

2. SUBJECT NOTES PPTs SELF STUDY MATERIALS:

UNIT-1

Introduction to Cyber Law Evolution of Computer Technology:

Introduction to Cyber Security and cyber laws

Introduction-Cyber Security Basics:

Cyber security is the most concerned matter as cyber threats and attacks are overgrowing. Attackers are now using more sophisticated techniques to target the systems. Individuals, small-scale businesses or large organizations, are all being impacted. So, all these firms whether IT or non-IT firms have understood the importance of Cyber Security and focusing on adopting all possible measures to deal with cyber threats.

What is cyber security?

"Cyber security is primarily about people, processes, and technologies working together to encompass the full range of threat reduction, vulnerability reduction, deterrence, international engagement, incident response, resiliency, and recovery policies and activities, including computer network operations, information assurance, law enforcement, etc."

OR

Cyber security is the body of technologies, processes, and practices designed to protect networks, computers, programs and data from attack, damage or unauthorized access.

- The term cyber security refers to techniques and practices designed to protect digital data.
- The data that is stored, transmitted or used on an information system.

OR

Cyber security is the protection of Internet-

connected systems, including hardware, software, and data from cyber attacks. It is made up of two words one is cyber and other is security.

- Cyber is related to the technology which contains systems, network and programs or data.
- Whereas security is related to the protection which includes systems security, network security and application and information security.

Why is cyber security important?

Listed below are the reasons why cyber security is so important in what's become a predominant digital world:

- Cyber attacks can be extremely expensive for businesses to endure.
- In addition to financial damages suffered by the business, a data breach can also inflict untold reputational damage.

Cyber-attacks these days are becoming progressively destructive. Cybercriminals are using more sophisticated ways to initiate cyber attacks.

- Regulations such as GDPR are forcing organizations to take better care of the personal data they hold.

Because of these reasons, cyber security has become an important part of the business and the focus now is on developing appropriate response plans that minimize the damage in the event of a cyber attack.

But, an organization or an individual can develop a proper response plan only when he has a good grip on cyber security fundamentals.

Cyber Security Fundamentals – Confidentiality:

Confidentiality is about preventing the disclosure of data to unauthorized parties. It also means trying to keep the identity of authorized parties involved in sharing and holding data private and anonymous.

Often confidentiality is compromised by cracking poorly encrypted data, Man-in-the-

middle (MITM) attacks, disclosing sensitive data. Standard measures to establish confidentiality include:

- Data encryption
- Two-factor authentication
- Biometric verification
- Security tokens

Integrity

Integrity refers to protecting information from being modified by unauthorized parties. Standard measures to guarantee integrity include:

- Cryptographic checksums
- Using file permissions
- Uninterrupted power supplies
- Data backups

Availability

Availability is making sure that authorized parties are able to access the information when needed. Standard measures to guarantee availability include:

- Backing up data to external drives
- Implementing firewalls
- Having backup power supplies
- Data redundancy

Types of Cyber Attacks

A cyber-attack is an exploitation of computer systems and networks. It uses malicious code to alter computer code, logic or data and lead to cybercrimes, such as information and identity theft.

Cyber-attacks can be classified into the following categories:

- 1) Web-based attacks
 - 2) System-based attacks
- These are the attacks which occur on a website or web applications. Some of the important web-based attacks are as follows-

1. Injection attacks

It is the attack in which some data will be injected into a web application to manipulate the application and fetch the required information.

Example- SQL Injection, code Injection, log Injection, XML Injection etc.

2. DNS spoofing

DNS Spoofing is a type of computer security hacking. Whereby a data is introduced into a DNS resolver's cache causing the name server to return an incorrect IP address, diverting traffic to the attacker's computer or any other computer. The DNS spoofing attacks can go on for a long period of time without being detected and can cause serious security issues.

3. Session Hijacking

It is a security attack on a user session over a protected network. Web applications create cookies to store the state and user sessions. By stealing the cookies, an attacker can have access to all of the user data.

4. Phishing

Phishing is a type of attack which attempts to steal sensitive information like user login credentials and credit card number. It occurs when an attacker is masquerading as a trustworthy entity in electronic communication.

5. Brute force

It is a type of attack which uses a trial and error method. This attack generates a large number of guesses and validates them to obtain actual data like user password and personal identification number. This attack may be used by criminals to crack encrypted data, or by security analysts to test an organization's network security.

6. Denial of Service

It is an attack which meant to make a server or network resource unavailable to the users. It accomplishes this by flooding the target with traffic or sending it information that triggers a crash. It uses the single system and single internet connection to attack a server. It can be classified into the following-

Volume-based attacks-

Its goal is to saturate the bandwidth of the attacked site, and is measured in bit per second. **Protocol attacks-**

It consumes actual server resources, and is measured in a packet.

Application layer attacks- Its goal is to crash the web server and is measured in request per second.

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7. Dictionary attacks

This type of attack stores the list of commonly used passwords and validates them to get the original password.

8. URL Interpretation

It is a type of attack where we can change the certain parts of a URL, and one can make a web server to deliver web pages for which he is not authorized to browse.

9. File Inclusion attacks

It is a type of attack that allows an attacker to access unauthorized or essential files which is available on the web server or to execute malicious files on the web server by making use of the include functionality.

10. Man in the middle attacks

It is a type of attack that allows an attacker to intercept the connection between client and server and acts as a bridge between them. Due to this, an attacker will be able to read, insert and modify the data in the intercepted connection.

System-based attacks

These are the attacks which are intended to compromise a computer or a computer network. Some of the important system-based attacks are as follows-

1. Virus

It is a type of malicious software program that spreads throughout the computer files without the knowledge of a user. It is a self-replicating malicious computer program that replicates by inserting copies of itself into other computer programs when executed. It can also execute instructions that cause harm to the system.

2. Worm

It is a type of malware whose primary function is to replicate itself to spread to uninfected computers. It works same as the computer virus. Worms often originate from email attachments that appear to be from trusted senders.

3. Trojan horse

It is a malicious program that occurs unexpected changes to computer setting and unusual activity, even when the computers should be idle. It misleads the user of its true intent. It appears to be a normal application but when opened/executed some malicious code will run in the background.

4. Backdoors

It is a method that bypasses the normal authentication process. A developer may create a backdoor so that an application or operating system can be accessed for troubleshooting or other purposes.

5. Bots

A bot (short for "robot") is an automated process that interacts with other network services. Some bots program run automatically, while others only execute commands when they receive specific input. Common examples of bots programs are the crawler, chatroom bots, and malicious bots.

Cyber Security and Cyber Laws

As technology evolved, the need to regulate human behavior evolved too. Cyber laws came into existence in order to ensure that people use technology and avoid its misuse.

If an individual commits an act which violates the rights of a person in the cyberspace, then it is treated as a cyberspace violation and punishable under the provisions of the cyber laws.

Since the cyberspace is completely different from the physical world, traditional laws are not applicable here. In order to provide cyber security to users, the government introduced several cyber laws.

When the internet was designed and developed, the developers had no idea that it would have the potential of growing to such a great extent.

Today, many people are using the internet for illegal and immoral activities which need regulation. In the cyberspace things like money laundering, identity theft, terrorism, etc. have created a need for stringent laws to enhance cybersecurity.

Additionally, many technologically qualified criminals like hackers interfere with internet accounts through the Domain Name Server (DNS), IP address, phishing, etc. and gain unauthorized access to users' computer systems and steal data.

While there is no clear definition of cyberlaw, it is broadly the legal subject which emanated from the development of technology, innovation of computers, use of the internet, etc.

CyberLaw:

Cyberlaws, more commonly known as internet laws, are laws that are related to legal informatics, regulating the digital distribution of information, e-commerce, software, and information security. It usually covers many related areas, such as usage and access to the internet, freedom of speech and privacy.

CyberLaw encapsulates legal issues which are related to the use of communicative, transactional, and distributive aspects of networked information technologies and devices.

It is not as distinct as the Property Law or other such laws since it covers many areas of the law and regulation. It encompasses the legal, statutory, and constitutional provisions which affect computers and networks.

Further, it concerns itself with individuals, and institutions which:

- Play an important part in providing access to cyberspace
- Create hardware or software which allows people to access cyberspace
- Use their own computers and enter cyberspace

CyberLaw is a generic term referring to all the legal and regulatory aspects of the internet. Everything concerned with or related to or emanating from any legal aspects or concerning any activities of the citizens in the cyberspace comes within the ambit of cyber laws.

Why cybercrime laws:

Many security and privacy issues arise with the use of the internet. Ingenious criminals have been known to use advanced strategies to carry out unauthorized activities and potential fraud.

What is Doctrinal and Non-Doctrinal? What do you mean by Legal Research?

Legal research is the process of identifying and finding information necessary to support legal decision-making. It is generally the process of checking for a legal precedent that can be cited in a brief for a trial. Virtually every lawsuit, appeal, criminal case, and the legal process usually require some amount of legal research. Legal research skills are of great importance for lawyers to solve any legal case, regardless of area or type of practice. The most basic step in legal research is to find an noteworthy case governing the issues in question. As most legal researchers know, this is far more difficult than it sounds.

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A researcher's analysis of a case often begins in the initial research stage when he/she identifies the relevant facts and determines the legal issues that must be researched. As this analysis continues, it is further refined as they decide where, how, and what to search. When they find relevant legal materials, they must understand them and how they apply to the facts of their case in hand. This research provides a crucial analytical foundation that will aid them in their decisions for the remainder of the case.

Whether you are a Lawyer, a paralegal or a law student, it is essential that Legal research is done in an effective manner. This is where the methodology comes into play. Different cases must be approached in different ways and this is why it is important to know which type of legal research methodology is suitable for your case and helpful for your client.

There are many types of Legal Research like Descriptive Legal Research, Quantitative Research, Qualitative Legal Research, Analytical Legal Research, Applied Legal Research, Pure Legal Research, Conceptual Legal Research, Empirical Legal Research, Comparative Legal Research, Doctrinal Legal Research, Non-doctrinal Legal Research, etc.

This article talks in-depth about two types of Legal Research:

- **Doctrinal Legal Research**
- **Non-Doctrinal Legal Research**

What is the meaning of the word "Doctrine" under Doctrinal Research??

Doctrine Definition: A rule or principle of the law established through the repeated application of legal precedents.

Common law lawyers use this term to refer to an established method of resolving similar factual or legal issues. For Example **Doctrine of Indoor Management** – (According to this doctrine, persons dealing with the company need not inquire whether internal proceedings relating to the contract are followed correctly, once they are satisfied that the transaction is in accordance with the memorandum and articles of association.)

The word doctrine refers to a set of beliefs. The word comes from the Latin doctor for "teacher," so think of a doctrine as the teachings of a school, religion, or political group. Doctrine and doctor derive from the same Latin word, docere, which means "to teach": doctor means "teacher," and doctrina means "teaching, learning."

A legal doctrine is a framework, set of rules, procedural steps, or test, often established through precedent in the common law, through which judgments can be determined in a given legal case.

What is the meaning of the word "Non-Doctrine" under Non-Doctrinal Research?

The word *Non-Doctrine* under Non-Doctrinal Research deals with the Socio-legal aspect of the research. Here, fieldwork is the most important part of the research. Thus scope is wider. It is more concerned with social values. It can be a problem, policy or law reform based. Non Doctrinal research can be qualitative or quantitative or could be part of a large scale project.

What is Doctrinal Legal Research?

The central question of inquiry here is 'what is the law?' on a particular issue. It is concerned with finding the law, rigorously analysing it and coming up with logical reasoning behind it. Therefore, it immensely contributes to the continuity, consistency, and certainty of law.

The basic information can be found in the statutory material, i.e. primary sources as well in the secondary sources. However, the research has its own limitations, it is subjective, that is limited to the perception of the researcher, away from the actual working of the law, devoid of factors that lie outside the boundaries of the law, and fails to focus on the actual practice of the courts.

Methodology of Doctrinal Research

Doctrinal or library-based research is the most common methodology employed by those undertaking research in law. Doctrinal research asks, what is the law in a particular case. It is concerned with the analysis of the legal doctrine and how it was developed and applied. As it is well known, this is purely theoretical research that consists of either simpler research aimed at finding a specific statement of the law, or is legal analysis with more complex logic and depth. In short, it is library-based research that seeks to find the "one right answer" to certain legal issues or questions. Thus, the aim of this type of methodology is to make specific inquiries in order to identify specific pieces of information.

For example, an investigation can be conducted to find specific legislation that monitors occurrences of child abuse in a particular jurisdiction. All inquiries will have specific answers to specific questions that can be easily found and verified, and these are the keys to doctrinal or library-based research. These steps include analysis of legal issues in order to determine the need for further research. This stage often involves a great deal of background reading on a subject using sources such as dictionaries, encyclopaedias, major textbooks, treatises, and journals that are accompanied by footnotes. These sources provide definitions of terms that help the researcher understand and summarize the legal principles involved in the field of law under study.

Normative Character of Doctrinal Research

The normative character of doctrinal research in particular contexts, is concerned with the discovery and development of legal doctrines and research, for publication in textbooks and journals that take the form of asking the question, "What is the law?"

Legal rules are normative in character because they dictate how we should behave as individuals. They make no attempt to either explain, predict, or even understand human behaviour, just to describe it. In short, doctrinal research is not therefore research about law at all. In asking "What is the law?" it takes the internal cognitive approach oriented to the aim of the study. For this reason, it is sometimes described as research in the field of law.

What is Non-Doctrinal Legal Research?

Non-doctrinal research, also known as social-legal research, is research that employs methods taken from other disciplines to generate empirical data that answers research questions. It can be a problem, policy, or a reform of the existing law. A legal non-doctrinal finding can be qualitative or quantitative, and a dogmatic non-doctrinal finding can be part of a large-scale project. The non-doctrinal approach allows the researcher to conduct research that analyses the law from the perspective of other scientific disciplines, and to employ those disciplines in drafting the law. For example, in the behavioural sciences, there is a standard form of a consumer contract that contributes to the study of psychological phenomena:

1. The tendency of consumers not to read the standard form contract,
2. The inability of consumers to evaluate the terms of the contract correctly once they do read. And
3. The ability of sellers to deal with consumers. Because it uses non-sectarian legal experimental data, it provides vital insights about the law in context, i.e. how the law works out in the real world. Legal research is experimental and valuable in detecting and explaining practices and procedures in legal and regulatory systems. It is also valuable in settling disputes and impacts the legal phenomena of social institutions and businesses. Similarly, experimental legal research in economics applies legal analysis, statistical inference, and economic modelling, to the core areas of national and international law, such as tort, property, contracts, criminal law, law enforcement, and litigation. Earlier research can be used to analyze the economics of legal negligence theory.

Consequential approach: Definition & Examples

The logo for NIRCOM features the word "NIRCOM" in a large, bold, purple sans-serif font. The letter "O" is stylized with a yellow sun-like circle in the center. Below the text is a thick purple horizontal line.

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Summary

- A consensus theory is one which believes that the institutions of society are working together to maintain social cohesion and stability.
- Value consensus assumes that the norms and values of society are generally agreed upon and that social life is based on cooperation rather than conflict.
- Consensus theories have a philosophical tradition dating back to Plato and Rousseau, who argued for structures that maintain the consensus of society.
- The first formal sociological consensus theory, however, is Emile Durkheim's Functionalism, which argues that all institutions within a society serve an essential purpose.
- Others, such as Merton, elaborated on Durkheim's functionalist theory, adding that institutions can also be dysfunctional. Nonetheless, these theories are still consensus theories.
- More recently, consensus theories have been extended into pluralism and the "new right." Pluralism argues that different groups, or subcultures, within society, can have differing norms and values, but there are at least some overriding, shared societal norms.
- Meanwhile, the new right emphasizes how the breakdown of social institutions can harm society through the dismantling of value consensus. Criminologists also commonly use consensus theories. One notable example of a criminological consensus theory is strain theory.

Definition

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The term consensus means agreement. It is used in sociology to describe theories that stress the essential cohesion and solidarity of society, where the core principle of social life is an agreement or the mutual cooperation of the members of a society.

These theories see common experiences, interests, and values as the defining characteristic of a population or a society. For example, a consensus theorist may study sports as a source of binding people together in a shared experience or the role that education plays in instilling shared [norms and values](#).

There is usually a legitimate authority involved in policing the consensus, which also guarantees that societal norms tend to persist.

Consensus theory is often contrasted with conflict theory. This perspective was first developed and popularized by the Harvard University sociologist Talcott Parsons (1939, 1951), who believed that the equilibrium of social systems and the integration of various elements within them were the foundations of social systems.

Consensus theories often serve as a sociological argument for the furtherance and preservation of the status quo. In the view of consensus theories, rules are set and inherently functional; whoever does not respect them is, by default, deviant.

Examples Of Consensus Theories

A consensus approach refers to sociological theories that argue that some overriding consensus as to the norms and values of a society is essential for its function.

According to consensus theories, these agreed-upon norms and values are inherently functional and beneficial. This means that when someone in society counters these norms and values, they are behaving delinquently.

Consensus-like theories have a philosophical tradition dating back to Plato and Rousseau, who argued for structures that maintain the consensus of society. The first formal sociological consensus theory, however, is [Emile Durkheim's Functionalism](#), which argues that all institutions within a society serve an essential purpose.

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5 Different Approaches to Maintaining Cyber Security

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Cybersecurity in 2021 is very important. It is becoming a necessity for businesses to have strong security solutions. Today, it is not a good security approach to use just one security tool. Enterprises pay huge fines or go out of business because of simple system hacks. According to [Forbes](#), cybersecurity is crucial to both small startups and large corporations.

Cybersecurity is not plug-and-play. It demands investment in various tools alongside a keen focus on training and customization of tools and integration to realize the return on investment.

Since every company is a technology company, the stakes are very high. Technology is no longer a supplement to business operations since, in most cases, digital assets are at the core of business operations.

To help curb security threats, this article highlights five different ways of preventing cyberattacks.

What is Cyber Security?

It is the protection of networked systems such as data, software, and hardware from cyber threats. Both enterprises and individuals rely on this practice to protect computer systems and data centers from unauthorized access.

A robust cybersecurity approach can withstand malicious attacks aimed at accessing, altering, deleting, destroying, or extorting a user's or organization's systems and valuable data. Also, cybersecurity is important in thwarting attacks designed to disrupt or disable the operation of a system.

Importance of Cyber Security

The increasing number of programs, [devices](#), and [users in modern enterprises](#), coupled with increased confidential and sensitive data, increases the importance of cyber security.

Also, the growing number and complexity of cyberattack techniques increase the need for robust cybersecurity.

Approaches to Maintaining Cyber Security

Across all enterprises, maintaining cyber security within a constantly changing threat landscape is a big challenge. Traditional reactive approaches are no longer sufficient. To acclimatize to the evolving security threats, businesses need more proactive and adaptive approaches.

Automating routine security tasks

Today, [security automation](#) relies on software-based processes to investigate, detect, and fix threats to systems and applications. It can take place with or without manual input. When used in conjunction with existing security measures, automation assists in establishing incoming cyber threats, prioritizing remediation, and offering actionable information to security teams for faster response.

Security automation is a process that connects tools and solutions for finding and fixing vulnerabilities in software. When development and security teams automate the identification, prioritization, and remediation, they can pay attention to challenging aspects of ensuring the deployed application remains secure.

Since hackers target applications more often, a manual response is usually labor-intensive and slow. However, automating application security provides an easy and repeatable process that ensures the technology environment of a business remains secure. In realizing automated security, the best application security practices recommend relying on various automated tools in each development phase.

Security Processes That can be Automated Automation can manage the tedious and crucial aspects of a cyber security framework. Below are the five processes that can benefit from security automation.

- **Monitoring and detecting threats:** Businesses should be able to see all the areas of the IT environment all the time. Security monitoring tools offer such visibility at scale and can monitor any detected threats. Some automation tools are capable of monitoring open-source code in applications during production and notifying security teams when they detect vulnerabilities.
- **Investigating threats:** After establishing a vulnerability, security automation can discover affected nodes or machines, the level of damage, and the vulnerability exploited. Compared to security teams, security automation accomplishes this forensic task much faster than engineers or developers. For instance, in case of a denial of service (DoS) attack, security automation can establish if it was caused by misuse or an abrupt HTTP flood. The details help establish the necessary remediation or protection.
- **Responding to incidents:** Security automation provides a quick way of responding to incidents. It helps remove malware, deactivate a service or install upgrades or patches as safeguards against new attacks.
- **Permission management:** One of the key cyber security tasks involves managing users and permissions. If a system has thousands of users, it is a challenge to do it manually. However, automating the process of provisioning and deprovisioning users saves a lot of resources and time.
- **Application and business continuity:** Cyber security automation can rely on IP blocking in case of a brute force attack to avoid damage while allowing other IP addresses. In addition, automation can replicate essential server instances, which helps ensure critical data is always available.

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Educating and training users

For any organization serious about maintaining cybersecurity, employee training will be part of its DNA. Often, data breaches arise from human psychological weaknesses. So, having a good security training curriculum for employees goes a long way in maintaining cyber security and protecting assets and data.

The curriculum should include awareness training targeting employees and developers to carry out coding. Organizations should do such training regularly instead of doing it once per year. Also, conduct simulations such as phishing tests to assist employees in identifying and stopping social engineering attacks. Such training helps employees establish warning signs of a security breach, safe practices, and ways of responding to a suspected attack.

Document security policies Have a knowledge repository that contains comprehensive software security policies. These security policies let employees such as network administrators and security staff understand the activities taking place and why. However, it is not enough to have policies. Organizations should ensure everybody reads them. Also, it should be part of onboarding new employees.

Network segmentation

Segmenting a company network entails applying the principle of least privilege. With appropriate network segmentation, businesses can limit the movement of attackers. It starts by establishing where critical data is stored and using appropriate security controls that limit traffic in and out of such sensitive network segments.

Monitoring user activities

Although organizations trust their employees, they have to verify employees are adhering to the best security practices. Thus, monitoring helps detect suspicious operations like privilege abuse or user impersonation.

Maintaining cybersecurity aims to ensure an organization's data remains safe from both external and internal bad actors. It combines the use of technologies, practices, processes, and structures to safeguard data, computers, and software from unauthorized access.

3 Proactive Approaches to Cyber Security



Cybersecurity is critically important to every organization and, as a security professional, it is your difficult job to ensure that company data is safe. But what are the best and most current ways to keep information secure? Here we look at three of the best proactive approaches to cybersecurity.

1. Threat Detection

Threat detection is one of the most innovative and effective ways to stay on top of cyber criminals. This collaborative approach is an innovative way for the community of cybersecurity professionals to pool resources and information,

staying one step ahead of hackers.

Threat intelligence is your best advantage over loss of data, finances, and public trust. Threat intelligence provides real-world, real-time information on adversaries, threats, and malicious attacks.

More and more businesses across all industries are implementing threat intelligence programs in their organizations. The development process is critically important to ensure that you are receiving relevant and prioritized threat data that is valuable for your organization. Working with the right partner when embarking on this process will help save you time, money, and stress.

2. DPM 5GL Real-Time Compliance

The need for real-time info is critical. According to cybersecurity expert Larry Karisny, author of Will DPM 5GL Save Cybersecurity?, “We must move forward from historical analysis to real-time 5GL event patterns if we are to successfully monitor data-in-motion activities. This is where and how we must deploy new cybersecurity technologies to truly defend ourselves against cyberattacks.”

DPM 5GL stands for Digital Process Management 5th Generation Programming Language and it is designed to detect anomalies from regular patterns. By relying on pattern analysis rather than algorithms, DPM 5GL allows for real-time audit and analysis. If it always seems like hackers are one step ahead of you, it is because they usually are. This protocol attempts to level the playing field by mitigating the typical advantages that hackers have.

3. Encryption

Encryption is like your oldest cybersecurity friend. It may not be the newest approach, but it certainly has its advantages. Cryptographicalgorithms have long been used in security protocols, and many current products still support older encryption measures.

The previous go-to 56-bit DES has been replaced with 128-bit Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) that provides stronger security. Now, there is next generation encryption, which will enable even better scalability and easier growth for the future. The next gen of cryptography has emerged from these standards through 30 years of global development and study. There are four categories of AES crypticalgorithms: symmetric key, public key, elliptic curve, and hash.

Used by the U.S. government and endorsed by the National Institute of Standards and Technology, AES protects classified information. This standard is also implemented in software and hardware throughout the world to encrypt sensitive data.

Regardless of which method, or methods, of cybersecurity you chose, it is imperative that you are proactive in your approach. Cyber criminals like to stay on the cutting edge and security analysts must stay right on that edge with them in order to truly protect sensitive data.

Cybersecurity Ethics:

Cybersecurity ethics grows in urgency as the digital landscape continues to transform society. What should cybersecurity professionals — the front-line defense against threats — know about cybersecurity ethics?

Cybersecurity capabilities have improved thanks to advancements in security technology and heightened awareness of threats. At the same time, however, cybercriminals have become more sophisticated in identifying and attacking weak points. For example, phishing, one of the oldest cybercrimes, dating back to the 1990s, continues to expand as a threat. Security firm Lookout reports that the rate of mobile phishing was highest in 2022. Also, phishing was one of the most common attacks used in internet crimes, causing more than \$4 billion in losses, in 2020, according to the FBI.

Cybersecurity ethics takes center stage as cybersecurity professionals vie for an edge over criminals. Understanding the ethical implications of their work and choices is crucial to helping cybersecurity professionals balance security with other societal values.

What's Cybersecurity Ethics?

Ethics defines right and wrong actions in specific situations and is fundamental to society. In the cyber realm, ethics serves as a guidepost for cybersecurity professionals. It helps identify the type of online behavior and conduct that harms individuals and businesses.

Ethical principles are what separate cybersecurity professionals from hackers. For example, while the latter tries to steal data, the former tries to protect it. When hackers access data, they use it for nefarious purposes. On the other hand, cybersecurity professionals, who have access to the same data, use their skills to ensure that the data is safe and secure.

Importance of Cybersecurity

From data breaches to deepfakes, cybersecurity professionals deal with many threats. These unethical online activities have a profound impact on people and business. For example, a hacker may steal a company's data, an act that can compromise customer data. A cybercriminal can then take that data and sell it on the darkweb. Cybersecurity is vital to preserve privacy and guard against identity theft.

Cybersecurity also protects people from cybercrimes such as financial fraud. For example, consumers exchange their data with banks and financial institutions when conducting online banking. Cybersecurity helps secure financial transactions, safeguarding bank accounts and credit card information.

A breach can also disrupt regular business operations and inconvenience customers and employees — or even put regional or national infrastructure at risk. In urgent settings, such as hospitals, attacks on computer networks can harm people and impact their health.

Ethical Responsibilities of Cybersecurity Professionals

Organizations hire cybersecurity professionals to protect their sensitive information from cyber threats, and hiring decisions for cybersecurity roles don't come lightly. Frameworks for cyberethics and codes of conduct may vary by organization. What's the same is that employers look to hire trustworthy professionals with a strong ethical compass because cybersecurity professionals have access to the same data that cybercriminals wish to steal. The difference is that cybersecurity professionals adhere to cybersecurity ethics, meaning that organizations can trust them to oversee valuable information.

Types of Cybersecurity Ethical Issues

For cybersecurity professionals, keeping systems secure often means using privileged access to data to perform activities such as whitehat hacking, also known as ethical hacking. Whitehat hacking describes penetrating protected systems using hacking tools and techniques to test the security of systems, networks and software. The aim is to identify security vulnerabilities. [Cybersecurity research](#) to learn how to break through the safeguards of a system enables cybersecurity professionals to build defenses against them.

White hat hacking offers an example of cybersecurity ethical issues in the profession. A white hat hacker must be trustworthy enough to safeguard the confidentiality of the information they encounter, but there have also been notable incidents in which security professionals discovered crimes or public threats that they decided to share with authorities. A solid ethical foundation can serve as the bedrock to help employees make the right decisions as they face some key cybersecurity ethical issues, as listed below.

Harm to Privacy

Harm to privacy refers to an individual's privacy becoming compromised. Negative consequences include unauthorized access, identity theft, reputational damage and distress. A cybersecurity professional's decisions ultimately impact privacy protection. They can safeguard privacy in several ways, including implementing security measures, tools and practices; calling out designs and apps that mislead users into sharing excessive information; ensuring compliance with security frameworks; and mitigating risks.

