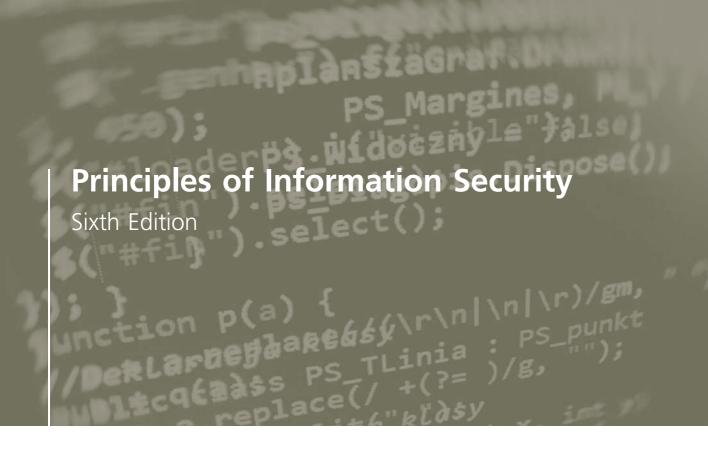
INFORMATION SECURITY



PRINCIPLES OF INFORMATION SECURITY





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To Rhonda, Rachel, Alex, and Meghan, thank you for your loving support. —MEW

To my mother, Frances Perkins Godwin; it is a wonderful life. —HJM

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As global networks expand, the interconnection of the world's information systems and devices of every description becomes vital, as does the smooth operation of communication, computing, and automation solutions. However, ever-evolving threats such as malware and phishing attacks and the success of criminal attackers illustrate the weaknesses in current information technologies and the need to provide heightened security for these systems.

When attempting to secure current and planned systems and networks, organizations must draw on the current pool of information security practitioners. However, to develop more secure computing environments in the future, these same organizations are counting on the next generation of professionals to have the correct mix of skills and experience to anticipate and manage the complex information security issues that will arise. Thus, improved texts with supporting materials, along with the efforts of college and university faculty, are needed to prepare students of technology to recognize the threats and vulnerabilities in existing systems and to learn to design and develop the secure systems needed.

The purpose of *Principles of Information Security*, *Sixth Edition*, is to continue to meet the need for a current, high-quality academic textbook that surveys the breadth of the information security discipline. Even today, there remains a lack of textbooks that provide students with a *balanced* introduction to the managerial and technical aspects of information security. By creating a book specifically focused on the information security common body of knowledge, we hope to close this gap. Further, there is a clear need to include principles from criminal justice, political science, computer science, information systems, and other related disciplines to gain a clear understanding of information security principles and

formulate interdisciplinary solutions for systems vulnerabilities. The essential tenet of this textbook is that information security in the modern organization is a problem for management to solve, and not one that technology alone can address. In other words, an organization's information security has important economic consequences for which management will be held accountable.

Approach

Principles of Information Security, Sixth Edition, provides a broad review of the entire field of information security, background on many related elements, and enough detail to facilitate an understanding of the topic as a whole. The book covers the terminology of the field, the history of the discipline, and strategies for managing an information security program.

Structure and Chapter Descriptions

Principles of Information Security, Sixth Edition, is structured to follow an approach that moves from the strategic aspects of information security to the operational—beginning with the external impetus for information security, moving through the organization's governance, risk management, and regulatory compliance strategic approaches, and continuing with the technical and operational implementation of security in the organization. This textbook's use of this approach is intended to provide a supportive but not overly dominant foundation that will guide instructors and students through the information domains of information security. To serve this end, the book is organized into 12 chapters.

> Chapter 1—Introduction to Information Security

The opening chapter establishes the foundation for understanding the broader field of information security. This is accomplished by defining key terms, explaining essential concepts, and reviewing the origins of the field and its impact on the understanding of information security.

> Chapter 2—The Need for Security

Chapter 2 examines the business drivers behind the design process of information security analysis. It examines current organizational and technological security needs while emphasizing and building on the concepts presented in Chapter 1. One principal concept presented in this chapter is that information security is primarily a management issue rather than a technological one. To put it another way, the best practices within the field of information security involve applying technology only after considering the business needs.

The chapter also examines the various threats facing organizations and presents methods for ranking and prioritizing these threats as organizations begin their security planning process. The chapter continues with a detailed examination of the types of attacks that could result from these threats, and how these attacks could affect the organization's information systems. Chapter 2 also provides further discussion of the key principles of information security, some of which were introduced in Chapter 1: confidentiality, integrity, availability, authentication and identification, authorization, accountability, and privacy.

Chapter 3—Legal, Ethical, and Professional Issues in Information Security

A critical aspect of the field is the inclusion of a careful examination of current legislation, regulation, and common ethical expectations of both national and international entities that provides important insights into the regulatory constraints that govern business. This chapter examines several key laws that shape the field of information security and examines the computer ethics to which those who implement security must adhere. This chapter also presents several common legal and ethical issues found in today's organizations, as well as formal and professional organizations that promote ethics and legal responsibility.

