
 2. Compare with TST hash
 3. Verify TSA signature
 4. Validate TSA certificate
-

25. Time Stamping vs Digital Signature

Feature	Digital Signature	Time Stamping
Proves Identity	✓	✗
Proves Integrity	✓	✓
Proves Time	✗	✓
Legal Evidence	✓	✓

❖ Often used **together**

26. Real-World Applications of Time Stamping (India)

- e-Court filings
 - Stock market trades
 - Intellectual property protection
 - e-Tendering
 - Digital contracts
-

PART 5: ENTERPRISE & GOVERNMENT USAGE

27. Aadhaar + e-Sign + TSS Integration

Aadhaar → Identity
e-Sign → Consent & Signature
Time Stamp → Proof of Time

❖ Forms backbone of **Digital India**

28. Enterprise Use Cases

- HR onboarding
 - Digital agreements
 - Compliance reporting
 - Secure audit trails
-

PART 6: COMMON ISSUES & BEST PRACTICES

29. Common Issues

- OTP interception
 - User unawareness
 - Over-reliance on Aadhaar
 - Improper consent handling
-

30. Best Practices

- Use multi-factor authentication
 - Secure ASP infrastructure
 - Educate users
 - Minimize Aadhaar data usage
 - Combine with time stamping
-

PART 7: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

31. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- e-Sign is legally valid in India
 - Aadhaar uses PKI & cryptography
 - Time stamping proves existence in time
 - HSM is critical for security
 - Privacy is a major concern
-

32. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Is e-Sign legally valid in India?

A: Yes, under IT Act 2000, Section 3A.

Q2. Does UIDAI store signed documents?

A: No, only authentication responses.

Q3. Why time stamping is important?

A: It proves when a document existed.

Q4. Is Aadhaar authentication encryption-based?

A: Yes, end-to-end encrypted using PKI.

33. One-Line Revision Notes

- Aadhaar = Digital identity
 - e-Sign = Legal digital signature
 - TSS = Proof of time
 - PKI powers trust
 - Privacy must be protected
-

SESSION 10

PART 1: PUBLIC KEY CRYPTOGRAPHY STANDARDS (PKCS)

1. What is PKCS?

Definition

PKCS (Public Key Cryptography Standards) is a set of standards developed to define formats, algorithms, and protocols for implementing public-key cryptography, especially RSA-based systems.

- ❖ Originally developed by **RSA Laboratories**
- ❖ Widely adopted across **PKI, TLS, HSMs, smart cards**

2. Why PKCS Standards are Required

Problems Without Standards

- Incompatible key formats
- Vendor lock-in
- Insecure custom implementations
- Interoperability issues

PKCS Solves:

- Standardized key storage
 - Secure cryptographic operations
 - Interoperability between vendors
-

3. PKCS Family Overview

PKCS No.	Name	Purpose
PKCS #1	RSA Cryptography	RSA algorithms & padding
PKCS #3	Diffie–Hellman	Key exchange
PKCS #5	Password-Based Crypto	PBKDF
PKCS #6	Extended Cert Syntax	X.509 (historical)
PKCS #7	Cryptographic Message Syntax	Signed/encrypted messages
PKCS #8	Private Key Info	Private key storage
PKCS #9	Selected Attributes	Cert attributes
PKCS #10	CSR Syntax	Certificate requests
PKCS #11	Cryptoki API	HSM & tokens
PKCS #12	PFX/P12	Key & cert containers
PKCS #13	Elliptic Curve	EC crypto

❖ PKCS #1, #7, #8, #10, #11, #12 are exam-critical

PART 2: DETAILED PKCS STANDARDS

4. PKCS #1 – RSA Cryptography Standard

Purpose

Defines:

- RSA key formats
- RSA encryption/decryption
- Padding schemes

Key Padding Schemes

Padding	Status
PKCS#1 v1.5	Legacy
OAEP	Secure (recommended)
PSS	Secure (signatures)

❖ Padding is critical for RSA security

5. PKCS #5 – Password-Based Cryptography

Purpose

- Derive cryptographic keys from passwords

Key Function

PBKDF2(password, salt, iterations)

Usage

- Password storage
- Disk encryption
- VPNs

❖ Protects against brute-force attacks

6. PKCS #7 – Cryptographic Message Syntax (CMS)

Purpose

- Defines structure for:
 - Signed data
 - Enveloped (encrypted) data

Used In

- S/MIME emails
- Digital signatures

❖ Renamed as **CMS (RFC 5652)**

7. PKCS #8 – Private Key Information Syntax

Purpose

- Standard format for storing private keys

Features

- Can encrypt private keys
- Algorithm-agnostic

Example

-----BEGIN ENCRYPTED PRIVATE KEY-----

❖ Preferred over algorithm-specific formats

8. PKCS #10 – Certificate Signing Request (CSR)

Purpose

- Defines CSR structure

Contains

- Subject information
- Public key

- Signature using private key

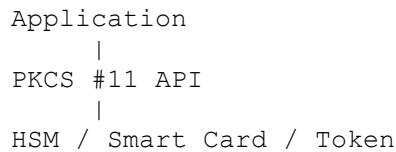
☞ Proves **key ownership**

9. PKCS #11 – Cryptoki (VERY IMPORTANT)

Definition

PKCS #11 is an **API standard** that allows applications to **use cryptographic tokens and HSMs** without knowing hardware specifics.

PKCS #11 Architecture



Supported Operations

- Key generation
- Encryption/decryption
- Digital signatures
- Key storage

☞ Keys **never leave HSM**

10. PKCS #12 – Personal Information Exchange (PFX)

Purpose

- Bundle:
 - Private key
 - Public key
 - Certificate chain

File Extensions

- .p12
- .pfx

Usage

- Browser certificates
 - Backup & migration
-

PART 3: HARDWARE SECURITY MODULES (HSM)

11. What is an HSM?

Definition

A **Hardware Security Module (HSM)** is a **tamper-resistant hardware device** that **securely generates, stores, and manages cryptographic keys** and performs cryptographic operations.

