



CYBERSECURITY

**RECENT ADVANCES IN
CYBER
SECURITY**

**Sunanda Das
Deepak K Sinha**



Recent Advances in Cyber Security

Recent Advances in Cyber Security

Sunanda Das

Deepak K Sinha



BOOKS ARCADE

KRISHNA NAGAR, DELHI

Recent Advances in Cyber Security

Sunanda Das
Deepak K Sinha

© RESERVED

This book contains information obtained from highly regarded resources. Copyright for individual articles remains with the authors as indicated. A wide variety of references are listed. Reasonable efforts have been made to publish reliable data and information, but the author and the publisher cannot assume responsibility for the validity of all materials or for the consequences of their use.

No part of this book may be reprinted, reproduced, transmitted, or utilized in any form by any electronic, mechanical, or other means, now known or hereinafter invented, including photocopying, microfilming and recording, or any information storage or retrieval system, without permission from the publishers.

For permission to photocopy or use material electronically from this work please access booksarcade.co.in

BOOKS ARCADE

Regd. Office:

F-10/24, East Krishna Nagar, Near Vijay Chowk, Delhi-110051

Ph. No: +91-11-79669196, +91-9899073222

E-mail: info@booksarcade.co.in, booksarcade.pub@gmail.com

Website: www.booksarcade.co.in

Year of Publication 2023

International Standard Book Number-13: 978-81-19199-52-5



CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| Chapter 1. Fundamentals of Cyber Security | 1 |
| — <i>Sunanda Das</i> | |
| Chapter 2. Classification of Cyber Space | 11 |
| — <i>Chandramma R</i> | |
| Chapter 3. Significance, Problems, and Challenges of Cyberterrorism | 22 |
| — <i>Vanitha K</i> | |
| Chapter 4. Network Security | 36 |
| — <i>Sonal Sharma</i> | |
| Chapter 5. Cyber Crimes: Mobile and Wireless | 43 |
| — <i>Jagdish Chandra Patni</i> | |
| Chapter 6. Smartphone Security Recommendations | 50 |
| — <i>Mahesh T R</i> | |
| Chapter 7. Internal Security: Ideas and Resources | 59 |
| — <i>Gaurav Londhe</i> | |
| Chapter 8. Public Key Encryption | 68 |
| — <i>Ramesh S</i> | |
| Chapter 9. Investigating Cyber Crimes: A Brief Introduction to Cyber Forensic | 81 |
| — <i>Rajesh A</i> | |
| Chapter 10. Assessing Cyber Threats and Solutions for Municipalities | 90 |
| — <i>Shashikala H.K</i> | |
| Chapter 11. Privacy and Authentication | 99 |
| — <i>C R Manjunath</i> | |
| Chapter 12. Legal Acceptance of Digital Signatures | 106 |
| — <i>Sowmya M S</i> | |
| Chapter 13. Issues in Cyber-Physical Security | 116 |
| — <i>Jayanthi Kannan</i> | |
| Chapter 14. Data Securities and Management | 123 |
| — <i>Deepak K Sinha</i> | |
| Chapter 15. Privacy and Identity Theft Cyber Warfare | 131 |
| — <i>Geetha G</i> | |

CHAPTER 1

FUNDAMENTS OF CYBER SECURITY

Sunanda Das

Associate Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: - sunanda.das@jainuniversity.ac.in

The most pressing issue in terms of cyber security is the exponential growth of cyber threats and assaults. Attackers are increasingly aiming for the systems with more advanced methods. Small-scale enterprises, huge organizations, and individuals are all affected. As a result, both IT and non-IT businesses have realized the value of cyber security and are working to implement every preventative action at their disposal.

Defining cyber security: Cybersecurity is primarily about integrating people, processes, and technologies to cover the full spectrum of threat reduction, vulnerability reduction, deterrence, international engagement, incident response, resiliency, and recovery policies and activities, including computer network operations, information assurance, law enforcement, etc.

Networks, computers, programs and data are all protected by a group of technologies, procedures, and practices known as cyber security against attack, illegal access, and damage. Data that is stored, communicated, or utilised on an information system is referred to as digital data, and cyber security refers to the methods and procedures employed to safeguard it.

Cybersecurity is the defence against cyberattacks on systems linked to the Internet, including their hardware, software, and data. It consists of the phrases "cyber" and "security," respectively. Security relates to the protection and encompasses the security of systems, networks, applications, and information, while cyber is connected to technology that incorporates systems, networks, and programs or data.

Cyber security crucial: The following are some of the factors that make cyber security crucial in the increasingly digital world: Cyber assaults may be incredibly costly for organizations to endure. In addition to financial harm incurred by the firm, a data breach can also inflict immense reputational damage.

Today's cyberattacks are becoming more devastating. Cyberattacks are being launched by criminals using increasingly advanced methods. Laws like the GDPR are pressuring businesses to properly protect the personal data they handle. The aforementioned factors have made cyber security a crucial component of business, and the current emphasis is on creating effective reaction strategies that reduce the harm in the case of a cyber-attack. Yet, a person or organization can only create a suitable response strategy when they are well-versed in cyber security basics.

Basics of cyber security:

Confidentiality: Data disclosure to unauthorized parties is forbidden by confidentiality. Also, it entails making an effort to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of the permitted parties engaged in data exchange and storage. Frequently, confidentiality is jeopardized by

decrypting data that has been improperly encrypted, Man-in-the-Middle (MITM) attacks, and revealing sensitive information.

Typical steps to ensure confidentiality include: Security tokens; data encryption; two-factor authentication; biometric verification:

Integrity: Integrity relates to preventing unauthorized parties from changing data. Integrity is often ensured by the following measures:

Cryptographic checksums: Using file permissions, using uninterruptible power sources, and using data backups.

Availability: Availability refers to ensuring that the data is accessible to the right people at the right time.

Regular steps to ensure availability include: implementing firewalls; backing up data to external drives; having backup power supply; and data redundancy.

Cyber-attack types: An exploitation of computer systems and networks is referred to as a cyberattack. It makes use of harmful code to change data, logic, or computer code, which may result in cybercrimes including information and identity theft.

Following categories may be used to categorize cyberattacks:

Online assaults: Attacks based on systems online assaults.

These are the types of assaults that target websites or online applications. The following are some significant web-based attacks:

Injection assaults: It is an attack in which certain data is introduced into a web application in order to influence it and get the needed data.

SQL injection, code injection, log injection, XML injection, etc. are a few examples.

DNS spoofing: A sort of computer security hacking is DNS spoofing. When a piece of information is added to the cache of a DNS resolver, the name server responds with the wrong IP address, routing traffic to the attacker's or any other computer. Attacks using DNS spoofing may go undetected for a long time and result in significant security risks.

Session Abuse: It is a security breach on a protected network that targets a user session. Cookies are created by web applications to keep track of user sessions and state. An attacker may get access to all user data by stealing the cookies.

Phishing: The goal of phishing attacks is to get sensitive data such as credit card numbers and user login passwords. It happens when an attacker uses electronic communication to pose as a reliable entity.

Use of force: It is an offensive style that relies on trial and error. In order to get genuine data, such as a user password and personal identification number, this technique creates a huge number of guesses and then verifies them. Security experts may use this technique to evaluate the network security of a company, while criminals may use it to decrypt encrypted data.

Disruption of Service: It is an attack designed to prevent people from accessing a server or network resource. It does this by providing information that causes a crash or by bombarding the target with traffic. To attack a server, it makes use of a single machine and internet connection. It may be divided into the following categories:

Volume-based attack: These are measured in bits per second and have as their objective saturating the target website's bandwidth.

Attacks on protocols: They use up real server resources and are measured in packets. Attacks on the application layer aim to bring down the web server and are timed in requests per second.

Dictionary issues: This kind of attack saved a list of frequently used passwords and checked them against the original passwords to get them.

URL Translation: This kind of attack involves changing certain components of a URL such that a web server will provide web pages that the user is not permitted to see.

Attacks using File Inclusion: It is a kind of attack that enables an attacker to utilise the include feature to execute malicious files on the web server or get unauthorised access to vital or accessible files that are on the web server.

Attack by a man in the midst: It is a kind of attack that enables an attacker to operate as a bridge between the client and server by intercepting their connection. As a result, a hacker will have access to read, insert, and alter the data in the connection that was intercepted.

Attacks based on systems: These are the types of assaults that aim to harm a computer system or computer network. The following are some significant system-based attacks.

Virus: It is a specific kind of harmful malware that infiltrated computer files without the user's awareness. It is a malicious computer program that, when run, inserts copies of itself into other programmes to carry out its own replication. Moreover, it has the ability to carry out commands that damage the system.

Worm: It is a kind of malware whose main objective is to propagate to uninfected systems by reproducing itself. It functions similarly to a computer virus. Email attachments that seem to be from reliable senders are often where worms start.

Trojan horse: Even when the computer should be inactive, this malicious malware causes unforeseen modifications to the settings and strange activity. It deceives the user about its genuine purpose. While it seems to be a typical programme, when it is launched or used, dangerous code will start to run in the background.

Backdoors: It is a technique that gets around the standard authentication procedure. A backdoor may be established by a developer to provide access to an operating system or programme for troubleshooting or other uses.

Bots: An automated operation that communicates with other network services is known as a bot (short for "robot"). Although some bots operate automatically, others only carry out orders in response to particular input. Crawler, chatroom, and malevolent bot programmes are typical types of bots.

The mission: Critical assets you are trying to safeguard should be the focal point of the seven levels of cyber security. Mission-critical assets are the first thing you should safeguard.

Data Security: Data security measures guard against unauthorised access to and storage of data.

Application security controls guard against unauthorised access to an application, unauthorised access by an application to your mission-critical assets, and unauthorised access to the internal security of the application.

Endpoint Security: Endpoint security measures safeguard the network connection between devices.

Network Security: Network security measures safeguard a company's network and guard against illegal access.

Perimeter Security: The physical and digital security techniques that safeguard the whole company are included in perimeter security controls.

The Human Layer: In every cyber security strategy, people are the weakest link. Mission-critical assets are protected from a range of human threats, such as cybercriminals, malevolent insiders, and careless users, by human security measures including phishing simulations and access management rules.

No system is impervious to assaults, as shown by the current pandemic of data breaches. Each business that controls, transmits, stores, or otherwise deals with data must put in place and enforce systems to keep an eye on their online environment, spot vulnerabilities, and plug security gaps as soon as feasible. Understanding the difference between cyber threats and vulnerabilities is vital before pinpointing particular risks to contemporary data systems.

The term "cyber threat" refers to security occurrences or situations that might harm your network or other data management systems. A staff member's failure to follow data protection protocols results in a data breach, phishing attacks that cause the installation of malware that infects your data, and even a tornado that destroys your company's data headquarters, disrupting access, are examples of common types of security threats. The cracks or weak points in a system that enable threats and encourage threat actors to exploit them are known as vulnerabilities.

SQL Injections, Server Misconfigurations, Cross-Site Scripting, and Transmitting Sensitive Data in an Unencrypted Plain Text Format are just a few examples of Network Security Vulnerabilities.

Cyber security professionals describe a situation as a risk when danger likelihood is compounded by the possible loss that might ensue.

Types of Vulnerabilities:

1. Leaky (Loss of secrecy), corrupted (Loss of integrity), unavailable, or very sluggish (Loss of availability).
2. Threats are possible security damage to an asset that might result from exploiting vulnerabilities, while attacks are threats that have already been carried out.
3. Insider: Started by a party within the organisation. Outsider - Initiated from outside the perimeter.
4. Passive: Use information from the system without altering system resources. Active Change system resources or impact operation.
5. Computer thieves: Since they have access to vast quantities of technology, software, and data, cybercriminals have the power to seriously undermine much of the world's functioning commerce and government. In a way, the goal of computer security is to stop these thieves from causing harm.

Any crime that involves a computer or is made easier by its usage is referred to as computer crime. While this definition is undoubtedly wide, it enables us to think about how to defend

our communities, companies, and ourselves against people who use computers for evil purposes. Understanding the people who perpetrate these acts and their motivations is one method of prevention or mitigation. The traits of computer thieves have been the subject of several research. We may be able to identify potential criminals and stop crimes from happening in the future by researching people who have previously used computers to conduct crimes.

FBI Triad: The CIA Triad is really a security model created to assist individuals in thinking about several facets of IT security (Figure 1.1).

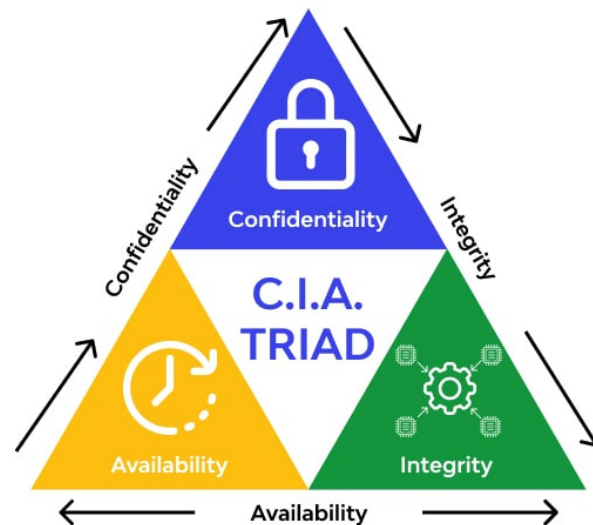


Figure 1.1: the CIA triad.

The CIA Triad's history

In contrast to many important concepts in data security, the CIA triplet doesn't seem to have a single creator or ally; rather, over time, it emerged as a more obvious source of information among those with training in data security. In a blog post, Ben Miller, vice president of association security firm Dragos, notes that a 1976 US Air Force study formalised the possibility of secrecy in programming computers, and a 1987 paper that revealed that business ascertaining had clear requirements for bookkeeping records that demanded an emphasis on information accuracy revealed the possibility of reliability. The phrase accessibility is more difficult to define, although it gained prominence in 1988 when the Morris worm, perhaps the most famous virus, destroyed a significant portion of the early web. It's also unclear how the three considerations came to be thought of as a three-legged stool. It seemed to be a central concept by the time Donn Parker suggested expanding it to a six-part structure known as the Parkerian Hexad in his book *Combat Computer Crime* in 1998. The CIA grouping of three has served as a framework for information security experts to assess what their line of work entails for more than twenty years. Because of the idea's importance for internet security folklore and the fact that it doesn't "have a place" to anybody, many people have explained it and added their own spin to it.

The CIA Triad's significance

The CIA Group of Three security model's significance is justified by the fact that each letter stands for a key aspect of network security. Anybody who is even somewhat acquainted with internet security will understand the significance of these three concepts. The CIA trifecta

becomes helpful in trying to make sense of the bewildering array of safety programmes, administrations, and procedures available. We may ask specific questions as we plan and spend money, as opposed to throwing money and specialists at the vague "problem" of "network safety." Collecting this CIA security ternion also emphasises the fact that the members are often at odds with one another. There are a few distinct differences between the models, but we'll go into more detail about one of them later. Comprehensive data access clearance might help keep data private, but it could also make it difficult for others who have the ability to evaluate the data to do so, decreasing transparency.

Breaking down the CIA triad:

Confidentiality: People must safeguard their private, sensitive information from unwanted access in today's environment. Being able to specify and enforce certain access levels for information is necessary for confidentiality protection. This often entails grouping information into different collections based on who requires access to it and how sensitive it truly is, that is, the degree of harm that might result from a confidentiality violation. Access control lists, volume and file encryption, and Unix file permissions are a few of the most often used techniques for maintaining secrecy.

Integrity: The "I" in CIA Triad stands for data integrity. This is a crucial aspect of the CIA Triad and was created to secure data against deletion or alteration by any unauthorised parties. It also makes sure that any changes made by authorised individuals that shouldn't have been made may be undone.

Availability: The real accessibility of your data is covered by the third and last part of the CIA Triad. For the information they safeguard and to guarantee that it is accessible when required, authentication procedures, access routes, and systems must all operate correctly.

Knowledge of the CIA triad: Information is the foundation of the CIA Triad. Despite the fact that most IT security is based on this, it fosters a narrow understanding of security that downplays other significant issues. For instance, even while availability may help to ensure that you maintain access to the resources required to give information when it is required, information security considerations alone do not ensure that someone else has not improperly accessed your hardware resources. It's critical to comprehend the CIA Triad, how it works, and the numerous guiding principles it is based on in order to create and execute an effective security strategy. It's crucial to comprehend the constraints it imposes. Knowing more about the CIA Triad will enable you to take advantage of its benefits and prevent any potential negative effects.

A few CIA Triad cases

Below are a few CIA triad instances, along with some other administration techniques. Although many CIA group of three network security efforts use similar innovations and cycles, this list is by no means comprehensive.

Examples of CIA Triad Confidentiality

Classification the majority of what is often referred to as "network security"—basically, anything that denies access to data is included in the CIA ternion. These two huge Ans in information security are included here:

Check that implies the steps taken by organizations to verify that a customer is who they claim to be: Models include passwords and a few other perception techniques like biometrics, security tokens, and cryptographic keys. Endorsement determines who interacts with which

data: just because a system remembers you doesn't imply you interact with every cycle of it! Maybe the best method to ensure security is to disperse need-to-acknowledge data access tools, preventing those whose records have been compromised or who have usurped all authority from having the option to consider data. By restricting the number of reports that may be sent to their producers or leaders, for instance, most operational systems safeguard order along these lines.

Examples of CIA Triad Integrity:

Many people believe that information trustworthiness security techniques are useless, although they may be found in a variety of businesses. Since it's impossible to alter information that you don't access, many methods for maintaining information accuracy, for example, also protect confidentiality. We also mentioned how information access restrictions are set up in most operating systems; in certain cases, records may be read but not modified by specific users, which can help ensure information honesty and accessibility. But, the integrity that the CIA attempted to protect may be undermined in ways other than by evildoers trying to destroy or alter it. For instance, because of links with laser beams, degradation clearly occurs more often than you'd expect in information stored in conventional RAM. It is on the far end of the spectrum, but any measures for preserving the real integrity of the capacity medium may also preserve the virtual integrity of the information. Examples of CIA Triad Availability. Keeping accessibility up to date is often the responsibility of divisions that aren't particularly concerned with internet security. The best strategy to ensure accessibility under the CIA triad is to ensure that your data is accessible to maintain all of your systems operational and that they can manage predicted network traffic. Maintaining current equipment, monitoring data transmission use, and providing failover and catastrophic recovery capabilities due to system failure are all necessary for this.

Threat and Resources:

Asset definition: An asset is any data, device, or other system component of an organisation that is valuable, often because it holds or may be used to access sensitive data. An employee's desktop computer, laptop, or corporate phone, for instance, as well as the software they run, would be regarded as assets. Likewise, vital infrastructure, such as servers and support systems, are assets. Information assets are the most often assets in a company. They include physical files and databases, i.e., the sensitive data that you have on hand.

Constitutes a threat: A threat is any occurrence that can adversely impact an asset, such as if it is misplaced, knocked offline, or accessed by an unauthorized person.

Threats are defined as events that unintentionally or unintentionally jeopardize the confidentiality, integrity, or availability of an asset. Accidental threats often entail employee mistake, a technological failure, or an occurrence that results in bodily harm, like a fire or a natural catastrophe, as opposed to intentional threats, which might include things like illegal hacking or a malevolent insider stealing information.

Reason for Attacks: We can better understand the motives and behaviors of the attackers by using the types of cyber-attackers. Operational cyber security risks may result from three different sorts of activities. (I) unintentional, unintentional actions (typically by insiders); (II) deliberate, intentional actions (typically by insiders or outsiders); and (III) inaction (typically by insiders), such as a failure to act in a given situation due to a lack of appropriate skills, knowledge, guidance, or the availability of the correct person to take action. Here, purposeful actions of which there are three types are the main focus are of interest.

Political reasons include making political statements, organizing demonstrations, or taking punitive action. Other instances include damaging, interrupting, or seizing control of objectives. Financial motives, such as stealing money or other economically important assets (such credit card numbers or intellectual property), committing fraud, sabotaging an industry, or using blackmail as just a few examples.

Attacks with philosophical, religious, political, or even humanitarian purposes are examples of socio-cultural reasons. Together with enjoyment, curiosity, and a need for attention or ego fulfilment, socio-cultural motives may also be for fun.

Types of cyber-attacker acts and their reasons when purposeful:

Active attacks: A hacker tries to alter data that is already on the target or that is being sent to the target via a network vulnerability.

Active assault types:

Masquerade: In this kind of attack, the attacker impersonates a certain system user in order to acquire access or privileges above what they are permitted for. It is possible to try a masquerade by using stolen login credentials, looking for security flaws in software, or getting around the authentication process.

Session replay: In this kind of attack, a hacker obtains the session ID in order to get the login credentials of an authorised user. The intrusive party has access to the website and is able to do every action that a registered user is capable of on it. Changes to the message's destination or the contents on the target system are made by changing the packet header addresses in this attack. Users who are subjected to a denial of service (DoS) attack are prevented from accessing a network or online resource. Usually, this is done by flooding the target with more traffic than it can manage. A single target is attacked by a large number of hacked computers (also known as a botnet or zombie army) during a distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) exploit. Attacks that are passive in nature are rather rare from a categorization standpoint, but they are quite simple to execute, especially if the communication is not encrypted.

Passive attack types:

Eavesdropping (tapping): the assailant just listens to communications between two parties. The traffic must not be encrypted for the attack to be effective. The attacker might get any unencrypted data, including a password supplied in response to an HTTP request.

Traffic analysis: The attacker examines the metadata sent in traffic to determine details about the exchange and the parties involved, such as the format of the traded communication (rate, duration, etc.). When using encrypted data, traffic analysis may also result in cryptanalysis assaults, where the attacker may be successful in obtaining information or decrypting the traffic.

Attacks using software: Without the user's knowledge or consent, malicious code, sometimes known as malware, is a form of programme that aims to take control of or harm a computer user's operating system. It may be quite harmful and difficult to get rid of. Examples of typical malware are provided in the following table:

Virus: A virus is a computer software that tries to harm a computer system and spread to other computers. The virus has to be replicated by a host and often affixes to a host file or hard disc sector. Every time the host is utilised, it replicates. Often focuses on data corruption or loss. Distributes often through email. A lot of viruses have the ability to send emails to everyone in your contact book. Examples are Melissa, I Love You, Michelangelo, and Stoned.

Worm: A worm is a self-replicating software that may be programmed to carry out a variety of tasks, including deleting files and emailing data. A worm's replication mechanism alone may have a detrimental effect on network traffic. A worm has the ability to add a backdoor on the infected machine. Is often introduced into the system through a weakness. Spreads from one system on the network to other systems there. Code Red is an example.

Trojan horse: A dangerous application that poses as trustworthy software is referred to as a Trojan horse. Since security in discretionary contexts is user-focused and user-directed, these environments are often more open to Trojan horse assaults. As a result, the vulnerability of one user account may result in the compromising of the whole system. An ersatz horse: Frequently has spying features (like a packet sniffer) or backdoor features that let a machine be remotely controlled via the network. Cannot reproduce itself. Is often concealed in practical applications, such screen savers or games. Examples include Whack-a-Mole, Net Bus, and Back Orifice.

Reason Bomb: Malware that stays inert until it is activated is called a Logic Bomb. A particular example of an asynchronous assault is a logic bomb. A trigger activity might be the processing of a certain kind of activity, the beginning of a particular programme, or a particular day and time. Logic bombs cannot reproduce themselves.

Hardware Attacks: Typical hardware assaults consist of: Creating backdoors for malware or other intrusive reasons; backdoors impact embedded radio-frequency identification (RFID) chips and memory in addition to software and hardware. Eavesdropping without compromising other devices by getting access to protected memory. Introducing errors and disrupting regular behavior. Hardware tampering, intrusive procedures, and hardware modification. The development of backdoors; the existence of covert techniques for getting around standard computer authentication systems. Copying product assets created to get unauthorised access to systems and those capable of producing exceptional operations.

Cyber Threats-Cyber Warfare: The employment of digital weapons by one nation against another, such as computer viruses and hacking, with the intent of causing harm, death, and devastation is referred to as cyber warfare. A nation-state or international organisation may engage in cyber warfare by attacking and attempting to harm the computers or information networks of another country using methods like computer viruses or denial-of-service attacks.

Cybercrime: Criminal action that either targets or makes use of a computer, computer network, or networked device is referred to as cybercrime.

Cybercriminals or hackers who aim to profit from their crimes conduct cybercrime. Cybercrime is committed by both individuals and groups. Some online criminals are well-organized, use cutting-edge methods, and have extensive technological skills. Some hackers are newbies.

Cyberterrorism: The fusion of terrorism with cyberspace is known as cyberterrorism. In order to intimidate or compel a government or its citizens in support of political or social aims, it refers to illegal attacks and threats of assaults on computers, networks, and the information held within. Examples include gaining access to computer systems by hacking, infecting weak networks with viruses, defacing websites, engaging in Denial-of-Service assaults, or making terrorist threats through electronic communication.

Cyber Espionage: Cyber espionage, often known as cyber spying, is the act of getting information and secrets from another person without that person's consent or knowledge. Using techniques on the Internet, people compete with one another for personal, commercial, political, or military benefit.

Security Guidelines: Security policies are a formalised collection of regulations that an organisation issues to make sure that users who have been granted access to corporate technology and information assets abide by the rules and standards pertaining to the protection of that information. A security policy is sometimes referred to as a "living document," which indicates that it is constantly updated to reflect changes in personnel needs and technological requirements. To govern the security of our network, we utilise security policies. The majority of security policies are established automatically after installation. We may alter policies to fit the circumstances of our particular environment:

1. Security policies are required.
2. It boosts effectiveness.
3. It supports responsibility and discipline
4. A commercial agreement may be made or broken by it.
5. It is beneficial to teach staff about security literacy

The following are some crucial cyber security policies and suggestions.

Policy for Virus and Spyware Protection: It eliminates and fixes the impacts of viruses and security threats by employing signatures. It assists in detecting threads in files and apps that indicate suspicious activity.

Firewall Guidelines: It identifies assaults by cybercriminals and eliminates undesired sources of network traffic. It prevents unauthorised users from accessing the systems and networks that link to the Internet.

Policy for preventing intrusions: This policy examines the contents of one or more data packages, protects programmes from vulnerabilities, and automatically identifies and stops network assaults, browser attacks, and malware that enters the system through legitimate channels.

Control of applications and devices: This policy controls which peripheral devices may connect to a system and safeguards its resources from apps. The application control policy can only be used with Windows clients, but the device control policy is applicable to both Windows and Mac machines.

CHAPTER 2

CLASSIFICATION OF CYBER SPACE

Chandramma R

Assistant Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

Email Id: -chandramma.cse@gmail.com

The internet is one of the most significant innovations of the twenty-first century that has changed our way of life. The way we communicate, play games, work, shop, make friends, watch movies, order meals, pay bills, and greet pals on their birthdays and anniversaries has all altered as a result of the internet. We have an app for anything, no matter what. By making our lives more comfortable, it has facilitated them. Our need to wait in a huge line to pay our phone and power bills is a thing of the past. Today, from the comfort of our home or place of business, we may pay it instantly. Technology has advanced to the point where accessing the internet doesn't even need a computer. We may now stay in touch with our friends, family, and workplace around-the-clock thanks to internet-enabled smartphones, palmtops, and other devices. Our lives have been made simpler by the internet, but it has also made many items more affordable for the middle class. Not so long ago, the pulse metre caught our attention while we were making an ISD or even STD call. The phone calls were incredibly pricey. Only urgent communications were sent through ISD and STD; the remainder of the normal communication was done by letters since they were so inexpensive. With the advent of the internet, it is now possible to conduct video conferences using well-known programmes like Skype, Gtalk, and others for incredibly low prices to the point where a one-hour video chat over the internet is less expensive than using speed post or a courier service to send a single page of text from Delhi to Bangalore. Not only that, but internet use has altered how we previously utilised our regular equipment. Television may be used to phone or video chat with friends utilising the internet in addition to viewing famous TV series and movies. A recent movie may be seen on a mobile phone in addition to being used for calls. No matter where we are, we can still communicate with everyone. Parents who are working at an office may watch over their kids from home and assist them with their schoolwork. At the press of a button, a businessman may monitor his employees, workplace, store, etc. Our lives have been made easier by it in several ways. Have you ever questioned the origins of the internet? Learn about the creation of the internet and how it developed to the point that we can no longer imagine life without it by taking a look at its short history.

The Internet's past: The internet is undoubtedly one of those very valuable innovations whose foundation was established during the cold war between the United States and Russia. I'm not sure what else the conflict between the two countries brought the globe days. On October 4th, 1957, Russia launched the first satellite in history, SPUTNIK, into orbit. The United States Department of Defense's research arm, the Advanced Research Projects Agency, announced the creation of ARPANET (Advanced Research Projects Agency NETWORK) in the early 1960s as a response to what was obviously a Russian win in the cyberspace. This network, which was experimental, was built to keep computers linked to it in touch even if a node failed to reply as a result of a bomb strike on that node. Leonard Kleinrock's lab at the University of California, Los Angeles sent the first message across the packed switching network known as the ARPANET (UCLA). It may surprise you to learn that the first message

transmitted via the internet was "LO." They really wanted to transmit the word "LOGIN," but only the first two letters got there, to the second network node at Stanford Research Institute (SRI), and before the last three letters could, the network went down owing to a fault. As soon as the problem was corrected, a new message was sent, and it

The main responsibility of ARPANET is to provide communication protocols, or rules for communication. Protocols for internetworking, which allowed different networks to be connected to form a network of networks, were developed, particularly as a result of the ARPANET. As a consequence, the TCP/IP protocol suite was created, outlining the guidelines for connecting to and interacting with the APRANET.

The National Science Foundation (NSF) backbone was established shortly after, and the computer facilities of five US colleges were linked to create NSFnet in 1986. Institutions involved in the competition included: Princeton University, home of the John von Neumann National Supercomputer Center (JvNC); University of Illinois at Urbana-National Champaign's Center for Supercomputing Applications; Carnegie Mellon University's Pittsburgh Supercomputer Center; General Atomics' San Diego Supercomputer Center; and Cornell University's Cornell Theory Center, CTC

By 1990, NFSnet had overtaken ARPANet as the preferred network, and ARPANET had been shut down. There were several alternative networks created by other universities and nations like the UK. A packing switching network was suggested by the National Physical Laboratory (NPL) in 1965. MERIT network was created in 1966 by the Michigan Educational Research Information Triad with funding and assistance from the state of Michigan and the Scientific Research Council (NSF). In 1973, France also created a packet switching network known as CYCLADES.

Scientists were searching for some kind of shared standard so that the networks might be linked since there were several parallel systems operating under various protocols at the time. By 1983, ARPANET had adopted the TCP/IP protocol, which had been available since 1978. Two significant networks were integrated in 1981. Using the TCP/IP protocol suite, NFS created the Computer Science Network (CSNET) and linked to the ARPANET. At this point, the network was not just well-liked by the scientific community, but also by private players. Originally, NFS could provide 56 kbit/s of speed. In order to promote network expansion, it was upgraded to 1.5 Mbit/s in 1988. Merit network, IBM, MCA, and the state of Michigan were all involved in this project.

After the cooperating states saw the value and power of this network, they contributed to its creation in order to reap its rewards. In the late 1980s, a large number of Internet Service Providers (ISPs) arose to act as the network's backbone. NFSNET has grown and reached a 45Mbit/s speed by 1991. Backbone services were offered by several commercial ISPs, which were well-liked by businesses. NFSNET was shut down in 1995 to allow the Internet to accept commercial traffic, which facilitated the network's usage for business. It is now linked to an increasing number of universities and research facilities throughout the globe. As the research community had grown to love this network, the National Research and Education Network (NREN) was established in 1991, the same year that the World Wide Web was made public. At first, the internet was solely used for file transfers. Tim Berners-Lee introduced www, which is responsible for the internet as we know it today. With the introduction of the www, the way the network was utilised changed. It is now possible to get any online information using this informational web. The internet-browsing programme browser was created. In 1992, University of Illinois researchers created it, giving it the name Mosaic. Using this browser, you may access the internet in the same manner that we do now.

Cyber Crime: During the 1960s, only a few numbers of scientists, academics, and those in the military had access to the internet. Internet users have rapidly changed over time. At first, computer crime was limited to intentionally causing physical harm to computers and associated infrastructure. In the year 1980, the focus shifted from physically harming computers to making them malfunction via the use of harmful software known as viruses. The impact was not as pervasive up until that point since internet access was restricted to military installations, significant global corporations, and research groups. When the internet was first made available to the general public in 1996, it immediately gained popularity and the general population gradually became reliant on it to the point where it altered their way of life. Because of how beautifully the GUIs were developed, users don't have to worry about how the internet works. They only need to click on a few hyperlinks or type the desired information in the appropriate field, not worrying about how or where the data is stored, how it is transmitted over the internet, whether it can be accessed by someone not connected to the internet, or whether the data packet sent over the internet can be tampered with. The emphasis of computer crime has evolved from only causing harm to the computer to erasing, altering, or manipulating data for one's own gain. Computer assaults like this are increasing quickly. By 2013, 800 million people had been impacted by cyberattacks, which occurred every second on around 25 computers. Between 2011 and 2013, 308371 Indian websites were hacked, according to CERT-India. A further estimate puts the annual cost of cybercrime losses at around \$160 million. Although most incidents go unreported, this number is very conservative.

According to the 2013–14 report of the standing committee on information technology to the 15th Lok Sabha by the ministry of communication and information technology, India has the third-highest number of internet users in the world, with an estimated 100 million users as of June 2011; the numbers are rapidly increasing. Over 134 large Internet service providers now manage about 22 million broadband connections in India (ISPs).

The phrase "cybercrime" refers to any illegal action in which a computer or computing device such as a smartphone, tablet, personal digital assistant (PDA), etc.—is utilised as a tool or as the target of criminal behaviour. Several times committed either out of retaliation, avarice, or adventure by those with a destructive and criminal attitude.

Cybercrimes are categorized: The cyberattack victim organisation may have an internal or foreign cybercriminal. Due to this aspect, two categories of cybercrime might be made:

Internal Attack: An insider attack is when a user with authorised system access attacks a computer system or a network. Often, angry or disgruntled internal workers or contractors conduct it. The insider strike might have been motivated by avarice or retaliation. Being familiar with the rules, procedures, IT architecture, and robustness of the security system makes it very simple for an insider to carry out a cyberattack. The attacker also has access to the network. As a result, stealing critical data, crashing the network, etc. are all very simple tasks for an insider attacker. Insider attacks often result from an employee being let go or given a new function in a company that is not reflected in the IT rules. This gives the attacker a window of verifiability. By organising and putting in place an internal intrusion detection system (IDS), the insider assault might be stopped.

External assault: This kind of attack occurs when the attacker is either employed by a member of the company or comes from outside. A cyberattack victimised firm not only suffers money loss but also reputational damage. Due to the fact that the attacker is external to the company, these attackers often scan and acquire data. While external assaults may be identified by carefully analysing these firewall logs, an experienced network/security

administrator regularly monitors the logs produced by the firewalls. In order to monitor external threats, intrusion detection systems are also implemented.

Based on the amount of development of the adversary, cyberattacks may also be divided into organised and unstructured assaults. While some writers have categorised these assaults as an example of external attacks, there are situations when a systematic attack was carried out by an inside employee. This occurs when a rival business requests a future plan from an organisation about particular issues. By cleverly posing as an employee, the attacker may enter the firm and get the necessary data.

Unstructured assaults: These attacks are often carried out by novices who lack any predetermined goals in carrying them out. These amateurs often attempt to test a tool that is easily accessible online on the network of an unrelated business.

Structural Attack: These sorts of assaults are carried out by highly competent and experienced individuals who have definite intentions. They may enter other networks using sophisticated tools and technologies without being detected by intrusion detection systems (IDSs). Moreover, these attackers possess the know-how needed to create new tools or change those that already exist in order to achieve their goals. These kinds of assaults are often carried out by professional criminals, governments against other competitor countries, politicians to harm the reputation of the opponent person or the country, terrorists, rival businesses, etc.

Cybercrime has shown to be a lucrative, low-risk, low-investment industry. These organised crimes are carried out in modern times with great organisation. There is a flawless hierarchical organisational structure, much as in formal organisations, and some of them have technological skills on par with those of industrialised nations. Large financial institutions, nuclear power plants, and defence sites are among their targets. They also engage in internet drug trade. The roles of everyone in the hierarchy are continuously evolving and are depending on opportunities. If a hacker steals sensitive information from a company, he or she could use it to financially abuse the company. If the hacker has the necessary technological know-how, he will do it himself; if not, he will look for a buyer who is interested in the data and has the necessary skills.

Some online criminals provide services that are on demand. To hack a company to get sensitive data or to launch a large-scale denial-of-service assault on competitors, an individual, an organisation, or a nation may get in touch with these cybercriminals. Hackers create malware, viruses, etc. based on consumer requests to meet their needs. A cyber assault not only causes financial damage for the business, but it also negatively impacts its future, and the competitor organisation will unquestionably gain from it.

Motives for Committing Cybercrimes:

The expansion of cybercrime is fueled by a variety of factors.

Many of the primary causes are:

1. **Financial gain:** Individuals who perpetrate cybercrime are driven by the desire to generate fast, easy money.
2. **Revenge:** Some individuals attempt to exact vengeance on another person, organisation, community, caste, or religion by damaging their reputation or inflicting harm on their physical or financial well-being. This is considered a kind of online terrorism.

3. Amateurs commit cybercrime for pleasure. They only want to evaluate the most recent gadget they have come across.
4. Recognition: When a highly guarded network, such as a military site or network, is breached, it is seen as a source of pride.
5. Anonymity: Sometimes, the ability to stay anonymous in the online world encourages criminal activity since it is much simpler to carry out such crimes there than in the actual world. Compared to the actual world, it is far simpler to get away with illicit action online. Strong feelings of anonymity have the power to persuade otherwise moral people to compromise their moral principles in the name of self-interest.
6. Cyber Espionage: The government sometimes engages in cyber trespassing to monitor other people, networks, and nations. Politics, the economy, or social issues might all be to blame.

Types of Cyber Crime:

Cybercrimes come in many forms, including:

Online stalking: It is an act of stalking, harassing, or threatening someone via the use of the internet or a computer. This is often done to discredit a person utilising the internet as a medium since it provides anonymity. Examples include using email, social media, instant messaging, online posting, etc. The actions taken include surveillance, false charges, threats, and sexual exploitation of children.

Children's pornography: Having photos or videos of a juvenile (under 18) engaging in sexual activity is against the law. **Forgery and counterfeiting:** Computers are used in document forgery and counterfeiting. With the development of technology and software, it is now feasible to manufacture counterfeit documents that are so similar to the originals that it is impossible to determine the validity of the document without professional judgement.

Piracy of software and Crime involving IPRs: Piracy refers to the unauthorised creation and distribution of software for commercial or personal use. It falls within the category of intellectual property crime. Downloading music, downloading movies, and other similar offences fall under the category of IPR infringement.

Online terrorism: It is described as the use of computer resources to threaten or compel the government, the general public, or any group within it in order to advance political or social goals.

Phishing: By pretending to be a reliable party in an electronic contact, it is possible to get personal and sensitive information about a person using email. Identity theft is the goal of phishing, and sensitive data such as a user name, password, and credit card number may be used to defraud a user of their money. **Vishing** is the practise of using a phone to steal someone else's identity (voice phishing). **Smishing** is another kind of phishing when clients are tricked through SMS.

Cyberterrorist Activity: It involves physically damaging computer resources by either employing force or harmful software.

Computer hacking: Computer hardware and software are modified for purposes other than those for which they were originally designed. Hacking a computer system may be done for a variety of purposes, from simple technical demonstrations to the destruction, modification, or sealing of data for social, economic, or political objectives. In order to uncover and address

security flaws in an organization's computer system, corporations are now employing hackers, or those who actively participate in hacking computers. Hackers may be categorised as:

White Hat: White hat hackers are those that infiltrate a system to identify its security flaws and inform the organisations concerned so that preventative measures may be implemented to safeguard it from outside hackers. White hat hackers might be salaried employees of a company who are hired to uncover security flaws, or they can be independent contractors who just wish to establish their reputation in this industry. They are often called "ethical hackers."

Black Hat: As opposed to white hats, black hats hack the system with malicious intent. For social, political, or financial gain, they could hack the system. They identify the system's security flaws, retain the knowledge, and take use of the system for their own or their organization's gain until the company whose system has been penetrated is made aware of this and security updates are applied. Crackers are the common name for them.

Grey Hat: For a consulting fee, grey hat hackers identify security flaws on a website, notify the site administrators, and offer to repair the problem.

Blue hat: A blue hat hacker is an independent computer security consultant that tests a system for bugs before it is released in order to find vulnerabilities that can be fixed.

Virus production and online distribution: An organisation may experience a loss of revenue and funds due to the propagation of a virus. The loss comprises the price of restoring the system, the price of business lost due to downtime, and the price of lost opportunities. If the hacker is discovered, the organization may file a lawsuit against them for damages that are more than or equal to the harm they suffered.

Spamming: Spamming is the practice of sending large volumes of commercial, unsolicited messages online. If an email fits the following requirements, it may be categorized as spam:

Bulk mailing: The email is sent to a huge number of individuals rather than just one specific recipient.

Anonymity: The individual's true identity is unknown.

Unsolicited: The email is not something the recipient requested or expected to receive.

In addition to annoying the receivers and clogging up the network, these spams cost time and take up precious inbox memory.

Cross-site scripting: A malicious client side script is introduced into a reliable website during this behaviour. As soon as the browser runs the malicious script, it has access to cookies and other sensitive data and sends it to distant servers. Now that information is available, it may be used to get monetary gain or direct physical access to a system for personal advantage.

Internet auction fraud: There are a lot of reliable websites that provide online auctions. Some cybercriminals take advantage of the goodwill associated with these websites to trick clients into participating in online auction fraud schemes that often result in either overpaying for the merchandise or never receiving it after making the payment.

Online trespassing: It is the act of holding onto trademark domain names with the intention of later selling them to the entity holding the trademark at a greater price.

Logic Bombs: These are harmful programmes that have been added to safe software. The

wicked behaviour is brought on by a certain circumstance. If the circumstances remain true in the future, harmful activity starts, and depending on the action specified in the malicious code, they either destroy the data stored in the system or render it useless.

Internet piracy: The hacker gains access to an organization's website and either disables it or modifies it to further their own personal, political, commercial, or social agenda. Recent instances of web jacking include the hacking of educational institutions' websites by Pakistani hackers, which resulted in the flashing of an animation with Pakistani flags on the homepage. Another instance occurred in 2014, when Indian hackers compromised the Pakistani Railways website and displayed the Indian flag on the homepage for many hours in honour of India's Independence Day.

Online Time Fraud: Internet time theft is when a person surfs the internet at his expense by hacking his ISP's account and password.

Attack via Denial of Service: It is a cyber-attack in which the network is overloaded and often collapses as a result of the meaningless traffic that prevents the genuine network traffic from passing through.

Assault by Salami: It is an onslaught that begins inconspicuously and builds to a big assault in the end. The differences are so small that they go overlooked. Gaining access to a person's online banking and taking money out in such little sums that the owner is unaware of it is an example of a salami attack. A default trigger is often set on the banking website, and transactions below, say, a Rs. 1000 withdrawal are not notified to the account owner. A gradual withdrawal of Rs. 1000 will result in a significant total withdrawal.

Data Fuddling: Before data is entered into a computer system, it is customary to change it. The original data is often kept after the execution of the data is complete. In the payroll information of an individual for pay computation, for instance, DA or the person's base wage may be altered. His real pay is substituted for the total salary in the report after the compensation has been computed and sent to his account.

Email Forgery: It is a procedure for altering an email's header information so that its original source is hidden and it looks to a person on the receiving end that the email was sent from a source other than the actual source.

Techniques for Cyber Security

To defend against cyber security assaults, there are several cyber security approaches. The tactics that are often used to defend against cyberattacks are covered in the following section.

Authentication: It is a procedure for locating someone and making sure that person is who they say they are. Typically, a username and password are used for online authentication. Due to the rise in reported instances of identity theft through cybercrime, organisations have implemented additional measures to ensure user authentication. One of these measures is the One Time Password (OTP), which is a password that can be used just once and is sent to the user's mobile device or email address during the registration process as an SMS or email. It is referred to as two-factor authentication and needs two different forms of identification to authenticate a person, adding an additional layer of protection. Other well-liked two-way authentication methods include those that combine a login and password with biometric information, physical tokens, etc.

Since that today's international corporations have altered how business was conducted, say, 15 years ago, authentication becomes increasingly crucial. They have locations all over the

world, and an employee could need access to information that is stored on a centralised server. Or maybe an employee needs access to a certain file that is on the office network while working remotely from home and without utilising the intranet. The system must verify the user's identity before granting access to the requested information, depending on the user's credentials. Authorization is the process of granting someone access to certain resources depending on that person's credentials, and it often occurs in tandem with authorisation. As an easy password might result in a security fault and put the whole business at significant risk, it is now simple to comprehend the need of using strong passwords for permission to maintain cyber security. As a result, the password policy of a business should require workers to use strong passwords (more than 12 characters, a mix of lowercase and uppercase alphabets, as well as digits and special characters), and it should also encourage users to change their passwords periodically. A hybrid authentication is used in certain larger organisations or in organisations that deal with sensitive information, such as planning commissions, banking institutions, and defence agencies.