Harm to Property

Harm to property refers to damage to both physical and digital assets. It can lead to unauthorized access and the disruption of services. For a cybersecurity professional, prioritizing network security

becomes an ethical matter. They have a responsibility to implement countermeasures, which can include risk assessments, firewalls and continuous monitoring. Failure to do so can lead to property harm caused by a cyber attack.

Cybersecurity Resource Allocation

Determining what to invest in cybersecurity activities can be a challenge. Large companies can invest more resources to enhance their cyber defenses, improving their chances of detecting anomalies or intrusions. More important, knowing how to allocate resources is essential. Cybersecurity professionals must properly use resources for the greater good of the organization and its stakeholders. Deploying a patch for a critical software vulnerability may be costly and time consuming, but not doing so may risk a data breach that impacts millions of customers.

Transparency and Disclosure

Companies should promptly reveal critical vulnerabilities in their software upon learning about them. This level of transparency can not only help cybersecurity professionals collaborate and share information to respond quickly to attacks but also allow customers whose data is threatened to take appropriate action to diminish their own risks. Approaches to transparency and disclosure depend on the organization. However, the recent Consolidated Appropriations Act of 2022 offers guidance: Section 2242 notes that companies should voluntarily disclose a known cyber attack within 72 hours after its discovery.

Ethical Challenges Faced by Cybersecurity Professionals

From keeping sensitive data confidential to confronting user privacy issues in the workplace, cybersecurity professionals must find a healthy balance between safeguarding information and upholding cybersecurity ethics standards.

Confidentiality

Cybersecurity professionals handle sensitive information, from personal customer data to a business's proprietary information. Disclosing this data can have severe consequences, so cybersecurity professionals must never reveal confidential information, unless a significant public benefit exists for doing so.

Threats and Risks

Cybersecurity professionals are duty-bound to respond to cyber threats. Remaining vigilant is always a priority, and their response is crucial. While individuals may overlook notifications or leave their computers unattended, cybersecurity experts should never do so.

Balancing Security With Business Interests

Cybersecurity professionals may encounter unethical practices within a business unit. Reporting the issue to supervisors may be the best first step. In the case of illegal activity, a cybersecurity professional may consider reporting it to authorities or the media.

User Privacy

Cybersecurity professionals have to balance security and user privacy. In protecting their organizations from cyber attacks, cybersecurity professionals sometimes have to access employees' online activities. Without carefully considering user privacy, this can come close to violating a person's rights.

Promoting Ethical Practices in Cybersecurity

Cybersecurity professionals often have unique access to sensitive data. They're responsible for defending this data against malicious actors. This requires an understanding of ethical practices. However, the cyber realm often blurs the line between security and privacy, making it imperative for professionals to have clear codes of conduct and demonstrate trustworthiness.

By staying updated on evolving cybercrimes, enhancing competencies and pursuing advanced education, individuals can develop cybersecurity strategies and strengthen their knowledge of ethical principles.

With a curriculum that includes courses in human factors in information security and risk management, [Augusta University Online's Master of Science \(MS\) in Information Security Management](#) prepares graduates to accelerate their [cybersecurity career paths](#). A solid foundation of cybersecurity ethics knowledge can equip cybersecurity professionals to advance their careers in this critical field.

Cyber Jurisdiction:

A fast-paced world, and surprisingly fitting in one's hand. The world is in the era of "internet and cyberspace", and it seems faster and better than ever. But it all comes with a price, that mankind is still in the exploration of. Just as in the real and physical world, the virtual space created by humans also sees a plethora of crimes in activities on a day-to-day basis where the data of millions of people acts as a valuable asset. It has the power to instigate a civil war or to destroy nations all together, steal data for ransom, or even rob millions from a bank in seconds. It becomes quite a challenge to map out a conclusive set of applicable laws to contain this mass virtual force. The major obstacle being how, when these offenses are prosecuted, the personal jurisdiction is to be applied.

This article breaks down how the legal principles have evolved while determining personal jurisdiction in cyberspace.

Cyberspace-The Virtual Universe

Cyberspace is an imaginary area or a virtual space where a connection can be established between two computers at any two points in the world, with absolutely no limits.

The word 'cyberspace' was used in the Novel '[Neuromancer](#)' by [William Gibson](#), for the first time in 1984, which is a science fiction and defined as an interaction between the human mind and computers. ¹

While cyberspace and the internet share every similar connotation, cyberspace can be defined as anything that is done using the internet, while the internet is a network or networks.

In layman terms "cyberspace" is a virtual universe made up of the widely spread and interconnected digital gadgets and technology, enabling one to create, modify, share, exchange, extract and destroy the physical resources floating all over the internet.

The world we live in is possibly at its simplest, most sophisticated version, as at this point in time, and we could only hope for it to make many innovative new changes. The world seems so much smaller at our fingertips, lives have collectively become easier. Education, E-commerce, shopping, banking, and almost every other essential has taken its spot on the internet. In fact, some of the richest multinational companies are

that of Google and Facebook that are empires built virtually on nothing but data. The huge number of users are the customers and their personal information, the asset. Each of these businesses runs on nothing but loads of information, some private, some not, and it becomes necessary to build a hyper-vigilant screening process in providing our personal information, because of the immense threats that tag-along with this mighty tool.

With business transactions moving online, the conventional methods of dealing with legal complications are also in need of remoulding to fit into the present, needful circumstances.

It is often very ambiguous to decipher what place holds jurisdiction over disputes that arise in the vast

cyberspace. In her paper "Principles of Jurisdiction", Betsy Rosenblatt states that "a court must first decide "where" the internet conduct takes place, and what it means for internet activity to have an "effect" within a state or a nation". [1]

The concept of national borders and distance stands irrelevant in cyberspace. By setting up a website from a home computer, here in India, one can grant access to anybody around the world, making communication a piece of cake. While communication is easier, the legal threats posed are quite drastic.

Threats To Cyberspace

With the amount of information being constantly exchanged, the threats in cyberspace are equally large. It is also important to register the intensity of changes the cyberspace is constantly subjected to, which concurrently aids in the advancement of the cyberattacks.

Cyberattacks can range from personal data breach to mass frauds, each of which is equally dangerous and harmful, putting one's usage of cyberspace at risk.

Cyberattacks are where internet users use malicious maneuvers to steal, destroy, expose, or gain unauthorized access into the personal information of a person, company, military databases, etc.,

Cyberattacks are a part of cyber warfare - where cyberspaces containing classified military information, are attacked to wage war and other military purposes, and cyber terrorism - where cyberspaces are used to conduct violent criminal activities.

Some of these common cyberattacks include phishing, identity theft, ransomware, hacking, child pornography, malware, creditor debit card frauds, disinformation - harming an individual, property or a nation.

What is Personal Jurisdiction?

Personal jurisdiction refers to the jurisdiction exerted by law, over a person in deciding a particular lawsuit. It also operates along with the due procedure of law established by the constitution of that country. Personal jurisdiction in cyberspace has evolved, one case law at a time, like cyberspace itself. The advancements are constant; hence it proposes a challenge for the laws to keep up with it.

Due to its versatile and inconsistent nature, absence of physical boundaries and dynamic space structures, containing cyberspace in the bounds of a few specific laws and assigning jurisdiction becomes quite a task.

To break it down, a "cyberspace" is created by a computer, and this virtual space "holds" all information. All physical transactions and all legal connotations attached to it goes into overdrive in cyberspace.

"A transaction in cyberspace fundamentally involves three parties. The user, the server host and the person with whom the transaction is taking place with the need to be within one jurisdiction." [2]

In terms of personal jurisdiction, to separate disputes into domestic or international, in cyberspace, it is important to distinguish disputes based on (i) what has happened? (ii) where has it happened? (iii) why did it happen?

Hence, a resident shall inevitably be tried under municipal laws, but there persists ambiguity while dealing with non-

residents. Traditionally, jurisdiction is exerted by a court in specific matters by terms of territory, subject matter, or the applicable law.

Often involving multiple countries in one single transaction in cyberspace, it is challenging to dissect the disputes arising into the laws of one particular country. One of the ultimate recourses could be sought under Public International Law, to eliminate jurisdictional clashes between countries and conflicts of law arising out of it, using the principles of "personal jurisdiction". Jurisdiction, under International Law is of three types: (1)

jurisdiction to prescribe; (2) jurisdiction to enforce; and (3) jurisdiction to adjudicate. To replicate these into cyberspace, one can consider the 'law of the server', that is, the physical position of the server or where the webpage is located and claim the jurisdiction of that country. However, these principles are of no use when the cyberspaces are used to commit terrorist activities hence maintaining anonymity of its servers.

Personal Jurisdiction in Cyberspace Around the World

The United States, having one of the strongest cyberspace laws in force, while formulating principles to deal with cases of cyberspaces, stood by the concept of 'minimum contacts', a standard that was outlined by the Court in *International Shoe v. Washington*, 1945. The Court ruled that a non-resident of a state may be sued in that state if the party has 'certain minimum contacts with [the state] such that maintenance of the suit does not offend traditional notions of fair play and substantial justice.' [3]

The US Supreme Court later laid down the "Zippertest" or the "Sliding Scale test" that - "In the absence of general jurisdiction, specific jurisdiction permits a court to exercise personal jurisdiction over a non-resident defendant for forum-related activities where the relationship between the defendant and the forum falls within the 'minimum contacts' framework" and classified websites as (i) passive, (ii) interactive and (iii) integral to the defendant's business.

The difficulty experienced with the application of the Zippertest paved the way for the application of "the effects test". The courts have thus moved from a 'subjective territoriality' test to an 'objective territoriality' or 'the effects test' in which the forum court will exercise jurisdiction if it is shown that the effects of the defendant's website are felt in the forum state. In other words, it must have resulted in some harm or injury to the plaintiff within the territory of the forum state - as pronounced primarily in *Calder v. Jones*.

The recent lawsuit by the International League Against Racism and Anti-Semitism and the Union of French Law Students against Yahoo! (Yahoo! Inc. v La Ligue Contre Le Racisme Et L'Antisémitisme), which has received a lot of attention in the popular press summarizes the difficulties that remain in resolving both the prescriptive and enforcement jurisdictional issues in cyberspace.

It appears that courts and legislatures have found legitimate grounds for asserting prescriptive jurisdiction over defendants based upon action taken in cyberspace, but that may have little importance when the plaintiff seeks a restorative remedy. Enforcement jurisdiction, which requires the injured party to attach either the defendant or his tangible assets, becomes an issue of comity or state's recognition of its obligation to enforce a law. [4]

"In sum, under U.S. law, if it is reasonable to do so, a court in one state will exercise jurisdiction over a party in another state or country whose conduct has substantial effects in the state and whose conduct constitutes sufficient contacts with the state to satisfy due process. Because this jurisdictional test is ambiguous, courts in every state of the U.S. may be able to exercise jurisdiction over parties anywhere in the world, based solely on Internet contacts with the state." [5]

In European countries, the jurisdiction of cyberspace is determined by the Brussels Regulations by extending its operation to online disputes and states that "subject to the provisions of this Regulation, persons domiciled in a contracting state shall, whatever their nationality, be sued in the court of that state" - thus eliminating the ambiguity of jurisdiction.

Germany has passed a law that subjects any Website accessible in Germany to German law, holding Internet service providers (ISPs) liable for violations of German content laws if the providers were aware of the content and were reasonably able to remove the content. [6]

Malaysia's new cyberspace law also extends well beyond the borders of Malaysia. The bill applies to offenses committed by a person in any place, inside or outside of Malaysia, if at the relevant time the computer, program, or data was either (i) in Malaysia or (ii) capable of being connected to or sent to or used by or with a computer in Malaysia. The offender is liable regardless of his nationality or citizenship. [7]

Personal Jurisdiction in Cyberspace - The Indian Mechanism

Casio India Co. Limited v. Ashita Tele Systems Pvt. Limited the Supreme Court held that "the website of Defendant can be accessed from Delhi is sufficient to invoke the territorial jurisdiction of this Court". [8]

In *India TV Independent News Service Pvt. Limited v. India Broadcast Live Llc & Ors.*, it was held that "the Defendant is carrying on activities within the jurisdiction of this court; has sufficient contacts with the jurisdiction of the court and the claim of the Plaintiff has arisen as a consequence of the activities of Defendant, within the jurisdiction of this court".

In *Banyan Tree Holding (P) Limited v. A. Murali Krishna Reddy*, The Division Bench of the Delhi High Court, while answering the referral order of the learned Single Judge, affirmed the ruling in *India TV*, and overruled the *Casio* Judgement. [9]

Various laws in India can be deemed applicable to today's scenario of cyberspace and everything that is involved with it. It is fascinating to notice how some of these laws, though decades old, stand accurate to today's circumstances.

Based on the Sections 15 to 20 of the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, stipulating the Indian approach to determining jurisdiction, the jurisdiction shall be detrimental to the location of the immovable property, or the place of residence or place of the work of the defendant or the place where the cause of action has arisen. These provisions stand inapplicable for cyberspace disputes.

The provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 prescribe for multiple places of jurisdiction based on the place of commission of crime or occurrence of the consequence of a crime in cases of a continuing crime, which, in the case of cyberspace, stands accurate.

The persisting laws relating to cyberspace are dealt under the Information Technology Act, 2000, in India. The objective of the Act is to provide legal recognition to e-commerce and to facilitate storage of electronic records with the Government.

The Act provides various definitions and instances of cybercrimes, prescribing the punishment for those crimes and also provides laws for trial of cyber law cases in and out of the country.

Sec 1 of the IT Act states that, this Act extends to the whole of India and, unless otherwise provided, it shall also apply to any offence or contravention committed outside India by any person.

Sec 75 of the IT Act deals with the provision of the act to apply for offences or contravention committed outside India, irrespective of his nationality, and shall apply to an offence or contravention committed outside India by any person if the actor or conduct constituting the offence or contravention involves a computer, computer system or computer network located in India.

Sec 46 of the IT Act gives power to adjudicate in case of contravention of any provision in this Act and also appoints an Adjudicating Officer who is vested with the powers of Civil Courts and are conferred on the Cyber Appellate Tribunal.

As much as the Information Technology Act 2000 seems inclusive, it still does pose ambiguity in jurisdiction when the offence has been committed outside of India or by a non-citizen, while also following the principle of **Lex Fori**, meaning the law of the country. [10]

Apart from IT Act 2000, there are other relevant legislations under Indian law that give the authority to India Court to adjudicate the matters related to cyber-crimes such as:

Sec 3 and 4 of Indian Penal Code, 1861 that deals with extraterritorial jurisdiction of Indian courts.

Section 188 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 provides that even if a citizen of India outside the country commits the offence, the same is subject to the jurisdiction of courts in India.

And Section 178 deals with the crime or part of it committed in India and Section 179 deals with the consequences of crime in Indian Territory.

CYBERSPACE

Cyberspace can be defined as an intricate environment that involves interactions between people, software, and services. It is maintained by the worldwide distribution of information and communication technology devices and networks.

With the benefits carried by the technological advancements, the cyberspace today has become a common pool used by citizens, businesses, critical information infrastructure, military and governments in a fashion that makes it hard to induce clear boundaries among these different groups. The cyberspace is anticipated to become even more complex in the upcoming years, with the increase in networks and devices connected to it.

REGULATIONS

There are five predominant laws to cover when it comes to cybersecurity:

Information Technology Act, 2000 The Indian cyber laws are governed by the Information Technology Act, passed in 2008. The principal impetus of this Act is to offer reliable legal inclusiveness to e-commerce, facilitating registration of real-time records with the Government.

But with the cyber attackers getting sneakier, topped by the human tendency to misuse technology, a series of amendments followed.

The ITA, enacted by the Parliament of India, highlights the grievous punishments and penalties safeguarding the e-governance, e-banking, and e-commerce sectors. Now, the scope of ITA has been enhanced to encompass all the latest communication devices.

The IT Act is the salient one, guiding the entire Indian legislation to govern cybercrimes rigorously:

Section 43 - Applicable to people who damage the computer systems without permission from the owner. The owner can fully claim compensation for the entire damage in such cases.

Section 66 - Applicable in case a person is found to dishonestly or fraudulently commit any act referred to in section 43. The imprisonment term in such instances can mount up to three years or a fine of up to Rs. 5 lakh.

Section 66B - Incorporates the punishments for fraudulently receiving stolen communication devices or computers, which confirms a probable three-year imprisonment. This term can also be topped by Rs. 1 lakh fine, depending upon the severity.

Section 66C - This section scrutinizes the identity thefts related to imposter digital signatures, hacking passwords, or other distinctive identification features. If proven guilty, imprisonment of three years might also be backed by Rs. 1 lakh fine.

Section 66D - This section was inserted on-demand, focusing on punishing cheaters doing impersonation using computer resources.

Indian Penal Code (IPC) 1980

Identity thefts and associated cyber frauds are embodied in the Indian Penal Code (IPC), 1860

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invoked along with the Information Technology Act of 2000. The primary relevant section of the IPC covers cyber frauds:

Forgery (Section 464)

Forgery pre-

planned for cheating (Section 468) Falsed documentation (Section 465) Presenting a forged document as genuine (Section 471) Reputation damage (Section 469)

Companies Act of 2013

The corporate stakeholders refer to the Companies Act of 2013 as the legal obligation necessary for the refinement of daily operations. The directives of this Act cement the required techno-legal compliances, putting the less compliant companies in a legal fix.

The Companies Act 2013 vested powers in the hands of the SFIO (Serious Frauds Investigation Office) to prosecute Indian companies and their directors. Also, post the notification of the Companies Inspection, Investment, and Inquiry Rules, 2014, SFIO has become even more proactive and stern in this regard.

The legislature ensured that all the regulatory compliances are well-covered, including cyber forensics, e-discovery, and cybersecurity diligence. The Companies (Management and Administration) Rules, 2014 prescribes strict guidelines confirming the cybersecurity obligations and responsibilities upon the company directors and leaders.

NIST Compliance

The Cybersecurity Framework (NCFS), authorized by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), offers a harmonized approach to cybersecurity as the most reliable global certifying body.

NIST Cybersecurity Framework encompasses all required guidelines, standards, and best practices to manage the cyber-related risks responsibly. This framework is prioritized on flexibility and cost-effectiveness.

It promotes the resilience and protection of critical infrastructure by: Allowing better interpretation, management, and reduction of cybersecurity risks – to mitigate data loss, data misuse, and the subsequent restoration costs Determining the most important activities and critical operations to focus on securing them Demonstrate the trustworthiness of organizations whose secure critical assets Help to prioritize investments to maximize the cybersecurity ROI Addresses regulatory and contractual obligations Supports the wider information security program By combining the NIST CSF framework with ISO/IEC 27001 - cybersecurity risk management becomes simplified. It also makes communication easier.

Final Thoughts As human dependence on technology intensifies, cyber laws in India and across the globe need constant upgradation and refinements. The pandemic has also pushed much of the workforce into a remote working module increasing the need for app security. Lawmakers have to go the extra mile to stay ahead of the impostors, in order to block them at their advent.

Cybercrimes can be controlled but it needs collaborative efforts of the lawmakers, the Internet Network providers, the intercessors like banks and shopping sites, and, most importantly, the users. Only the prudent effort of these stakeholders, ensuring their confinement of the law of the cyberland - can bring about online safety and resilience.

ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL LAWS

In various countries, areas of the computing and communication industries are regulated by governmental bodies. There are specific rules on the uses to which computers and computer networks may be put, in particular there are rules on unauthorized access, data privacy and spamming. There are also limits on the use of encryption and of equipment which may be used to defeat copy protection schemes. There are laws governing trade on the Internet, taxation, consumer protection, and advertising. There are laws on censorship versus freedom of expression, rules on public access to government information, and individual access to information held on them by private bodies. Some states limit access to the Internet, by law as well as by technical means.

INTERNATIONAL LAW FOR CYBERCRIME

Cybercrime is "international" that there are no cyber-borders between countries. The complexity in types and forms of cybercrime increases the difficulty to fight back. Fighting cybercrime calls for international cooperation. Various organizations and governments have already made joint efforts in establishing global standards of legislation and law enforcement both on a regional and on an international scale.

.THE INDIAN CYBERSPACE

Indian cyberspace was born in 1975 with the establishment of National Informatics Centre (NIC) with an aim to provide govt with IT solutions. Three networks (NWs) were set up between 1986 and 1988 to connect various agencies of govt. These NWs were, INDONET which connected the IBM mainframe installations that made up India's computer infrastructure, NICNET (the NIC NW) a nationwide very small aperture terminal (VSAT) NW for public sector organisations as well as to connect the central govt with the state govt and district administrations, the third NW setup was ERNET (the Education and Research Network), to serve the academic and research communities.

New Internet Policy of 1998 paved the way for services from multiple Internet service providers (ISPs) and gave boost to the Internet user base grow from 1.4 million in 1999 to over 150 million by Dec 2012. Exponential growth rate is attributed to increasing Internet access through mobile phones and tablets. Govt is making a determined push to increase broadband.

penetration from its present level of about 6% to 1. The target for broadband is 160 million households by 2016 under the National Broadband Plan.

NATIONAL CYBER SECURITY POLICY

National Cyber Security Policy is a policy framework by Department of Electronics and Information Technology. It aims at protecting the public and private infrastructure from cyberattacks. The policy also intends to safeguard "information, such as personal information (of web users), financial and banking information and sovereign data". This was particularly relevant in the wake of US National Security Agency (NSA) leaks that suggested the US government agencies are spying on Indian users, who have no legal or technical safeguards against it. Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (India) defines Cyberspace as a complex environment consisting of interactions between people, software services supported by worldwide distribution of information and communication technology.

VISION

To build a secure and resilient cyberspace for citizens, business, and government and also to protect anyone from intervening in user's privacy. MISSION

To protect information and information infrastructure in cyberspace, build capabilities to prevent and respond to cyber threat, reduce vulnerabilities and minimize damage from cyber incidents through a combination of institutional structures, people, processes, technology, and cooperation.

OBJECTIVE

Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (India) define objectives as follows:

- To create a secure cyber ecosystem in the country, generate adequate trust and confidence in IT system and transactions in cyberspace and thereby enhance adoption of IT in all sectors of the economy.
- To create an assurance framework for the design of security policies and promotion and enabling actions for compliance to global security standards and best practices by way of conformity assessment (Product, process, technology & people).
- To strengthen the Regulatory Framework for ensuring a SECURE CYBERSPACE ECOSYSTEM.
- To enhance and create National and Sectoral level 24x7 mechanism for obtaining strategic information regarding threats to ICT infrastructure, creating scenarios for response, resolution and crisis management through effective predictive, preventive, protective response and recovery actions.

CYBERSPACE

Definitions, Meaning, Fundamentals and Understanding of CyberSpace

The term cyberspace has garnered numerous definitions and interpretations given by both the experts and lexicographers. According to Adnan (2010), cyberspace is an unreal world where information is constantly transmitted through or between computers.

On the other hand, the cyberspace according to Pfaffenberger (2000) refers to the virtual space that computer systems have aided in its creation.

According to Chip Morningstar and F. Randall Farmer, cyberspace is defined more by the social interactions involved rather than its technical implementation. In their view, the computational medium in cyberspace is an augmentation of the communication channel between real people; the core characteristic of cyberspace is that it offers an environment that consists of many participants with the ability to affect and influence each other. They derive this concept from the observation that people seek richness, complexity, and depth within a virtual world.

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History of the word-CyberSpace

The term CyberSpace was introduced by **William Gibson** in his book “**Neuromancer**” in 1984. Although **Gibson** criticized the term by calling it redolent and meaningless. It is still used worldwide to describe facilities or features that are linked to internet.

Gibson initially explained the cyberSpace as “*aconsensual hallucination experienced daily by billions of legitimate operators in every nation.*”

Programmed developers such as **Chip Morningstar** stated that the cyberSpace gained its popularity as a medium for social interaction as opposed to its technical execution and implementation.

Thus, unlike most computer jargon, the ‘cyberSpace’ doesn’t have a standard or objective definition. Instead, it is simply used to describe a system that extends across a global network of computers.

CyberSpace refers to the virtual computer world, and more specifically, an electronic medium that is used to facilitate online communication. CyberSpace typically involves a large computer network made up of many worldwide computer subnetworks that employ TCP/IP protocol to aid in communication and data exchange activities.

CyberSpace is an interactive domain made up of digital networks that is used to store, modify and communicate information. It includes the internet, but also the other information systems that support our companies, infrastructure and services.

CyberSpace can be divided into a multi-layer model:

- 1. Physical foundations:** such as land and submarine cables, and satellites that provide communication pathways, along with routers that direct information to its destination.
- 2. Logical building blocks:** including software such as smartphone apps, operating systems, or web browsers, which allow the physical foundations to function and communicate.
- 3. Information:** that transits cyberSpace, such as social media posts, texts, financial transfers or video downloads. Before and after transit, this information is often stored on (and modified by) computers and mobile devices, or public or private cloud storage services.
- 4. People:** that manipulate information, communicate, and design the physical and logical components of cyberSpace.

Collectively these tangible and intangible layers comprise cyberSpace, which we are increasingly dependent on for essential components of daily life. A dependable and stable cyberSpace is necessary for the smooth functioning of critical infrastructure sectors such as energy, transport, food, health and finance. As dependence increases, so do the costs of disruption—whether accidental or intentional—as well as possibilities for misuse and abuse.

Inside the internet is yet another circle—

the web, or the pages that can be accessed using a web browser such as Firefox, Chrome or Safari. The internet and web are often used interchangeably, but in fact they are different and one of them sits inside the other.

Although this chapter (and most popular commentary) talks about cyber security, what is really meant is security of the internet, where the vast majority of global communication takes place.

The four layers of cyberSpace described above (**physical, logical, information, and people**) have three primary characteristics—**connectivity, speed and storage**. These characteristics enable both the positive and negative aspects of the digital environment and should be understood in order to place cyberSpace in context. This is also how readers can begin to understand cyber security—by examining the basic layers of cyberSpace and their characteristics and analyzing what this means for the safety and stability of the modern digital world.

Connectivity

Nearly 40 percent of the world’s population is connected to the internet, through PCs, laptops, tablets and mobile phones. In addition, there are billions of other connected

‘things’ such as sensors embedded in cars, factories, buildings, airplanes, TVs and toasters. This rapidly increasing connectivity produces value and benefits that are more than the sum of the individual parts. This is known as a positive ‘network effect’—as more devices are reconnected, more information is generated and shared, and the value of the network increases for everyone.

Speed Why does cyberSpace seem to change so quickly, presenting opportunities and challenges at a greater speed than we are accustomed to in the physical world? There are a number of reasons for this change, and they are scattered throughout the twentieth century.

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include the invention of the semiconductor and transistor. Steady advances in technology led Gordon Moore (co-founder of Intel) to state his belief that engineers would be able to double the number of transistors on a computer chip every two years.

This observation, known as Moore's Law, was made in 1975 and has held true for the past four decades. It means that the speed—processing power—of computer chips increases steadily, making laptops more powerful, turning smartphones into handheld computers, and allowing Google search to be completed ever-faster.

Storage

Greater connectivity and speed are nice, but they mean little without storage. What good is an email, text, spreadsheet or document if it can be sent and received, but not stored and retrieved? Storage capacity has come close to matching Moore's Law (namely, doubling roughly every two years) as hard drives have moved from gigabytes to terabytes and continue to grow.

Storage involves not only capacity, but also performance, which is the input/output speed of a storage device. Performance has increased dramatically with the transition, over the past decade, from traditional hard drives with spinning discs to solid state hard drives that have no moving parts—the same storage in smartphones and flash drives. Storage allows internet users to download and retain music, videos, pictures.

Cyberspace's core feature is an interactive and virtual environment for a broad range of participants. In

the common IT lexicon, any system that has a significant user base or even a well-designed interface can be thought to be "cyberspace."

Cyberspace is the virtual computer world that could be an object that is floating around a computer network or system. Cyberspace has now extended to the global computer network as well. A better understanding of cyberspace can be developed by finding the answer of following questions:

1) What Exactly is Cyberspace?

Let us delve deep into understanding what Cyber space actually is. Cyberspace is where users are allowed to share varied information, swap ideas and interact, play games, and engage in various social forums. They can conduct business here and indulge in various activities. It is a feature that is linked to the internet. Every kind of a virtual interface that creates some form of digital reality is cyberspace. Global content can be used for various purposes that could include entertainment and commerce. It shows how human society makes it what defines cyberspace. So what is cyberspace? Cyberspace exists when the stakeholders hold virtual meetings. The use of smartphones brings the sense that there is growth in cyberspace.

Also, massive gaming players online is an example of cyberspace. Here people do not sit face to face but get connected through the digital world.

