

Question:

Read chapter 4 in *Computer Science: An Overview* and note especially section 4.5 on Security. Create a **1 page** document which will summarize the last section in the chapter on “Legal Approaches to Network Security.” In your own words, explain the author’s points from the first paragraph concisely and accurately. This will be the first paragraph in your document. In the following paragraphs of your document, summarize the author’s remaining major points. You will express the author’s ideas without using the author’s words. At the end of your document, you will include this paragraph:

Instructions:

- The document should be single spaced using standard 1” margins and an appropriate 12 point proportional font such as Century Schoolbook.
- The document should be clear and concise, free from syntax and semantic errors. Be sure to carefully proof read your document several times before submitting it.
- Please provide plagiarism free document
- Please submit it on time

I have attached the required material below, please go through that material and answer accordingly.

Another way of enhancing the security of computer networking systems is to apply legal remedies. There are, however, two obstacles to this approach. The first is that making an action illegal does not preclude the action. All it does is provide a legal recourse. The second is that the international nature of networking means that obtaining recourse is often very difficult. What is illegal in one country might be legal in another. Ultimately, enhancing network security by legal means is an international project, and thus must be handled by international legal bodies a potential player would be the International Court of Justice in The Hague.

Having made these disclaimers, we must admit that, although less than perfect, legal forces still have a tremendous influence, and thus it behooves us to explore some of the legal steps that are being taken to resolve conflicts in the networking arena. For this purpose, we use examples from the federal laws of the United States. Similar examples could be drawn from other government bodies such as the European Union.

We begin with the proliferation of malware. In the United States this problem is addressed by the Computer Fraud and Abuse Act, which was first passed in 1984, although it has been amended several times. It is under this act that most cases involving the introduction of worms and viruses have been prosecuted. In short, the act requires proof that the defendant knowingly caused the transmission of a program or data that intentionally caused damage.

The Computer Fraud and Abuse Act also covers cases involving the theft of information. In particular, the act outlaws obtaining anything of value via the unauthorized access of a computer. Courts have tended to assign a broad interpretation to the phrase anything of value, and thus the Computer Fraud and Abuse Act has been applied to more than the theft of information. For instance, courts have ruled that the mere use of a computer might constitute anything of value.

The right of privacy is another, and perhaps the most controversial, networking issue facing the legal community. Questions involving an employer's right to monitor the communications of employees and the extent to which an Internet service provider is authorized to access the information being communicated by its clients have been given considerable thought. In the United States, many of these questions are addressed by the Electronic Communication Privacy Act (ECPA) of 1986, which has its origins in legislation to control wiretapping. Although the act is lengthy, its intent is captured in a few short excerpts. In particular, it states that

Except as otherwise specifically provided in this chapter any person who intentionally intercepts, endeavors to intercept, or procures any other person to intercept or endeavor to intercept, any wire, oral, or electronic communication . . . shall be punished as provided in subsection (4) or shall be subject to suit as provided in subsection (5).

and

... any person or entity providing an electronic communication service to the public shall not intentionally divulge the contents of any communication ... on that service to any person or entity other than an addressee or intended recipient of such communication or an agent of such addressee or intended recipient.

In brief, the ECPA confirms an individual's right to private communication it is illegal for an Internet service provider to release information about the communication of its clients, and it is illegal for unauthorized personnel to eavesdrop on another's communication. But the ECPA leaves room for debate. For example, the question regarding the rights of an employer to monitor the communication of employees becomes a question of authorization, which courts have tended to grant to employers when the communication is carried out using the employer's equipment.

Moreover, the act goes on to give some government agencies authority to monitor electronic communications under certain restrictions. These provisions have been the source of much debate. For example, in 2000 the FBI revealed the existence of its system, called Carnivore, that reports on the communication of all subscribers of an Internet service provider rather than just a court- designated target, and in 2001 in response to the terrorist attack on the World Trade Center, congress passed the controversial USA PATRIOT (Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism) Act that modified the restrictions under which government agencies must operate.

In addition to the legal and ethical controversies raised by these developments, providing monitoring rights raises some technical problems that are more pertinent to our study. One is that to provide these capabilities, a communication system must be constructed and programmed so that communications can be monitored. To establish such capabilities was the goal of the Communications Assistance for Law Enforcement Act (CALEA). It requires telecommunication carriers to modify their equipment to accommodate law enforcement taps a requirement that has been complex and expensive to meet.

Another controversial issue involves the clash between the government's right to monitor communications and the public's right to use encryption. If the messages being monitored are well encrypted, then tapping the communication is of limited

value to law enforcement agencies. Governments in the United States, Canada, and Europe are considering systems that would require the registration of ciphering keys, but such demands are being fought by corporations. After all, due to corporate espionage it is understandable that requiring the registration of ciphering keys would make many law-abiding corporations, as well as citizens, uncomfortable. How secure can the registration system be?

Finally, as a means of recognizing the scope of legal issues surrounding the Internet, we cite the Anticybersquatting Consumer Protection Act of 1999 that is designed to protect organizations from impostors who might otherwise establish look-a-like domain names (a practice known as cybersquatting). The act prohibits the use of domain names that are identical or confusingly similar to another's trademark or common law trademark. One effect is that although the act does not outlaw domain name speculation (the process of registering potentially desirable domain names and later selling the rights to that name), it limits the practice to generic domain names. Thus, a domain name speculator might legally register a generic name such as GreatUsedCars.com but might not be able to claim rights to the name BigAlUsedCars.com if Big Al is already in the used car business. Such distinctions are often the subject of debate in lawsuits based on the Anticybersquatting Consumer Protection Act.