12. Why HSMs are Required

- Protect CA private keys
- Meet compliance requirements
- Prevent key extraction
- Defend against insider threats

Keys never appear in plaintext

13. HSM Functions

Function	Description
Key Generation	Secure key creation
Key Storage	Tamper-resistant
Signing	Digital signatures

Function	Description
Encryption	Data protection
Authentication	Secure identity

14. HSM Types

Type	Usage
Network HSM	Enterprise PKI
PCIe HSM	Data centers
Cloud HSM	AWS, Azure
Smart Card	End-user PKI

15. HSM & PKCS #11 Relationship

- PKCS #11 is the **standard interface**
 - HSM vendors implement PKCS #11
 - Applications remain hardware-agnostic
-

PART 4: FIPS 140-2

16. What is FIPS 140-2?

Definition

FIPS 140-2 is a U.S. government security standard that defines **security requirements for cryptographic modules**.

 Issued by **NIST**

17. Why FIPS 140-2 is Important

- Mandatory for U.S. federal systems
- Required in:

- Banking
- Defense
- Healthcare
- Cloud services

❖ Global compliance benchmark

18. What is a Cryptographic Module?

- Software
- Hardware
- Firmware
- Combination

Example:

- HSM
 - OpenSSL FIPS module
-

19. FIPS 140-2 Security Requirements

Area	Description
Cryptographic Algorithms	Approved algorithms
Key Management	Secure generation & storage
Roles & Services	Access control
Physical Security	Tamper resistance
Self-Tests	Startup & runtime tests

20. FIPS 140-2 Security Levels

Level 1 – Basic

- Software only
 - No physical security
-

Level 2 – Tamper Evidence

- Tamper-evident coatings
 - Role-based authentication
-

Level 3 – Tamper Resistance

- Hardware enforcement
 - Identity-based authentication
-

Level 4 – Highest Security

- Tamper detection & zeroization
 - Extreme environmental protection
-

21. FIPS Level Comparison

Level	Security	Usage
1	Low	Software crypto
2	Medium	Enterprise
3	High	HSMs, PKI
4	Very High	Military

22. FIPS-Approved Algorithms

Category	Algorithms
Encryption	AES
Hashing	SHA-256/384/512
Signatures	RSA, ECDSA
Key Exchange	DH, ECDH
MAC	HMAC

❖ MD5 & SHA-1 are not allowed

23. FIPS 140-2 vs FIPS 140-3

Feature	140-2	140-3
Standard	Older	Newer
Based On NIST		ISO/IEC 19790
Status	Being phased out	Current

❖ Many systems still require **140-2 compliance**

PART 5: COMPLIANCE & INDUSTRY ADOPTION

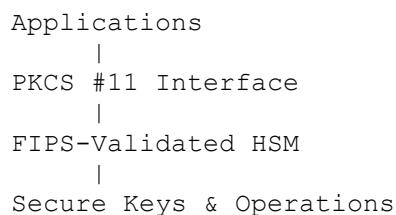
24. Compliance Requirements

Sector	Requirement
Government	Mandatory
Banking	PCI DSS + FIPS
Cloud	FIPS-validated HSM
Healthcare	HIPAA + FIPS

25. Industry Adoption Examples

Organization	Usage
AWS CloudHSM	FIPS Level 3
Microsoft Azure	FIPS modules
UIDAI (India)	HSM + PKCS
Banks	PKCS #11 HSM

26. Enterprise PKI + FIPS + PKCS Integration



PART 6: SECURITY ISSUES & BEST PRACTICES

27. Common Issues

- Using non-FIPS crypto
 - Hardcoding keys
 - Weak RSA padding
 - Poor HSM access control
-

28. Best Practices

- Use FIPS-validated modules
 - Enforce PKCS standards
 - Use OAEP & PSS padding
 - Protect HSM access
 - Regular compliance audits
-

PART 7: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

29. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- PKCS standardizes crypto usage
 - PKCS #11 enables HSM access
 - FIPS 140-2 defines crypto module security
 - HSMs protect private keys
 - Compliance is mandatory in regulated sectors
-

30. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. What is PKCS #11?

A: A standard API to access cryptographic hardware like HSMs.

Q2. Why FIPS 140-2 is important?

A: Ensures cryptographic modules meet strict security requirements.

Q3. Can software be FIPS compliant?

A: Yes, at Level 1.

Q4. Why HSMs are used in PKI?

A: To protect CA private keys from compromise.

31. One-Line Revision Notes

- PKCS standardizes crypto
- HSMs protect keys
- FIPS enforces security
- Compliance drives trust
- Crypto is useless without standards

SESSION 11

PART 1: AUTHENTICATION FUNDAMENTALS

1. What is Authentication?

Definition

Authentication is the process of **verifying the identity of a user, system, or entity** before granting access to resources.

 Authentication answers the question:

“Who are you?”

2. Authentication vs Authorization vs Accounting (AAA Model)

Concept	Meaning
Authentication	Verifying identity
Authorization	Granting permissions
Accounting	Logging & auditing actions

❖ **Authentication always comes first**

3. Factors of Authentication (Core Concept)

Authentication is based on **factors**, i.e., categories of credentials.

3.1 Authentication Factors

Factor Type	Description	Examples
Something you know	Knowledge factor	Password, PIN
Something you have	Possession factor	OTP token, smart card
Something you are	Inherence factor	Fingerprint, iris
Somewhere you are	Location factor	IP, GPS
Something you do	Behavioral factor	Typing pattern

PART 2: STRONG AUTHENTICATION

4. What is Strong Authentication?

Definition

Strong Authentication is an authentication mechanism that uses **multiple independent factors** to significantly reduce the risk of identity compromise.