Cyberspace also comes into the picture when there is language translation that occurs automatically in the blink of an eye.

In a nutshell, when you define cyberspace, cyberspace is everything that uses the internet. It is evolving and also promises to get more diverse as years come by.

1) What is the Use of Cyberspace?

Now let us talk about what use cyberspace has for us. We live in an internet era and the indispensability of the internet is something that we cannot deny about. The expanding computer network, technologies, and the internet have evolved into what is known as cyberspace. It is a virtual environment where there is communication between computer networks.

Cyberspace brings in many uses. It lets you do everything possible through the internet. Be it education, military, finance, or even education today everything is connected to what is known as cyberspace. There is not a single sphere in our life that is not connected to social media.

The internet has made it efficient to store and to handle data. It has made man's life organized and more systematic. Be it for e-banking or booking tickets or even to work online, cyberspace is everywhere.

2) Working of CyberSpace

Cyberspace allows users to share information, interact, swap ideas, play games, engage in discussions or social forums, conduct business and create intuitive media, among many other activities. We know that cyberspace is something without which life cannot be imagined today. So how does cyberspace function? Be it from up in space or from under the water, understand how the internet makes it possible to transfer information. It seems pretty straightforward to go online. However, there is much more than what occurs backstage.

Hidden below the sea level and above the surface of the earth, there are complex and large cables as well as networking satellites that let you stream your favourite movie and use maps to navigate to your preferred location. There are many physical installations that let you be connected wirelessly.

Private hands mostly develop and maintain cyberspace infrastructure. We are all online but no international or centralized authority contains what occurs on the internet or how cyberspace is managed and structured. There are submarine cables that transmit the data making use of fiber optic technology. These submarine cables are the major carriers of data and they transmit lots of data cheaply and quickly.

3) Is Cyberspace The Same As The Internet?

Cyberspace and the internet have been capable of creating a virtual world for cultural as well as for various social practices. With virtual cyberspace reality, it is now possible to see, communicate, and represent information. The cyberspace internet is a virtual world of computers that facilitates communication online. It is a world where information

get transmitted through the internet. **Cyberspace internet is however different from the internet.** The internet is a global network of computers that offers information and facilitates communication through the networks that are interconnected. This it does by using standardized communication protocols.

The cyberspace internet on the other hand is the virtual world of computers which is the world over a virtual computer network environment.

To understand the cyberspace meaning and its differences clearly it can be said that the internet is a set of networks of computers that make use of the internet protocol to communicate. This is the internet. Cyberspace is an information world through the internet.

4. Is the web not the internet?

When cyber security is mentioned, many people tend to think of the security of their devices, home or work computers, or the websites they visit on a daily basis. But cyberspace is much larger than this and includes the sum of global digital networks. It includes all digital communications including obscure and legacy communication protocols or isolated networks (for example, nuclear weapons silos) that are not accessible through the internet. The internet (the IP—or Internet Protocol—network) is a slightly smaller circle that includes the most popular and widely used forms of communication. Author and journalist **John Naughton** provides a useful analogy to describe the difference between the internet and the web:

“Think of the internet as the tracks and signalling, the infrastructure on which everything runs. In a railway network, different kinds of traffic run on the infrastructure—high-speed express trains, slow stopping trains, commuter trains, freight trains and (sometimes) specialist maintenance and repair trains”.

On the internet, web pages are only one of the many kinds of traffic that run on its virtual tracks. Other types of traffic include music files being exchanged via peer-to-peer networking, or from the iTunes store; movie files travelling via BitTorrent; software updates; email; instant messages; phone conversations via Skype and other

VoIP (internet telephony)
services; streaming video

and audio; and other stuff too arcane to mention.

Jurisprudence of cyber laws in India Introduction:

Jurisprudence can be defined as the science and philosophy or theory of the law. Applying jurisprudence to cyber law gives rise to the legal study that concentrates on the logical structure, the meanings and uses of its concepts, and the formal terms and modes of operation of cyber law. Cyber law is a very recent concept and if compared with other older branches of the law, is a little structured study.

The term cyberspace was originally coined by a science fiction writer William Gibson to depict data matrices existing in a dark distant future which means the information spaces made by the technology of digital networked computers system that ultimately connect with the mother of all networks that is the Internet. With the advent of the internet and technology, cyberspace along with a number of crimes related to the same emerged and expanded. As we enter the cyber age, the law on all fronts is struggling to keep pace with technological advances in cyberspace. While there is a prosperous discussion of the nature of cyber law and its challenges, still a

fundamental body of scholarly contributions to the discussion is lacking. The outgrowth of cyber jurisprudence around the world has promoted the emergence of newer dimensions in Law. The focus is on the practical aspect of cybercrime with the initial attempt to extend the known physical society concepts to the virtual space rather than the theory, philosophy, and science of cyber law generally. Hence in due course, we need to develop separate Cyber Jurisprudence to deal with future disputes.

The modern jurists have been cautious to endow with the rationale pedestal of jurisprudence to this ruling and now ascertained utmost exact definition of cyber jurisprudence as this describes the principles of legal issues, which exclusively regulates the cyberspace and internet can be termed as cyber jurisprudence with a virtual approach^[1]

Jurisprudential Aspects of Cyber Laws

Cyber jurisprudence gives an analysis of the land with land and no border, different from the physical world, they may be virtual from origin and nature. This covers the virtual world with virtual rules and policies, along with the virtual subject matter, virtual contracts, virtual disputes, virtual property, virtual possession, and virtual court.

The existence of an item in the context of a virtual world, such as an e-mail account or an online game, is also a form of virtual property. It emphasizes the composite idea of cyber jurisdiction, cyber court's venue in the cyberspace, and recognize uniform cyber rules and policies at the international level. Framing rules and laws to cover every aspect will be an arduous task since the cyber world has no boundaries.

However, a balance has to be maintained and laws have evolved in order to keep a check on cybercrimes.^[2] Whenever a conflict is encountered in implementing existing laws of the real space to Cyber Space, the laws of the real space have prevailed, over time this tendency is likely to develop into a principle of “Primacy of Meta Space” and become the bedrock of Jurisprudence.^[3] However, the principle fails when two laws of the real space itself come into conflict in the Cyber Space.

Applying Jurisprudence to Cyber has three possible outcomes:

- **There exists no relationship between jurisprudence in general and cyber law in particular:** Here we return to The Law of the Horse. Everything existing at present is sufficient and determining outcomes with a special view to cyber science is unnecessary. No special philosophy or theory of law is necessary to treat events occurring in cyberspace.
- **Such a relationship exists but it does not require a new jurisprudence to understand it:** Here the cyber law is recognized as a special area of the law and acknowledges that current jurisprudential thinking is adequate to apply existing theory to its study and analysis.

- **A new jurisprudence and a new view of cyberlaw are necessary:** This concludes that cyber law is a special and unique field of the law and it requires a special and unique philosophical and theoretical treatment of its own.

Eventually, the question of whether it is feasible and necessary to create an extensible jurisprudential approach to law that acknowledges and keeps space with cyberscience without being a set of restrictive and inhibitory guidelines that are both confining and resistant to change should be taken into consideration.

Evolution of Cyber Law

Cyber Crimes

In India, Cyber Crime is not directly defined by either the IT Act, 2000, IT Amendment Act, 2008, or any other legislation. However, the Offence or Crime has been defined by The Indian Penal Code 1860: as any Offence or Crime in which a computer is used as a Cyber Crime. Cyber or Computer Crimes were defined as unethical, unauthorized, and illegal behavior of individuals or as groups relating to the automatic processing and transmission of data use of Computer Systems and Networks.

Cyber Crimes are majorly classified into four types:

1. **Against Individuals:**
 1. Harassment through E-Mails/Messages
 2. Cyber-Stalking
 3. Propagation of Obscene Material on the Internet
 4. Defamation
 5. Hacking/Cracking
 6. Indecent Exposure.
2. **Against Property of an Individual:**
 1. Computer Vandalism
 2. Transmitting Virus
 3. Internet Intrusion
 4. Unauthorized Control over Computer System
 5. Hacking/Cracking
3. **Against Organization:**
 1. Hacking & Cracking
 2. Custody of Unauthorized Information
 3. using Cyber Terrorism in opposition to the Government Organization
 4. Distribution of Pirated Software
4. **Against Society at large:**
 1. Pornography (especially Child Pornography)
 2. Spoil the Youth through Indecent Exposure
 3. Trafficking

In India, the Cyber Crimes have grown from 9,622 and 11,592 to 12,317 during 2014, 2015, and 2016 respectively. [4] The National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) and Indian Computer Emergency Report Team (CERT-In) had reported that approximately 80 phishing incidents affecting 20 Financial Organization, 13 incidents affecting various Automated Teller Machines, Point of Sales systems, and Unified Payments Interface (UPI).

Legislations

The principal source of cyber law in India is the Information Technology Act, 2000 (IT Act) with the primary purpose to provide legal recognition to electronic commerce and to facilitate filing of electronic records with the Government. This Act penalizes various cyber crimes and provides stringent punishments including imprisonment terms upto 10 years and compensation upto Rs 1 crore. Some of the major Acts got amended after the enactment of ITA:

1. **The Indian Penal Code, 1860:** The word 'electronic' was added, thereby treating the electronic records and documents on a par with physical records and documents. The Sections dealing with false entry in a record or falsified document [5] have since been amended as 'electronic record and electronic document' to bring it within the ambit of IPC. Now, electronic records and electronic documents have been treated on par with physical records and documents during the commission of acts of forgery or falsification of physical records in a crime. The investigating agencies started filing the cases and charge-sheets quoting the relevant sections from IPC read with the ITA/ITAA in like offense in order to ensure that the evidence and/or punishment can be brought under its scope and be proved under either of these or both the legislation.
2. **The Indian Evidence Act 1872:** Before enactment of ITA, all pieces of evidence in a court were in the physical form only and now the electronic records and documents were recognized as the definition part of Indian Evidence Act was amended as "all documents including electronic records". Words like 'digital signature', 'electronic form', 'secure electronic record' "information" as used in the ITA were also inserted after this amendment to be a part of the evidentiary importance under the Act. The identification and recognition of admissibility of electronic records as evidence as enshrined in Section 65B of the Act was seen as a significant amendment.
3. **The Bankers' Books Evidence (BBE) Act 1891:** Previously banks were required to produce the original ledger, other physical registers, and document during evidence before a Court but now the definitions part of the BBE Act stood amended as: "bankers' books" include ledgers, day-books, cashbooks, account-books and all other books used in the ordinary business of a bank whether kept in the written form or as printouts of data stored in a floppy, disc, tape or any other form of electromagnetic data storage device" [6]. This amendment in the provisions in Bankers Books Evidence Act recognized the printout from a computer system and another electronic document as a valid document during evidence, provided, such print-out or electronic document is accompanied by a certificate by a person-in-charge of computer system.

Jurisdictional Cyber Issues

Theories of Jurisdiction

As far as a cyber law is concerned, the jurisdiction encompasses several discrete concepts, including jurisdiction to prescribe, jurisdiction to adjudicate, and jurisdiction to enforce.^[7] The prescribing jurisdiction is a sovereign entity's authority to make applicable law to the activities, relations, or status of persons, or the interests of persons in things by legislation, by administrative rule or by determination of a court, by executive act or order and jurisdiction to adjudicate is a sovereign entity's authority to subject persons or entities to the process of its courts or administrative tribunals to determine whether the prescriptive law has been violated.^[8] There are various theories of jurisdiction:

1. **Territoriality Theory:** It means that a sovereign state has the authority to judge criminal acts that have been committed in its territory. The place where the crime is committed has to be established for this to apply.
2. **Nationality Theory:** Also known as Personality theory, recognizes that a sovereign state can adopt criminal law that govern the conduct of nationals while outside of its borders. This principle effectively makes it a crime for its nationals to engage in conduct that is not illegal in the place where the conduct is performed. This theory is further dealt with in two ways:
 1. **Active Nationality Theory:** This theory recognizes that a state may exercise criminal jurisdiction over its nationals based on their active nationality and can prosecute and punish its sovereign nationals for committing a crime outside its territory.
 2. **Passive Nationality Theory:** This theory provides for a sovereign to adopt criminal law that apply to foreign nationals committing crimes against the sovereign's nationals while the sovereign's nationals are outside of the sovereign's territory.
3. **Protection Theory:** This theory provides for a sovereign to adopt a statute that criminalizes conduct that occurs outside of its borders and when that conduct affects the sovereign itself. The sovereign can make it a crime to engage in an act that obstructs the function of government or threatens its security as a state without the need to where or by whom the act is committed.
4. **Universality Theory:** This theory provides for a sovereign to adopt criminal laws applicable to the conduct performed by any person anywhere in the world when such conduct is recognized by nations as being of universal concern.
5. **Derived Jurisdiction Theory:** This theory cannot be treated as an independent basis for jurisdiction. If the state that has jurisdiction, so determines or authorizes a state that has no jurisdiction over certain acts according to its national laws or case law and embodied principles then it may assume jurisdiction. This can be carried out in the form of a formal request or based on an international treaty.

Principles of Jurisdiction

- i. **Territoriality Principle:**
 - if one of the acts constituting an element of the offense has been committed in the territory then the offense is said to be committed within the territory of a state
 - if the effects of the offense became manifest there.
- ii. **The Flag Principle:** This principle is considered to be a variant of the territoriality principle and it applies if the cybercrime is committed on a ship or aircraft that is beyond the territory of the Flag party, the state of registry will be the one exercising jurisdiction over the offense.
- iii. **Nationality Principle:** It applies the active nationality principle. It gives an obligation to nationals of a state to comply with the domestic law even when they are outside its territory. This prevents nationals of a state to travel to a foreign state to commit a cybercrime and return without the risk of being prosecuted.

Doctrinal Approach:

Meaning and definition

Dr S.R. Myneni has defined, "A doctrinal research means a research that has been carried out on a legal proposition or propositions by way of analyzing the existing statutory provisions and cases by applying the reasoning power." (Tiwary 2020)

Doctrinal research has the root word "doctrine" which means a principle or a basic governing tenet. That means, the legal doctrine would include legal principles and tenets that would govern the legal world. Therefore, it implies that doctrinal legal research would involve digging deeper into the legal principles and concepts from various sources like cases, precedents, statutes and others; to analyze them and reach valid conclusions.

The focal point of doctrinal research is answering the question "What is law?". It is library-based research, i.e. we try to find out definite answers to legal questions through a thorough investigation from the law books, statutes, legislation, commentaries and other legal documents. All of these sources fall under the category of "Secondary Sources". As stated earlier, it is theoretical research that does not involve any kind of experimentation or fieldwork.

Here, we are basically checking the validity of existing laws in light of a changing society. It begins with one or more legal proposition taken as a starting point and the entire research is directed in finding the validity of that hypothesis. It simply means reviewing and studying different legal documents and other sources and then deducing a complete answer to the question asked at the beginning by the means of rational interpretation and

logical reasoning. Most often, the starting point in any research is doctrinal, i.e. library-based and then we move forward to other methodologies once our base is set by doctrinal research. This is the reason that doctrinal research is very famous among students and academicians.

History

The roots of doctrinal research can be traced to the positivist or the analytical school of law which was objective and value-free. It is more epistemologically oriented and does not concern itself with people or society. Though the law itself is normative, doctrinal research does not study it in a normative sense. It does not take into consideration the human aspects of law and how it affects people in society. In this type of research, we just concern ourselves with existing laws in the present state as they are. Its emergence can be traced parallel to the rise of common law in the nineteenth and twentieth century. Common law has been developed by the efforts of jurists and the Court's decisions. The doctrine of precedents also developed around the same time. All of these developments are linked to doctrinal research as without it the other parallel developments would have been incomplete. It is when judges and attorneys investigated laws from various above-mentioned sources, that they could set the stage for the progress of common law.

And we all know, common law is the basis of legal development in several other countries. At a similar time, the law had entered the academic field in Europe and doctrinal research picked up pace as it became a popular tool of academic legal research. (Tiwary 2020) This is the reason why doctrinal research is also known as traditional research.

Purpose

One of the main purposes of conducting doctrinal research is solving the legal problems of bringing laws. For example, if the government decides to bring umbrella legislation for all the crimes committed against women, it may initiate doctrinal research by some jurists and experts in the field.

They may have to go through all the existing laws in this field, previous case laws, precedents, international trends, legal commentaries, articles by scholars, dictionaries, encyclopedias, journals, treatises, textbooks and other sources of legal information. Going through this sea of information, they would be able to answer all the questions related to this legislation and will be successful in bringing out comprehensive legislation.

It can be utilized for several other purposes as well like to help lawmakers develop meaningful and effective laws, develop fresh legal doctrines, aid courts in reaching effective and legally accurate judgments, help lawyers to interpret statutes and prepare their suits, help students in academia to set a base and many others.

Methodology

The methodology in doctrinal research starts with setting a proposition as the starting point. A legal provision in question or an existing law could be chosen for the purpose. The next step could be to analyze the purpose behind bringing that particular law. For example, for a provision of the constitution, Constituent Assembly Debates could give great insight.

The law then can be studied in greater detail. A course of action must be selected. Alternative courses can be explored. Different models need to be studied and finally, the consequences and approximated effects have to be weighed in order to accurately make predictions about the proposition set at the beginning. In all these stages, secondary sources talked about in the above paragraphs are utilized.

But one must be very careful in the selection of these sources. Searching for reliable and accurate sources demands time and effort. Useful information must be separated from the chaff as the presence of unreliable information could lead to misleading and inaccurately skewed results. The efficiency of this method also depends on the question that is asked in the beginning. Asking the right question is the first step towards concrete research. Setting the right proposition and then relying on the right sources is the key to successful doctrinal research.

Advantages and disadvantages

To begin with the advantages, doctrinal research forms the base of legal research in the academic field of law. Law students at the graduate and post-graduate levels usually venture into the world of legal research with the help of doctrinal methodology. This is the starting point for them where they can analyze sources available in

the library and logically deduce their findings. The students are not well equipped at this particular stage to get involved with empirical research and to consider the law in the context of society. It is easier for them to study law "as it is" from secondary sources and it acts as a good starting point.

In addition, it gives the judges and lawyers the flexibility to approach law from different aspects and make its interpretation. It may not be wrong to say that the amorphous mass of the present-day statutory provisions takes concrete shape and form in the great laboratories of the law courts. (Jain 1982) Judges have over time developed law from their deep knowledge and investigation into the field. Law of torts is one great example as it is a "judge-made law". Therefore, doctrinal research being the traditional methodology has helped in the development of legal research by giving it a base. It has been a close companion of law academicians, students, judges, advocates and jurists.

However, doctrinal research has its own shortcomings as well. Availability and choice of right and reliable sources is the bottleneck in doctrinal research. Logical deduction is also an uphill task. Furthermore, it is highly theoretical and restricted. Without the right direction, it may become highly objective and too mechanical. Moreover, it can be further highlighted that it studies law individually and does not consider it in the backdrop of society which is the playground of law. Without studying its normative and practical aspects, it's like studying law in darkness and seems incomplete.



Hierarchy of Courts:



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What is judiciary?

According to the "Rule of law", all individuals whether they are rich or poor, men or women, from forward or backward castes are subjected to the same law. Judiciary ensures the supremacy of law and the rule of law. The law is interpreted by the judiciary but the judiciary cannot make the law. Judiciary resolves the disputes and ensures justice by applying the laws.

Judicial Meaning

The meaning of judicial is to make judgements in a court of law. Judicial is related to the legal system.

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Judiciary in India

India has a single integrated system of Judiciary in view of a single Constitution. The judiciary in India acts as the custodian of the Indian Constitution and the protector of the Fundamental Rights. The Indian Judicial System is one of the oldest legal systems of the World. The Indian legal system was majorly influenced by the local customs and the religion. The judicial system in India is integrated and pyramidal in structure with the Supreme Court at the top and the High Court and the other Subordinate Courts at the lower levels. The adversarial litigation system is followed by the Indian Judicial System in which the impartial neutral party and both the sides present arguments before the Court of law. The Common law system which is followed in England influenced the Indian Judicial System. The laws were developed by the judges through the judgements delivered by courts and these judgements were followed as precedents. The specific feature of the Indian Judicial System is "judicial review". The judicial review is the power given to the judiciary to determine the validity of law. [Article 137 of the Indian Constitution](#) empowers the Supreme Court with the judicial review through which it can declare any law as void when it is unconstitutional or in derogation with the Fundamental Rights. The power of judicial review is given to the High Courts also through which it can overrule the decisions of the lower courts.

According to [Article 13 of the Indian Constitution](#), the laws which are contrary to the Fundamental Rights are declared as void by the judiciary.

Our Constitution ensures the Independence of Judiciary which means that the other organs of the Government must not restrain the functioning of the judiciary in such a way that it would not be able to do justice. Other organs of the Government should not interfere with its decision and judges must be able to perform their functions without fear or favour. The Constitution of India had granted rights to citizens to ensure equality and protects them from any partial judgement. The power to resolve disputes and to give judgements is based on the rules of law, is given to judiciary.

According to the members of the Constituent Assembly, " This is the organization which will safeguard those fundamental rights which have been given to every citizen under the Constitution. Therefore, it must be above all obstruction by the Executive. The Supreme Court is considered as the "**watchdog of democracy**."

Indeed, the Independence of the Judiciary is entailed not to favour judges. It is crucial to maintain the pureness of justice and to acquire the trust of people in the administration of justice.

[Article 50 of the Indian Constitution](#) ensures the separation of powers of the judiciary from the executive. Our Indian Constitution has granted fundamental rights to people and to sustain these rights the judiciary is made independent by it.

Types of Judiciary

There are so many countries and each one of them follows different types of the judicial system and follows system according to their own governance.

The United States of America follow the judicial system in which there is a two-court system. The State Court system and the Federal Court system are the two types of court in the USA. These courts are not totally independent from each other as they usually interact with each other. The main objective of every judicial system is to solve legal issues and to vindicate legal rights.

The Article III court is followed in various countries. The Supreme Court, District Courts and Circuit Courts of Appeals are the courts which are included in Article III Courts. There are other special courts like the International Courts and the Court of Claims are also included in the Article III courts.

There are second type of courts system in various countries which may include the Bankruptcy Courts, Tax courts, Magistrate courts, Court of Veterans Appeals and the Court of Military. There are various types of State Court Systems and most of them are composed of the two types of trial courts, Traffic and Family courts which are included in the trial courts having limited jurisdiction. The general jurisdiction courts are also there which includes the intermediate appellate courts, the main trial courts and the highest state courts also. In contrast to the Federal Courts, a large number of the State Court Judges are either elected or appointed not permanently but for a specific number of years.

The Trial Courts of limited jurisdiction manage certain sorts of particular cases. Generally, these courts are located near the courthouse of the country or inside the country and usually presided over by one judge. The Municipal Court, family court and probate court are the few types of trial courts having limited jurisdiction. The Trial Courts of general jurisdiction are the principal trial courts in the state's system. These Courts hear the

cases which are beyond the jurisdiction of the trial courts of limited jurisdiction. These courts deal with both civil and criminal cases. In most of the states of the U.S., there are intermediate appellate courts in between the highest court of the State and the trial courts of general jurisdiction. There are some kinds of highest courts in all the States and these are referred to as the Supreme Courts in some States.

The common tradition law system is followed in England and this system is followed in the colonized countries of England also.

There are several countries and each country has a different organization of courts of law which includes the District Courts, the Supreme Court, the Magistrate Courts, Regional Labour Courts and National Labour Courts. The Magistrate Courts are considered as the primary trial courts. These courts have jurisdiction to deal with criminal matters. The District Courts are the courts at a middle level and these courts deal with the matters which are not under the sole jurisdiction of the other courts. The Supreme Court has the authority to hear criminal and civil appeals from the District Courts.

Function of Judiciary

The judiciary played an eminent role in a modern democratic state. It performs various functions, like:

- **Interpretation of law**

The foremost function of the judiciary is to interpret the law and use them in a particular case by applying the principles of customs, statutes and various provisions of the Constitution. They go through the facts of the case and analyse what legal rights of parties in the case are affected and what law should be applied in this situation. When the law is lacking, judiciary applies the principle of justice, equity, and morality.

- **Guardian of the Constitution**

Our Constitution gives the right to all citizens to protect themselves from inequality and the Court protects these rights. The power of judicial review is also given to the Supreme Court of India and it enjoys the power to declare a law passed by the legislature as unconstitutional if that law conflicts with the Constitution. It is not only the guardian of the Constitution but it also modifies the Constitution with the changing conditions. It has also expanded the Constitution through inference of its original provisions. The Indian Supreme Court has also pronounced some laws as "*ultra vires*" on the *rationale* of "*procedure established by law*".

- **Custodian of Civil Liberties**

The judiciary protects individual liberty by punishing those who intrude against it. It also safeguards people against tyrannical action of the Government. [Article 32](#) which is known as the "*heart and soul of the Indian Constitution*" provides right to the people that they can directly approach the Supreme Court in the case of the infringement of the fundamental rights. A writ can also be filed in the High Court under [Article 226](#) of the Indian Constitution to protect these rights.

- **Resolves the disputes of jurisdiction between the Centre and State Governments in Federations**

The Constitution of India establishes a federal structure to the Indian Government, so the powers are divided between the Centre and the States. There are chances that disputes may arise between the Centre and the State over the jurisdiction. Therefore, the Supreme Court is given the right to decide these disputes.

- **Advisory Function**

In India, the Supreme Court acquires the right from the Constitution to advise the President on the legal issues. [Article 143](#) of the Indian Constitution empowers the Supreme Court with the advisory jurisdiction.

- **Administrative Functions**

The Supreme Court and the High Courts have the authority to appoint their local officials and subordinate staff.

Indian Judiciary Chart

Hierarchy of courts and their jurisdiction should be properly defined to deal with the disputes which arise every day in a big country like India. The Supreme Court of India deals with the cases at the National level, the High Court deals with cases at the State level and Subordinate courts (Civil and Criminal) deal with the cases at the District and Subordinate level.

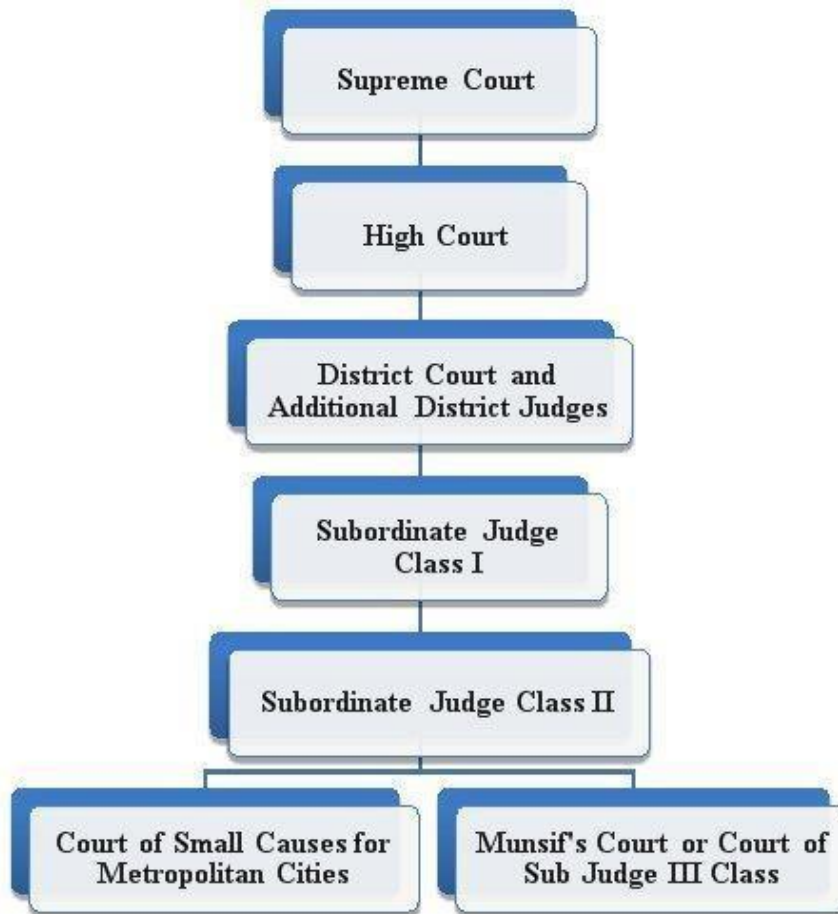


Image source – <http://bit.ly/2XfrW9q>

Types of Courts in India – 7 types of Courts in India

There are various types of Courts in India, each has different powers depending on the tier and jurisdiction conferred on them. They function according to the set hierarchy of the courts.