It uses a system that combines hardware security features like biometric systems with software security measures like usernames and passwords. Some of the bigger enterprises also use VPNs, which are one of the ways to enable hybrid security authentication for secure access to a corporate network over the internet.

Encryption: It is a method of transforming the data into an unintelligible form before sending it over the internet. Only those with access to the key may read it after converting it to readable form. Strictly speaking, encryption is a method for locking data by utilising sophisticated codes created by mathematical algorithms. Even the most powerful computer would need several years to decipher the code due to its complexity. This secure code may be sent securely to the destination via the internet. After receiving the data, the receiver may use the key to decode it. **Decryption** is the process of utilising a key to translate a complicated code back to the original text. Symmetric key encryption refers to locking and unlocking data using the same key (Figure 2.1).

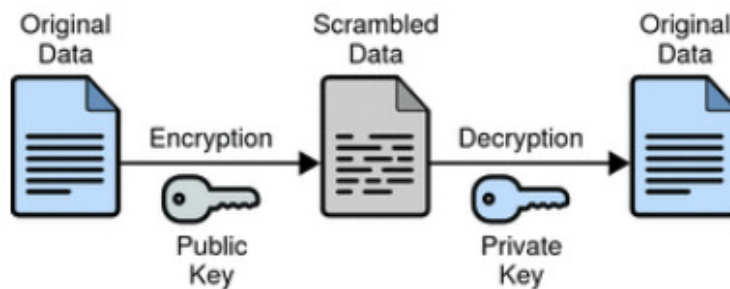


Figure 2.1: Representing the Encryption

In symmetric key encryption, the key is transferred to the target user through a different means, such as the postal service, telephone, etc., after the data has been encoded since the security of the data is compromised if the key is gained by a hacker. Key distribution is a difficult operation since key security during transmission is a problem in and of itself. Asymmetric key encryption, commonly referred to as public key encryption, is a technique used to prevent the transmission of keys. In asymmetric key encryption, a separate key is utilised to encrypt and decode data. There are two keys that each user has, a public key and a private key. As the name implies, everyone has access to each user's public key, but only that user's private key is known to them. Let's say sender A wishes to send receiver B a private message via the internet. Because everyone is aware of B's public key, A will use it to encrypt the message. After the communication has been encrypted, it may be sent to B

securely via the internet. B will immediately use his private key to decode the message after receiving it in order to recreate the original message.

Electronic Signatures: It is a method for data validation. A document's content is verified via the validation procedure. Digital signatures are used for authentication as well as data validation. The data is encrypted using the sender's private key to produce the digital signature. Together with the original message, the encrypted data is transferred to the recipient via the internet. Using the sender's public key, the recipient may decode the signature. The original message and the decoded message are now compared. If both are identical, it means that the data has not been tampered with and that the sender's identity has been confirmed since only the owner of the private key, which is required to encrypt and decrypt data, knows it. As the data will not be validated, the recipient may quickly identify data tampering during transmission. Moreover, the message cannot be re-encrypted after tampering since this requires the private key, which can only be obtained from the original sender (Figure 2.2).

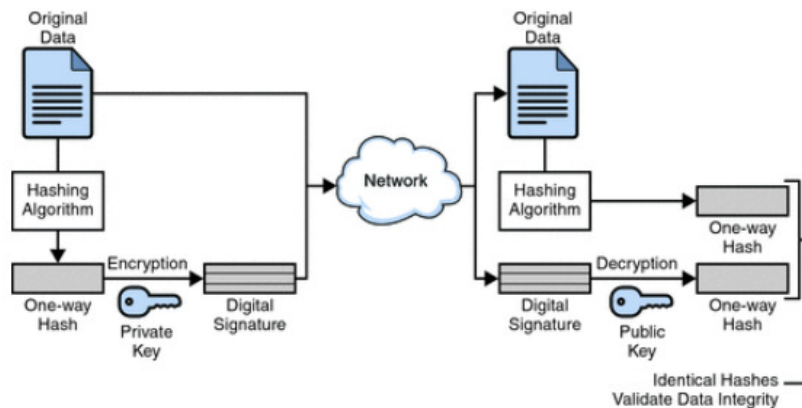


Figure 2.2: Illustration of Digital signatures

Digital signatures are a crucial component of the legal and financial transformation as more and more papers are transferred over the internet. It not only offers the document's validation and the person's verification, but it also stops a subsequent rejection or agreement. Let's say a shareholder sends an email to the broker instructing him or her to sell the share at the present rate. If, once the transaction is complete, the shareholder decides they want their shares back, they may do so by claiming the email is a fake or a fraud. The usage of digital signatures helps to avoid these unpleasant circumstances.

Antivirus: Many dangerous programmes, such as viruses, worms, trojan horses, etc., are disseminated online to undermine computer security, either in order to delete data stored there or to make money by sniffing passwords, etc. Anti-virus software, which is a specialised tool intended to safeguard the system against viruses, is used to stop these dangerous programmes from entering your system. In addition to preventing dangerous code from entering the system, it also finds and removes any bad code that has already been added. Many new viruses emerge every day. The antivirus application shields the system against these fresh viruses, worms, and other threats by routinely updating its database.

Firewall: It is a piece of hardware or software that stands between a company's network and the internet, shielding it from risks like viruses, malware, hackers, etc. It may be used to restrict who has access to your network and can send you information (Figure 2.3).

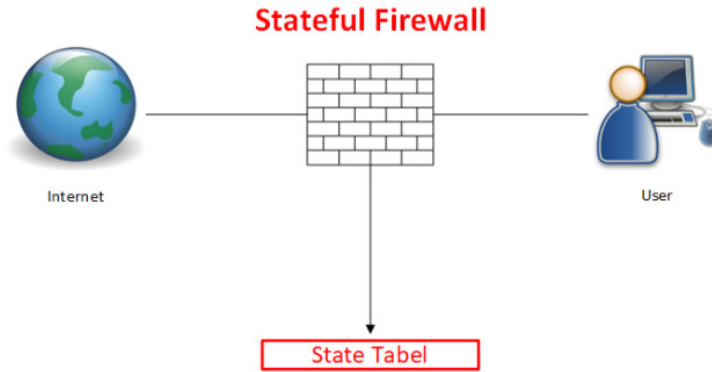


Figure 2.3: Representing the Firewall

In an enterprise, there are two types of traffic: incoming traffic and outward traffic. It is possible to set and keep track of the port traffic using a firewall. Only packets from trustworthy source addresses may reach the company's network; sources from blacklisted and untrusted source addresses are not permitted access. Firewalls are necessary to protect the network from illegal access, but this cannot be guaranteed until and until they are set properly. A firewall may be installed using either hardware, software, or a mix of the two.

Hardware Firewalls: One kind of hardware firewall is a router, which connects a company's network to the Internet and other networks.

Software Firewalls: These firewalls are installed on the client and server computers and function as a gateway to the network of the enterprise.

It is included with the operating system in programmes like Windows 2003, Windows 2008, etc. The firewall just has to be properly configured by the user in accordance with their own needs. The following filtering processes may be applied by the firewalls depending on the "rules" and "policies" that can be specified to be followed by them.

Proxy: To monitor and manage packets that are sent outside of the company, all outgoing traffic is routed via proxies.

Packet filtering: Each packet is filtered according to its type, port information, source & destination information, and other criteria depending on the rules specified in the policies. Examples of these traits include IP addresses, domain names, port numbers, and protocols, among others. Routers are capable of doing fundamental packet filtering.

Stateful Inspection: Instead of scanning every field in a packet, important characteristics are identified. Just those specified features are used to evaluate the sent and received packets.

The firewalls are a crucial part of the networks of the companies. In addition to safeguarding the company against viruses and other harmful code, they also stop hackers from using your network infrastructure to perform denial-of-service assaults.

Steganography: In order to make the embedded message invisible and retrievable with the use of specialised software, it is a method for concealing secret messages in document files, picture files, programmes, or protocols, among other things. The secret message in the picture is hidden from everyone save the sender and the recipient. The benefit of this method is that these files are difficult to detect (Figure 2.4).

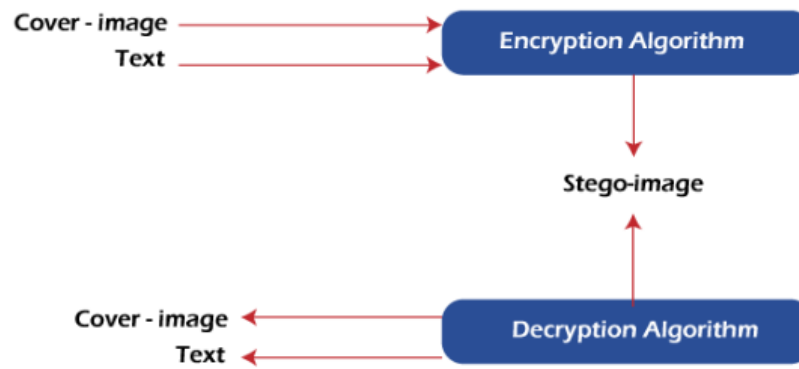


Figure 2.4: Representing the Steganography

Steganography has a variety of uses, such as hiding communications from prying eyes, guarding against theft and illegal access to private documents, adding digital watermarks to protect intellectual property, etc. utilise an image file that is used as a cover medium as an example. With a high-resolution picture, three bytes are used to represent each pixel (24 bits). The final picture, after embedding the data into it, will have an undetectable change in image quality, and only extremely trained and experienced eyes can notice this change if the three least significant bits of this 24 bit set are adjusted and utilised to hide the data. Every pixel may be utilised to conceal three pieces of information in this fashion.

Similar to this, data in audio or video files may be hidden by adding white noise at regular or random intervals. Several free programmes are available for steganography. Popular ones include QuickStego, Xiao, Tucows, OpenStego, and others.

CHAPTER 3

SIGNIFICANCE, PROBLEMS, AND CHALLENGES OF CYBERTERRORISM

Vanitha K

Assistant Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -k.vanitha@jainuniversity.ac.in

The points made above draw a distinct distinction between cyberterrorism and cybercrime, allowing us to define cyberterrorism as: terrorist organisations and individuals using information technology and related tools. It is essential to separate the deed from the motive when defining cyberterrorism. Hacking may undoubtedly have the same negative effects as acts of terrorism, but in a legal sense, the deliberate misuse of information in cyberspace must be a component of a terrorist campaign or operation. Use of information technology to plan and carry out attacks, actions of support groups, and perception-management efforts are a few examples of cyberterrorism. According to experts, numerous terrorist organisations, like the Osama bin Laden network and the Islamic militant organisation Hamas, have adapted modern digital technologies to carry out their activities covertly from counterterrorism authorities. Cyberterrorism is the use of information technology and related tools by terrorist organisations and their operatives. Cybercrime should be used to describe other behaviours that the media has so lavishly glamorised.

Forms of Cyberterrorism: Since it enables networks of like-minded people to interact and cooperate regardless of their separate geographies or physical locations, social networking through the Internet has taken off recently. As already said, cyber terrorism is a very significant problem that includes many different types of assaults.

Botnets, Estonia, 2007, malicious code hosted on websites, cyber espionage, among other things, are some of the main weapons of cybercrime. It is vital to note that there are many types of crime that might be classified as cybercrime, and that these technologies are as crucial.

Unauthorized access, which includes hacking, is one of the illegal actions and refers to any access made to a computer, computer system, or computer network without the consent of the device's owner or the person in charge of such systems or networks. Hacking is the term for any action taken to gain access to a computer system or network. Hackers create their own computer programmes or utilise pre-made ones to attack the target machine. They have a passion to destroy, and they enjoy doing it.

Trojan Attack: A Trojan is a software that seems to be beneficial while really doing things that are obnoxious and debilitating. Trojans are the name given to these types of applications. Trojans have two components: a client component and a server component. The attacker will use the client to connect to the server and begin running the Trojan when the victim (unknowingly) launches the server on its computer. Virus and Worm assault: Viruses are programmes with the capacity to replicate themselves, propagate into other programmes, and infect other programmes. Worms are computer programmes that replicate like viruses but spread from one machine to another. Email-related offences Spoofing emails Email spoofing is the practise of sending email that looks to have come from one source but was really sent

from another. Scam emails Email "spamming" is the practise of sending chain-letter-style emails to a large number of recipients distributing harmful software through email Viruses, Trojan horses, and other harmful software are distributed by email as attachments or by providing links to websites that, when visited, download dangerous code.

As you are aware, threatening a sizable bank is one of the most common types of cyberterrorism. After breaking into the system, the terrorists send top directors an encrypted message that threatens the bank. The fact that the culprits may be abroad makes it more difficult to apprehend them. Another issue is that most banks would prefer pay the money than reveal their vulnerabilities to the public.

Cyberterrorism's Impact on Domestic and Foreign Infrastructure: The goal of a cyber-terrorist attack may be to disrupt financial networks and systems in order to create economic disruption, or it may be to assist a physical assault in order to spread confusion and perhaps delay appropriate responses. Despite the fact that cyberattacks have damaged millions of lives and cost billions of dollars, we have not yet seen the effects of a fully.

Loss of revenue during the disruption, Staff time, network delays, and sporadic access for business users, Increased insurance costs as a result of litigation, Loss of intellectual property, including research, pricing, and other properties, Costs of forensics for recovery and litigation, Loss of vital communications in an emergency, Indirect Cost Implications, Loss of future customer revenues for a person or group of businesses; Loss of trust and credibility in our financial systems; Damage to relationships and public image worldwide; Damage to local and international business partner relationships;

A decline in confidence in the government and the computer sector: A new law mandates that system breaches be notified. Additional proposed laws would enable victims of assaults conducted from compromised online platforms to seek damages. Bill 1386, a broad law passed in California, requires the public notification of any computer security incidents that may have exposed the private information of any California citizen. The measure continues by defining personal information as a person's first name or first name and last name along with their SSN, their driver's licence number, any account numbers, credit card numbers, debit card numbers, and related passwords or codes.

Consider the liabilities a company would face if its systems were breached and the personal information of thousands of people was made public or even used for financial benefit (funding terrorism).It is difficult to imagine the financial ramifications of a far more catastrophic and extensive assault with an estimated cost of \$10 billion. Every day, businesses in the U.S. and overseas spend millions defending against the risks posed by cyberattacks and cyberterrorism. Business initiatives result in tens (if not Hundreds) of billions of dollars per year, and if assaults become more frequent, the cost will rise sharply in the years to come. Businesses will increasingly look to governments all around the globe for assistance as we confront more sophisticated assaults from skilled cyber warriors in order to prevent these attempts and stop the financial bleeding.

Identifiable Markers of Cyberterrorism: "When is a cyberattack deemed terrorist in nature. By looking at the components that all acts of terrorism have in common, the issue may be resolved. According to terrorist attacks are: political in nature and intended to have an influence on political structures; directed against people and civilian installations; carried out by ad hoc organisations as opposed to national armies.Cyberterrorism Challenges and Issues: Formulating effective cyber security policies requires an understanding of the reasons, methods, and potential repercussions that terrorists could choose to utilise the cyber realm for.

The virtual world has undergone significant change as a result of technological advancements, and both the online world and the hazards it presents have accelerated in the twenty-first century. Not only has access to the internet improved recently, but so have programme capabilities and the breadth of services available. Computers have also caused issues in the technical, political, social, and economic spheres, with virus emerging more often than its fixes. Controls over both targets and attackers have grown to be very challenging, and in the case of the latter, almost impossible. Hacking attacks that are more advanced and intricate often target important, both private and public, assets. While cyberspace is now a topic of intense interest in interstate relations, there is a considerable risk that terrorist organisations might acquire the skills, resources, and motive to attack public and even private infrastructure. Many studies, investigations, and intelligence data imply that in a few years, terrorists may have the necessary abilities to exploit the internet for attacks.

Cyberterrorism and computer attacks: Actions taken against computer systems to obstruct equipment functioning, alter processing control, or corrupt stored data may be referred to as computer attacks. Various assault strategies use various weapons and target various weaknesses; some may be now within the reach of certain terrorist organisations. This research identifies three alternative assault strategies depending on the outcomes of the weapons utilised. But, as technology advances, the lines between different approaches could start to fuzzle.

In a physical assault, a computer facility or its transmission links are targeted with conventional weapons; An electronic attack (EA) entails the use of electromagnetic energy as a weapon, most frequently in the form of an electromagnetic pulse (EMP) to overload computer circuitry, but it can also take a less drastic form, such as the direct insertion of a stream of malicious digital code into an adversary microwave radio transmission; A computer network assault (CNA) often entails the employment of malicious code to infect adversary systems and take advantage of a flaw in the software, system configuration, or computer security procedures of an enterprise or computer user. When an attacker gains access to secured computer systems using stolen information, other types of CNA are made possible.

While being "less probable" than physical assaults, CNA and EA threats may end up being more harmful since they include disruptive technologies that might have unanticipated effects or provide an opponent unforeseen advantage. **Physical attack characteristics:** The availability of data and the dependability of computer hardware are both affected by physical attacks. Physical assault is carried out either by using standard weapons that produce heat, explosion, and fragmentation or by directly manipulating wire or equipment, generally after getting illegal physical access.

According to reports, the US military used cruise missiles to spread carbon filaments that short-circuited power supply cables in order to interfere with Iraqi communications and computer centres during Operation Desert Storm in 1991. On September 11, 2001, Al Qaeda launched strikes on the Pentagon and the World Trade Center, disrupting vital computer databases and interconnected worldwide banking and communications networks used by both the military and the civilian population. By shutting down financial markets for up to a week, the temporary loss of communications linkages and crucial data exacerbated the consequences of the physical assault.

Elements of an electronic attack (EA) Electronic attacks, also known as electromagnetic pulses (EMPs), overload circuit boards, transistors, and other electronic components, which compromises the dependability of electronic equipment. EMP impacts are able to pass through the walls of computer facilities, wiping out electronic memory, disrupting software,

or completely shutting down all electronic parts. Others claim that hardly much has a restricted range, small-scale, or portable electromagnetic pulse device may do catastrophic damage to commercial electronic equipment in the United States, according to private sector research done to combat the danger from electromagnetic pulses. According to some military analysts, the United States may be the country most susceptible to electromagnetic pulse assault.

Congress created the Commission to Assess the Danger from High Altitude Electromagnetic Pulse in FY2001 after numerous experts voiced worry that a high altitude EMP strike may have a negative impact on the military and essential infrastructure of the United States. Members of the Commission's panel allegedly said at a hearing before the House Armed Services Committee on July 22, 2004, that as U.S. military weaponry and command systems get more complex, they may also become more susceptible to EMP's effects. According to the Commission, a significant high-altitude EMP strike might put our civilization at great danger and could even render our armed forces ineffective.

Nevertheless, testing of the latest generation of civilian core telecommunications switches that are now in use has revealed that they are very little impacted by EMP, according to the Department of Homeland Security (DHS). However, according to DHS, the majority of the United States' critical communications infrastructure is housed in large, exceptionally well-built buildings that provide some protection from the impacts of EMP.

Observers believe that coordinated use of larger-scale, smaller-scale, or even portable EMP weapons against U.S. computer systems would require technical expertise beyond the reach of the majority of terrorist groups.

But, countries like Russia and maybe terrorist-supporting countries like North Korea already have the technological capacity to build and deploy a smaller chemically or battery-driven EMP weapon that might interfere with computers at a close distance.

Cyberattack (CNA) characteristics include: A computer network attack (CNA), often known as a "cyber-attack), compromises the authenticity or integrity of data, typically by altering program logic that controls data via malicious code (for more detail, see Appendices A, B, and C). Internet-based computer hackers often search for misconfigured or deficient in required security software computer systems. An infected computer may be remotely controlled by a hacker through the Internet after it has been infected with malicious malware.

Different Hacker Motivations: Hackers may be beneficial or terrible. A glimpse into what they do and why is provided here:

White Hat Hackers: They are the nice folks, penetration testers and other professionals in computer security who make sure that to combat hackers, these Computer security experts use a technical arsenal that is continually being updated.

Black Hat Hackers: Often known as "just plain hackers," they are the nasty guys. The phrase is often used to refer especially to hackers who infiltrate computers or networks or produce computer viruses.

White hats continue to lag behind black hat hackers in terms of technology. Whether via human mistake, sloth, or a novel style of assault, they often succeed in finding the route that presents the least amount of difficulty. Black hat hackers are referred to as "script kids" when they utilise stolen software to attack networks and deface websites in an effort to get notoriety.

Hacktivists: Some cyber-activists have political or religious motivations, while others may want to expose injustice, demand retribution, or just annoy others. They use as a target for amusement. **State-sponsored hackers:** Governments all around the world are aware that having a good position helps them achieve their military goals.

Spy hackers: Businesses employ hackers to snoop on rival businesses and steal trade secrets. They might break in from the outside or find work so they can work as a mole. Hacktivists and spy hackers may employ similar strategies.

Cyber Terrorists: These hackers, generally motivated by religious or political beliefs, attempt to create fear and chaos by disrupting critical infrastructures. Cyber terrorists are by far the most dangerous, with a wide range of skills and goals. The main goals of cyber terrorists are to commit murder and sow panic and dread.

Approaches to Counter Cyber Terrorism Threats: Dealing with cyberterrorists and cyberterrorism requires a well-thought-out strategy, a readiness to respond quickly, and ideally, the ability to do so before a terrorist incident occurs. A straightforward method of approaching cyber security is as follows:

Take all necessary precautions to safeguard the infrastructure. Invest on product protection. Keep your customers' personal information safe. Ensure the security of your infrastructure, including your computer, online accounts for social media and other websites, and the multibillion-dollar waterworks station. Begin modestly. Ensure sure all passwords are secure by using a variety of symbols, numbers, and characters in unexpected combinations. It is crucial to realise that firewalls may exist across a network, not simply at the perimeter.

Firewalls with packet filtering: The packet-filtering firewall is the most basic kind of firewall. Firewalls that use packet filtering operate at the IP level of the network. This kind of firewall is often included into routers to do simple packet filtering based on an IP address. The idea behind packet-filtering firewalls is that they only consider the IP addresses of the packet's source and destination when deciding whether to allow it to pass from one network into another.

Stateful Firewall: One fundamental drawback of basic packet-filtering firewalls is that they only evaluate the endpoints of a connection, not the status of the connection. Only legitimate connections are permitted to cross the boundaries of a stateful firewall. These firewalls continue to prioritise packet filtering, but they also keep an eye on the connection's condition. The firewall logs the occurrence of a legitimate session between the two hosts as soon as it permits a successful connection between two hosts utilising the three-way TCP handshake. The firewall recognises the packet as having an incorrect state and stops the connection if an attacker tries to create an invalid session, for example by sending an acknowledgement before sending a SYN (synchronise).

Nonetheless, communication between the two hosts may proceed without restriction and without necessitating the firewall to restart the list of packet filters once a legitimate connection has been established. Stateful firewalls are able to assess incoming packets more quickly due to their capacity to ascertain the sequence and state of a communication session. It is crucial, of course, that these firewalls do not exhaust their memory capacity while retaining the status of stale connections. Stateful firewalls will delete state data for sessions that have "gone silent" for an abnormally long time in order to prevent this issue. Upon the expiration of a session, the firewall will check the next packet coming from either host against packet-filtering rules and start a new session.

Application Gateway Firewalls: Proxy firewalls, often referred to as application gateway firewalls, are the newest addition to the family of firewalls. Similar to stateful firewalls, these firewalls function similarly, but rather than merely comprehending the state of a TCP connection, they also comprehend the protocol used by a specific application or group of apps. A Web proxy or email-filtering proxy is a well-known illustration of an application gate- type firewall. A Web proxy, for instance, is aware of the correct HTTP protocol and will block the transmission of a badly written request. Similar to this, an email-filtering proxy will stop certain emails from flowing depending on preset criteria or heuristics (for example, if the e-mail is spam).

These proxies also block the passage of unidentified protocols. An SSH connection, for instance, will not be understood by a correctly configured HTTP proxy, which will prevent the connection from being established. Neither a packet-filtering firewall nor a stateful firewall can do this degree of packet inspection since neither kind of firewall examines the application layer of the network stack. Application gateway firewalls may stop certain sorts of protocol-specific attacks by spotting poorly formed packets for a given protocol; but, if a particular protocol's specification forbids such a vulnerability, the gateway will provide no defence.

The designing, managing, and deploying of firewalls has been the topic of whole volumes written by the security sector. The specifics of firewall functioning might be neglected in order to appreciate the significance of firewalls, but it is essential to comprehend their high-level principles. The key to understanding firewall security is to have a fundamental grasp of how traffic is processed by firewalls and how that processing stops unauthorised intrusions. The idea that firewalls would eliminate all Internet threats is, like antivirus programmes, at best overblown. In the context of defence in depth, firewalls provide a single layer of protection. Although fire- walls may limit the attack surface of a server by blocking superfluous ports from the Internet at large, firewalls cannot protect resources that are prone to particular vulnerabilities such as buffer overflows and privilege escalation assaults.

Virtualization: Given that organisations often underutilize the full capacity available in physical servers, server consolidation via virtualization may help control the cost of infrastructure deployment and operation by decreasing the number of servers necessary to execute the same level of operational requirements. The history, ideas, and technology of virtualisation are examined in this section.

When Everything Started, Blue: Servers and other infrastructure resources are pricey. This cost is made up of the price of the actual hardware, the cost of powering the servers, the cost of cooling the servers and keeping them in a suitable working environment, and the cost of managing the servers. The cost of maintaining these servers for big infrastructures with deployments of tens to tens of thousands of servers may rapidly soar, leading to very high operating expenses. Companies are using virtualization to save some of these administrative expenditures.

At its most basic level, virtualization is the replication or emulation of a genuine product inside a virtual setting. The word virtualization has recently gained attention in the IT and business communities as a result of several businesses' attempts to profit from the wave of cloud computing, but it really has a longer history than most people are aware of. The M44/44X Project was developed in the 1960s by scientists at the IBM Thomas J. Watson Research Center in Yorktown, New York. A single IBM 7044 (M44) mainframe that emulated numerous 7044s was used in the M44/44X Project (44X). The term virtual machine (VM), which refers to mimicking or imitating a computer inside of another computer using

hardware and software, was originally used by the M44/44X Project. Virtual machines have been used often within mainframes for many years. Mainframes may operate not as a single computer but as several machines operating concurrently thanks to the utilisation of these virtual machines. Each virtual machine running on the same physical computer is capable of executing its operating system independently of the other virtual machines. In this way, the mainframe effectively multiplies the capabilities of a single system. There are many more systems that provide the service; mainframes are only the pioneers of the virtualization technology.

Using virtualization: There are several different types of virtualization, including platform and application virtualization. Platform virtualization, which is the virtualization technique covered in this section, is the most well-known kind of virtualization. Platform virtualization is an expansive topic with several iterations on a common subject. Full virtualization, hardware-assisted virtualization, par virtualization, and operating system virtualization are the most common platform virtualization strategies. Although each of these methods accomplishes virtualization in a different manner, they all lead to a single system acting as if numerous machines were functioning simultaneously.

The high-level representation of a virtual machine across the different virtualization approaches is essentially constant, with the exception of operating system virtualization. Each method offers a virtual hardware platform on which a user may install an operating system, although to varied degrees. Virtualization systems demand that the virtual machine mirror the fundamental architecture of the host computer, in contrast to emulation systems, which are described later in this section (the machine running the virtual machines). This implies that a virtual PowerPC-based system cannot be hosted by a normal x86 host (such as the older Apple Macintosh systems). Because of how the virtual machine application, also known as the virtual machine monitor (VMM) or hypervisor, divides and exposes the actual hardware to virtual machines, there is a difference between the various virtualization strategies. A VMM, physical hardware, virtual hardware, virtual operating systems, and a host (or actual) operating system are some of the essential parts of virtualization systems. The VMM is the essential element, the one that enables virtualization.

Between the multiple virtual machines and the underlying physical hardware is an application layer called the VMM. By producing the required virtual components, the VMM gives the virtual machine its structure. Hardware devices including network interface cards (NICs), sound cards, keyboard and mouse interfaces, a fundamental input-output system (BIOS), and virtual processors are just a few examples of these components. The VMM is in charge of matching the actual resources that are available to the demands of the virtual machine. The sort of virtualization strategy used depends on how the VMM manages these requirements.

Totally virtualized: As the name suggests, full virtualization aims to provide the most accurate and comprehensive virtual representation of the actual hardware. This is a concern for architectures based on x86. The x86 family of processors grants executing programmes varying degrees of privilege. These tiers of security, referred to as rings, are set up to stop lower-privileged code, such that found in a typical programme, from interfering with or corrupting higher-privileged code, like the operating system kernel.

The kernel, or core, of an operating system is often found at ring-0, the most privileged code level. The most delicate parts of the computer are open to manipulation by code running in ring-0. Operating systems must have this capability in order to manage memory, assign time slices to specific processes (used for multitasking), and monitor and support input-output (I/O) operations like hard disc and network activities. When a VMM employs complete

virtualization, it makes an effort to run virtual machine code exactly as it would on a real computer. The VMM must verify that the VM's code is accurately executed and does not interfere with the host computer or other VMs.

Applications for virtual machines, like VMware, use the host machine's CPU to carry out the virtual machine's request for instructions, speeding up and improving the efficiency of virtualization. For instance, the VMM would execute the instructions natively on the host computer and transmit the results to the virtual machine if the virtual machine requested to relocate memory from one place to another. This results in a speedier virtual machine since it uses substantially less resources and processing time than CPU emulation.

The way certain x86 ring-0 instructions work was the issue that many in the virtualization industry encountered. The x86's architectural design prevents it from virtualizing a number of its instructions without experiencing unintended or unexpected consequences. The VMware family of virtual machine programs runs the virtual machine in a ring with fewer privileges while setting the VMM in ring-0 to get around this obstacle.

Receiving Assistance from the Processor Hardware manufacturers have started to exhibit interest in the topic as virtualization technology has advanced from a software standpoint, which makes hardware-assisted virtualization possible. Most recent x86-based CPUs from Intel and AMD include features known as processor extensions that support virtualization. The processor extensions provide chip-level solutions to the problem of privileged x86 instructions that the VMM cannot virtualize for Intel's Virtualization Technology (VT) and AMD's AMD-V21. These technologies provide a layer that is even more privileged than ring-0, where the VMM is located.

The VMM works under a new root mode privilege level with hardware-assisted virtualization that is one level below ring-0. The processor extensions provide the operating system of the virtual machine access to the privileged ring-0 while enabling the VMM to function at this sub-ring-0 privilege level. The hardware transfers the request to the VMM, which by virtue of the processor extensions resides in a separate processor space, so that the VMM can handle the offending instruction when the operating system of the virtual machine executes an instruction that would result in instability in the operating system of the host machine. As a result, overhead is decreased since the operating system of the virtual machine may operate virtually unhindered.

The host processor also makes sure that the operating system of the virtual machine does not interfere with the host operating system since the VMM will manage any situations that can lead to instability between the two competing operating systems. Full virtualization is extended by hardware-assisted virtualization. Hardware-assisted virtualization provides the virtual machine with an entirely virtual hardware system, similar to full virtualization. The benefit of hardware-assisted virtualization is the potential for the CPU to manage instructions supplied by the guest operating system that might otherwise cause instability more effectively with a properly built architecture.

When everything else fails, fix it by breaking it Paravirtualization, which was created prior to the introduction of hardware-assisted virtualization technologies in the x86 architecture, offers a fix for the nonvirtualizable instruction issue that affects x86 processors. Paravirtualization enables the operating system of the virtual machine to operate in ring-0 after altering the system to limit the risky x86 instructions, in contrast to full virtualization, which runs the virtual machine's operating system in a ring with less privilege than ring-0. In order to enable the VMM to handle the instructions using the appropriate methods, paravirtualization breaks instructions that might otherwise result in instability on the host

computer. The operating system and applications of a virtual machine end up functioning as intended in the rings, but at the expense of changing the kernel of the operating system of the virtual machine.

The need to change the operating system of the virtual machine is the clear drawback of paravirtualization. It is challenging to completely alter the kernel for closed-source operating systems so that it complies with paravirtualization standards. The majority of virtual machines powered by paravirtualization run customised Linux operating systems. The open-source Xen22 program for the Linux operating system is an example of a paravirtualization system. Commercial applications that allow paravirtualization include VMware, however its usefulness is limited by the operating system of the virtual machine.

Use your resources: The fundamental idea that unites full virtualization, paravirtualization, and hardware-assisted virtualization is quite different from operating system-assisted virtualization. Operating system-assisted virtualization gives an application the illusion of a dedicated operating system rather than offering an actual virtualized machine replete with dedicated I/O, memory, and CPUs. In Linux and Unix-based systems, this virtualization strategy is often used via chroot, FreeVPS, FreeBSD Jail, and other programmes.

Operating system-assisted virtualization only offers user mode resources, as opposed to the virtual machines that are supported by the other virtualization strategies, which may handle ring-0 instructions. This indicates that privileged instructions, which need ring-0, cannot be executed in the virtual environment. This kind of architecture enables the separation of various programmes inside a single operating system instance while still giving them access to network and disc capabilities, among other essential operating system resources. Making it difficult Emulators work using the same fundamental concepts as virtualization systems, with the exception that they are not constrained by the necessity that the host computer's architecture match that of the virtual machine. As their name suggests, emulators simulate every component of the physical hardware of the virtual system. Emulators do not offload the processing of an operating system or application from a virtual machine to the CPU of the host computer, unlike virtualization solutions. Instructions from the virtual machine are converted into instructions that may be executed on the host computer via emulation systems.

The CPU of a virtual computer running inside of an emulator may be quite different from the CPU of the host system. For instance, there are emulators that enable previous Apple Macintosh operating systems to operate on virtual machines on x86 architectures. Emulators have a cost associated with their ability to execute architectures that are vastly different from those of the host computer. The host machine must convert each CPU instruction that the CPU of a virtual machine can execute into a set of instructions that the host machine's CPU can carry out. There may be a large amount of overhead as a consequence of this ongoing translation of CPU instructions from the virtual CPU to the host CPU. Naturally, the overhead results in a considerable performance disadvantage. Emulators are not only for architectures with different features. Virtual computers with the same architecture as the host system may run on emulators. VMware can simulate the x86 architecture, including the CPU, within a virtual machine provided it is specially set up to do so. The benefit of this behaviour is that it offers a virtual environment that is much more realistic and does not depend on the translation of specific ring-0 commands.

Beating the One Who Feeds You The need for physical servers may be decreased by virtualizing infrastructure resources, but there are hazards associated with virtualization that must be understood. Despite the fact that many virtualization systems make an effort to establish strict boundaries between the host system and the virtual machines that are

operating on the host system, it is always possible for malicious actors to try to penetrate the barriers. As virtualization systems have grown in popularity, attackers have started concentrating on these systems' vulnerabilities. The operating system and any related programmes for the virtual machine execute on the host system at some point, regardless of the virtualization technique used. The boundary between the virtual and host machines may dissolve if the VMM gives the virtual machine access to real resources like video devices. A presentation²⁸ from Immunity researchers at Black Hat 2009 in 2009 showed how an attacker may access the RAM of the host system from inside a virtual machine. Similar to this, Core Labs researchers published an advisory in 2009 outlining a technique for connecting to the host operating system from a virtual machine.

Systems that use virtualization are complex and hence vulnerable. One server within an infrastructure may get compromised due to a flaw in an operating system or application. The repercussions of a single breach may spread to all other virtual machines within the same physical machine when that susceptible operating system or application is running inside a virtual machine that is also vulnerable.

Moreover, since cloud computing mainly depends on virtualization, any business that utilises the same virtual infrastructure is susceptible to this kind of vulnerability. The effect of the VM border issue may be lessened by isolating sensitive virtual machines (i.e., VMs that store personally identifiable information) from public virtual machines (i.e., VMs that power a company's public Web server or mail server).

Server consolidation and programme separation are only two of the numerous benefits of virtualization. Despite the fact that the technology has been around in some capacity for many years, its use has increased due to improvements in contemporary computer hardware. Virtualization is already having a significant impact on the IT industry, even at its present stage of development. The recent explosion of new cloud computing technologies that are now available on the market heavily relies on virtualization. The virtualization industry is still growing, far from fulfilling its potential.

Understanding the hazards of virtualization is crucial before implementing a large virtualized infrastructure. The danger of major data disclosure and system penetration drastically rises when the boundary between a virtual machine and a host computer becomes transparent (due to vulnerabilities). This vulnerability may be decreased by categorising the data and kinds of virtual machines that operate on the same physical computer.

Radio frequency identification: Chris Paget of H4RDW4RE LLC spoke at the 20XX DEFCON conference on dispelling common misconceptions about radio frequency identification (RFID). Even though a lot of firms utilise these devices for authentication, they often have no idea how the technology works or how safe it is. This section describes RFID as well as the security and privacy issues it raises.

The word RFID refers to a range of technologies used for radio wave identification, not just one specific technology. RFID devices, often known as tags, are widely used in daily life. The gadgets allow electronic tollbooths, inventory tracking, and authentication systems, to mention just a few of their many applications. The past ten years have seen a lot of debate around RFID as security and privacy issues started to surface. These worries may be mild to serious, depending on how RFID tags are used and the security measures used to safeguard them. It is crucial to first comprehend how RFID systems work before addressing security issues. There are two players involved in RFID communication: the interrogator (reader) and the device (tag). The reader is a tool that can take data from an RFID tag and analyse it. It is often linked to a computer. The tag is a variable complexity device that transmits distinct

identifying data that is specific to the tag. When the reader scans a tag, some just output the same data while others include processing systems that can do intricate cryptographic operations.

When grouped by power sources, there are three main categories of RFID tags. Passive, battery-assisted passive, and active are some of these varieties. When they get a signal from the reader, both varieties of passive tags come to life. Without a battery, passive tags rely on the signal that the reader sends to power them and transmit back their replies. Battery-assisted passive tags utilize battery power to build and convey their answers, but they do not active until the reader gives a signal. As compared to battery-assisted devices, passive tags' ranges are limited since they can only draw as much power from the reader's signal as they can. An active tag is the third kind of RFID gadget. Active tags may send signals without a reader's activation, in contrast to their passive siblings.

Depending on its use, an RFID tag may hold a variety of data. The electronic product code is the most basic and typical kind of RFID tag (EPC). Barcode replacement is the main purpose of EPCs, which are the RFID version of bar codes. Organizations often include EPC tags passive RFID tags into stickers. Similar information to that on Universal Product Codes (UPC) may be found in EPCs, however they have significantly greater storage capacity. This number is all that is included in an EPC, and without the capacity to understand what it means, it is worthless. This number represents the manufacturer, kind, and serial number of the product on product tags.

EPC codes include an extra 36 bytes of data, allowing for the usage of more than 600 billion distinct serial numbers, but UPC codes can hold enough information to list all sorts of items, even a pack of paper towels. RFIDs may identify a particular pack of paper towels rather than a broad product kind, like a pack of paper towels. Every product or collection of items that an organisation wants to monitor may be given an EPC. All of the suppliers to Wal-Mart Stores, Inc. were required to RFID-tag all shipments as of 2005. EPC tags are now being used by libraries to speed up book check-ins and check-outs.

More than just everyday home items are being identified by organisations and governments using RFID tags. Several businesses use RFID-enabled ID cards (sometimes called proxy cards, proximity cards, or access cards) to allow access to systems and buildings. In this instance, the card's returning number correlates to details about a particular person that are recorded in a database.

If John Doe's card sends the card readers the number 0001, the security system may check this record in its user database and either grant or restrict entry to the guarded area. As compared to just identifying objects, using RFID tags for access control and person identification are fundamentally distinct applications of the technology.

Copying or cloning an EPC tag on a bag of potato chips is obviously useless, but doing it with an RFID access card may be very profitable. An access card would consistently return the same 96-bit number if it operated like an EPC tag. Someone with the ability to read a card might readily copy it and obtain entry to a structure. The contactless smart card (CSC), a different kind of RFID tag that is far more complicated than an EPC, was created to avoid this.

CSCs feature information storage and processing capabilities, much as conventional smart cards. CSCs use cryptography to obscure their information rather than just providing the same number in response to each questioning. In certain cases, they also utilise it to verify the reader's identity before disclosing critical information.

Examples of CSC products include the new U.S. electronic passport, most access control badges, and contactless credit cards from VISA, MasterCard, and American Express. Since cloning or tampering with these devices might enable an attacker to take the owner's money or identity without ever coming into touch with the owner, the security of these devices is very crucial.

Privacy and Security Issues: Much debate surrounds the use of RFID security measures and the privacy issues that wireless identification tags bring up. Millions of automobile keys with RFID technology and Exxon's Speedpass RFID payment system's encryption were both cracked in 2005 by researchers at Johns Hopkins University under the direction of Dr. Avi Rubin. These automobile keys with RFID enhancements use RFID technology as a lock-picking deterrent. When a user turns the key in the ignition, the automobile won't start if the appropriate RFID tag is not close to the reader. Customers of Speedpass may use their keychain tokens to make purchases at Exxon gas stations by connecting a credit card to their tokens. The tags on each of these devices are only protected by 64-bit encryption, according to Rubin's team. When the system was first presented by the makers in 1993, the encryption may have been sufficiently complicated to thwart brute force assaults, but this degree of security is no longer adequate.

Security researcher Chris Paget from H4RDW4RE LLC spoke on dispelling common misconceptions about RFID at DEFCON. Paget dispelled the fallacy that readers can only read RFID tags at close ranges in his lecture. The U.S. improved driver's licence is one identification card Paget has investigated (EDL). RFID-equipped EDLs serve as passports for travel between the United States and its bordering nations. These cards have no encryption at all and can be read easily from a distance of more than twenty feet. In a YouTube video earlier this year, Paget showed how to obtain Sensitive information from victims without their ever being aware of his presence. The attacker may embed an antenna in a doorframe to track a certain set of people entering the room and record their IDs. Attackers may simply copy these cards to obtain victims' Identities without their awareness since they lack encryption.

In addition to identification and data theft security issues, RFID tags also have implications for individual privacy. Attackers may read the tags without the user's knowledge since they can do it from a distance. When combined with other data, even tags devoid of any personal information might be used to identify a particular individual. Consider if each pair of shoes produced included an RFID tag that the manufacturer could use to monitor inventories. While this RFID tag by itself does not pose a serious privacy risk, if someone purchases this shoe using a credit card, that particular RFID tag would then be linked to the buyer's name in a retailer's database. As a consumer enters the store, the merchant may scan them to discover whether they are wearing any items of apparel that belong to a particular customer. Similar to the scenario shown in the movie *Minority Report*, the merchant might utilise this to display customised advertisements to each consumer and monitor their whereabouts inside each store.

Any person or organisation thinking about using RFID technology or carrying devices with RFID capabilities should carefully evaluate these issues. Long-range RFID reader technology enables attackers to follow carriers secretly. RFID wallets can guard against RFID scanners by blocking the signals that the devices send out. Often composed of metallic materials, these wallets are impervious to radio frequency radiation.

Compared to systems that need optical scans or direct touch, RFID tags offer significant benefits. However, using these devices for identification and authentication necessitates the

implementation of countermeasures to protect against cloning and modification. RFID readers can interrogate thousands of tags at a time to perform complete inventories in a fraction of the time required for hand counting.

Fundamentals of Microsoft Windows Security

Windows Tokens: A user's or program's access to certain systems is restricted by access tokens and control lists. The risk of a complete system breach due to privilege escalation vulnerabilities may be effectively reduced by giving users the least amount of access necessary and developing applications to only need the bare minimum of privileges. Few people are aware of the inner workings of Microsoft Windows access tokens and access control lists for things like processes and threads. Windows employs access tokens, also known as tokens from now on, to establish whether a programme is authorised to carry out an action or interact with a certain item. The idea of Windows tokens as well as process and thread access control lists will be explained in this section.

Ideas underlying Windows Tokens While accessing objects on a system, processes and threads use tokens to establish the security context. All named objects, from files and directories to registry keys, are included in this class of objects, sometimes referred to as securable objects. The four components of a token are its identity, its privileges, its type, and its access controls. Conveniently, this notion draws comparisons between a driver's licence and Windows tokens based on their conceptual similarity.

An identity is a component of a Windows token. Similar to how a driver's licence contains the name of the owner, the identification of the token identifies the person to whom it belongs. Similar to how the name on a driver's licence consists of both a first and last name, the identity is made up of two parts: a user and a group. If a customer were to pay using a credit card, the merchant may want to see the customer's driver's licence to verify that the name on the credit card matches the name on the licence. The merchant would authorise the usage of the credit card if the names were the same. Windows would check to verify whether the token showed the same user if a user got access to a directory. Windows would provide access to the directory if it matches the one specified.

The idea of group memberships makes up the second component of a token's identification. To make managing resource access easier, several users may be a part of the same group. When a man enters a community centre that his family pays to use, a worker at the facility may examine the guy's driver's licence to see whether his family's name is there, and if it is, the worker may let the man to use the facility. Programs may more precisely limit permissions by using tokens that can include a variable number of groups. When a police officer stops a motorcyclist and requests their driver's licence, for instance, the officer is confirming that the rider has a motorcycle licence by looking for an M rating, which indicates that the person passed motorcycle riding and safety exams. Similar to this, a Windows application could not want certain activities to be performed by other programs that use a specific token. To provide even more granular control, the application may impose restrictions or add groups to a token.