 Usually implemented as **Multi-Factor Authentication (MFA)**

5. Why Strong Authentication is Required

Problems with Weak Authentication

- Password reuse
- Phishing attacks
- Credential stuffing
- Brute-force attacks

 **80%+ breaches involve stolen credentials**

6. Characteristics of Strong Authentication

- Uses ≥ 2 independent factors
 - Resistant to phishing
 - Secure against replay attacks
 - Provides higher assurance level
-

7. Strong Authentication Workflow (ASCII Diagram)

```
User
  |
  |-- Username + Password
  |
  |-- OTP / Biometric
  |
Authentication Server
  |
Access Granted / Denied
```

PART 3: SINGLE-FACTOR & MULTI-FACTOR AUTHENTICATION

8. Single-Factor Authentication (SFA)

8.1 Definition

Authentication using **only one factor**, usually a password.

8.2 Examples

- Username + Password
 - ATM PIN only
 - Door lock key
-

8.3 Advantages

- Simple
 - Low cost
 - Easy to deploy
-

8.4 Weaknesses (VERY IMPORTANT)

- Vulnerable to phishing
- Susceptible to brute force
- Password reuse risks
- Poor user practices

❖ Not suitable for modern systems

9. Multi-Factor Authentication (MFA)

9.1 Definition

Authentication using **two or more different factor categories**.

9.2 Common MFA Combinations

Combination	Example
Know + Have	Password + OTP
Know + Are	Password + Fingerprint
Have + Are	Smart card + Biometric

9.3 MFA Authentication Flow

1. User enters username/password
 2. System verifies credentials
 3. System requests second factor
 4. User provides OTP/Biometric
 5. Access granted
-

9.4 MFA Technologies

Technology	Usage
OTP (TOTP/HOTP)	Banking, VPN
SMS OTP	Legacy MFA
Authenticator Apps	Google Authenticator
Hardware Tokens	RSA SecurID
Biometrics	Mobile devices

9.5 Strengths & Weaknesses of MFA

Strengths

- Strong protection
- Mitigates credential theft
- Industry best practice

Weaknesses

- User inconvenience
 - SMS OTP vulnerabilities
 - Higher deployment cost
-

PART 4: AUTHENTICATION THREAT MODELS

10. Authentication Threat Models

10.1 Password Attacks

- Brute force
 - Dictionary attacks
 - Credential stuffing
-

10.2 Phishing Attacks

- Fake login pages
 - Email/social engineering
-

10.3 Replay Attacks

- Reusing captured credentials
-

10.4 Man-in-the-Middle (MITM)

- Intercepting authentication flow
-

10.5 MFA Bypass Attacks

- MFA fatigue attacks
 - SIM swapping
 - OTP interception
-

11. Threat Mitigation Strategies

Threat	Mitigation
Brute force	Rate limiting
Phishing	FIDO2, phishing-resistant MFA
Replay	Nonces, timestamps
MITM	TLS, certificate pinning

PART 5: SINGLE SIGN-ON (SSO)

12. What is Single Sign-On?

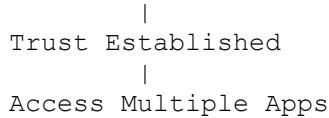
Definition

Single Sign-On (SSO) allows a user to **authenticate once** and gain access to **multiple applications without re-authentication**.

 Improves usability and security

13. How SSO Works (Concept)

User → Login Once → Identity Provider (IdP)



14. SSO Architecture Components

Component	Role
User	Requests access
Identity Provider (IdP)	Authenticates user
Service Provider (SP)	Provides application
Trust Relationship	Certificates/keys

15. SSO Authentication Workflow (ASCII)

User → App A → Redirect to IdP
User → Authenticate at IdP
IdP → Token to App A
User → App B (No re-login)

16. Benefits & Risks of SSO

Benefits

- Better user experience
- Reduced password fatigue
- Centralized security control

Risks

- Single point of failure
 - Compromise impacts all apps
-

PART 6: OPENID & OAUTH (MODERN IDENTITY SYSTEMS)

17. OpenID – Overview

Definition

OpenID is an **authentication protocol** that allows users to **log in using a third-party identity provider**.

❖ “Login with Google/Facebook”

18. OpenID Connect (OIDC)

- Built on **OAuth 2.0**
 - Provides authentication + identity
 - Uses JSON Web Tokens (JWT)
-

19. OpenID Authentication Flow (Simplified)

User → Application
Application → OpenID Provider
User → Authenticates
Provider → ID Token
Application → Login Success

20. OAuth – Overview

Definition

OAuth is an **authorization framework** that allows applications to **access user resources without sharing passwords**.

❖ OAuth ≠ Authentication

21. OAuth Roles

Role	Description
Resource Owner	User
Client	Application
Authorization Server	Issues tokens
Resource Server	API

22. OAuth Authorization Flow (ASCII)

User → Client App
 Client → Authorization Server
 User → Grants Consent
 Server → Access Token
 Client → Resource Server

23. OAuth vs OpenID Connect

Feature	OAuth	OpenID Connect
Purpose	Authorization	Authentication
Identity Info	✗ No	✓ Yes
Tokens	Access Token	ID + Access Token

24. Industry Usage of OAuth & OpenID

- Google Sign-In
 - Facebook Login
 - Microsoft Azure AD
 - API security (REST APIs)
-

PART 7: GRAPHICAL PASSWORDS

25. What are Graphical Passwords?

Definition

Graphical passwords authenticate users based on **images, patterns, or visual interactions** instead of text passwords.