Supreme Court

In our country, the Constitution lays down the foundation of an integrated judiciary having Supreme Court as the highest and final court of appeal. [Article 124\(1\)](#) of the Indian Constitution states that there shall be a Supreme Court of India constituting of a Chief Justice of India. Initially, the Supreme Court of India consists of the Chief Justice of India and seven other judges. The Parliament may, by law, increase or decrease the number of judges of the Supreme Court when it is required. Now, the Supreme Court has 31 judges including the Chief Justice of India. In our Constitution, there is a provision of appointment of judges on an *ad hoc* basis, whenever it is required. [Article 127\(1\)](#) of the Indian Constitution deals with the appointment of *ad hoc* judges. *Ad hoc* is a

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Latin term which means "for this". It means for a particular purpose. When a quorum of judges is not available to continue or hold the sessions of Court then ad hoc judges were appointed. The Chief Justice of India can appoint a High Court judge as an ad hoc judge of the Supreme Court after consultation with the Chief Justice of the concerned High Court.

The President of India appoints the judges of the Supreme Court and the latter can consult with the Chief Justice of India and also with the existing judges of the Supreme Court regarding such appointment. In case of appointment of the Chief Justice of India, the President shall consult such judges of the Supreme Court and the High Courts.

1. For a person to be eligible as a judge of the Supreme Court, he/she must be a citizen of India, and should have been for at least five years a judge of a High Court or of two or more such Courts in succession, or
2. should have been an experience of practicing as an advocate of High Court for the last ten years or of two or more such courts in succession or
3. should in the opinion of the President be an eminent jurist.

The Supreme Court of India is the highest court of appeal and is vested with various powers, it exercises original, appellate and advisory jurisdiction.

Powers of the Supreme Court

1. The Supreme Court has the power to punish for contempt of Court under Article 129 of the Indian Constitution.
2. The power of Judicial Review is given to the Supreme Court under [Article 32](#) and [Article 136](#) of the Indian Constitution. They have the power to examine the legislative enactments and executive orders whether they are consistent with the provisions of the Constitution or not.
3. Supreme Court is a deciding authority in the election of the President and the Vice President and enquiring authority in conduct and behaviour of Union Public Service Commission (UPSC) members.
4. [Article 134](#) of the Indian Constitution empowers the Supreme Court to withdraw the cases from the High Court.
5. [Article 126](#) of the Indian Constitution states that when the office of the Chief Justice of India is vacant or when the Chief Justice is by reason of absence or otherwise unable to perform his duties of the office, then the President of India may appoint a judge of the Supreme Court to dispense the duties of the office.
6. [Article 127](#) of the Indian Constitution states that the Chief Justice of India can appoint a judge of High Court as an ad hoc judge in the Supreme Court with the consent of the President if at any time there is a lack of quorum of judges in the Supreme Court.
7. [Article 128](#) of the Indian Constitution states that the Chief Justice of India at any time with the prior consent of the President and the person to be so appointed can appoint any person who had previously held the office of a judge of the Supreme Court.
8. The Supreme Court has the power of revisory jurisdiction under [Article 137](#) of the Indian Constitution through which Supreme Court can review its judgements.

The Supreme Court is a **court of record** because its judgements are of evidentiary value and cannot be questioned in any court.

The Procedure to remove the Chief Justice of India and the judges of the Supreme Court is given under [Article 124\(4\)](#) of the Constitution of India. The President of India appoints the judges of the Supreme Court of India, so the power to remove them from their post is vested upon him. But, according to the Constitution of India, the judiciary is independent of the legislative and executive organs of the Government. So the judges of the Supreme Court can be removed only on the basis of proven incapacity or misbehaviour.

High Court

[Article 214](#) of the Indian Constitution states that there shall be a High Court for each State. The High Court consists of one Chief Justice and other judges. The President appoints the Chief Justice of the High Court in consultation with the Chief Justice of India while other judges were appointed by the President in consultation with the Governor of the state, Chief Justice of the High Court as well as the Chief Justice of India. If in the High Court the office of the Chief Justice falls vacant due to some reason then the President can ask any of the Judges to look after the duties of the Chief Justice.

A person may be appointed as the Chief Justice of the High Court:

1. If the person is an Indian citizen, and
2. If he had held the judicial office in the territory of India, or
3. At least an advocate for 10 years in the High Court or two or more High Courts in succession, and
4. The age should be below 62 years.

A judge can remain in the office until he has attained the age of 62 years and can also resign before the retirement by giving a resignation letter to the President. He can also be removed if the Parliament passed a resolution which is supported by the majority of the total membership of the House in which the motion of removal has been passed and by a majority of not less than two-third members of the House present and voting has been presented before the President, on the grounds of proved misbehaviour or incapacity. He can also vacate the office of the Court when the President appoints him as the judge of the Supreme Court.

Powers of the High Court

1. Under [Article 226](#) of the Indian Constitution, a person can directly file a petition in the High Court in case of infringement of the Fundamental Rights.
2. Election-related cases or marriage/divorce related cases can be directly filed in the High Court.
3. The High Court has the power to give punishment for the contempt of the Court.
4. The High Court has the power to review the cases of the lower Court and give its judgement accordingly.
5. The High Court exercises original, appellate, supervisory and administrative jurisdiction.
6. The High Court is a court of record and its judgements are of evidentiary value for the Subordinate Courts and its decision is binding on the Subordinate Courts and no Subordinate Courts can challenge them.

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Civil Courts Meaning

Civil courts deal with the cases or offences that are committed against a private individual and not against the State unlike in criminal cases where the offence is committed against the State. Civil wrongs include tort, breach of contract etc. In India, the hierarchy of Civil Courts is based on the territorial and pecuniary jurisdiction of the courts. Civil Courts can deal with the cases which have been committed within its territory and also which is within the pecuniary limits of the court.

The Supreme Court is the highest court of appeal for entertaining civil cases and these cases can not be filed directly in the Supreme Court, the appeal can be filed against the order of the High Court but in case of infringement of the fundamental rights one can directly approach to the Supreme Court. The appeal against the order of the District Court can be filed in the High Court and the cases above the value of Rs. 20 lakhs can directly be filed in the High Court of the State. District Court deals with the cases which lie between the value of Rs. 3 lakh to Rs. 20 lakh. The cases up to Rs. 3 lakhs were entertained by the Civil Judge the junior division and the original cases were entertained by him. Small Causes Courts are the lowest Court of appeal in the hierarchy of Civil Courts and it deals with the cases of value below Rs. 3 lakh. The Civil Courts are governed by the Civil Procedure Code. The Civil Courts can award damages or compensation to the party whose legal right has been infringed. Plaintiff and Defendant are the parties to a civil case.

District Court and Additional District Court

The State Government in India has established the District Courts in every district by considering the number of cases and population in that district. The District Courts of India are presided by a district judge and these courts administer justice at a district level. These courts are under administrative and judicial control of the High Court of the State to which that district belongs. The District and Sessions Judge is the highest Court in each district. The Governor after consultation with the Chief Justice of the High Court of that State appoints the judges of the District Court and the eligibility criteria to become a judge of District Court is at least seven years of practice as an advocate. The District Court is the highest Civil Court in a district. Civil and Criminal Courts are two types of Courts in every district. Civil Courts exercise the power of subject matter jurisdiction, territorial Jurisdiction, pecuniary jurisdiction and appellate jurisdiction.

Powers of the District Court

1. The District Court hears criminal cases, domestic related cases and civil cases.
2. The District judge in case of criminal cases has the power to give any punishment including capital punishment.
3. The Chief Judicial Magistrate can deal with the cases which are punishable with imprisonment for a term up to seven years.

When the District Court exercises its jurisdiction in criminal cases under the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (CrPC), it is referred as sessions court. The Court is presided by a judge who is appointed by the High Court of that particular State. Additional Sessions Judges and Assistant Sessions Judges in this Court can also be appointed by the High Court of that State. Additional Sessions Judges can be appointed in POCSO cases, electricity cases, NDPS, FTC etc. The appeal can be filed in the High Court against the decision of the District Court.

Court of Civil Judge (Senior Division)

The Court of Civil Judge of Senior Division comes at the middle of the hierarchy on the civil side. Civil Judge or Senior Division has the authority to try civil cases of any value. There are many additional courts of Additional Civil Judge (senior division). These additional courts have the same jurisdiction as exercised by the principal court of Civil Judge or Senior Division. A Senior Division or Civil Judge exercises pecuniary jurisdiction without any limit.

Court of Civil Judge (Junior Division)

The Court of Civil Judge of Junior Division is at the lowest level in deciding civil cases. It has the power to impose any sentence in accordance with the law and it can provide capital punishment also. Civil Judge of Junior Division can extend its jurisdiction in all the original suits and proceedings.

Eligibility to become Civil Judge of Junior Division:

- An applicant must have done LL.B (Bachelor of Laws) / LL.M. (Master of Laws) with 55% from any university which was recognized by the State Government / Central Government.
- Age limit is 21-35 years and relaxation in age is provided to reserved candidates.

Courts of small causes for metropolitan cities

Under the [Presidency Small Cause Courts Act, 1882](#), the court of small causes for metropolitan cities were established in India. This Act empowered the State Government that it can establish a Court of Small Causes anywhere within its territory. These courts have the authority to decide small value civil cases only.

Munsiff court or court of sub judge III class

Munsiff court is the lowest court of appeal for civil cases in the district. It has the authority to try the offence under certain pecuniary limits. Munsiff Magistrate / Judicial Collector have control over these courts.

The territorial jurisdiction of the District Munsiff Court was prescribed by the State Government. The judge and presiding officer of the District are Munsiff Magistrate who keep a charge on all the tax inspectors.

Criminal Court Meaning

Criminal wrong is a wrong against the whole society not only against the victim. Criminal Courts deal with criminal matters which are considered as a crime against the State.

The Supreme Court exercises appellate jurisdiction through which it has the power to withdraw cases from the High Court regarding criminal matters. The appeal against the order of the District Court can be filed in the High Court of the State.

The hierarchy of the Criminal Courts in India is given in [Section 6 of the Criminal Procedure Code, 1973](#) which is given as follows:

1. Session Court
2. Judicial Magistrate of the first class
3. Judicial Magistrate of the second class
4. Executive Magistrate

Session Court

The lowest court of appeal in the hierarchy of Criminal Court is the Court of sessions where the sessions judge conducted the trial. [Section 9](#) of CrPC empowers the State Government to establish a Session Court for every sessions division. The High Court appoints the judge of Session Court. Additional Session Judges and Assistant Session Judges can also be appointed by the High Court to exercise jurisdiction in a Session Court.

This Court deals with cases related to theft, murders, dacoity etc. Session Court is empowered to provide a sentence of death and can impose fines for a criminal offence.

The High Court can appoint the Sessions Judge of one division to be an Additional Sessions Judge of another division. When the office of the Sessions Judge left vacant due to some reasons then the High Court has the power to do arrangements for the disposal of any urgent case. If any case is pending before the Session Court then Additional or Assistant Sessions Judge shall have jurisdiction to deal with such a case and in a situation where there is no Additional or Assistant Session Judge then Chief Judicial Magistrate in the sessions division can deal with such application.

Subordinate Judge Class I

[Section 11](#) of the CrPC provided that the State Government can establish the Court of Judicial Magistrate of the first class in the district and any number by consulting with the High Court of the respective State.

It is given in [Section 15](#) of the CrPC that a Judicial Magistrate is subordinate to the Chief Judicial Magistrate and it is subject to the control of the Sessions Judge.

[Section 29](#) of the CrPC empowered the Judicial Magistrate of First Class that he may impose a fine not more than ten thousand rupees or may pass a sentence of imprisonment for not more than three years.

Subordinate Judge Class II

[Section 11](#) of the CrPC empowered the State Government that it can establish the Court of Judicial Magistrate of the second class in the district and in any number by consulting with the High Court of the respective State.

[Section 29\(3\)](#) of the CrPC empowered the Judicial Magistrate of Second Class that he may impose a fine of not more than five thousand rupees or may pass a sentence of imprisonment for not more than one year or both.

It is incorporated in Schedule I and Schedule II of the Cr.P.C. that the offences which are triable by either "Any Magistrate" or "Judicial Magistrate of the Second Class" such offences can be tried by a Judicial Magistrate.

Executive Magistrate

[Section 20](#) of CrPC empowered the State Government to appoint Executive Magistrates in every metropolitan area and in every district. It has the authority to appoint one of the Executive Magistrate as the District Magistrate and it can appoint any Executive Magistrate as the Additional District Magistrate and such magistrate has the same power as enjoyed by the District Magistrate under CrPC.

If the office of a District Magistrate left vacant then any officer who is succeeding temporarily to the executive administration of the district shall exercise the same power as enjoyed by the District Magistrate under CrPC. The State Government is empowered to give charge of a sub-division to the Executive Magistrate. The Executive Magistrate who got the charge of a sub-division shall be called as Sub-divisional Magistrate.

Jurisdiction of Courts in India

Civil Courts

1. Subject matter jurisdiction

Under this Court, the Civil Court has the authority to deal with the cases of a particular type and concerning a particular subject matter. For example- cases related to family matters can only be dealt with by the Family Courts and not by NCLT that specifically deals with company matters only.

Territorial Jurisdiction

When a court exercises its powers within its territory then it is called the territorial jurisdiction. This Court can decide within a geographical limit of the jurisdiction of the court and it can not exercise its powers outside the geographical limit. For example, Madhya Pradesh will have jurisdiction to decide matters arising within Madhya Pradesh only and not outside.

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Pecuniary Jurisdiction

Under this jurisdiction, the Court has the authority to hear and decide the cases on the basis of the monetary value or the amount of the case or the suit in question.

Appellate Jurisdiction

Courts with higher authority have the power to exercise appellate jurisdiction. Under this jurisdiction, the court with higher authority can review the case that has already been decided by a lower court. In our country, cases are brought in the form of appeal in the Supreme Court and the High Court, both these courts have the power of appellate jurisdiction. They have the power to overrule the decisions of the lower court.

Criminal Courts

The procedure to conduct the trial in the criminal courts is provided in the Criminal Procedure Code.

- According to [Section 177](#) of the CrPC, the Court has the authority of the trial of the case only if the offence has been committed under the jurisdiction of that court.
- [Section 178](#) of the Crpc, deals with the following matters:
 1. When the offence has been committed in several places and the place of the offence is doubtful.
 2. When the offence is partly at one place and the rest at another place.
 3. When the offence is committed at different places and comprises of several acts.

If any of the above situations are fulfilled, then such offence may be tried in a court having jurisdiction over any of such local areas.

- Under the provisions of [Section 179](#) of the CrPC, it is postulated that any act which becomes an offence due to any emanating consequences it is valid for trial in the court of proficient jurisdiction.
- According to the provisions of [Section 180](#) of the CrPC, when the act committed is an offence because it is related to another offence then the place of trial of the court is according to the offence which has been committed first that to be inquired into or tried by either of the courts under whose jurisdiction the act has been committed.
- According to the provisions of [Section 181\(1\)](#) of the CrPC, the trial not only commenced in where the offence was committed, but it can also be commenced where the accused is found. It also deals with the cases when the offence is not committed in a single place. It deals with the following situations:
 1. The trial of the court is commenced where the accused is found or the offence is committed while performing the act of dacoity, dacoity with murder, thug, or murder has committed.
 2. In the case of abduction or kidnapping of a person, the trial is commenced where the person has abducted/kidnapped or where the person was conveyed or concealed or detained.
 3. In case of robbery, extortion or theft, the trial of the court is commenced where the stolen property is possessed, delivered or received or the court where the offence has been committed.
 4. In the case of criminal breach of trust or criminal misappropriation, the trial has been committed where any part of the property which is the subject matter of the offence has been received or retained, required to be returned or accounted for, by the accused or where the offence has been committed.
- [Section 182](#) of the CrPC has provided the provisions for the offences which are committed by letters etc. If the victim has been deceived by telecommunication messages or by means of letters or if any offence committed includes cheating then the trial of the court has been commenced where the messages or letters have been sent or received and under the local jurisdiction of the court where the property has been received by the accused person or where the property has been delivered by the person deceived.
- [Section 183](#) of the CrPC has provided provisions for the offences which have been committed during voyage or journey. During the journey, when a person commits an offence against a traveller or the thing in respect of which the offence has been committed is in due course of its voyage or journey,

the trial of the court has been commenced under the local jurisdiction where the person or thing has been passed.

- [Section 185](#) of the CrPC empowered the State Government to direct any cases or class of cases can be tried in a Sessions Court for which the trial has been committed in any district.
- [Section 186](#) of the CrPC empowered the High Court to resolve the confusion when the cognizance of a particular offence has been taken by more than one court and confusion arises that which of the Courts shall inquire into or try that offence.
- [Section 187](#) of the CrPC empowers the Magistrate to issue warrant or summons for offences which do not come under the local jurisdiction of it. In this condition, the Magistrate has the power to order such a person to be produced before him and then send him to the Magistrate of proficient jurisdiction.
- [Section 188](#) of the CrPC has provided provisions for the offences which are committed outside the territory of India. According to the provisions of this section, if an offence is committed outside the territory of India:
 1. By an Indian citizen, whether on the high seas or elsewhere.
 2. By a person, not being a citizen of India, on any ship or aircraft registered in India.

This offence is considered as such offence which had been committed at any place within the territory of India and at a place where such person may be found.

- [Section 189](#) of the CrPC provides the authority to the Central Government that it can take the receipt of evidence for the offences which are committed outside the territory of India.



Jurisdiction of Supreme Court in India

Original Jurisdiction

Under this jurisdiction, the Court refers to a matter for which that particular court is approached first. [Article 131](#) of the Indian Constitution gives power to the Supreme Court to resolve the dispute which arises between the States of India or between the State Government and the Union Government.

[Article 32](#) of the Indian Constitution empowered the Supreme Court to exercise original jurisdiction in case of infringement of the Fundamental Rights.

Appellate Jurisdiction

The power to exercise appellate jurisdiction lies with the Higher Courts. Through this jurisdiction, courts have the power to review, amend and overrule the decisions of the lower courts. [Article 132](#), [Article 133](#) and [Article 134](#) of the Indian Constitution deals with the Appellate Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in appeals from the high courts in these cases:

1. If the High Court certifies that the substantial question of law is raised in the case and it needs interpretation of the Constitution in Constitutional matters.
2. If the High Court certifies that the substantial question of law of general importance involved in the case in civil matters.
3. If in criminal matters, the High Court has withdrawn the case from the Subordinate Court and on appeal reversed the order of acquittal of an accused and sentenced him to death.
4. If the High Court certifies that the case is a worth appeal to the Supreme Court.

In any of the cases, whether it is of criminal, civil or any other proceeding, if the case involves the interpretation of the Constitution then the Supreme Court has the final authority to elaborate the meaning and the intent of the Constitution.

Advisory Jurisdiction

Under this jurisdiction, the President of India can plea the advice of the Supreme Court to give its opinion on any issue of law or act. [Article 143](#) of the Indian Constitution empowers the President of India to seek the opinion of the Supreme Court on any issue of public importance. But the Supreme Court can only advise on that issue, that opinion is not binding on the President.

Special leave petition

[Article 136](#) of the Indian Constitution empowered the Supreme Court to grant special leave against the judgement or the order passed by any court within the territory of India. [Article 262](#) of the Indian Constitution prohibits the Supreme Court from hearing the issues related to inter-state riparian disputes and power of special leave petition granted to the Supreme Court has been frequently used to prevent this bar.

Court of record

In India, the Supreme Court is considered as a "Court of Record". The judgements or acts passed by the Supreme Court of India are apprehended as legal references and legal precedents. The Supreme Court is a court of record because its judgements are of evidentiary value and cannot be questioned in any court.

Jurisdiction of High Court in India

Original Jurisdiction

In several cases, people can directly approach to the High Court of India without appeal and this is known as original jurisdiction. The High Court enjoys the power of the original jurisdiction in the following cases:

1. If there is a dispute between the Legislative Assembly and the Members of the Parliament.
2. In matters related to contempt of court, marriage etc.
3. In case of the infringement of the Fundamental Rights.
4. If the case involves the question of law which the court itself transferred from the other court.

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Writ Jurisdiction

[Article 226](#) of the Indian Constitution grants powers to the High Court to issue directions, writs or orders in the name of Certiorari, Habeas Corpus, Mandamus, Prohibition or Quo Warranto. The High Court can issue writs in the matter of the Fundamental Rights and other matters also which lie within its territorial jurisdiction.

Appellate Jurisdiction

The High Court is considered as the primary court of appeal because it is empowered to hear appeals against the judgement given by the Subordinate Courts within its territorial jurisdiction. It can exercise appellate jurisdiction in the matters of criminal jurisdiction and civil jurisdiction. The judgements related to Sessions Court and Additional Sessions Court comes under the criminal jurisdiction and the cases involving confirmation of death sentence, imprisonment for seven years awarded by session court before execution. The orders and the judgements of the District Courts, Additional District Courts and other Subordinate Courts come under the civil jurisdiction.

Supervisory Jurisdiction

[Article 227](#) of the Indian Constitution empowered the High Court with the power of superintendence over all the courts which come under its territorial jurisdiction except tribunals or military courts which deals with armed forces. The High Court covers both judicial and administrative superintendence. It is not necessary that the appeal came before the High Court on the application of a party only, it can be "**suomoto**" which means "*on its own motion*".

Jurisdiction of District Court and Additional District Court

The District Court or Additional District Court empowered with both original jurisdictions as well as appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases which lies within that district. Civil Courts are governed by the procedure of the Civil Procedure Code and Criminal Courts are governed by the Criminal Procedure Code. In some cases, District Courts have the power of original jurisdiction in both civil and criminal matters, these cases cannot be tried by a lesser court than the District Court.

Civil Courts exercise the power of Subject Matter Jurisdiction, Territorial Jurisdiction, Pecuniary Jurisdiction and Appellate Jurisdiction. As per the Criminal Procedure Code, a sessions judge of District Court can reward a maximum sentence to the convict is capital punishment.

The District Court exercises the power of appellate jurisdiction over the Subordinate Courts in both the criminal as well as civil cases. Senior Civil Judge Court, Principal Junior Civil Judge Court and Junior Civil Judge Court are the Subordinate Courts in civil cases. Chief Judicial Magistrate, First Class Judicial Magistrate Court and Second Class Judicial Magistrate Court are the Subordinate Courts in criminal cases. The appeal against the order of the Supreme Court can be filed in the High Court of the concerned state.

Jurisdiction of Subordinate Court

The Code of Criminal Procedure provided provisions for the jurisdiction in criminal matters.

[Section 14](#) of the CrPC deals with the local jurisdiction of Judicial Magistrates. This section empowers the Chief Judicial Magistrate, who is subjected to the control of the High Court that he can define the local limits of the areas from time to time, within which the Magistrates exercise all or any of the powers with which they are invested under this code:

1. It is provided that the Special Judicial Magistrate Court may hold its sitting at any place within its local jurisdiction.
2. If the exception is provided by such definition then the powers of the Magistrate and its local jurisdiction shall extend throughout the district.

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3. Where the local jurisdiction of a Magistrate has been extended beyond the district of its jurisdiction or the metropolitan area, as the case may be in which he generally holds court, any reference in this code to the Court of Session, Chief Metropolitan Magistrate or the Chief Judicial Magistrate, in relation to such magistrate, throughout the area which comes under his local jurisdiction, be interpreted, unless the circumstances otherwise requires, as a reference to the Court of Session, Chief Judicial Magistrate, or Chief Metropolitan Magistrate, as the case may be exercising jurisdiction in relation to that district or metropolitan area.

[Section 22](#) of the CrPC deals with the local jurisdiction of Executive Magistrates. This section empowered the District Court, which is subjected to the control of the State Government, that it can draw the local limits of the areas under which the Executive Magistrates may use all or any of the powers with which they may be endowed under this code but there are exceptions when the powers and jurisdiction of such Magistrate shall extend throughout the district.

[Section 27](#) of the CrPC deals with the jurisdiction in the case of juveniles. If the accused is under the age of sixteen years then the case is tried by the Court of the Chief Judicial Magistrate or by any court which is tried under the [Children Act, 1960](#).

[Section 177](#) to [Section 189](#) of the CrPC deals with the provisions related to inquiries and trials of the jurisdiction of the Criminal Courts.

[Section 177](#) of the CrPC provides that the court which comes under the local jurisdiction where the offence has been committed then that offence must be inquired and tried by that court.

[Section 178](#) of the CrPC deals with the provisions related to the place where trial or inquiry of offences should be commenced when there is uncertainty regarding the place of commencement of offence.

[Section 179](#) of the CrPC provides that the trial of the offence is commenced at the place of the act where it is done or the place where the consequence ensues.

[Section 180](#) of the CrPC provides the provisions for a place of trial in a situation where an act becomes an offence due to another offence.

In case of certain offences, [Section 181](#) of the CrPC provides provisions for the place of trial for such offences.

[Section 182](#) of the CrPC deals with the offences which are committed by telecommunication messages or by letters etc.

[Section 183](#) of the CrPC deals with the offences which are committed during journey or voyage.

[Section 184](#) of the CrPC deals with the offences which are triable together and provide provisions for such offences.

[Section 185](#) of the CrPC empowered the State Government to direct any cases or class of cases can be tried in a Sessions Court for which the trial has been committed in any district.

[Section 186](#) of the CrPC empowered the High Court to decide the district where the trial or inquiry of offences should be commenced in cases where there is confusion regarding the place of trial.

[Section 187](#) of the CrPC empowers the Magistrate to issue warrant or summons for the offence which is committed beyond the local jurisdiction.

[Section 188](#) of the CrPC describes the offences which are committed outside the territory of India.

[Section 189](#) of the CrPC provides the authority to the Central Government that it can take the receipt of evidence for the offences which are committed outside the territory of India.

The [Code of Civil Procedure, 1908](#), provided provisions for the jurisdiction in case of civil matters.

[Section 15](#) of the CrPC provides that the suit for the offence firstly have to be instituted in the Court of the lowest grade competent for the trial.

[Section 16](#) of the CPC provided that where suits have to be instituted, should be based on the subject matter which is subject to the pecuniary or other limitations prescribed by the law.

[Section 17](#) of the CPC provided that the suits for the immovable property have to be filed within the local limit of whose jurisdiction where any part of the property is situated.

[Section 18](#) of the CPC provided provisions for the place of institution of the suit where local limits of the jurisdiction of Courts are uncertain.

[Section 20](#) of the CPC provided provisions for the place of institution of other suits. It states that suits for the offence have to be instituted where the cause of action arises or at the place where the defendants reside.

Introduction to Cyberspace

Two decades ago, the term cyberspace seemed right out of a [science fiction](#) movie. In the second decade of the twenty-first century, cyberspace is probably the place where most of us spend a major part of our lives. It has become an inseparable element of our existence. In this [article](#), we will look at what for us cyberspace and the reasons why [law](#) are important to ensure cyber security.

Introduction of Information Technology Act 2000

What is Cyberspace?

We have all seen that [technology](#) is a great leveler. Using technology, we created machine-clones – computers, which are high-speed data processing devices.

They can also manipulate electrical, magnetic, and optical impulses to perform complex arithmetic, memory, and logical functions. The power of one computer is the power of all connected computers termed as a network-of-network or the internet.

Cyberspace is the dynamic and virtual space that such networks of machine-clones create. In other words, cyberspace is the web of consumer electronics, [computers](#), and [communications network](#) which interconnect the world.



Source: Pixabay

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- [Electronic Record and E-Governance](#)
- [Information Technology Act, 2000](#)

History of Cyberspace

In 1984, William Gibson published his science fiction book – Necromancer, which describes an online world of computers and elements of the society who use these computers. The word cyberspace first appeared in this book.

In the book, a hacker of databases stole data for a fee. The author portrayed cyberspace as a three-dimensional virtual landscape. Also, a network of computers creates this space.

According to him, cyberspace looked like a physical space but was actually a computer-generated [construction](#). Also, it represented abstract data.

The book caught the imagination of many writers and in 1986, major English language dictionaries introduced the word 'cyberspace'. According to the New Oxford Dictionary of English, 'CyberSpace' is the notional [environment](#) in which people communicate over computer networks.

Since cyberspace is a virtual space, it has no boundaries, mass, or gravity. It simply represents the interconnected space between computers, systems, and other networks.