Cybersecurity essentials: Impersonation tokens also have a corresponding impersonation level, which is another distinction. The four stages of impersonation are impersonation, delegation, identification, and anonymity. A software cannot identify the token's user or assume the identity of the token while processing an anonymous token. The main purpose of anonymous tokens is to satisfy function requirements that a token exists. The use of anonymous tokens is equivalent to a driver having no identification at all. The next stage of impersonation is the use of identification tokens. A software that has access to an identity

token may examine the token's owner, its group memberships, and any enabled rights. When a software wants to do its own access checks on a user and isn't concerned about letting the operating system verify permissions, identification tokens might be beneficial. A driver who has a valid driver's licence is recognizable, much as someone who uses identification tokens.

A software may carry out operations on the local system in the user's place using an impersonation-level token. Any Win application programming interfaces (APIs) may be called by a program with an impersonation-level token, and the operating system may do access checks on the user. Impersonation tokens are similar to the capacity to alter a driver's license's physical description and photograph in that they let anybody to use the identity that is specified there.

A delegation token is the top level of tokens. With the use of a delegation token, a program may get access to both network and local resources on behalf of the token's owner. When a software has to verify whether a user has access to a resource on the local operating system and whether they have the ability to conduct an activity on a distant system, delegation token usage is widespread. Using delegation tokens, anybody may take the identity on a driver's license and any state will accept it as a legitimate local driver's license. This is similar to the ability to change the photo, physical description, and issuing state of a driver's license.

Access Control Lists: Access control lists on tokens specify the level of access that various identities may ask for. These access control list items either expressly permit may expressly prohibit some kinds of activities on the token. The token may permit or prohibit specified identities on the system from reading information from the token, writing information to the token, and performing other actions on the token. These elements work together to create tokens on Windows.

Access restrictions are supported by tokens utilizing groups that are labelled as denied. Windows initially examines the access control list to determine whether a token has access to a certain resource before deciding. The access requested will then be compared against the access and group of the access control entry once more. Windows will provide the token access if they match. This is comparable to a driver's license's optical limitations. An officer of the law may first confirm that the driver of the car is in possession of a valid driving license. While building a case against the driver, the officer will take into account both of these pieces of evidence and determine if the motorist needs vision corrective equipment to operate a vehicle.

Both processes and threads are subject to these access control lists. They enable management of the degree of access given to different groups and users. Standard access rights are offered by both process and thread control lists, but the process- and thread-specific access rights are different. There are fourteen access permissions on the list of "process-specific privileges" that only apply to processes. These privileges encompass a variety of granular access restrictions, from reading and writing to starting and ending processes. Windows has an all-inclusive privilege called process all access that grants a user all process-specific rights in addition to these more granular permissions. There are thirteen access privileges known as "thread-specific permissions" that exclusively apply to threads. The permissions provide access to threads and, among other things, give users the ability to suspend, resume, and terminate threads. Thread all access grants the user all thread-specific permissions, similar to how process-specific rights do.

CHAPTER 4

NETWORK SECURITY

Sonal Sharma

Associate Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

Email Id: -s.sonal@jainuniversity.ac.in

The use of both hardware and software methods by any business or organization to safeguard its computer network and data is referred to as network security. This seeks to protect the networks and data's confidentiality and accessibility. Every business or organization that deals with a lot of data has some sort of defense against various cyber threats. Password protection that is selected by the network user themselves is the most fundamental kind of network security. Network Security has recently taken center stage in the conversation about cyber security, and many firms are now actively seeking applicants with expertise in this area. The network security solutions guard against a number of computer systems' weaknesses, including:

1. Users
2. Locations
3. Data,
4. Devices
5. Application

Types of Network Security

The following is a discussion of the few forms of network securities:

Access Control: There shouldn't be a total exception for everyone's access to the network or its data. Going through the information of each employee is one technique to investigate this. This is achieved by network access control, which makes sure that only a small number of authorised employees may use the specified number of resources.

Antivirus and Anti-malware Software: With the help of this kind of network security, it is made sure that no harmful software may infiltrate the system and endanger the confidentiality of any data. The same deals with harmful software like as Trojans, worms, and viruses. This guarantees that the system is adequately prepared to battle malware after it has entered and that the entrance of the virus is safeguarded.

Cloud security: Many firms are already collaborating with cloud technology, which allows for the online storage of a significant quantity of crucial data. This is extremely susceptible to the fraud that a few unlicensed dealers may apply. This information needs to be safeguarded, and it needs to be made sure that nothing can compromise its security. SaaS apps are widely used by enterprises to give some of their employee's access to data that is kept in the cloud. This sort of protection assures that data visibility will be compromise.

Advantages of network security

Network security is essential for safeguarding client data and information, maintaining the security of shared data, guaranteeing dependable network performance, and defending against

online attacks. An effective network security solution lowers overhead costs and protects businesses from significant losses brought on by a data breach or other security event. Ensuring appropriate access to systems, applications, and data facilitates company operations and customer service.

Network security attack types

Cyberattacks have become increasingly complex, comprehensive, frequent, and challenging to stop. Many cybersecurity professionals predict that these assaults will simply keep getting more sophisticated and aggressive. Any IT professional should be aware of the following network security attacks, which are some of the most common ones:

Data Theft: Data theft, also known as data exfiltration, happens when an attacker utilizes their illegal access to steal sensitive information from the network. Attackers regularly access protected files using stolen login credentials or steal data as it is being transferred between two network devices.

Insider Threat: As the name suggests, insider threats originate from staff members of a company. These workers break into the network and get confidential or sensitive corporate information using their own access.

Malware Attacks: A malware attack happens when malicious software (malware) sneaks onto a network device and installs unwanted, unauthorized software. Malware is incredibly difficult to completely remove since it spreads readily from one device to another.

Password Attacks: A password attack is any attack in which a password is attempted to be used in an unauthorized manner. A password can be cracked, stolen, or guess by the hacker to get access.

Social Engineering: Attacks known as "social engineering" rely on deceit and fabrication to persuade victims to divulge sensitive information, including account passwords, or to disregard security precautions. Attacks using social engineering frequently target non-technical persons, but they can also target technical support employees by making fictitious requests for assistance.

Solutions for Network Security

IT experts may employ a wide range of methods and tactics to safeguard networks, just as there are several ways to get into a network. The following are a few of the most popular kinds of network security solutions:

Antivirus Software: To check for harmful applications, antivirus software may be installed on all network devices. Regular updates are necessary to address any problems or vulnerabilities.

Encryption: Data is encrypted when it is made completely unintelligible and only those with the proper authorization are given the key (often a password or decryption key) to unlock it. This prevents data from being readable even if it is intercepted or accessed by an unauthorized person.

Firewalls: A firewall is a piece of hardware, software, or a combination of the two that prevents unauthorized traffic from accessing a network. They can be set up to only allow access to genuine requests while blocking suspicious or unauthorized traffic.

Multi-factor authentication is straightforward: To log into an account, users must use two different forms of identity (for instance, typing in a password and then typing in a numeric code that was sent to another device). For multi-factor authentication to be entirely

successful, users must provide distinct credentials from at least two of the three categories—something you know, something you have, and something you are.

Network Segmentation: Network segmentation is the process of dissecting a bigger network into smaller networks or pieces. The subnetworks exist independently of one another, so if one is breached or compromised, the others are unaffected.

Cloud Computing and Security: Different services are delivered through the Internet using cloud computing. These tools and programs comprise software, servers, databases, networking, and data storage, among other things. Cloud-based storage enables you to store files to a distant database rather than a proprietary hard disc or local storage device. An electronic gadget has access to the data and the software applications needed to run it as long as it has internet connectivity. For a variety of reasons, including cost savings, enhanced productivity, speed and efficiency, performance, and security, cloud computing is a popular choice for both individuals and corporations.

Types of Cloud Computing

The technique of accessing resources, software, and databases through the Internet and beyond the constraints of local hardware is referred to as "cloud computing" or, more accurately, "cloud computing." Utilizing this technology allows businesses to scale their operations with greater flexibility by transferring the majority or a portion of the administration of their infrastructure to external hosting companies. The cloud computing services that are most popular and extensively used include:

IaaS (Infrastructure-as-a-Service): IaaS (Infrastructure-as-a-Service) is a hybrid method in which businesses can manage part of their data and applications on-premises while entrusting cloud service providers to take care of their server, hardware, networking, virtualization, and storage requirements.

PaaS (Platform-as-a-Service): Provides a unique application architecture that automatically handles operating systems, software upgrades, storage, and supporting infrastructure in the cloud. This enables enterprises to expedite their application development and delivery.

SaaS (Software-as-a-Service): Software-as-a-Service, or SaaS, refers to cloud-based applications that are hosted online and often made available by subscription. The management of all potential technical concerns by third parties, including data, middleware, servers, and storage, reduces the use of IT resources and streamlines upkeep and support tasks.

Benefits from Cloud Computing

Companies from all industries may profit from using cloud-based software, which can be accessed by browser or native apps on any device. Users may seamlessly transfer their data and settings from one device to another as a consequence.

Using cloud computing for file access is simply the tip of the iceberg. Users may check their email on any computer and save files using services like Dropbox and Google Drive thanks to cloud computing. Users may back up their music, data, and images using cloud computing services, guaranteeing that they will always have access to them in the case of a hard drive accident.

Large firms may save a tonne of money this way as well. Companies had to invest in pricey information management infrastructure and technology purchases, construction, and maintenance before the cloud became a practical substitute. Fast Internet connections can

replace expensive server farms and IT staff in businesses, allowing workers to do jobs online by interacting with the cloud.

People may conserve storage space on their computers or laptops by using the cloud infrastructure. Software businesses may now sell their wares online rather than through more conventional, tangible ways like discs or flash drives, which allows customers to upgrade software more quickly. Customers of Adobe, for instance, can use an online subscription to access the programs included in its Creative Cloud. This makes it simple for consumers to obtain updates and patches for their apps.

Drawbacks of Cloud Computing:

There are hazards with cloud computing, despite all the speed, efficiency, and innovations it brings. Particularly when it comes to private financial and medical documents, security has always been a major worry with the cloud. Regulations compel cloud computing providers to strengthen their compliance and security procedures, although this problem still exists. Information that has to be encrypted is protected, but if the encryption key is lost, the data is gone. Natural calamities, internal faults, and power outages can also affect servers operated by cloud computing organizations. A blackout in California might render users in New York helpless, and a corporation in Texas could lose its data if anything causes its Maine-based provider to fall. These are just two examples of how cloud computing's geographic reach cuts both ways. There is a learning curve for managers and employees alike, as with any technology. However, faults can spread throughout an entire system when several people access and alter data through a single gateway.

Cloud security: The technologies, protocols, and best practices that safeguard cloud computing environments, cloud-based applications, and cloud-stored data collectively constitute cloud security. Understanding exactly what has to be protected as well as the system components that must be handled is the first step in securing cloud services. As an overview, cloud service providers are mostly responsible for backend development against security risks. Clients should concentrate primarily on correct service configuration and safe use behaviors in addition to selecting a security-conscious supplier. Clients should also confirm that any end-user networks and devices are appropriately protected.

Importance of Cloud security

Strong cloud security is crucial for companies moving to the cloud. Cloud computing is just as susceptible to security risks as an on-premises system due to the ongoing evolution and sophistication of security threats. Working with a cloud provider who provides best-in-class security that has been tailored for your infrastructure is crucial for this reason. Numerous advantages of cloud security include:

Centralized security: Cloud security is centralized in the same way that cloud computing is centralized in terms of apps and data. When dealing with BYOD or shadow IT, the many devices and endpoints that make up cloud-based company networks can be challenging to manage. Enhancing traffic analysis and site filtering, streamlining network event monitoring, and reducing software and policy changes are all benefits of managing these entities centrally. When handled in one location, disaster recovery plans may be readily created and carried out.

Cost savings: One advantage of using cloud security and storage is that you don't have to buy specialized gear. This lowers administrative costs in addition to lowering capital expenses. Cloud security offers proactive security features that provide protection around-the-clock

with little to no human interaction, replacing the reactive firefighting of security concerns by IT teams in the past. **Reduced Administration:** May wave goodbye to manual security setups and nearly continual security upgrades when you select a reliable cloud services provider or cloud security platform. These duties can be quite resource-intensive, but when you shift them to the cloud, security management is handled entirely on your behalf in one location.

Reliability: Cloud computing services provide the highest level of dependability. Users may securely access data and apps stored in the cloud from any location or device with the proper cloud security measures in place.

Organizations are becoming more and more aware of the numerous commercial advantages of shifting their systems to the cloud. Through the use of agile systems and scalable operations, cloud computing enables businesses to gain a competitive edge. However, it is crucial that businesses have total faith in the security of their cloud computing infrastructure and that all of their data, systems, and applications are safeguarded against data loss, theft, leakage, corruption, and deletion. Threats can affect any cloud computing architectures. If you are running a native cloud, hybrid cloud, or on premise environment, it is crucial that the correct security protections be in place. IT teams are understandably hesitant of shifting mission-critical systems to the cloud. Cloud security provides all the features of conventional IT security and enables companies to take use of the numerous benefits of cloud computing while being safe and compliant with all legal and regulatory obligations.

Web Security:In today's world, web security is crucial. Security concerns and threats are constant for websites. Data security on the internet, network, or online, as well as during data transfer to the internet, are topics covered by web security. Your website security, for instance, comes into play when you need to secure data being sent between clients and servers. When someone hacks your website, they can either steal the crucial information of your customers or they can even spread the illegal content to your users through your website, so security considerations are needed in the design process. Important Customer Data may be stolen, such as a customer's credit card number or login information, or they may destroy one's business and spread illegal content to users.

Difficulties of web security:Every firm needs to place a high focus on web security. The web is one of the most popular vectors for cyberattacks, along with email. 91% of malware assaults explicitly employ the web and DNS services, while email and the web combined account for a significant portion of 99% of successful breaches. Web security is crucial, but it's getting more and harder to defend against attacks on a daily basis. When attempting to defend the web, IT security departments confront difficult obstacles, such as blocking assaults and coping with resource and talent limitations. To handle email and online security in the past, security teams installed a variety of on-premises systems. However, enterprises are increasingly relying on all-encompassing email and online security solutions - via connected, cloud-based technologies that make the process easier and lower the cost of risk reduction. A seamless and scalable solution for defending both is crucial since attackers frequently utilize email and online channels simultaneously. However, enterprises are increasingly relying on all-encompassing email and online security solutions - via connected, cloud-based technologies that make the process easier and lower the cost of risk reduction. A seamless and scalable solution for defending both is crucial since attackers frequently utilize email and online channels simultaneously.

Benefits of Web Security:Effective online security offers both technological and social advantages for a contemporary enterprise: Preventing the loss of sensitive data can help you

protect your company and maintain compliance. Ensure the privacy of both consumers and staff by protecting their personal data. By avoiding viruses and exploits, avoid spending money-wasting service disruptions. By assisting your users in remaining secure and effective, you can improve the user experience. By remaining safe and ignorant of news, you may maintain client loyalty and confidence. Technology advancements in the cloud and mobile provide previously unheard-of simplicity and flexibility for your customers and staff to interact with you. Unfortunately, that applies to both sides, giving attackers a greater attack surface against your business. With the proper online security measures in place, one may focus more on enjoying advantages and less on worrying about security risks. A web security system offers extensive visibility and precise control over traffic headed for the Internet. As it examines traffic at the application layer, its purpose and the data it carries are better understood. A company and its people can gain from these competencies in a variety of ways, including:

Harmful Material Protection: Web security scans web traffic for malicious content and bans known-bad phishing websites and drive-by downloads. Employees are more shielded from malware and other hazards thanks to this.

Data Security: DLP programs track the transfer of sensitive data inside an organization. This makes it possible to prevent the exposure of sensitive and priceless data to unauthorized users.

Compliance with Requirements: There are a growing number of data protection regulations that businesses must follow. Web security solutions aid in this by increasing the visibility and management of private and sensitive data held by a company.

Improved Network Performance: Network managers may implement application-specific policies thanks to application control, which improves network performance. By allowing the slowing and banning of particular websites and traffic, the network performance for traffic from legitimate business operations is enhanced.

Secure Remote Work: Remote workers may now operate safely from any location thanks to web security solutions. No matter where an employee is located, businesses may apply and enforce corporate security standards on their devices.

Web Browser: Users may see and interact with the information on a web page, including text, images, video, music, games, and other materials, using a software program called a web browser. People access the Internet using this strategy fairly frequently. Internet Explorer, Mozilla Firefox, Opera, and Safari are the most widely used web browsers at the moment. Add-ons and plugins are programs that increase the capabilities of browsers. QuickTime Player, Real One Player, Java, Shockwave Player, Media Player, Flash Player, and Acrobat Reader are a few of the more well-known plug-ins. Some web material may need particular plug-ins to be seen, depending on how the website was developed.

Web Browser Attacks: Online-based attacks use websites, content management systems, browser extensions, and IT parts of web services and apps to gather login information, steal visitor payment information, or infect systems with malware or ransomware (or any combination thereof). Attacks using browser third-party plug-ins like JavaScript, Flash, and ActiveX that are file less pose a special risk to companies since there are no links or files for security systems to identify, and behavioral monitoring always leaves some window of vulnerability. Malicious JavaScript code was inserted onto the websites of British Airways and Ticketmaster, which led to the most recent breaches at both companies.

Security Consideration:

Updated Software: A Security Consideration You should constantly update your software. Hackers may be aware of software flaws that allow them to harm your computer system and steal personal information. These flaws are occasionally brought on by bugs. Hackers may use outdated software as a point of entry into your network. Software developers quickly learn about these flaws and remedy any exposed or susceptible locations. Because software updates are crucial to the security of your personal data, they must be maintained.

Watch out for SQL Injection: By injecting a crude piece of code into your query, SQL Injection is an effort to modify your data or database. One should be conscious of the SQL injection attack because, for instance, someone may send a request to website that, when it is run, could be used to alter databases, update tables, edit, or delete data, or even obtain crucial information.

Cross-Site Scripting (XSS): XSS enables the insertion of client-side script into web pages by attackers. For instance, submitting forms. It is a word that refers to a group of assaults that provide an attacker the ability to insert client-side scripts into the web browsers of other users. The site injects dependable code that can do things like transfer the user's site permission cookie to the attacker into the browser.

Error Messages: Must be extremely cautious when handling error messages that are created to tell users when they use the website. Some error messages are generated for a variety of reasons, therefore you must exercise extreme caution while informing consumers. For instance, during a login attempt, the error message shouldn't specify which field is inaccuracy: Password or user name.

Data verification: The correct evaluation of any input provided by the user or program is known as data validation. Inadequately generated data is kept out of the information system. Data should be validated on both the client-side and the server-side. Data checking on both ends will provide authentication for us. When receiving information from a third party, particularly information from unreliable sources, data validation should take place.

Password: In order to prevent unwanted access to your device and personal information, a password serves as the first line of protection. You must create a secure password. Hackers frequently employ advanced software that employs brute force to break passwords. Complex passwords are necessary to thwart brute force attacks. Enforcing password restrictions is a good idea, such as requiring a password to be at least eight characters long and to contain capital, lowercase, special, and digit characters.

CHAPTER 5

CYBER CRIMES: MOBILE AND WIRELESS

Jagdish Chandra Patni
Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -jagdish.cp@jainuniversity.ac.in

Mobile devices are stolen, misplaced, and infected every day. Mobile devices are often used to access university systems, email, and banking, and they may hold sensitive personal and professional information. Proliferation of wireless and mobile technology: Individuals seemed to be completely unaware of their surroundings as they slouched over cellphones or tablets at cafés, airports, supermarkets, and even at bus stops. On the way, they play games, download emails, shop, or check their bank accounts. They may even use their mobile devices to access company networks and pick up a few documents.

Amazing improvements are being made in mobile technology nowadays. Smaller gadgets with increased computing power are the current trend. A wireless phone or a basic PDA was the option available a few years ago. High-end PDAs with built-in wireless modems and compact phones with wireless Web surfing capabilities are now the two options available to consumers. The possibilities offered to mobile users are many. To run basic programmes, play music and games, and conduct phone calls, a hand-held mobile device is sufficient. The quick integration of business solutions into portable devices is a major force behind the development of mobile technology.

Given that "mobile device" refers to a wide range of items. The three main terms—mobile computing, wireless computing, and handheld devices—are first clearly defined. Diagram following explains the relationship between these concepts. "Taking a computer and all essential data and software out into the field" is what is meant by mobile computing. During the 1990s, a wide variety of mobile computers have been developed. These are what they are:

A general-purpose computer that is portable may be transported from one location to another, but it cannot be used while moving since it often needs some "setting-up" and an AC power supply.

Tablet PC: It is designed like a slate or paper notepad, has no keyboard, and has handwriting recognition software in addition to touchscreen capabilities. Tablets can execute the majority of things that a typical laptop can perform, albeit they may not be the greatest choice for apps that need a physical keyboard for typing.

Internet tablet: A tablet version of the Internet appliance. The Internet tablet's application library is smaller and has less computer capacity than a Tablet PC. Moreover, a general-purpose computer must still be used. An MP3 player, a video player, a web browser, a chat programme, and a photo viewer are often included in Internet tablets.

Personal digital assistants (PDAs) are little computers that are typically the size of a pocket. It provides access to contacts, an address book, notes, email, and other capabilities, and is designed to complement and synchronise with a desktop computer.

A full-featured, PDA-sized computer with an all-purpose operating system is referred to as an ultra-mobile.

Smartphone: A PDA with built-in mobile phone capabilities. There are many functions and installable programs on modern smartphones.

A carputer is a computer that is mounted inside a car. It performs the functions of a wireless computer, stereo system, GPS, and DVD player. It is Bluetooth compatible and has word processing software as well.

Computer Fly Fusion Pentop: It is a computer that resembles a pen in both size and form. It serves as a calculator, MP3 player, language translator, digital storage device, and writing instrument.

Mobility Trends: Third generation (3G) mobile computing, which offers a broader choice of apps, much enhanced usability, and faster networking, is ushering in a new age for mobile computing. The "iPhone" from Apple and "Android" phones from Google are the finest examples of this trend, while there are many additional advancements that support it. Attackers (hackers and crackers) are among the largest supporters of this intelligent mobile technology, which is quickly gaining popularity.

It is important to take note of the developments in mobile computing, as this will make readers more aware of the gravity of cybersecurity concerns in this field. The many forms of mobility are shown in the following figure along with their effects.

Current technologies not all 3G networks were created with IP data security. Also, mobile operators are unfamiliar with the IP data environment compared to voice-centric security risks. Mobile networks are susceptible to a wide range of assaults, which might come from two main vectors. One comes from sources outside the mobile network, such as the public Internet, private networks, and other operator's networks, while the other comes from sources within the mobile network, including 3G-enabled devices such data-capable smartphones, notebook computers, and even desktop PCs.

The following are examples of common assaults on 3G mobile networks:

Viruses, worms, and malware While many users are still transitioning temporarily from 2G, 2.5G, and 2.5G to 3G, 3G, there is an increasing need to inform the public about the risks associated with using mobile devices. Below are a few instances of malware that targets mobile devices:

The skull trojan, targets Series 60 phones running the Symbian mobile operating system. The Cabir Worm, the first specifically designed mobile phone worm, infects Symbian OS-powered phones and searches other mobile devices before sending a copy of itself through Bluetooth Wireless to the first susceptible phone it finds. The Cabir-H and Cabir-I viruses' source codes are online, which is the worst aspect of this worm.

Mosquito Trojan is a cracked version of the "Mosquitos" mobile phone game, and it targets Series 60 Smartphones. The Svchost.exe file that the Brador Trojan adds to the Windows start-up folder gives it complete control over the Windows CE OS. This executable programme may spread by conventional worm propagation methods, such email attachments.

Lasco Worm: It initially appeared in 2005 and was designed to attack Symbian-powered PDAs and mobile phones. Lasco replicates via a Bluetooth connection and is built on the Cabir source code.

Denial-of-service (DoS): The primary goal of this assault is to prevent the targeted users from accessing the system. Attacks from viruses may harm the system and render it inoperable. A distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) attack is now one of the most prevalent cyber security

risks to wired Internet service providers (iSPs). DDoS attacks bombard the target system with data in an effort to impede or halt the response from the target system.

Attack involving overbilling: In an overbilling attack, a hacker takes control of a subscriber's IP address and uses it (i.e., the connection) to start downloading things that aren't "Free downloads" or just uses it for personal gain. In either scenario, the legal user gets charged for the action that they neither initiated nor gave permission for.

Policy development process (PDP) blunders: These attacks take use of General Packet Radio Service (GPRS) Tunneling Protocol flaws.

Attacks at the signalling level: In order to deliver Voice over Internet Protocol (VoIP) services, IP multimedia subsystem (IMS) networks require the Session Initiation Protocol (SIP), a signalling protocol. VoIP systems built on SIP have a number of vulnerabilities.

Mobile and Wireless Computing Age Credit Card Frauds:

Mobile banking and mobile commerce (M-Commerce) are two new trends in cybercrime that are emerging with mobile computers (M-Banking). With the mobile handheld devices' ever-increasing capacity and ever-declining costs, which make them easily accessible to nearly anybody, credit card scams are increasingly becoming frequent. It is the age of "mobile computing," or computing anywhere, anytime. This new way of doing business for white collar professionals has been made possible by advancements in wireless technology. This is also true for credit card processing; a relatively new technology called wireless credit card processing enables users to process credit cards electronically almost anywhere. Since it enables companies to process transactions from mobile locations quickly, effectively, and professionally, wireless credit card processing is a highly desired method. Businesses that operate primarily in a mobile environment are the ones that utilise it the most.

There is a technology called closed-loop environment for wireless accessible from the Australian business "Alacrity" (CLEW). The sequence of events using CLEW, a registered trademark of Alacrity used only for the purpose of illustrative purposes.

The fundamental flow are given in below:

1. Merchant notifies bank of a transaction
2. The request is sent by the bank to the approved cardholder.
3. The cardholder accepts or declines (password protected)
4. The bank and merchant are informed.
5. The credit card purchase has finished.

Mobile devices provide security challenges that include:

Cybersecurity is made more difficult by mobility in two ways: first, information is carried beyond the boundaries of the physical controlled environment on portable devices, and second, remote access is given to the secure environment. In order to create suitable security operating procedures, it is crucial to consider how the firms perceive these cybersecurity problems. When asked what factors are crucial in managing a wide variety of mobile devices, respondents often mention the ones in the image below.

Two obstacles are posed when the number of mobile device users rises: one at the device level known as "micro challenges" and another at the organisational level known as "macro issues."

Managing registry settings and configurations, authentication service security, cryptography security, Lightweight Directory Access Protocol (LDAP) security, remote access server (RAS) security, media player control security, networking application programme interface (API) security, etc. are some well-known technical challenges in mobile security.

Mobile Device Registry Settings: Use the following example to better understand the problem with mobile device registry settings: Microsoft Activesync is designed to synchronise with personal computers (PCs) running Windows and Microsoft Outlook. From a user's desktop to their device, ActiveSync serves as the "gateway between Windows-powered PC and Windows mobile-powered device, facilitating the transmission of apps such as Outlook information, Microsoft Office documents, images, music, and videos.

ActiveSync may synchronise directly with the Microsoft exchange server in addition to a PC, allowing users to update their E-Mails, calendar, notes, and contacts while they are away from their Computers. Given how easily different apps provide a free flow of information in this situation, registry settings become a crucial concern.

Security of the Authentication Service: Security for devices and security for networks are the two parts of mobile computing security. Authentication between the device and the base stations or web servers is required for a secure network access. In order to get the desired services, only authenticated devices must be connected to the network. No malicious code can pretend to be the service provider and fool the device into acting in an unexpected way. As a result, networks are also very important for mobile device security.

Push attacks, pull attacks, and crash assaults are three common types of attacks that target mobile devices. With the common assaults on mobile devices made possible by wireless networks, including DoS attacks, traffic analysis, and eavesdropping, man-in-the-middle attacks, and session hijacking, authentication services security is crucial. Wireless Application Protocols (WAPs), the deployment of VPNs, media access control (MAC) address filtering, and the creation of 802.xx standards all contribute to the security measures in this scenario.

Attacks on mobile phones include mobile phone theft since these devices have merged with everyday life and gone from being a luxury to a basic need. The availability of many inexpensive phones and increased buying power have both contributed to a rise in mobile phone usage. During the last several years, there has been a sharp increase in cell phone theft. Bus stops, train stations, and traffic lights are the main sites where theft happens in India since a large portion of the working population uses public transportation.

On mobile devices, the following reasons might cause outbreaks: sufficient target terminals
Once 15 million Palm OS devices were in use, the first infection was discovered. In June 2004, it was revealed that a company called "Ojam" had created an anti-piracy Trojan virus in earlier versions of its mobile phone game called Mosquito. This was the first known case of a mobile virus. Without the users' awareness, this malware sends SMS text messages to the organisation.

Adequate functionality: Mobile devices increasingly come with office features and already contain important data and apps, yet they are sometimes just little or never secured. Malware is more likely due to the increased capabilities.
Adequate connectivity: Smartphones provide a variety of communication methods, including WLAN, Bluetooth, infrared (IR), synchronisation, Bluetooth, SMS, and MMS. Consequently, sadly, the expanded freedom also provides virus authors with more options.

Using Bluetooth to hack: Policies and practices for organisational security in the age of mobile computing: The severity of the cybersecurity problem is more than we may first believe due to the proliferation of handheld devices. People are using their handheld devices like wallets now that they are so used to them! For instance, more sorts of private information are being stored on mobile computing devices than either employers or users are aware of; users also use these devices to listen to music. Consider not storing credit card and bank account details, passwords, private emails, and strategic knowledge about organisations, merger or takeover plans, and other priceless information on mobile devices that might affect stock prices. Consider the effects on the company if a worker's laptop, USB drive, or other pluggable device was stolen or lost and revealed private customer information including contact details, social security numbers (SSNs), and credit report information.

Operation Instructions for Putting Mobile Device Security Rules into Practice: The ideal answer in cases like the ones mentioned above would be to forbid the storage of any personal data on mobile devices, however this may not always be feasible. But, by taking the following precautions, organisations may lessen the chance that private data on lost or stolen mobile devices can be accessed:

Based on their risks and advantages within the organisation, industry, and regulatory environment, decide if the company's workers really need to utilise mobile computing devices.

Deploy additional security technologies, as appropriate to meet both the company and the kinds of devices utilised. The majority of mobile computing devices possibly all of them will need additional security measures, such as robust encryption, device passwords, and physical locks, to supplement their built-in protection. Biometrics methods may be used for encryption and authentication, and they have a great deal of promise to do away with the difficulties that come with using passwords. Standardize the mobile computing hardware and the security software that go with it. Fundamentally speaking, security rapidly deteriorates as tools and devices utilised grow more dissimilar.

Provide a particular framework for utilising mobile computing devices that covers the sorts of data that may be saved on them, how to utilise firewalls and anti-malware software, and data synchronisation rules. Manage your mobile computing devices from a one location. Keep track of your inventory so you know which gadgets are being used by whom. Create a patching process for mobile device software. Integrating patching with synchronization or patch management with the centralized database may often simplify this. Staff members should get education and training on mobile devices. If people are not instructed on how to safeguard their information properly, it cannot be assumed that they will do so.

Policy of the Organization for the Usage of Mobile Handheld Devices: Creating policies for mobile devices may be done in a variety of ways. Making specific policies for mobile computing is one approach. Another option is to include such devices into current policies. There are also middle ground strategies where mobile devices are covered by both the old policy and the new one. A new policy is developed under the hybrid method to suit the unique requirements of mobile devices, while more general use concerns are covered by conventional IT regulations. The "approved use" guideline for other technologies is extended to mobile devices as part of this strategy.

Businesses who are just getting started with mobile devices could create an all-encompassing mobile strategy, but over time they will discover that they need to adapt it to address the issues presented by various mobile handheld devices. For instance, wireless devices present various difficulties from non-wireless equipment. Also, workers who use mobile devices

more often than 20% will have distinct needs than employees who use them less frequently. Companies may need to develop different mobile device rules in the future based on the devices' wireless connectivity and making differences between those that connect to WANs and LANs.

Laptops as a concept:

The use of devices like laptops is increasing as the cost of computer technology continues to drop. While laptops and other mobile devices improve corporate operations by providing access to information on the go, they also present a serious hazard since they are portable. Because to the information being carried through other networks, which makes it difficult to detect, these gadgets' wireless capabilities have also generated worries about cyber security.

According to figures from insurance companies and the cybersecurity sector, laptop thefts have long been a significant problem. Cybercriminals target pricey computers in order to sell them quickly on the black market for a profit. Just a small percentage of laptop thieves are truly concerned with the data on the laptops. Most computers include potentially sensitive personal and business information.

Countermeasures for physical security:

A mobile workforce with access to information, wherever they are, is crucial to organisations. Yet, because of this mobility, enterprises run the risk of a data breach if a laptop holding sensitive data is stolen or lost. Hence, physical security measures are becoming more important to safeguard the data on workers' computers and lessen the possibility that employees would misplace their laptops.

Locks with cables and hardwires: Securing using cables and locks that are specifically made for laptops is the most economical and optimal option to protect any mobile device. One of the most well-known manufacturers of laptop security cables is Kensington. These cables are 40% stronger than any other traditional security cables since they are constructed of aircraft-grade steel and Kevlar brand fibre. The security wire is looped around any fixed furniture or objects and then one end is inserted into the laptop's universal security slot. Many alternatives, including alarms, key locks, and number locks, are available with these wires.

Computer safes: The computers may be carried and secured in safes constructed of polycarbonate, the same material used to make bulletproof windows, police riot shields, and bank security screens. Safes have the benefit over security cables in that they safeguard the whole laptop as well as its components, including the HDD bays, PCMCIA cards, and CD-ROM bays, which may be removed with ease from laptops with security cables installed.

Alarms and motion sensors: Despite their bothersome false alarms and harsh sound levels, alarms and motion sensors are quite effective at protecting computers. Once turned on, these gadgets may be used to locate lost computers in congested areas. Also, since they are loud, they serve to dissuade burglars. The alarm device that is fitted to modern laptop systems broadcasts radio signals within a certain area surrounding the laptop.

Labels and stamps with warnings: To discourage would-be thieves, warning stickers with tracking information and identity data may be attached to the laptop. These labels are a cheap deterrent against laptop theft since they are difficult to remove. The identifying numbers on these labels are recorded in a global database for verification, which makes it difficult to sell stolen computers. For the computers provided to top executives and/or important workers of the businesses, such labels are strongly advised.

The following are additional safeguards for laptops: Engraving personal information on the laptop, wherever possible, keeping the laptop near to oneself. Carrying the laptop in a discrete bag will prevent prospective burglars from noticing it. Educating the workforce about the responsibilities associated with carrying a laptop and the sensitive nature of the data it contains making a duplicate of the receipt for the purchase, the laptop's serial number, and its description installing encryption software to safeguard the laptop's data. Personal firewall software is used to prevent unauthorised access and infiltration.

Frequent antivirus software updates. Using security guards to maintain strict workplace security and keeping the laptop away in lockers when not in use to secure it. Unless it is equipped with an anti-theft device, never leave the laptop alone in public spaces such as the vehicle, parking lot, conferences, conventions, or airports;

Infrared ports, wireless devices, and PCMCIA cards should all be disabled and removed when not in use. Logical access restrictions are a part of information systems security. This is due to the fact that information, whether it be private or corporate, requires strong protection since it is a person's or an organization's most valuable asset. These are a few examples of logical or access controls: safeguarding against dangerous software, assaults, and social engineering. Avoiding weak access and passwords. Scanning for vulnerabilities and keeping an eye on application security. Ensuring that unsecured file systems and unencrypted data do not present risks. Handling detachable discs, storage devices, and unneeded ports correctly. Password security via the use of strong passwords and proper password guidelines. Securing unauthorised ports and devices. Applying security updates and fixes on a regular basis. Installing firewalls, intrusion detection systems, and antivirus software (IDSs). Essential file systems are encrypted.

CHAPTER 6

SMARTPHONE SECURITY RECOMMENDATIONS

Mahesh T R

Associate Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -t.mahesh@jainuniversity.ac.in

Mobile Device Security: Because to technological advancements, mobile phones may now provide capabilities and services that are comparable to those of desktop or laptop computers. Many new methods of communication, media production, and distribution are provided by these smartphones. In addition to using the mobile network to deliver these additional features, smartphones also connect to the internet, either via a wi-fi connection (like a laptop at an internet café) or through data connections made possible by the mobile network operator. Hence, although if a smartphone may, of course, be used to make phone calls, it is preferable to think of them as little computers. This indicates that the other information in this toolkit applies to both your usage of your computer and smartphone.

Web surfing, email, voice and instant messaging via the internet, recording, storing, and sending audio, video, and images, allowing social networking, multi-user gaming, banking, and many more activities are all often supported by smartphones. Yet, a lot of these capabilities and technologies either enhance current security concerns or create new ones. For instance, some smartphones come equipped with GPS geolocation capabilities, allowing you to automatically share your specific position with your mobile network provider and a number of other apps (such as social networking, mapping, browsing and other applications).

As previously noted, mobile devices already communicate your position to your mobile network provider (as part of the normal functions of the phone). Yet, the extra GPS capabilities not only improves the accuracy of your position data but also multiplies the locations in which it may be disseminated. Reviewing all the issues related to mobile phones that are covered in our guide *How to use mobile phones as safely as possible* is important since they all apply to using smartphones. In addition, it discusses recommended practises, challenges with eavesdropping, intercepting SMS or phone conversations, and SIM card-related problems.

Wallets, purses, and mobile devices: We intuitively recognise the need of keeping our purse or wallet secure since they contain so much private information and losing them puts our privacy and safety at risk. Consumers are less aware of how much private information their cellphones contain, and they see losing their phone as more of a hassle than a danger. If you consider a smartphone to be a computing device that is always connected to a network and is constantly carried around, it further emphasises the significant distinction between an object that merely stores discrete, passive information (like a wallet) and an item that is both active and interactive, such as a smartphone. This may be shown via a quick exercise:

Take everything out of your wallet or pocketbook, paying special attention to any sensitive things. Standard examples include: - A total of five images of loved ones - Identity documents, including a driver's licence, membership card, and social security card - Health and insurance information (2 cards) - Cash (5 bills) - Three cards worth of credit/debit cards

Go through your smartphone's files right now. Several of the goods listed above may be present in greater numbers and, in certain situations, at significantly higher value for the average smartphone user:

1. Email client programmes and their credentials
2. Social networking software and passwords
3. Banking software apps that provide access to bank accounts
4. Access to your sensitive information live
5. Sensitive communication records

The more often you use your smartphone, the more you need to be aware of the hazards and take the necessary safety measures. Your personal data is amplified and distributed widely via smartphones. They are intended to link automatically to social networking sites and to provide the greatest amount of connection feasible. This is because the information that can be gathered, searched, and sold using your personal data is valuable. Losing your phone without having a safe backup of your most crucial information (such as your contacts) might be terrible. Make sure you are knowledgeable about data restoration in addition to data backup. Have a written copy of the procedures on hand so you can act promptly in an emergency.

Operating Systems and Platforms: The most popular smartphones at the time of writing are the Apple iPhone and Google Android, followed by Blackberry and Windows phones. The primary distinction between Android and other operating systems is that Android is primarily a Free and Open Source Software (FOSS) system, allowing the operating system to be independently inspected to determine if it adequately secures users' data and communication. The creation of security apps for this platform is also made easier. No matter what kind of smartphone you use, there are concerns you should be aware of when using a device that can access to the internet and has features like GPS or wireless networking capabilities. But, basic setup instructions and a few apps for gadgets other than Android phones are also offered. Blackberry phones have been promoted as "secure" email and messaging platforms. This is due to the safe channelling of messages and emails via Blackberry servers, which keeps them out of the hands of prospective listeners. Regrettably, more and more governments are requesting access to these conversations under the pretext that they must protect themselves from future acts of terrorism and organised crime. Governments that have studied Blackberry device usage and sought access to user data include those in India, the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Saudi Arabia, Indonesia, and Lebanon.

Phones with feature: 'Feature phones' is another term for a subcategory of mobile devices. Lately, several smartphone features have been added to feature phones, increasing their functionality. The operating systems of feature phones, however, are often less accessible, therefore there are few chances for applications for or advancements in security. While many of the strategies covered here are also appropriate for feature phones, we do not expressly address them.

Branded and locked mobile devices: Most smartphones are branded or locked when they are sold. When a smartphone is locked, only one carrier's SIM card will function in the handset, allowing it to only be used with that carrier. By installing their own firmware or software, mobile network carriers often brand a phone. They might also remove certain features or introduce new ones. By exploiting your smartphone, typically gathering information about how you use it, or allowing remote access to your device, branding is a way for businesses to boost sales.

We advise you to get an unbranded smartphone if you can because of these factors. A locked phone provides a larger danger since all of your data is routed via one carrier, centralising your data streams and prohibiting the use of numerous SIM cards to spread the data across other carriers. If your phone is locked, get advice from a reliable source on how to unlock it.

General Setup: The security of a smartphone may be controlled by a number of options. You should pay attention to how your smartphone is configured. We'll warn you about specific smartphone security settings that are present but inactive by default, as well as those that are active by default and leave your phone susceptible, in the Hands-on Guides listed below.

Installing and upgrading software: Using the iPhone Appstore or Google Play store, logging in with your user credentials, then downloading and installing the required programme are the standard methods for updating the software on your smartphone. By signing in, you link your use of the online shop to the logged-in user account. This user's browsing history and application preferences are recorded by the application store's proprietors.

The apps that are available in the official online store are theoretically approved by the proprietors of such stores (Google or Apple), but in practise this offers no security against what apps will do after they are installed on your phone. After being installed on your phone, certain programmes, for instance, may copy and transfer your contact book. When an application is installed on an Android device, it must ask permission to do certain tasks while it is in use. You should pay great attention to the permissions that are sought and determine whether or not they are appropriate for the purpose of the programme you are downloading. Consider other programmes with suitable access and privileges, for instance, if you are investigating a "news reader" app but learn that it wants to transfer your contacts to a third party through a mobile data connection.) ites. To limit their online interactions with Google, some users may wish to take these alternative websites into account. F-Droid (also known as "Free Droid") is an alternative app store that solely sells FOSS software. Please keep in mind, nevertheless, that you should trust the website before downloading any programmes from it.

You can send.apk files short for "android application package" via bluetooth to access applications from someone else's phone if you don't want to (or are unable to) go online. As an alternative, you might transfer the.apk file from a Computer to your device's Micro SD card using a USB connection. When you get the download, all you need to do is long-tap on it to be requested to install it. Using a Smartphone for Secure Voice and Messaging Communication

Confidential Voice Communications

Telephone basics: The signal towers closest to you are notified of your phone's existence in order for it to transmit or receive any calls or communications²⁵. The network service provider is aware of the specific geographic position of your mobile phone at all times as a consequence of such notifications and messages.

About Anonymity: Be cautious of the aforementioned monitoring 'feature' of all mobile phones if you are having or sending sensitive phone conversations or SMS messages. Consider using the following actions:

Call from various areas each time, and choose places that are unrelated to you. Leave your phone off with the battery detached, travel to the destination, turn it on, and communicate there before turning it off and reconnecting the battery. The network will be unable to detect your movements if you consistently do this whenever you need to make a call. Switch SIM cards and phones often. Switch them out with pals or the used market. If it's possible in your

region, use unregistered pre-paid SIM cards. The use of a credit card to purchase a phone or SIM card will also link these things to you, so avoid doing so.

With regards to eavesdropping, your phone may be configured to secretly record and send all noises that pass via its microphone. Even when a phone seems to be turned off, it may still be possible to remotely turn it on and activate it. Never let someone you don't trust to physically access your phone; this is a typical technique for spyware to be installed on your phone. Disconnect the battery from your phone and turn it off if you are holding a private or crucial meeting. If you can leave the phone where it will be completely secure, do not carry it with you. Ensure that everyone you communicate with applies these precautions as well. Don't forget that using a phone in public or in areas you don't trust exposes you to classic eavesdropping methods as well as the risk of having your phone stolen.

About call interception: The encryption of voice communications as well as text messages that pass via the mobile phone network is often rather flimsy. If someone is close enough to your phone to receive its transmissions, they may be able to employ low-cost tactics to intercept your written correspondence or listen to your conversations. Also, mobile phone service providers have access to all of your voice and text messages. While it is presently costly and/or technically challenging to encrypt phone conversations such that even mobile phone providers cannot listen in, these technologies are anticipated to become less expensive shortly. Installing an encryption app on both your phone and the device of the person you want to connect with is required before you can use the encryption. After that is done, you may use this program to make and receive secure calls and/or texts. Just a few kinds of so-called "smart" phones presently enable encryption software.

As the signal will eventually go to the mobile network, where encryption is NOT in place, conversations between Skype and mobile phones are also not secured. Employing VoIP and other security measures to protect this channel of communication may make browsing the Internet via your smartphone through mobile data connections or WiFi more secure than other methods of communication. Even mobile phone conversations may benefit from part of this security thanks to some smartphone technologies, which go beyond VoIP (See RedPhone below). We now present several tools along with their benefits and drawbacks:

Skype: If your wireless network is strong, the most widely used commercial VoIP programme, Skype, works well and is accessible for all smartphone platforms. Mobile data connections are less dependable. It is quite difficult to independently vouch for Skype's degree of security since it is not an open-source program. Also, Microsoft owns Skype and has a business reason to know when and where you use it. Also, law enforcement authorities may be given retroactive access to all of your Skype interactions.