26. Types of Graphical Passwords

26.1 Recognition-Based

- Select correct images

Example:

- “Select all images with traffic lights”
-

26.2 Recall-Based

- Draw a pattern or click points

Example:

- Android unlock pattern
-

26.3 Cued Recall

- Click specific points on an image
-

27. Graphical Password Workflow

User → Select Image / Pattern
System → Verify Pattern
Access Granted / Denied

28. Security Analysis of Graphical Passwords

Strengths

- Easy to remember
- Resistant to dictionary attacks

Weaknesses

- Shoulder surfing
 - Smudge attacks
 - Limited password space
-

29. Use Cases of Graphical Passwords

- Mobile devices
 - Touch-based systems
 - CAPTCHA-based verification
-

PART 8: MODERN IDENTITY & ACCESS MANAGEMENT (IAM)

30. Modern Authentication Systems

- Zero Trust Architecture
 - Passwordless authentication
 - FIDO2 / WebAuthn
 - Biometrics + Cryptographic keys
-

31. Passwordless Authentication

Examples

- Windows Hello
- Hardware security keys
- Mobile push approval

❖ Future of authentication

PART 9: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

32. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- Authentication verifies identity
- MFA is core of strong authentication
- SSO improves usability but increases risk
- OAuth = authorization, OpenID = authentication
- Graphical passwords trade usability for security

33. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Difference between authentication and authorization?

A: Authentication verifies identity; authorization grants permissions.

Q2. Why MFA is better than passwords?

A: Multiple factors reduce impact of stolen credentials.

Q3. Is OAuth used for login?

A: No, OAuth is for authorization; OpenID Connect is for login.

Q4. What is SSO risk?

A: Single point of compromise.

34. One-Line Revision Notes

- Strong auth = MFA

- Passwords alone are weak
- SSO centralizes identity
- OAuth protects APIs
- Passwordless is the future

SESSION 12

PART 1: AUTHENTICATION PROTOCOLS

1. What is an Authentication Protocol?

Definition

An **authentication protocol** is a **set of rules and message exchanges** that enables one entity to **prove its identity** to another over a network in a **secure and verifiable manner**.

 Authentication protocols are the **backbone of secure network communication**

2. Objectives of Authentication Protocols

- Verify identity securely
- Prevent replay and impersonation
- Protect credentials in transit
- Enable scalable access control
- Support enterprise security models

3. Core Components of Authentication Protocols

Component	Description
Client	Entity requesting access
Server	Entity verifying identity
Credentials	Passwords, keys, tokens

Component	Description
Challenge	Random value (nonce)
Response	Proof of identity
Session	Authenticated context

4. Threat Model for Authentication Protocols

Authentication protocols must defend against:

- Replay attacks
- Man-in-the-Middle (MITM)
- Credential theft
- Session hijacking
- Offline brute-force attacks

❖ **Protocol design is more important than the password itself**

5. Classification of Authentication Protocols

5.1 Password-Based Protocols

- PAP
 - CHAP
-

5.2 Ticket-Based Protocols

- Kerberos
-

5.3 Certificate-Based Protocols

- TLS client authentication
-

5.4 Token-Based Protocols

- OAuth
 - OpenID Connect
-

5.5 Passwordless Protocols

- FIDO2
 - WebAuthn
-

PART 2: CLASSIC AUTHENTICATION PROTOCOLS

6. PAP (Password Authentication Protocol)

Overview

- Sends username/password in clear text

Client → Username + Password → Server

Security

- ✗ Insecure
- ✗ No encryption
- ✗ Vulnerable to sniffing

☒ Deprecated

7. CHAP (Challenge Handshake Authentication Protocol)

How CHAP Works

1. Server → Challenge (Random nonce)
 2. Client → Hash(password + nonce)
 3. Server → Verifies hash
-

Security Analysis

Aspect	CHAP
Password Exposure	✗ No
Replay Protection	✓
Mutual Authentication	✗ No

❖ Used in PPP, legacy systems

8. Kerberos Authentication Protocol (VERY IMPORTANT)

8.1 What is Kerberos?

Definition

Kerberos is a **ticket-based authentication protocol** that uses **symmetric cryptography** and a **trusted third party** to authenticate users in a network.

❖ Developed by MIT
❖ Used in Windows Active Directory

8.2 Kerberos Components

Component	Role
Client	User
KDC	Key Distribution Center
AS	Authentication Server
TGS	Ticket Granting Server
Service Server	Target service

8.3 Kerberos Authentication Workflow (ASCII)

Client → AS → TGT
Client → TGS → Service Ticket

Client → Service → Access

8.4 Kerberos Step-by-Step Flow

1. User logs in
 2. AS verifies credentials
 3. AS issues Ticket Granting Ticket (TGT)
 4. Client requests service ticket from TGS
 5. Client accesses service
-

8.5 Security Strengths & Weaknesses

Strengths

- No password transmission
- Mutual authentication
- Replay protection

Weaknesses

- Time synchronization dependency
 - Single point of failure (KDC)
 - Complex implementation
-

PART 3: MODERN TOKEN-BASED AUTHENTICATION

9. Token-Based Authentication

Concept

Authentication is performed once, and **tokens** are used for subsequent requests.

10. JSON Web Tokens (JWT)

JWT Structure

Header.Payload.Signature

- Header → Algorithm
- Payload → Claims
- Signature → Integrity

❖ Used heavily in OAuth & OpenID Connect

11. Benefits of Token-Based Auth

- Stateless
 - Scalable
 - Cloud-friendly
 - API-secure
-

PART 4: FIDO AUTHENTICATION (PASSWORDLESS)

12. What is FIDO?

❖ Definition

FIDO (Fast Identity Online) is a set of **open standards** for **passwordless and phishing-resistant authentication** based on **public-key cryptography**.