> Chapter 4—Planning for Security

This chapter presents a number of widely accepted security models and frameworks. It examines best business practices and standards of due care and due diligence, and offers an overview of the development of security policy. This chapter details the major components, scope, and target audience for each level of security policy. This chapter also explains data classification schemes, both military and private, as well as the security education training and awareness (SETA) program. The chapter examines the planning process that supports business continuity, disaster recovery, and incident response; it also describes the organization's role during incidents and specifies when the organization should involve outside law enforcement agencies.

> Chapter 5—Risk Management

Before the design of a new information security solution can begin, information security analysts must first understand the current state of the organization and its relationship to information security. Does the organization have any formal information security mechanisms in place? How effective are they? What policies and procedures have been published and distributed to security managers and end users? This chapter describes how to conduct a fundamental information security assessment by describing procedures for identifying and prioritizing threats and assets as well as procedures for identifying what controls are in place to protect these assets from threats. The chapter also discusses the various types of control mechanisms and identifies the steps involved in performing the initial risk assessment. The chapter continues by defining risk management as the process of identifying, assessing, and reducing risk to an acceptable level and implementing effective control measures to maintain that level of risk. Chapter 5 concludes with a discussion of risk analysis and various types of feasibility analyses.

> Chapter 6—Security Technology: Access Controls, Firewalls, and VPNs

Chapter 6 provides a detailed overview of the configuration and use of technologies designed to segregate the organization's systems from the insecure Internet. This chapter examines the various definitions and categorizations of firewall technologies and the architectures under which firewalls may be deployed. The chapter discusses the rules and guidelines associated with the proper configuration and use of firewalls. Chapter 6 also discusses remote dial-up services and the security precautions necessary to secure access points for organizations still deploying this older technology. The chapter continues by presenting content filtering capabilities and considerations, and concludes by examining technologies designed to provide remote access to authorized users through virtual private networks.

> Chapter 7—Security Technology: Intrusion Detection and Prevention Systems, and Other Security Tools

Chapter 7 continues the discussion of security technologies by examining the concept of intrusion and the technologies necessary to prevent, detect, react, and recover from intrusions. Specific types of intrusion detection and prevention systems (IDPSs)—the host IDPS, network IDPS, and application IDPS—and their respective configurations and uses are presented and discussed. The chapter examines specialized detection technologies that are designed to entice attackers into decoy systems (and thus away from critical systems) or simply to identify the attackers' entry into these decoy areas. Such systems are known as honeypots, honeynets, and padded cell systems. The discussion also examines trace-back systems, which are designed to track down the true address of attackers who were lured into decoy systems. The chapter then examines key security tools that information security professionals can use to examine the current state of their organization's systems and identify potential vulnerabilities or weaknesses in the organization's overall security posture. Chapter 7 concludes with a discussion of access control devices commonly deployed by modern operating systems and new technologies in the area of biometrics that can provide strong authentication to existing implementations.

> Chapter 8—Cryptography

Chapter 8 continues the section on security technologies by describing the underlying foundations of modern cryptosystems as well as their architectures and implementations. The chapter begins by summarizing the history of modern cryptography and discussing the various types of ciphers that played key roles in that history. The chapter also examines some of the mathematical techniques that comprise cryptosystems, including hash functions. The chapter then extends this discussion by comparing traditional symmetric encryption systems with more modern asymmetric encryption systems and examining the role of asymmetric systems as the foundation of public-key encryption systems. Also covered are the cryptographybased protocols used in secure communications, including S-HTTP, S/MIME, SET, and SSH. The chapter then discusses steganography and its emerging role as an effective means of hiding information. Chapter 8 concludes by revisiting attacks on information security that are specifically targeted at cryptosystems.

> Chapter 9—Physical Security

A vital part of any information security process, physical security includes the management of physical facilities, the implementation of physical access control, and the oversight of environmental controls. Physical security involves a wide range of special considerations that encompass designing a secure data center, assessing the relative value of guards and watchdogs, and resolving technical issues in fire suppression and power conditioning. Chapter 9 examines these considerations by factoring in the physical security threats that modern organizations face.

> Chapter 10—Implementing Information Security

The preceding chapters provide guidelines for how an organization might design its information security program. Chapter 10 examines the elements critical to *implementing* this design. Key areas in this chapter include the bull's-eye model for implementing information security and a discussion of whether an organization should outsource components of its information security program. The chapter also discusses change management, program improvement, and additional planning for business continuity efforts.

> Chapter 11—Security and Personnel

The next area in the implementation stage addresses personnel issues. Chapter 11 examines both sides of the personnel coin: security personnel and security of personnel. It examines staffing issues, professional security credentials, and the implementation of employment policies and practices. The chapter also discusses how information security policy affects and is affected by consultants, temporary workers, and outside business partners.

> Chapter 12—Information Security Maintenance

Last and most important is the discussion of maintenance and change. Chapter 12 describes the ongoing technical and administrative evaluation of the information security program that an organization must perform to maintain the security of its information systems. This chapter explores the controlled administration of changes to modern information systems to prevent the introduction of new security vulnerabilities. Special considerations needed for the varieties of vulnerability analysis in modern organizations are explored, from Internet penetration testing to wireless network risk assessment. The chapter and the book conclude by covering the subject of digital forensics.