Extra VoIP tools: VoIP calls are often free (or substantially less expensive than calls made on a mobile device) and leave little digital evidence. The safest method of communication may really be a protected VoIP call. The audio communication data exchanged between two devices that run RedPhone is encrypted using this Free and Open-Source Software programme. Because of its seamless integration into your existing dialling and contact system, it is both simple to setup and operate. But in order to communicate, you both need to install and utilise RedPhone. RedPhone utilises your cell number to identify you to your contacts in order to make the service more user-friendly. Sadly, this makes it more difficult to utilise RedPhone without a working cell service plan, even on devices that can connect to the Internet through WiFi. RedPhone also employs a central server, which gives the service's administrators considerable authority by enabling them to see a large portion of the meta-data pertaining to your encrypted VoIP conversations. With several simple set-up wizards for

various VoIP providers, CSipSimple is a robust VoIP client for Android phones that is well-maintained. Nowadays, one of the most secure ways to interact through voice is via the Open Secure Telephony Network (OSTN) and the server offered by the Guardian project, ostel.co. For your VoIP communication requirements, it is crucial to understand and have faith in the organisation running the server. Once you use CSipSimple, all of your data is sent via the Ostel server rather than directly to your contact. As a result, it is far more difficult to track your data and identify your contacts. Apart for the account information required for login, Ostel also deletes all of this information. All of your voice is securely encrypted, and as traffic is routed via the ostel.co server, even your Meta data, which is often extremely difficult to mask, is obscured. CSipSimple is extremely simple to install and use when downloaded from ostel.co since it is already setup for usage with ostel. Coming soon are tool guides for Ostel.co and CSipSimple. The links above may be used to get further information in the meantime.

Secure Message Transmission: While utilising instant messaging, chatting, and Texting on your smartphone, you should take measures. SMS Text messaging is inherently unsafe. These messages are simple for anybody with access to a mobile telecommunications network to intercept, and this happens often in many circumstances. In urgent circumstances, avoid relying on sending unencrypted SMS messages. Moreover, SMS communications cannot be authenticated, making it difficult to determine whether a message's contents were altered during delivery or whether the sender is indeed who they claim to be.

SMS security: For sending and receiving encrypted SMS on Android phones, use TextSecure, a FOSS application. It is compatible with both encrypted and unencrypted texts, so you may use it as your preferred SMS application. You'll need to convince the individuals you often interact with to use it as this programme must be installed by both the sender and the receiver of a message in order for encrypted communications to be sent. When an encrypted message is received from another TextSecure user, TextSecure instantly recognises it. Moreover, it enables you to send encrypted messages to many recipients. It is practically difficult to alter a message's contents since messages are automatically signed. The features of this tool and how to use it are thoroughly covered in our TextSecure hands-on tutorial.

Chat securely: Using your phone for instant messaging and talking might generate a lot of information that could be intercepted. These discussions might one day be used against you by rivals. Because of this, you should exercise extra caution while writing on your phone while conversing and using instant messaging. There are safe methods to instant message and chat. The most effective method is to employ end-to-end encryption, which will allow you to verify that the person on the other end is the one you want.

For Android phones, we suggest ChatSecure as a secure text chat programme. Your conversations using the Off-the-Record Messaging protocol may be easily and securely encrypted with ChatSecure. As a result, even if the encryption of one chat session is broken, other previous and future sessions will still be safe. This encryption ensures both authenticity (you can confirm that you are conversing with the real person) and the independent security of each session. Your chat communications may be forwarded over the Tor anonymizing network thanks to the way that ChatSecure and Orbot have been developed. This makes it exceedingly difficult to track it down or even establish that it occurred.

While it is difficult to use with the Tor network, the ChatSecure software for iPhones offers the same functionalities. Always think about which account you'll be using to chat while choosing an application. For instance, Google is aware of your login information and the

duration of your conversation session when you use Google Talk. Moreover, concur with your discussion participants that you shouldn't save chat history, particularly if they aren't encrypted.

Keeping Data on Your Smartphone: Smartphones have vast amounts of data storage. Sadly, anybody with physical access to your phone or remote access to the device may readily view the data that is stored on it. Any sensitive data on your phone may be encrypted by utilising certain tools.

Date-Crypturing Software: OpenPGP encryption is supported for files and emails by the Android Privacy Guard (APG). While emailing, you may utilise it to keep your files and data secure on your phone.

Taking Safe Notes of Password: Use KeePass to save all of your necessary passwords in a single, encrypted file that is safe and secure. One master password will be all you need to remember in order to access the others. As KeePass will remember your passwords for you and also includes a password generator, you may use really strong passwords for any account you have. KeePass password databases may be synchronised between your phone and PC. Just synchronise the passwords you will really use on your phone, as per our recommendation. Instead of copying a full database of all the passwords you use to your smartphone, you may construct a smaller, separate password database on your computer and sync it with your smartphone. A very strong password must be used for your KeePass database since your master password protects all of the passwords.

Using your smartphone to send emails: The usage of email on cellphones will be briefly covered in this section. Ask yourself whether you really need to access your email on your smartphone in the first place. A computer and its contents are often easier to secure than mobile devices like smartphones. A smartphone is more likely to be stolen, tracked, and invaded.

There are steps you may do to reduce the hazards if it is absolutely necessary for you to access your email on your smartphone. Do not depend just on your smartphone to access your email. It's not a good idea to download emails from an email server, delete them, and then just keep them on your smartphone. Your email programme may be configured to only utilise copies of emails. Consider installing it on your smartphone as well if you use email encryption with certain of your contacts. Additionally, if the phone ends up in the wrong hands, the emails will still be secret since they were encrypted.

Your mobile device may seem like a hazardous place to store your private encryption key. The advantages of being able to send and retain emails in a safe, encrypted manner on a mobile device, however, may outweigh the hazards. If you want to avoid copying your encryption private key from your computer to your mobile device, think about creating a mobile-only encryption key-pair (using APG). You should be aware that doing this necessitates asking your contacts to encrypt their emails using your mobile-only encryption key as well.

Using your smartphone to capture media: With your smartphone, you can record important events and share them with others by taking photos, videos, or audio. The safety and privacy of persons who are being photographed, filmed, or recorded should, nevertheless, be respected. For instance, if you record audio or video of a significant event, it could be dangerous for you or the people in the recordings if your phone ends up in the wrong hands. These recommendations may be useful in this situation:

Provide a method for immediately removing recorded media files from the phone after recording and securely uploading them to a secure web destination. Use tools to distort the voices in audio or video recordings and blur the faces of people appearing in images or videos, and only store blurred and distorted copies of media files on your mobile device. Preserve or delete Meta data about location and time from media files. To detect faces in photos and blur them, Guardian Project developed the FOSS application ObscuraCam. Of course, you have a choice in how and what is blurred. In addition to erasing the original pictures, Obscuracam also makes it simple to upload captured media to a server if one has been set up.

How to Securely Use Your Smartphone to Access the Internet: Accessing content on the Internet or posting content online, such as photos or videos, leaves many traces of who you are, where you are, and what you are doing, as was covered in our guides on *How to Keep Your Internet Communication Private* and *How to Remain Anonymous and Bypass Censorship on the Internet*. This might endanger you. This danger is increased while using a smartphone to access the Internet.

Using mobile data or Wi-Fi: Smartphones give you the option to choose how you connect to the Internet: wirelessly through an access point (like an internet café) or through a mobile data connection (such as GPRS, EDGE, or UMTS) offered by your mobile network provider. The amount of data you might be leaving with your mobile phone service provider when connected via WiFi is reduced (by not having it connected with your mobile phone subscription). But occasionally the only way to access the internet is through a mobile data connection. Regrettably, EDGE and UMTS are two examples of mobile data communication technologies that are not open standards. The implementation of these protocols by mobile data carriers cannot be examined by independent developers or security engineers.

Different laws apply to mobile access providers in some countries than to internet service providers, which can lead to more invasive government and carrier surveillance. Using anonymizing and encryption tools can help you lower your risks of data exposure regardless of the route you choose for your digital communications with a smartphone. **Your smartphone's privacy:** Use the Android application Orbot to browse the web anonymously. Your internet traffic is routed via the anonymity network of Tor by Orbot. Using proxies and not saving a local browsing history are just two of Orweb's privacy-enhancing features, which make it a great alternative to other apps. Bypassing web filters and firewalls, Orbot and Orweb provide anonymous browsing.

Proxies: Proxy add-ons, which route your traffic through a proxy server, can be installed on the mobile version of Firefox, known as Firefox mobile. Your traffic then continues on to the website you are requesting. However, unless the connection between your client and the proxy is encrypted, this may still reveal your requests in censorship situations. We suggest the Proxy Mobile add-on for Firefox, which is also from the Guardian Project and facilitates proxying. It also the sole method to leverage the Tor network and direct Firefox mobile conversations to Orbot.

High-Tech Smartphone Security: Get total control over your smartphone. The majority of smartphones are capable of more than their operating system, manufacturer's software, or mobile operators' programmes permit. On the other hand, some functionalities are "locked in," making it impossible for the user to manage or change them. As a result, they remain out of reach. These features are typically not needed by smartphone users. However, some features and applications can improve the security of data and communications on a smartphone. In addition, certain additional current features may be disabled to reduce security concerns.

For this and other reasons, some smartphone users decide to tamper with the various software and programmes that run the device in order to acquire the necessary privileges that would enable them to add enhanced functionality or remove or scale back other ones. Rooting (in the case of Android devices) or jailbreaking is the process of circumventing restrictions placed by mobile carriers or manufacturers of operating systems on a smartphone (in case of iOS devices, like iPhone or iPad).

Successful rooting or jailbreaking usually gives you full access to the smartphone's data storage and memory as well as all the rights necessary to add new applications and use them, change configurations that would otherwise be locked down, and install and use additional applications.

Warning: Jailbreaking or rooting may not be reversible processes, and they call for knowledge of software installation and setup. Please take into account:

1. There is a chance that you could "brick" your smartphone, rendering it inoperable indefinitely.
2. The warranty from the device's maker or mobile service provider can be void.
3. This process may be prohibited in some locations.
4. But if you take precautions, rooting your smartphone is a simple way to take back control of it and make it much more secure.

Various Firmwares: Firmware describes applications that are closely related to the specific device. They work in tandem with the operating system of the device and are in charge of the physical components of your smartphone, such as the speaker, microphone, cameras, touchscreen, memory, keys, antennas, etc., performing their fundamental functions. To further improve your control of the phone, you might think about installing a firmware alternative if you have an Android device. Keep in mind that you must root your phone in order to install alternative firmware.

A good example of an alternative firmware for an Android phone is Cyanogenmod, which, among other things, enables you to remove applications from the system level of your device (i.e., those installed by the manufacturer of the device or your mobile network provider). You may do this to lessen the amount of ways your device can be watched, including data that is unknowingly transferred to your service provider. Additionally, OpenVPN is included by default with Cyanogenmod, making it unnecessary to install it separately. One way to safely proxy your internet communication is with a VPN (Virtual Private Network) (see below). Additionally, Cyanogenmod provides a browsing mode called Incognito that prevents your smartphone's communication history from being saved.

Encryption for Every Device: If your phone is rooted, you might think about encrypting the entire data storage or making a volume on the Smartphone to safeguard some data. Using a simple interface, Luks Manager makes it simple to encrypt volumes securely while they are being used. Installing this programme before beginning to store significant data on your Android device is highly advised. You should then store all of your data using the Encrypted Volumes offered by the Luks Manager.

Virtual Private Network (VPN) Security: Between your device and a VPN server, a VPN offers an encrypted internet tunnel. This is referred to as a tunnel because, in contrast to other encrypted traffic like https, all services, protocols, and contents are hidden. A VPN connection is only established once and ends when you decide. An intermediary only needs

access to the proxy to examine your activities because all of your traffic passes through the proxy or VPN server. Because of this, it's crucial to choose between proxy services and VPN services carefully. Additionally, it is advisable to use various proxies and/or VPNs because spreading out your data streams lessens the impact of a compromised service.

CHAPTER 7

INTERNAL SECURITY: IDEAS AND RESOURCES

Gaurav Londhe

Associate Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

Email Id: -gaurav.londhe@jainuniversity.ac.in

Businesses must focus on the security of their networks because of the open nature of the Internet. More businesses are shifting their company operations. They must take security measures while using the public network to guarantee that the data cannot be compromised and that it cannot be accessed by anybody who is not authorized to view it. Illegal network access by a third-party hacker or a disgruntled employee may harm or destroy confidential information, have a negative impact on business efficiency, and limit an organization's capacity to compete. In Computer Crime and Security Survey, the Computer Security Institute found that, on average, percent of respondents dealt with at least one security issue each day. Illegal network access may also damage a company's reputation with clients and business partners because they may begin to doubt its capacity to safeguard sensitive data. additional service trends While the elastic deployment of cloud services, which are always accessible from any device, benefits both consumers and organizations, these significant developments in the business services sector increase the dangers involved in securing data and the entities employing it (individuals, businesses, governments, and so on). Sound concepts and a lifecycle approach are essential for security policies and designs, regardless of where the data is located in the server farm.

Internet security: The topic of knowing who to trust online when confronted with the continual problem of being able to verify reputable companies online was recently covered in *Forbe's* article "Internet Security: Who Should You Trust." We learn more about how "internet security is all about trust at a distance" in this piece, as well as what the US government is doing, namely the "Online Trust Alliance" (OTA), to defend its people against fraud and fraudsters online. Almost 100 businesses and organizations are represented by the OTA, which reflects the wide online ecosystem." Together, they have developed crucial connections with top security and virus producers, Microsoft, social media platforms, and online payment processors like Paypal.

They met with the FBI last week to talk about international cybercrime in the office of the New York Attorney General. By "enhancing online trust," the OTA hopes to fostering life and creativity on the internet. Internet research ethics: A subfield of the social sciences, humanities, medical and biomedical sciences, as well as the hard sciences, is internet research ethics. The methods in which ethical dilemmas in Internet research are thought about and assessed have been influenced by the ethical frameworks that are now in use, including consequentialism, utilitarianism, deontology, virtue ethics, and feminist ethics. Internet research ethics involves moral concerns including data privacy and confidentiality, data integrity, difficulties with intellectual property, and professional standards. It is conceptually and historically connected to computer and information ethics. There has been discussion throughout the development of the Internet about whether there are new ethical concerns developing or whether the current difficulties remain constant in study or despite technical advances.

The ethical concerns have changed from being solely data driven to being more human-to-human comparisons may not be appropriate to online research as the Internet has developed into a more social and communicative medium and venue. For instance, a public park has been utilised as a location for researchers to study people, but online, the distinction between public and private is considerably more nuanced. Thus, some academics contend that additional disciplinary, professional, and governmental advice is necessary given the uniqueness of Internet research ethics. Due to these factors, this entry is informed by the idea of human subject's research policy and regulation as well as disciplinary standards. It will examine the expanding range of ethical and methodological complexity, including personal identifiability, reputational risk and harm, ideas of public space and public text, ownership, and data longevity as they apply to Internet research. Particularly, the social web's development poses questions about what constitutes a participant or subject.

Data anonymity and confidentiality in areas where researchers and their subjects may not fully understand the terms and conditions of those venues or tools; challenges to data integrity as research projects can be outsourced to a mechanical Turk or a bot; and jurisdictional issues as more and more people use technology in everyday life. Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) is the standard for all Internet communication. Information may be transmitted from one computer to another using TCP/IP and then pass via a number of intermediary machines and independent networks before arriving at its destination. TCP/IP is widely regarded as the fundamental Internet and intranet communications technology due to its extreme versatility. The ability for information to move via intermediary computers provided by TCP/IP also makes it feasible for third parties to obstruct communications in the following ways:

Eavesdropping: While information privacy is compromised, it is unaffected. For instance, someone may overhear a private discussion, discover your credit card number, or steal important data.

Tampering: Information is modified or updated during in transit and then sent to the receiver. A resume or a purchase order, for instance, might both be changed.

Impersonation: An individual pretending to be the intended receiver receives information. Impersonation comes in two varieties:

Spoofing: A person has the ability to pose as someone else. For instance, someone may impersonate having the email address or a machine could claim to be `www.example.net` when it isn't. The term "spoofing" refers to this kind of imitation.

Misrepresentation: A person or business may project a false image of themselves. Consider the scenario where `www.example.net` poses as a furniture business but is really simply a website that accepts credit card payments but never provides any merchandise.

The network traffic that continually goes across the numerous collaborating computers that make up the Internet or other networks is often not monitored or interfered with by users of such systems. However, many private and professional conversations that take place over the Internet need to be protected from the dangers mentioned above. However, it is extremely simple to take such safeguards because to a collection of well-known methods and guidelines known as public-key cryptography. The following tasks are made easier by public-key cryptography:

Two communication parties may hide the information they communicate to each other by using encryption and decryption. Prior to transmission, the sender scrambles or encrypts the data. After receiving the information, the receiver decrypts or unscrambles it. The encrypted data is incomprehensible to an intrusive party while in transit. Tamper detection enables the

information's receiver to confirm that it hasn't been changed in transit. Any effort to change data or replace a true message with a fraudulent one will be discovered.

Information authentication enables the receiver to identify the sender and ascertain the source of the information. By requiring non-repudiation, the sender of information is prevented from subsequently asserting that the information was never delivered. Cryptography and decryption: Information is changed via the process of encryption so that only the intended receiver can decipher it. Decryption is the process of converting encrypted data back into understandable form. A mathematical operation used for encryption or decryption is referred to as a cryptographic algorithm, sometimes known as a cypher.

The majority of the time, two related functions—one for encryption and the other for decryption—are used. Most current cryptography relies on a key, a number that must be used with the algorithm to obtain an encrypted result or to decode previously encrypted material, rather than the generally known cryptographic technique, to keep encrypted information private. With the right key, decryption is easy. Without the right key, decryption is highly challenging and, in certain situations, almost impossible. The usage of keys for encryption and decryption is described in the sections that follow.

1. Key Length and Encryption Strength
2. Public-Key Encryption
3. Symmetric-Key Encryption

Symmetric-Key Encryption: This kind of encryption allows for the calculation of both the encryption key and the decryption key. The majority of symmetric algorithms use the same key for both encryption and decryption. Symmetric-key encryption implementations may be quite effective, ensuring that consumers don't suffer any appreciable latency delays as a consequence of the encryption and decryption.

As data encrypted with one symmetric key cannot be decrypted with any other symmetric key, symmetric-key encryption also offers some level of authentication. So, each party may be certain that it is speaking with the other as long as the decrypted messages continue to make sense as long as the symmetric key is kept secret by the two parties using it to encrypt conversations.

Only when the two parties involved keep the symmetric key secret will symmetric-key encryption be successful. If the key is found by someone else, both secrecy and authentication are compromised. A person in possession of an illegal symmetric key has the ability to encrypt fresh messages and transmit them pretending to be sent by one of the two persons who were initially using the key. They can also use the key to decode communications encrypted with it. The SSL protocol, which is extensively used for authentication, tamper detection, and encryption across TCP/IP networks, heavily relies on symmetric-key encryption. Public-key encryption methods are also used by SSL; these methods are discussed in the section below.

Public-Key Cryptography Public-key encryption is most often employed in systems that rely on RSA Data Security's proprietary techniques. Hence, the RSA method of public-key encryption is covered in this section. A pair of keys—a public key and a private key—associated with an entity that needs to electronically verify its identity or to sign or encrypt data are used in public-key encryption, also known as asymmetric encryption. Each public key is made available, while the associated private key is kept private. Data encrypted with your public key can only be decrypted with your private. Typically, sending encrypted When you send someone your data, you encrypt it using their public key, and they decode it using their matching private key.

Public-key encryption needs more processing than symmetric-key encryption and is thus not always suitable for huge volumes of data. Nonetheless, it is feasible to transfer a symmetric key through public-key encryption, which may subsequently be used to encrypt more data. The SSL protocol follows this strategy.

Interestingly, only your public key may be used to decode material that has been encrypted with your private key. But, because your public key, which is by definition made public, may be used to decode anything, this would not be a suitable approach to encrypt sensitive material. But, private-key encryption is advantageous because it enables you to sign data with your digital signature using your private key, which is a crucial prerequisite for electronic commerce and other business uses of cryptography. After the message has been signed with your private key, client software like Firefox may use your public key to verify that it was signed with that key and hasn't been tampered with subsequently. How this confirmation procedure works is described in "Digital Signatures" and later parts.

Strength of the encryption and key length: The difficulty of deciphering the key, which in turn relies on both the cypher used and the length of the key, is often correlated with the strength of encryption. For instance, the difficulty of factoring big numbers, a well-known mathematical issue, determines the complexity of finding the key for the most used RSA cypher for public-key encryption. The size of the keys used to execute the encryption is often used to define the encryption's quality; in general, longer keys provide better encryption. Bits are used to measure key length. For instance, using 128-bit keys with the RC4 symmetric-key cypher SSL supports offers significantly better cryptographic security than using 40-bit keys. Approximately 3×10^{26} times as strong as 40-bit RC4 encryption is 128-bit RC4 encryption. (For more details on SSL's use of RC4 and other cyphers. To achieve the same level of encryption strength, various cyphers may require various key lengths. For instance, the RSA cypher used for public-key encryption may only utilise a portion of all potential values for a key of a certain length because of the

Authentication and certificates: An electronic certificate is a document that identifies a person, a server, a business, or other entity and links that identification to a public key. A certificate offers generally accepted evidence of a person's identification, much as a driver's licence, passport, or other widely used personal IDs. Certificates are used in public-key cryptography to combat the issue of impersonation. A government organisation, like the Department of Motor Vehicles, normally accepts applications for driver's licences and validates the applicant's identification, driving eligibility, address, and other details before granting the licence. You must apply for a student ID at a school or institution, which will then conduct several checks (such as verifying that your tuition has been paid) before providing the ID. You may simply need to supply your name and a utility statement with your address on it to get a library card.

The operation of certificates is quite similar to that of any of these well-known identifying types. Identity verification and certificate issuance are done by organisations known as certificate authority (CAs). They may be businesses or unaffiliated third parties with their own certificate-issuing servers (such as Red Hat Certificate System). Similar to how techniques used to verify other types of identification differ, methods used to authenticate an identity rely on the rules of a particular CA. depends on the person granting the ID and the intended use of it. In general, the CA must apply its publicly available certificate type-specific verification methods before issuing a certificate to make sure the entity seeking the certificate is who it says it is. A specific public key is linked to the name of the entity the certificate recognises by means of the certificate issued by the CA (such as the name of an employee or a server). The use of bogus public keys for impersonation is prevented by

certificates. With the associated private key held by the entity named in the certificate, only the public key that is certified by the certificate will function.

An entity's name, its identification number, its expiry date, the name of the CA that issued the certificate, its serial number, and other details are always included in a certificate in addition to the public key. The digital signature of the issuing CA is always included in certificates, which is crucial. Users who know and trust the CA but are unfamiliar with the entity represented by the certificate might use the certificate as a "letter of introduction" because of the digital signature the CA added to it.

Authentication Verifies a Person's Identity: Verifying someone's identity is the process of authentication. The confident identification of one party by another party occurs during authentication in the context of network interactions. There are several ways to authenticate via networks. One method of providing authentication is using certificates. A client, such as browser software running on a personal computer, and a server, such as the software and hardware needed to host a Web site, are often the two entities that communicate across a network. Client authentication is the process through which a server identifies a client with certainty (that is, identification of the person assumed to be using the client software). The secure identification of a server by a client is known as server authentication (that is, identification of the organisation assumed to be responsible for the server at a particular network address).

The types of authentication that certificates offer go beyond client and server authentication. For instance, the digital signature on an email message and the certificate used to verify the sender's identity provide solid proof that the person named in the certificate really sent the message. Similar to this, a digital signature on an HTML form together with a certificate proving the signer's identity may be used to show, after the fact, that the signer did approve the form's contents. Furthermore to In addition to providing authentication, a digital signature in both circumstances provides some degree of non-repudiation, making it more difficult for the signer to subsequently deny sending the email or form. In the majority of intranets and extranets, client authentication is a crucial component of network security. Following are comparisons of two client authentication types:

Authentication with a password. Practically all server software supports name and password-based client authentication. For instance, a server could request a user's name and password before allowing access. If a certain name appears on the server's list of names and passwords and the user enters the right password, the server authorises access.

Authentication using certificates. SSL protocol includes client authentication based on certificates. A random bit of data is digitally signed by the client, who then transmits the certificate and the signed data over the network. The server verifies the signature and the certificate's authenticity using public-key cryptographic methods.

Using a password to authenticate: The user has requested a resource that is under the control of the server; the server requires client authentication before granting access to the requested resource; the user has already made up their mind to trust the server, either without authentication or on the basis of server authentication via SSL.

The stages are given below:

The client shows a dialogue box asking for the user name and password for that server in response to a server request for authentication. For each new server the user desires to use during a work session, the user must provide a name and password individually. Either through an unencrypted SSL connection or in the clear, the client transmits the username and password across the network. If the name and password match those in its local password

database, the server accepts them as proof of the user's identity. If the identified user is authorized to access the requested resource, the server checks to see whether the client is then given access.

In this scenario, each server requires a unique password from the user, and the administrator must keep track of each user's name and password, usually on several servers. Passwords are not kept in plaintext by a proper implementation. Instead, it combines the password with a unique, random number for each user (referred to as the "salt") and saves both the salt and the hash value of the result. This makes certain brute-force attacks more challenging.

One benefit of certificate-based authentication is that it can be used to replace the first three with a mechanism that enables the user to supply a single password (which is not sent across the network) and enables the administrator to manage user authentication from a central location, as is demonstrated in the following section.

Authentication Based on Certificates: A client digitally signs a piece of randomly generated data and transmits it over the network with the certificate in order to authenticate a user to a server. The digital signature attached to certain data may be seen as proof given to the server by the client for the purposes of this discussion. On the basis of this proof, the server confirms the user's identity.

Since it depends both on what the user owns (the private key) and knows, certificate-based authentication is widely seen as being better to password-based authentication (the password that protects the private key). It's crucial to remember that these two presumptions only hold true if no unauthorized individuals have access to the user's computer or password, the client program's private key database password has been established, and the software is configured to ask for the password on a regular basis.

In terms of security, neither password-based authentication nor certificate-based authentication deal with physical access to specific computers or passwords. Only the correspondence between a private key used to sign some data and the public key in a certificate can be confirmed using public-key cryptography. It is the user's duty to safeguard a machine's physical security and maintain the secrecy of the private-key password. The stages in Figure 5 are as follows: The client software, like Communicator, keeps a database of the private keys that match the public keys released in any certificates issued for that client. The first time the client wants to access this database during a particular session, for instance, the client asks for the password. The first time a user tries to connect to a server that supports SSL and demands certificate-based client authentication. During the duration of the session, even when logging into other SSL-enabled servers, the user only has to input this password once.

Using input from both the client and the server, the client unlocks the private-key database, extracts the private key for the user's certificate, and uses that private key to digitally sign some data that was produced randomly for this purpose. This information plus the private key's digital signature serve as "proof" of its reliability. The digital signature is exclusive to the SSL session and can only be generated with that private key. It may then be verified against the signed data using the associated public key. The client transmits the proof (the randomly produced bit of data that has been digitally signed) and the user's certificate across the network. The certificate and the supporting documentation are used by the server to confirm the user's identity.

The server may now, at its discretion, carry out further authentication procedures, such as verifying that the client's given certificate is really stored with the user's entry in an LDAP directory. The server then keeps checking to see whether the identified user has access rights

to the requested resource. This review procedure may make use of a number of common authorisation techniques, sometimes supplemented by data from enterprise databases, LDAP directories, etc. The server gives the client access to the requested resource if the evaluation's outcome is favourable.

Single sign-on requires the user to input the private-key database password only once, without transmitting it over the network, as opposed to having them to submit passwords across the network repeatedly throughout the day. The client shows the user's certificate to each new server it comes across for the remainder of the session in order to authenticate the user. Current user identity-based authentication procedures for authorisation remain unaffected.

Types of certificates; SSL Protocol; Signed and Encrypted Email; Form Signing; Single Sign-On; Object Signing; Signed and Encrypted Email; Certificate Types.

Red Hat products often employ one of five types of certificates:

Client SSL certificates: Used to link customers' SSL identities to servers (client authentication). Normally, the client's identification is assumed to be the same as that of a human person, such as a worker in an organisation. For further information on how client SSL certificates are used for client authentication, see "Certificate-Based Authentication". In addition to being used for form signing, client SSL certificates may also be a component of single sign-on systems. As an example, a bank may provide a client SSL certificate to a customer, enabling the bank's servers to recognise the customer and grant access to the customer's accounts. A corporation may provide a client SSL certificate to a new hire, enabling the company's servers to recognise the individual and grant access to the servers.

SSL server certificates: used to communicate server identification to clients (server authentication). Client authentication may or may not be used in conjunction with server authentication. An encrypted SSL session requires server authentication. For instance, e-commerce websites often enable certificate-based server authentication at the very least to create an encrypted SSL connection and reassure clients that they are transacting with a website associated with a certain business. Personal information communicated over the network, including credit card details, cannot be readily intercepted thanks to the SSL session's encryption.

S/MIME certificates are used for emails that are signed and encrypted. The identification of the client is often taken to be the same as the identity of a human individual, such as an employee in an organisation, much as with client SSL certificates. Both an SSL certificate and an S/MIME certificate may be used with the same certificate. S/MIME certificates may also be utilised as part of a single sign-on solution and for form signing. Examples include the following: A business uses integrated S/MIME and SSL certificates just to verify employee identities, allowing signed email and client SSL authentication but not encrypted email. S/MIME certificates are only produced by one firm and are only used to sign and encrypt emails containing confidential information about money or the law.

Object-signing certificates: These are used to determine who signed signed files such as Java code, JavaScript scripts, and other signed files. Please refer to "Object Signing" for further details. To provide customers some reassurance that the programme is a genuine offering from that firm, a software company signs software that is delivered over the Internet. This method of using certificates and digital signatures may also enable users to recognise and manage the level of access that downloaded software has to their machines.

Certificates from CA used to distinguish CA Software on the client and server uses CA certificates to evaluate whether other certificates are trustworthy. for further details. As an

example, Communicator's CA certificates control which other certificates its copy of Communicator may vouch for. By managing the CA certificates kept in each user's copy of Communicator, an administrator may carry out various parts of corporate security rules.

Protocol SSL: A set of guidelines called the Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) protocol controls client and server authentication as well as encrypted communication. SSL is extensively used on the Internet, particularly for transactions involving the exchange of private data like credit card details. SSL needs at least a server SSL certificate. The server shows the client its certificate as part of the first "handshake" procedure to verify the server's authenticity. Public-key encryption and digital signatures are used in the authentication process to make sure the server is who it says it is. The client and server utilise symmetric-key encryption methods, which are extremely quick, to encrypt all the data they exchange for the duration of the session and to check for any tampering that may have taken place after the server has been authenticated. Server configuration options include requiring both client and server authentication. In this instance, before the encrypted SSL connection can be formed, the client must first validate their identity by presenting their certificate to the server once server authentication has been successfully completed. Check out the comparison between password-based authentication and client authentication via SSL for a general overview.

Email that has been digitally signed and is encrypted is supported by certain email clients, such as Messenger (a component of Communicator), utilising the widely used Secure Multipurpose Internet Mail Extension (S/MIME) protocol. Email communications must be signed or encrypted using S/MIME, and the sender must possess an S/MIME certificate. A digitally signed email message offers some reassurance that the sender identified in the message header really delivered the email, so authenticating the sender. The user will be informed if the recipient email client cannot verify the digital signature. The message it is attached to and the digital signature are exclusive. The digital signature cannot be confirmed if the message received and the message sent vary in any way, not even by the addition or deletion of a comma. Email that has been signed offers some confidence that it has not been tampered with. Nonrepudiation is the term for this kind of assurance, which was covered at the beginning of this text. In other words, it is extremely difficult for the sender of a signed email to claim not to have sent it. For many types of commercial communication, this is crucial. Email communications may be encrypted using S/MIME as well. Some corporate users consider this to be crucial as well. Yet employing encryption for email calls for meticulous preparation. The encrypted email communications cannot ever be deciphered if the receiver loses their private key and does not have access to a backup copy of the key, for instance.

Providing enduring evidence that a person has approved a transaction is necessary for many types of e-commerce. Throughout the length of an SSL connection, SSL offers transitory client authentication; however, it does not provide permanent authentication for transactions that could take place during that connection. S/MIME offers email permanent authentication, however while doing business online, forms on web pages are often filled out instead of emails. The form signature solution from Red Hat satisfies the need for ongoing transactional authentication. A user may link a digital signature to web-based data produced as a consequence of a transaction, such as a purchase order or other financial document, by using form signing.

For this, either a client SSL certificate or an S/MIME certificate's private key may be used. A dialogue box with the precise text to be signed shows when a user hits the Submit button on a web-based form that supports form signing. The client SSL and S/MIME certificates installed in Communicator's client may be selected by the user, or the form designer can specify the

certificate to be used. The text is digitally signed when the user clicks OK, and the server receives both the text and the digital signature. The server may then verify the digital signature using a Red Hat tool called the Signature Verification Tool.

For the numerous services they utilise, network users typically need to remember several passwords. For instance, a user could need to enter a separate password to access several servers, connect into the network, collect email, utilise directory services, and use the company calendar application. Both users and system administrators constantly struggle with multiple passwords. People often use weak passwords, have trouble remembering them, and write them down in plain sight. Since passwords are exchanged across the network regularly and routinely, administrators must manage distinct password databases on each server and address possible security issues.

The solution to this issue must allow users to log in just once with a single password in order to have authenticated access to all network resources they are permitted to use without having to transfer their passwords over the network. This feature is referred to as single sign-on. In a complete single sign-on system, both client SSL certificates and S/MIME certificates might be important components. For One kind of single sign-on that Red Hat products enable, for instance, uses SSL client authentication. A user may get authenticated access to any SSL-enabled servers they are permitted to use by logging in once with a single password to the local client's private-key database without transferring any credentials over the network. Users' access is made easier by this method since they don't have to input their credentials for every new server. Moreover, it makes network administration simpler since administrators may handle lists of certificate authorities (CAs) rather than considerably lengthier lists of users and passwords to regulate access. A full single-sign on solution must take into account the requirement for interoperability with corporate systems, such as the underlying operating system, that depend on passwords or other types of authentication in addition to employing certificates.

A group of techniques and technologies referred to as object signing are supported by Object Signing Communicator. Users may get trustworthy information about downloaded code by using object signing, which is similar to how users can obtain trustworthy information about software that has been shrink-wrapped. Most importantly, object signing aids in the implementation of decisions made by users and network administrators regarding software distributed via intranets or the Internet, such as whether to permit Java applets signed by a particular entity to use particular computer capabilities on particular users' machines. The "objects" signed using object signing technology may be any kind of file, including plug-ins, applets or other Java code, JavaScript scripts, and other Java code. A digital signature serves as the "signature." Typically, signed objects and their signatures are kept in a unique file type called a JAR file. An object-signing certificate is required before software developers and other users may sign files using object-signing technology.

CHAPTER 8

PUBLIC KEY ENCRYPTION

Ramesh S

Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -ramesh.s@jainuniversity.ac.in

A quick explanation of asymmetric encryption more formally known as public key encryption continues this series in this section. The use of two connected keys rather than a single key for encryption and decryption is what distinguishes public key encryption from other branches of cryptography. Each public key system requires one key, known as the public key, to encrypt data and a second key, known as the private key, to decode the encrypted data, despite the fact that many different public key encryption methods have been proposed, some of which have been implemented and standardized.

The usage of a shared key for both sides of the discussion, one of the main problems with symmetric key encryption, is resolved by public key encryption. The intended receiver of a secure message discloses their public key in public key systems. Anybody who wants to transmit a secure datagram to the recipient encrypts the communication using the recipient's public key; however, only the owner of the public key is able to decode the communication. It is a one-way cryptographic process to employ a public key. This makes it possible for receivers to provide their public keys without worrying that someone else may use those same public keys to discover the messages' original content. This is the symmetric encryption benefit that is the most evident. The receiver uses his or her private key to decode the communication that has been encrypted. The public key and the private key have a mathematical connection, but this relationship makes it difficult for an attacker to deduce the private key from the public key. It is crucial that the owner of the private key always maintains it safe since the receiver utilizes the private key to decode communications that have been encrypted using the public key.

With the important exception that the keys used in the process are different, the process of encrypting and decrypting a message using the public key technique is conceptually identical to the process of employing symmetric encryption. The lock box analogy is among the most straightforward comparisons for public key encryption. In essence, Blake could simply put his communication in a box and lock it with a lock that only Ryan could open if he wished to convey a message to another person (say, Ryan) without sharing a shared cryptographic key. Blake would need to have access to the box for him to have such a lock. The lock here stands in for Ryan's public key. The lockable box may then be delivered to Ryan by Blake. Ryan would get the box and use his key to open it so he could get the message inside. In this case, Blake, or anybody else who may come into touch with the lock box, will not be able to view the contents after Blake has locked (encrypted) his message to Ryan inside the lock box using Ryan's lock (public key). The message can only be retrieved from the lock box with Ryan's personal key.

Public key encryption methods involve mathematical operations as opposed to symmetric encryption techniques, which depend on a common key and the use of substitutions and permutations of the data stream. Many public key asymmetric encryption techniques have

been created by researchers; some are more useful than others, but they all encrypt and decode the data stream using mathematical operations. While the public key and private key are mathematically connected, it is practically difficult to deduce the private key from the public key given a limited amount of time. This is a critical characteristic of the procedure. This feature makes it possible to distribute the recipient's public key impartially without worrying that an attacker would be able to deduce the recipient's private key from the public key and decode the message that has been encoded.

Public key encryption is a revolutionary technique that is transforming the world of cryptography when compared to the outdated symmetric encryption. The encryption system makes it possible for parties to communicate through unfriendly communication channels with minimal danger of unreliable parties learning what was said. The difficulty of creating a shared secret prior to the first communication is lessened by the use of two keys—one public and one private. Public key encryption uses complicated mathematics, but the end result is an encryption scheme that works well for unreliable communication lines.

Domain Name System: This section teaches the principles of the domain name system (DNS), a vital but sometimes disregarded part of the architecture of the Web that is used by almost all networked applications. Many attacks, including fast-flux and DNS applications, profit from flaws in the DNS architecture that prioritise efficiency above security. The foundational material presented in this part will be expanded upon in later sections, which will address specific DNS-abusing attacks. A key component of the Internet's design is DNS. Understanding the operation of the DNS is essential to comprehending how assaults on the system may impact the Internet as a whole and how criminal infrastructure might exploit it.

The Internet employs the Internet Protocol as its primary protocol. Each computer connected to the Internet has a unique IP address that other computers may use to communicate with it. An IP address is made up of four numbers, ranging from 0 to 255, separated by periods. These numbers are difficult for people to memories, but they are ideal for computers, which constantly work with bits and bytes. The DNS was developed in 1983 to resolve this issue by generating simple names that correspond to IP addresses. Scalability was the main objective that the DNS's creators had in mind. This objective developed as a result of the failure of the earlier approach, which called for each user to receive a hosts.txt file with thousands of lines from a single server. The designers decided to establish a hierarchy of "domains" in order to create a system that is really scalable. The "root" domain, under which all other domains are located, is at the top of the hierarchy. Top-level domains (TLDs), which are located immediately underneath the root domain and divide domains into their principal subcategories, including the.com,.gov, and country code TLDs. Organizations and individuals may register second-level domains underneath the top-level domains (TLDs) with the registry that controls that TLD. Third-level domains, which have a maximum of 127 levels, come after second-level domains.

Since the DNS is hierarchical, it has a tree-like structure made up of domains and subdomains. By separating domains in this manner, several registries are able to manage various TLDs. These registries are in charge of maintaining the data for the TLDs that they have been given, as well as providing the Internet with the infrastructure necessary for users to map each domain name to the corresponding IP address. Using a database of entries, the DNS employs computers referred to as name servers to map domain names to the matching IP addresses. Each DNS server is only required to keep data for its own domain, not data for every domain name in the system. Protection and DNS All Internet users should be concerned about DNS security since it is a crucial component of the contemporary Internet. It is crucial to remember that no authentication of results ever took place in the preceding

explanation of how the DNS system operates. Due to this, the system is susceptible to a DNS cache poisoning attack, in which a hacker deceives a DNS server into accepting data from an unauthorised server and relays it to other resolvers. Using cryptographic keys to sign RRs, DNSSEC protocol extensions provide a solution to this issue. On July 16, 2010, VeriSign, the organisation in charge of overseeing the root domain, installed DNSSEC for the root DNS servers, despite the fact that this technology has not yet gained widespread traction. Since it offers a single trust anchor that other domains may utilise to speed up deployment, this is a crucial phase in the DNSSEC deployment process. The security of the DNS also depends on the protection of login credentials used to administer domains with registrars. Attackers took control of multiple domains, including checkfree.com, in December 2008, and used those credentials to install a banking Trojan on users' computers. The proper usage of DNS has ramifications for security experts as well. To quickly alter the IP address associated with a domain, fast-flux networks depend on relatively short DNS TTL settings. The DNS is also used in phishing attempts that make use of domain names that resemble those registered by financial institutions. Attackers may establish phishing domains that seem like real banking sites by taking advantage of the length of domain names to steal information. In order to properly respond to takedown requests for these names, organizations must be aware of how the DNS operates.

Firewalls: The small community of research networks that made up the Internet forty years ago stands in sharp contrast to the Internet of today. As the Internet has evolved, the necessity to safeguard networks and even individual computers has become a serious problem. In order to achieve this goal, "firewall"-related hardware and software are now essential for any Internet-connected machines that the user wishes to keep secure. The idea behind a firewall is straightforward: Prevent malicious users from accessing our computer. Nevertheless, the phrase "firewall" may conjure up different pictures for certain individuals. Examine the idea of firewalls, what they really do, and how they accomplish it in this section.

2009 marked the 40th anniversary of the Internet, although it wasn't until the late 1980s when devices were used to divide one network from an undesirable network. Network routers were then used by network managers to stop traffic from one network from interfering with traffic from a nearby network. Filtering rules were a feature of improved routers introduced in the 1990s. These routers are classified as security firewalls by their designers. These unique routers are configured to stop undesirable or superfluous traffic from entering a company's network borders. The routers employed filtering rules to decide which network traffic administrators saw as acceptable and which traffic they regarded as undesirable, but as networks continued to expand, it became difficult to sustain the usage of router filtering rules.

These filter-enabled routers were improved upon by the subsequent generation of security firewalls. Early in the 1990s, businesses like DEC, Check Point, and Bell Laboratories created novel firewall features. For example, Check Point's user-friendly firewall setup interfaces reduced the need for technical knowledge while still giving managers more configuration choices for more precise rule sets.

Depending on the kind of firewall, set one up. Packet-filtering firewalls, stateful firewalls, and application gateway firewalls are the three fundamental kinds of firewalls. While each of these several firewall types carries out the same fundamental duty of filtering unwanted traffic, they approach the task in unique ways and at various layers of the network stack. The firewall as a distinct physical object separating a trusted network from an untrusted network, a firewall is really only software. This only indicates that these objects are computers running firewall software rather than real, distinct devices that are not firewalls. Most OS systems now have host-based firewalls. The Windows Firewall is an integrated firewall that comes

with Windows XP and subsequent editions. In order to conduct firewall functions, Linux- and Unix-based computers employ ipchains or iptables, depending on the version and type of the operating system [OS]. It is crucial to realise that firewalls may exist across a network, not simply at the perimeter.

Firewalls with packet filtering: The packet-filtering firewall is the most basic kind of firewall. Firewalls that use packet filtering operate at the IP level of the network. This kind of firewall is often included into routers to do simple packet filtering based on an IP address. The idea behind packet-filtering firewalls is that they only consider the IP addresses of the packet's source and destination when deciding whether to allow it to pass from one network into another.

Stateful Firewall: One fundamental drawback of basic packet-filtering firewalls is that they only evaluate the endpoints of a connection, not the status of the connection. Only legitimate connections are permitted to cross the boundaries of a stateful firewall. These firewalls continue to prioritise packet filtering, but they also keep an eye on the connection's condition. The firewall logs the occurrence of a legitimate session between the two hosts as soon as it permits a successful connection between two hosts utilising the three-way TCP handshake. The firewall recognises the packet as having an incorrect state and stops the connection if an attacker tries to create an invalid session, for example by sending an ACK (acknowledgement) before sending a SYN (synchronise).

Nonetheless, communication between the two hosts may proceed without restriction and without necessitating the firewall to restart the list of packet filters once a legitimate connection has been established. Stateful firewalls are able to assess incoming packets more quickly due to their capacity to ascertain the sequence and state of a communication session. It is crucial, of course, that these firewalls do not exhaust their memory capacity while retaining the status of stale connections. Stateful firewalls will delete state data for sessions that have "gone silent" for an abnormally long time in order to prevent this issue. Upon the expiration of a session, the firewall will check the next packet coming from either host against packet-filtering rules and start a new session.

Application Gateway Firewalls: Proxy firewalls, often referred to as application gateway firewalls, are the newest addition to the family of firewalls. Similar to stateful firewalls, these firewalls function similarly, but rather than merely comprehending the state of a TCP connection, they also comprehend the protocol used by a specific application or group of apps. A Web proxy or email-filtering proxy is a well-known illustration of an application gate- type firewall. A Web proxy, for instance, is aware of the correct HTTP protocol and will block the transmission of a badly written request. Similar to this, an email-filtering proxy will stop certain emails from flowing depending on preset criteria or heuristics (for example, if the e-mail is spam).