❖ Developed by **FIDO Alliance**

13. Why FIDO Authentication?

Problems with Passwords

- Phishing
- Reuse
- Credential stuffing
- User fatigue

❖ FIDO eliminates shared secrets

14. FIDO Architecture

```
User Device (Authenticator)
  |
Public-Key Cryptography
  |
Relying Party (Server)
```

15. FIDO Standards

Standard	Purpose
FIDO U2F	2nd factor
FIDO2	Passwordless
WebAuthn	Browser API
CTAP	Device communication

16. FIDO Registration (Enrollment) Flow

1. User registers device
2. Device generates key pair
3. Public key sent to server
4. Private key stays on device

❖ Private key never leaves device

17. FIDO Authentication Flow (ASCII)

```
Server → Challenge
Device → Signs challenge with Private Key
Server → Verifies using Public Key
Access Granted
```

18. Security Properties of FIDO

Property	Achieved
Phishing Resistance	✓
Replay Protection	✓
Credential Theft	✗ Impossible
Password Storage	✗ None

19. Types of FIDO Authenticators

Type	Example
Platform	Windows Hello
Roaming	YubiKey
Biometric	Fingerprint

20. FIDO vs MFA Comparison

Feature	Traditional MFA	FIDO
Passwords	Required	Not required
Phishing Resistance	Partial	Full
User Experience	Medium	Excellent

PART 5: ZERO TRUST ARCHITECTURE (ZTA)

21. What is Zero Trust?

Definition

Zero Trust Architecture is a security model based on the principle:

“Never trust, always verify.”

 No implicit trust based on network location

22. Why Zero Trust is Needed

Traditional Perimeter Security Fails Because:

- Cloud adoption
 - Remote workforce
 - Insider threats
 - Advanced persistent threats
-

23. Core Principles of Zero Trust

1. Verify explicitly
 2. Least privilege access
 3. Assume breach
 4. Continuous authentication
-

24. Zero Trust Architecture Components

Component	Role
Identity Provider (IdP)	User identity
Device Trust	Device posture
Policy Engine	Access decisions
Policy Enforcement Point	Enforces access
Continuous Monitoring	Risk evaluation

25. Zero Trust Authentication Flow

User → Identity Verification
→ Device Check
→ Context Evaluation
→ Policy Decision
→ Access Granted (Limited)

26. Role of Authentication in Zero Trust

- Continuous authentication
- MFA mandatory
- Passwordless preferred
- Risk-based decisions

❖ Authentication is not one-time

27. Zero Trust + FIDO (Best Practice)

FIDO Authentication
+
Contextual Signals
+
Least Privilege
=
Zero Trust Access

PART 6: ENTERPRISE SECURITY MODELS

28. Traditional vs Zero Trust Security Model

Feature	Traditional	Zero Trust
Trust	Network-based	Identity-based
Access	Broad	Granular
Authentication	One-time	Continuous
Cloud Ready	✗ No	✓ Yes

29. Enterprise Use Cases

- Cloud access security
 - Remote workforce
 - VPN replacement
 - DevOps security
 - API protection
-

30. Industry Adoption Examples

Organization	Usage
Google	BeyondCorp (ZTA)
Microsoft	Azure Zero Trust

Organization	Usage
Banks	FIDO + ZTA
Government	Identity-centric security

PART 7: SECURITY ISSUES & BEST PRACTICES

31. Common Implementation Issues

- Weak fallback authentication
 - Legacy protocol exposure
 - Poor device trust checks
 - Over-privileged access
-

32. Best Practices

- Eliminate passwords where possible
 - Use FIDO2/WebAuthn
 - Enforce MFA everywhere
 - Implement Zero Trust gradually
 - Monitor continuously
-

PART 8: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

33. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- Authentication protocols secure identity
 - Kerberos is ticket-based
 - FIDO enables passwordless auth
 - Zero Trust removes implicit trust
 - Identity is new perimeter
-

34. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Why passwords are considered weak?

A: They are reused, phishable, and easily compromised.

Q2. How FIDO prevents phishing?

A: Authentication is bound to origin and device, not passwords.

Q3. Is Zero Trust a product?

A: No, it is a security architecture and philosophy.

Q4. Can Zero Trust work without MFA?

A: No, strong authentication is mandatory.

35. One-Line Revision Notes

- Auth protocols verify identity
- Kerberos uses tickets
- FIDO removes passwords
- Zero Trust verifies continuously
- Identity is the new firewall

SESSION 13

PART 1: INTRODUCTION TO SECURE COMMUNICATION PROTOCOLS

1. Why Secure Communication Protocols are Required

Modern networks are **inherently insecure**:

- Data travels over public networks
- Attackers can sniff, modify, or replay traffic
- Email was designed without security

Security Goals

Secure communication protocols ensure:

- **Confidentiality**
- **Integrity**
- **Authentication**
- **Non-repudiation (in some cases)**

2. Protocol Classification

Domain	Protocol
Web / Network	SSL, TLS
Email Security	PGP, S/MIME
Transport Security	TLS
End-to-End Security	PGP

PART 2: SSL (SECURE SOCKETS LAYER)

3. What is SSL?

Definition

SSL (Secure Sockets Layer) is a **cryptographic protocol** developed by **Netscape** to provide **secure communication over a network**.