Features

Here are some features of the book's approach to information security:

Information Security Professionals' Common Bodies of Knowledge—Because the authors hold both the Certified Information Security Manager (CISM) and Certified Information Systems Security Professional (CISSP) credentials, those knowledge domains have had an influence in the design of the text. Although care was taken to avoid producing a certification study guide, the authors' backgrounds ensure that the book's treatment of information security integrates the CISM and CISSP Common Bodies of Knowledge (CBKs).

Chapter Scenarios—Each chapter opens and closes with a short story that features the same fictional company as it encounters information security issues commonly found in real-life organizations. At the end of each chapter, a set of discussion questions provides students and instructors with opportunities to discuss the issues suggested by the story as well as offering an opportunity to explore the ethical dimensions of those issues.

Clearly Defined Key Terms Boxes—At the start of every major section, the key terms for that section are listed and defined. While the terms are referenced in the body of the text, the isolation of the definitions from the discussion allows a smoother presentation of the key terms and supports their standardization throughout all Whitman and Mattord books.

Offline and Technical Details Boxes—Interspersed throughout the textbook, these sections highlight interesting topics and detailed technical issues, giving students the option of delving into information security topics more deeply.

Hands-On Learning—At the end of each chapter, students will find a chapter summary and review questions as well as exercises. In the exercises, students are asked to research, analyze, and write responses to reinforce learning objectives, deepen their understanding of the text, and examine the information security arena outside the classroom.

New to This Edition

- Coverage of the newest laws and industry trends
- Increased visibility for terminology used in the industry through Key Terms text boxes and integration of this terminology across the Whitman and Mattord textbook series
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MindTap[®] activities for Whitman and Mattord's *Principles of Information Security, Sixth Edition*, are designed to help students master the skills they need in today's workforce. Research shows employers need critical thinkers, troubleshooters, and creative problem-solvers to stay relevant in our fast-paced, technology-driven world. MindTap helps you achieve this with assignments and activities that provide hands-on practice, real-life relevance, and mastery of difficult concepts. Students are guided through assignments that progress from basic knowledge and understanding to more challenging problems.

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> Instructor Companion Site

Free to all instructors who adopt *Principles of Information Security, Sixth Edition*, for their courses is a complete package of instructor resources. These resources are available from the Cengage Web site, *www.cengagebrain.com*. Go to the product page for this book in the online catalog and choose "Instructor Downloads."

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- Cengage Testing Powered by Cognero: A flexible, online system that allows you to import, edit, and manipulate content from the text's test bank or elsewhere, including your own favorite test questions; create multiple test versions in an instant; and deliver tests from your LMS, your classroom, or wherever you want.
- *PowerPoint Presentations*: A set of Microsoft PowerPoint slides is included for each chapter. These slides are meant to be used as a teaching aid for classroom presentations, to be made available to students for chapter review, or to be printed for classroom distribution. Some tables and figures are included in the PowerPoint slides; however, all are available in the online instructor resources. Instructors are also at liberty to add their own slides.
- Lab Manual: Cengage has produced a lab manual (Hands-On Information Security Lab Manual, Fourth Edition) written by the authors that can be used to provide technical experiential exercises in conjunction with this book. Contact your Cengage learning consultant for more information.
- Readings and Cases: Cengage also produced two texts—Readings and Cases in the Management of Information Security (ISBN-13: 9780619216276) and Readings & Cases in Information Security: Law & Ethics (ISBN-13: 9781435441576)—by the authors, which make excellent companion texts. Contact your Cengage learning consultant for more information.
- Curriculum Model for Programs of Study in Information Security: In addition to the texts authored by this team, a curriculum model for programs of study in Information Security and Assurance is available from the Kennesaw State University Center for Information Security Education (http://infosec.kennesaw.edu). This document provides details on designing and implementing security coursework and curricula in academic institutions, as well as guidance and lessons learned from the authors' perspective.

Author Team

Michael Whitman and Herbert Mattord have jointly developed this text to merge knowledge from the world of academic study with practical experience from the business world.

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> Our Commitment

The authors are committed to serving the needs of adopters and readers of this book. We would be pleased and honored to receive feedback on the textbook and its supporting materials. You can contact us at *infosec@kennesaw.edu*.

Foreword

Information security is an art more than a science, and the mastery of protecting information requires multidisciplinary knowledge of a huge quantity of information plus experience and skill. You will find much of what you need here in this book as the authors take you through the security systems development life cycle using real-life scenarios to introduce each topic. The authors provide their perspective from many years of real-life experience, combined with their academic approach for a rich learning experience expertly presented in this book. You have chosen the authors and the book well.

Since you are reading this book, you are most likely working toward a career in information security or at least have serious interest in information security. You must anticipate that just about everybody hates the constraints that security puts on their work. This includes both the good guys and the bad guys—except for malicious hackers who love the security we install as a challenge to be beaten. We concentrate on stopping the intentional wrongdoers because it applies to stopping the accidental ones as well. Security to protect against accidental wrongdoers is not good enough against those with intent.