It exists in the form of bits and bytes – zeroes and ones (0's and 1's). In fact, the entire cyberspace is a dynamic environment of 0's and 1's which changes every second. These are simply electronic impulses. Also, it is an imaginary location where the words of two parties meet in conversation.

Cyberspace vs. Physical World

Firstly, cyberspace is a digital medium and not a physical space. It is an interactive world and is not a copy of the physical world. Here are some differences between cyberspace and the physical world:

Physical World	Cyberspace
Static, well-defined, and incremental	Dynamic, undefined, and exponential
Has fixed contours	Is as vast as the human imagination and has no fixed shape

In a [human](#) brain, there are countless neurons which create a spectrum of life. Similarly, the cyberspace represents millions of computers creating a spectrum of digital life. Therefore, cyberspace is a natural extension of the physical world into an infinite world.

Cyber Security and Cyber Laws

As technology evolved, the need to regulate human behavior evolved too. Cyber laws came into existence in order to ensure that people use technology and avoid its misuse.

If an individual commits an act which violates the rights of a person in the cyberspace, then it is treated as a cyberspace violation and punishable under the provisions of the cyber laws.

Since the cyberspace is completely different from the physical world, traditional laws are not applicable here. In order to provide cyber security to users, the government introduced several cyber laws.

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When the internet was designed and developed, the developers had no idea that it would have the potential of growing to such a great extent.

Today, many people are using the internet for illegal and immoral activities which need regulation. In the cyberspace things like money laundering, identity theft, terrorism, etc. have created a need for stringent laws to enhance cybersecurity.

Additionally, many technologically qualified criminals like hackers interfere with internet accounts through the Domain Name Server (DNS), IP address, phishing, etc. and gain unauthorized access to users' computer systems and steal data.

While there is no clear definition of cyber law, it is broadly the legal subject which emanated from the development of technology, innovation of computers, use of the internet, etc.

Cyber Law

Cyber Law encapsulates legal issues which are related to the use of communicative, transactional, and distributive aspects of networked information technologies and devices.

It is not as distinct as the Property Law or others such laws since it covers many areas of law and regulation. It encompasses the legal, statutory, and constitutional provisions which affect computers and networks.

Further, it concerns itself with individuals, and institutions which:

- Play an important part in providing access to cyberspace
- Create hardware or software which allows people to access cyberspace
- Use their own computers and enter cyberspace

Cyber Law is a generic term referring to all the legal and regulatory aspects of the internet. Everything concerned with or related to or emanating from any legal aspect or concerning any activities of the citizens in the cyberspace comes within the ambit of cyber laws.

Currently, there are two main statutes which ensure cybersecurity:

1. The Indian Penal Code, 1860
2. The Information Technology Act, 2000

Solved Question on Cyberspace

Q1. What are the primary differences between cyberspace and the physical world?

Answer: The physical world is static, well-defined, and incremental with fixed contours. On the other hand, the cyberspace is dynamic, undefined, and exponential. It also is as vast as the human imagination and does not have a fixed shape.

Web hosting cybersecurity concerns

Securing your website from cyberattacks is becoming increasingly difficult



(Image credit: Shutterstock)

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It's already 2021, and technology is evolving by the day. Gone are the days when operating a website (or even a computer) required extensive and specific knowledge of web development.

Today, building and launching a new webpage boils down to choosing a [website builder](#), a [domain name](#), and a reliable [web hosting plan](#). Now, this last one is essential for your success.

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The right provider will not only ensure you have a well-suited environment for your online project - they can help you secure it as well. [Cybersecurity](#) reports outline an growing number of cyberattacks and unveil concerning statistics about the potential dangers looming over our websites.

- Also check out our list of the [best endpoint protection](#)

The current state of cybersecurity

The number of websites worldwide still grows exponentially, and so does the incentive for attackers to try and breach them. There are reasons for that: countless - profit, competitor espionage, security tests. Some attackers even do it for the fun of it, just to prove they can.

According to 2020 statistics, data breaches have caused over 36 billion records to be exposed just by the first half of the year. Then you have the rising number of malware and virus threats, the growing pressure over essential sectors like banking and healthcare, new strategies like ransomware.

The [pandemic](#) didn't help either. As more people were stuck at [working at home](#) behind their screens, hackers were more active than ever. In fact, cybercrime numbers have increased by a whopping 600% for the last year and a half. Defending your website against hackers now involves intricate strategies that need to protect your premises against all kinds of dangers.

Here are a few of the most popular tools among the hacking community.

Common cybersecurity concerns

We have to get one thing straight from the beginning. Even though there are hundreds of different ways a hacker can breach our premises, over 90% of successful attempts are still a result of our own errors.

More and more businesses are recognizing the growing threats, but the majority of webmasters are still way behind when it comes to securing passwords, hosting accounts, and their site itself.

That's just great news for hackers. Relying on your weak security, they can besiege your website with a plethora of methods.

(Image credit: Andriano.cz/Shutterstock)

Malware - this is a broad term that encompasses all kinds of malicious practices that aim to cause damage to your computer, website, or server. Common types of malware include viruses, trojans, worms, spyware, ransomware, adware, and many more. Malicious files can disrupt your system in many ways. Some are designed to retrieve private information from the breached account. Others deny administrative access to essential components, efficiently locking you out of your own system. There are even those that simply want to erase or destroy anything they can infect.

- Check out our roundup of the [best malware removal software](#)

(Image credit: wk1003mike/Shutterstock)

Phishing - one of the most quickly developing types of attacks. Hackers utilize phishing when they want to appear as a legitimate entity, robbing unsuspecting victims of their personal information.

Phishing attacks often occur via emails or social media messages, posing as banking institutions, telecoms, or government authorities. They will prompt you to update some vital piece of information by redirecting you to a seemingly legit page. In reality, you will just be giving hackers your current private details.

Phishing attacks can also take different shapes and forms, like whaling, spear phishing, pharming, and more.

(Image credit: FrameStockFootages/Shutterstock)

DOS and DDoS Attacks - DOS stands for denial-of-service and represents a type of attack where the attacker aims to overload the server, draining it from its available system resources. The system gradually slows down until it becomes completely inoperable. When we talk about distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) attacks, we depict the process of the hacker using multiple infected machines to blast traffic toward the server. Again, the idea is to take your server down and possibly launch more attacks afterward.

Botnets, TCP SYN flood, and ping-of-death are among the common types of DOS and DDoS threats.

- Here is our list of [best DDoS protection](#)

SQL Injections -this is a popular way for hackers to insert malicious code and force it to reveal private user and admin data. The injections affect the server query language (SQL), so you can get enough control over the machine. Comment and search boxes are often a great target for SQL injection attacks.

Cross Site Scripting -during cross-site scripting (or XSS), attackers mix malicious code with content from legitimate websites. This allows the script to travel all the way to the visitor's browser and infect it as well. XSS attacks often employ malicious JavaScript code but can also include HTML, CSS, and flash files as well.

Password Attacks -at the end of the day, our weak passwords remain the most often cause of our hacker issues. People are still using simple and easy-to-guess login credentials based on their memorability,

but this opens a huge doorway for unauthorized attackers to get in. Brute-force and dictionary attacks are two widespread breaching methods, and once hackers get your password - it's smooth sailing toward all your data.

- We've also featured the [best password manager](#)

(Image credit: Shutterstock) What can you do about

your cybersecurity?

This situation might seem grim, but luckily, there is a lot you can do to minimize the above risks, maybe even wiping them out completely. Consider any of the following:

- Setting up a [firewall](#)
- Optimizing your website code
- Utilizing secure software and plugins
- Changing your admin username and login URL
- Using two-factor authentication ([2FA](#))
- Keeping your own computer secured
- Activating a [password management tool](#) And then, of course, you have your hosting provider right in the middle of it.

A reliable host applies several layers of security even before they accommodate your account - over the data centers, the network, the server machines. Ensuring the environment is completely safe before the clients land on it will only leave users with their own security responsibilities.

Taking things a step further, companies like [Scala Hosting](#) develop in-

house solutions to further protect customers from malware and spam. SShield, for example, is an AI-

powered security monitoring tool that detects over 99.998% of web attacks, completely free for all managed [VPS](#) users.

Speaking of virtual servers, opting for such a plan will remove all the obstacles that come with the standard [shared hosting](#) environment. AVPS will allow you full control over your hosting account, so you can configure your security measures to perfection.

Thinking long term

Today's website owners have more than a few cybersecurity concerns to wrap their heads around. The incentives for hackers are getting more lucrative, and even non-commercial projects are not out of danger. Picking up a secure host and following the recommended practices are a great start but make sure to always have a detailed strategy to avoid problems down the road.

- We've also highlighted the [best antivirus](#)

Cybersquatting and Domain Names

Rapid developments and enhancements in information technology have brought a new platform for trade and business. They have increased their significance and presence in the "online markets" with the help of their trademarks to attract consumers. Hence, in this scenario, trademarks play an important role in cyberspace and therefore, increasing the need for their protection.

Disputes over rights to domain names, which serve as a source - identifying function in cyberspace, similar to a trademark, arise at the heart of this intersection between international trademark law and the Internet¹. In an effort to reconcile the unique complexities presented by domain name disputes, a host of vehicles have been developed by which aggrieved parties may assert their rights such as the Uniform Domain Name Dispute Resolution Policy (UDRP) promulgated by the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN), the nonprofit organization that manages the DNS.²

Role of Domain Name

Internet Protocol (IP) addresses, which consist of a string of numbers separated by periods, are used to identify Internet sites. A domain name provides a corresponding alphanumeric address which is easier to remember and often intuitive. For example, www.ibm.com is IBM's website.³

Accordingly, domain names represent the same purposes as trademarks, online, for business and commercial purposes. They serve to identify the source of goods and services, such as:

- Promotion of business and building up of customer base online and offline by way of advertising on the web.
- Establishment of the credibility of the website and the business of the Internet.
- Easy access to customers and prospective customers.⁴

Cybersquatting

Registration of domain names are done on a 'first come—first serve' basis. This gives rise to many problems as any person can register any domain name of their choice regardless of whether that name holds any trademark or goodwill of a commercial/business enterprise or represents any kind of organization. This leads to the reservation of many well known trade names, brand names, company names, etc. by individual/corporations other than the ones with a genuine interest in the domain name, with a view to trafficking/doing business on the said domain name to the genuine buyer.⁵

Cyber-squatters, also known as "cyber-pirates", beat a company to the punch by reserving a company name or trademark as a domain name in the hope of profiting when the company wants to reserve its own name.⁶ Essentially, cyber squatters fraudulently obtain these domain names with the intent to sell to the lawful owner of the name at a higher price or premium. The cyber squatters quickly sell the domain names to other non-related entities, thereby enabling passing off and diluting of famous trademark or trade names.⁷ Passing off is a form of unfair trade practices in which one party seeks to profit from the other party's reputation.

The main problem lies in the fact that two owners cannot have the same domain name. Hence, although cyber squatters are not completely restricting corporations from registering any domain name of their choice, it can be argued that cyber squatters are preventing the right of corporations to domain names. However, by registering the most obvious as a domain name (e.g., the name of the corporation itself), cyber squatters force corporations to find other ways to attract consumers to their Internet pages.⁸ Instead of simply typing an obvious domain name for a corporation, customers are forced to use a search engine, which may cause additional confusion or delay when accessing the desired site.⁹ Moreover, with the programming of search engines, often enough websites of the competitor's with similar domain names pop up.

Consumers seeking the page of a specified trademark owner will likely turn to a search engine because an initial attempt to type in the domain name (For example, 'www.trademark.com') does not yield the desired result as a cyber squatter has already registered that domain. Therefore, the trademark owner is injured in three ways¹⁰:

1. Using a search engine will inconvenience the consumer, because he may possibly have to wade through thousands of other sites to get to the desired site. Thus, this increases the customer's search costs and makes it more likely that the customer will become frustrated with the trademark owner, regardless of the quality of her products or services.
2. The search engine is likely to bring up many Internet sites of the trademark owner's competitors.
3. The frustration that customers face with this problem may convince customers to use an alternative, non-Internet means to get the desired products. This fact, combined with the likely frustration from the search engine process, might make customers, originally searching to purchase the trademark owner's products, shift their purchases to the trademark owner's competitors.¹¹

Consequently, protecting domain names and its identity has become important.

The cases so far, have showed that the conflicting issue in relation to the use of the goodwill of a trademark by an infringer in the domain name to divert the customers or potential customers of the owner of the trademark to a website not associated with that trademark, or use of meta tags resulting in dilution of trademark or unauthorized registration of the trademark as domain name with the intent to extort money or to prevent the owner from using the trademark.¹²

Law relating to domain names and cybersquatting

Uniform Domain Name Dispute Resolution Policy (UDRP) is an internet-based system that resolves complaints made by owners of trademark when facing trademark conflict. Being neither a court nor an arbitration authority it controls deletion/transfer of domain names. According to the policy, a complainant can bring action on grounds including a domain name being identical/confusingly similar to a trademark/service mark, domain name owner has no rights/legitimate interests in the same or the domain name so registered is being used in bad faith. After the approval of all these stipulations the registration is proved, or domain registration cancelled/transferred to complainant. However, no financial remedies are a part of the UDRP mechanism.

UDRP is defined as an "expedited administrative proceeding", and under it the trademark holder complains to the approved dispute resolution provider. UDRP may also be referred to as a legally qualified specific contract term. For country-coded top-level domains like .uk and .de, UDRP applies only if the country administrator voluntarily adopts it. Generic top-level domains like .com and .org are under UDRP's scope. It is a cheap, fast and easy alternative to complex court procedures and long hours.

WIPO is the most important dispute-resolution service provider under the UDRP, accredited to ICANN for domain names. It provides skilled panelists, thorough administrative procedures and complete credence. It takes about two months for a WIPO case to be resolved, with a small fee to be made. A case with higher complexity may be heard in person.¹³

A person may complain before the administrative dispute resolution service providers listed by ICANN under Rule 4 (a) that:

- (i) A domain name is "identical or confusingly similar to a trademark or service mark" in which the complainant has rights; and
- (ii) The domain name owner/registrant has no right or legitimate interest in respect of the domain name; and
- (iii) A domain name has been registered and is being used in bad faith.

Role of the Judiciary

In India, currently, there is no legislation or provision relating to disputes with regard to domain names or cybersquatting therefore, the Trademarks Act plays an influential role in decisions of the court. Unlike other countries that have recognized this menace, India has only relied upon the precedents of the courts.

However, in the case of **Satyam Infoway v. Sifynet Solutions**¹⁴, the Hon'ble Supreme Court indicated to the need for domain, as follows:

"The original role of a domain name was no doubt to provide an address for computers on the Internet. But the Internet has developed from a mere means of communication to a mode of carrying on commercial activity. With the increase of commercial activity on the Internet, a domain name is also used as a business identifier. Therefore, the domain name not only serves as an address for Internet communication but also identifies the specific Internet site. In the commercial field, each domain name

owner provides information/services that are associated with such domain name. A domain name is easy to remember and use, and is chosen as an instrument of commercial enterprise not only because it facilitates the ability of consumers to navigate the Internet to find websites they are looking for, but also at the same time, serves to identify and distinguish the business itself, or its goods or services, and to specify its corresponding online Internet location. Consequently a domain name as an address must, of necessity, be peculiar and unique and where a domain name is used in connection with a business, the value of maintaining an exclusive identity becomes critical.”¹⁵

Moreover, in case of *Rediff Communication v Cyberbooth 15* the court decided that the value and importance of a domain name is equitable to being like the company's asset and therefore, domain names must be treated like corporate assets and must also be protected as such, similar to trademarks.

*Yahoo! Inc. v. Akash Arora*¹⁷ was another such case where the plaintiffs sought permanent injunction to restrain the defendants from using the trademark or domain name yahooindia.com or such deceptively similar to the trademark “Yahoo” for any commercial purposes. The defendants argued that as Yahoo was not trademarked in India, there is no infringement, as it did not fall under the definition of goods under Indian Trade Marks Act, 1958. Yet, the plaintiff was granted the injunction, as services rendered on Internet are globally recognized as goods and Yahoo's trademark ought to be protected.

As there are no special laws or statutes to prevent cybersquatting in India, the principle of passing off is primarily applied.

As was seen in the case of *Tata Sons Ltd v Manu Kosuri*¹⁸, Tata's trademark was misappropriated. The defendant registered many domain names incorporating the trademark Tata. The court held as domain names are valuable corporate assets, they are entitled to trademark equivalent protection.

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This article has been Awarded
Certificate of Excellence for Original Legal Research
work by our Panel of Judges

Internet Access?

Company employees need access to the Internet to do their jobs. However, as remote and hybrid work policies become commonplace, employees are no longer consistently protected by an organization's on-prem security solutions.

Employees both remote and in the office face a range of threats from the public Internet. Phishing sites attempt to steal sensitive information and deliver malware. Sensitive information may be insecurely shared on unapproved SaaS apps or other sites.

Automated bots perform credential stuffing and other attacks.

Secure Internet Access protects employees against web-based threats and minimizes the risk of data breaches and other threats. This is accomplished by inspecting and filtering network traffic based on corporate security policy and threat detection rules.

How Does Secure Internet Access Operate?

Secure Internet Access is designed to inspect and protect inbound and outbound traffic between a user's machine and the public Internet. This can be accomplished in a couple of ways:

- **In-Browser Protection:** Agents deployed in a user's browser can inspect Internet traffic on the endpoint itself. This provides secure and private web browsing without incurring latency or redirecting traffic to an inspection point.
- **Cloud-Based Protection:** A [secure web gateway](#) (SWG) deployed as a cloud service can provide protection to an organization's entire workforce. This solution works for all devices, providing protection for those that might be unable to support in-browser agents.

The Main Protections for Secure Internet Access

Secure browsing solutions should provide protection against the main web-based threats that organizations face. They should include the following five core capabilities.

#1. Malware Protection

Users can be infected with [malware](#) via various web-based threats. Malware can be downloaded from phishing pages or delivered via the exploitation of browser vulnerabilities. Once installed, the malware communicates with and receives instructions from attacker-controlled servers via command and control communications (C2C).

A secure browsing solution should offer comprehensive protection against malware. All downloads should be inspected for malicious content in a sandboxed environment and be sanitized using [content disarm and reconstruction](#) (CDR). Solutions should also identify and automatically remediate malware infections and virtually patch vulnerabilities in users' browsers.

#2. Phishing Protection

[Phishing attacks](#) are some of the most common and effective threats to corporate cybersecurity. A successful phishing attack often leads users to a webpage that steals sensitive information or delivers malware.

A secure Internet access solution should leverage artificial intelligence (AI) and heuristic analysis to identify phishing pages. This includes inspection of all form and password boxes and looking for a wide range of potential phishing indicators.

#3. Data Loss Prevention

Data breaches have become a regular occurrence, and the cost of a data breach to an organization is growing. Often, these leaks are enabled by negligent or malicious employee behavior.

Secure browsing solutions should be able to manage exposure risks for sensitive corporate information. This includes blocking sharing or storage of sensitive information on unsanctioned social media, SaaS applications, and file-sharing services.

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#4. Credential Theft Prevention

[Credential stuffing](#) attacks are a major cyber threat that exploits widespread password reuse. Credentials breached from one site are used to gain access to an employee's other online accounts.

A secure browsing solution should protect against the threat of employees reusing their corporate credentials for online applications. Solutions should block the entry of company passwords into websites and alert administrators of attempts to do so.

#5. Access Control

The growth of remote work has blurred the lines between personal and business device usage. Adult or gambling websites may include malicious content that puts corporate data and systems at risk.

Secure browsing solutions should incorporate [URL filtering functionality](#). This enables an organization to block visits to inappropriate or dangerous sites and to protect against data breaches by disallowing the use of file-sharing sites such as Torrent.



How to Choose the Optimal Internet Access Security Solution

The optimal internet access security solution provides both robust protection and a positive user experience. Five critical features of a secure browsing solution include:

- **Zero Day Protection:** Cybercriminals are continuously developing novel malware variants and deploying new phishing pages. A secure internet access solution should leverage AI to identify and block unknown malware and phishing pages.
- **SSL Traffic Inspection:** Most internet traffic is encrypted, and visibility into encrypted traffic is essential to identifying web-based attacks. A secure browsing solution should be capable of inspecting all SSL-encrypted traffic without adding significant latency.

- **Seamless User Experience:** Many traditional secure Internet access solutions, such as [remote browser isolation \(RBI\)](#), add significant latency and can prevent users from accessing content. Secure Internet access solutions should offer low-latency SSL inspection and use CDR to sanitize infected content.
- **Scalability and Simple Deployment:** Remote work adds load on secure browsing solutions and makes them more difficult for remote administrators to manage. A solution should be adaptable, scalable, and easy to deploy to meet the evolving needs of the business.
- **Privacy:** Some secure browsing solutions expose users' browser history and traffic to administrators. A secure browsing solution should provide protection while remaining compliant with the GDPR and other increasingly stringent data privacy laws.

Secure Internet Access with Harmony

Secure Internet access is essential to protecting remote workers and enabling them to do their jobs. To learn more about what to look for in a secure browsing solution, check out [this buyer's guide](#).

Check Point Harmony offers secure Internet access with both options for both in-browser agents ([Harmony Browse](#)) and cloud-based Secure Web Gateway protections ([Harmony Connect](#)). Learn more about Harmony Connect and its capabilities by [signing up for a free demo](#).



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UNIT-2

Information Technology Act, 2000:

The Information Technology Act, 2000 also known as an IT Act is an act proposed by the Indian Parliament reported on 17th October 2000. This Information Technology Act is based on the United Nations Model Law on Electronic Commerce 1996 (UNCITRAL Model) which was suggested by the General Assembly of United Nations by a resolution dated on 30th January, 1997. It is the most important law in India dealing with Cybercrime and E-Commerce.

The main objective of this act is to carry lawful and trustworthy electronic, digital and online transactions and alleviate or reduce cybercrimes. The IT Act has 13 chapters and 90 sections. The last four sections that starts from 'section 91 - section 94', deals with the revisions to the Indian Penal Code 1860.

The IT Act, 2000 has two schedules:

- **First** Schedule -
Deals with documents to which the Act shall not apply.
- **Second** Schedule -
Deals with electronic signature or electronic authentication method.

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 sourced documents.
2. Direction 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 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. Sections and Punishments under Information Technology Act, 2000 are as follows:

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.
Section 66B, 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 66E	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 66F	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.

Amendments and Limitations of IT Act:

Topics covered:

1. Government policies and interventions for development in various sectors and issues arising out of their design and implementation.
2. Challenges to internal security through communication networks, role of media and social networking sites in internal security challenges, basics of cybersecurity; money-laundering and its prevention.

[Amendments to the Information Technology \(IT\) Act](#)

What to study?

- **For Prelims: Key features of the IT Act, amendments proposed.**

- **For Mains: Significance and the need for amendments, concerns associated.**

Context: In its bid to crack down on spread of fake news and rumours circulated on online platforms like WhatsApp, Facebook and other online platforms, the **central government has proposed stringent changes under the draft of Section 79 of the Information Technology (IT) that govern online content.**

Implications:

The proposed amendments in the draft of **the Information Technology [Intermediaries Guidelines (Amendment) Rules] 2018, Rule 3(9)** is bound to force social media platforms like WhatsApp, Facebook and Twitter to remain vigilant and keep users on their toes before posting or sharing anything that is deemed as “unlawful information or content”.

The changes proposed by the central government is **aimed at curbing fake news or rumours being spread on social media and check mob violence ahead.**

What the new rules propose?

The changes will require **online platforms to break end-to-end encryption in order to ascertain the origin of messages.** The social media platforms to “deploy technology based automated tools or appropriate mechanisms, with appropriate controls, for proactively identifying or removing or disabling access to unlawful information or content”.

As per the amendment, **the social media platforms will need to comply with the central government “within 72 hours” of a query.**

There should be a **‘Nodal person of Contact’** for 24X7 coordination with law enforcement agencies and officers to ensure compliance. The social media platforms will be keeping a vigil on “unlawful activity” for a period of “180 days”.

What necessitated this?

With concerns over “rising incidents of violence and lynching in the country due to misuse of social media platforms”, there is now need for online platforms to shoulder the “responsibility, accountability and larger commitment to ensure that its platform is not misused on a large scale to spread incorrect facts projected as news and designed to instigate people to commit crime”.

Criticisms:

The proposed changes have once again given rise to a debate on whether the government is intruding into the privacy of individuals, evoking sharp response from opposition parties. Similar apprehensions were raised with the Section 66A of the IT Act that enabled authorities to arrest users for posting content which was termed as offensive. However, the Supreme Court on March 24, 2015, struck down the law.

Background:

India has the second highest number of internet users in the world after China, an estimated 462.12 million. Among them, 258.27 million were likely to be social network users in the country in 2019.

Digital Signature:

A digital signature is a type of electronic signature that's secure and can be authenticated. Digital signatures are important because they're legally enforceable just like a handwritten signature. They're used to sign important documents like mortgage documents. As a result, they're not the same thing as simply typing your name

on an electronic document. In this guide, we explain more about what digital signatures are, how they work, and the benefits they offer.



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Definition of a Digital Signature

A digital signature is a type of electronic signature. It's used as a [cybersecurity](#) measure to encrypt a document to ensure its authenticity. According to the [Cybersecurity and Infrastructure Security Agency \(CISA\)](#), "Digital signatures create a virtual fingerprint that is unique to a person or entity and are used to identify users and protect information in digital messages or documents. In emails, the email content itself becomes part of the digital signature."

Encryption is a key part of a digital signature. It prevents documents from being altered by [hackers](#) or other bad actors and authenticates the signer.

"A digital signature is an electronic signature and [public key infrastructure]-based certificate (digital ID) combined into one," explains Lila Kee, chief product officer and general manager, Americas for [GlobalSign](#), a provider of digital signatures. "They provide integrity and, with the use of trusted, digital certificates, authenticity to digital messages such as email, documents and coded distributed via the Internet."

How Does a Digital Signature Work?

Before you can use a digital signature, you must first have a digital signature certificate. "This certificate is a personal key that encrypts the document and guarantees their safety," says Sergey Barysiuk, chief technology officer (CTO) of [PandaDoc](#), a provider of digital signatures.

A digital signature certificate also has pertinent information about each user, including their name, email address, and location. The certificate can be stored on a hard drive so that only the user can access it.

When a user signs a new document with their digital signature certificate, the document is "hashed," or translated into a code, Barysiuk explains. The document is then encrypted with the user's private key.

By hashing a document and encrypting it with a private key, the digital signature process effectively creates a chain of custody. This means that changes can't be made to the document without all signers knowing about them, and signers can't deny having signed the document.

"These extra steps are what make a digital signature more secure than an electronic signature," Barysiuk says. "Instead of just using a symbol, it contains your personal key, which verifies the validity of the document." Effectively, the digital signature serves as an electronic fingerprint of the signer.

While the process sounds complicated, it doesn't need to be. For example, Microsoft includes a digital signature capability in its Office products Word and Excel.

Classes and Types of Digital Signatures There are three basic types of digital signatures with different levels of security

: Standard or Simple Electronic Signatures

This is the most basic form of a signature, where the signer draws or types their name, but without any validation. This can include simply pasting a copy of a handwritten signature on a document or typing the user's name. Typing in a fancy, script-like font doesn't make this kind of e-signature any more official.

Advanced Electronic Signatures (AES)

This type of digital signature uniquely identifies the signer using electronic signature verification data to which only the signer has access.

Qualified Electronic Signatures (QES)

A stricter form of AES, Barysiuk says QES is accompanied with a qualified digital certificate and has the same legal value as a handwritten signature. This type of certificate is issued by a qualified trust service provider that must be on the European Union Trust List (EUTL).

Although the requirements for digital signatures are based on European Union (EU) standards, they're used in the U.S. and elsewhere. The U.S. is rapidly developing its own digital signature solutions, says John Gruetzner, chief operating officer of [Syngrafii](#).

How To Create a Digital Signature

Creating a digital signature requires generating a public and private key pair using a cryptographic algorithm, says Vaclav Vincalek, founder and CTO at the virtual CTO firm [555vCTO](#). The private key is used to sign a document or message, which is then encrypted. The signed data can then be sent, and the recipient verifies its authenticity using the public key.

As previously noted, you also need a digital signature certificate. Depending on the level of security involved, you can get this certificate from a certificate authority.

If you don't want to pay or wait for a digital signature certificate, you can create your own using a process in Microsoft Windows that will provide a certificate. However, other users won't be able to verify it like they would using one created by a qualified provider.