- ❖ SSL is the **predecessor of TLS**
 - ❖ All SSL versions are now **deprecated**
-

4. Objectives of SSL

- Server authentication
 - Optional client authentication
 - Data confidentiality
 - Data integrity
-

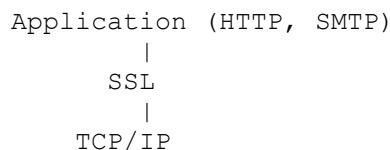
5. SSL Versions & Status

Version	Status
SSL 1.0	Never released
SSL 2.0	Broken

Version	Status
SSL 3.0	Broken (POODLE)

❖ SSL is insecure and obsolete

6. SSL Architecture (High Level)



7. SSL Handshake Process (Conceptual)

Client → Hello
Server → Certificate
Key Exchange
Secure Session Established

❖ SSL introduced the **handshake concept**

8. Why SSL was Replaced

- Weak cryptographic design
 - Padding oracle attacks
 - Poor extensibility
 - Vulnerable cipher suites
-

PART 3: TLS (TRANSPORT LAYER SECURITY)

9. What is TLS?

⌚ Definition

TLS (Transport Layer Security) is the **successor to SSL**, designed to provide **secure, authenticated, and encrypted communication** over networks.

- ❖ Standardized by **IETF**
 - ❖ TLS is used in **HTTPS, SMTP, VPNs, APIs**
-

10. TLS Versions

Version	Status
TLS 1.0	Deprecated
TLS 1.1	Deprecated
TLS 1.2	Widely used
TLS 1.3	Current & recommended

11. TLS Security Services

Service	Provided
Confidentiality	✓
Integrity	✓
Authentication	✓
Forward Secrecy	✓ (TLS 1.2+, 1.3)

12. TLS Handshake Process (Detailed – VERY IMPORTANT)

12.1 TLS 1.2 Handshake (ASCII)

```
Client → ClientHello (Cipher Suites, Random)
Server → ServerHello
Server → Certificate
Server → ServerKeyExchange
Client → ClientKeyExchange
Client → ChangeCipherSpec
Server → ChangeCipherSpec
Secure Communication
```

12.2 Key Generation in TLS

1. Client & Server exchange random values
2. Public key (RSA/ECDHE) used
3. Session key derived
4. Symmetric encryption starts (AES)

❖ Hybrid cryptography

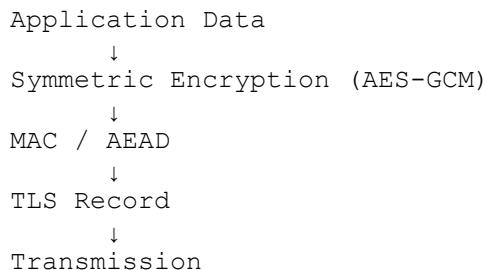
13. TLS 1.3 Handshake (Simplified & Secure)

ClientHello (Key Share)
ServerHello (Key Share)
Secure Communication (Immediately)

Improvements

- Fewer round trips
 - Only strong cipher suites
 - Mandatory forward secrecy
-

14. TLS Encryption Workflow



15. TLS Cipher Suites

Example:

TLS_ECDHE_RSA_WITH_AES_256_GCM_SHA384

Component	Meaning
ECDHE	Key exchange
RSA	Authentication

Component	Meaning
AES-256-GCM Encryption	
SHA-384	Hash/MAC

16. TLS Security Strengths & Weaknesses

Strengths

- Strong encryption
- PKI-based trust
- Forward secrecy

Weaknesses

- Certificate mismanagement
 - MITM if trust fails
 - Legacy support issues
-

PART 4: EMAIL SECURITY OVERVIEW

17. Why Email Security is Needed

Email threats:

- Eavesdropping
- Spoofing
- Tampering
- Repudiation

❖ Email protocols (SMTP, POP3) are **plaintext by default**

18. Email Security Models

Model	Protocol
End-to-End Security	PGP

Model	Protocol
PKI-Based Security	S/MIME

PART 5: PGP (PRETTY GOOD PRIVACY)

19. What is PGP?

⌚ Definition

PGP (Pretty Good Privacy) is an **end-to-end encryption system** used for **email security**, based on **hybrid cryptography**.

- ❖ Developed by **Phil Zimmermann**
 - ❖ Uses **Web-of-Trust**
-

20. PGP Security Services

Service	Provided
Confidentiality	✓
Integrity	✓
Authentication	✓
Non-repudiation	✓

21. PGP Cryptographic Workflow

21.1 PGP Encryption Process

```
Message
↓
Hash (SHA)
↓
Sign with Sender's Private Key
↓
Generate Session Key
↓
```

```
Encrypt Message (AES)
  ↓
Encrypt Session Key (Receiver's Public Key)
  ↓
Encrypted Email
```

21.2 PGP Decryption Process

```
Encrypted Email
  ↓
Decrypt Session Key (Private Key)
  ↓
Decrypt Message
  ↓
Verify Signature
```

22. PGP Trust Model – Web of Trust

```
User A trusts User B
User B trusts User C
⇒ User A partially trusts User C
```

❖ No central CA

23. Strengths & Weaknesses of PGP

Strengths

- End-to-end security
- No central authority
- Strong cryptography

Weaknesses

- Complex key management
- Poor usability
- Trust evaluation is subjective

24. PGP Use Cases

- Secure emails

- Source code signing
 - Secure file storage
 - Activists & journalists
-

PART 6: S/MIME (SECURE / MULTIPURPOSE INTERNET MAIL EXTENSIONS)

25. What is S/MIME?

Definition

S/MIME is a **PKI-based email security standard** that uses **X.509 digital certificates** to provide **secure email communication**.