I have spent 40 years of my life in a field that I found to be exciting and rewarding, working with computers and pitting my wits against malicious people, and you will too. Security controls and practices include logging on and off, using passwords, encrypting and backing up vital information, locking doors and drawers, motivating stakeholders to support security, and installing antivirus software. These means of protection have no benefit except rarely, when adversities occur. Good security is in effect when nothing bad happens, and when nothing bad happens, who needs security? Nowadays, in addition to loss experience, we need it because the law, regulations, and auditors say so—especially if we deal with the personal information of others, electronic money, intellectual property, and keeping ahead of the competition.

There is great satisfaction in knowing that your employer's information and systems are reasonably secure and that you are paid a good salary, are the center of attention in emergencies, and are applying your wits against the bad guys. This makes up for the downside of your security work. It is no job for perfectionists because you will almost never be fully successful, and there will always be vulnerabilities that you aren't aware of or that the bad guys discover first. Our enemies have a great advantage over us. They have to find only one vulnerability and one target to attack in a known place, electronically or physically at a time of their choosing, while we must defend from potentially millions of attacks against assets and vulnerabilities that are no longer in one computer room but are spread all over the world. It's like playing a game in which you don't know your opponents and where they are, what they are doing, or why they are doing it, and they are secretly changing the rules as they play. You must be highly ethical, defensive, secretive, and cautious. Bragging about the great security you are employing might tip off the enemy. Enjoy the few successes that you experience, for you will not even know about some of them.

There is a story that describes the kind of war you are entering into. A small country inducted a young man into its ill-equipped army. The army had no guns, so it issued a broom to the new recruit for training purposes. In basic training, the young man asked, "What do I do with this broom?"

The instructor took him to the rifle range and told him to pretend the broom is a gun, aim it at the target, and say, "Bang, bang, bang." He did that. Then the instructor took him to bayonet practice, and the recruit said, "What do I do with this broom?"

The instructor said, "Pretend it is a gun with a bayonet and say, 'Stab, stab, stab.'"

The recruit did that as well. Then the war started and the army still didn't have guns; the young man found himself on the front line with enemy soldiers running toward him across a field. All he had was his trusty broom, so he could only do what he was trained to do. He aimed the broom at the enemy soldiers and said, "Bang, bang, bang." Some of the enemy soldiers fell down, but many kept coming. Some got so close that he had to say "Stab, stab, stab," and more enemy soldiers fell down. However, there was one stubborn enemy soldier (there always is in these stories) running toward him. The recruit said, "Bang, bang, bang," but to no effect. The enemy continued to get closer and the recruit said, "Stab, stab," but it still had no effect. In fact, the enemy soldier ran right over the recruit, broke his broom in half, and left him lying in the dirt. As the enemy soldier ran by, the recruit heard him muttering under his breath, "Tank, tank, tank."

I tell this story at the end of my many lectures on computer crime and security to impress on my audience that if you are going to win against crime, you must know the rules, and it is the criminals who are making up their own secret rules as they go along. This makes winning very difficult.

When I was lecturing in Rio de Janeiro, a young woman performed simultaneous translation into Portuguese for my audience of several hundred people, all with earphones clapped over their ears. In such situations, I have no idea what my audience is hearing, and after telling my joke nobody laughed. They just sat there with puzzled looks on their faces. After the lecture, I asked the translator what had happened. She had translated "tank, tank, tank" into "water tank, water tank, water tank." I and the recruit were both deceived that time.

Three weeks later, I was lecturing to an audience of French bankers at the George V Hotel in Paris. I had a bilingual friend listen to the translation of my talk. The same thing happened as

in Rio. Nobody laughed. Afterwards, I asked my friend what had happened. He said, "You will never believe this, but the translator translated 'tank, tank, tank' into 'merci, merci' (thanks)." Even in telling the joke, like the recruit, I didn't know the rules to the game.

Remember that when working in security, you are in a virtual army defending your employer and stakeholders from their enemies. From your point of view, the enemies will probably think and act irrationally, but from their perspective they are perfectly rational, with serious personal problems to solve and gains to be made by violating your security. You are no longer just a techie with the challenging job of installing technological controls in systems and networks. Most of your work should be in assisting potential victims to protect themselves from information adversities and dealing with your smart but often irrational enemies, even though you rarely see or even identify them. I spent a major part of my security career hunting down computer criminals and interviewing them and their victims, trying to obtain insights to do a better job of defending from their attacks. Likewise, you should use every opportunity to seek them out and get to know them. This experience gives you great cachet as a real and unique expert, even with minimal exposure to only a few enemies.

Comprehensiveness is an important part of the game you play for real stakes because the enemy will likely seek the easiest way to attack vulnerabilities and assets that you haven't fully protected yet or even know exist. For example, a threat that is rarely found on threat lists is endangerment of assets—putting information assets in harm's way. Endangerment is also one of the most common violations by security professionals when they reveal too much about their security and loss experience.

