

Introduction-to-Cryptography Related Exams - Test

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Course code: CSC445
Course title :
Introduction to Cryptography and information security
PART: 1



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WGU Introduction-to-Cryptography Exam Syllabus Topics:

Section	Weight	Objectives
Hash Functions & Data Integrity	15%	- Algorithms: SHA-1, SHA-256, SHA-3, MD5 - Properties: collision resistance, one-way function - Uses: integrity checks, password storage, message authentication - HMAC construction and application
Implementation & Best Practices	5%	- Common mistakes and vulnerabilities - Selecting appropriate algorithms and key sizes - Standards and compliance
Asymmetric Encryption & Public Key Infrastructure	25%	- PKI components: certificates, CAs, trust models - Principles: public/private key pairs - Certificate lifecycle: creation, validation, revocation - Digital signatures: purpose and process - Algorithms: RSA, ECC, Diffie-Hellman - Block vs stream ciphers, modes of operation (ECB, CBC, OFB, CFB)
Symmetric Encryption	25%	- Principles and operation - Algorithms: AES, DES, 3DES, Blowfish - Key generation, distribution, and management challenges
Key Management & Secure Protocols	10%	- Key generation, storage, exchange, and destruction - Secure protocols: TLS/SSL, IPsec, SSH, PGP - Cryptographic attacks: brute force, birthday, man-in-the-middle
Cryptography Fundamentals	20%	- Basic terminology: plaintext, ciphertext, algorithm, key - Historical evolution and modern applications - Core goals: confidentiality, integrity, authentication, non-repudiation

Test WGU Introduction-to-Cryptography Pass4sure - Introduction-to-Cryptography New Question

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WGU Introduction to Cryptography HNO1 Sample Questions (Q49-Q54):

NEW QUESTION # 49

(What is the value of $51 \bmod 11$?)

- A. 0
- B. 07
- C. 05
- D. 04

Answer: B

Explanation:

The value $51 \bmod 11$ is the remainder after dividing 51 by 11. Modular arithmetic is widely used in cryptography to keep computations within a finite set of residues, such as in RSA where values are taken modulo n , or in Diffie-Hellman where exponents and group elements are reduced modulo a prime. To compute $51 \bmod 11$, find the largest multiple of 11 less than or equal to 51.

Multiples of 11 are 11, 22, 33, 44,

55. The closest without exceeding 51 is 44. Subtracting gives $51 - 44 = 7$, so the remainder is 7. Therefore, $51 \bmod 11 = 7$, matching option "07." This remainder is always in the range 0 through 10 because the modulus is

11. Such residue computations underpin the "wraparound" behavior that makes modular exponentiation and inverse computations well-defined in cryptographic groups.

NEW QUESTION # 50

(What is the RC4 encryption key size when utilizing WPA with Temporal Key Integrity Protocol (TKIP)?)

- A. 40 bits
- B. 128 bits
- C. 256 bits
- D. 56 bits

Answer: B

Explanation:

WPA with TKIP was designed as an interim improvement over WEP while still using the RC4 stream cipher for compatibility with legacy hardware. TKIP addresses WEP's major weaknesses by introducing per-packet key mixing, a message integrity mechanism ("Michael"), and replay protection.

In TKIP, the encryption key used with RC4 is 128 bits. Practically, TKIP derives a per-packet RC4 key from a 128-bit temporal key (TK), the transmitter's MAC address, and a sequence counter (TKIP Sequence Counter, TSC) to avoid the simple IV reuse patterns that made WEP easy to break. Even with these improvements, TKIP has known weaknesses and is deprecated in favor of WPA2/WPA3 using AES-based CCMP/GCMP. But strictly for the question asked, TKIP's RC4 keying material is based on a 128-bit key size, not 40/56-bit legacy sizes and not 256-bit.

NEW QUESTION # 51

(What is lattice-based cryptography?)

- A. A cryptographic scheme based on geometric lattices

- B. A blockchain option from clone
- C. A technique for encoding messages using lattice points
- D. A type of encryption algorithm using modular arithmetic

Answer: A

Explanation:

Lattice-based cryptography refers to cryptographic constructions whose security is based on the computational hardness of problems on mathematical lattices (regular grids of points in high-dimensional space). Examples of hard lattice problems include the Shortest Vector Problem (SVP) and Closest Vector Problem (CVP), and practical schemes often use related problems like Learning With Errors (LWE) or Ring-LWE. These problems are believed to remain hard even for quantum computers, making lattice-based cryptography a major candidate family for post-quantum cryptography. Lattice schemes can support encryption, digital signatures, and key exchange, often with strong security reductions (worst-case to average-case) and efficient implementations. The word "lattice" here is not about simple point encoding; it's about relying on geometric/algebraic structures and noise-based hardness assumptions. It is also unrelated to blockchain "options." While many lattice schemes do involve modular arithmetic internally, what defines the category is the underlying lattice hardness assumptions, not modular arithmetic alone. Therefore, the correct definition is a cryptographic scheme based on geometric lattices.

NEW QUESTION # 52

(Which mode of encryption uses an Initialization Vector (IV) to encrypt the first block and then uses the result to encrypt the next block?)

- **A. Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)**
- B. Electronic Codebook (ECB)
- C. Cipher Feedback (CFB)
- D. Output Feedback (OFB)

Answer: A

Explanation:

CBC mode introduces dependency between blocks to prevent the pattern leakage seen in ECB. It starts with a random (or unpredictable) IV for the first block. Before encrypting block 1, CBC XORs plaintext block 1 with the IV, then encrypts the result. For block 2 and onward, CBC XORs each plaintext block with the previous ciphertext block before encryption. This chaining means that changing one plaintext block affects that block's ciphertext and also influences the next block's computation. The IV ensures that encrypting the same message twice under the same key produces different ciphertexts (assuming a fresh IV). Option A (ECB) has no IV or chaining. OFB and CFB are feedback modes that effectively generate a keystream; they do use an IV, but the "uses the result to encrypt the next block" wording most directly matches CBC's ciphertext-chaining description in standard teaching. CBC still requires integrity protection (e.g., HMAC or an AEAD mode) because it can be malleable without authentication. Therefore, the correct mode is Cipher Block Chaining (CBC).

NEW QUESTION # 53

(Which encryption process sends a list of cipher suites that are supported for encrypted communications?)

- A. Integrity check
- **B. ClientHello**
- C. Forward secrecy
- D. ServerHello

Answer: B

Explanation:

In the TLS handshake, the ClientHello message is the client's opening negotiation message and includes the client's supported cryptographic capabilities. A key part of ClientHello is the offered cipher suites list, which advertises combinations of key exchange, authentication, encryption, and integrity/AEAD algorithms the client is willing to use. The server responds with ServerHello, selecting one of the offered cipher suites (in TLS 1.2 and earlier) and confirming protocol parameters. Forward secrecy is a property achieved by using ephemeral key exchange (e.g., (EC)DHE), not a specific message that "sends a list." "Integrity check" is a security goal/mechanism, not the negotiation step. While TLS 1.3 changes the structure of negotiation (cipher suite list still appears in ClientHello but only covers AEAD and hash; key exchange is negotiated via extensions), the fundamental idea remains: the client proposes supported cipher suites in ClientHello, and the server picks compatible parameters. Therefore, the process that sends the

list of supported cipher suites is the ClientHello.

NEW QUESTION # 54

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