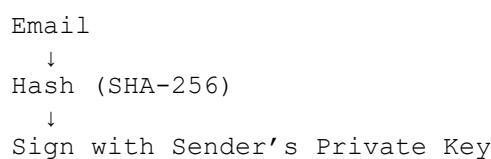
Standardized by **IETF**

26. S/MIME Security Services

Service	Provided
Confidentiality	✓
Integrity	✓
Authentication	✓
Non-repudiation	✓

27. S/MIME Cryptographic Workflow

27.1 S/MIME Signing Process



↓
Signed Email

27.2 S/MIME Encryption Process

Email
↓
Generate Session Key
↓
Encrypt Email (AES)
↓
Encrypt Session Key (Receiver's Public Key)
↓
Encrypted Email

28. S/MIME Trust Model

User Certificate
↓
Intermediate CA
↓
Root CA (Trusted)

❖ Uses **hierarchical PKI**

29. S/MIME Strengths & Weaknesses

Strengths

- Strong PKI trust
- Easy enterprise integration
- Supported by major email clients

Weaknesses

- Certificate cost & management
- Central CA dependency

30. S/MIME Use Cases

- Corporate email

- Government communication
 - Legal & financial institutions
-

PART 7: COMPARISON TABLES (EXAM-CRITICAL)

31. SSL vs TLS

Feature	SSL	TLS
Status	Obsolete	Active
Security	Weak	Strong
Standard Body	Netscape	IETF
Usage	Deprecated	HTTPS, APIs

32. PGP vs S/MIME

Feature	PGP	S/MIME
Trust Model	Web of Trust	PKI
Ease of Use	Low	High
Central CA	✗ No	✓ Yes
Enterprise Use	Limited	High

33. TLS vs PGP vs S/MIME

Feature	TLS	PGP	S/MIME
Layer	Transport	Application	Application
Scope	Data in transit	End-to-end	email
PKI	✓	Optional	✓

PART 8: SECURITY ISSUES & BEST PRACTICES

34. Common Attacks

- SSL downgrade attacks
 - Certificate spoofing
 - Weak cipher usage
 - Email phishing despite encryption
-

35. Best Practices

- Disable SSL & TLS < 1.2
 - Enforce TLS 1.3
 - Use strong cipher suites
 - Proper certificate management
 - Combine email encryption with user training
-

PART 9: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

36. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- SSL is obsolete, TLS is standard
- TLS uses hybrid encryption
- PGP uses Web-of-Trust
- S/MIME uses PKI
- Email security requires end-to-end protection

37. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Why TLS is preferred over SSL?

A: TLS fixes design flaws and provides stronger security.

Q2. Difference between PGP and S/MIME?

A: PGP uses Web-of-Trust; S/MIME uses PKI.

Q3. Does TLS provide end-to-end encryption?

A: No, only transport-level encryption.

Q4. Which email security is used in enterprises?

A: S/MIME.

38. One-Line Revision Notes

- SSL is dead
- TLS secures the web
- PGP secures individuals
- S/MIME secures enterprises
-

SESSION 14 & SESSION 15

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY (IT) ACT, INDIA

1. What is the IT Act?

Definition

The **Information Technology Act, 2000 (IT Act)** is the **primary cyber law of India** that provides **legal recognition to electronic transactions, digital signatures, and defines cyber crimes and penalties**.

 Enforced on **17 October 2000**

 Amended significantly in **2008**

2. Objectives of the IT Act

- Legal recognition to **electronic records**
 - Facilitate **e-commerce and e-governance**
 - Enable **digital signatures**
 - Define **cyber crimes & punishments**
 - Establish **Cyber Appellate Tribunal**
-

3. Scope & Applicability

Aspect	Coverage
Geographic	India + extraterritorial
Medium	Electronic records
Users	Individuals, organizations, govt
Technology	Neutral

❖ Applies even if **computer system is outside India** but affects India

4. Key Definitions (Exam-Critical)

Term	Meaning
Electronic Record	Data stored electronically
Digital Signature	Asymmetric crypto-based signature
Intermediary	ISP, social media, cloud
Cyber Crime	Crime using computer/network

5. Legal Recognition under IT Act

Sections

- **Section 4** – Electronic Records
- **Section 5** – Digital Signatures
- **Section 6** – e-Governance

❖ Electronic documents = Paper documents (legally)

6. Digital Signatures under IT Act

- Uses **PKI**
- Issued by **licensed Certifying Authorities**
- Legally binding

❖ e-Sign covered under **Section 3A**

7. Cyber Crimes under IT Act (IMPORTANT)

7.1 Major Sections & Offences

Section	Offence
43	Unauthorized access, damage
65	Tampering with source code
66	Computer-related offences
66C	Identity theft
66D	Online cheating
66E	Privacy violation
66F	Cyber terrorism
67	Obscene content
67A	Sexually explicit content
67B	Child pornography

8. Penalties & Punishments

- Imprisonment
- Monetary fines
- Both

❖ Severity depends on **intent & damage**

9. Intermediary Liability (Section 79)

Safe Harbour Principle

Intermediaries are **not liable** if:

- They act as passive conduits
- Follow due diligence
- Remove illegal content when notified

❖ Very relevant to **social media platforms**

10. Cyber Appellate Tribunal

- Handles IT Act disputes
 - Appeals against adjudicating officer
-

11. IT Act – Security & Privacy Implications

Strengths

- Legal backing to cyber security
- Recognition of digital identity

Limitations

- Weak privacy provisions (improved later)
 - Rapid tech evolution challenges
-

12. IT Act – Real-World Use Cases

- Online banking fraud prosecution
 - Social media misuse cases
 - e-Governance portals
 - Digital contracts
-

◇ SESSION 14 – PART B

LDAP & ACTIVE DIRECTORY

13. What is LDAP?

⌚ Definition

LDAP (Lightweight Directory Access Protocol) is an **application-layer protocol** used to access and manage directory services over a network.