You must be thorough and meticulous and document everything pertinent, in case your competence is questioned and to meet the requirements of the Sarbanes-Oxley Law. Keep your documents safely locked away. Documentation is important so that when an adversity hits and you lose the game, you will have proof of being diligent in spite of the loss. Otherwise, your career could be damaged, or at least your effectiveness will be diminished. For example, if the loss occurred because management failed to give you an adequate budget and support for security you knew you required, you need to have documented that failure before the incident occurred. Don't brag about how great your security is, because it can always be beaten. Keep and expand checklists for everything: threats, vulnerabilities, assets, key potential victims, suspects of wrongdoing, security supporters and nonsupporters, attacks, enemies, criminal justice resources, auditors, regulators, and legal counsel. To assist your stakeholders, who are the front-line defenders of their information and systems, identify what they must protect and know the real extent of their security. Make sure that upper management and other people to whom you report understand the nature of your job and its limitations.

Use the best possible security practices yourself to set a good example. You will have a huge collection of sensitive passwords to do your job. Write them down, and keep the list safely in your wallet next to your credit card. Know as much as possible about the systems and networks in your organization and have access to experts who know the rest. Make good friends of local and national criminal justice officials, your organization's lawyers, insurance risk managers, human resources people, facilities managers, and auditors. Audits are one of the most powerful controls your organization has. Remember that people hate security and must be properly motivated by penalties and rewards to make it work. Seek ways to make security invisible or transparent to stakeholders while keeping it effective. Don't recommend or install controls or practices that stakeholders won't support, because they will beat you every time by

making it look like the controls are effective when they are not—a situation worse than no security at all.

One of the most exciting parts of the job is the insight you gain about the inner workings and secrets of your organization, its business, and its culture. As an information security consultant, I was privileged to learn about the culture and secrets of more than 250 of the largest corporations throughout the world. I had the opportunity to interview and advise the most powerful business executives, if only for a few minutes of their valuable time. You should always be ready with a "silver bullet" to use in your short time with top management for the greatest benefit of enterprise security. Carefully learn the limits of management's security appetites. Know the nature of the business, whether it is a government department or a hotly competitive business. I once found myself in a meeting with a board of directors intensely discussing the protection of their greatest trade secret, the manufacturing process of their new disposable diapers.

Finally, we come to the last important bit of advice. Be trustworthy and develop mutual trust among your peers. Your most important objectives are not just risk reduction and increased security. They also include diligence to avoid negligence and endangerment, compliance with all of the laws and standards, and enablement when security becomes a competitive or budget issue. To achieve these objectives, you must develop a trusting exchange of the most sensitive security intelligence among your peers so you'll know where your organization stands relative to other enterprises. But be discreet and careful about it. You need to know the generally accepted and current security solutions. If the information you exchange is exposed, it could ruin your career and others, and could create a disaster for your organization. Your personal and ethical performance must be spotless, and you must protect your reputation at all costs. Pay particular attention to the ethics section of this book. I recommend that you join the Information Systems Security Association, become active in it, and become professionally certified as soon as you are qualified. My favorite certification is the Certified Information Systems Security Professional (CISSP) from the International Information Systems Security Certification Consortium.

Donn B. Parker, CISSP *Retired* Los Altos, California

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Introduction to Information Security

Do not figure on opponents not attacking; worry about your own lack of preparation.

BOOK OF THE FIVE RINGS

For Amy, the day began like any other at the Sequential Label and Supply Company (SLS) help desk. Taking calls and helping office workers with computer problems was not glamorous, but she enjoyed the work; it was challenging and paid well enough. Some of her friends in the industry worked at bigger companies, some at cutting-edge tech companies, but they all agreed that jobs in information technology were a good way to pay the bills.

The phone rang, as it did about four times an hour. The first call of the day, from a worried user hoping Amy could help him out of a jam, seemed typical. The call display on her monitor showed some of the facts: the user's name, his phone number and department, where his office was on the company campus, and a list of his past calls to the help desk.

"Hi, Bob," she said. "Did you get that document formatting problem squared away?"

"Sure did, Amy. Hope we can figure out what's going on this time."

"We'll try, Bob. Tell me about it."

"Well, my PC is acting weird," Bob said. "When I go to the screen that has my e-mail program running, it doesn't respond to the mouse or the keyboard." 2

"Did you try a reboot yet?"

"Sure did. But the window wouldn't close, and I had to turn my PC off. After it restarted, I opened the e-mail program, and it's just like it was before—no response at all. The other stuff is working OK, but really, really slowly. Even my Internet browser is sluggish."

"OK, Bob. We've tried the usual stuff we can do over the phone. Let me open a case, and I'll dispatch a tech over as soon as possible."

Amy looked up at the help desk ticket status monitor on the wall at the end of the room. She saw that only two technicians were dispatched to user support at the moment, and since it was the day shift, four technicians were available. "Shouldn't be long at all, Bob."

She hung up and typed her notes into the company's trouble ticket tracking system. She assigned the newly generated case to the user dispatch queue, which would page the roving user support technician with the details in a few minutes.

A moment later, Amy looked up to see Charlie Moody, the senior manager of the server administration team, walking briskly down the hall. He was being trailed by three of his senior technicians as he made a beeline from his office to the room where the company servers were kept in a carefully controlled environment. They all looked worried.

