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Formative Assessment

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Data Encapsulation and De-encapsulation in the OSI Model

Data encapsulation and de-encapsulation are fundamental processes in network communication [1], ensuring that data is properly formatted for transmission and correctly interpreted upon receipt. This essay explores these processes across the OSI model layers, highlighting the specific functions and security challenges at each stage.

Data Encapsulation from the Application Layer to the Physical Layer

Data encapsulation begins at the application layer and proceeds down to the physical layer, with each layer adding its own header (and sometimes a trailer) to the data. This hierarchical process ensures that the data can be transmitted across the network and correctly understood by the receiving device [2].

At the Application Layer (Layer 7), data is generated by an application, such as an email or a web page request. At this stage, the OSI model itself does not add headers or trailers to the data. Moving down to the Presentation Layer (Layer 6), the data may be encrypted, compressed, or translated. Although the data remains in its original form, this layer prepares it for transmission by ensuring it is in a suitable format.

The Session Layer (Layer 5) is responsible for establishing, managing, and terminating sessions. While the data format remains unchanged, this layer adds session-specific information. At the Transport Layer (Layer 4), the data is broken into smaller units called segments. Each segment receives a header containing crucial information like sequence numbers and port numbers, ensuring proper reassembly and delivery at the destination.

At the Network Layer (Layer 3), each segment from the transport layer is encapsulated into a packet. This layer adds a header with source and destination IP addresses to ensure the packet reaches the correct destination. Moving to the Data Link Layer (Layer 2), the packet is encapsulated into a frame. This layer adds both a header and a trailer; the header includes physical addresses (MAC addresses), and the trailer typically includes error-checking information like a Frame Check Sequence (FCS).

Finally, at the Physical Layer (Layer 1), the frame is converted into a stream of bits (0s and 1s) suitable for transmission over the physical medium, such as electrical signals for copper cables or light pulses for fibre optics.

Data De-encapsulation from the Physical Layer to the Application Layer

De-encapsulation is the reverse process of encapsulation. Each layer of the OSI model removes the header (and trailer) added by its corresponding layer on the sending side [1], gradually revealing the original data as it ascends the layers.

At the Physical Layer (Layer 1), the physical layer receives the stream of bits and converts them into frames, passing them up to the data link layer. The Data Link Layer (Layer 2) checks the integrity of the frame using the trailer. If the frame is correct and destined for this device, it removes the data link header and trailer, leaving a packet. The Network Layer (Layer 3) then examines the destination IP address. If the packet is intended for this device, it removes the network header, leaving a segment.

The Transport Layer (Layer 4) reassembles the segments into the original data stream, removes the transport header, and passes the data stream to the session layer. The Session Layer (Layer 5) manages and terminates the session as needed, passing the data up to the presentation layer. The Presentation Layer (Layer 6) may decrypt or decompress the data as required and then passes it to the application layer. Finally, the Application Layer (Layer 7) receives the data in its original form, ready for use by the application.

Security Challenges at Each Layer of the OSI Model

Each layer of the OSI model faces distinct security challenges, requiring specific mitigation strategies to ensure data integrity and confidentiality.

At the Application Layer (Layer 7), vulnerabilities in application software can lead to attacks such as malware, phishing, and denial-of-service (DoS) which significantly impact modern servers [2] [3]. These threats can be mitigated by implementing strong authentication, input validation, and secure coding practices. The Presentation Layer (Layer 6) faces challenges related to data interception and tampering during encryption or compression. Using strong encryption algorithms and secure key management can mitigate these risks.

The Session Layer (Layer 5) is susceptible to session hijacking and eavesdropping. Implementing secure session protocols like SSL/TLS and using session tokens can help mitigate these threats. At the Transport Layer (Layer 4), attacks such as SYN flooding (a type of DoS) and session hijacking are common. Robust transport layer security mechanisms like TLS and proper session management are necessary for mitigation.