These proxies also block the passage of unidentified protocols. An SSH connection, for instance, will not be understood by a correctly configured HTTP proxy, which will prevent the connection from being established. Neither a packet-filtering firewall nor a stateful firewall can do this degree of packet inspection since neither kind of firewall examines the application layer of the network stack. Application gateway firewalls may stop certain sorts of protocol-specific attacks by spotting poorly formed packets for a given protocol; but, if a particular protocol's specification forbids such a vulnerability, the gateway will provide no defence.

The designing, managing, and deploying of firewalls has been the topic of whole volumes written by the security sector. The specifics of firewall functioning might be neglected in

order to appreciate the significance of firewalls, but it is essential to comprehend their high-level principles. The key to understanding firewall security is to have a fundamental grasp of how traffic is processed by firewalls and how that processing stops unauthorised intrusions. The idea that firewalls would eliminate all Internet threats is, like antivirus programmes, at best overblown. In the context of defence in depth, firewalls provide a single layer of protection. Although firewalls may limit the attack surface of a server by blocking superfluous ports from the Internet at large, firewalls cannot protect resources that are prone to particular vulnerabilities such as buffer overflows and privilege escalation assaults.

Virtualization: Given that organisations often underutilize the full capacity available in physical servers, server consolidation via virtualization may help control the cost of infrastructure deployment and operation by decreasing the number of servers necessary to execute the same level of operational requirements. The history, ideas, and technology of virtualisation are examined in this section.

When Everything Started, Blue: Servers and other infrastructure resources are pricey. This cost is made up of the price of the actual hardware, the cost of powering the servers, the cost of cooling the servers and keeping them in a suitable working environment, and the cost of managing the servers. The cost of maintaining these servers for big infrastructures with deployments of tens to tens of thousands of servers may rapidly soar, leading to very high operating expenses. Companies are using virtualization to save some of these administrative expenditures.

At its most basic level, virtualization is the replication or emulation of a genuine product inside a virtual setting. The word virtualization has recently gained attention in the IT and business communities as a result of several businesses' attempts to profit from the wave of cloud computing, but it really has a longer history than most people are aware of. The M44/44X Project was developed in the 1960s by scientists at the IBM Thomas J. Watson Research Center in Yorktown, New York. A single IBM 7044 (M44) mainframe that emulated numerous 7044s was used in the M44/44X Project (44X). The term virtual machine (VM), which refers to mimicking or imitating a computer inside of another computer using hardware and software, was originally used by the M44/44X Project.

Virtual machines have been used often within mainframes for many years. Mainframes may operate not as a single computer but as several machines operating concurrently thanks to the utilisation of these virtual machines. Each virtual machine running on the same physical computer is capable of executing its operating system independently of the other virtual machines. In this way, the mainframe effectively multiplies the capabilities of a single system. There are many more systems that provide the service; mainframes are only the pioneers of the virtualization technology.

Using virtualization: Menu there are several different types of virtualization, including platform and application virtualization. Platform virtualization, which is the virtualization technique covered in this section, is the most well-known kind of virtualization. Platform virtualization is an expansive topic with several iterations on a common subject. Full virtualization, hardware-assisted virtualization, paravirtualization, and operating system virtualization are the most common platform virtualization strategies. Although each of these methods accomplishes virtualization in a different manner, they all lead to a single system acting as if numerous machines were functioning simultaneously.

The high-level representation of a virtual machine across the different virtualization approaches is essentially constant, with the exception of operating system virtualization. Each method offers a virtual hardware platform on which a user may install an operating system,

although to varied degrees. Virtualization systems demand that the virtual machine mirror the fundamental architecture of the host computer, in contrast to emulation systems, which are described later in this section (the machine running the virtual machines). This implies that a virtual PowerPC-based system cannot be hosted by a normal x86 host (such as the older Apple Macintosh systems). Because of how the virtual machine application, also known as the virtual machine monitor (VMM) or hypervisor, divides and exposes the actual hardware to virtual machines, there is a difference between the various virtualization strategies. A VMM, physical hardware, virtual hardware, virtual operating systems, and a host (or actual) operating system are some of the essential parts of virtualization systems. The VMM is the essential element, the one that enables virtualization.

Between the multiple virtual machines and the underlying physical hardware is an application layer called the VMM. By producing the required virtual components, the VMM gives the virtual machine its structure. Hardware devices including network interface cards (NICs), sound cards, keyboard and mouse interfaces, a fundamental input-output system (BIOS), and virtual processors are just a few examples of these components. The VMM is in charge of matching the actual resources that are available to the demands of the virtual machine. The sort of virtualization strategy used depends on how the VMM manages these requirements.

Totally virtualized: As the name suggests, full virtualization aims to provide the most accurate and comprehensive virtual representation of the actual hardware. This is a concern for architectures based on x86. The x86 family of processors grants executing programmes varying degrees of privilege. These tiers of security, referred to as rings, are set up to stop lower-privileged code, such that found in a typical programme, from interfering with or corrupting higher-privileged code, like the operating system kernel.

The kernel, or core, of an operating system is often found at ring-0, the most privileged code level. The most delicate parts of the computer are open to manipulation by code running in ring-0. Operating systems must have this capability in order to manage memory, assign time slices to specific processes (used for multitasking), and monitor and support input-output (I/O) operations like hard disc and network activities. When a VMM employs complete virtualization, it makes an effort to run virtual machine code exactly as it would on a real computer. The VMM must verify that the VM's code is accurately executed and does not interfere with the host computer or other VMs.

Applications for virtual machines, like VMware, use the host machine's CPU to carry out the virtual machine's request for instructions, speeding up and improving the efficiency of virtualization. For instance, the VMM would execute the instructions natively on the host computer and transmit the results to the virtual machine if the virtual machine requested to relocate memory from one place to another. This results in a speedier virtual machine since it uses substantially less resources and processing time than CPU emulation.

The way certain x86 ring-0 instructions work was the issue that many in the virtualization industry encountered. The x86's architectural design prevents it from virtualizing a number of its instructions without experiencing unintended or unexpected consequences. The VMware family of virtual machine programs runs the virtual machine in a ring with fewer privileges while setting the VMM in ring-0 to get around this obstacle.

Receiving Assistance from the Processor Hardware manufacturers have started to exhibit interest in the topic as virtualization technology has advanced from a software standpoint, which makes hardware-assisted virtualization possible. Most recent x86-based CPUs from Intel and AMD include features known as processor extensions that support virtualization. The processor extensions provide chip-level solutions to the problem of privileged x86

instructions that the VMM cannot virtualize for Intel's Virtualization Technology (VT) and AMD's AMD-V21. These technologies provide a layer that is even more privileged than ring-0, where the VMM is located.

The VMM works under a new root mode privilege level with hardware-assisted virtualization that is one level below ring-0. The processor extensions provide the operating system of the virtual machine access to the privileged ring-0 while enabling the VMM to function at this sub-ring-0 privilege level. The hardware transfers the request to the VMM, which by virtue of the processor extensions resides in a separate processor space, so that the VMM can handle the offending instruction when the operating system of the virtual machine executes an instruction that would result in instability in the operating system of the host machine. As a result, overhead is decreased since the operating system of the virtual machine may operate virtually unhindered. The host processor also makes sure that the operating system of the virtual machine does not interfere with the host operating system since the VMM will manage any situations that can lead to instability between the two competing operating systems.

Full virtualization is extended by hardware-assisted virtualization. Hardware-assisted virtualization provides the virtual machine with an entirely virtual hardware system, similar to full virtualization. The benefit of hardware-assisted virtualization is the potential for the CPU to manage instructions supplied by the guest operating system that might otherwise cause instability more effectively with a properly built architecture.

When everything else fails, fix it by breaking it Paravirtualization, which was created prior to the introduction of hardware-assisted virtualization technologies in the x86 architecture, offers a fix for the nonvirtualizable instruction issue that affects x86 processors. Paravirtualization enables the operating system of the virtual machine to operate in ring-0 after altering the system to limit the risky x86 instructions, in contrast to full virtualization, which runs the virtual machine's operating system in a ring with less privilege than ring-0. In order to enable the VMM to handle the instructions using the appropriate methods, paravirtualization breaks instructions that might otherwise result in instability on the host computer. The operating system and applications of a virtual machine end up functioning as intended in the rings, but at the expense of changing the kernel of the operating system of the virtual machine.

The need to change the operating system of the virtual machine is the clear drawback of paravirtualization. It is challenging to completely alter the kernel for closed-source operating systems so that it complies with paravirtualization standards. The majority of virtual machines powered by paravirtualization run customised Linux operating systems. The open-source Xen22 programme for the Linux operating system is an example of a paravirtualization system. Commercial applications that allow paravirtualization include VMware, however its usefulness is limited by the operating system of the virtual machine.

Use your resources: The fundamental idea that unites full virtualization, paravirtualization, and hardware-assisted virtualization is quite different from operating system-assisted virtualization. Operating system-assisted virtualization gives an application the illusion of a dedicated operating system rather than offering an actual virtualized machine replete with dedicated I/O, memory, and CPUs. In Linux and Unix-based systems, this virtualization strategy is often used via chroot, FreeVPS, FreeBSD Jail, and other programmes.

Operating system-assisted virtualization only offers user mode resources, as opposed to the virtual machines that are supported by the other virtualization strategies, which may handle ring-0 instructions. This indicates that privileged instructions, which need ring-0, cannot be

executed in the virtual environment. This kind of architecture enables the separation of various programmes inside a single operating system instance while still giving them access to network and disc capabilities, among other essential operating system resources.

Making it difficult Emulators work using the same fundamental concepts as virtualization systems, with the exception that they are not constrained by the necessity that the host computer's architecture match that of the virtual machine. As their name suggests, emulators simulate every component of the physical hardware of the virtual system. Emulators do not offload the processing of an operating system or application from a virtual machine to the CPU of the host computer, unlike virtualization solutions. Instructions from the virtual machine are converted into instructions that may be executed on the host computer via emulation systems.

The CPU of a virtual computer running inside of an emulator may be quite different from the CPU of the host system. For instance, there are emulators that enable previous Apple Macintosh operating systems to operate on virtual machines on x86 architectures. Emulators have a cost associated with their ability to execute architectures that are vastly different from those of the host computer. The host machine must convert each CPU instruction that the CPU of a virtual machine can execute into a set of instructions that the host machine's CPU can carry out. There may be a large amount of overhead as a consequence of this ongoing translation of CPU instructions from the virtual CPU to the host CPU. Naturally, the overhead results in a considerable performance disadvantage.

Emulators are not only for architectures with different features. Virtual computers with the same architecture as the host system may run on emulators. VMware can simulate the x86 architecture, including the CPU, within a virtual machine provided it is specially set up to do so. The benefit of this behaviour is that it offers a virtual environment that is much more realistic and does not depend on the translation of specific ring-0 commands.

Beating the One Who Feeds You The need for physical servers may be decreased by virtualizing infrastructure resources, but there are hazards associated with virtualization that must be understood. Despite the fact that many virtualization systems make an effort to establish strict boundaries between the host system and the virtual machines that are operating on the host system, it is always possible for malicious actors to try to penetrate the barriers. As virtualization systems have grown in popularity, attackers have started concentrating on these systems' vulnerabilities.

The operating system and any related programmes for the virtual machine execute on the host system at some point, regardless of the virtualization technique used. The boundary between the virtual and host machines may dissolve if the VMM gives the virtual machine access to real resources like video devices. A presentation²⁸ from Immunity researchers at Black Hat 2009 in 2009 showed how an attacker may access the RAM of the host system from inside a virtual machine. Similar to this, Core Labs researchers published an advisory in 2009 outlining a technique for connecting to the host operating system from a virtual machine.

Systems that use virtualization are complex and hence vulnerable. One server within an infrastructure may get compromised due to a flaw in an operating system or application. The repercussions of a single breach may spread to all other virtual machines within the same physical machine when that susceptible operating system or application is running inside a virtual machine that is also vulnerable. Moreover, since cloud computing mainly depends on virtualization, any business that utilises the same virtual infrastructure is susceptible to this kind of vulnerability. The effect of the VM border issue may be lessened by isolating sensitive virtual machines (i.e., VMs that store personally identifiable information) from

public virtual machines (i.e., VMs that power a company's public Web server or mail server). Server consolidation and programme separation are only two of the numerous benefits of virtualization. Despite the fact that the technology has been around in some capacity for many years, its use has increased due to improvements in contemporary computer hardware. Virtualization is already having a significant impact on the IT industry, even at its present stage of development. The recent explosion of new cloud computing technologies that are now available on the market heavily relies on virtualization. The virtualization industry is still growing, far from fulfilling its potential.

Understanding the hazards of virtualization is crucial before implementing a large virtualized infrastructure. The danger of major data disclosure and system penetration drastically rises when the boundary between a virtual machine and a host computer becomes transparent (due to vulnerabilities). This vulnerability may be decreased by categorising the data and kinds of virtual machines that operate on the same physical computer.

Radio frequency identification: Chris Paget of H4RDW4RE LLC spoke at the 20XX DEFCON conference on dispelling common misconceptions about radio frequency identification (RFID). Even though a lot of firms utilise these devices for authentication, they often have no idea how the technology works or how safe it is. This section describes RFID as well as the security and privacy issues it raises.

The word RFID refers to a range of technologies used for radio wave identification, not just one specific technology. RFID devices, often known as tags, are widely used in daily life. The gadgets allow electronic tollbooths, inventory tracking, and authentication systems, to mention just a few of their many applications. The past ten years have seen a lot of debate around RFID as security and privacy issues started to surface. These worries may be mild to serious, depending on how RFID tags are used and the security measures used to safeguard them. It is crucial to first comprehend how RFID systems work before addressing security issues. There are two players involved in RFID communication: the interrogator (reader) and the device (tag). The reader is a tool that can take data from an RFID tag and analyse it. It is often linked to a computer. The tag is a variable complexity device that transmits distinct identifying data that is specific to the tag. When the reader scans a tag, some just output the same data while others include processing systems that can do intricate cryptographic operations.

When grouped by power sources, there are three main categories of RFID tags. Passive, battery-assisted passive, and active are some of these varieties. When they get a signal from the reader, both varieties of passive tags come to life. Without a battery, passive tags rely on the signal that the reader sends to power them and transmit back their replies. Battery-assisted passive tags utilize battery power to build and convey their answers, but they do not active until the reader gives a signal. As compared to battery-assisted devices, passive tags' ranges are limited since they can only draw as much power from the reader's signal as they can. An active tag is the third kind of RFID gadget. Active tags may send signals without a reader's activation, in contrast to their passive siblings.

Depending on its use, an RFID tag may hold a variety of data. The electronic product code is the most basic and typical kind of RFID tag (EPC). Barcode replacement is the main purpose of EPCs, which are the RFID version of bar codes. Organizations often include EPC tags passive RFID tags into stickers. Similar information to that on Universal Product Codes (UPC) may be found in EPCs, however they have significantly greater storage capacity. This number is all that is included in an EPC, and without the capacity to understand what it means, it is worthless. This number represents the manufacturer, kind, and serial number of

the product on product tags. EPC codes include an extra 36 bytes of data, allowing for the usage of more than 600 billion distinct serial numbers, but UPC codes can hold enough information to list all sorts of items, even a pack of paper towels. RFIDs may identify a particular pack of paper towels rather than a broad product kind, like a pack of paper towels. Every product or collection of items that an organisation wants to monitor may be given an EPC. All of the suppliers to Wal-Mart Stores, Inc. were required to RFID-tag all shipments as of 2005. EPC tags are now being used by libraries to speed up book check-ins and check-outs.

More than just everyday home items are being identified by organisations and governments using RFID tags. Several businesses use RFID-enabled ID cards (sometimes called proxy cards, proximity cards, or access cards) to allow access to systems and buildings. In this instance, the card's returning number correlates to details about a particular person that are recorded in a database. If John Doe's card sends the card readers the number 0001, the security system may check this record in its user database and either grant or restrict entry to the guarded area. As compared to just identifying objects, using RFID tags for access control and person identification are fundamentally distinct applications of the technology.

Copying or cloning an EPC tag on a bag of potato chips is obviously useless, but doing it with an RFID access card may be very profitable. An access card would consistently return the same 96-bit number if it operated like an EPC tag. Someone with the ability to read a card might readily copy it and obtain entry to a structure. The contactless smart card (CSC), a different kind of RFID tag that is far more complicated than an EPC, was created to avoid this.

CSCs feature information storage and processing capabilities, much as conventional smart cards. CSCs use cryptography to obscure their information rather than just providing the same number in response to each questioning. In certain cases, they also utilise it to verify the reader's identity before disclosing critical information.

Examples of CSC products include the new U.S. electronic passport, most access control badges, and contactless credit cards from VISA, MasterCard, and American Express. Since cloning or tampering with these devices might enable an attacker to take the owner's money or identity without ever coming into touch with the owner, the security of these devices is very crucial.

Privacy and Security Issues: Much debate surrounds the use of RFID security measures and the privacy issues that wireless identification tags bring up. Millions of automobile keys with RFID technology and Exxon's Speedpass RFID payment system's encryption were both cracked in 2005 by researchers at Johns Hopkins University under the direction of Dr. Avi Rubin. These automobile keys with RFID enhancements use RFID technology as a lock-picking deterrent. When a user turns the key in the ignition, the automobile won't start if the appropriate RFID tag is not close to the reader. Customers of Speedpass may use their keychain tokens to make purchases at Exxon gas stations by connecting a credit card to their tokens. The tags on each of these devices are only protected by 64-bit encryption, according to Rubin's team. When the system was first presented by the makers in 1993, the encryption may have been sufficiently complicated to thwart brute force assaults, but this degree of security is no longer adequate.

Security researcher Chris Paget from H4RDW4RE LLC spoke on dispelling common misconceptions about RFID at DEFCON. Paget dispelled the fallacy that readers can only read RFID tags at close ranges in his lecture. The U.S. improved driver's licence is one identification card Paget has investigated (EDL). RFID-equipped EDLs serve as passports for

travel between the United States and its bordering nations. These cards have no encryption at all and can be read easily from a distance of more than twenty feet. In a YouTube video earlier this year, Paget showed how to obtain Sensitive information from victims without their ever being aware of his presence. The attacker may embed an antenna in a doorframe to track a certain set of people entering the room and record their IDs. Attackers may simply copy these cards to obtain victims' Identities without their awareness since they lack encryption.

In addition to identification and data theft security issues, RFID tags also have implications for individual privacy. Attackers may read the tags without the user's knowledge since they can do it from a distance. When combined with other data, even tags devoid of any personal information might be used to identify a particular individual. Consider if each pair of shoes produced included an RFID tag that the manufacturer could use to monitor inventories. While this RFID tag by itself does not pose a serious privacy risk, if someone purchases this shoe using a credit card, that particular RFID tag would then be linked to the buyer's name in a retailer's database. As a consumer enters the store, the merchant may scan them to discover whether they are wearing any items of apparel that belong to a particular customer. Similar to the scenario shown in the movie *Minority Report*, the merchant might utilise this to display customised advertisements to each consumer and monitor their whereabouts inside each store.

Any person or organisation thinking about using RFID technology or carrying devices with RFID capabilities should carefully evaluate these issues. Long-range RFID reader technology enables attackers to follow carriers secretly. RFID wallets can guard against RFID scanners by blocking the signals that the devices send out. Often composed of metallic materials, these wallets are impervious to radio frequency radiation.

Compared to systems that need optical scans or direct touch, RFID tags offer significant benefits. However, using these devices for identification and authentication necessitates the implementation of countermeasures to protect against cloning and modification. RFID readers can interrogate thousands of tags at a time to perform complete inventories in a fraction of the time required for hand counting.

Fundamentals of Microsoft Windows Security

Windows Tokens

A user's or program's access to certain systems is restricted by access tokens and control lists. The risk of a complete system breach due to privilege escalation vulnerabilities may be effectively reduced by giving users the least amount of access necessary and developing applications to only need the bare minimum of privileges.

Few people are aware of the inner workings of Microsoft Windows access tokens and access control lists for things like processes and threads. Windows employs access tokens, also known as tokens from now on, to establish whether a programme is authorised to carry out an action or interact with a certain item. The idea of Windows tokens as well as process and thread access control lists will be explained in this section.

Ideas underlying Windows Tokens While accessing objects on a system, processes and threads use tokens to establish the security context. All named objects, from files and directories to registry keys, are included in this class of objects, sometimes referred to as securable objects. The four components of a token are its identity, its privileges, its type, and its access controls. Conveniently, this notion draws comparisons between a driver's licence

and Windows tokens based on their conceptual similarity. Examples will try to connect these two ideas throughout this report.

An identity is a component of a Windows token. Similar to how a driver's licence contains the name of the owner, the identification of the token identifies the person to whom it belongs. Similar to how the name on a driver's licence consists of both a first and last name, the identity is made up of two parts: a user and a group. If a customer were to pay using a credit card, the merchant may want to see the customer's driver's licence to verify that the name on the credit card matches the name on the licence. The merchant would authorise the usage of the credit card if the names were the same. Windows would check to verify whether the token showed the same user if a user got access to a directory. Windows would provide access to the directory if it matches the one specified.

The idea of group memberships makes up the second component of a token's identification. To make managing resource access easier, several users may be a part of the same group. When a man enters a community centre that his family pays to use, a worker at the facility may examine the guy's driver's licence to see whether his family's name is there, and if it is, the worker may let the man to use the facility.

Programs may more precisely limit permissions by using tokens that can include a variable number of groups. When a police officer stops a motorcyclist and requests their driver's licence, for instance, the officer is confirming that the rider has a motorcycle licence by looking for a M rating, which indicates that the person passed motorcycle riding and safety exams. Similar to this, a Windows application could not want certain activities to be performed by other programs that use a specific token. To provide even more granular control, the application may impose restrictions or add groups to a token.

Cybersecurity essentials: Impersonation tokens also have a corresponding impersonation level, which is another distinction.

The four stages of impersonation are impersonation, delegation, identification, and anonymity. A software cannot identify the token's user or assume the identity of the token while processing an anonymous token. The main purpose of anonymous tokens is to satisfy function requirements that a token exists. The use of anonymous tokens is equivalent to a driver having no identification at all. The next stage of impersonation is the use of identification tokens. A software that has access to an identity token may examine the token's owner, its group memberships, and any enabled rights. When a software wants to do its own access checks on a user and isn't concerned about letting the operating system verify permissions, identification tokens might be beneficial. A driver who has a valid driver's licence is recognisable, much as someone who uses identification tokens.

A software may carry out operations on the local system in the user's place using an impersonation-level token. Any Win32 application programming interfaces (APIs) may be called by a program with an impersonation-level token, and the operating system may do access checks on the user. Impersonation tokens are similar to the capacity to alter a driver's license's physical description and photograph in that they let anybody to use the identity that is specified there.

A delegation token is the top level of tokens. With the use of a delegation token, a program may get access to both network and local resources on behalf of the token's owner. When a software has to verify whether a user has access to a resource on the local operating system and whether they have the ability to conduct an activity on a distant system, delegation token usage is widespread. Using delegation tokens, anybody may take the identity on a driver's

license and any state will accept it as a legitimate local driver's license. This is similar to the ability to change the photo, physical description, and issuing state of a driver's license.

Access Control Lists: Access control lists on tokens specify the level of access that various identities may ask for. These access control list items either expressly permit or expressly prohibit some kinds of activities on the token. The token may permit or prohibit specified identities on the system from reading information from the token, writing information to the token, and performing other actions on the token. These elements work together to create tokens on Windows.

Access restrictions are supported by tokens utilizing groups that are labelled as denied. Windows initially examines the access control list to determine whether a token has access to a certain resource before deciding. The access requested will then be compared against the access and group of the access control entry once more. Windows will provide the token access if they match. This is comparable to a driver's license's optical limitations. An officer of the law may first confirm that the driver of the car is in possession of a valid driving license. While building a case against the driver, the officer will take into account both of these pieces of evidence and determine if the motorist needs vision corrective equipment to operate a vehicle.

Both processes and threads are subject to these access control lists. They enable management of the degree of access given to different groups and users. Standard access rights are offered by both process and thread control lists, but the process- and thread-specific access rights are different.

There are fourteen access permissions on the list of "process-specific privileges" that only apply to processes. These privileges encompass a variety of granular access restrictions, from reading and writing to starting and ending processes. Windows has an all-inclusive privilege called `PROCESS_ALL_ACCESS` that grants a user all process-specific rights in addition to these more granular permissions.

There are thirteen access privileges known as "thread-specific permissions" that exclusively apply to threads. The permissions provide access to threads and, among other things, give users the ability to suspend, resume, and terminate threads. `THREAD_ALL_ACCESS` grants the user all thread-specific permissions, similar to how process-specific rights do.

CHAPTER 9

INVESTIGATING CYBER CRIMES: A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO CYBER FORENSIC

Rajesh A

Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -a.rajesh@jainuniversity.ac.in

In order to uncover evidence against a crime that may be used as evidence in court, a branch of research known as "cyber forensics" uses tools and procedures to examine digital data. It is the activity of preserving, retrieving, evaluating, and recording evidence from digital devices, such as computers, digital storage media, cellphones, etc., in order to utilise it to form professional opinions in legal and administrative problems.

With how dependent we are becoming on computers and the internet, computer forensics are essential inside an enterprise. Just 7% of the remaining information was created using other sources, such as paper or other media, according to a study by the University of California⁷ that found that 93% of all the information created in 1999 was digital and created on computers. It is not always simple to gather evidence since the data may be encrypted, buried, erased, or modified. A highly specialised endeavour, digital forensic investigation necessitates the use of several tools, methods, and rules for locating and retrieving digital evidence from the crime scene or from digital devices utilised in the crime. Considering the increased processing power and computing speed of digital gadgets like smartphones, tablets, palmtops, smart tvs, etc., it is possible that these tools might be used in cybercrime. In order to accurately retrieve the data and maintain its worth and integrity, a forensic investigator needs not only have a thorough grasp of how these devices operate but also practical experience using the tools.

Cybercrime may be committed using a computer either knowingly or unknowingly. Sending hate mail on your computer or installing a cracked version of a piece of otherwise licenced software on it are examples of purposeful computer usage. Unintentionally utilising a computer that has a virus causes it to propagate across the network and outside of it, costing someone a significant amount of money. A computer is the only device that may be directly used to conduct a digital crime. For instance, someone might obtain sensitive and confidential information on your computer and send it to a person within or outside the network so they can exploit it for their own gain. The indirect usage of a computer occurs when a trojan horse is downloaded together with a software crack, creating a backdoor in the network to aid hackers. The hacker now hacks into your computer and uses it to perform online crimes. Differentiating between direct and indirect attacks requires the expertise of a computer forensic investigator. Experts in computer forensics can help you retrieve accidentally deleted files, find counterfeit goods, and more.

At big organisations, early incident management procedures are followed as soon as a cybercrime is discovered by the incident handling team, which is in charge of monitoring and detecting security events on a computer or computer network⁸. This procedure is internal. The steps are as follows:

Planning: The Company creates incident response policies and assigns roles and duties to each member of the incident response team. Most major businesses have a reputation in the marketplace, and any bad press might have a detrimental impact on shareholders' feelings. As a result, the occurrence must be declared with good communication. In light of this, it is crucial to allocate positions depending on a member's skill set.

Identification: Using the characteristics, the incident response team determines if an event truly took place. Examining the logs is one of the most popular techniques for confirming the incident. The attack's effect must be determined when the event's existence has been confirmed.

Containment: depending on the assessment team's comments, the next step in responding to the event is prepared at this stage.

Eradication: The strategy to remove or lessen the threat's source is designed and put into action in this stage.

Recovery is the process of getting back to how things normally work once a problem has been fixed.

Lesson Learned: If a novel incidence occurs, it is recorded so that similar circumstances may be handled in the future.

To locate the crime's evidence, forensic investigation is done as the second phase in the procedure, and it is often done by outside businesses. The following steps are included in the computer forensic investigation:

Identify the event and the evidence: The system administrator starts by trying to learn as much as he can about the issue at this point. The attack's extent and seriousness are evaluated in light of these data. The backup of the attack's evidence is collected as soon as it is found for the purpose of the inquiry. The data that is restored from the backup is always the subject of the forensic inquiry rather than the original computer.

Gather and preserve evidence: To collect the data, a number of technologies are utilised, including Helix, WinHex, FKT Imager, etc. After obtaining the data backup, possession of the evidence and the backup is taken. To verify the accuracy of the data, the original and backup versions' MD5 (message digest) hashes are compared. In addition, information from other significant sources such as the system log, network information, logs produced by intrusion detection systems (IDS), port information, and process information are also recorded.

Inquire: After restoring the disk's image from the backup, a thorough investigation is carried out by looking through logs, system files, deleted and updated files, CPU and process logs, temporary files, password-protected and encrypted files, images, videos, and data files for potential stegographical messages, among other sources.

Recapitulate and Present: The incident's highlights are listed in reverse chronological order. Conclusions are made based on the inquiry, and a potential reason is described.

Rules and protocol must be followed while conducting the digital forensic inquiry. Particularly while gathering the proof. It should be verified that the data collection procedures do not alter the evidence. The data's integrity need to be protected. The equipment used to capture the backup must be checked to make sure it is uncontaminated. Moreover, every action taken to obtain, access, store, or transmit digital evidence must be completely recorded, kept, and made accessible for review⁹. Always choose prevention over treatment.

Always advocate fine-tuning your intrusion detection system, such as a firewall. Do penetration testing on your network from time to time to keep hackers at bay. Not least among other things, report the crime.

Since they believe it may damage their image with their shareholders, some businesses choose not to disclose a cybercrime occurrence. Some of the data are very sensitive, and their company may suffer if it is revealed. But, the truth is that until and until a cybercrime incidence is recorded, law enforcement authorities will never catch the cyber criminals. The situation will develop even more as a result, and the criminals will be motivated to repeat similar events with the same or other companies. So, it is crucial to locate and bring them to justice. This will aid in not just identifying current dangers to the infrastructure and economy but also emerging ones. According to the severity of the cybercrime, it should be reported to the closest cyber cell in your community, the state's cyber cell, the main investigative agencies like the CBI or IB, or the international organisations like Interpol.

Assaults to Cyber Security Recently: The population's use of the Internet is becoming more widespread every day. This broadens the potential for e-government and e-commerce in the fields of healthcare, banking, electricity distribution, etc., but it also makes these industries more vulnerable to cyber threats such as hacking, credential theft, data tampering, account hijacking, etc. According to a survey, there were around 62,189 cyber security incidents between January and May 2014, with the majority coming from the US, Europe, Brazil, Turkey, China, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Algeria, and the United Arab Emirates. Also, at this time about 10,000 government websites in India were hacked. To effectively handle such situations, India has a large pool of IT security professionals. In order to successfully combat cyber threats, India needs around one million cyber security personnel.

A Few Recent Cyber Crime Activities: We will talk about some of the most frequent online frauds and crimes in this area so that you can see how even a little amount of ignorance may cause a major disaster. PayPal, an international online money transfer service that offers an alternative to more conventional payment methods like checks and money orders and enables you to send money securely over the Internet using a variety of encryption techniques. With over 100 million active users across 190 countries, it processes over 9 million payments per day. It is one of the most often used forms of payment on online auction platforms like eBay and others. In particular, when buyers and sellers are from various nations and use different currencies, it is a convenient trading platform.

Razvan Cernaianu, also known as Romanian Hacker TinKode, revealed a security flaw in PayPal's chargeback procedure. Because of this, a user may always double their money. Using this loophole, if a user has Rs. 1000, that cash will automatically quadruple to Rs. 2000 on the first try. On the second try, this amount of Rs. 2000 will be increased to Rs. 4000 rupees more will be multiplied to 8000 rupees. In a similar vein, this process will never cease.

In Australia, there is a website called MP3/WMA Land that allows users to download a lot of music videos and songs that have been stolen. The artists and producers of such songs suffered significant financial losses as a consequence. A group called Music Industry Piracy Investigations made the complaint public. Australia's greatest copyright infringement lawsuit included the website's operators, Ng, Tran, and Le, who were Australian University students.

Ms. Ritu Kohli reported one of the interesting internet stalking cases to Delhi Police. Her address and phone number were given out along with a claim that someone was exploiting her identity to speak on the website www.mirc.com. As a consequence, she often got calls at strange times from all over the world, including Dubai, Ahmedabad, Bombay, etc. She became quite mentally frustrated by this and made the decision to report the incident. Based

on her complaint, Delhi Police tracked the IP address until they found the accused's address and then arrested Manish Kathuria. A NRI living in Dubai was the victim of blackmail, and by the time the incident was reported, he had paid the accused around 1.25 crore (Madhya Pradesh State Cyber Police, 2013). A female the NRI met online eventually gained the NRI's affection and confidence after many lengthy conversations. She introduces him to many of her friends while she waits. The relationship could not last for very long for several reasons. After some time, the girl's friend, who was introduced to him by the girl, informs him that the girl committed herself due to the mental stress of the broken relationship, and police are looking into the matter. The NRI also received several forgeries of letters from the CBI, the High Court of Calcutta, the New York Police Department, Punjab University, etc. The girl's friend, who had been seeking assistance, had linked the NRI to a legal company with offices in Kolkata. The firm's owner agreed to take on this matter. The legal firm made a huge financial demand, and after receiving more than 1.26 crore in transfers on several occasions, he continued to seek more money. The NRI saw anything odd and alerted Mumbai Police to the situation. All of the emails from the girl, her friend, and the owner of the legal company that the NRI received were forwarded. The IP addresses of all three people were discovered to come from the same source during the forensic investigation for the email. Investigation revealed the girl's and her companions' identities to be virtual, meaning they do not exist. The mastermind for fabricating this bogus narrative to extort the NRI was the proprietor of the legal company, who took on the fictitious identities of all the participants.

The malware Stuxnet, which is thought to have been produced by the US, targeted Iran's medical facility in Natanz (Shubert, 2011). As the network of the Iranian nuclear site is a private network and is cut off from the rest of the world, it was impossible to spread the virus over the Internet. The third-party tool used by the Natanz facility was the first thing the virus attacked, giving it access to the network. The malware was created to target a certain system programme that governs how Siemens controllers operate. The virus causes the centrifuges to speed up or slow down, prematurely wearing them out. Moreover, it hacked the system and sent bogus signals on the condition and health of the nuclear plant. As the virus had already caused significant damage to the nuclear facility by the time its effects were discovered, it was too late.

A Mumbai-based company, RPG Group, had its user identity and password for its current account compromised via a Trojan email, which allowed thieves to withdraw 2.41 crore rupees using Real Time Gross Settlement (RTGS) (Narayan, 2013). The large volume of money transfer raised suspicions among the bank personnel. They received confirmation of the same from company representatives who disputed the transfer of the funds to the designated accounts. Based on the names and addresses of the account holders who received the money, the police were able to determine that the account holders had given the primary accused person permission to use their account in exchange for a sizable fee.

Chennai police debunked a credit card fraud case in which two BPO workers boosted the credit card limit and the cardholder's communication address with the assistance of the accused's kid (Madhya Pradesh State Cyber Police, 2013). To get the owner's information for the credit card, they illegally broke into the computer of their employer. Before the theft was reported, the credit card firm had been duped for roughly 7 lakhs. Owing to a potential communication address issue, the credit card owner was unable to get monthly statements generated at the month's end. The Chennai police were notified and the complaint was filed. The BPO's two workers were discovered to have gained unauthorised access to the computer in order to steal client records during a digital forensic assessment of the BPO's computing system.

Andhra Pradesh received a report of a copyright violation (Nandanwar, 2013). During a promotional campaign, a well-known mobile service provider gave its clients a mobile phone for a very cheap price with a three-year lock-in term. The phone's software was set up so that it would not be compatible with any other company's sim during the lock-in time. A rival of that business enticed the current consumers of the business that provided the mobile phone to "unlock" the phone by hacking the software of the device so that any other sim could be used with the device. The business reported the offence, and a case was filed under section 63 of the Copyrights Act for copyright infringement.

There is a group of fraudsters operating online that steal credit card information from cardholders at POS terminals located in shopping centres, gas stations, restaurants, hotels, and other establishments and use it to make online reservations for flights. The allegations state that more than 15000 credit cards were illegally used to purchase internet tickets by these crooks, resulting in a loss of income of almost Rs. 17 crore. To make their booking of these tickets harder to track, these thieves utilise public infrastructure like computer cafes, etc. The scam was discovered after clients who had been charged for purchasing airline tickets complained to the banks that issued their credit cards, claiming that they had never purchased the tickets in question.

The Love Bug virus, also known as VBS/Loveletter, specifically targeted computers running the Windows operating system in the year 2000 and caused damage that was estimated to have cost almost Rs. 22,000 crore. The subject line of a spam email with the words "ILOVEYOU" and the file LOVE-LETTER-FOR-YOU.TXT.vbs attached has been received. If the user opened the attachment, the computer becomes infected, and the worm begins to scan the whole hard drive and corrupt the contents. Moreover, it begins sending copies of the emails to all the people in the user's address book who have been added as Outlook contacts. In a short period of time, about 10% of Internet-connected PCs were compromise. Numerous significant companies, including the British Parliament and the Pentagon, had to turn down their email systems to prevent the worm from infecting their network.

Online degree scams, in which fraudulent universities provide authorised online degrees, are quite common these days. In return for money, these degree mills promise to convert your professional expertise into a degree. Moreover, transcripts are given to students based on their own evaluations. The student doesn't understand he was a victim of internet fraud until after he is denied due to a bogus degree.

As a result of a bogus tweet sent through the hacked Twitter account of Associated Press, USA, which claimed there had been two explosions within the White House and that President Barack Obama had been hurt, financial markets in the US have fallen. A terrorist organisation later claimed credit for the AP attack on its own Twitter account, calling itself the Syrian Electronic Army. By sending a phishing email, the hacking was carried out. The moment the link in the phishing email was opened, spyware was installed on the computer and the data that had been saved there was transferred to distant servers. With this information, the AP account was compromised, and a fake was produced that affected the investors at the New York Stock Exchange and caused significant loss.

A new malware that attacks Point of Sale (POS) devices and steals the payment history of clients' credit cards was discovered recently. This private information, including PIN codes, credit card numbers, expiry dates, CCV numbers, etc., is monitored and transmitted to hackers so that they may use it to perpetrate financial crime. The bad guys aren't only seeking your private information; they're also after your communication system so they can use your identity to hide their own so they don't get caught after faking their presence. The

unencrypted wi-fi network of a US resident living in Bombay named Kenneth Haywood was utilised by the terrorist group Indian Mujahideen (IM). Only five minutes before to the Ahemdabad explosion, they broke into his wi-fi network and sent a news agency an email that included his IP address.

The terrorist sent a terror email to a media house from Mumbai's Khalsa College of Arts, Science, and Commerce in Matunga using the open wi-fi network there (The Indian Express, 2008). To make it harder for investigators to determine where the email came from, the terrorists remotely accessed the router and wiped the system records after utilizing the network. Asma Sandip Thorve, a software engineer from Pune, was detained by the economic crimes unit of the Pune police after she was found to have illegally taken the source code for a software product and other private data from Brainvisa Technologies, causing the company to suffer a loss of Rs. 46.5 crores.

A new kind of online fraud is emerging in which a potential business partner offers you a home-based company opportunity with no investment and a highly generous commission. The potential business partner will request information such as the person's address, phone numbers, picture identification, birthdate, etc. after the individual accepts to work with the organisation. After some time, the individual will get a package at their address with repacking instructions and a list of locations where these packages are to be sent overseas. In reality, these items are bought using stolen credit cards, and they are sent to the address that was given. If the investigators trace the address where the products are supposed to be delivered, the individual will be held accountable. When your commission shows up, the real difficulty starts. The sum is larger than you anticipated and comes in the form of a third-party check. A few days later, you get a request to electronically refund the extra money. The bank will learn that the check is a forgery after the additional money has been electronically transmitted, and the offender will be held accountable.

Several ICICI Bank clients fell prey to a phishing scam. A few of the clients got an email purporting to be from an ICICI bank representative. He sent them to a link that takes them to a page that is remarkably similar to the ICICI bank's website in order to update their account details. Officials at the bank opened a complaint after they taugh of the scam after several clients raised concerns and asked the bank's IT department to check the legitimacy of the email's source. When the bank executives discovered that the website resembled their official website so precisely, they were shocked. If the consumer clicked that link to update his account information by signing in to the false website with their user name and password, these data would be sent to the hackers, who might then use them to access the customer's account and make online purchases or money transfers.

The US petrol station was the target of cybercriminals who were looking to steal debit and credit card information. The majority of the gas stations located in the Southern United States have credit card skimmers that are bluetooth enabled. The hackers exploited the client data, which includes details like account numbers, PINs, CVVs, etc., to take more than \$2 million from the ATMs, most of which are situated in Manhattan. The hackers stole the personal photos of American female celebrities using the same technologies that law enforcement authorities use to get data from iPhones (Hazen, 2014). The hackers are said to have used programmes named iBrute and Elcomsoft Phone Password Breaker to connect onto Apple's website and download the backup files to their computers.

Non-friendly nations have often launched cyberattacks in an effort to get critical data. One such incident is the suspicion of Russia's participation in the hacking of the American financial system. According to reports, Russian hackers targeted JPMorgan Chase, one of the

top banks. The hackers were able to successfully steal the bank's server's important data. Xiaomi, a Chinese mobile phone manufacturer, was recently found guilty of transmitting sensitive data to Chinese server. Without the users' awareness, this information may contain text messages, pictures, a contact list, etc. It's not the first time a Chinese corporation has been linked to espionage, and the US government has prohibited the use of Chinese technology in several of its most important facilities.

Initiatives for Cyber Security in India: The reliance on computers has grown rapidly with the expansion of the internet. Protecting key information infrastructure against cyberattacks is a difficulty. Examples include the banking and finance industry, telecom sector, electricity and oil and gas industries, railway passenger reservation system, and passenger communication network. According to the 2014 IC3 annual report, the US, Canada, and the UK are the top three nations in the top 50 in terms of the amount of cybercrime complaints made to the centre for reporting online crimes (IC3). India is rated fourth.

India is quite concerned about the shortage of skilled cyber security personnel. India has only 556 qualified cyber professionals working for different government agencies, compared to China, the US, and Russia, which each have 125000, 91080, and 7300 trained cyber experts, respectively (Joshi, 2013). A significant software exporter and home of outsourced ITES companies, India is regarded as an IT giant. Thus, a significant portion of the Indian economy is made up of IT. Recently, the European Union pointed out weaknesses in India's data security system and recommended that a joint expert committee be established to provide recommendations on how the nation may improve regulations to qualify as a data safe nation (Sen, 2013). In order to get the EU's designation of "data safe," India must seriously consider updating its information security infrastructure and reformulating its cyber policies. This is essential if India is to keep its share of the high-end outsourcing market, which may rise from the current \$20 billion to \$50 billion.

Activities in India to Counter Cyber Security: The following efforts have been made by the Indian government to combat cyber security attacks: The National Counter Terrorism Center (NCTC) is one. Following the 26/11 assault in 2008, the Indian government suddenly understood the significance of counterterrorism operations and created the National Counter Terrorism Center (NCTC) to provide decision-makers information inputs to prepare for counterterrorism actions. Being a single, efficient point of control and coordination for all counterterrorism initiatives, the NCTC is tasked with coordinating efforts between different State and Central government entities. It will get its authority from the 1967 Illegal Activities Prevention Act and is designed after the US NCTC and the Joint Terrorism Analysis Centre in Britain (Mrunal, 2012).

The NISAP (National Information Security Assurance Program): The National Information Security Assurance Programme (NISAP) was developed by CERT-In to develop and implement information security policy and best practises based on ISO/IEC 27001 for the protection of their infrastructure. This initiative aims to raise awareness among those working in government and critical sector organisations. In order to investigate cybercrimes and provide law enforcement and the judicial system practical training, CERT-in built the Computer Forensics facility. A network forensics and a mobile forensics investigation facility are being added to this infrastructure. In addition to assisting in the investigation of cybercrimes, CERT-In collaborates with defence, banking, judicial, and law enforcement organisations.

The Indian Computer Emergency Response Team was established in 2004 by the Department of Information Technology. CERT-In was established with the intention of responding to

computer security events, disclosing vulnerabilities, promoting efficient IT security practises throughout the nation, and supervising the implementation of the IT act.

Indo US Cyber Security Forum (IUSCSF): Founded in 2001, the India-US Cyber Security Forum is tasked with defending the vital infrastructure of the knowledge-based economy. The participants of the forum, which is made up of a number of government and business entities from both India and the United States, have identified dangers and shared concerns in cyber security and have created an action-oriented work plan on safeguarding networked information systems. The Forum is primarily concerned with cyber-security, cyber-forensics, and related research. It also seeks to improve cooperation between law enforcement authorities on both sides in the fight against cybercrime. Exchange of organisational, technical, and procedural expertise will improve communication between the two nations' defence agencies. The ongoing partnership between India's STQC and the US National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) will deepen and include additional areas, such as standardisation. A bot is a piece of software that may be used to remotely access computers and carry out destructive actions on behalf of hackers. The CII and their US equivalent have resolved to establish an India Information Sharing and Analysis Centre (ISAC) and India Anti-Bot Alliance.