Just then, Amy's screen beeped to alert her of a new e-mail. She glanced down. The screen beeped again—and again. It started beeping constantly. She clicked the envelope icon and, after a short delay, the mail window opened. She had 47 new e-mails in her inbox. She opened one from Davey Martinez in the Accounting Department. The subject line said, "Wait till you see this." The message body read, "Funniest joke you'll see today." Davey often sent her interesting and funny e-mails, and she clicked the file attachment icon to open the latest joke.

After that click, her PC showed the hourglass pointer icon for a second and then the normal pointer reappeared. Nothing happened. She clicked the next e-mail message in the queue. Nothing happened. Her phone rang again. She clicked the icon on her computer desktop to activate the call management software and activated her headset. "Hello, Help Desk, how can I help you?" She couldn't greet the caller by name because her computer had not responded.

"Hello, this is Erin Williams in Receiving."

Amy glanced down at her screen. Still no tracking system. She glanced up to the tally board and was surprised to see the inbound-call counter tallying up waiting calls like digits on a stopwatch. Amy had never seen so many calls come in at one time.

"Hi, Erin," Amy said. "What's up?"

"Nothing," Erin answered. "That's the problem." The rest of the call was a replay of Bob's, except that Amy had to jot notes down on a legal pad. She couldn't dispatch the user support team either. She looked at the ticket status monitor again. It had gone dark. No numbers at all.

Then she saw Charlie running down the hall from the server room. His expression had changed from worried to frantic.

Amy picked up the phone again. She wanted to check with her supervisor about what to do now. There was no dial tone.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this material, you should be able to:

- Define information security
- Recount the history of computer security, and explain how it evolved into information security
- Define key terms and critical concepts of information security
- Explain the role of security in the systems development life cycle
- Describe the information security roles of professionals within an organization

Introduction

Martin Fisher, IT Security Manager at Northside Hospital in Atlanta, believes that enterprise information security is a "critical business capability that needs to be aligned with corporate expectations and culture that provides the leadership and insight to identify risks and implement effective controls." He is not alone in his perspective. Many information security practitioners recognize that aligning information security needs with business objectives must be the top priority.

This chapter's opening scenario illustrates that information risks and controls may not be in balance at SLS. Though Amy works in a technical support role to help users with their problems, she did not recall her training about malicious e-mail attachments, such as worms or viruses, and fell victim to this form of attack herself. Understanding how malware might be the cause of a company's problems is an important skill for information technology (IT) support staff as well as users. SLS's management also shows signs of confusion and seems to have no idea how to contain this kind of incident. If you were in Amy's place and were faced with a similar situation, what would you do? How would you react? Would it occur to you that something far more insidious than a technical malfunction was happening at your company? As you explore the chapters of this book and learn more about information security, you will become more capable of answering these questions. But, before you can begin studying details about the discipline of information security, you must first know its history and evolution.

The History of Information Security

Key Term

computer security In the early days of computers, this term specified the need to secure the physical location of computer technology from outside threats. This term later came to represent all actions taken to preserve computer systems from losses. It has evolved into the current concept of information security as the scope of protecting information in an organization has expanded.

The history of information security begins with the concept of **computer security**. The need for computer security arose during World War II when the first mainframe computers were developed and used to aid computations for communication code breaking messages from enemy

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Earlier versions of the German code machine Enigma were first broken by the Poles in the 1930s. The British and Americans managed to break later, more complex versions during World War II. The increasingly complex versions of the Enigma, especially the submarine or *Unterseeboot* version of the Enigma, caused considerable anguish to Allied forces before finally being cracked. The information gained from decrypted transmissions was used to anticipate the actions of German armed forces. "Some ask why, if we were reading the Enigma, we did not win the war earlier. One might ask, instead, when, if ever, we would have won the war if we hadn't read it."¹

Figure 1-1 The Enigma

cryptographic devices like the Enigma, shown in Figure 1-1. Multiple levels of security were implemented to protect these devices and the missions they served. This required new processes as well as tried-and-true methods needed to maintain data confidentiality. Access to sensitive military locations, for example, was controlled by means of badges, keys, and the facial recognition of authorized personnel by security guards. The growing need to maintain national security eventually led to more complex and technologically sophisticated computer security safeguards.

During these early years, information security was a straightforward process composed predominantly of physical security and simple document classification schemes. The primary threats to security were physical theft of equipment, espionage against products of the systems, and sabotage. One of the first documented security problems that fell outside these categories occurred in the early 1960s, when a systems administrator was working on a MOTD (message of the day) file while another administrator was editing the password file. A software glitch mixed the two files, and the entire password file was printed on every output file.³

> The 1960s

During the Cold War, many more mainframe computers were brought online to accomplish more complex and sophisticated tasks. These mainframes required a less cumbersome process of communication than mailing magnetic tapes between computer centers. In response to this need, the Department of Defense's Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) began examining the feasibility of a redundant, networked communications system to support the military's exchange of information. In 1968, Dr. Larry Roberts developed the ARPANET

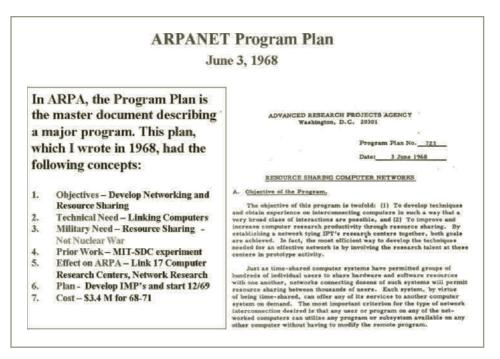


Figure 1-2 Development of the ARPANET

Source: Courtesy of Dr. Lawrence Roberts. Used with permission.⁴

project. Figure 1-2 is an excerpt from his Program Plan. ARPANET evolved into what we now know as the Internet, and Roberts became known as its founder.