Benefits of Digital Signatures Digital signatures are a way to promote trust between two parties who must communicate electronically.

They

provide a way for the parties to be certain that their communications haven't been altered and that the information they're sharing has been kept secure.

Related benefits of digital signatures include:

Improved Workflows Digital signatures avoid the need to check and recheck documents for accuracy after they've been

transmitted. Security

A digital signature guards against inauthentic documents being presented as real because it's tied to a specific signer. It can also guard against unauthorized changes to documents and against loss or destruction. A digital certificate obtained from a legitimate certificate authority helps ensure this security.

Audit Trail

An audit trail accompanies each document, making it possible to trace a document back to its origin to verify it. Elimination of

fraud

The digital signature prevents forgery and other types of fraud, including insider fraud, by using public key infrastructure to ensure the legitimacy of a document.

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Universal Legality

Digital signatures use standards based in both the EU and the U.S., and developers ensure that their digital signature coding meets international standards. This means that digital signatures can be made anywhere and accepted everywhere.

Time Management

Once digital signature functionality is in place, the signing and approval process is fast and easy. This eliminates the delays and potential risk of passing paper documents through the approval process.

Social Responsibility

In addition to reducing or eliminating the paper waste of the document signing process, the use of digital signatures helps create confidence in the security of documents in an organization. This reduces the chance of embarrassing leaks of personally identifiable information because of lax security or encryption failures.

Cost Savings

The use of digital signatures can save a significant amount of money that would otherwise be spent on routing and managing paper. Document management becomes faster and storing documents securely becomes easier. There are also cost savings in printing, paper, and secure management of paper documents.

Uses for Digital Signatures

Digital signatures are already widely used, especially in the healthcare and financial services industries. Other industries are starting to use them more often as well. Here are some specific examples:

Government

When you sign your tax return online, you're using a digital signature. Digital signatures are also now appearing on government procurement documents, bills, and even ID cards. The primary reasons are security (bogus tax returns are a huge problem) and cost.

Health Care

Signatures are required widely in the healthcare sector for everything from insurance billing to providing permission for treatment. Security has been a challenge in health care, and digital signatures are a major step in helping with that. Using digital signatures eliminates the delays and security issues of paper documents.

Manufacturing

A number of steps in manufacturing require signatures, including ordering materials, approving designs and changes to designs, production schedules, and staffing communications. Digital signatures make these processes more efficient.

Financial Services

Digital signatures are common in financial services, especially for activities that can be performed remotely. This includes loans for cars, credit card applications, and other contracts. The banking industry is moving aggressively to digital signatures.

Cryptocurrencies

Digital signatures are used for blockchain authentication with cryptocurrencies. They're also used for verification of cryptocurrency transaction data, where digital signatures can also help show ownership. Why

Use PKI or PGP With Digital Signatures?

PKI stands for public key infrastructure. "It refers to the system of digital certificates, certificate authorities, and other registration authorities that are used to verify and authenticate the identity of a party in online transactions," Vincalek says.

PGP stands for pretty good privacy. It's a data encryption and decryption program that uses public-key cryptography to protect information from being read by unauthorized parties, according to Vincalek. He says PKI is generally used by corporations, while PGP is used by individuals.

"Using digital signatures in conjunction with PKI or PGP strengthens them and reduces the possible security issues connected to transmitting public keys by validating the key belongs to the sender, and verifying the identity of the sender," says CISA.

According to CISA, the security of a digital signature is almost entirely dependent on how well the private key is protected. "Without PGP or PKI, proving someone's identity or revoking a compromised key is impossible; [not using them] could allow malicious actors to impersonate someone without any method of confirmation," the agency says.

Digital Signatures vs. Electronic Signatures

A digital signature is an electronic signature that meets specific requirements, especially in terms of security. "Digital signatures work by proving that a digital message or document was not modified—intentionally or unintentionally—from the time it was signed," CISA says.

A digital signature does this by using the sender's private key to develop the hash that encrypts the key. The recipient uses the sender's public key to decrypt the original message, and then compares the hash from each one to determine if there have been changes to the message. If the hash matches, then the message hasn't been changed.

Electronic signatures don't have these security features, meaning there's no way to know if the electronic document was changed. An electronic signature is simply a signature that shows upon an electronic document. A digital signature is a secure means of signing a document that allows you to confirm its authenticity, as well as its provenance. To do this, a digital signature must meet the requirements of the [Electronic Signatures in Global and National Commerce Act](#).

The EU implemented its first Electronic Signatures Directive in 1999, but that law has been repealed and replaced with updated regulation, [eIDAS](#) (Regulation on electronic identification and trust services).

Electronic signature services from most vendors comply with both U.S. and the EU requirements.

CRYPTOGRAPHY ALGORITHMS IN CYBERSECURITY: TYPES, EXAMPLES:



Cryptography is one of the oldest and most widely used tools for safeguarding IT assets. Nearly every business relies on cryptography to secure sensitive data and IT infrastructure. So,

what is cryptography in cybersecurity, and how can it help you optimize your security posture? Put simply, it's a way to make information unreadable by attackers, even if it is compromised.

What is Cryptography?

Cryptography in computer network security is the process of [protecting sensitive information](#) from unauthorized access when it is at rest or in transit by rendering it unreadable without a key. Leveraging [encryption](#), cryptography helps users secure data transmission over networks, ensuring that only individuals with designated keys can access encrypted data.

To answer the question, *what is cryptography in cybersecurity?*, this blog will:

- Break down the two types of cryptography
- Explain different methods of cryptography
- Provide several cryptography examples
- Walk through the benefits of cryptography protection

In most cases, cryptography needs will vary depending on an organization's structure, security controls, and broader governance requirements. Partnering with a [managed security services provider](#) (MSSP) is the best way to optimize cryptography protection to your specific needs.

Types of Cryptography

There is no shortage of methods of cryptography available on the market, so you might be wondering which cryptography types will work best for your organization's security needs.

In general, there are [two types of cryptography](#) widely used for cyber security applications:

Symmetric Cryptography

Also called "secret key cryptography," symmetric cryptography functions via cryptographic key sharing between users. In this method, the same key is used to encrypt and decrypt data and is typically shared between users. In theory, only an individual with a unique cryptographic key should be able to decrypt the encrypted data. Symmetric cryptography is often used to safeguard the local storage of sensitive data on drives or servers.

Asymmetric Cryptography

On another level, *asymmetric cryptography* is typically used to safeguard the transmission of sensitive data across public networks. Asymmetric cryptography is also called "public key cryptography" because its users must have two keys. One of the keys is considered

a "public key" that can be provided to anyone either user communicates with. However, the second key decrypts the encrypted data and is meant to be kept private.

Encryption and Decryption in Cryptography

So how exactly does cryptography work? In practice, as with the primary types, there are two primary approaches or methods of cryptography, which work hand in hand to secure data:



Encryption

[Data encryption](#) refers to the process of using an algorithm to convert binary data from one form to another, accessible only by a specific key. For encryption to work, an algorithm converts plaintext into a [difficult-to-decipher form](#) (also called ciphertext), which can only be converted back to plaintext with a cryptographic key. Developing complex encryption algorithms will help increase the security of data transmission and minimize the risks of data being compromised.

Decryption

Decryption essentially reverses encryption. Using a cryptographic key that matches the encryption algorithm, a user can decrypt sensitive data whether at rest or in transit. Depending on the complexity and robustness of the algorithms you use, both encryption and decryption in cryptography will help optimize your security posture and safeguard sensitive data.

Examples of Cryptography

With wide-reaching applications, **cryptography** can help secure a wide range of sensitive digital environments, regardless of organization size, business needs, or industry. Your choice of cryptographic solutions will depend on the type of security controls you need to implement. Below are some of the **common uses of cryptography**:

Encrypting BYOD Devices

[Bring Your Own Device \(BYOD\)](#) policies enable employees to use their own personal phones and computers at work or for work—on premises and, potentially, for completing work tasks. But BYOD devices are at high risk for security threats if they're used on unsecured, public networks.

The risk of data breach is even higher if employees transmit sensitive data on these devices.

You should consider implementing **BYOD device encryption** if your employees can work remotely using their personal devices or bring them into work environments altogether.

Securing Sensitive Emails

Any emails containing sensitive data should be secured using industry-standard encryption algorithms that minimize the chances that cybercriminals will access the emails—or be able to read and use data within if they are accessed. End-to-end encryption tools can help [secure sensitive emails](#), especially if private and public keys used to encrypt the emails are kept safe.

Encrypting Databases

Encryption also extends to databases containing sensitive information such as:

- Customer data (e.g., home addresses, bank account numbers)
- Employee data (e.g., social security numbers)
- Intellectual property (IP) data (e.g., patent information)

Database encryption is critical to mitigating the risk to data at rest across on-premise and cloud databases.



Protecting Sensitive Company Data

Encryption is also an essential tool for safeguarding your company's sensitive data such as:

- Employees' [personally identifiable information](#) (PII)
 - Financial data relating to the company and its partners
 - Customer or supplier data
- One of the most common database encryption tools is [transparent data encryption](#) (TDE), which crypts most SQL-based databases.

HTTPS to secure website

Secure websites are typically encrypted by the [HTTPS protocol](#), which helps safeguard the confidentiality, integrity, and authenticity of transactions on the Internet.

HTTPS encryption also helps mitigate attacks like DNS spoofing, where cybercriminals attempt to direct users to unsecured websites to steal their sensitive information. HTTPS encryption is also widely implemented in customer-facing industries like retail, where customers can immediately identify an unsecured website based on the "https" in a website's URL.

Benefits of Cryptography Protection

Cryptography protection keeps your data confidential and maintains its integrity. Below are some [benefits of email encryption](#), which can also apply to other forms of cryptography:

Confidentiality

Encryption helps keep sensitive data confidential and minimize any risks of the data being exposed to cybercriminals. It is far easier to invest in a robust encryption method than risk compromising sensitive data belonging to valuable customers, vendors, or business partners.

Authentication

When integrated into email applications, encryption can help identify potential phishing attempts and verify the authenticity of email senders, links, and attachments. Encryption will also make it easier for your employees to identify phishing threats and prevent any full-blown attacks.

Data Integrity

Encryption also helps preserve the integrity of your sensitive data. Specifically, data is susceptible to security risks when it's stored locally or in the cloud and during its transmission from one party to another. Using industry-standard encryption algorithms will help keep your data secure at all stages of storage or transmission.

Non-Repudiation

Cryptography protection can also provide [non-repudiation](#) assurance, ensuring both parties receive confirmation of data transmission. When transmitting highly sensitive data to business partners, customers, or vendors, encrypting your emails will also help avoid any legal issues, should one party claim a message was not sent, received, or processed.

How RSISecurity Can Help You Implement Cryptography

Back to the starting question: what is cryptography in cyber security?

It's a set of tools to help your organization keep data and other sensitive IT assets safe. Partnering with RSISecurity will help optimize your cryptography, in-house or outsourced. Our [cryptography services](#) include:

- Local and remote disk encryption
- Implementing encryption in compliance with industry standards
- Management of endpoint cryptography

- Monitoring the integrity of local and cloud file storage
- Patch management of cryptography tools
- Penetration testing of encryption methods

As an experienced MSSP, our team of experts understands just how cumbersome it is to manage the encryption of endpoints across an organization. As threats keep evolving into today's IT landscape, we help optimize cryptography and ensure that encryption tools work robustly within your cybersecurity framework.

Public Key Encryption

- [Read](#)
- [Discuss](#)
- [Courses](#)

When the two parties communicate to each other to transfer the intelligible or sensible message, referred to as plaintext, is converted into apparently random nonsense for security purpose referred to as **ciphertext**.

Encryption:

The process of changing the plaintext into the ciphertext is referred to as **encryption**. The encryption process consists of an algorithm and a key. The key is a value independent of the plaintext.

The security of conventional encryption depends on the major two factors:

1. The Encryption algorithm
2. Secrecy of the key

Once the ciphertext is produced, it may be transmitted. The Encryption algorithm will produce a different output depending on the specific key being used at the time. Changing the key changes the output of the algorithm. Once the ciphertext is produced, it may be transmitted. Upon reception, the ciphertext can be transformed back to the original plaintext by using a decryption algorithm and the same key that was used for encryption.

Decryption:

The process of changing the ciphertext to the plaintext that process is known as **decryption**.

Public Key Encryption: Asymmetric

is a form of Crypto system in which encryption and decryption are performed using different keys - Public key (known to everyone) and Private key (Secret key). This is known as **Public Key Encryption**.

Difference between Encryption and Public-key Encryption:

basis	Encryption	Public-Key Encryption
<i>Required for Work:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same algorithm with the same key is used for encryption and decryption. • The sender and receiver must share the algorithm and key. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One algorithm is used for encryption and a related algorithm decryption with pair of keys, one for encryption and other for decryption. • Receiver and Sender must each have one of the matched pair of keys (not identical)
<i>Required for Security:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key must be kept secret. • If the key is secret, it is very impossible to decipher message. • Knowledge of the algorithm plus samples of ciphertext must be impractical to determine the key. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One of the two keys must be kept secret. • If one of the key is kept secret, it is very impossible to decipher message. • Knowledge of the algorithm plus one of the keys plus samples of ciphertext must be impractical to determine the other key.

Characteristics of Public Encryption key:

- Public key Encryption is important because it is infeasible to determine the decryption key given only the knowledge of the cryptographic algorithm and encryption key.
- Either of the two keys (Public and Private key) can be used for encryption with the other key used for decryption.
- Due to Public key cryptosystem, public keys can be freely shared, allowing users an easy and convenient method for encrypting content and verifying digital signatures, and private keys can be kept secret, ensuring only the owners of the private keys can decrypt content and create digital signatures.
- The most widely used public-key cryptosystem is **RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman)**. The difficulty of finding the prime factors of a composite number is the backbone of RSA.

Example:

Public keys of every user are present in the Public key Register. If B wants to send a confidential message to C, then B encrypts the message using C's Public key. When C receives the message from B then C can decrypt it using its own Private key. No other recipient other than C can decrypt the message because only C knows C's private key.

Public Key Cryptography and its Types

- [Read](#)
- [Discuss](#)
- [Courses](#)



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Cryptography is a technique of securing information and communication through use of codes so that only those person for whom the information is intended can understand it and process it. Thus preventing unauthorized access to information. The prefix "crypt" means "hidden" and suffix "graphy" means "writing". In Cryptography the techniques which are used to protect information are obtained from mathematical concepts and a set of rule-based calculations known as algorithms to convert messages in ways that are difficult to decode it. These algorithms are used for cryptographic key generation, digital signing, verification to protect data privacy, web browsing on internet and to protect confidential transactions such as credit card and debit card transactions.

Techniques used For Cryptography: In today's age of computers cryptography is often associated with the process where an ordinary plain text is converted to cipher text which is the text made such that intended receiver of the text can only decode it and hence this process is known as encryption. The process of conversion of cipher text to plain text this is known as decryption.

Features Of Cryptography are as follows:

1. **Confidentiality:** Information can only be accessed by the person for whom it is intended and no other person except him can access it.
2. **Integrity:** Information cannot be modified in storage or transition between sender and intended receiver without any addition to information being detected.
3. **Non-repudiation:** The creator/sender of information cannot deny his intention to send information at a later stage.
4. **Authentication:** The identities of sender and receiver are confirmed. As well as destination/origin of information is confirmed.

Types Of Cryptography: In general there are three types of cryptography:

1. **Symmetric Key Cryptography:** It is an encryption system where the sender and receiver of message use a single common key to encrypt and decrypt messages. Symmetric Key Systems are faster and simpler but the problem is that sender and receiver have to somehow exchange key in a secure manner. The most popular symmetric key cryptography system are Data Encryption System (DES) and Advanced Encryption System (AES).
2. **Hash Functions:** There is no usage of any key in this algorithm. A hash value with fixed length is calculated as per the plain text which makes it impossible for contents of plain text to be recovered. Many operating systems use hash functions to encrypt passwords.
3. **Asymmetric Key Cryptography:** Under this system a pair of keys is used to encrypt and decrypt information. A receiver's public key is used for encryption and a receiver's private key is used for decryption. Public key and Private Key are different. Even if the public key is known by everyone the intended receiver can only decode it because he alone knows his private key. The most popular asymmetric key cryptography algorithm is RSA algorithm.

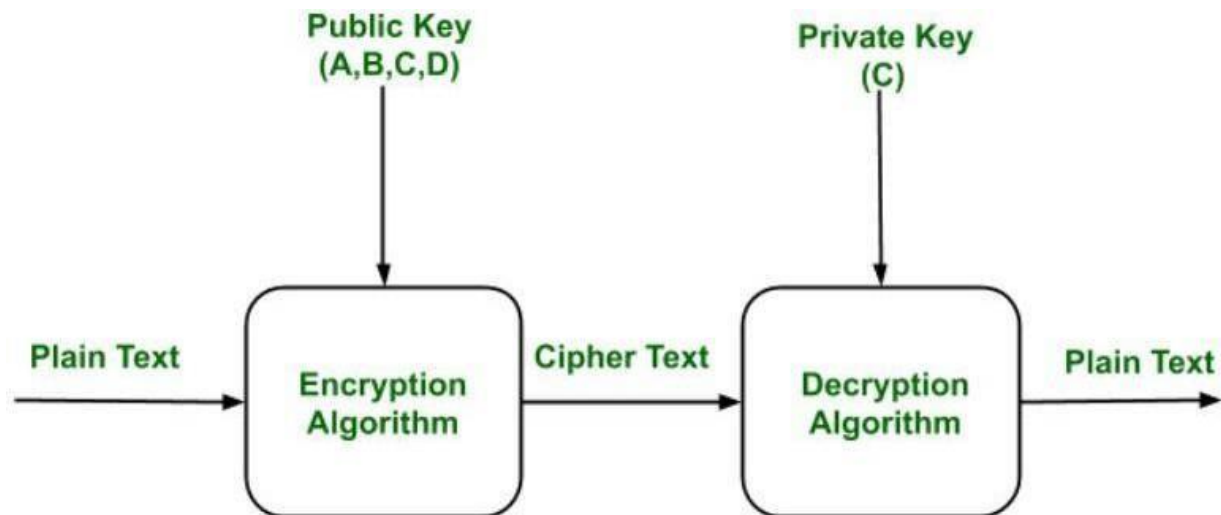
Applications Of Cryptography:

1. **Computer passwords:** Cryptography is widely utilized in computer security, particularly when creating and maintaining passwords. When a user logs in, their password is hashed and compared to the hash that was previously stored. Passwords are hashed and encrypted before being stored. In this technique, the passwords are encrypted so that even if a hacker gains access to the password database, they cannot read the passwords.
2. **Digital Currencies:** To safeguard transactions and prevent fraud, digital currencies like Bitcoin also use cryptography. Complex algorithms and cryptographic keys are used to safeguard transactions, making it nearly hard to tamper with or forge the transactions.
3. **Secure web browsing:** Online browsing security is provided by the use of cryptography, which shields users from eavesdropping and man-in-the-middle assaults. Public key cryptography is used by the Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) and Transport Layer Security (TLS) protocols to encrypt data sent between the web server and the client, establishing a secure channel for communication.
4. **Electronic signatures:** Electronic signatures serve as the digital equivalent of a handwritten signature and are used to sign documents. Digital signatures are created using cryptography and can be validated using public key cryptography. In many nations, electronic signatures are enforceable by law, and their use is expanding quickly.
5. **Authentication:** Cryptography is used for authentication in many different situations, such as when accessing a bank account, logging into a computer, or using a secure network. Cryptographic methods are employed by authentication protocols to confirm the user's identity and confirm that they have the required access rights to the resource.
6. **Cryptocurrencies:** Cryptography is heavily used by cryptocurrencies like Bitcoin and Ethereum to safeguard transactions, thwart fraud, and maintain the network's integrity. Complex algorithms and cryptographic keys are used to safeguard transactions, making it nearly hard to tamper with or forge the transactions.
7. **End-to-End Encryption:** End-to-end encryption is used to protect two-way communications like video conversations, instant messages, and email. Even if the message is encrypted, it assures that only the intended receivers can read the message. End-to-end encryption is widely used in communication apps like WhatsApp and Signal, and it provides a high level of security and privacy for users.

Advantages

1. **Access Control:** Cryptography can be used for access control to ensure that only parties with the proper permissions have access to a resource. Only those with the correct decryption key can access the resource thanks to encryption.
2. **Secure Communication:** For secure online communication, cryptography is crucial. It offers secure mechanisms for transmitting private information like passwords, bank account numbers, and other sensitive data over the internet.
3. **Protection against attacks:** Cryptography aids in the defence against various types of assaults, including replay and man-in-the-middle attacks. It offers strategies for spotting and stopping these assaults.
4. **Compliance with legal requirements:** Cryptography can assist firms in meeting a variety of legal requirements, including data protection and privacy laws.

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Components of Public Key Encryption:

- **Plain Text:** This is the message which is readable or understandable. This message is given to the Encryption algorithm as an input.
- **Cipher Text:** The cipher text is produced as an output of Encryption algorithm. We cannot simply understand this message.
- **Encryption Algorithm:** The encryption algorithm is used to convert plain text into cipher text.
- **Decryption Algorithm:** It accepts the cipher text as input and the matching key (Private Key or Public Key) and produces the original plain text.
- **Public and Private Key:** One key either Private key (Secret key) or Public Key (known to everyone) is used for encryption and the other is used for decryption.

Weakness of the Public Key Encryption:

- Public Key Encryption is vulnerable to Brute-force attack.
- This algorithm also fails when the user loses their private key, then the Public Key Encryption becomes the most vulnerable algorithm.
- Public Key Encryption is also weak towards man-in-the-middle attack. In this attack, a third party can disrupt the public key communication and then modify the public keys.
- If user private key used for certificate creation higher in the PKI (Public Key Infrastructure) server hierarchy is compromised, or accidentally disclosed, then a "man-in-the-middle attack" is also possible, making any subordinate certificate wholly insecure. This is also the weakness of public key Encryption.

Applications of the Public Key Encryption:

- **Encryption/Decryption:** Confidentiality can be achieved using Public Key Encryption. In this, the plain text is encrypted using receiver public key. This will ensure that no one other than receiver private key can decrypt the cipher text.
- **Digital signature:** Digital signature is for sender's authentication purpose. In this, sender encrypts the plain text using his own private key. This step will make sure the authentication of the sender because receiver can decrypt the cipher text using sender's public key only.
- **Key exchange:** This algorithm can be used in both Key-management and secure transmission of data.

Public and private Cryptography and its Types:

Cryptography is a technique of securing information and communications through use of codes so that only those persons for whom the information is intended can understand it and process it. Thus preventing unauthorized access to information. The prefix "crypt" means "hidden" and suffix "graphy" means "writing". In Cryptography, the techniques which are used to protect information are obtained from mathematical concepts and a set of rule-based calculations known as algorithms to convert messages in ways that make it hard to decode it. These algorithms are used for cryptographic key generation, digital signing, verification to protect data privacy, web browsing on internet and to protect confidential transactions such as credit card and debit card transactions.

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Electronic Governance:

Cybersecurity is a critical part of protecting business and individual data. It's essential to have a governance plan in place that outlines how your organization will respond to cyberattacks. Failure to do so can lead to serious consequences, such as financial losses, data breaches, and even legal ramifications.

What is security governance?

Governance in cybersecurity refers to the overall process and systems that are in place to ensure the security of an organization's digital assets and infrastructure. This includes establishing policies, procedures, and standards for how information is protected, identifying and mitigating threats, ensuring compliance with regulatory requirements, and monitoring and managing risk.

There are a number of different types of governance models that can be deployed in cybersecurity, including centralized, distributed, semi-centralized, and self-organizing. Each has its own advantages and disadvantages, so it's important to choose the model that best suits your organization's needs.

Centralized governance models involve a single point of control and authority over all aspects of cybersecurity. This type of model is typically used by large organizations with complex security structures and lots of resources available to implement robust controls. However, centralized governance models can be difficult to scale up or adapt when threats change or new technologies emerge.

Distributed governance models rely on a network of interconnected nodes to manage security resources and data. This type of model is popular among [small businesses](#) that don't have the resources or need for a centralized system. However, distributed models can be less effective at detecting attacks early enough or tracking malicious actors across multiple sites.



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Types of Cybersecurity Governance

Cybersecurity governance is the process of allocating resources, setting policies and procedures, and implementing actions to maintain situational awareness and protect systems and information from cyber threats. Cybersecurity governance can be divided into five types: operational, technical, management, legal, and policy.

Operational cybersecurity governance is responsible for ensuring that the organization's networks are operational and that employees are following established protocols. Technical cybersecurity governance determines how devices are configured, monitored, and secured. Management cybersecurity governance ensures that the organization has a plan in place to manage cyber risk, assigns responsibilities and manages accountability. Legal cybersecurity governance includes understanding applicable laws and regulations related to cybersecurity, as well as appointing a lawyer to advise on [cybersecurity issues](#). Policy cybersecurity governance establishes guidelines for acceptable behavior in cyberspace. Each type of cybersecurity governance has its own set of goals, objectives, and processes.

One of the most important aspects of cybersecurity governance is establishing an effective chain of communication between various parts of the organization. This allows for closer monitoring of activities and faster identification of problems. Cybersecurity teams should also have access to information about all systems within the organization so that they can quickly identify potential threats.

Principles of Cybersecurity Governance

Governance in cybersecurity is the process of assigning and managing responsibilities

for managing an organization's [cybersecurity posture](#). Governance should be aligned with the organization's risk management framework and should provide a framework for making decisions about cyber security policies and activities.

A good governance framework will include:

- - Cybersecurity risk assessment
- - Identification of critical assets and systems
- - Establishment of baseline [cybersecurity controls](#)
- - Authorization of activities related to critical assets and systems
- - Monitoring and evaluation of compliance with baseline [cybersecurity controls](#)

Implementation of Cybersecurity Governance

Cybersecurity governance is the process and system for governing the cybersecurity of an organization. It encompasses all aspects of organizational security, from risk management to incident response and prevention. Cybersecurity governance should be implemented at every level of an organization, from the board of directors to the individual employee.

There are several key elements of cybersecurity governance, including:



- **Risk assessment:** Identifying and assessing potential cyber threats and vulnerabilities.
- **Organizational design:** Ensuring that organizational structures and capabilities are in place to respond to incidents quickly and effectively.
- **Incident response:** Planning and executing the necessary steps to protect against, detect, and respond to incidents.
- **Prevention:** Implementing best practices and policies to reduce the likelihood of incidents happening in the first place.

What does a good approach to security governance look like?

This is a difficult question to answer, as governance in cybersecurity is a constantly evolving and complex problem. In this blog post, we will discuss some of the key considerations when designing or implementing a governance framework for cyber security.