The India-based National Critical Information Infrastructure Protection Centre (NCIPC) it has been designated as India's nodal agency for the protection of important information infrastructure, and it is in charge of all protective measures, including research and development. NCIPC engages in a variety of activities: Important sub-sectors must be identified, their information infrastructure studied, cyber warnings and advisories sent on a daily and monthly basis, malware analysis is performed, zombies and malware propagating IPs are tracked, and cyber forensics operations are performed.

The India-based National Intelligence Grid (Natgrid) initiative the central security agencies of the Indian government's key security agencies are connected through the integrated intelligence grid created by C-DAC-Pune (C-DAC, 2014). It is a counterterrorism mechanism that gathers and compiles a variety of data from government databases, including tax and bank account information, credit card transactions, records of visa and immigration applications, and train and flight schedules (Yasmeen, 2013). Eleven central agencies will have access to this combined data: the Research and Analysis Wing, the Intelligence Bureau, the Central Bureau of Investigation, the Financial Intelligence Unit, the Central Board of Direct Taxes, the Directorate of Revenue Intelligence, the Enforcement Directorate, the Narcotics Control Bureau, the Central Board of Excise and Customs, and the Directorate General of Central Excise Intelligence.

The India-based Crime and Criminal Tracking Networks and Systems (CCTNS) project: The project is part of the National e-Governance Plan (NeGP), which encompasses all 28 States and UTs. Its goal is to build a nationwide networking infrastructure for the development of an IT-enabled sophisticated tracking system centred on "investigating crime and detecting offenders". The CCTNS's objectives are to make it easier to gather, store, retrieve, analyse, transfer, and share data and information inside police stations as well as between police stations and State Headquarters and Central Police Organizations. It would be simpler for law enforcement to track down a criminal travelling from one area to another thanks to CCTNS's complete database for crimes and offenders.

National Cyber Coordinating Center: The National Cyber Coordination Centre is a planned electronic surveillance and cyber security organisation in India. It is meant to coordinate other agencies' intelligence collecting efforts and review communication information. A plan

for preventing cyberattacks, training, investigations into such attacks, and other things are some of the NCCC's elements.

Botnet Cleaning Center: As part of the Digital India initiative, the government is establishing a facility that will identify hazardous programmes called "botnets" and assist users in removing them from their devices. 'Botnet cleaning and malware analysis centre' is being established by the government, according to media sources. A botnet is a collection of harmful software. It is capable of information theft, device function control, and cyberattacks like Distributed Denial-of-Service (DdoS).

Government of India's email policy Email is now regarded as the primary method of communication both inside and outside of organisations. The Government of India (GOI) must do the same. The primary method of communication for the whole government is now email. In October 2013, the Government of India (GOI) issued its Email Policy in response to the growing usage of emails for communication across various governmental agencies. Below, we'll go through a few of the key provisions of the policy; readers are urged to download it from the Department of Electronics and IT website.

Ministry of Home Affairs The Government of India has a ministry called the Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA). Being an interior ministry, it is primarily in charge of preserving internal security and domestic policy. The annual report of the Ministry of Home Affairs is advised reading. The Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA) is charged with a wide range of duties, the most significant of which are internal security, border control, center-state relations, administration of union territories, command of the Central Armed Police Forces, and emergency management.

National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB): NCRB will work to equip the Indian Police with information technology and criminal intelligence so they may more successfully and efficiently uphold the law and enhance the delivery of public services. This will be accomplished through coordinating with police forces on a national and international level, upgrading crime analysis technology, and creating IT capabilities and solutions that are enabled by IT.

Data Security Council of India (DSCI): NASSCOM established the Data Security Council of India (DSCI), a leading industry body in India for data protection, with the mission of creating a safe, secure, and reliable online environment through the establishment of best practises, standards, and initiatives in cyber security and privacy. The Data Sharing and Collaboration Initiative (DSCI) brings together national governments and their agencies, business sectors such as IT-BPM, BFSI, and telecom, industry associations, data protection authorities, and think tanks for public advocacy, thought leadership, capacity building, and outreach initiatives. In order to further its goals, DSCI collaborates on policy issues with governing bodies, authorities, trade groups, and think tanks. The DSCI creates frameworks and best practises, as well as research, polls, and publications, to promote thought leadership in cyber security and privacy. It engages stakeholders via a variety of outreach efforts, such as events, awards, consultations, and membership programmes, and it develops capacity in security, privacy, and cyber forensics through training and certification programmes for professionals and law enforcement agencies. Through global trade development activities, DSCI also aims to enhance India's market share for security goods and services globally. They seek to improve India's culture of privacy and security.

CHAPTER 10

ASSESSING CYBER THREATS AND SOLUTIONS FOR MUNICIPALITIES

Shashikala H.K

Assistant Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -shashi.hk85@gmail.com

Municipalities' Assessment of Cyber Threats and Solutions: Americans work, play, and live online. Nevertheless, as a result of our growing dependence on cyber technology, we are increasingly open to assault from enemies who want to compromise our economic well-being and security by attacking our digital infrastructure. All municipalities must maintain continual and unyielding vigilance to protect their cyber infrastructure from those who would disrupt or destroy it via violence, the threat of violence, theft, or vandalism. The danger is real. One simply has to watch the evening news casually to notice how commonplace cyberattacks are on the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) infrastructure of both the public and commercial sectors. Unlawful cyber incursions are undoubtedly on the increase, not just in the United States but also across the world, whether it is the mass theft of private information about government employees or cyberattacks against private retailers³. The inadvertent or unauthorized use, access, modification, disruption, or destruction of electronic information and/or the physical and electronic infrastructure needed to process, transmit, and store such information would all be considered cyber-attacks.

Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is the study of the collection, organization, transmission, and distribution of audio, visual, textual, and numerical data via the use of computers, telecommunications, and video. Many flaws in both our computer gear and software have been exposed by the numerous cyber-attacks that have taken place throughout the globe in recent years. Furthermore, as we are now painfully aware, the majority of these assaults have been well organised and targeted. A cyber-attack is not a harmless incident; rather, these assaults have shown that significant damage may be done, not only to the IT infrastructure but also to governmental and commercial processes. A knowledgeable cyber attacker has the ability to steal our personal information and damage the electronic controls of our water treatment facilities, electricity grids, and telecommunications networks. These cybercriminals may also obstruct the production and distribution of essential commodities and services that our different levels of government supply to us. It's also crucial to remember that our local governments, just like those at the state and federal levels, are susceptible to targeted cyberattacks. Municipal governments may even be more vulnerable than other departments of government because of how weak their defences are in general.

The threat ultimately comes from the reality that these criminal cyber-attackers have the ability to devastate our vital infrastructure or, at the very least, compromise our privacy by stealing our personal data and fabricating bogus identities for financial gain. We are trained from a very early age to think in terms of security in the physical world. We are taught as children not to approach strangers or let our processions go unnoticed. We are reminded to secure our houses and cars as we become older, particularly if we won't be home. As we go through life, we discover that we must constantly adjust to meet the demands of a danger environment that is always changing. Nonetheless, it is well known that there is a lack of

awareness between the technology user and possible cyber dangers when it comes to ICT security. Individuals often have different perspectives on physical security than they do on cyber security. We are all exposed to a targeted cyber-attack because of this gap in our knowledge of the dangers' genuine nature. An assault that often results in the loss of important data, a drop in operational effectiveness, or the total loss of ICT assets. Data is how information is represented digitally. It is the amounts, letters, or symbols that a computer bases operations on. These data are captured on recording medium, stored as electric impulses, and communicated as such.

Key Infrastructure in Cyberspace: More than ever, we depend on the infrastructure of ICT. Technology advancements have increased consumer and business efficiency, and as a result, we are increasingly reliant on it to live simpler, more effective lives. Government at all levels has likewise been more and more reliant on ICT. The Federal Government alone now provides hundreds of widely utilised services online, including student loan applications, tax returns, and social security forms, to mention a few. It is clear that one of our biggest national advantages is our achievement in the digital sphere. Preserving this achievement entails defending computer infrastructure from malicious abuse and other damaging threats. This is a challenging undertaking since there is no easy method to recognise, track down, and recover from attackers who cannot be seen or heard, who leave no physical traces, and who conceal their tracks via a convoluted web of infected networks and computers.

The world is intricate and interconnected. Vital infrastructures, including cyber, are now connected in a manner that encourages operational efficacy and efficiency. While to varied degrees, critical infrastructures are interdependent in order to maintain the enormous American economy. In order to develop an ICT7 environment, communications systems are now connected to IT6. This environment provides centralised monitoring and control over production and delivery operations throughout the whole nation, and in some circumstances, beyond. Critical infrastructure may now be more connected because to ICT breakthroughs, but they also connect that infrastructure in ways that have never been seen before. More significantly, our independence has made us susceptible to individuals who want to exploit technology against society as a whole. Maintaining interdependent vital infrastructure's efficiency and efficacy while protecting that connection against hostile penetration is a problem.

Security mechanisms are a kind of security solution that are graded in terms of the implementation's security guarantee and level of protection against certain threats. Information technology (IT) is the practise of creating, processing, storing, protecting, and exchanging all types of electronic data via the use of computers, networking, storage, and other physical devices. A more comprehensive phrase that recognises the importance of unified communications and the integration of telecommunications is information and communications technology (ICT). **Risks to the Physical Infrastructure and Information Technology:** Like any other business company, a municipal government depends on information infrastructure to support its operational functions. This networked information infrastructure is often exposed to major threats that, by definition, have the potential to have a negative impact on daily operations. These risks would include, but not be limited to, the actual destruction of the physical infrastructure, whether intentionally or unintentionally, as well as the compromise of information, its integrity, and its accessibility for use.

The Physical Plant: For many local administrations, the physical security or protection of IT infrastructure is a key factor. The tragic events of September 11, 2001 showed just how open we are to physical assault. The convergence of risks and vulnerabilities is a common way that we think about physical protection. Simply put, a hazard is any potentially harmful physical

occurrence, phenomena, or human behaviour that has the potential to harm people or property, disturb social order and the economy, or worsen the environment. By analysing risks, we are referring to the whole range of risks, whether they are caused by nature or by humans. There are hence a wide range of possible risks that might combine with weaknesses to damage the physical plant in ways that are irreversible.

Natural hazards may result from a meteorological, environmental, geological, or biological occurrence and pose a risk to human health. Tornadoes, hurricanes, floods, severe weather, earthquakes, ice storms, and infectious diseases are just a few of the dangers that might arise. There are several instances in recent history when natural disasters have had catastrophic effects on both lives and property. Hurricanes Katrina (2005) and Sandy (2012) serve as excellent examples of how a single natural disaster may have long-lasting effects on a community and a nation. Contrarily, human-induced dangers are those that arise as a result of purposeful or inadvertent human behaviour, including technology errors. Hazards that are both natural and caused by people may negatively impact the physical plant and cause it to become partly or completely unusable. In the end, leaders will need to implement a good mitigation strategy to ensure the physical plant's security. As a general rule, mitigation is carried out to lessen

Data, computer platforms, communication networks, business applications, people, and procedures structured for the gathering, processing, maintenance, use, sharing, dissemination, and disposal of information make up the majority of an information system either lowering the effects of the danger should a real event occur or decreasing the chance that the hazard would materialise as an actual occurrence. The dependency on actual physical changes to the built or natural surroundings divides mitigation techniques into two broad groups. Structural and nonstructural mitigation fall under this category. Measures that require or make it necessary for some kind of building, engineering, or other mechanical alterations or enhancements in order to lessen hazard risk chance or consequence fall under the category of mitigation known as "Structural." On the other hand, "Non-Structural Mitigation" aims to lessen the chance or impact of risk by altering human behaviour, human activity, or natural processes.

Technology in Information and Communication: Adversaries may obtain sensitive information in cyberspace in a variety of ways. They are able to swiftly access important data by taking advantage of flaws in the hardware or software used in computers. Cyberattackers often use two methods: the first is the employment of malicious software, or malware, and the second is the use of insiders (colloquially referred to as the Carbon Unit). Municipal government administrators need to understand, if they haven't already, that there is no longer any doubt that their IT infrastructure will be compromised; the only remaining questions are when and how.

The most popular method of gaining access to a network is via malicious software, or malware. Malware is any programme that allows a different computer to have varying degrees of control over a computer. For instance, it may be used to construct a network access point through which an adversary can later get information that they can utilise to carry out certain cyber assaults. Viruses, worms, Trojan horses, spyware, rootkits, and various types of adware are all considered to be malware. Common email is the way that virus is most often spread. In this case, an email or email attachment is opened by a computer user without doing a thorough check for malware or other possible risks. Once activated, the virus starts to take control of the host computer's main operational processes. 9 The owner of the computer is often unaware that it has been hijacked until it is too late and the harm has already been done. The most frequent way to introduce malicious software to a computer is

via an email, but the biggest vulnerability in any cyber infrastructure is the carbon unit, or the individual human operator, or the insider.

Malware Defenses: Prevent harmful code from being installed, spreading, and being executed at various locations across the company, while maximising automation to allow for quick protection updates, data collecting, and remedial action is an awful aspect of the modern workplace that all employers must grudgingly take into account and protect themselves from the employee as a possible insider threat. A simple definition of an insider is someone who can use their lawful access to a company's computer network for unauthorised purposes. The revelation of sensitive information, the facilitation of third-party access, the actual destruction of property, and the sabotage of electronic or ICT assets are only a few examples of such operations.

Since they have access to critical IT infrastructure that is essential to the success of the business during their regular operations, insiders represent a danger. Yet it's vital to keep in mind that not all insiders are out to do you damage. Individual operators often unintentionally take part in illegal activity. Insiders are often tricked into helping an enemy obtain access to a cyber-infrastructure due to lapses in judgement or ignorance. Once again, this often happens when a computer user reads an email or email attachment without sufficiently screening it for security hazards.

On the other hand, an insider with criminal intentions poses a direct risk to the company. Our reliance on computers and computer networks has led to a working climate where all workers have access to sensitive or classified information. This interconnectedness has made it simpler for insiders with malicious intentions to obtain confidential data. Once access has been obtained, it is quite simple for an insider to corrupt, destroy, and/or distribute significant volumes of data. The WikiLeaks scandal from 2010 is perhaps the clearest illustration of the insider danger. In this instance, it was claimed that an insider, Army Pfc. Bradley Manning, had given WikiLeaks access to confidential US diplomatic communications. In this instance, Pfc. Manning was caught after stealing and spreading hundreds of thousands of pages of classified material, and he was eventually found guilty. 10

Employers still have the tools at their disposal to decrease the danger to their business notwithstanding the hazards presented by insiders by conducting rigorous pre-employment checks and by promoting a strong security culture. The company will always be at some level of danger. Municipal governments will have to adapt to working with some residual risk since access to the ICT infrastructure is necessary for businesses to optimise efficiency and build a strong customer-focused firm.

Lastly, a lot of businesses see hiring and application procedures as the time when staff security issues are remedied. This viewpoint is unreliable. The discipline of security must be maintained by an employee at all times. Risk that persists after security safeguards have been chosen and put into place is known as a residual risk.

Recognizing Online Enemies from Outside Cyberspace: An ever-growing number of enemies have begun to show interest in our computer infrastructure and the valuable information that is stored and sent over those systems. These foes may include terrorist networks, foreign military and intelligence organizations, and both experienced and novice crooks. With their intentional acts, these adversaries are unlawfully accessing computer networks, examining databases, and causing systems to "crash," or cease working correctly. In the end, these thieves are taking not just our personal information and identities but also our industrial secrets and national security plans. Their crime is often unheard of. They are not necessarily something we see, hear, or catch. They sometimes seriously damage our IT infrastructure,

while other times they only cause annoyance. Yet in the end, their conduct is unlawful and a clear and present threat to the government, business, and the nation as a whole.

Given this, security experts should be able to tell the difference between enemies who carry out assaults for political or ideological reasons and those who could be engaging in more conventional criminal activity. Governments may put in place the best defences against unwanted intrusions by comprehending the possible opponent.

Foreign Governments: Military and Intelligence Services. Security authorities have known for a long time that foreign governments have been gathering gigabits of data everyday using their security and intelligence agencies, even though the majority of publicly known cyber-attacks have been carried out by hackers. Those who work for foreign governments are your most cunning foes. Those in charge of safeguarding our cyber infrastructure face their biggest threat from foreign military and intelligence agencies. These incursions are often supported by wealthy sovereign states and are spearheaded by highly skilled cyber-warriors. Their goal is comparatively straightforward: to obtain an edge over a targeted country on the political, economic, and military levels in order to one day make that government more vulnerable.

The Internet's ability to promote global communication affords foreign governments a potent new tool for espionage and sabotage, while also allowing these state actors to deny utilising their ICT infrastructure for illicit purposes. A network of more than 1200 infected machines from all around the globe were discovered in March 2009 by a team of Canadian researchers working for the Information Warfare Monitor. They gave their inquiry the codename "GhostNet." Several high-value government targets were represented by the infected computers, including the private offices of the Dalai Lama, the Indonesian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Indian Embassy in Kuwait, as well as a dozen other delicate computer networks connected to other governments around the world. After a 10-month examination, the researcher's analysis revealed that three of the network's four servers were hosted in China, while the fourth was located in the United States. The Third Department of the General Staff, a division of the Department of the Central Military Commission that houses the Chinese government's signals and intelligence agency, is located on Hainan Island (China's Naval SIGINT), according to the report, and some of the IP (Internet Protocol) addresses used by the hackers were linked to this location.

The extent to which computer infrastructures, including those of major multinational corporations, were being used for cyber-espionage was further disclosed by a second inquiry. Several foreign nation states, like China, have formally stated that a key component of their military strategy is the use of cyberattacks. Moreover, a number of these governments have been charged of conducting cyberattacks to support conventional military operations. The ICT infrastructure of an opponent is often targeted by these cyberattack programmes, but they also have the potential to harm emergency medical response systems. Because of these factors, the United States and its allies are aware that updating military doctrines and cyber defences is necessary to meet cyber vulnerabilities. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) has established a number of policy papers on cyber defence in order to achieve this. Ultimately, it is widely agreed that state participation or state sponsorship is the primary cause of the resources required to create and utilise sophisticated viruses and worms against a government and its military. As a consequence, tracking out the source of the assault and identifying it is a challenging task that may ultimately provide very little insight into the enemy.

Terrorism: We readily admit the word's derogatory connotation. Terrorists seldom ever refer to themselves as such. Instead, they declare themselves to be virtuous people, liberationists,

or members of liberation groups. Moreover, we must admit that there is no accepted definition of terrorism. The meaning of the term is under dispute. The majority of us would implicitly agree that certain acts of violence constitute terrorism when we read the news or watch a television news story, but often we cannot agree on other behaviours. Every political scientist will tell you that, even under the best of circumstances, defining political and strategic ideas in a few words may be challenging. It does not, however, imply that we cannot or ought not to employ them. For instance, we believe that there is no better phrase to describe the specific kind of violence that the word "terrorism" denotes.

According to US law, "international terrorism" is defined as "activities involving violent acts or acts dangerous to human life that are a violation of the criminal laws of the United States or of any State, or that would be a criminal violation if committed within the jurisdiction of the United States or of any State; appear to be intended - I to intimidate or coerce a civilian population; to inflict harm on a civilian population; Warfare that is asymmetrical is terrorism. Also, since they are less costly to implement than physical assaults like those on September 11, 2001, cyberattacks are the ideal asymmetric weapon. Also, it is often difficult, if not impossible, to pinpoint the culprits. Any action that aims to undermine an adversary's social, economic, or political system by damaging its digital infrastructure is considered cyberterrorism. The U.S. National Infrastructure Protection Center defines cyberterrorism as a criminal act committed through the use of computers and telecommunications that results in violence, destruction, and/or disruption of services with the intention of inciting fear by spreading uncertainty and confusion among a target population or influencing a government to follow a specific political, social, or ideological agenda.

Terrorists and terrorist organisations are fast integrating cyber operations into their strategic plans. For instance, we are aware of the use of the internet by groups like the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL)¹⁸ in their recruiting, funding, and propaganda activities. Terrorist groups are also well aware of how much the West depends on its computer infrastructure. As a result, they are constantly searching the internet for security flaws to exploit.

It's crucial to remember that while some terrorist organisations have expressed a desire to target the United States and its allies online, they have not yet developed the technological means to carry out such an operation. Recognizing this, the US cannot relax since terrorist groups are constantly learning new skills and technologies with the aim of unleashing a devastating cyberattack on the West. Cyber-terrorists are learning more through exchanging knowledge and skills in online forums, which increases their chances of carrying out a successful cyber-attack.

Cybercrime: There will always be people who will turn to illegal activity to achieve a perceived edge when there is a chance for financial gain. The criminal element has effectively increased the scope of its activities online. The more skilled members of this category (Organized Crime) use cyberattackers' talents to participate in conventional criminal operations including identity theft that results in fraud, money laundering, and online extortion.

Fraud is the kind of crime committed most often against local administrations. Fraud is the intentional use of deceit to get an unauthorised benefit or advantage. Cybercriminals often commit many types of fraud against public institutions using fake or stolen identification documents (birth certificates, driver's licences, social security numbers, etc.). Municipal governments have a challenge because, as they move more of their daily operations online, cybercriminals will keep looking for ways to take advantage of that resource. Nonetheless, there are certain instances when a clever cybercriminal just wants to exploit the government's

own ICT infrastructure as a platform to carry out other illegal acts, including sending spam or phishing emails. It is not unusual for organised crime to "piggyback" on a trustworthy computer network and carry out evil deeds. Also referred to as ISIS, the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria, or ash-Sham.

Hacktivism and hacking: Hacking continues to be a problem for all governmental tiers. While the majority of hacking incidents may be linked to criminal activity, there is a rising trend among activists to target computer networks in an effort to attack vital infrastructure. The term "hacktivist" is a slang term for this new type of "tech savvy" activist. These people have transitioned from street demonstrations and damage to cyberspace, either in groups or alone.

Hacktivism is driven by fame. Success for these people involves upending websites and other social media platforms. Their objective is to damage or disgrace the reputation of a government or other organisation. The Denial-of-Service (DoS) assault and the Distributed Denial-of-Service (DDoS) attack are the two methods of choice for the vast majority of Hacktivists. An Internet-connected computer system or network may be subject to a malicious effort to interfere with its normal functioning, known as a denial-of-service (DoS) attack. The most frequent kind of attack is one that interferes with the functioning of the computer system or network by using too much of the victim's system's computing capabilities or consuming too much bandwidth on the victim's network.

When a system, service, or network is overloaded with so much traffic from many sources that it stops functioning, that is when a DDoS assault takes place. In this scenario, an enemy creates a network of compromised machines, or "botnets," by disseminating malicious software through emails, websites, and other social media channels. Once infected, these machines may be commandeered remotely, secretly, and at any time to attack a target. The "botnet" swiftly overwhelms the targeted computer system with a cascade of traffic, forcing it to fall down. DDoS assaults are used by hacktivists because they are simple to build, relatively cheap, and very effective at making their target unresponsive. Arguably the two most notorious DDoS assaults against sovereign states were those conducted in Georgia in 2014 and against Estonia in 2007/20. These assaults showed how successful the DDoS method is in rendering a target inoperable. These assaults had a negative impact on banks, the media, mobile communications, government websites, and internet traffic. The severity of the bombings and the continuing political hostilities between Russia and its neighbours were accusatory of Moscow, although official responsibility for the attacks could not be established with certainty.

A DDoS assault may be exceedingly challenging to defend against. In the end, the attacker wants to use up all of the victim's limited bandwidth, CPU, or disc space. To avoid this saturation, the defence, on the other hand, tries to provide enough resources or block enough of the attacker's communications. While it is difficult to prevent a concerted DDoS assault, websites may be secured by storing cached material across several servers. Nevertheless, it is crucial to remember that this solution can be highly costly, making it prohibitively expensive for municipalities.

Ultimately, in 2011, the hacktivist collective Anonymous said that it had successfully duplicated the code for the Stuxnet virus, which was in charge of destroying the Natanz, Iran, uranium enrichment complex. As a consequence of their acts, the worldwide hacktivist collective Anonymous is growing in popularity, and all signs point to them intensifying their assaults in the years to come. After the 2015 Paris terrorist attacks, Anonymous declared war on ISIL and promised to deactivate the Twitter accounts of everyone linked to the terrorist group in a video that was made public. Hacktivists cannot be considered as benign hackers

driven by legal or technological difficulties, but rather as genuine dangers to a nation's security. Malicious hacking by hacktivists who attack classified material or key infrastructure must be evaluated through the lens of national security.

The issue now is: How can city governments react, not only in principle, but in reality, given that we have established a fair degree of "doom and gloom"? The United States is perhaps the country that depends on the internet the most. Although it may seem like the government's foes are winning, there are numerous things that governments, particularly local governments, can take to safeguard themselves from harmful attacks on their cyber infrastructure. These responses would comprise, but not be limited to, the following: establishing an ICT Risk Management System and corresponding policies; introducing Network Security Protocols; putting into practise an Education and Awareness programme; monitoring for Malicious Software or Malware; establishing rules for Remote Working and Private Devices; enforcing Delinquent User Privileges; and creating Private, Public Partnerships.

ICT Risk Management System: Every IT department should set up an effective method for managing ICT risks. Determining the risk strategy and acceptable levels of risk in a manner that they are compatible with the demands of the municipal government's operations is a crucial component of cyber security. The function of vulnerability, danger, and risk. Assessments are meant to provide decision-makers a clear picture of the most important unwanted occurrences (current and prospective), as well as the likelihood of such events happening, potential effects, and suggestions to reduce or mitigate for particular risks, threats, and/or vulnerabilities. Municipal governments must create ICT security policies after the risk to the ICT infrastructure has been identified in order to reduce or completely eliminate the danger. A combination of methods for defining and achieving information security goals makes up an ICT security policy. Three main goals for ICT security are confidentiality, integrity, and availability. Simply said, the information must be safeguarded against unwanted modification (integrity), only accessible to those who are allowed to see it (confidentiality), and immediately available when it is required (availability).

Network Security: Both necessary and dangerous, connectivity. Municipal governments run the risk of exposing their enterprises to hostile invasions when they link to untrusted networks like the Internet. Governments must adhere to industry standards when developing and configuring their systems in order to stop these incidents. All networks and network equipment must be set up with secure default settings. It requires all network traffic to be filtered so that only the traffic necessary to forward the goals of the local administration is permitted.

The design and implementation of municipal governments' ICT security policies must follow industry best practises and standards. And regardless of their position within the company, all workers are required to abide by these regulations. Organizations address ICT security risks using the ICT Risk Management approach. ICT security and other risk management procedures are used to handle ICT risks.

Education and Sensitization: Employees may be kept aware of their responsibility to be attentive against becoming a victim of a cyber-attack with the use of awareness campaigns that emphasise the lessons learnt via education and training. While a local government cannot expect all of its staff to have the same level of technical expertise as their rivals, being aware of the possible risks and weak points may help to keep its ICT infrastructure safe from an attack. The first step in safeguarding the infrastructure is to implement ICT security policies. The second stage is to inform staff members of their legal rights and duties with regard to

such policies. The simplest method to recognise this is to require that the "terms and conditions" of employment include the ICT security policy. Municipal governments must include education and awareness into their business models because, although well-defined roles and duties are crucial for attaining cyber security, the success of the government in protecting its IT infrastructure depends primarily on its personnel.

Unwanted or harmful software: The right mix of security measures to combat the purposeful or incidental exposure to harmful software or malware may improve the resilience of the ICT infrastructure. Local governments should develop regulations that specifically target business operations. Email, online surfing, and using privately owned devices that are susceptible to infection are examples of such activities. Also, ICT security personnel should use the most recent antivirus software to regularly search for viruses. Every piece of data coming into or leaving the government's ICT infrastructure has to be checked for harmful elements.

Telecommuting for Business and Private Arrangements: In only a few short years, there have been significant changes in modern offices. Employers nowadays are more likely to use mobile technology to assist their business operations. Maybe not all of these devices were around five years ago. As a result, innovative and fun methods of working have emerged quickly. Although this may be advantageous for both employers and employees, there are also significant hazards to the IT infrastructure that must be properly controlled.

In today's society, letting workers use their own devices and work from home is becoming more and more common. Employees today anticipate using their own computers, phones, and tablets to do business, thanks to the fast proliferation of mobile devices and remote and flexible working. Owners of personally owned devices often exchange private information with other users, particularly on the Cloud, since these gadgets are designed to make data sharing simple (and frequently automated). Bring Your Own Devices (BYOD) policies need to emphasize the dangers of disclosing company information to unauthorized users. Governments must take into account how security issues in personal applications (such social media, blogs, and other websites) may impact the organization's applications, data, and network services.

User Privileges: User privileges are one method for controlling access to different areas of a network. Users should only be given the permissions necessary to carry out the tasks listed in their job description. The number of privileged accounts for positions like system or database administrators, which are crucial, should be restricted by ICT security managers. The daily activities of the ICT management group should include monitoring user behavior, particularly sensitive data and privileged account actions.

Public-Private Partnerships: Governmental threats are not uncommon. Most people are aware that the current defences won't be sufficient to effectively safeguard ICT infrastructure from being manipulated or destroyed by a determined enemy given the continuous advancements in ICT. Private-public collaborations are essential since all key infrastructures are interconnected. Governments, law enforcement, the research and development community, and private sector must work together in partnerships. In this case, all parties involved may cooperate to control risks, decrease vulnerabilities, and increase the IT infrastructure's resilience. For those charged with maintaining the security of such infrastructures, this obligation presents a constant and changing challenge. We have a duty and responsibility to share our collective expertise, try to create partnerships between the public and private sectors, launch new projects, and always be on the lookout for those who want to do us damage.

CHAPTER 11

PRIVACY AND AUTHENTICATION

C R Manjunath

Associate Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -cr.manjunath@jainuniversity.ac.in

The capacity of a person or a group to encrypt information about them and then expose it only when necessary might be seen as privacy. It states that sensitive or important information is used to protect privacy. The principles of appropriate usage and information protection may be inserted into the security domain, which has a modest overlap with the privacy domain. Global specific privacy is a modern idea that is mostly tied to Western culture (North American and British cultures in particular) and has largely remained unknown in certain civilizations. Some cultures respect people's right to keep some aspects of their personal information hidden from the rest of society. Private information might be provided voluntarily to organizations in order to get certain benefits.

Public people may provide context for laws and policies that pertain to their interests. Identity theft can result from private information about a person being given willingly and utilized improperly. In order to maintain privacy, a company must ensure that any sensitive information it processes, saves, or communicates is done so legally and with the owner's permission. This term refers to alerting a person up front about the kinds of data that will be gathered, the purposes for which it will be used, and the recipients of that data. An individual should then accept the conditions of use since this transparency is promoted, allowing the organization ingesting the data to use it in accordance with its stated objectives. Therefore, protecting data from dangerous threats is less important than using it sensibly and in line with users' requirements to prevent it from getting into the wrong hands. But it doesn't mean it can't include security-type safeguards to ensure that personal information is kept private .

Data privacy is not just one idea or method. Instead, it's a discipline that uses laws, customs, standards, and other tools to assist companies in establishing and upholding the necessary levels of privacy compliance. In general, data privacy consists of the following six components:

The legal system: Data privacy regulations are an example of prevailing legislation that has been passed and is being applied.

Policies: Developed organizational guidelines and procedures to safeguard personnel and user privacy.

Practices: Information technology infrastructure, data privacy, and data protection are governed by best practices.

Third-party associations: Any firms that deal with data on behalf of a third party, such cloud service providers.

Data management: Standards and procedures for storing, protecting, keeping, and accessing data.

International needs: Any distinctions or discrepancies in the laws governing data privacy and compliance in various countries, including those of the United States and the European Union (EU).

Privacy Principles

Collection purpose and means: The objective behind the collection of personal data is closely connected to the role or activity of the data users. Additionally, it must be fairly and legally gathered. When personal data is acquired, the subjects of the data must be informed of the intended use of the data. Of course, it should only be required and reasonable to gather data.

Accuracy and retention: Data users must make sure that personal information is correct and should not be retained longer than is required.

Use: Personal information must be put to use for the specified or closely connected purposes for which it was obtained. Unless the data subject voluntarily and expressly consents, it should not be used for any other reasons.

Security: In addition, data users must take security precautions to protect personal information from unauthorized and unintentional processing and loss of use.

Openness: Data users are required to disclose their personal data policies and practices to the public, including the categories of personal data they retain and the purposes for which they are used.

Data access and corrections: Data subjects have the right to ask for access to and correction of their personal information .

Authentication: The process of confirming that someone or something is, in fact, who or what it claims to be is known as authentication. By comparing a user's credentials to those stored in a database of authorized users or on a data authentication server, authentication technology controls access to systems. Authentication ensures safe systems, secure business processes, and secure corporate data. There are several forms of authentication. Users are often assigned a user ID for identification purposes, and authentication takes place when the user enters credentials such a password that exactly matches their user ID. Single-factor authentication is the procedure of needing a user ID and password (SFA). Companies have recently reinforced authentication by requesting more authentication elements, including a special code that is sent to a user through a mobile device when a sign-on attempt is made or a biometric signature, like a thumbprint or face scan. Two-factor authentication is used in this situation (2FA). Even beyond SFA, which necessitates a user ID and password, or 2FA, which necessitates a user ID, password, and biometric signature. Multifactor authentication refers to the use of three or more identity verification elements for authentication, such as a user ID and password, a biometric signature, and maybe a personal question the user must respond to (MFA).

Importance of authentication in cybersecurity: By limiting access to protected resources to only authorized users or processes, authentication helps companies maintain the security of their networks. Computer systems, networks, databases, webpages, and other network-based software or services may be included in this. Once a person or process has been authenticated, they are often put through an authorization procedure to assess if they should be granted access to a certain protected resource or system. If a user does not have authorization to access a resource, they may be authenticated but not permitted access to it. The words permission and authentication are frequently used synonymously. Although they are frequently combined, they serve two different purposes. Before granting access to secured

networks and systems, a registered user or process must first have their identity verified through authentication. The more detailed process of authorization verifies that the authorized user or process has been given permission to access the requested resource. Access control describes the procedure used to limit particular users' access to such resources. The authorization procedure is always carried out after the authentication procedure.

Operating system (OS) security refers to procedures and controls that can guarantee the privacy, availability, and confidentiality (CIA) of operating systems. The purpose of OS security is to defend the OS against a variety of dangers, including as misconfigurations, remote intrusions, and malicious software like worms, trojan horses, and other viruses. The adoption of control strategies that can shield assets against unwanted addition, deletion, and theft is often part of OS security. The employment of antivirus software and other endpoint security tools, routine OS patch updates, a firewall for keeping an eye on network traffic, the enforcement of safe access through least privileges, and user control are among of the most popular methods for protecting operating systems.

Techniques to Ensure Operating System Protection and Security

Keep a Data Backup: This is a safe precaution since you can always access it from the Backup if data becomes damaged due to issues with security and protection.

Be wary of links and communications that seem off: When we click on a malicious link on the internet, it might get user access and start a significant problem. Secure authentication and authorization should be provided by the operating system (OS), and users should safeguard their login information to prevent unauthorized access to resources.

Use Only Secure Wi-Fi: Using free or insecure Wi-Fi can occasionally lead to security problems since hackers might send malicious programs across the network or record behavior, among other things, which could be quite problematic in the worst scenario.

Install malware and anti-virus protection: It aids in removing and preventing malware and viruses from the system.

Judiciously manage access: Apps and software should only be given access after a careful review, as no program can harm our system unless it has access. So, we can make sure that software has appropriate access, and we can always monitor software to see what resources and access it is utilizing.

Firewall Tools: They let us keep an eye on and filter network traffic. Firewalls can be used to make sure that only authorized users can access or move data.

Transfer that is based on encryption and decryption: The data content must be conveyed using an encryption technique that can only be broken with the right decryption key. Your data is shielded from internet snoopers using this procedure, and even if it were taken, it would always be illegible.

Be careful while providing personal information: If don't, attackers may use it for their purposes, which might affect the security of the system. Share personal information and credentials only with reliable and safe sources.

Operating System Threats: The operating system is threatened in a number of ways. Here are a few of them:

Malware: It includes harmful software such as viruses, worms, Trojan horses, and other threats. These are typically little pieces of code that have the potential to damage files, erase

data, spread further through replication, and even bring down a whole system. Often, the affected user is unaware that the infection is active while crooks stealthily harvest crucial data.

Network Intrusion: Network Intrusion Unauthorized users, miscreants, and masqueraders are all types of network invaders. An unauthorized user who gets access to a system and makes use of an authorized user's account is known as a masquerader. A misfeasor is a lawful user who illegally acquires access to and makes inappropriate use of resources, such as software or data. A malicious user assumes supervisory control and makes an effort to avoid access restrictions and audit data gathering.

Overflowing Buffer: Another name for it is buffer overrun. It is the most prevalent and perilous operating system security problem. It is described as a situation at an interface where more input may be added to a buffer and a data holding region than is permitted and where this additional input may overwrite existing data. Attackers take advantage of such circumstances to crash a system or introduce malware that was designed to give them control of the machine.

Authentication: Authentication is the process of locating each system user and connecting them to the running applications. The task of developing a security mechanism that confirms the legitimacy of a user executing a certain software falls to the operating system. The following three methods are often used by operating systems to identify and authenticate users:

Username and Password: To log into the system, a user must enter a username and password that have been registered with the operating system.

User card or key: In order to log into the system, a user must punch a card into a slot or enter a key created by a key generator.

User attribute: fingerprint, retinal pattern in the eye, and signature To log into the system, the user must enter his or her attribute using the appropriate input device employed by the operating system.

One-time passwords: Along with standard authentication, one-time passwords give an extra layer of protection. Every time a user attempts to connect into the One-Time Password system, a new password is needed. A one-time password is only valid once and cannot be reused. Different strategies are used to implement one-time passwords.

Random numbers: Users are given cards with random numbers and the associated alphabets written on them. The computer asks for numbers that correlate to a few randomly selected alphabets.

Secret key: Users are given hardware that can generate a secret ID that is linked to their user ID as the secret key. The system requests this secret ID, which must be produced each time before logging in.

Network password: A one-time password is sent to the user's registered mobile or email address by certain commercial programs, and it must be input before logging in.

Software Threats: Processes in the operating system and the kernel carry out the assigned work as directed. Program threats are what happen when a user programme forces these processes to carry out harmful actions. A computer software that can save and transmit user credentials to a hacker across a network is one of the most typical examples of a program threat. The list of several well-known software risks is provided below.

Trojan horse: An application like this captures user login information and saves it so it can be sent to a malicious user later so they may access system resources and log into the machine.

Trap Door: A software is said to have a trap door if it has a security flaw in its code that allows it to do illegal actions without the user's awareness.

Logic Bomb: Logic bombs occur when a software misbehaves only when specific criteria are satisfied; otherwise, the program functions as intended. It is more elusive to find.

Viruses: Viruses may multiply themselves on computers, as their name suggests. They can change or remove user files, crash computers, and are extremely harmful. A virus is often a little piece of code included within a software. The virus begins to embed itself in other files and applications as soon as the user accesses the software, which may render the system inaccessible to the user.

Security Risks: System threats are actions that employ network connections and system functions improperly to harm users. Program attacks, sometimes referred to as system attacks, can be used to deploy program threats over the whole network. System risks foster an atmosphere where user files and operating system resources are abused. The list of some well-known system dangers is provided below.

Worm: Worm is a process that may drastically reduce a system's performance by using system resources. A worm process creates numerous clones of itself, each of which consumes system resources and prevents all other processes from obtaining the resources they need. Even a whole network can be brought to a halt by worm operations.

Port: Port scanning is a technique or method through which a hacker might find weaknesses in the system and launch an attack.

Denial of Service Denial: Denial of Service Denial of service attacks often prohibit users from using the system in a proper manner. For instance, if a denial of service attack targets a browser's content settings, a user could not be able to access the internet.

Management and Incidents: The process of recognizing, managing, documenting, and assessing security risks and occurrences connected to cybersecurity in the real world is known as incident management in the field of cybersecurity. This is a crucial action to perform before or after a cyber-catastrophe strikes an IT system. Experience and expertise are factors in this process. Effective incident management may both lessen the negative impacts of cyber-disaster and stop one from happening. It can stop a lot of data leaks from being compromised. Without a solid incident response strategy, a company risks falling prey to a cyber-attack in which all of its data is exposed.

Real-time monitoring, management, recording, and analysis of security risks or occurrences is known as security incident management. It aims to provide a strong and thorough overview of any security concerns that may exist inside an IT system. An active threat, an attempted incursion, a successful penetration, or a data leak are all examples of security incidents. Security events include breaking rules and gaining unauthorized access to information like social security numbers, financial information, health information, and other personally identifiable information.

Cyber Security Plan: A cyber security strategy is a written document that details the security policies, practices, and corrective action plan for countermeasures of an Organization. This strategy strives to protect the Organization's vital resources and the integrity of operations. It is a crucial tool to safeguard clients, staff, and proprietary data of the company. Cybersecurity

best practices are being offered as a strategy for the Organization by outlining the present and future states of your cybersecurity area. A cybersecurity strategy also enables the IT staff to communicate with regard to the cybersecurity activities and structure more effectively. Effective cybersecurity plans may be developed by corporations with the aid of professional hacking.

Business Continuity Plan (BCP): A company's Business Continuity Plan (BCP) should include cybersecurity as a fundamental component, and policies and procedures for the protection of sensitive data and essential technologies should be taken into account. Business continuity planning is the process of creating preventative and recovery procedures to deal with potential cyber risks to an organization or to ensure process continuity following a cyberattack (BCP). It's crucial to include recommendations for identifying, minimizing, and mitigating cyber hazards in business continuity planning. Operational continuity before and throughout catastrophe recovery is the secondary goal of BCP. This makes cross-departmental collaboration easier and guarantees that businesses have a strategy in place to quickly react to any assaults.

In many ways, the goals of the cybersecurity team are similar to those of the business continuity and disaster recovery teams. Therefore, these teams should work together to create a thorough business continuity strategy that takes into account every aspect of the organization. Using an integrated strategy, teams can guarantee effective security for key areas of attention, such as full data and asset management, recovery and response, and the people involved at every stage of the process .

Importance of Incident Handling Service for It: Any security issue, no matter how little, has the potential to grow if it is not properly handled and addressed. These technological problems might lead to a troublesome security breach and system failure if the IT strategy doesn't have enough incident control services. An IT business may avoid further security breaches, service disruptions, data loss, and vulnerability exploitation by swiftly and efficiently addressing these technical events. The following are some advantages of an incident handling service for an IT plan:

Prepares you for emergencies: Panic often occurs when security concerns arise. But with an efficient incident managing solution for IT strategy, you and your team can remain composed under pressure. You've previously described how you'll approach and evaluate these issues, so you'll be able to address them rationally and effectively.

Reduces the impact of a security event: A security breach can have severe effects on a company. This may include longer downtime as well as data and financial losses. Your firm can specify remedial procedures that can assist you lessen the effects of a possible security breach if the incident handling service for the IT strategy is adequate.

Enhances interactions with consumers and clients: Security problems may significantly damage the reputation of your company's brand. This indicates that you risk losing important clients, consumers, and business possibilities as a result of a cyber-assault. Therefore, keeping positive relationships with important clients, business partners, and investors depends on developing an effective incident management service for an IT strategy.

Risk analysis: Key business activities or projects that might have a negative influence on them are identified and analyzed as part of the risk analysis process. This procedure is carried out to assist companies in avoiding or reducing certain hazards. The many methods of risk analysis take into account the potential for negative outcomes brought on by either intentional or unintentional human activity, as well as by natural disasters such strong storms,

earthquakes, or floods. Identifying the expected harm from these occurrences and the possibility of their occurring is a crucial component of risk analysis .

Disaster recovery: The process through which a company prepares for and responds to technological disasters is known as disaster recovery. Any business' IT systems might abruptly fail because of unforeseeable catastrophes like power outages, calamities, or security problems. Disaster recovery refers to a business's processes and guidelines for responding rapidly to such occurrences. Data and computer processing must be replicated at an off-premises location unaffected by the incident for disaster recovery to work. A firm must restore lost data from a backup location when servers go down due to a natural disaster, equipment malfunction, or cyberattack. In order to maintain operations, a company should be able to move its computer processing to that distant site as well.

Components of a successful disaster recovery strategy

Emergency response team: The catastrophe recovery plan will be developed, put into action, and managed by this designated team of experts. The roles and duties of each team member should be specified in this strategy. The disaster recovery team must be able to communicate with one another, staff members, suppliers, and clients in the case of an emergency.

Risk assessment: Analyze any possible risks to your organization. Plan the steps and resources necessary to restore operations based on the kind of incident.

Identification of a business-critical asset: A strong disaster recovery plan specifies the systems, applications, data, and other resources that are most important for maintaining company operations as well as the procedures to recover data.

Backups: Choose what needs to be backed up (or moved), who should do backups, and how backups will be put into practice. Include a recovery time target (RTO), which establishes the maximum amount of downtime permitted following a disaster, and a recovery point objective (RPO), which specifies the frequency of backups. These metrics provide boundaries to direct an organization's disaster recovery plan's selection of IT strategy, processes, and procedures. The disaster recovery plan will be influenced by how much downtime a business can tolerate and how regularly it backs up its data.