❖ Standard: **RFC 4511**

14. What is a Directory Service?

A directory service stores **hierarchical identity information** such as:

- Users
- Groups
- Computers
- Policies

❖ Optimized for **read-heavy operations**

15. LDAP Architecture

```
Client
  |
LDAP Protocol
  |
Directory Server
  |
Directory Information Tree (DIT)
```

16. LDAP Directory Structure (DIT)

```
dc=company,dc=com
  |
  +-- ou=Users
      |
      +-- cn=Alice
          |
          +-- cn=Bob
  |
  +-- ou=Groups
  |
  +-- ou=Computers
```

17. LDAP Authentication Process

1. Client binds to LDAP server
2. Provides credentials
3. Server validates
4. Access granted

❖ Bind Types:

- Anonymous
 - Simple
 - SASL (secure)
-

18. LDAP Security Considerations

- Use **LDAPS (LDAP over TLS)**
 - Prevent clear-text credentials
 - Access control lists (ACLs)
-

19. What is Active Directory (AD)?

⌚ Definition

Active Directory (AD) is Microsoft's directory service based on LDAP, Kerberos, and DNS, used for **centralized authentication and authorization** in Windows environments.

20. Active Directory Components

Component	Role
Domain Controller	Authenticates users
Domain	Administrative boundary
Forest	Collection of domains
OU	Organizational Unit
Group Policy	Security enforcement

21. Active Directory Authentication Workflow

```
User → Login  
|  
Kerberos Authentication  
|  
Domain Controller  
|  
Access Granted
```

❖ Uses **Kerberos (ticket-based)**

22. LDAP vs Active Directory

Feature	LDAP	Active Directory
Vendor	Open standard	Microsoft
Auth Protocol	LDAP	LDAP + Kerberos
OS Dependency	Platform independent	Windows-centric
Use Case	Generic directories	Enterprise IAM

23. Security Implications of LDAP / AD

Strengths

- Centralized identity
- Policy enforcement
- Scalable authentication

Risks

- Single point of failure
- Privilege escalation attacks
- Misconfigured ACLs

24. Enterprise Use Cases

- User authentication
- VPN access
- Email login
- Role-based access control
- Zero Trust identity layer

◇ SESSION 15

INTRODUCTION TO BLOCKCHAIN

25. What is Blockchain?

⌚ Definition

Blockchain is a **distributed, decentralized, immutable ledger** that records transactions across multiple nodes in a secure and verifiable manner.

- ❖ No central authority
 - ❖ Trust via cryptography & consensus
-

26. Key Characteristics of Blockchain

- Decentralization
 - Immutability
 - Transparency
 - Cryptographic security
 - Consensus-based trust
-

27. Blockchain Architecture

27.1 Block Structure

```
Block Header
└── Previous Hash
└── Timestamp
└── Nonce
└── Merkle Root
```

```
Block Body
└── Transactions
```

27.2 Blockchain Linking

Block N → Hash → Block N+1 → Hash → Block N+2

- ❖ Tampering breaks entire chain
-

28. Cryptographic Foundations of Blockchain

Component	Purpose
Hashing (SHA-256)	Integrity
Digital Signatures	Authentication
Public Key Crypto	Ownership
Merkle Trees	Efficient verification

29. Consensus Mechanisms

29.1 Proof of Work (PoW)

- Bitcoin
 - High energy consumption
-

29.2 Proof of Stake (PoS)

- Ethereum 2.0
 - Energy efficient
-

29.3 Other Mechanisms

- PBFT
 - DPoS
-

30. Types of Blockchains

Type	Description
Public	Open (Bitcoin)
Private	Enterprise-controlled
Consortium	Multiple orgs
Hybrid	Mixed

31. Smart Contracts

Definition

Smart contracts are **self-executing programs** stored on the blockchain that run when predefined conditions are met.

❖ Example: Ethereum

32. Blockchain Use Cases (Real-World)

32.1 Financial

- Cryptocurrencies
 - Cross-border payments
-

32.2 Government

- Land records
 - Digital identity
-

32.3 Cyber Security

- Immutable logs
 - Certificate transparency
-

32.4 Supply Chain

- Product traceability
-

33. Blockchain Security Implications

Strengths

- Tamper resistance
 - No single point of failure
 - Transparent audit trail
-

Risks

- 51% attacks
 - Smart contract bugs
 - Private key loss
 - Regulatory challenges
-

34. Blockchain vs Traditional Systems

Feature	Traditional Blockchain	
Trust	Central	Distributed
Tamper Resistance	Low	High
Transparency	Limited	High
Performance	High	Moderate

◇ PART 6: INTEGRATION & COMPARISON

35. IT Act vs Blockchain

- IT Act provides **legal framework**
 - Blockchain provides **technical trust**
 - Legal recognition of blockchain evolving
-

36. LDAP/AD vs Blockchain Identity

Aspect	LDAP/AD	Blockchain
Control	Centralized	Decentralized

Aspect	LDAP/AD	Blockchain
Revocation	Easy	Hard
Scalability	High	Moderate

◇ PART 7: EXAM & INTERVIEW CONTENT

37. Exam-Oriented Key Points

- IT Act is backbone of cyber law in India
- LDAP & AD enable centralized authentication
- Blockchain ensures immutable records
- Cryptography underpins all three
- Security is a balance of law + technology

38. Interview Questions & Answers

Q1. Why is IT Act important in cyber security?

A: It provides legal recognition and penalties for cyber offences.

Q2. Difference between LDAP and Active Directory?

A: LDAP is a protocol; AD is a Microsoft directory service using LDAP.

Q3. Is blockchain fully secure?

A: Cryptographically strong but vulnerable to implementation and governance issues.

Q4. Can blockchain replace PKI?

A: Not fully; it can complement PKI.

39. One-Line Revision Notes

- IT Act = Legal backbone
- LDAP = Directory protocol
- AD = Enterprise identity
- Blockchain = Decentralized trust

- Security = Law + Crypto + Identity