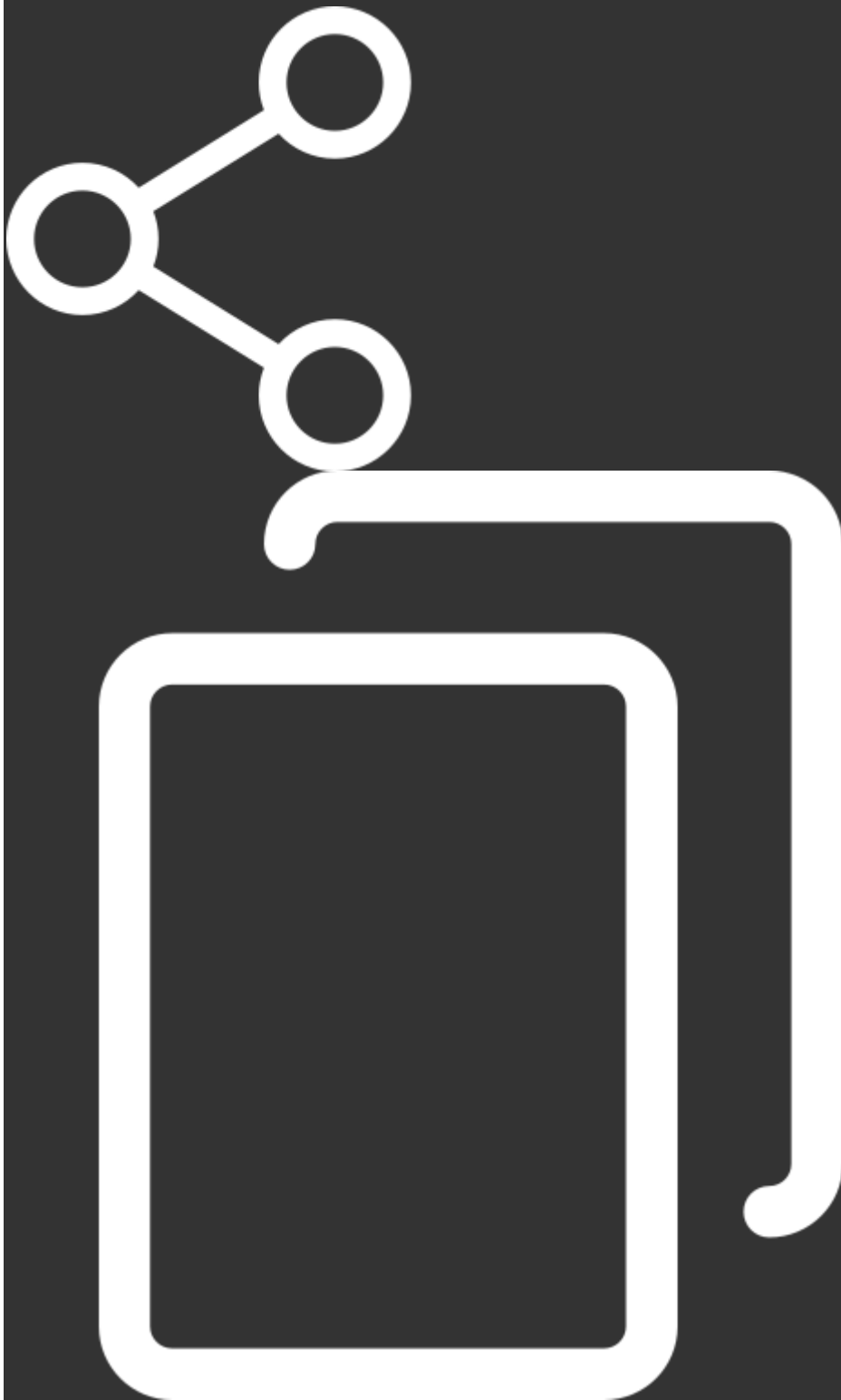
First, it is important to understand the purpose of governance in cybersecurity. Governance can help to ensure that systems are properly configured and operated, that risk assessments are accurate, and that proper decision-making processes are in place.

Second, there are different types of [cybersecurity governance](#) frameworks. Some frameworks focus on overall system management, while others emphasize more specific areas such as information

[incident response](#). It is important to choose a framework that suits the needs of the organization and its employees. [security](#)

Third, it is essential to have an effective communication and collaboration framework in place. A good governance system should allow for sharing of information between stakeholders, as well as cooperation during incidents.

Overall, a good approach to security governance involves thoughtful planning and constant evaluation.



CyberLaws

According to the definition of E-governance provided by the World Bank, it is the approach of governmental agencies to use technologies related to communication and information for the purpose of transforming and strengthening relations with businesses, citizens, and other governmental agencies. The IT Act, 2000, defines one of its prime objectives as electronic governance or e-governance promotion. Let us discuss electronic records and E-governance in detail.

Mention of Governance and Associated Provisions in the IT Act, 2000

To know what an e-record is, it is important to understand the electronic record's meaning. The electronic record meaning is best described in the legal recognition of electronic records, digital signatures, and associated topics, for which the following provisions of the IT Act, 2000 were formulated.

- **Legal Recognition of Electronic Records (Mentioned in Section 4 of the Act)**

For any important point to become a law, it is needed to be written, printed, or typewritten. It can also be considered to be a law if the information is provided in an electronic form. However, the electronic form must be accessible all the time for subsequent referencing.

- **Legal Recognition of Signatures (Mentioned in Section 5 of the Act)**

Most of the documents related to a person are authenticated by his or her signature. If the person can produce a digital form of his signature acceptable by the central government, then the person is legally allowed to validate the documents with the digital signature. This is the summary of the legal recognition of digital signature provision.

- **Application of Digital Signature and Electronic Records in Government and its Agencies (Mentioned in Section 6 of the Act)**

According to this provision, if the law allows a person

- To fill an application, form, or document related to Government authorities or related agencies,
- To issue or grant sanction, licence, approval, or permit in a particular way,
- To pay or receive money in a certain manner then the person can certainly do so in an electronic form if he maintains the government-approved format.

Additionally, the manner and format of creating, issuing, and filing electronic records, and the methods of payment of fees for these may be prescribed.

- **Retention of Electronic Records (Mentioned in Section 7 of the Act)**

The law can also retain the electronic form of any information, document, or record if it needs to do so. Retention of records can take place if the records are accessible and available for subsequent referencing, the format of the information is unchanged, or accurately represent the original information, and adequate information of the destination, origin, and date and time of receipt or dispatch of the record. The law does not hold for automatically generated information related to the dispatch or receipt of the record. However, the provision does not apply to laws that expressly provide for electronic retention of documents, records, and information.

- **Publications of rules and regulations in Electronic Gazette (mentioned in Section 8 of the Act)**

If the law requires to publish any official rule, regulation, notification, by-law and related matters in the Official Gazette, then it can also do so in the Electronic Gazette. The publication date of such rules and regulations will be the same as its first published date in any form of the Gazette.

- **Section 6, 7, and 8 does not Provide the Right to insist Acceptance of an Electronic Form of the Document (Mentioned in Section 9 of the Act)**

The previous sections 6, 7, and 8 do not grant the right to any person to insist on the issuance, acceptance, retention, or creation of any document or monetary transactions directly from the central or the state government, ministry of the department, or associated agencies.

- **Provide Power to the Central Government to Make Rules for Legal Recognition of Digital Signatures (Mentioned in Section 10 of the Act)**

According to the IT Act, 2000, the central government has the power to prescribe:

- Format and manner of affixation of the digital signature.
- Digital signature type.
- Identification procedure for the person who affixes the digital signature.
- Determine the procedure to justify the security, integrity, and confidentiality of electronic records.
- Any other legal procedures for digital signature.

Data Protection

According to Section 43A of the IT Act, 2000, if the body responsible for maintaining the security of personal information and data in a computer resource shows negligence leading to wrongful gain or loss, then the body is liable for paying damages as compensation up to 5 crore rupees. Additionally, the Government of India incorporated the Information Technology Rules, 2011, under section 43A of the IT Act, 2000, which applies the rules of security to all corporate bodies in India.

Legal Recognition of Digital Signature Certifying Authorities:

Section 1: Short Title, Extent, Commencement and Application

- (1) This Act may be called the Information Technology Act, 2000.
- (2) It shall extend to the whole of India and, save as otherwise provided in this Act, it applies also to any offence or contravention thereunder committed outside India by any person.
- (3) It shall come into force on such date as the Central Government may, by notification, appoint and different dates may be appointed for different provisions of this Act and any reference in any such provision to the commencement of this Act shall be construed as a reference to the commencement of that provision.
- (4) Nothing in this Act shall apply to documents or transactions specified in the First Schedule by way of addition or deletion of entries thereto.
- (5) Every notification issued under sub-section (4) shall be laid before each House of Parliament.

Section 2: Definition

- (1) In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires,
 - (a) "Access" with its grammatical variations and cognate expressions means gaining entry into, instructing or communicating with the logical, arithmetical, or memory function resources of a computer, computer system or computer network;
 - (b) "Addressee" means a person who is intended by the originator to receive the electronic record but does not include any intermediary;
 - (c) "Adjudicating Officer" means an adjudicating officer appointed under subsection (1) of section 46;
 - (d) "Affixing Electronic Signature" with its grammatical variations and cognate expressions means adoption of any methodology or procedure by a person for the purpose of authenticating an electronic record by means of Electronic Signature;
 - (e) "Appropriate Government" means as respects any matter:
 - (i) enumerated in List II of the Seventh Schedule to the Constitution;
 - (ii) relating to any State law enacted under List III of the Seventh Schedule to the Constitution, the State Government and in any other case, the Central Government;
 - (f) "Asymmetric Crypto System" means a system of a secure key pair consisting of a private key for creating a digital signature and a public key to verify the digital signature;
 - (g) "Certifying Authority" means a person who has been granted a licence to issue an Electronic Signature Certificate under section 24;
 - (h) "Certification Practice Statement" means a statement issued by a Certifying Authority to specify the practices that the Certifying Authority employs in issuing Electronic Signature Certificates;
 - (ha) "Communication Device" means cell phones, personal digital assistance, or combination of both or any other device used to communicate, send or transmit any text, video, audio, or image.
 - (i) "Computer" means any electronic, magnetic, optical or other high-speed data processing device or system which performs logical, arithmetic, and memory functions by manipulations of electronic, magnetic or optical impulses, and includes all input, output, processing, storage, computer software, or communication facilities which are connected or related to the computer in a computer system or computer network;

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(j) "Computer Network" means the interconnection of one or more computers or computer systems or communication devices through-

(i) the use of satellite, microwave, terrestrial line, wire, wireless or other communication media; and
(ii) terminals or a complex consisting of two or more interconnected computers or communication devices whether or not the interconnection is continuously maintained;

(k) "Computer Resource" means computer, communication device, computer system, computer network, data, computer database or software;

(l) "Computer System" means a device or collection of devices, including input and output support devices and excluding calculators which are not programmable and capable of being used in conjunction with external files, which contain computer programmes, electronic instructions, input data, and output data, that performs logic, arithmetic, data storage and retrieval, communication control and other functions;

(m) "Controller" means the Controller of Certifying Authorities appointed under sub-section (7) of section 17;

(n) "Cyber Appellate Tribunal" means the Cyber Appellate Tribunal established under sub-section (1) of section 48;

(na) "Cybercafe" means any facility from where access to the internet is offered by any person in the ordinary course of business to the members of the public.

(nb) "Cyber Security" means protecting information, equipment, devices, computer, computer resource, communication device and information stored therein from unauthorized access, use, disclosure, disruption, modification or destruction.

(o) "Data" means a representation of information, knowledge, facts, concepts or instructions which are being prepared or have been prepared in a formalised manner, and is intended to be processed, is being processed or has been processed in a computer system or computer network, and maybe in any form (including computer printouts magnetic or optical storage media, punched cards, punched tapes) or stored internally in the memory of the computer;

(p) "Digital Signature" means authentication of any electronic record by a subscriber by means of an electronic method or procedure in accordance with the provisions of section 3;

(q) "Digital Signature Certificate" means a Digital Signature Certificate issued under sub-section (4) of section 35;

(r) "Electronic Form" with reference to information means any information generated, sent, received or stored in media, magnetic, optical, computer memory, microfilm, computer generated microfiche or similar device;

(s) "Electronic Gazette" means official Gazette published in the electronic form;

(t) "Electronic Record" means data, record or data generated, image or sound stored, received or sent in an electronic form or micro film or computer generated micro fiche;

(ta) "Electronic Signature" means authentication of any electronic record by a subscriber by means of the electronic techniques specified in these second schedule and includes digital signature

(tb) "Electronic Signature Certificate" means an Electronic Signature Certificate issued under section 35 and includes Digital Signature Certificate"

(u) "Function", in relation to a computer, includes logic, control, arithmetical process, deletion, storage and retrieval and communication or telecommunication from or within a computer;

(ua) "Indian Computer Emergency Response team" means an agency established under sub-section (1) of section 70B

(v) "Information" includes data, message, text, images, sound, voice, codes, computer programmes, software and databases or micro film or computer generated micro fiche;

(w) "Intermediary" with respect to any particular electronic records, means any person who on behalf of another person receives, stores or transmits that record or provides any service with respect to that record and includes telecom service providers, network service providers, internet service providers, web hosting service providers, search engines, online payment sites, online-auction sites, online market places and cyber cafes;

(x) "KeyPair", in an asymmetric cryptosystem, means a private key and its mathematically related public key, which are so related that the public key can verify a digital signature created by the private key;

(y) "Law" includes any Act of Parliament or of a State Legislature, Ordinances promulgated by the President or a Governor, as the case may be. Regulations made by the President under article 240, Bills enacted as President's Act under sub-clause (a) of clause (1) of article 357 of the Constitution and includes rules, regulations, bye-laws and orders issued or made thereunder;

(z) "Licence" means a licence granted to a Certifying Authority under section 24;

(za) "Originator" means a person who sends, generates, stores or transmits any electronic message or causes any electronic message to be sent, generated, stored or transmitted to any other person but does not include an intermediary;

(zb) "Prescribed" means prescribed by rules made under this Act;

(zc) "Private Key" means the key of a key pair used to create a digital signature;

(zd) "Public Key" means the key of a key pair used to verify a digital signature and listed in the Digital Signature Certificate;

(ze) "Secure System" means computer hardware, software, and procedure that -:

- (a) are reasonably secure from unauthorised access and misuse;
- (b) provide a reasonable level of reliability and correct operation;
- (c) are reasonably suited to performing the intended functions; and
- (d) adhere to generally accepted security procedures;

(zf) "Security Procedure" means the security procedure prescribed under section 16 by the Central Government;

(zg) "Subscriber" means a person in whose name the Electronic Signature Certificate is issued;

(zh) "Verify" in relation to a digital signature, electronic record or public key, with its grammatical variations and cognate expressions means to determine whether

- (a) the initial electronic record was affixed with the digital signature by the use of private key corresponding to the public key of the subscriber;
- (b) the initial electronic record is retained intact or has been altered since such electronic record was so affixed with the digital signature.

(2) Any reference in this Act to any enactment or any provision thereof shall, in relation to an area in which such enactment or such provision is not in force, be construed as a reference to the corresponding law or the relevant provision of the corresponding law, if any, in force in that area.

Section 3: Authentication of Electronic Records

(1) Subject to the provisions of this section any subscriber may authenticate an electronic record by affixing his Digital Signature.

(2) The authentication of the electronic record shall be effected by the use of asymmetric crypto system and hash function which envelop and transform the initial electronic record into another electronic record.

Explanation

For the purposes of this sub-section, "Hash function" means an algorithm mapping or translation of one sequence of bits into another, generally smaller, set known as "Hash Result" such that an electronic record yields the same hash result every time the algorithm is executed with the same electronic record as its input making it computationally infeasible

- (a) to derive or reconstruct the original electronic record from the hash result produced by the algorithm;
- (b) that two electronic records can produce the same hash result using the algorithm.

(3) Any person by the use of a public key of the subscriber can verify the electronic record.

(4) The private key and the public key are unique to the subscriber and constitute a functioning key pair.

Section 3A: Electronic Signature

(1) Notwithstanding anything contained in section 3, but subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), a subscriber may authenticate any electronic record by such electronic signature or electronic authentication technique which-

(a) is considered reliable; and

(b) may be specified in the Second Schedule

(2) For the purposes of this section any electronic signature or electronic authentication techniques shall be considered reliable if-

- (a) the signature creation data or the authentication data are, within the context in which they are used, linked to the signatory or, as the case may be, the authenticator and of no other person;
- (b) the signature creation data or the authentication data were, at the time of signing, under the control of the signatory or, as the case may be, the authenticator and of no other person;
- (c) any alteration to the electronic signature made after affixing such signature is detectable
- (d) any alteration to the information made after its authentication by electronic signature is detectable; and
- (e) it fulfills such other conditions which may be prescribed.

(3) The Central Government may prescribe the procedure for the purpose of ascertaining whether

electronic signature is that of the person by whom it is purported to have been affixed or authenticated.

(4) The Central Government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, add to or omit any electronic signature or electronic authentication technique and the procedure for affixing such signature from the second schedule;

Provided that no electronic signature or authentication techniques shall be specified in the Second Schedule unless such signature or technique is reliable.

(5) Every notification issued under sub-section (4) shall be laid before each House of Parliament.

Chapter 3: Electronic Governance

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Section 4: [Legal Recognition of Electronic Records](#)

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Section 4: Legal Recognition of Electronic Records

Where any law provides that information or any other matter shall be in writing or in the type written or printed form, then, notwithstanding anything contained in such law, such requirement shall be deemed to have been satisfied if such information or matter is

- (a) rendered or made available in an electronic form; and
- (b) accessible so as to be usable for a subsequent reference

Section 5: Legal recognition of Electronic Signature

Where any law provides that information or any other matter shall be authenticated by affixing the signature or any documents should be signed or bear the signature of any person then, notwithstanding anything contained in such law, such requirements shall be deemed to have been satisfied, if such information or matter is authenticated by means of electronic signature affixed in such manner as may be prescribed by the Central Government.

Explanation

For the purposes of this section, "Signed", with its grammatical variations and cognate expressions, shall, with reference to a person, mean affixing of his hand written signature or any mark on any document and the expression "Signature" shall be construed accordingly.

Section 6: Use of Electronic Records and Electronic Signature in Government and its agencies

(1) Where any law provides for

- (a) the filing of any form, application or any other document with any office, authority, body or agency owned or controlled by the appropriate Government in a particular manner;
- (b) the issue or grant of any license, permit, sanction or approval by whatever name called in a particular manner;
- (c) the receipt or payment of money in a particular manner, then, notwithstanding anything contained in any other law for the time being in force, such requirement shall be deemed to have been satisfied if such filing, issue, grant, receipt or payment, as the case may be, is effected by means of such electronic form as may be prescribed by the appropriate Government.

(2) The appropriate Government may, for the purposes of sub-section (1), by rules, prescribe—

- (a) the manner and format in which such electronic records shall be filed, created or issued;
- (b) the manner or method of payment of any fee or charges for filing, creation or issue any electronic record under clause (a).

Section 6A: Delivery of Services by Service Provider

(1) The appropriate Government may, for the purposes of this Chapter and for efficient delivery of services to the public through electronic means authorize, by order, any service provider to set up, maintain and upgrade the computerized facilities and perform such other services as it may specify, by notification in the Official Gazette.

Explanation: For the purposes of this section, service providers so authorized includes any individual, private agency, private company, partnership firm, sole proprietor or for any such other body or agency which has

being granted permission by the appropriate Government to offer services through electronic means in accordance with the policy governing such service sector.

(2) The appropriate Government may also authorize any service provider authorized under sub-section (1) to collect, retain and appropriate service charges, as may be prescribed by the appropriate Government for the purpose of providing such services, from the person availing such service.

(3) Subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), the appropriate Government may authorize the service providers to collect, retain and appropriate service charges under this section notwithstanding the fact that there is no express provision under the Act, rule, regulation or notification under which the service is provided to collect, retain and appropriate e-service charges by the service providers.

(4) The appropriate Government shall, by notification in the Official Gazette, specify the scale of service charges which may be charged and collected by the service providers under this section:

Provided that the appropriate Government may specify different scale of service charges for different types of services.

Section 7: Retention of Electronic Records

(1) Where any law provides that documents, records or information shall be retained for any specific period, then, that requirement shall be deemed to have been satisfied if such documents, records or information are retained in the electronic form, –

(a) the information contained therein remains accessible so as to be usable for a subsequent reference;

(b) the electronic record is retained in the format in which it was originally generated, sent or received or in a format which can be demonstrated to represent accurately the information originally generated, sent or received;

(c) the details which will facilitate the identification of the origin, destination, date and time of dispatch or receipt of such electronic record are available in the electronic record:

Provided that

this clause does not apply to any information which is automatically generated solely for the purpose of enabling an electronic record to be dispatched or received.

(2) Nothing in this section shall apply to any law that expressly provides for the retention of documents, records or information in the form of electronic records. Publication of rules, regulation, etc. in Electronic Gazette.

Section 7A: Audit of Documents set in Electronic form

Where in any law for the time being in force, there is a provision for audit of documents, records or information, that provision shall also be applicable for audit of documents, records or information processed and maintained in electronic form.

Section 8: Publication of rules, regulation, etc, in Electronic Gazette

Where any law provides that any rule, regulation, order, bye-law, notification or any other matter shall be published in the Official Gazette, then, such requirement shall be deemed to have been satisfied if such rule, regulation, order, bye-law, notification or any other matter is published in the Official Gazette or Electronic Gazette:

Provided that

where any rule, regulation, order, bye-law, notification or any other matters published in the Official Gazette or Electronic Gazette, the date of publication shall be deemed to be the date of the Gazette which was first published in any form.

Section 9: Sections 6, 7 and 8 Not to Confer Right to insist documents should be accepted in electronic form

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Nothing contained in sections 6, 7 and 8 shall confer a right upon any person to insist that any Ministry or Department of the Central Government or the State Government or any authority or body established by or under any law or controlled or funded by the Central or State Government should accept, issue, create, retain and preserve any document in the form of electronic records or effect any monetary transaction in the electronic form.

Section 10: Power to Make Rules by Central Government in respect of Electronic Signature

The Central Government may, for the purposes of this Act, by rules, prescribe

- (a) the type of Electronic Signature;
- (b) the manner and format in which the Electronic Signature shall be affixed;
- (c) the manner or procedure which facilitates identification of the person affixing the Electronic Signature;
- (d) control processes and procedures to ensure adequate integrity, security and confidentiality of electronic records or payments; and
- (e) any other matter which is necessary to give legal effect to Electronic Signature.

Section 10A: Validity of contracts formed through electronic means

Where in a contract formation, the communication of proposals, the acceptance of proposals, the revocation of proposals and acceptances, as the case may be, are expressed in electronic form or by means of an electronic record, such contract shall not be deemed to be unenforceable solely on the ground that such electronic form or means was used for that purpose.

Cyber Crimes Offences & Penalties in India

India Information Technology Act has been protecting citizens from white-collar crimes to attacks by terrorist

The laws for cyber crimes safeguard citizens from dispensing critical information to a stranger online. The rise of the 21st century marked the evolution of cyber law in India with the **Information Technology Act, 2000**.

Most of the cyber crimes –

Hacking, Data theft, Illegal tampering with source codes are listed under the Information Technology Act (IT Act), which was amended in 2008. The Act explains the types of cyber-crimes as well as the associated punishment. The complete table is provided to create cyber awareness among the people of India.

IT Act 2000 – Penalties, Offences With Case Studies

[June 24, 2014 Lionel Faleiro Case Studies, Compliance, Laws & Regulations 6](#)

1. Objectives of IT Legislation in India

The Government of India enacted its Information Technology Act 2000 with the objectives stating officially as:

“to provide legal recognition for transactions carried out by means of electronic data interchange and other means of electronic communication, commonly referred to as “electronic commerce”, which involve the use of alternatives to paper-based methods of communication and storage of information, to facilitate electronic filing of documents with the Government agencies and further to amend the Indian Penal Code, the Indian Evidence Act, 1872, the Bankers’ Books Evidence Act, 1891 and the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934 and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto.”

What does IT Act 2000 legislation deals with?
The Act essentially deals with the following issues:

- Legal Recognition of Electronic Documents
- Legal Recognition of Digital Signatures
- Offences and Contraventions
- Justice Dispensation Systems for cyber crimes.

Why did the need for IT Amendment Act 2008 (ITAA) arise? The IT Act 2000, being the first legislation on technology, computers, e-commerce and e-communication, the was the subject of extensive debates, elaborate reviews with one arm of the industry criticizing some sections of the Act to be draconian and other stating it is too diluted and lenient. There were some obvious omissions too resulting in the investigators relying more and more on the time-tested (one and half century-old) Indian Penal Code even in technology based cases with the IT Act as being preferred in the process with the reliance more on IPC rather than on the ITA.

Thus the need for an amendment – a detailed one – was felt for the I.T. Act. Major industry bodies were consulted and advisory groups were formed to point out the perceived lacunae in the I.T. Act and comparing it with similar legislations in other nations and to suggest recommendations. Such recommendations were analyzed and subsequently taken up as a comprehensive Amendment Act and after considerable administrative procedures, the consolidated amendment called the **Information Technology Amendment Act 2008** was placed in the Parliament and passed at the end of 2008 (just after Mumbai terrorist attack of 26 November 2008 had taken place). The IT Amendment Act 2008 got the President's assent on 5 Feb 2009 and was made effective from 27 October 2009.

Notable features of the ITAA 2008 are:

- Focusing on data privacy
- Focusing on Information Security
- Defining cyber café
- Making digital signature technology neutral
- Defining reasonable security practices to be followed by corporate
- Redefining the role of intermediaries
- Recognizing the role of Indian Computer Emergency Response Team
- Inclusion of some additional cyber crimes like child pornography and cyber terrorism
- Authorizing an Inspector to investigate cyber offenses (as against the DSP earlier)

2. *Structure of IT Act*

▪ **How is the IT Act structured?** The Act totally has 13 chapters and 90 sections. Sections 91 to 94 deal with the amendments to the four Acts namely Indian Penal Code 1860, The Indian Evidence Act 1872, The Bankers' Books Evidence Act 1891 and the Reserve Bank of India Act 1934. The Act has chapters that deal with authentication of electronic records, electronic signatures etc. Elaborate procedures for certifying authorities and electronic signatures have been spelt out. The civil offence of data theft and the process of adjudication and appellate procedures have been described. Then the Act goes on to define and describe some of the well-known cyber crimes and lays down the punishments therefore. Then the concept of due diligence, role of intermediaries and some miscellaneous provisions have been described.

▪ **What is the applicability of IT Act?** The Act extends to the whole of India and except as otherwise provided, it also applies to any offence or contravention thereunder committed outside India by any person. Rules and procedures mentioned in the Act have also been laid down in a phased manner, defined as recently as April 2011.

For the sake of simplicity, here we will be only discussing the various penalty and offences defined as per provisions of ITA 2000 and ITAA 2008. Please note that wherever the terms IT Act 2000 or 2008 are used, they refer to same act because the IT Act now includes amendments as per IT 2008 Amendment Act.

Specific exclusion(s) to the Act where it is not applicable are:

- Negotiable instrument (other than a cheque) as defined in section 13 of the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881;
- A power-of-attorney as defined in section 1A of the Powers-of-Attorney Act, 1882;
- A trust as defined in section 3 of the Indian Trusts Act, 1882
- A will as defined in clause (h) of section 2 of the Indian Succession Act, 1925 including any other testamentary disposition

3. *What is a cyber crime?*

Cyber Crime is not defined officially in IT Act or in any other legislation. In fact, it cannot be too. Offence or crime has been dealt with by laborately listing various acts and the punishments for each, under the Indian Penal Code, 1860 and related legislations. Hence, the concept of cyber crime is just a "combination of crime and computer".

Cybercrime in a narrow sense (computer crime): Any illegal behavior directed by means of electronic operations that targets the security of computer systems and the data processed by them.

Cybercrime in a broader sense (computer-related crime): Any illegal behavior committed by means of, or in relation to, a computer system or network, including such crimes as illegal possession and offering or distributing information by means of a computer system or network.

- Any contract for the sale or conveyance of immovable property or any interest in such property;
- Any such class of documents or transactions as may be notified by the Central Government

4. *Cases Studies as per selected IT Act Sections*

Here are the case studies for selected IT Act sections.

For the sake of simplicity and maintaining clarity, details on the IT Act sections have been omitted. Kindly refer the Appendix at the last section for the detailed account of all the penalties and offences mentioned in IT Act.

- **Section 43 - Penalty and Compensation for damage to computer, computer system, etc**
Related Case: Mphasis BPO Fraud: 2005
In December 2004, four call centre employees, working at an outsourcing facility operated by Mphasis in India, obtained PIN codes from four customers of Mphasis' client, Citi Group. These employees were not authorized to obtain the PINs. In association with others, the call centre employees opened new accounts at Indian banks using false identities. Within two months, they used the PINs and account information gleaned during their employment at Mphasis to transfer money from the bank accounts of Citi Group customers to the new accounts at Indian banks. By April 2005, the Indian police had tipped off to the scam by a U.S. bank, and quickly identified the individuals involved in the scam. Arrests were made when those individuals attempted to withdraw cash from the falsified accounts, \$426,000 was stolen; the amount recovered was \$230,000. **Verdict:** Court held that Section 43(a) was applicable here due to the nature of unauthorized access involved to commit transactions.

- **Section 65 - Tampering with Computer Source Documents**
Related Case: Syed Asifuddin and Ors. Vs. The State of Andhra Pradesh
In this case, Tata Indicom employees were arrested for manipulation of the electronic 32-bit number (ESN) programmed into cell phones that were exclusively franchised to Reliance Infocomm. **Verdict:** Court held that tampering with source code invokes Section 65 of the Information Technology Act.