Optimization and testing: To handle ever-changing risks and organizational requirements, the recovery team should continuously evaluate and revise its plan. A business may overcome these difficulties by consistently making sure that it is prepared to handle the worst-case scenarios in emergency situations. For instance, it's crucial that businesses test and improve their security and data protection methods regularly, have safeguards in place to identify possible security breaches, and prepare how to respond to a cyber-assault.

CHAPTER 12

LEGAL ACCEPTANCE OF DIGITAL SIGNATURES

Sowmya M S

Assistant Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

Email Id: -ms.sowmya@jainuniversity.ac.in

Public key cryptography offers a mechanism for using digital signatures, which is one of its main advantages. Ensuring the integrity of the information is made possible for the receiver using a digital signature. Digital signatures therefore provide data integrity and authenticity. Moreover, a digital signature offers non-repudiation, which prohibits the sender from denying that they sent the data at all. These characteristics are at least as important to encryption as privacy. The same function of a handwritten signature is accomplished by a digital signature. A handwritten signature, however, is simple to forge. A digital signature is preferable than a handwritten signature since it is practically hard to forge and it certifies both the identity of the signer and the material being signed as well as its contents. To provide the fundamental requirements of the population.

Rights to Employee Privacy

Worker privacy rights are the laws that set restrictions on how far an employer may go into an employee's belongings or person, observe their acts, statements, or communications, or learn about their personal life, particularly but not just at work. Recent years have seen an increase in concern over the type and scope of these safeguards, particularly in light of the growth of the internet and social media. Even while many of these communication methods provide the impression that they are private, they actually offer very little true privacy. Employers frequently have access to anything that occurs on corporate computers, as well as the ability to search social media and the internet. Whether a person is a current employee, a former employee, or a job seeker, employment law governs all responsibilities and rights pertaining to the employer-employee relationship. Wrongful termination, discrimination, workplace safety, taxation, and pay are just a few of the legal concerns covered by this form of legislation. Federal and state laws that are in effect at the time will control many of these difficulties. The rights and obligations of the parties involved may only be determined by state contract law in situations when the employment relationship is founded on a legally binding contract formed between the employer and employee. On the other hand, public employees' rights may not be the same as those of private employees.

Due to passwords, information segregation, or the usage of electronic lockboxes, employees may have subjective expectations of privacy, but an employer's practices may erase any objective expectation of privacy and some technologies could not be regarded as private at all. Because laws governing employees' expectations of privacy have not kept up with the technology accessible to employers, privacy concerns must be carefully considered on a case-by-case basis at work.

Employees have the right to privacy for both their personal and professional information, although this right is frequently restricted by business policy. Employers can monitor several areas of employee activities at work thanks to technology. Numerous forms of monitoring are permitted, and the majority of businesses do so to some extent. With the help of several

technologies, employers may look into the "digital footprints" of their staff members and learn more about their behavior. On workplace computer, practically every action may be observed almost fully unrestrictedly. The majority of an employee's workplace communications are subject to employer monitoring, reading, and listening. Employees should keep in mind that they shouldn't have too high of expectations for privacy when using an employer's technology.

Cybercrime: A crime involving a computer and a network is referred to as cybercrime or a computer-oriented crime. Either the computer was the intended victim of the crime or it was employed in its execution. Cybercrime is when a computer is used as a tool to perform crimes including fraud, identity theft, or invasions of privacy. The relevance of cybercrime, particularly over the Internet, has increased as computers have become indispensable in every sector of life, including business, entertainment, and government. The security and financial health of an individual or a nation may be threatened by cybercrime. There are many different types of actions that fall under the umbrella of cybercrime, however they may typically be categorized into two groups:

1. Crimes committed against computer networks or equipment. Different threats (such as viruses, bugs, etc.) and denial-of-service (DoS) assaults are used in these kinds of crimes.
2. Crimes that include the use of computer networks to carry out additional crimes. These offences include financial fraud, identity theft, and cyber stalking.

Cyber warfare: A cyber-attack or series of attacks that target a nation are typically referred to as cyberwar fare. It has the capacity to destroy civilian and governmental infrastructure and interfere with vital processes, causing harm to the state and maybe even fatalities. However, there is disagreement among cyber security professionals as to whether actions qualify as cyberwar fare. The US Department of Defense (DoD) acknowledges the danger that hostile Internet use poses to national security, but it doesn't give a more precise definition of cyberwar fare. Some people define cyberwar fare as a type of cyber-attack that can be fatal. The majority of the time, nation-states engage in cyber warfare by attacking other nations, but occasionally, terrorist groups or non-state actors carry out the assaults to promote the objectives of an adversary state. There have been many reported instances of cyber warfare in recent years, but there is no established definition of what constitutes an act of war in the context of a cyber-strike.

Cyberspace and the law & cyber forensics:

Cyberspace: A complex environment including interactions between people, software, and services is what is known as cyberspace. It is kept up by the networks and gadgets that are distributed globally via information and communication technology. Due to the advantages brought about by technical breakthroughs, cyberspace is now a shared resource utilised by governments, companies, the military, and essential information infrastructure, making it challenging to draw borders between these many entities. With the expansion of networks and linked devices, it is projected that the complexity of the cyberspace would expand over the next years.

Regulations

In terms of cybersecurity, there are five main laws to cover: the 2000 Information Technology Act the Information Technology Act, created in 2000, regulates Indian cyber legislation. The main driving force behind this Act is to provide trustworthy legal inclusivity

to eCommerce, making it easier to register real-time information with the government. Yet as cyberattackers became more cunning and people began to abuse technology, a number of changes were made. The ITA, passed by the Indian Parliament, emphasises the severe fines and sanctions protecting the e-government, e-banking, and e-commerce industries. The scope of ITA has now been expanded to include all contemporary communication technologies.

The key piece of Indian law that directs strict regulation of cybercrimes is the IT Act: Those who harm computer systems without the owner's consent are subject under Section 43. In such circumstances, the owner is entitled to full reimbursement for the total harm. If someone is proven to have committed any of the acts listed in section 43 dishonestly or fraudulently, section 66 may be applicable. In such cases, the maximum possible sentence is three years in jail and/or a fine of Rs. 5 lakh.

According to Section 66B, obtaining stolen computers or communication equipment fraudulently carries a sentence of at least three years in jail. Depending on the severity, a fine of Rs. 1 lakh may be added to this sentence.

Section 66C: This section examines identity frauds including fake digital signatures, compromised passwords, or other distinguishing characteristics. If convicted, a three-year sentence with a Rs. 1 lakh fine is also a possibility.

Article 66 D: This section was added as needed and focuses on penalising cheaters who use computer resources to impersonate others.

1980's Indian Criminal Code (IPC): Invoked in conjunction with the Information Technology Act of 2000, the Indian Criminal Code (IPC), 1860, defines identity theft and related cyber offences.

The IPC's most pertinent section addresses cyber frauds: Forgery (Section 464) (Section 464), Planned forgery used to cheat (Section 468) falsified records (Section 465), Presenting a fake paper as a real one (Section 471) reputational harm (Section 469)

2013 Corporations Act: The Companies Act of 2013 is cited by business stakeholders as the legal need required for streamlining everyday operations. The requirements of this Act solidify all necessary techno-legal compliances, placing less compliant businesses in a problematic legal situation.

The SFIO (Serious Frauds Investigation Office) was given authority by the Companies Act of 2013 to bring legal action against Indian firms and their directors. Moreover, after the 2014 Businesses Inspection, Investment, and Inquiry Regulations were announced, SFIOs have increased their proactiveness and sternness in this area.

The lawmakers made sure that all regulatory compliances, such as e-discovery, cybersecurity diligence, and cyber forensics, are thoroughly covered. Strict requirements are outlined in the Companies (Management and Administration) Regulations, 2014, which reaffirm the duties and responsibilities of company directors and executives with regard to cybersecurity.

NIST Conformity: Being the most trustworthy worldwide certifying organisation, the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) has approved the Cybersecurity Framework (NCF), which provides a unified approach to cybersecurity. The necessary policies, benchmarks, and best practises for responsible risk management of cyber-related hazards are included in the NIST Cybersecurity Framework. With this framework, adaptability and economy are given top priority.

It encourages the preservation and resilience of crucial infrastructure by enabling improved cybersecurity risk management and mitigation, minimising data loss, data abuse, and the ensuing restoration costs identifying the most crucial activities and processes and concentrating on safeguarding them demonstrates the reliability of companies that protect important assets aids in setting investment priorities to optimise cybersecurity ROI focuses on legal and contractual requirements aids in the expansion of the information security programme The NIST CSF framework and ISO/IEC 27001 are combined to make cybersecurity risk management easier. It also facilitates communication. With the use of a standard cybersecurity directive established by NIST, across the company and throughout supplier chains.

Final Reflections Cyber laws need to be updated and improved on a continual basis in India and throughout the world as human dependency on technology grows. In addition, the pandemic has increased the demand for app security by forcing a large portion of the workforce into a remote working mode. In order to stop the impostors at their onset, legislators must go above and beyond to keep one step ahead of them.

Cybercrime can be reduced, but it requires coordinated actions from the government, Internet service providers, intermediaries like banks and online retailers, and, most crucially, end users. Online safety and resilience can only be achieved by these stakeholders making wise decisions and adhering to the rules of the cyberland.

International Law's Function: Several governments control different aspects of the computer and communication sectors. There are limitations on the use of encryption and of technology that may be used to circumvent copy protection methods. There are also specific laws on the purposes to which computers and computer networks may be put, including rules on illegal access, data privacy, and spamming. There are laws governing online commerce, taxation, consumer protection, and advertising. Additionally, there are laws contrasting censorship and free speech, governing public access to government information, and regulating how individuals can access information that is held about them by private entities. Several governments impose legal and technological restrictions on Internet access.

Cybercrime International Law: The complexity of the different types and manifestations of cybercrime makes it more challenging to fight back, necessitating international cooperation. A number of organisations and governments have already worked together to establish global standards of legislation and law enforcement on both a regional and an international level.

Cyberspace In India: The National Informatics Center (NIC), which was founded in 1975 with the intention of giving the government IT solutions, gave birth to Indian cyberspace. Between 1986 and 1988, three networks (NWs) were established to link different governmental entities. These networks (NWs) included INDONET, which linked the IBM mainframe installations that comprised India's computer infrastructure, NICNET (the NIC NW), a national very small aperture terminal (VSAT) network for public sector organizations as well as to connect the central government with the state governments and district administrations, and ERNET (the Education and Research Network), which was set up to serve the academic and research communities.

The New Internet Policy of 1998 opened the door for services from several Internet service providers (ISPs), which helped the number of Internet users increase from 1.4 million in 1999 to over 150 million by December 2012. Internet use increase is to blame for exponential growth rate access through tablets and mobile devices. The government is working hard to boost internet penetration from its current level of roughly 6%1. According to the National Broadband Plan, 160 million homes should have access to internet by 2016.

National Policy on Cyber Security: The Department of Electronics and Information Technology has a framework for policy called the National Cyber Security Policy. It seeks to defend against cyberattacks on both public and private assets. Also, the policy aims to protect "information, including personal information (of site users), financial and banking information, and sovereign data." This was especially true when US National Security Agency (NSA) disclosures showed that US government agencies were eavesdropping on Indian users, who lacked any kind of protection from it on a legal or technological level. Cyberspace is a complex ecosystem made up of human interactions, software services, and the international dissemination of information and communication technologies, according to the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (India).

Vision: to provide a safe and reliable online environment for people, businesses, and the government, as well as to prevent anybody from invading users' privacy.

Mission: With a mix of institutional structures, people, procedures, technology, and collaboration, to secure information and information infrastructure in cyberspace, establish capabilities to avoid and react to cyber threat, decrease vulnerabilities, and limit damage from cyber events.

The following goals are defined by the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (India): To increase the use of IT in all spheres of the economy by fostering a safe cyber environment across the nation, building sufficient trust and confidence in IT systems and online transactions. To develop a conformity assessment-based assurance framework for the formulation of security policies and the promotion and facilitation of activities for compliance with international security standards and best practises (Product, process, technology & people). To make the regulatory framework more robust in order to guarantee a Safe Cyberspace Ecosystem. To improve and establish a national and sectoral level 24-7 platform for gathering strategic information about risks to ICT infrastructure, developing scenarios for reaction, resolution, and crisis management via efficient preventative, remedial, and protective activities.

Cyber Forensics: The use of investigation and analytical methods to compile and safeguard evidence is known as computer forensics. Data from personal computers, laptops, PDAs, smartphones, servers, cassettes, and other media are routinely analysed by forensic investigators.

It may also include decrypting data, working with law enforcement to carry out search warrants, and retrieving and examining information from hard drives that will be crucial evidence in the most severe civil and criminal cases. It takes a lot of skill and expertise to conduct a forensic investigation of computers and data storage devices. Reports are prepared with the findings of forensic investigations. Examiners often testify about their conclusions, putting their skills and qualifications under the most intense scrutiny.

Electronic Forensics: The process of preserving, identifying, extracting, and documenting digital evidence that may be used in court is known as digital forensics. Finding evidence from digital media, such as a computer, smartphone, server, or network, is a science. It gives the forensic team the finest methods and resources to handle challenging digital-related cases.

The use of digital forensics by the forensic team facilitates the identification, preservation, and analysis of the digital evidence present on many kinds of electronic devices. A subfield of forensic science known as "digital forensic science" focuses on the recovery and examination of data from digital devices that is connected to cybercrime.

Computer forensics is needed: Computer forensics are crucial because they may help your business save money. From a technological perspective, computer forensics' primary objective is to locate, gather, store, and analyse data in a manner that maintains the integrity of the gathered evidence so that it may be utilised successfully in a legal case.

Online Evidence and Cyber Forensics: information that has been saved or transferred in binary format and is admissible in court is known as digital evidence. It may be located, among other places, on the hard disc of a computer or a cell phone. Electronic crime, sometimes known as e-crime, such as child pornography or credit card fraud is frequently linked to digital proof. Yet, not only e-crime is increasingly prosecuted using digital evidence; other forms of crimes as well. For instance, crucial information about a suspect's purpose, location at the time of a crime, and relationships with other suspects may be found in their email or mobile phone files. For instance, in 2005, a floppy disc helped police track down the BTK serial murderer, who had killed at least 10 people but evaded arrest since 1974.

Law enforcement agencies are integrating the gathering and processing of digital evidence, commonly known as computer forensics, into its infrastructure in an attempt to combat e-crime and to gather pertinent digital evidence for all offences. The requirement to prepare police to gather digital evidence and stay up with quickly changing technology, such computer operating systems, is a challenge to law enforcement organisations.

Email Forensics Analysis: Email forensics is the analysis of the origin and content of e-mail in order to determine the true sender and receiver of a message, the data/time of transmission, a thorough record of e-mail transactions, the sender's intention, etc. For authorship attribution and the detection of email frauds, this research investigates metadata, keyword searching, port scanning, etc. There are several methods used for email forensics, including:

Header Analysis: Information about the sender and/or the route the message has taken is included in the meta data in the email message that takes the form of control information, such as the envelope and headers, including headers in the message body. To hide the sender's identity, some of them might be spoofs. Header analysis carries out a thorough examination of these headers and their relationships.

Bait Tactics - In a bait strategy investigation, an email with an image source at a computer that is being watched by the investigators and a real (genuine) email address is sent to the sender of the email under examination. The IP address of the receiver (sender of the email under examination) is captured in a log entry when the email is viewed, which allows sender tracking on the http server hosting the image. Nevertheless, the IP address of the proxy server is noted if the receiver (sender of the email under examination) is using one. The sender of the email under examination may be found using the proxy server's log on feature. Investigators may use the method of sending an email with an embedded Java applet that runs on the recipient's PC or an HTML page with an Active X object if the proxy server's log is inaccessible for whatever reason both seeking to email the investigators the recipient's computer's IP address.

Server Investigation: In this investigation, server logs and copies of delivered emails are examined to determine the origin of an email message. As most servers (Proxy or ISP) keep a duplicate of every email after delivery, it is possible to request emails that have been deleted from clients (senders or recipients) and whose recovery is difficult. Moreover, the address of the machine responsible for sending the email may be found by looking through the servers' logs. Yet servers only save copies of emails and server logs for a certain amount of time, and some servers may not cooperate with the investigations. Also, it is possible to identify the

person behind an email address by using SMTP servers that retain information such as credit card numbers and other information belonging to the user of a mailbox.

Network Device Investigation: In this kind of e-mail investigation, the network devices, such as routers, firewalls, and switches, keep logs that are utilised to investigate the originator of an email. This kind of research is difficult and is only utilised when the logs of servers (Proxy or ISP) are unavailable for some reason, such as when the ISP or proxy does not retain a log, when ISPs do not cooperate, or when the chain of evidence is not maintained.

Software Embedded Identifiers: The email programme that the sender used to create the email may have included some information about the author of the message, any attached files, or any documents to the message. This data may be sent via unique headers or as MIME content in a transport-neutral encapsulation style (TNEF). It may be possible to learn important data about the sender's email preferences and settings by looking into the email for these specifics, which might aid in the client's collection of evidence. PST file names, Windows login usernames, MAC addresses, and other information about the client machine used to send email may all be discovered via research.

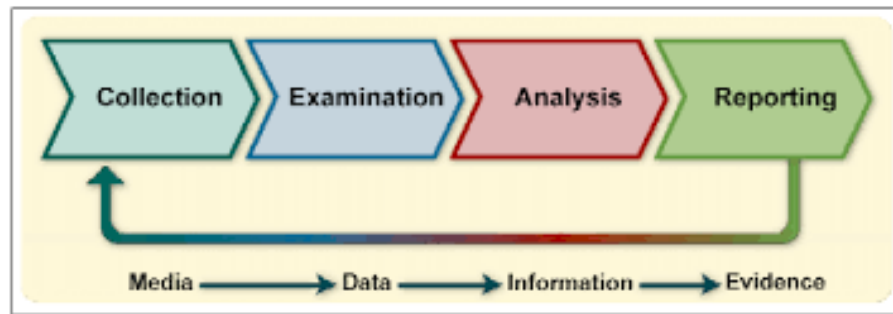
Sender Mailer Fingerprints: The Received header field may be used to identify the software processing e-mail at the server, while a distinct set of headers, such as "X- Mailer" or an equivalent, can be used to identify the software handling e-mail at the client. These headers list the programmes and their iterations that clients employ to send email. This information regarding the sender's client computer may be utilised to assist investigators come up with a good strategy, which will make it highly beneficial.

Forensics Tools by Email: An email may be deleted or erased without it necessarily being permanently lost. Even after deletion, emails are often recoverable using forensic methods. E-mail forensic tracing resembles classical detective work. It is used to get data out of mailbox files.

MiTec Mail Viewer: This programme allows you to read individual EML files as well as message databases from Mozilla Thunderbird, Windows Mail, and Windows Live Mail. As a standard email client, it presents a list of all enclosed messages together with all necessary characteristics. With the detailed view, messages may be seen together with attachments and an HTML preview. It can extract email addresses from all emails in an opened folder to a list with a single click and has robust searching and filtering capabilities. It is possible to save certain messages as eml files with or without their attachments. One command may extract attachments from a set of messages.

OST and PST Viewer - You may view OST and PST files without connecting to an MS Exchange server with the aid of Nucleus Technologies' OST and PST reader tools. The user may scan OST and PST files using these programmes, and they show the data stored within, including as email messages, contacts, calendars, notes, etc., in a neat organisational structure.

EmailTrackerPro - To identify the IP address of the device that sent the email, eMailTrackerPro examines the headers of the email. This allows the sender to be located. It can effortlessly keep track of and trace several emails at once. An IP addresses geographic location is crucial information for assessing the seriousness of a threat or the reliability of an email communication. EmailTracer is an initiative of the Resource Centre for Cyber Forensics (RCCF), a leading centre for cyber forensics in India, in the field of cyber forensics. It creates cyber forensic tools in accordance with the specifications of law enforcement organizations.

Digital forensics lifecycle:**Figure 12.1: Digital Forensics Lifecycle**

Identification and data collection from prospective sources are the initial steps in the forensic procedure as shown in the Figure 12.1.

Examination: When data has been gathered, the next step is to analyze the data, which entails evaluating and extracting the pertinent bits of information. The bypassing or mitigation of OS or application features like data compression, encryption, and access control measures that hide data and code may also be part of this phase.

Analysis: The analyst should examine and evaluate the data to develop conclusions when pertinent information has been retrieved. The cornerstone of forensics is using a systematic methodology to come to the right conclusions based on the information at hand or decide that no conclusion can yet be formed.

Reporting: The process of organising and delivering the data obtained during the analytical stage. Several elements influence reporting, such as the following:

Alternate Explanations: It may not be able to get to a conclusive explanation of what occurred when the facts surrounding an event is lacking. Each explanation should be given full weight in the reporting process when an occurrence has two or more reasonable ones. Analysts should use a thorough approach in their efforts to support or refute each put forward argument.

Consideration of the audience: It's crucial to understand who the data or information will be presented to.

Useful Knowledge: Reporting also involves finding information from data that may be used to take action and enable an analyst to find new information sources.

Offensive forensics research:

The scientific techniques used to solve crimes are called forensics. The goal of forensic investigation is to identify a suspect by collecting and examining all physical evidence linked to crimes. To determine how a crime occurred, investigators will examine blood, fluid, fingerprints, residue, hard drives, computers, or other technologies. Yet, this is just a generic description since there are several varieties of forensics.

Types of Forensics Investigations:Forensic accounting and auditing, computer forensics, crime scene forensics, forensic archaeology, forensic dentistry, forensic entomology, forensic graphology, forensic pathology, forensic psychology, forensic science, and forensic toxicology are among the forensic investigation types.

Computer Forensics Challenges: To facilitate the reconstruction of events that have been determined to be criminal, digital forensics is the application of scientifically developed and validated methods for the identification, gathering, preservation, validation, analysis, interpretation, and presentation of digital evidence derived from digital sources. However when it comes to actual application, these digital forensics investigative techniques confront some significant difficulties. According to Fahdi, Clark, and Furnell, there are three main categories for digital forensic challenges:

1. Technological difficulties
2. Legal difficulties
3. Resource Issues

Technical Difficulties: Criminal activity and criminals both advance along with technology. In the world of digital forensics, this process is known as anti-forensics technique and is regarded as a significant challenge. Digital forensic experts use forensic tools to gather scraps of evidence against criminals, and criminals use such tools to hide, alter, or remove the traces of their crime. The following sorts of anti-forensics approaches exist:

Encryption: It is lawfully used to protect data privacy by keeping it concealed from unauthorised users or people. Sadly, criminals may also utilise it to cover up their misdeeds.

Data concealing in storage space: Criminals often use system instructions and applications to conceal data chunks in invisible form within the storage media.

Covert Channel: A covert channel is a kind of communication protocol that enables an attacker to go around an intrusion detection system and conceal data on a network.

It was utilised by the attacker to conceal his relationship with the hacked system. Additional technical difficulties include: Working in the cloud, archiving data over time, a skill gap, and steganography

Legal difficulties: The presenting of digital evidence is more challenging than its acquisition because, as was the case in *Jagdeo Singh V.*, the court system often adopts a lax attitude and does not fully accept cyber forensics. "While dealing with the admissibility of an intercepted telephone call in a CD and CDR which was without a certificate under Sec. 65B of the Indian Evidence Act, 1872, the court observed that the secondary electronic evidence without certificate u/s. 65B of Indian Evidence Act, 1872 is not admissible and cannot be looked into by the court for any purpose whatsoever," the Hon'ble High Court of Delhi ruled in the *State and Ors* case. This occurs in the majority of instances because the cyber police lack the credentials and skills required to locate potential sources of evidence and establish their veracity. Also, the integrity of electronic evidence is often contested in court. The gathering and acquisition of electronic evidence is disregarded in itself in the absence of suitable rules and the lack of a sufficient explanation.

Legal Obstacles

Lack of norms and guidelines: There are no appropriate rules for gathering and acquiring digital evidence in India. The forensic labs and investigation authorities are developing their own set of criteria. The potential of digital evidence has been lost as a result.

Indian Evidence Act of 1872: Limitation: The Indian Evidence Act of 1872 has a constrained approach, is unable to change with the times, and does not adequately handle the E-evidence, which is more prone to manipulation, modification, transposition, etc. The Act makes no

mention of how electronic evidence is gathered; instead, it simply addresses how it must be presented in court together with a certificate in accordance with Section 65B, paragraph 4. This implies that regardless of the process used, it must be verified with the use of a certificate.

Additional legal issues:

1. Privacy Concerns
2. Court Acceptability
3. Preservation of Electronic Evidence
4. Ability to Collect Digital Evidence
5. Evaluating a Running Computer

Resources Issues: Since digital evidence is more vulnerable than physical evidence and is quickly lost, the load on a digital forensic specialist to assess such vast amounts of data is growing as the prevalence of crime rises. Forensic professionals employ a variety of technologies to verify the validity of the data in order to make the investigation process efficient and effective, but using these tools is also difficult in and of itself.

Several challenges with resources include:

Technological development: Since new versions of software do not support older versions and software development companies did not provide any backward compatibles, reading digital evidence is becoming more challenging due to the rapid change in technology, including operating systems, application software, and hardware. This change also has an impact on the law.

Replication and volume: Electronic document integrity, secrecy, and accessibility can all readily be compromised. Wide-area networks and the internet work together to create a huge network that enables data to move beyond physical boundaries. Due to the ease of communication and accessibility of electronic documents, there is a surge in the amount of data, making it more challenging to find the original and relevant material.

CHAPTER 13

ISSUES IN CYBER-PHYSICAL SECURITY

Jayanthi Kannan

Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

Email Id: -k.jayanthi@jainuniversity.ac.in

Cybersecurity challenges have the potential to become one of the major problems of our day. The US President remarked that "America's economic success in the twenty-first century would rely on cyber-security" in 2009, describing cyber-threats as among "the most significant economic and national security challenges we confront as a country." In January 2012, the US Director of National Intelligence testified before the Committee on Homeland Security's Subcommittee on Oversight, Investigations, and Management that cyber threats are a serious threat to both national and economic security.

On October 11, 2012, the US Secretary of Defense said that assaults on our country's vital infrastructure might collectively lead to "a cyber-Pearl Harbor; an attack that would bring physical harm and the loss of lives," underscoring the significance of these threats. A number of studies have been carried out by the US Government Accountability Office (GAO) in an effort to identify and document the US's susceptibility to cyber threats. The US GAO reported in 2013 that there are more sophisticated threats to the government computer systems that support critical infrastructure. These issues affect governments all across the globe, as will be discussed.

To strengthen the cyber security of US critical infrastructure (CI), the US President signed Executive Order 13636 in February 2013. The order sought to improve the security and resilience of US CI through voluntary and cooperative efforts, which included developing a process for identifying CI that have a high priority for protection, requiring the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) to develop a Cybersecurity Framework, and expanding an existing Department of Homeland Security (DHS) programme for information sharing and collaboration between the government and the private sector.

Policymakers are becoming more concerned about cyberthreats to American infrastructure and other assets. In the US, information and communications technology (ICT) is spreading across society and many of its gadgets and other parts are dependent on one another. As a result, if one component is disrupted, it might have a detrimental, domino impact on others. Cyberattacks may include data manipulation, theft, or denial of service. A cyber-based assault that damages essential infrastructure might have a big effect on the economy, residents' livelihoods, and national security. It is obvious that cyber security concerns entail not just physical risks to CI but also dangers related to information technology.

Some examples of cyber-aggressors include: State-sponsored and non-state entities who use cyberattacks as a form of hostilities, or cyber-terrorists. Cyberspies who steal confidential or proprietary data from businesses or governments in order to acquire a strategic, financial, or political advantage. Cybercriminals used unauthorised cyberattacks to their financial advantage. Cyber-warriors who create capabilities and launch cyber-attacks in support of a nation-strategic state's goals. These individuals are agents or quasi-agents of nation-states. Cyber-hacktivists who carry out cyber-attacks for fun, as a form of expression, or for other non-monetary causes.

Despite the fact that CI is seriously threatened by cyberthreats, there has been discussion over the US government's involvement in what is now known as cyber security for more than ten years. The political system in the US is one of the factors limiting action at the Federal level to safeguard CI. In the US, state and municipal governments have traditionally been the main organisations in charge of serving their respective populations. The US Constitution also establishes a division of powers between the federal and state governments. In order to address this crucial issue, the National Governors Association (NGA), a non-partisan group that represents the interests of the 50 states and trust territories, is acting. So, governments in nations without the same degree of political power separation as the US may be able to take a more comprehensive strategy to cyber security. The next part will cover some of the issues raised by this duality of obligations as well as approaches used by other governments that have been successful in addressing cyber security issues at the state, provincial, and municipal levels.

Difficulties in Cybersecurity: The vulnerability of US social and governmental operations to cyber-threats has been thoroughly studied by the US GAO. These analyses indicate that advanced persistent threats (APTs) present rising concerns in the US and throughout the globe. APTs happen when the adversary has high levels of knowledge and enough resources to consistently pursue their goals over a long period of time. Foreign military or organised international criminals may carry out these goals. Increasing and changing dangers have the potential to have an impact on every aspect of society, including people, small businesses, governmental organisations, and other organisations.

Governmental systems and networks, including military systems, as well as commercial enterprises that assist government operations or maintain essential infrastructure are all targets of national security threats to intellectual property and business, such as collecting confidential information intellectual property owned by private businesses, governments, or people with the intention of making money from it. Unauthorized exposure of personally identifiable information, such as taxpaying information, Social Security numbers, credit and debit card information, or medical records, results from threats against specific persons. Individuals may suffer damage as a result of the exposure of such information, including identity theft, monetary loss, and shame. The following risks are typical:

A bot-network administrator who utilises a bot-net, or network of hacked, remotely controlled computers, to coordinate assaults and disseminate spam campaigns, malware attacks, and phishing schemes. Terrorist organisations that target systems to steal money. In particular, spam, phishing, and spyware/malware are used by organized criminal gangs to accomplish identity theft, online fraud, and computer extortion. Multinational corporate spies and criminal groups that engage in industrial espionage, massive financial theft, and the recruitment or training of hacker talent. Hackers who breach into networks for a variety of motives, including the excitement of the challenge, bragging rights in the hacking community, retaliation, stalking, financial gain, and political activism. Hackers may now begin attacks on target sites by downloading attack scripts and protocols from the Internet. Attack tools have improved greatly in sophistication and usability.

An unhappy employee of a company, which is the main cause of computer crime. Contractors employed by the company as well as negligent or undertrained staff members who could unintentionally introduce malware into systems are all examples of insider threats. Countries that engage in information-gathering and information-sharing operations using cyber technologies. Phishers—individuals or small organisations that use phishing techniques to steal peoples' identities or personal information in order to profit financially. To achieve their goals, phishers may also utilise spam, spyware, or malware. Spammers, who are people or

businesses that send unsolicited emails with concealed or incorrect information in an effort to advertise goods, carry out phishing scams, disseminate spyware or malware, or target businesses (e.g., a denial of service). Authors of spyware or malware, who are people or entities with malicious intent who employ the creation and distribution of spyware and malware to harm victims. Terrorists who aim to destroy, disable, or exploit vital infrastructure in order to jeopardise national security, result in a large number of deaths, undermine the economy, and undermine public morale and confidence.

Cyber-based assaults may lead to the compromise of confidential data, harm to the economy and national security, loss of privacy, identity theft, or destruction of intellectual property. Federal agency in the US revealed that there were much more cyber security incidents during the years of 2006 and 2012 than there were before. The U.S. Computer Emergency Readiness Team (US-CERT) reports that over this time, these occurrences climbed by 782%, from 5503 to 48,562.

The examples below from the news media and other public sources, which are based on US experience, show that a wide range of information and assets remain at risk: In 2008, at a US military facility in the Middle East, an infected flash drive was successfully used to breach sensitive data belonging to the US Department of Defense (DOD). The flash drive included malicious software that was installed into the military network by a foreign intelligence agency and propagated across both classified and unclassified systems. The Deputy Secretary of Defense said that at the time, this incident represented the biggest hack of US military systems. For a US military contractor, this intrusion yielded data on network authentication tokens. Attackers compromised the contractor's security systems in May 2011 by using this information to create false network authentication tokens and steal critical military and weaponry data.

A research scientist with the DuPont Company downloaded confidential data to a personal e-mail account and thumb drive in the middle of 2009 with the purpose of sending it to Peking University in China. The chemist also applied for money from the Chinese government to do research based on the data he had stolen. In March 2011, a person was convicted of releasing source code that had been taken from the corporation he worked for in America. According to the inquiry, a Chinese business paid the person \$1.5 million to write the source code for a control system using the American company's design.

In February 2012, the inspector general of the US National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) testified that computers with Internet protocol addresses with Chinese origins had acquired complete access to crucial systems at its Jet Propulsion Laboratory. Attackers have access to mission-critical laboratory systems, confidential files, user accounts for those systems, and tools for uploading hacking tools to infiltrate other NASA networks and steal user passwords (Martin 2012).

Attackers gained access to a server at the Utah Department of Health in March 2012 that included thousands of Medicaid information (USA). The identities of Medicaid beneficiaries and Children's Health Insurance Plan members were exposed in the incident. In addition, the Social Security numbers of almost 280,000 persons were made public. Approximately 123,000 participants in the US Government's Thrift Saving Plan (TSP) had their personal information obtained as a consequence of the hack. The board said that the data contained the names, residences, and Social Security numbers of 43,587 people as well as the Social Security numbers of 79,614 people and other TSP-related details.

Other personal information, such as names, birth dates, and residences, may have been taken from the 350,000 individuals named in the eligibility enquiries. A data breach that exposed

the credit and debit card account information for as many as 1.5 million accounts in North America was announced by Atlanta-based Global Payments in March 2012. Global Payments supplied notifications and intended to pay for credit monitoring for people whose personal information was at danger even though it did not think any personal information had been stolen.

The following are three dramatic incidents that demonstrate the possibility of cyber-attacks on vital infrastructure:

Stuxnet, a malicious program that steadily destroyed the centrifuges of Iran's Natanz nuclear enrichment facility. It altered the centrifuges' programming on the Programmable Logic Controllers (PLCs), which made them spin erratically. It had to spread covertly within air-gapped networks to achieve that purpose. The virus was most likely installed in late 2007; by the end of 2010, the worm had infected over 100,000 hosts across dozens of. A computer specialist who was turned down for a position with the local government in the Australian state of Queensland (Maroochy Shire) decided to get even by hacking into the city's wastewater management system. Before investigators could pin the crime on him, he ordered computers to release hundreds of thousands of gallons of untreated sewage into nearby rivers, parks, and public spaces over a two-month period.

More than 600,000 houses in Eastern Ukraine lost electricity in late December 2015, and Russia was suspected of being the attacker. Both the security agency and the government of Ukraine attributed the assault to Russia. The CIA, National Security Agency, and Department of Homeland Security experts are looking into whether malware samples found on the company's network suggest that the blackout was the result of hacking and if Russia is to blame. Supposedly having samples of the malicious code that allegedly damaged three of the region's power firms and resulted in "destructive occurrences," researchers from a private global security firm made the assertion. The perpetrators of the assault have been identified as "the Sandworm gang," which is said to have attacked European industry, NATO, Ukraine, and Poland in 2014.

Cyber-attacks are a growing menace, and the FBI considers combating cyber-crime to be one of its top priorities. According to President Barack Obama's recently proposed budget, spending on cyber security would rise dramatically, Duties for US federal information security as defined by law and policy. The Federal Information Security Management Act (FISMA) of 2002 in the United States charges organisations including the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), the National Institute of Science and Technology (NIST), and Inspectors General with specific cyber security duties. A comprehensive risk-based framework for ensuring the efficacy of information security controls over information resources that support federal operations and assets is among the many components of the information security programme that each agency is required to develop, document, and implement under the terms of FISMA. Some laws provide federal agencies broad authority, which may include responsibility for cyber security. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), for instance, is in charge of investigating and prosecuting crimes, including cybercrimes. Additional laws cover duties connected to maintaining national security, such as those of the national intelligence and military agencies. They may also include risks to national security posed by cyberspace.

Under FISMA, NIST is responsible for creating security standards and guidelines, such as those for classifying information and information systems according to different risk levels, establishing minimum security standards for such systems, handling information security incidents, and identifying information systems as national security systems.

Like OMB rules, NIST standards and recommendations do not apply to national security systems. The Cyber Security Research and Development Act also gives NIST related duties, such as creating a list of options and establishing choices to reduce security risks connected with widely used computer hardware and software inside the federal government (Pub. L. No. 107-305). Also, each agency's inspector general is mandated under FISMA to yearly assess the agency's information security policies and procedures. Under FISMA, OMB has given the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) five specific tasks (US GAO 2013)

Monitoring agency compliance with FISMA, monitoring agency cyber security operations and incident response, and assessing agency yearly cyber security strategies are all parts of the government's attempts to ensure appropriate, risk-based, and cost-effective cyber security.

The US government has issued a number of directives and legislative measures pertaining to cyber security. The responsibility for protecting essential infrastructures, which are mostly controlled by the private sector and municipal governments, has been delegated to federal authorities. The Development of US Federal Policy: Many publications have addressed the US government policy to handle cyber security challenges, but no comprehensive, integrated strategy has yet been created (US GAO 2013). Without a comprehensive plan, the government has little capacity to assess its success in achieving its goals and to hold important entities responsible for carrying out scheduled operations (US GAO 2013).

The US Federal government's involvement in what is now known as cyber security has been disputed for more than ten years, but due to the country's political system, it is restricted and must be treated with caution.

The National Governors Association (NGA) has made significant progress in tackling cyber security challenges in an effort to overcome the constitutional gaps that exist in the US. The National Governors Association (NGA) was established in 1908 and is made up of the governors of the US states, territories, and commonwealths. The group, which represents the country's governors on topics of national policy and enables them to exchange best practises and coordinate interstate projects, is nonpartisan. With the NGA, governors may formulate new ideas that strengthen state governance and uphold federalism's guiding principles while also speaking with one voice on national policy (<http://www.nga.org/cms/about>). The NGA has recently concentrated on state and local level cyber security challenges.

The US National Governors Association's activities: Several services offered by State and municipal governments that are different are susceptible to cyber-threats. In order to safeguard the capacity of the federal, state, and local governments to carry out their essential duties, the NGA has issued a statement on the significance of cyberspace security (Crouch and McKee 2011). "Due to the breadth and depth of the state involvement in entitlement programmes, enabling travel and trade, regulatory supervision, licencing, and citizen services, governments receive, process, store, and exchange enormous quantities of personal information," the statement reads. The states are the hub of a person's identification information from birth to death. As a result, both internal and foreign cyber-attacks target the nations as key targets. Several federally sponsored programs are managed by state and local governments.

The number of susceptible services has increased as a result of the usage of online technology to facilitate government activities. A number of examples were offered by Crouch and McKee (2011) to show how vulnerable municipal and state services are to cyberattacks. For instance, more and more people are using the Internet to renew their driver's licences, register their vehicles, vote in elections, pay their energy bills, and sign up for locally offered recreational activities. To communicate and carry out important command and control duties,

first responders supplied by municipal, county, and state governments, such as firefighters, police, ambulance services, and the National Guard, usually rely on cyber-based technology.

In November 2010, hackers from what is thought to be Russia stole \$200,000 in electronic financial transfers meant for Gregg County, Texas, governments and schools. It's thought that the Zeus Trojan "King of the Bots" sent through e-mail corrupted a county computer. Gregg County has switched back to using paper checks and deposit slips for money transfers. From July 2010 to July 2011, Poplar Bluff, Missouri, saw an upsurge in hacker attempts to interfere with municipal utility systems. The FBI was asked by the city to look into the situation.

In April 2010, assailants severed eight fibre cables in Morgan Hill, California Hill, about 70 miles south of San Francisco. This caused a significant disruption in Morgan Hill and portions of three neighbouring counties. In the wake of the attack, emergency 911 service, mobile phone functionality, land-line telephone, digital subscriber line (DSL) internet, private networks, central station fire and burglar alarms, automated teller machines (ATMs), credit card terminals, and monitoring of crucial utilities were all lost.

From 2006 to 2010, the state of Colorado received reports of 43 cyber security issues, according to an audit the state performed. The number was larger, in the opinion of the auditors, and some known cases were unreported. As a result, the NGA has said that governors should prioritise addressing cyber security at the state and municipal levels. Governors may take precautions to safeguard their jurisdictions against the more frequent and sophisticated assaults on communication networks and systems, according to a white paper published by the NGA. Data bases storing private and sensitive information, financial, payment, and tax systems, and other essential cyber infrastructure are some of these systems.

The following actions are suggested for the different States: Create a plan to protect the State's cyber security resources in the near future. Establishing a strategic awareness of the state's cyber security risk profile, including current threats and the available workforce capability, would be included in this stage. Making a decision about hiring, training, or outsourcing cyber security management. Assessing the cyber security expertise of governmental personnel examine job postings, income and compensation information, and state workers to gauge the availability of cyber security professionals in the state.

With training and human resource policy, increase employee quality and retention. Upcoming Activities: Long-term support for the training of cyber security professionals should be provided through aligning state workforce and education initiatives. Designate computer science as a STEM subject (science, technology, engineering, and math). Examine how well instructors and educational institutions are able to satisfy the demands of the cyber security profession. Students should get training for the numerous cyber security jobs via the community college system.

Use collaborations between the commercial sector and academic organisations. According to Saporito (2014), the governors may make significant progress in resolving cyber security issues if they heed the aforementioned short- and long-term suggestions. The NGA has also taken the lead in establishing fusion centres, which are owned and run by state and local governments and act as hubs for receiving, analysing, and exchanging threat-related information amongst state, municipal, federal, tribal, and territorial partners (Blute 2015). After 9/11, fusion centres were established to help public safety organisations share information more easily in order to stop terrorist attacks, safeguard civilians, and handle emergencies. In 2016, there are 78 centres, of which 25 are owned and run by large metropolitan areas, and 53 by governments and territories. Professionals from law enforcement, homeland security, fire, emergency response, public health agencies, and

members of the commercial sector often staff fusion centres. They have concentrated on issues including anti-terrorist operations, emergency preparedness, disaster management, defence of vital infrastructure, and drug trafficking. While organizationally unique, there are attempts being made to better coordinate and promote cooperation across all of the country's fusion centres. These initiatives seek to create plans for bridging jurisdictional divides, as well as to improve communication about and reaction to the threat environment.

Some groups that may help with the endeavour to secure the internet include (Saporito 2014): Information sharing and analysis organisations (ISAOs), which were established to exchange and examine data pertaining to new cyberthreats and vulnerabilities. Sector-specific information sharing and analysis centres (ISACs), organisations established by the owners and operators of essential infrastructure to aid in information exchange within particular sectors. The Multi-State Information Sharing and Analysis Center (MSISAC) assists in gathering, exchanging, and analysing cyber security information among states. They provide risk reduction, incident response, alert, and information sharing.

The Integrated Intelligence Center (IIC), whose mission is to make sure that prompt dissemination and sharing of actionable cyber security information with fusion centres. The National Cybersecurity and Communications Integration Center (NCCIC), which offers the federal government, the intelligence community, and law enforcement constant cyber situational awareness, incident response, and management. To "lower the incidence and severity of events that may materially threaten the security and resilience of the Nation's vital information technology and communications networks," according to its mission statement. It is clear that a lot of study is being done and a lot of work is in progress to better understand and defend against the susceptibility of state, municipal, provincial, and local government to cyber-attacks. The following sections examine a few of these studies.

CHAPTER 14

DATA SECURITIES AND MANAGEMENT

Deepak K Sinha

Professor, Department of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.

Email Id: -sk.deepak@jainuniversity.ac.in

Data security is the term for safeguards against illegal access to computers, databases, and websites that are implemented in the digital sphere. Data corruption is also prevented via data security. Organizations of all sizes and types prioritise data security. Information security (IS) and computer security are other names for data security. Data backups, data masking, data erasure, and software/hardware disc encryption are a few examples of data security technology. Scrambling, which makes digital data, software/hardware, and hard drives unreadable to unauthorised users and hackers, is a crucial data protection technological measure. Health advocates and medical professionals in the U.S. and other nations are working to implement electronic medical records (EMR) privacy by raising awareness about patient rights related to the release of data to laboratories, doctors, hospitals, and other medical facilities. Data security is also crucial for health care records.

Data protection is delivered throughout the company via data security and privacy. The people, procedures, and technology needed to thwart negative forces and undesirable behaviours are collectively comprised of them. Data privacy and security are necessities, not nice-to-haves. More than 50 worldwide legal and industrial requirements, as well as company executives, call for them. Now is the time to protect customer, business, personally identifiable information (PII), and other types of sensitive data against internal and external threats. With 2.5 quintillion bytes of data created every day and the average cost of security-related incidents in the era of big data estimated to be over USD40 million, Whether it is in databases, apps, or reports in both production and non-production contexts, data should always be safeguarded. Data is the unprocessed form of information that is kept in our databases, network servers, and personal computers in columns and rows. The material might vary widely, from private documents and intellectual property to market research and top-secret secrets. All interesting information that can be read or otherwise comprehended in human form is considered data.

Some of this data, meanwhile, is not meant to be removed from the system. The bigger organisation or even the individual home user might experience a wide range of issues as a result of unlawful access to this data. Just as harmful as the system administrator who was recently robbed of the customer information in their database is having your bank account information taken. Data security has received a lot of attention recently, partly due to the internet. Your data may be locked down using a variety of methods, including hardware and software programmes. Indeed, computer users are more cautious now, but how safe is your data? Your sensitive information may be at danger if you don't adhere to the fundamental rules.