For more information on Dr. Roberts and the history of the Internet, visit his Web site at www .packet.cc.

The 1970s and 80s

During the next decade, ARPANET became more popular and saw wider use, increasing the potential for its misuse. In 1973, Internet pioneer Robert M. Metcalfe (pictured in Figure 1-3) identified fundamental problems with ARPANET security. As one of the creators of Ethernet, a dominant local area networking protocol, he knew that individual remote sites did not have sufficient controls and safeguards to protect data from unauthorized remote users. Other problems abounded: vulnerability of password structure and formats; lack of safety procedures for dial-up connections; and nonexistent user identification and authorizations. Phone numbers were widely distributed and openly publicized on the walls of phone booths, giving hackers easy access to ARPANET. Because of the range and frequency of computer security violations and the explosion in the numbers of hosts and users on ARPANET, network security was commonly referred to as network insecurity.⁵ In 1978, Richard Bisbey and Dennis Hollingworth, two researchers in the Information Sciences Institute at the University of Southern California, published a study entitled "Protection Analysis: Final Report." It focused on a project undertaken by ARPA to understand and detect vulnerabilities in



Figure 1-3 Dr. Metcalfe receiving the National Medal of Technology Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Used with permission.

operating system security. For a timeline that includes this and other seminal studies of computer security, see Table 1-1.

Security that went beyond protecting the physical location of computing devices effectively began with a single paper published by the RAND Corporation in February 1970 for the Department of Defense. RAND Report R-609 attempted to define the multiple controls and mechanisms necessary for the protection of a computerized data processing system. The document was classified for almost ten years, and is now considered to be the paper that started the study of computer security.

The security—or lack thereof—of systems sharing resources inside the Department of Defense was brought to the attention of researchers in the spring and summer of 1967. At that time, systems were being acquired at a rapid rate and securing them was a pressing concern both for the military and defense contractors.

In June 1967, ARPA formed a task force to study the process of securing classified information systems. The task force was assembled in October 1967 and met regularly to formulate recommendations, which ultimately became the contents of RAND Report R-609.⁶ The document was declassified in 1979 and released as Security Controls for Computer Systems: Report of Defense Science Board Task Force on Computer Security-RAND Report R-609-1. The content of the two documents is identical with the exception of two transmittal memorandums.



For more information on the RAND Report, visit www.rand.org/pubs/reports/R609-1.html.

Date	Document
1968	Maurice Wilkes discusses password security in Time-Sharing Computer Systems.
1970	Willis H. Ware authors the report Security Controls for Computer Systems: Report of Defense Science Board Task Force on Computer Security-RAND Report R-609, which was not declassified until 1979. It became known as the seminal work identifying the need for computer security.
1973	Schell, Downey, and Popek examine the need for additional security in military systems in <i>Preliminary Notes on the Design of Secure Military Computer Systems.</i>
1975	The Federal Information Processing Standards (FIPS) examines DES (Digital Encryption Standard) in the <i>Federal Register</i> .
1978	Bisbey and Hollingworth publish their study "Protection Analysis: Final Report," which discussed the Protection Analysis project created by ARPA to better understand the vulnerabilities of operating system security and examine the possibility of automated vulnerability detection techniques in existing system software. ⁷
1979	Morris and Thompson author "Password Security: A Case History," published in the <i>Communications of the Association for Computing Machinery</i> (ACM). The paper examined the design history of a password security scheme on a remotely accessed, time-sharing system.
1979	Dennis Ritchie publishes "On the Security of UNIX" and "Protection of Data File Contents," which discussed secure user IDs, secure group IDs, and the problems inherent in the systems.
1982	The U.S. Department of Defense Computer Security Evaluation Center publishes the first version of the Trusted Computer Security (TCSEC) documents, which came to be known as the Rainbow Series.
1984	Grampp and Morris write "The UNIX System: UNIX Operating System Security." In this report, the authors examined four "important handles to computer security": physical control of premises and computer facilities, management commitment to security objectives, education of employees, and administrative procedures aimed at increased security. ⁸
1984	Reeds and Weinberger publish "File Security and the UNIX System Crypt Command." Their premise was: "No technique can be secure against wiretapping or its equivalent on the computer. Therefore no technique can be secure against the system administrator or other privileged usersthe naive user has no chance." ⁹
1992	Researchers for the Internet Engineering Task Force, working at the Naval Research Laboratory, develop the Simple Internet Protocol Plus (SIPP) Security protocols, creating what is now known as IPSEC security.