The Network Layer (Layer 3) encounters threats such as IP spoofing, routing attacks, and man-in-the-middle attacks. Implementing IPsec, secure routing protocols, and using ARP cache poisoning, DNS spoofing, session hijacking, and SSL hijacking can address these challenges [4]. The Data Link Layer (Layer 2) faces challenges like MAC address spoofing, VLAN hopping, and ARP spoofing. Using switch security features like port security, VLAN segmentation, and dynamic ARP inspection helps mitigate these risks.

Finally, the Physical Layer (Layer 1) deals with physical tampering with network hardware, wiretapping, and signal interference. Securing physical access to network devices, using shielded cables, and monitoring the physical infrastructure are crucial measures for mitigating these threats.

Addressing Security Challenges in UDP

Addressing the security challenges associated with the User Datagram Protocol (UDP) involves several strategies and protocols designed to enhance the security of data exchange while maintaining the protocol's inherent benefits. UDP, known for its low overhead and suitability for real-time applications, poses unique security risks that need to be effectively managed.

One primary method to mitigate these security challenges is the implementation of authentication and encryption mechanisms. Adding security layers such as Transport Layer Security (TLS) can authenticate the communicating parties and encrypt the data, ensuring both confidentiality and integrity [2]. By encrypting the data, TLS protects against eavesdropping and tampering, making it significantly harder for attackers to intercept and alter the information being transmitted.

Another crucial strategy involves the use of stateful firewalls. Stateful firewalls can track the state of active connections and filtering out unwanted or malicious UDP traffic. This capability provides an essential layer of protection against various attacks, including DoS (Denial of Service) and DDoS (Distributed Denial of Service) attacks, by ensuring that only legitimate traffic is allowed through to the network.

Rate limiting and traffic analysis are additional methods employed to enhance UDP security. By limiting the rate of incoming UDP packets and analysing traffic patterns, organizations can detect and prevent DoS and amplification attacks. Rate limiting controls the flow of traffic,

reducing the likelihood of the network being overwhelmed by a flood of malicious packets. Traffic analysis helps in identifying abnormal patterns that might indicate an ongoing attack, allowing for timely intervention.

A specific example of a protocol designed to address UDP's security challenges is Datagram Transport Layer Security (DTLS). DTLS is a protocol that provides security for datagram-based applications, preventing eavesdropping, tampering, or message forgery [5], like those using UDP. Based on TLS, DTLS offers data integrity, authentication, and confidentiality while preserving the stateless nature of UDP. However, implementing DTLS introduces additional computational overhead and latency compared to raw UDP. Despite these trade-offs, the enhanced security provided by DTLS justifies its use in applications where data protection is critical.

Services Using the UDP Protocol and Their Justifications

Several services leverage the advantages of UDP, particularly its low overhead and suitability for real-time applications.

The Domain Name System (DNS) is a service that relies on UDP. DNS queries and responses are typically small and require quick resolution. The overhead of establishing a TCP connection for each query would significantly slow down the process, making UDP a better fit for DNS as TCP requires more message processing, causing longer delays at the thread queue [6]. The rapid query and response cycle facilitated by UDP ensures efficient domain name resolution, essential for the smooth operation of internet services.

Voice over IP (VoIP) is another service benefitting from UDP's characteristics. Real-time communication applications like VoIP require low latency to maintain call quality [2]. The occasional packet loss is preferable to the delays introduced by TCP's retransmission mechanisms, which can significantly affect the quality of a voice call. By using UDP, VoIP applications can provide a seamless and real-time communication experience.

Streaming media services rely on UDP for their operations as streaming audio and video require low-latency transmission to deliver a smooth viewing experience. While some packet loss is acceptable, the delays caused by TCP retransmission can disrupt the media stream, leading to buffering and poor user experience. UDP's low latency makes it the preferred

protocol for these applications, ensuring timely delivery of media content and reduction of video latency [7].

In conclusion, whilst UDP's inherent characteristics introduce several security challenges, these can be effectively mitigated using protocols like DTLS, stateful firewalls, and traffic analysis. UDP's advantages in terms of low latency and minimal overhead make it the preferred protocol for services such as DNS, VoIP, and streaming media, where timely delivery is crucial, and some packet loss is acceptable.

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