With the advent of the Information Age, data can now be shared, stored, and sent instantly. The tricky side of this equation is that it may be challenging to safeguard the transmission and storage of sensitive data across computer systems, which heightens the need for caution.

In the realm of paper, we may simply safeguard a document that is labelled "classified" or "Confidential" by laying it face. Back in the summer of 2013, Google came under fire for keeping user login data such as usernames and passwords in plaintext without any kind of security. Others felt that this was a serious security risk that might have been easily avoided, for as by creating a master password to safeguard the data. Others including Google made the point that in order to access the data, local access was necessary, and if local access was provided, the machine was compromised in any case, opening up more attack routes. Another comparable bug in Google Chrome was found a few days ago by security research firm Identity Finder. The company's research indicates that Chrome keeps sensitive data typed on https websites and services in the browser cache as plaintext. Due to the secure nature of the connection, many people hold the misconception that browsers do not cache https sites and data. Nevertheless, it should be emphasised that https contents may be cached. This totally relies on the response headers of a website or server (that are transferred to the web browser). Web browsers will cache HTTPS data if the caching headers let it.

Chrome and private data: Identity Finder found that Chrome was saving a variety of private data in its cache, including email addresses, phone numbers, credit card numbers, social security numbers, and more. The business affirmed that these details were input on secure websites and that they could be quickly and readily recovered from the cache using search tools that can search any kind of file for plaintext information. As the data in the cache is not encrypted, anybody with access to it may retrieve the data. This does not necessarily imply local access, since social engineering techniques as well as malicious software installed on a user's computer might have the same effects. Whether the computer is sent to a repair shop, sent to the manufacturer, or sold on eBay or Craigslist, third parties may get access to sensitive data that the browser has saved.

How can your data be shielded from this? Google wants you to encrypt your whole hard drive. It resolves the local access problem, but it does nothing to protect against malware or social engineering attempts. That would be equivalent to claiming that website administrators may store passwords in plaintext in the database since, whether locally or remotely, gaining access to the server is already a victory. The only thing you can do with Chrome is routinely erase the cache, auto fill form data, and browsing history, ideally shortly after entering sensitive information in the browser. In order to automatically erase the data after you quit the browser, you must use a third-party application or plugin and cannot automate the process using Chrome alone.

Various browsers if you don't use Google Chrome, you may be wondering whether your browser also retains sensitive data in unencrypted. Identity Finder only examined the cache of Google Chrome. Firefox, the king of browser customization, allows you to turn off SSL caching in the advanced settings.

Data governance (DG) is the term used to describe how a company manages the availability, usefulness, integrity, and security of its data. A strong data governance programme has a council or governing body, well defined processes, and a strategy for carrying out those procedures. Identifying the owners or custodians of the enterprise's data assets is the first step in implementing a data governance programme. The responsibility for different parts or features of the data, such as its correctness, accessibility, consistency, completeness, and update, must be outlined in a policy. It is necessary to describe the procedures for archiving, backing up, securing against theft or assault, and storing data. The appropriate personnel's usage of the data must be outlined in a set of standards and procedures. The establishment of controls and auditing mechanisms that guarantee continued adherence to legal requirements is the last step.

Areas of Emphasis for Data Governance Concentrate on Data Quality Usually, problems with data quality, integrity, or usability lead to the creation of this kind of application. A business team that requires higher-quality data may sponsor it. Alternatively, a Data Quality group may. (Take data acquisition or mergers and acquisitions, for instance.) Data Quality software, which may be utilised by business personnel, technical staff, data stewards, data governance teams, or others, is virtually always a component of these sorts of projects.

Master data sets, sensitive data, acquired data, and information of concern to stakeholder groups. Participants in this kind of program may be held responsible by a charter for the following: Set direction for Data Quality Gather Data Quality rules from throughout the organisation into a set that stakeholders, Data Stewards, and other Data Governance participants can access Reconcile gaps, overlaps, and inconsistencies in Data Quality rules Monitor Data Quality Report status for quality-focused initiatives Identify stakeholders.

Data governance initiatives differ from one another. On the contrary, applications might make use of the same architecture and methods while yet coming off as completely distinct. A company that is worried about installing a new data warehouse would see its data differently from one that is worried about data privacy or compliance. They all use most or all of the common elements of a Data Governance programme. They all contain activities that fulfil a three-part governance mission: to set rules, resolve disputes, and offer continuous services.

They all speak to services and procedures for universal government, such problem-solving and caring for stakeholders everyone who could have an impact on or be influenced by the data under consideration. The business groups, IT teams, data architects, and DBAs are some examples of obvious stakeholders. Additional parties involved in a choice or circumstance may not be immediately apparent. It is the duty of the Data Governance team to know which stakeholders to include and when.

Areas of Emphasis for Data Governance Concentrate on Security, Compliance, and Privacy: Usually, worries regarding compliance with Data Information Security rules lead to the creation of this kind of programme. In this sense, compliance might relate to following contractual obligations, complying with regulations, or adhering to internal standards.

The programme is nearly always the consequence of a directive from upper management. It might be an extension of a Governance, Risk, and Compliance (GRC) programme or it could be officially supported by Business or IT. While these projects often start with an enterprise scope, sometimes their efforts are restricted to certain categories of data. Technologies that find sensitive data, safeguard data, and/or administer rules or controls are virtually usually included.

Participants in this type of programme may be held to the following obligations by a charter: Identify sensitive data across systems; Align governance, compliance, security, and technology frameworks and initiatives; Assess risk and define data-related controls to manage risk; and Assist in enforcing contractual, architectural, and regulatory compliance obligations. Meet criteria for Access Management and Security. Determine decision rights, specify accountabilities, and identify stakeholder's general advice on network security. The following basic security recommendations apply to all networks in homes and small offices:

Ensure that your PC is current: Turn on automatic upgrading on every machine in your network to make it safer. Windows may set up critical updates alone, vital updates plus suggested updates, or both. Critical upgrades provide important advantages, such increased security and dependability. Updates that are suggested might fix minor issues and improve

your computer experience. Updates that are optional are not downloaded or put in place automatically. Use a firewall via a network or the Internet, a firewall may aid in preventing hackers or harmful software (such as worms) from accessing your computer. A firewall may assist in preventing the transmission of harmful software from your computer to other computers. Install antivirus program on every computer: Firewalls aid in thwarting hackers and worms, but they aren't designed to guard against viruses, so you should set up and utilise antivirus software. Viruses may be found in files obtained from the Internet, files on CDs or DVDs, or attachments in email messages. Ensure that your antivirus program is up to date and that it is configured to check your computer often.

Antivirus software is widely accessible. You may download the free antivirus application Security Essentials from the Microsoft Security Essentials website. To locate a third-party antivirus product, you may also visit the Windows Security software page. To share an Internet connection, use a router: To share an Internet connection, take into account utilizing a router. These devices often include network address translation (NAT), firewalls, and other security features that may help keep your network more secure from hackers. Avoid remaining an administrator: We advise you to log in as a normal user account rather than an administrator account when using software that needs Internet connectivity, such as a web browser or email application. This is due to the fact that many viruses and worms need administrator privileges to be stored and operated on your computer.

Advisory on wireless network security: There are certain extra security measures you should take if your network is wireless. Making use of a network security key If your network is wireless, you need configure a network security key to enable encryption. Without the security key, users cannot connect to your network while it is encrypted. Moreover, every data transferred through your network is encrypted, making it accessible only to devices that have the proper key. This may prevent unauthorised attempts to access your network and data. It is advised to use Wi-Fi Protected Access (WPA or WPA2) for wireless network encryption.

Modify the router or access point's default administrator username and password: If you have a router or access point, you presumably set it up with a default username and password. The majority of manufacturers provide the same default username and password for all of their products, making it possible for unauthorised users to get into your router or access point. Change your router's default administrator user name and password to eliminate that danger. For information on how to modify the name and password on your device, see the documentation that came with it.

Modify the SSID by default: A service set identification is the name of the wireless network that is used by routers and access points (SSID). For all of their routers and access points, the majority of manufacturers utilize the same SSID. To prevent your wireless network from interfering with any other wireless networks that could be utilising the default SSID, we advise you to change it. As the SSID is often shown in the list of accessible networks, it is simpler for you to determine which wireless network is yours if there are many nearby. For information on how to modify the default SSID on your device, see to the documentation that came with it.

Be cautious while placing your router or access point. A few hundred feet is the maximum distance that wireless transmissions may travel, therefore the signal from your network may be disseminated outside of your house. By placing your router or access point nearer to the middle of your house rather than next to an outside wall or window, you may assist reduce the area that your wireless signal covers. You must set up an administrator account when

installing Windows for the first time. The greatest power over the computer, the software you install, and anyone else may use it is provided by an administrator account. Create normal user accounts for additional users using your administrator account.

A distinct standard user account for each user allows you to log in to a customised experience if you share your home computer with others, such as your kids, spouse, or parents. Although your teenage kid could have a scrolling backdrop of customised hot cars, you might change your desktop wallpaper to a photo from your Hawaii trip or the opposite. Each user's rights to access various files and applications or modify computer settings are likewise determined by their user accounts. Every individual who often uses your computer need to have their own standard account so they may personalise it without affecting other users. User accounts: commonly asked questions have further details.

A firm warning about passwords: One of the simplest methods to help safeguard your computer from hackers, your kids, or any other unauthorised user is to set a password. A computer password is a barrier between unauthorised users and your user account, just as your debit card PIN is a barrier between bad guys and your bank account. See *Secure your computer with a password* for additional information.

Make your password challenging for others to decipher or guess when selecting one. My sister and I quickly worked out that my dad's password was only the letter "A," so we quickly changed his desktop for maximum amusement (from us) and maximum frustration (Dad). Your name, the name of your pet, or your date of birth aren't the ideal password choices since strong passwords shouldn't be too apparent. See *Tips for building strong passwords and passphrases* for further information.

Another tool to manage substantial modifications to your computer is Windows' User Account Control (UAC) function. UAC alerts you whenever you attempt to make a modification that needs administrator authorization, such as installing new software or altering Windows settings. You are asked to confirm the modification if you are using an administrator account. Before the change is performed, standard users are requested to provide an administrator password.

Defend your computer from internet dangers: The aforementioned advice may help safeguard your computer from security blunders at home, but while utilising the Internet, you need take additional security measures. Have a solid security strategy, maintain it up to date, and use some common sense on a daily basis.

Make use of security software: Consider Windows Firewall as a line of defence between your machine and any Internet marauders (or uninvited spammers). Windows Firewall monitors data entering and leaving your machine. The information is passed through if it seems secure. A firewall may assist in blocking information if it looks to originate from a dubious source or contains harmful software (such as a worm or virus). If your computer has already been infected, a firewall can also help stop it from spreading to other computers. Windows Firewall is enabled by default, but if you're using a public network like an airport or coffee shop, you may opt to restrict all incoming connections to your computer or to let just specified programs—like instant messaging—through the firewall. See *Understanding Windows Firewall settings* for further details.

Spyware may annoy you by showing pop-up advertisements or putting annoying toolbars and links in your web browser, or it may covertly gather information about you and how you use your computer and distribute it to third parties. Use a tool like Windows Defender that fights spyware to help safeguard your computer. Moreover, Windows Defender is on by default and

has the ability to check your computer for malware to either delete it or notify you when new spyware attempts to install itself. Go to Using Windows Defender for additional details.

Using antivirus software will allow you to stop damaging malware by scanning emails and other files for them. While Trojan horses, worms, and viruses may not necessarily reveal your personal information to outsiders, they may nonetheless erase crucial files and cause your computer to run slowly or even crash. Most viruses may also reproduce and spread themselves through email to all of your contacts, making it simple to turn your address book's friends into adversaries to contribute to its avoidance. Visit the Microsoft Security Essentials website to download Microsoft Security Essentials, a free antivirus application from Microsoft.

Keep an eye on and revise your security plan: Bad people are vigilant; thus, the effectiveness of your security software depends on how recent it is. Yet the new Action Center in Windows 7 makes it simpler to monitor security updates and to set them to take place automatically.

Data Security Management: Data security management is a technique for preserving the integrity of data and ensuring that it is neither accessible to or subject to corruption by unauthorised parties. Data security is implemented in addition to securing this data to guarantee privacy. Data is a basic kind of information that is kept in the form of columns and rows on network servers and maybe on personal computers. Personal files, intellectual property, and even top-secret information might all be included in this data. Everything that humans can comprehend and evaluate may be called data.

The protection of customer or business data has long been emphasized since the internet is a developing phenomenon. Although while computer users are increasingly pushed to adopt some kind of data protection, they do tend to be a little bit more mindful of their information with time. Data security techniques may be obtained by using certain hardware or software processes. A person without access may not be able to decrypt or understand some information. This data are encrypted using mathematical sequences and algorithms that Jumble up the data. Only an authorised entity with a key is able to decipher this unintelligible text thanks to encryption. Any information can only be accessed by those who have this key. Another method of protecting data that should be used for more frequent access is authentication. A user only has access to an email account, bank account, etc. after entering the correct key or password. Using data security software is the most popular way to keep data secure. This programme provides a range of settings and prevents unauthorised individuals from accessing confidential information. Some of these choices include making email accounts sign-on-required, rewriting software, and having remote control over security settings. IP security may also be used to secure data. This implies that information may be shielded from hackers while being transported.

The fact that there are so many organisations that hackers want to target and compromise is one of the main justifications for data protection. Large firms often need data protection, while smaller ones typically have fewer infrastructures and less at risk should a hack occur. There may be preventive actions to further safeguard the data, depending on the services and content that must be secured. Windows Rights Management Services (RMS), for instance, may be configured to limit the receiver of an email's ability to read, view, modify, copy, or save the email; similar settings can also be used to specify a document's expiry date.

It is feasible to provide varying levels of access to various persons by keeping data safe. Sales representatives, for instance, may access their sales databases. Keeping track of data is simple when a single server (or storage site) is set up for it, and various access levels are given to the appropriate people. It facilitates data maintenance and, if necessary, enables a speedy transfer

to another storage place. Data security software may also be used to create secure websites that restrict access to data files to authorised individuals.

Management of Corporate Data Quality: The Framework for Corporate Data Quality Management is described in this section (CDQM). It aids businesses in analysing and assessing solutions for missing opportunities and untapped CDQM potential. It is based on the EFQM Excellence Model, which is utilised by more than 30,000 firms worldwide, and it offers businesses the chance to organise CDQM operations by using a method that has been shown to be effective.

The Framework can also be applied in a number of ways, including as a tool for benchmarking against other organisations, a manual for identifying problem areas and raising awareness of corporate data quality, a common language and way of thinking, and a framework for the development of CDQM capabilities. The Framework for CDQM is aimed at professionals in organisations that manage corporate data quality as well as those people who benefit from it. Viewpoint from the Business on Corporate Data Quality Businesses have a variety of drivers that need to be addressed, and high-quality corporate data are a crucial need for this.

Reporting and IT consolidation: Risk management and compliance. Integrated customer management. Integration, automation, and standardisation of business processes.

Content: The document's goal, corporate data quality from a business viewpoint, and fundamental ideas

Management of Corporate Data Quality: Aspects of Corporate Data Management, Corporate Data Quality, and the EFQM Excellence Model that relate to Corporate Data and Master Data Quality

Using the Corporate Data Quality Management Framework: The self-assessment process, selecting the best self-assessment method, additional assistance, Consortium CC CDQ resources, EFQM resources, CDQM resources, tools

Data is the Key to Security and Privacy: Sensitive information protection has become more important as a result of the growing visibility of data security breaches among enterprises and authorities. Nowadays, ensuring that data is handled appropriately has moved to the forefront of information security and privacy management. Yet the difficulties are more intricate than most people understand. Many people may believe that encrypting data in transit or at rest using methods like encryption is essential to protecting sensitive data.

In reality, solving the issue of data exposure is necessary for a more solid basis. Digital information is easily duplicable and often disseminated. The most sensitive information assets that an organization has may or may not be known to them, as well as how they are utilized and what happens to the data as it moves through its lifetime.

They could unnecessarily produce duplicate copies of the data, increasing exposure, only to make goals like application development or training easier to achieve. Modern approaches provide a wider variety of possibilities when protective measures are necessary, including solutions that address one of the biggest exposure gaps of all: the protection of information while it is being used. The use of data masking is one such method. Masking hides a data resource's more sensitive components, including personally identifying information, when it is accessed while still giving relevant data. Instead of overwriting sensitive variables in the production database, it does this by substituting realistic (but not exact) values for them when data is provided to the user or program that will utilize it.

They must ensure full functioning and address any operational problems in user-centric apps. Unless apps can communicate with real data or the production environment, this could be challenging, if not impossible. Manually removing sensitive data components may not be feasible. It could interfere with crucial application requirements, such as data formats, or it might create cracks that expose private information. Without access to a production database, late-stage integration testing might provide inaccurate or incomplete findings. So, one of the most obvious uses of data masking has been in development and testing without disclosing the private information of particular participants, such as a population data set used to study accident or health patterns, for instance. Masking In order to maintain the referential integrity of data that has been disguised, algorithms are often created to be repeated.

The value of masking has grown because more direct connection with production data is made possible by masking methods, and not only for development and testing. Applications that depend on sensitive data repositories may be far more varied and flexible if they can transmit data or a portion of a body of data selectively. This may be achieved using inline dynamic masking without changing the target database or the dependent application. By doing away with the need to make duplicates of data sources, it also lowers risk exposures. These tools work together to save costs and hazards.

Data masking, like any other protective strategy, may, however, be most effectively used when it combines with a strategic approach to information management in order to gain the most value. Understanding how and when data is generated and updated, how it is utilised and connected with applications or other data sources, how to ensure data integrity, and how data is eventually kept or destroyed enables firms to comprehend the best places and ways to use tactics like masking. Data protection strategies may be optimized when used in conjunction with data integration and information lifecycle management technologies, for instance, by combining data discovery and masking with automation of data subsetting. When security and risk management are linked with business information management, this ensures the delivery of just the information necessary without interfering with crucial data dependencies. Information is relevant to security measures beyond just safeguarding it, according driven technologies to improve accurate and timely insight into threats and base strategies on more objective assessment. These data-driven interests are at a crucial crossroads, and the capabilities of data integration, rationalisation, and analysis make technologies like Complex Event Management more valuable to these efforts than ever before.

CHAPTER 15

PRIVACY AND IDENTITY THEFT CYBER WARFARE

Geetha G

Director, School of Computer Science and Engineering,
Jain (Deemed-to-be University), Bangalore, Karnataka, India.
Email Id: -geetha.g@jainuniversity.ac.in

Identity fraud or impersonation are less confusing phrases that tend less to lay blame on the impersonated person and more to place blame appropriately on the victim and the fraud offender. The term identity theft was first used in 1964, however it is not physically feasible to steal an identity. Identity theft victims often are unaware of how their personal information was acquired, and identity theft is not always detectable by the individual victims, according to a research produced for the FTC. This makes establishing a connection between data breaches and identity theft difficult. Identity fraud is often, but not always, a result of identity theft. When a significant data breach happens, for instance, someone may take or misuse personal information without committing identity theft later on. According to a report by the US Government Accountability Office, "most breaches have not resulted in recorded incidences of identity theft." According to the article, "the whole extent remains unclear." The likelihood of becoming a victim of identity theft as a consequence of a data breach is, according to another unpublished research from Carnegie Mellon University, "approximately about 2%," despite the fact that "most frequently, the reasons of identity theft is not known." More recently, an association of consumer data firms said that, according to the company whose systems were compromised, one of the biggest data breaches ever, involving over four million records, produced only roughly 1,800 cases of identity theft.

One of India's current top cybercrime issues is identity theft. In 2011, 431 million people worldwide encountered cybercrime, and every day, more than a million additional adults became victims, according to the Norton Cybercrime Report 2011. According to the survey, identity theft affected four out of five internet adults in India in 2011. This indicates that India is quickly becoming an easy target for organised cybercrime. Financial repercussions from identity theft might be significant. You may apply for credit and debit cards under someone else's name. The victim's identity might be used to get fraudulent bank loans. even many different types of debt

Identity theft is a rising crime:

Most people agree that the crime with the fastest global growth is identity theft. Many changes to the way we live and handle information are to blame for the fast increase of identity theft. These modifications all make it simpler for outsiders to acquire our personally identifiable information and eventually steal our identities. Our personally identifiable information may now be sent quickly, easily, and sometimes less securely thanks to the internet. Online bill payment, bank and credit card account access, shopping, and credit card transactions are all possible. All of these procedures speed up and simplify operations, but they also put our personal information at danger. Spyware may be produced by anyone and downloaded into our computers when we install free software or other applications from the internet. This malware has the ability to track the websites we visit, the passwords we use, and the data we transfer, then communicate that information to a third party. Then, this

individual has the option of using or selling our personal information to another party. Trojan horses, a particular kind of malware, may even provide its creators direct access to our computers and hard drives. Online merchants that accept credit cards online maintain our contact and payment information in databases that we believe to be safe. Marketing companies gather contact information, personal data, and information about our purchasing patterns. Information is kept in databases that we presume to be secure. These businesses' malevolent personnel, though, could have access to our information. They could be paid to divulge our information, or they might even keep it for themselves or sell it to others. Furthermore dangerous is postal mail. Pre-approved credit cards and courtesy checks that may be used in lieu of the customer's credit card are often sent out to current and prospective customers by credit card firms. Identity thieves may go through your garbage and steal your credit if this mail is not properly opened and destroyed (ideally using a shredder). Social security numbers are now more often utilised as a form of personal identification in the United States than in the past. Also, when these important identifiers are used more often, it becomes simpler for someone to get yours and utilise it for personal gain.

People often provide their own address while stating that they have relocated. In their haste to give loans, careless lenders fail to check applicants' details or addresses. In order to increase their reputation, the impostor uses this new account in addition to the other identifiers after establishing the first account. This makes it easier for fraud to spread. The criminal is now well on the road to becoming wealthy and destroying reports to fix the credit disaster. As soon as a person learns of the fraud, he or she must record it in accounts, post a fraud alert on their credit report, and get in touch with the authorities in the nation where the crime took place. The deception may not be possible to stop right away. That is quite intricate. Yet, with this he will be able to prove his identity and apply for credit, loans, services, even rent and a mortgage under his name. This kind of crime is frequent in the banking industry. Usually, the sureties and guarantors are fictitious in order to get the loan. The Employee pay certificates are sometimes personated for loans. If it does happen to anybody, identity theft is a terrifying and stressful event.

Identity theft occurs when criminals get access to sufficient information. This may directly affect your personal finances and make it difficult for you to get loans, credit cards, or a mortgage until the issue is remedied.

Identity fraud: Identity fraud is the use of a stolen identity in illegal conduct to deceitfully get goods or services. Your identification information may be used by fraudsters to: open bank accounts; get credit cards, loans, and government benefits. Place purchases in your name; Take control of your current accounts. Sign contracts for mobile phones. Acquire valid identification in your name, such as a passport and a driver's licence. Identity theft and fraud. Nonetheless, utilising that identity for any of the aforementioned actions issues like non-profit organisations Identity theft is divided into five categories by the Identity Theft Resource Center: (posing as another person when apprehended for a crime). Financial identity theft, which involves exploiting someone else's identity to get credit, products, or services. Identity cloning (taking on another's identity in everyday life using that person's information)

The boundaries of the right to privacy are as follows: 6.3. Invasion of Privacy. Of course, it is not unqualified, as the Court has painstakingly noted on countless times. What, then, accounts for limitations? While it has never been explicitly stated, the Court has mandated that the restricting statute be narrowly tailored in addition to the compelling State interest. In other words, the government must demonstrate that the legislation it is enforcing not only serves the overriding State interest, but also limits privacy in the fewest conceivable ways. If

there are alternative practical means to accomplish the same thing that do not violate privacy to the level that the challenged statute does, the challenged law will be overturned. We see this in the police surveillance cases, where in *Gobind*, for example, the Court read additional requirements of gravity into Regulation 855 to ensure that it was narrowly tailored; and we see it even more clearly in the phone cases, which require not only the specification of individuals, numbers, and addresses, but also require the State to resort to surveillance only in cases where other methods are not reasonably open, thereby infringing on privacy minimally. Targeting is crucial. In fact, the Telegraph Act only permits targeted surveillance. The fact that the surveillance is targeted and intended to target people against whom there are more than reasonable grounds for suspicion has been a significant almost decisive factor in the Court's determination that the surveillance is constitutional. Hence, targeting seems to be a key component of narrow tailoring.

The very valid worry that establishing a private sector merely helps to legitimise - both symbolically and really relationships of non-State dominance and oppression inside that sphere (see, for instance, the infamous marital rape exception in Indian criminal law). It presupposes rather than supporting the fundamental philosophical notion that society is ultimately indivisibly atomized, which has been repeatedly criticised throughout the course of more than fifty years of social theory. I want to go into more detail about these issues in a later post, but for now, the focus of this series has been doctrinal rather than philosophical: to examine surveillance within the context of accepted constitutional law without challenging the moral underpinnings of the concept.

Identity theft as it relates to Indian law: Section 66-C of the Indian Criminal Code, 1860, and Section 419 of the IT Act, 2000, as modified by the Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008, are applicable. The closest police station where the aforementioned crime was perpetrated or where the victim first learned of the crime is where the victim of identity theft may submit a complaint. If the offence is established, the accused may be sentenced to any kind of imprisonment for a time that may not exceed three years, a fine that may not exceed one lakh rupees, or both. According to Section 77-B of the IT Act of 2000, the aforementioned offence is cognizable and punishable by bail; however, if Section 419 of the IPC is used in conjunction with other provisions, the offence is also punishable by bail, may be compounded with the consent of the court where the prosecution is pending, and may be tried by any magistrate.

Whoever uses another person's electronic signature, password, or other unique identification feature dishonestly or fraudulently is subject to imprisonment of either kind for a term that may not exceed three years and is also subject to a fine that may not exceed Rs. 1 lakh, according to Section 66C of the Information Technology Act, 2000.

Penalty for cheating by personation is outlined in Section 419 of The Indian Criminal Code, 1860. Whoever cheats by personation must be punished with any kind of imprisonment for a period that may extend to three years, or with a fine, or with both.

When a fraudster deceives someone into providing important personal information in the form of identifying information, which is then utilised to steal money from the victim's account, it is a violation of Section 420 IPC, 1860.

Section 468 IPC, 1860: When a fraudster creates a website that has the appearance of an electronic record in order to trick victims into giving over their personal information.

Section 471 IPC, 1860: When a fraudster utilises a false website in the form of an electronic record and does so dishonestly or fraudulently.

When the fraudster deletes or modifies information or data in the victim's account on the server, which is a computer resource, using stolen identification information, such as a login name and password.

Section 67 of the IT Act of 2000: When a fraudster creates and posts an offensive profile in the victim's name on a social networking site using the victim's profile, personal information, and contact information that have been stolen.

Steps of Identity Theft, Identity theft occurs in three phases. Each identity theft case might go through any one of the following stages:

Getting one's identity: It entails the theft, hacking, rerouting or interception of mail, or the purchase of identifying information online of the identity.

Usage of the identity: After obtaining the identity, the fraudster may use it to perform other crimes that bring him financial advantage, such as creating new accounts, using stolen credit card information to make online purchases, or even selling the identities to other fraudsters. Sometimes, the victim may be harassed using the stolen information via the publishing of pornographic or offensive content by a fraudster masquerading as the victim.

Theft discovery: Although many instances of credit card fraud are swiftly identified, identity theft victims can go unnoticed for six months to several years before they learn that their identities have been stolen. According to a study, the victim suffers more losses the longer it takes to detect the crime. There are several common ways to conduct identity theft crimes, some of which require the internet or the virtual world and others, known as conventional techniques, which do not. These are a few, not all-inclusive, methods to conduct the crime of identity theft:

Theft: Your wallet or bag, which may include your bank cards, credit cards, passport, and other identification papers holding your sensitive personal information, may be taken.

Hacking, illegal system access, and database theft are common ways that fraudsters infiltrate networks and steal data via the use of networked devices. Hackers are able to obtain vast amounts of private information, decode it, and then exploit it fraudulently or for financial advantage elsewhere.

The most common way to obtain personal identifying information is via phishing. The scammer sends a phoney email that contains a link to a fake website that is an identical imitation of the real bank websites and is designed to trick people into disclosing their personal information.

Vishing is the practise of a fraudster pretending to be a bank employee phoning a victim on the phone and asking for personal information.

Pharming is a method used by scammers to intercept user names and PIN codes by putting up a fake web server.

Nigerian 419 Scam: This is the most common scam that is still used to defraud people all over the world. The fraudster writes the targeted individuals an email pretending to be a wealthy relative of a deceased African millionaire who is suffering as a result of political unrest in his nation. The scammer enlists your assistance in order to deposit a large quantity of money into your account in exchange for providing your account as a means of receiving the funds. This swindle is known as the "Nigerian 419 scam" (for the relevant section of the Nigerian Criminal Code). Another similar kind of Nigerian scam involves the victim receiving an unsolicited email claiming to be the lottery winner after his email was chosen

from hundreds of others. Since they entail obtaining personal and financial data from naive Internet users who fall for these solicitations, these frauds qualify as identity crimes.

Theft by former and current employees: Criminals may also get access to personal data by paying off workers who have access to databases, personal records, or other sensitive information.

Skimming: When a criminal connects a tiny skimmer device to an ATM, the device takes information from the magnetic stripe of the ATM card and records the user's personal identifying number using a camera. Without breaking into your residence, the fraudster may potentially collect your personal information through "shoulder surfing." Some individuals skulk about telephone and ATM booths in public locations, watching you input your secret PIN number, peering over your shoulder while you use a public phone, or just listening in if you are handing your credit card information over the phone.

Dumpster Diving: They look for anything that has your name, address, phone number, and credit card number²¹ and collect copies of checks, credit card statements, bank statements, receipts, and carbons.

Stuxnet Case Study: According to cyber security expert Ralph Langer, the Stuxnet virus that destroyed Iran's Natanz nuclear complex "was considerably more destructive than the cyber weapon that is now stuck in the public's consciousness." A combined Israeli-American operation known as Stuxnet is credited with purportedly causing a fifth of Iran's nuclear centrifuges to spin out of control and explode. Nevertheless, Langer claims that the exploit included an earlier component that was more challenging and "changed global military policy in the 21st century." According to Peter Sanger of The New York Times, the less well-known first assault was planned to sketch "the equivalent of an electrical blueprint of the Natanz complex, to learn how the computers regulate" the centrifuges used to enrich uranium. By replicating the plant's protection system settings while the attack was happening, the worm also slowly boosted the pressure on spinning centrifuges, giving the impression that everything was normal to the control room, according to Langer. The worm's objective, according to Langer, was not to damage centrifuges but rather to "reduce the lifespan of Iran's centrifuges and make the Iranians' clever control systems look beyond their comprehension."

The coding was "so far-out, it compels one to question if its designers could have been on drugs," the author writes of the code. According to reports, the worm was tested in Israel's Dimona nuclear plant. The U.S. and Israel didn't launch the second variant to assault the centrifuges directly and spread to all types of computers until after years of covert infiltration.

The second Stuxnet is regarded as the first cyber-aggression, but the new information shows that the original infection will have a considerably bigger effect. That's because the first virus's use of a worker's thumb drive to enter Natanz was one of its most inventive features, exploiting the weakest link in the system—humans. Foreign Policy says: The sobering truth is that almost every industrial or military institution using industrial control systems on a worldwide scale depends on a network of contractors, many of whom are excellent at doing narrowly specialised technical jobs but terrible at cyber security. Alternative phrase: "It turns out there is always an idiot there who doesn't think much about the thumb drive in their hand," as one of the Stuxnet plan's designers said to Sanger. Since that the future attackers may not be nation-states, they could target civilian essential infrastructure far more often. Since that the majority of contemporary facilities use a standardised industrial control system, Langer claims that "once you obtain control of one industrial control system, you may penetrate dozens or even hundreds of the same breed more."

Case Study-I: Aspiring airhostess Charu Singh (name changed) was shocked when her lover dumped her. Someone breaking into her Facebook account and sending her derogatory comments was what caused the separation. Her roommate was found to be the offender after she reported the incident to the Gurgaon Cyber Crime Division. Police claim that this is not a one-off incident. Identity theft, which is when someone steals another person's personal information to use it to access resources, apply for credit, or get other advantages in that person's name, has increased dramatically in Gurgaon. Compared to the 40 incidents that were reported last year, 70 identity theft cases have been submitted to the city's cybercrime cell as of August this year. The majority of the time, con artists get access to people's accounts on different social networking sites like Facebook, Twitter, and Orkut, obtain their images, and use that information to create phoney driving licences, phone connections, bank accounts, PAN cards, and credit cards. Your personal information, including name, date of birth, address, phone number, and email address, is readily available both online and offline in the current digital era.

Con artists may abuse such readily accessible information. A scammer may get a phone connection or a credit card by using these details while posing as you. Before receiving a statement from the service provider, one cannot know. Yet by that time, the harm would already be done. Authorities acknowledged that victims often do not come forward to report an incident. When victims learn that persons close to them were responsible for the crime, they sometimes retract their allegations. Inspector Suresh Singh, in head of the Cyber Crime Unit, said: "Since most of the guilty are well-known individuals, victims often drop their accusations. Many kids don't realise they're interacting with their pals on camera when they utilise webcams." A student recently claimed that she had created a false Facebook account with all of her personal information. Subsequently, it was found that the defendant was her ex-boyfriend. Engineering student Ekta Nath (name changed) filed a lawsuit in August after her private film with her ex-boyfriend was posted on a porn website.

Her ex-boyfriend was subsequently detained by police for the crime. Internet share and commodities transactions that be fraudulent: Nowadays, shares are bought and traded online. There has been an increase in situations where the complainant reports that his online share or commodity account has been hacked and that unidentified fraudsters have carried out fraudulent transactions, causing him to suffer a sizable loss. In an online transaction, the client is given a client ID and password along with an online account, which he uses to complete sell and buy transactions via a server located in the broker office.

The con artists who are Usually, software specialists or executives (core dealers) in the broker office attempt to get the customer ID and password from the broker office itself, via hit-and-trial techniques or social engineering. The fraudster gains unlawful access to the client account after obtaining the client ID and password, and they also get access to the account where the earnings are to be transferred from the victim client account. The scammer concurrently matches these transactions into their own account and performs them at inflated prices into the customer accounts. By doing this, he transfers profits to his own account and loses to the accounts of the unwary customers.

Bank phoney websites. The same MO, i.e., a phoney target, was used in several recent incidents of phishing (an offence involving identity theft) recorded in India. Customers of the bank were sent emails requesting them to renew various services, warning them that failing to do so will result in the suspension or deletion of their accounts. A bank website was also constructed. In an unauthorised effort to gather users' personal and account information, the email included a link to a phishing website.

Advance fee fraud or the Nigerian 419 scam: There have been many instances when fraudsters have sent emails to the victim's email address asking for assistance in unblocking payments and offering a substantial commission as compensation. The victim gives the fraudster his credit card and bank account information after falling for the scammer's promise of obtaining big sums of money publishing pornographic or obscene content on social networking platforms, or defamation: There have also been an increase in cases where the victim has reported that their profile and personal information have been stolen and that a fake and vulgar profile with pornography and other offensive content has been created in their name and posted on a social networking site like ORKUT along with the victim's contact information, including phone numbers and addresses.

Case Study III: In India, the majority of banks have switched to online and mobile banking. Debit and credit cards, as well as other payment methods, are used for the majority of transactions electronic routes like ATMs. As a result, India's financial institutions, including both public and private banks, are becoming more exposed to sophisticated cyberattacks. The RBI reports that 8322 instances of cyber fraud totaling 527 million INR were recorded in 2012. The sum involved in such instances climbed from 405 to 527 million INR in 2012, indicating that the average value per cyber fraud case has grown dramatically, even if the number of cases reported has reduced from 15018 cases recorded in 2010. Phishing, a financial scam in which con artists use social engineering techniques and spyware or malware codes to steal customers' private financial and personal information like bank account numbers, credit card numbers, internet banking passwords, etc., is one of the most prevalent types of cyber-attacks involving banks. Phishing attacks often include sending emails to clients that feature logos or pictures that seem to be from financial institutions. A web link is often included in these emails. Most of these assaults are done for financial gain.

One in four phishing attempts utilised the .IN domain and entailed targeting the bank accounts of consumers. Although these attacks originated from all over the world, Hyderabad hosted the second highest number of phishing attacks in the country. Interestingly, emerging cities such as Chandigarh, Bhubaneswar, Surat, Cochin, Jaipur, Vishakhapatnam and Indore are also experiencing phishing attacks.

Credit cards have always been one of the biggest targets for cyber criminals; the most common form of credit card frauds involves skimming. With the rapid increase in the use of plastic money, India is witnessing a tide of skimming frauds. Skimming is a hi-tech forgery that involves copying of customer and card information stored on the magnetic strip of a credit card, through such a device, it reads and captures the information stored on the credit card. This information is used by the fraudster to create a cloned card which can then be used to make unauthorised and fraudulent transactions. Skimming frauds are extremely difficult to detect as the credit card is not actually stolen or reported. The customer to whom the card belongs becomes aware of the fraud only when a transaction is made using the cloned cards. The number of credit card frauds is increasing despite the various proactive measures taken by Indian banks to set up internal control systems to mitigate frauds relating to skimming or cloning of credit cards. As per the RBI statistics, in the quarter ended December 2012, there were 1590 cases of credit card reported involving a 94.86 million INR as compared to 1327 cases reported in the quarter ended September 2012 involving 49.29 million INR.

The two most common types of skimming attacks occur at the following locations: ATMs, PoS (point of sale), either by employees who use handheld skimming devices or fraudsters who swap PoS devices with devices that have been manipulated to capture unauthorised card information. e.g., swiping credit cards at restaurants or petrol pumps.

Example-I: In May 2012, the RBI warned against fraud emails from mail id: salert@rbi.org. The mails were sent by unscrupulous entities offering a new online security platform and asking customers to share information. According to the mail, the new online security platform offered to prevent online identity theft in internet banking. The email further asked the recipient to download attachment and update their information. The RBI cautioned the public not to open such emails or try to download the attachment on their computer. (Source: The Economic Times).

Example-II: In April 2012, an Indore-based gang of fraudsters involved in phishing the accounts of customers across the country of two leading banks in India were busted. The gang had opened fictitious accounts in their names in at least two dozen different banks in the city. These accounts were utilised to syphon off the money from the account holders of these banks through phishing. The money was later withdrawn from the fictitious account through ATM or cheques. The accused have been booked under section 419, 420 IPC and 66 IT Act. (Source: The Times of India)

Example-III: In January 2013, two residents of Chandigarh received credit card bills for shopping done in Mumbai and Hyderabad. The money was deducted from their accounts before they could even approach the bank. People are losing money by making payments at petrol pumps in Chandigarh city. Nearly 55 cases of skimming have been reported from petrol pumps in Chandigarh over the last six months. In these cases, miscreants cloned the cards and shopped at faraway places such as Mumbai and Hyderabad. The scam is worth lakhs. (Source: The Times of India)

Example-IV: In April, 2012, a gang of fraudsters were arrested in Hyderabad for skimming and cloning credit and debit cards using a complex modus operandi of hacking international IP addresses, internet hawala, and spying and electronic data theft. The racket came to light in May 2011 when people who visited two malls complained that huge amounts were withdrawn from their accounts. The gang succeeded in skimming off 4 to 5 crore INR from unsuspecting credit and debit card holders across the country — from Hyderabad to Delhi, Kolkata to Bangalore. They used 15 point of sale (electronic draught capture) skimming machines, one ATM data skimming machine, ATM dome cameras, electronic magnetic writers, card printers and ATM pin pad skimmer machines and even placed spy cameras at ATMs which picked up the PINs of users.

Advice on preventing identity theft: Never provide your Social Security number to anybody. Consider it to be private information. Save all passwords in your memory. While using an ATM, ensure sure no one is watching you input your password and can see it. Never write them down or carry them with you. Try to pay the vendor directly with a credit card when bidding in an online auction so you may challenge the charges if the item doesn't show up or was misrepresented. Avoid paying with a check or money order if at all feasible. Approach websites that promise rewards with a healthy dose of scepticism.

Choose a for-pay online service with parental control options. Remind your kids that they should never share any personal information, including their name, address, phone number, or password. Make sure your kids are aware that they should never consent to meet this individual in person; if they do, it should take place in a familiar public setting with a responsible adult present. Remind your kids not to reply to communications that include offensive language, are frightful, or simply seem off. Remind your kids to never go into a place where there are service fees without first getting permission from you. Remind kids never to email someone a photo of themselves without your consent. In other words, use the following advice to prevent being a scam victim:

Exercise caution: This is maybe the most crucial piece of advice to provide those who are worried about identity theft. Be wary of telemarketing calls and emails, especially those that demand personal information like passwords and account information.

Always verify the legitimacy of messages you receive that seem to be from a bank or other financial institution. If not, you should notify the business or the police of any suspicious conduct.

Never divulge private information: Private information should remain just that—private. Preserve private information, such as pin numbers, bank account information, and passwords. Make sure that each of your accounts and services has a unique pin number and password. By doing this, you can be confident that the damage will only be felt by one account in the event that one of these is hacked.

Examine your bank statements: This is something that many of us forget to do, but reviewing your dreaded bank statement may be able to help you avoid identity theft before it gets out of hand. Look closely for any suspect's transactions and to speak with your bank if you have any questions about any of them.

Shred personal information before disposing of it: Never throw away money or personal information without first destroying it. Several con artists utilize a method to take your identity. Documents should be destroyed before being shredded to protect your privacy.

Protect critical papers: Unless absolutely necessary, carry your chequebooks and important paperwork with you at all times.

Cyberwarfare's impact on privacy and identity theft is a hotly contested topic everywhere. The many significant case studies are included in this subject to aid in learning and practical application. The phases of identity theft, invasion of privacy, Indian theft under Indian law, and other concepts are presented in this unit in a thorough academic manner to explain in an understandable and straightforward manner. In order to comprehend foreign perspectives on this very complicated problem, a thorough discussion of the Stuxnet case study is made.

Cyber Terrorism-Global Perspective: The deliberate use of disruptive actions, or the threat of such activities, in cyberspace with the goal to achieve social, ideological, religious, political, or similar objectives, or to terrorise anybody in promotion of such objectives, is known as cyberterrorism. The internet and computers are becoming important in our everyday lives. Both people and society utilise them to simplify their lives. People utilise them for almost every area of life, including information storage, data processing, message sending and receiving, communications, machine control, typing, editing, designing, and sketching. If terrorism has assumed new dimensions, those dimensions are more lethal and destructive in character. In the era of information technology, terrorists have developed the ability to create the deadliest fusion of weaponry and technology, which can cause havoc if not adequately secured over time. The resulting damage would be very devastating and almost permanent. In sum, we are dealing with "Cyber Terrorism," the worst kind of terrorism. The term "cyberterrorism" refers to the deliberate misuse of information technology for harmful or destructive purposes against the physical or intangible property of others. Cyber terrorism, for instance, includes the hacking of a computer system and the subsequent deletion of the vital and helpful business information of the rival competitor. As crime is by its very nature comprehensive, it is impossible to provide an entire definition of "cyber terrorism."

International Case Study III: They were instructed to assume the role of hackers employed by the North Korean intelligence agency, with the U.S. Pacific Command in Hawaii as their

main objective. They could access any Military network, but they couldn't infringe any US laws, and they were only authorised to use hacking tools that could be obtained for free online. They often used simpler strategies like phoning a person on the phone, posing as a technician or high-ranking official, and requesting the password. Many crucial Military computer systems were accessible to the hackers. Once within the systems, they had easy access to establish new user accounts, erase old ones, format hard drives, scramble data, and shut down the computers. They were able to easily breach the network defences while evading detection or identification by law enforcement. The effect of such an assault may be on par with or perhaps beyond the repercussions of a more conventional, physical strike, as the book analyses in terrifying detail. According to Verton, an average big power firm in the US suffers roughly 1 million cyber breaches every year. Data on cyberattacks gathered by Virginia-based Riptech, Inc.—a company that specialises in the security of online information and financial systems—during the six months following the 9/11 attacks revealed that businesses in the energy sector experienced intrusions at a rate that was twice that of other industries, with the energy sector suffering the highest rate of intrusions.

An average of 12.5 serious or critical assaults per firm that required rapid attention. The material was decrypted after a 12-hour brute force assault, which also resulted in one of the biggest cocaine seizures in Bolivian history and the capture of the terrorists. Hackers broke into NATO systems in 1999. They received a denial of service attack and an inundation of email from the machines (DoS). The hackers were expressing their opposition to the NATO bombardment of Kosovo. Companies, government agencies, and academic institutions were inundated with emails that were heavily political and infected with malware from other European nations.

The Code Red virus was released into the wild by Chinese hackers in 2001, against the backdrop of the deterioration in ties between the US and China. Millions of computers were infected by this malware, which was subsequently used to perform denial-of-service assaults against US websites, most notably the White House website. Several well-known Indian websites were vandalised in 2002. On the main pages of several websites, messages about the Kashmir problem were posted. Russian authorities deny any knowledge of this, although evidence points to the Russian government orchestrating a massive cyberattack on Estonia in May 2007 that included hackers from the Russian Federation. It seems that the relocation of a Soviet World War II monument from central Estonia sparked this incident.