Table 1-1 Key Dates in Information Security

RAND Report R-609 was the first widely recognized published document to identify the role of management and policy issues in computer security. It noted that the wide use of networking components in military information systems introduced security risks that could not be mitigated by the routine practices then used to secure these systems. Figure 1-4 shows an illustration of computer network vulnerabilities from the 1979 release of this document. This paper signaled a pivotal moment in computer security history—the scope of computer security expanded significantly from the safety of physical locations and hardware to include:

- Securing the data
- · Limiting random and unauthorized access to that data
- Involving personnel from multiple levels of the organization in information security

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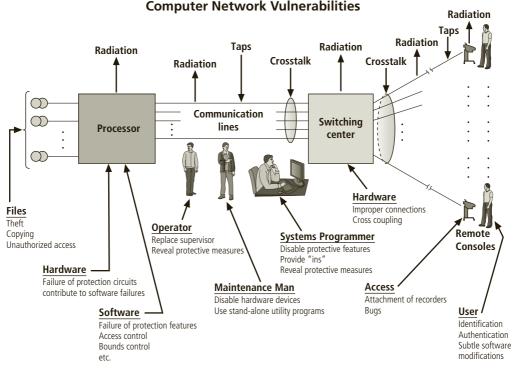


Figure 1-4 Illustration of computer network vulnerabilities from RAND Report R-609

Source: RAND Report R-609-1. Used with permission.¹⁰

MULTICS Much of the early research on computer security centered on a system called Multiplexed Information and Computing Service (MULTICS). Although it is now obsolete, MULTICS is noteworthy because it was the first operating system to integrate security into its core functions. It was a mainframe, time-sharing operating system developed in the mid-1960s by a consortium of General Electric (GE), Bell Labs, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT).

For more information on the MULTICS project, visit web.mit.edu/multics-history.

In 1969, not long after the restructuring of the MULTICS project, several of its developers (Ken Thompson, Dennis Ritchie, Rudd Canaday, and Doug Mcllroy) created a new operating system called UNIX. While the MULTICS system implemented multiple security levels and passwords, the UNIX system did not. Its primary function, text processing, did not require the same level of security as that of its predecessor. Not until the early 1970s did even the simplest component of security, the password function, become a component of UNIX.

In the late 1970s, the microprocessor brought the personal computer (PC) and a new age of computing. The PC became the workhorse of modern computing, moving it out of the data center. This decentralization of data processing systems in the 1980s gave rise to networking—the interconnecting of PCs and mainframe computers, which enabled the entire computing community to make all its resources work together.

In the early 1980s, TCP (the Transmission Control Protocol) and IP (the Internet Protocol) were developed and became the primary protocols for the ARPANET, eventually becoming the protocols we use on the Internet to this day. Also during this time frame, DNS, the hier-archical Domain Name System, was developed. The first dial-up Internet service provider (ISP)—The World, operated by Standard Tool & Die—came online, allowing home users to access the Internet. Prior to that, vendors like CompuServe, GEnie, Prodigy, and Delphi had provided dial-up access for online computer services, while independent Bulletin Board Systems (BBSs) became popular for sharing information among their subscribers.

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For more information on the history of the Internet, visit www.livescience.com/20727-internethistory.html.

In the mid-1980s, the U.S. Government passed several key pieces of legislation that formalized the recognition of computer security as a critical issue for federal information systems. The Computer Fraud and Abuse Act of 1986 and the Computer Security Act of 1987 defined computer security and specified responsibilities and associated penalties. These laws and others are covered in Chapter 3, "Legal, Ethical, and Professional Issues in Information Security."

In 1988, the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) within the Department of Defense created the Computer Emergency Response Team (CERT) to address network security.

> The 1990s

At the close of the 20th century, networks of computers became more common, as did the need to connect them to each other. This gave rise to the Internet, the first global network of networks. The Internet was made available to the general public in the 1990s after decades of being the domain of government, academia, and dedicated industry professionals. The Internet brought connectivity to virtually all computers that could reach a phone line or an Internet-connected local area network (LAN). After the Internet was commercialized, the technology became pervasive, reaching almost every corner of the globe with an expanding array of uses.

Since its inception as ARPANET, a tool for sharing Defense Department information, the Internet has become an interconnection of millions of networks. At first, these connections were based on de facto standards because industry standards for interconnected networks did not exist. These de facto standards did little to ensure the security of information, though some degree of security was introduced as precursor technologies were widely adopted and became industry standards. However, early Internet deployment treated security as a low priority. In fact, many problems that plague e-mail on the Internet today result from this early lack of security. At that time, when all Internet and e-mail users were presumably trustworthy computer scientists, mail server authentication and e-mail encryption did not seem necessary. Early computing approaches relied on security that was built into the physical environment of the data center that housed the computers. As networked computers became the dominant style of computing, the ability to physically secure a networked computer was lost, and the stored information became more exposed to security threats.

In 1993, the first DEFCON conference was held in Las Vegas. Originally it was established as a gathering for people interested in information security, including authors, lawyers, government employees, and law enforcement officials. A compelling topic was the involvement of hackers in creating an interesting venue for the exchange of information between two adversarial groups—the "white hats" of law enforcement and security professionals and the "black hats" of hackers and computer criminals. 1