- **Section 66 - Computer Related offenses**
Related Case: Kumar v/s Whiteley
In this case, the accused gained unauthorized access to the Joint Academic Network (JANET) and deleted, added files and changed the passwords to deny access to the authorized users. Investigations had revealed that Kumar was logging onto the BSNL broadband Internet connection as if he was the authorized genuine user and 'made alteration in the computer database pertaining to broadband Internet user accounts' of the subscribers. The CBI had registered a cybercrime case against Kumar and carried out investigations on the basis of a complaint by the Press Information Bureau, Chennai, which detected the unauthorized use of broadband Internet. The complaint also stated that the subscribers had incurred a loss of Rs 38,248 due to Kumar's wrongful act. He used to 'hack' sites from Bangalore, Chennai and other cities too, they said.

Verdict: The Additional Chief Metropolitan Magistrate, Egmore, Chennai, sentenced N. Arun Kumar, the techie from Bangalore to undergo a rigorous imprisonment for one year with a fine of Rs 5,000 under Section 42 of IPC (cheating) and Section 66 of IT Act (Computer related Offense).

- **Section 66A - Punishment for sending offensive messages through communication service**

- **Relevant Case #1: Fake profile of President posted by imposter**
On September 9, 2010, the imposter made a fake profile in the name of the Hon'ble President Pratibha Devi Patil. A complaint was made from Additional Controller, President Household, President Secretariat regarding the four fake profiles created in the name of Hon'ble President on social networking website, Facebook. The said complaint stated that president house has nothing to do with the Facebook and the fake profile is misleading the general public. The First Information Report Under Sections 469 IPC and 66A Information Technology Act, 2000 was registered based on the said complaint at the police station, Economic Offences Wing, the elite wing of Delhi Police which specializes in investigating economic crimes including cyber offences.

- **Relevant Case #2: Bomb Hoax mail**
In 2009, a 15-year-old Bangalore teenager was arrested by the cybercrime investigation cell (CCIC) of the city crime branch for allegedly sending a hoax e-mail to a private news channel. In the e-mail, he claimed to have planted five bombs in Mumbai, challenging the police to find them before it was too late. At around 1 p.m. on May 25, the news channel received an e-mail that read: "I have planted five bombs in Mumbai; you have two hours to find it." The police, who were alerted immediately, traced the Internet Protocol (IP) address to Vijay Nagar in Bangalore. The Internet service provider for the account was BSNL, said officials.

- **Section 66C - Punishment for identity theft**

Relevant Cases:

- The CEO of an identity theft protection company, Lifelock, Todd Davis' social security number was exposed by Matt Lauer on NBC's Today Show. Davis' identity was used to obtain a \$500 cash advance loan.
- Li Ming, a graduate student at West Chester University of Pennsylvania faked his own death, complete with a forged obituary in his local paper. Nine months later, Li attempted to obtain a new driver's license with the intention of applying for new credit cards eventually.

- **Section 66D - Punishment for cheating by impersonation by using computer resource**
Relevant Case: Sandeep Vaghese v/s

State of

Kerala
A complaint filed by the representative of a Company, which was engaged in the business of trading and distribution of petrochemicals in India and overseas, a crime was registered against nine persons, alleging offenses under Sections 65, 66, 66A, C and D of the Information Technology Act along with Sections 419 and 420 of the Indian Penal Code. The company has a web-site in the name and industry

'www.jaypolychem.com'
another website 'www.jayplychem.org' was set up in the internet by first accused Samdeep

but,



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Varghese@Sam, (who was dismissed from the company) in conspiracy with other accused, including Preeti and Charanjeet Singh, who are the sister and brother-in-law of 'Sam'

Defamatory and malicious matters about the company and its directors were made available in that website. The accused sister and brother-in-law were based in Cochin and they had been acting in collusion with known and unknown persons, who have collectively cheated the company and committed acts of forgery, impersonation etc. Two of the accused, Amardeep Singh and Rahul had visited Delhi and Cochin. The first accused and others sent e-mails from fake e-mail accounts of many of the customers, suppliers, Bank etc. to malign the name and image of the Company and its Directors. The defamation campaign run by all the said persons named above has caused immense damage to the name and reputation of the Company. The Company suffered losses of several crores of Rupees from producers, suppliers and customers and were unable to do business.

▪ **Section 66E - Punishment for violation of privacy**

Relevant Cases:

- **Jawaharlal Nehru University MMS scandal** In a severe shock to the prestigious and renowned institute – Jawaharlal Nehru University, a pornographic MMS clip was apparently made in the campus and transmitted outside the university. Some media reports claimed that the two accused students initially tried to extort money from the girl in the video but when they failed the culprits put the video out on mobile phones, on the internet and even sold it as a CD in the blue film market.
- **Nagpur Congress leader's son MMS scandal** On January 05, 2012 Nagpur Police arrested two engineering students, one of them a son of a Congress leader, for harassing a 16-year-old girl by circulating an MMS clip of their sexual acts. According to the Nagpur (rural) police, the girl was in a relationship with Mithilesh Gajbhiye, 19, son of Yashodha Dhanraj Gajbhiye, a Zila Parishad member and an influential Congress leader of the Saoner region in Nagpur district.

▪ **Section-66F Cyber**

Terrorism Relevant Case: The Mumbai police have registered a case of 'cyber terrorism'—the first in the state since an amendment to the Information Technology Act—where a threat email was sent to the BSE and NSE on Monday. The MRA Marg police and the Cyber Crime Investigation Cell are jointly probing the case. The suspect has been detained in this case. The police said an email challenging these security agencies to prevent a terror attack was sent by one Shahab Md with an ID sh.itaib125@yahoo.in to BSE's administrative email ID corp.relations@bseindia.com at around 10.44 am on Monday. The IP address of the sender has been traced to Patna in Bihar. The ISP is Sify. The email ID was created just four minutes before the email was sent. "The sender had, while creating the new ID, given two mobile numbers in the personal details column. Both the numbers belong to a photo frame-maker in Patna," said an officer. **Status:** The MRA Marg police have registered forgery for purpose of cheating, criminal intimidation cases under the IPC and a cyber-terrorism case under the IT Act.

▪ **Section 67 - Punishment for publishing or transmitting obscene material in electronic form**

Relevant Case: This case is about posting obscene, defamatory and annoying messages about a divorcee woman in the Yahoo message group. E-mails were forwarded to the victim for information by the accused through a false e-mail account opened by him in the name of the victim. These postings resulted in annoying phone calls to the lady. Based on the lady's complaint, the police nabbed the accused. Investigation revealed that he was a known family friend of the victim and was interested in marrying her. She was married to another person, but that marriage ended in divorce and the accused started contacting her once again. On her reluctance to marry him he started harassing her through internet.

Verdict: The accused was found guilty of offences under section 469, 509 IPC and 67 of IT Act 2000. He is convicted and sentenced for the offence as follows:

- As per 469 of IPC he has to undergo rigorous imprisonment for 2 years and to pay a fine of Rs. 500/-
- As per 509 of IPC he is to undergo 1 year simple imprisonment and to pay Rs 500/-
- As per Section 67 of IT Act 2000, he has to undergo for 2 years and to pay a fine of Rs. 4000/-

All sentences were to run concurrently. The accused paid fine amount and he was lodged at Central Prison, Chennai. This is considered the first case convicted under section 67 of Information Technology Act 2000 in India.

▪ **Section 67B - Punishment for publishing or transmitting of material depicting children in sexually explicit act, etc. in electronic form**

Relevant Case: *Janhit Manch & Ors. v. The Union of India* 10.03.2010 Public Interest Litigation: The petition sought a blanket ban on pornographic websites. The NGO had argued that websites displaying sexually explicit content had an adverse influence, leading youth on a delinquent path.

▪ **Section 69 - Powers to issue directions for interception or monitoring or decryption of information through any computer**

resourceRelevant Case: In August 2007, Lakshmana Kailash K., a techie from Bangalore was arrested on the suspicion of having posted insulting images of Chhatrapati Shivaji, a major historical figure in the state of Maharashtra, on the social-networking site Orkut. The police identified him based on IP address details obtained from Google and Airtel -Lakshmana's



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ISP. HewasbroughttoPuneanddetainedfor50daysbeforeitwasdiscoveredthattheIP address provided by Airtel was erroneous. The mistake was evidently due to the fact that while requesting information from Airtel, the police had not properly specified whether the suspect had posted the content at 1:15 p.m.
Verdict: Taking cognizance of his plight from newspaper accounts, the State Human Rights Commission subsequently ordered the company to pay Rs 2 lakh to Lakshmana as damages. The incident highlights how minor privacy violations by ISPs and intermediaries could have impacts that gravely undermine other basic human rights.

5. Common Cyber-crimes scenarios and Applicability of Legal Sections

Let us look into some common cyber-crimes scenarios which can attract prosecution as per the penalties and offences prescribed in IT Act 2000 (amended via 2008) Act.

- **Harassment via fake public profile on social networking site** A fake profile of a person is created on a social networking site with the correct address, residential information or contact details but he/she is labelled as 'prostitute' or a person of 'loose character'. This leads to harassment of the victim. *Provisions Applicable:- Sections 66A, 67 of IT Act and Section 509 of the Indian Penal Code.*
- **Online Hate Community** Online hate community is created inciting a religious group to act or pass objectionable remarks against a country, national figures etc. *Provisions Applicable: Section 66A of IT Act and 153A & 153B of the Indian Penal Code.*
- **Email Account Hacking** If victim's email account is hacked and obscene emails are sent to people in victim's address book. *Provisions Applicable:- Sections 43, 66, 66A, 66C, 67, 67A and 67B of IT Act.*
- **Credit Card Fraud** Unsuspecting victims would use infected computer to make online transactions. *Provisions Applicable:- Sections 43, 66, 66C, 66D of IT Act and section 420 of the IPC.*
- **Web Defacement** The homepage of a website is replaced with a pornographic or defamatory page. Government sites generally face the wrath of hackers on symbolic days. *Provisions Applicable:- Sections 43 and 66 of IT Act and Sections 66F, 67 and 70 of IT Act also apply in some cases.*
- **Introducing Viruses, Worms, Backdoors, Rootkits, Trojans, Bugs** All of the above are some sort of malicious programs which are used to destroy or gain access to some electronic information. *Provisions Applicable:- Sections 43, 66, 66A of IT Act and Section 426 of Indian Penal Code.*
- **Cyber Terrorism** Many terrorists are using virtual (GDrive, FTP sites) and physical storage media (USB's, hard drives) for hiding information and records of their illicit business. *Provisions Applicable: Conventional terrorism laws may apply along with Section 69 of IT Act.*
- **Online sale of illegal Articles** Where sale of narcotics, drugs, weapons and wildlife is facilitated by the Internet. *Provisions Applicable:- Generally conventional laws apply in these cases.*
- **Cyber Pornography** Among the largest businesses on Internet. Pornography may not be illegal in many countries, but child pornography is. *Provisions Applicable:- Sections 67, 67A and 67B of the IT Act.*
- **Phishing and Email Scams** Phishing involves fraudulently acquiring sensitive information through masquerading as a trusted identity. (E.g. Passwords, credit card information) *Provisions Applicable:- Section 66, 66A and 66D of IT Act and Section 420 of IPC*
- **Theft of Confidential Information** Many business organizations store their confidential information in computer systems. This information is targeted by rivals, criminals and disgruntled employees. *Provisions Applicable:- Sections 43, 66, 66B of IT Act and Section 426 of Indian Penal Code.*
- **Source Code Theft** A source code generally is the most coveted and important "crown jewel" asset of a company. *Provisions applicable:- Sections 43, 66, 66B of IT Act and Section 63 of Copyright Act.*
- **Tax Evasion and Money Laundering** Money launderers and people do illegal business activities hide their information in virtual as well as physical activities. *Provisions Applicable: Income Tax Act and Prevention of Money Laundering Act. IT Act may apply case-wise.*
- **Online Share Trading Fraud** It has become mandatory for investors to have their demat accounts linked with their online banking accounts which are generally accessed unauthorized, thereby leading to share trading frauds. *Provisions Applicable: Sections 43, 66, 66C, 66D of IT Act and Section 420 of IPC*

6. Appendix

I. Penalties, Compensation and Adjudication sections

- **Section 43-
Penalty and Compensation for damage to computer,
computer system or computer network** if any person without permission of the owner or any other person who is in-charge of a computer, computer system or computer network –



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or computer network or computer resource

- Downloads, copies or extracts any data, computer data, computer database or information from such computer, computer system or computer network including information or data held or stored in any removable storage medium;
- Introduces or causes to be introduced any computer contaminant or computer virus into any computer, computer system or computer network-
- Damages or causes to be damaged any computer, computer system or computer network, data, computer database, or any other programmes residing in such computer, computer system or computer network-
- Disrupts or causes disruption of any computer, computer system, or computer network;
- Denies or causes the denial of access to any person authorised to access any computer, computer system or computer network by any means
- Charges the services available of by a person to the account of another person by tampering with or manipulating any computer of a computer, computer system or computer network-
- Provides any assistance to any person to facilitate access to a computer, computer system or computer network in contravention of the provisions of this Act, rules or regulations made there under,
- Charges the services available of by a person to the account of another person by tampering with or manipulating any computer, computer system, or computer network,
- Destroys, deletes or alters any information residing in a computer resource or diminishes its value or utility or affects it injuriously by any means,
- Steals, conceals, destroys or alters or causes any person to steal, conceal, destroy or alter any computer source code used for a computer resource with an intention to cause damage,

he shall be liable to pay damages by way of compensation to the person so affected.

- **Section 43A- Compensation for failure to protect data** Where a body corporate, possessing, dealing or handling any sensitive personal data or information in a computer resource which it owns, controls or operates, is negligent in implementing and maintaining reasonable security practices and procedures and thereby causes wrongful loss or wrongful gain to any person, such body corporate shall be liable to pay damages by way of compensation, not exceeding five crore rupees, to the person so affected.
- **Section 44 - Penalty for failure to furnish information or return, etc.** If any person who is

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required under this Act or any rules or regulations made there under to –

- Furnish any document, return or report to the Controller or the Certifying Authority, fails to furnish the same, he shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding one lakh and fifty thousand rupees for each such failure;
- File any return or furnish any information, books or other documents within the time specified therefore in the regulations, fails to file return or furnish the same within the time specified therefore in the regulations, he shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding five thousand rupees for every day during which such failure continues;
- Maintain books of account or records, fails to maintain the same, he shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding ten thousand rupees for every day during which the failure continues.

▪ **Section 45 – Residuary Penalty** Whoever contravenes any rules or regulations made under this Act, for the contravention of which no penalty has been separately provided, shall be liable to pay a compensation not exceeding twenty-five thousand rupees to the person affected by such contravention or a penalty not exceeding twenty-five thousand rupees.

▪ **Section 47 – Factors to be taken into account by the adjudicating officer** Section 47 lays down that while adjudging the quantum of compensation under this Act, an adjudicating officer shall have due regard to the following factors, namely :-

- The amount of gain of unfair advantage, wherever quantifiable, made as a result of the default;
- The amount of loss caused to the person as a result of the default,
- The repetitive nature of the default.

II. Offences sections

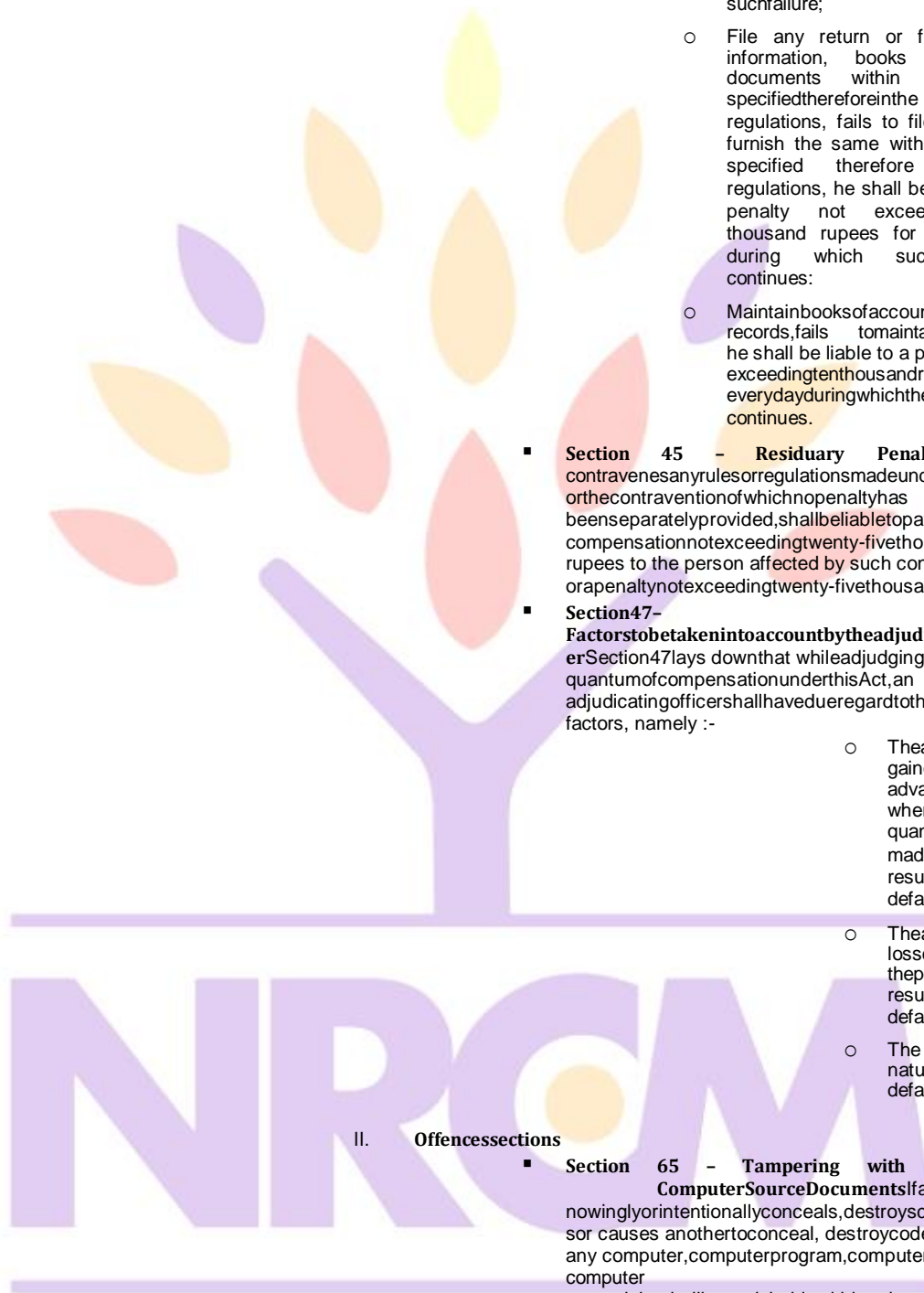
▪ **Section 65 – Tampering with Computer Source Documents** If any person knowingly or intentionally conceals, destroys or alters or causes another to conceal, destroy or alter any computer, computer program, computer system, or computer

network, he shall be punishable with imprisonment up to three years, or with fine up to two lakh rupees, or with both.

▪ **Section – 66 Computer Related Offences** If any person, dishonestly, or fraudulently, does any act referred to in section 43, he shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years or with fine which may extend to five lakh rupees or with both.

▪ **Section 66A – Punishment for sending offensive messages through communication service** Any person who sends, by means of a computer resource or a communication device,

- Any information that is grossly offensive or has menacing character;



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- Any information which he knows to be false, but for the purpose of causing annoyance, danger, inconvenience, obstruction, insult, injury, criminal intimidation, enmity, hatred, or ill will, persistently makes by making use of such computer resource or a communication device,
- Any electronic mail or electronic mail message for the purpose of causing annoyance or inconvenience or to deceive or to mislead the addressee or recipient about the origin of such messages

shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to three years and with fine.

▪ **Section 66B- Punishment for dishonestly receiving stolen computer resource or communication device.**

Whoever dishonestly receives or retains any stolen computer resource or communication device knowing or having reason to believe the same to be stolen computer resource or communication device, shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to three years or with fine which may extend to rupees one lakh or with both.

▪ **Section 66C- Punishment for identity theft.**

Whoever, fraudulently or dishonestly makes use of the electronic signature, password or any other unique identification feature of any other person, shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to three years and shall also be liable to fine which may extend to rupees one lakh.

▪ **Section 66D - Punishment for cheating by personation by using computer resource.**

Whoever, by means of any communication device or computer resource cheats by personating; shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to three years and shall also be liable to fine which may extend to one lakh rupees.

▪ **Section 66E- Punishment for violation of privacy.**

Whoever, intentionally or knowingly captures, publishes or transmits the image of a private area of any person without his or her consent, under circumstances violating the privacy of that person, Explanation- For the purposes of this section:

- "transmit" means to electronically send a visual image with the intent that it be viewed by a person or persons;
- "capture", with respect to an image, means to videotape, photograph, film or record by any means;
- "private area" means the naked or undergarment clad genitals, pubic area, buttocks or female breast;
- "publishes" means



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the printed or electronic form and making it available for public;

- “under circumstances violating privacy” means circumstances in which a person can have a reasonable expectation that—

i. he or she could discover information in private, without being concerned that a manager of his



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ii. s p r i v a t e a r e a w a s b e i n g c a p t u r e d : o r a n y p a r t o f h i s o r h e r p r i v a t e a r e a w o u l d n o t b e v i s i b l e t o h e



7. **Section-66F Cyber Terrorism**

I. Whoever,-

- with intent to threaten the unity, integrity, security or sovereignty of India or to strike terror in the people or any section of the people by –
 - denying or causing the denial of access to any person authorized to access computer resource; or
 - attempting to penetrate or access a computer resource without authorization or exceeding authorized access; or

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- introducing or causing to introduce any Computer Contaminant and by means of such conduct causes or is likely to cause death or injury to persons or damage to or destruction of property or disrupts or knowing that it is likely to cause damage or disruption of supplies or services essential to the life of the community or adversely affect the critical information infrastructure specified under section 70, or

- knowingly or intentionally penetrates or accesses a computer resource without authorization or exceeding authorized access, and by means of such conduct obtains access to information, data or computer data at a base that is restricted for reasons of the security of the State or foreign relations; or any restricted information, data or computer database, with reason to believe that such information, data or computer databases so obtained may be used to cause or likely to cause injury to the interests of the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the State, friendly relations with foreign States, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an offence, or to the advantage of any foreign nation, group of individuals or otherwise, commits the offence of cyber terrorism.

II. Whoever commits or conspires to commit cyber terrorism shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to imprisonment for life.

8. **Section 67-**

Punishment for publishing or transmitting obscene material in electronic form Whoever publishes or transmits or causes to be published in the electronic form, any material which is lascivious or appeals to the prurient interest or if its effect is such as to tend to deprave and corrupt persons who are likely, having regard to all relevant circumstances, to read, see or hear the matter contained or embodied in it, shall be punished on first conviction with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to two years and with fine which may extend to five lakh rupees and in the event of a second or subsequent conviction with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to five years and also with fine which may extend to ten lakh rupees.

9. **Section 67A-**

Punishment for publishing or transmitting of material containing sexually explicit act, etc. in electronic form Whoever publishes or transmits or causes to be published or transmitted in the electronic form any material which contains sexually explicit or conduct shall be punished on first conviction with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to five years and with fine which may extend to ten lakh rupees and in the event of second or subsequent conviction with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to seven years and also with fine which may extend to ten lakh rupees.

10. **Section 67B. Punishment for publishing or transmitting of material depicting children in sexually explicit act, etc. in electronic form** Whoever:-

- I. publishes or transmits or causes to be published or transmitted material in any electronic form which depicts children engaged in sexually explicit act or conduct or
- II. creates text or digital images, collects, seeks, browses, downloads, advertises, promotes, exchanges or distributes material in any electronic form depicting children in obscene or indecent or sexually explicit manner or
- III. cultivates, entices or induces children to online relationship with one or more children for and on sexually explicit act or in a manner that may offend a reasonable adult on the computer resource or
- IV. facilitates abusing children online or
- V. records in any electronic form own abuse or that of others pertaining to sexually explicit act with children,

shall be punished on first conviction with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to five years and with a fine which may extend to ten lakh rupees and in the event of second or subsequent conviction with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to seven years and also with fine which may extend to ten lakh rupees: Provided that the provisions of section 67, section 67A and this section does not extend to any book, pamphlet, paper, writing, drawing, painting, representation or figure in electronic form

11. **Section 69-Power to issue directions for interception or monitoring or decryption of any information through any computer resource.-**

- I. Where the central Government or a State Government or any of its officer specially authorized by the Central Government or the State Government, as the case may be, in this behalf may, if satisfied that it is necessary or expedient to do in the interest of the sovereignty or integrity of India, defence of India, security of the State, friendly relations with foreign States or public order or for preventing incitement to the commission of any cognizable offence relating to above or for investigation of any offence, it may, subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), for reasons to be recorded in writing, by order, direct any agency of the appropriate Government to intercept, monitor or decrypt or cause to be intercepted or monitored or decrypted any information transmitted received or stored through any computer resource.
- II. The Procedure and safeguards subject to which such interception or monitoring or decryption may be carried out, shall be such as may be prescribed.
- III. The subscriber or intermediary or any person in charge of the computer resources shall, when called upon by any agency which has been directed under subsection (1), extend all facilities and technical assistance to –
 - provide access to or secure access to the computer resource generating, transmitting, receiving or storing such information; or
 - intercept or monitor or decrypt the information, as the case may be; or
 - provide information stored in computer resource.
- IV. The subscriber or intermediary or any person who fails to assist the agency referred to in sub-section (3) shall be punished with an imprisonment for a term which may extend to seven years and shall also be liable to fine.

12. Section 69A – Power to issue directions for blocking for public access of any information through any computer resource

- I. Where the Central Government or any of its officers specially authorized by it in this behalf is satisfied that it is necessary or expedient to do in the interest of sovereignty and integrity of India, defence of India, security of the State, friendly relations with foreign states or public order or for preventing incitement to the commission of any cognizable offence relating to above, it may subject to the provisions of sub-sections (2) for reasons to be recorded in writing, by order direct any agency of the Government or intermediary to block access by the public or cause to be blocked for access by public any information generated, transmitted, received, stored or hosted in any computer resource.
- II. The procedure and safeguards subject to which such blocking for access by the public may be carried out shall be such as may be prescribed.
- III. The intermediary who fails to comply with the direction issued under sub-section (1) shall be punished with an imprisonment for a term which may extend to seven years and also be liable to fine.

13. Section 69B. Power to authorize to monitor and collect traffic data or information through any computer resource for Cyber Security

- I. The Central Government may, to enhance Cyber Security and for identification, analysis and prevention of any intrusion or spread of computer contaminant in the country, by notification in the official Gazette, authorize any agency of the Government to monitor and collect traffic data or information generated, transmitted, received or stored in any computer resource.
- II. The intermediary or any person in charge of the Computer resources shall when called upon by the agency which has been authorized under sub-section (1), provide technical assistance and extend all facilities to such agency to enable online access or to secure and provide online access to the computer resource generating, transmitting, receiving or storing such traffic data or information.
- III. The procedure and safeguards for monitoring and collecting traffic data or information, shall be such as may be prescribed.
- IV. Any intermediary who intentionally or knowingly contravenes the provisions of subsection (2) shall be punished with an imprisonment for a term which may extend to three years and shall also be liable to fine.

14. Section 71 – Penalty for misrepresentation Whoever makes any misrepresentation to, or suppresses any material fact from, the Controller or the Certifying Authority for obtaining any license or Electronic Signature Certificate, as the case may be, shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to one lakh rupees, or with both.

15. Section 72 – Breach of confidentiality and privacy Any person who, in pursuance of any of the powers conferred under this Act, rules or regulations made there under, has secured access to any electronic record, book, register, correspondence, information, document or other material without the consent of the person concerned discloses such electronic record, book, register, correspondence, information, document or other material to any

other persons shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to one lakh rupees, or with both.

16. **Section 72A – Punishment for Disclosure of information in breach of lawful contract** Any person including an intermediary who, while providing services under the terms of lawful contract, has secured access to any material containing personal information about another person, with the intent to cause or knowing that he is likely to cause wrongful loss or wrongful gain discloses, without the consent of the person concerned, or in breach of a lawful contract, such material to any other person shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to three years, or with a fine which may extend to five lakh rupees, or with both.
17. **73. Penalty for publishing electronic Signature Certificate false in certain particulars.**
- I. No person shall publish a Electronic Signature Certificate or otherwise make it available to any other person with the knowledge that
 - the Certifying Authority listed in the certificate has not issued it; or
 - the subscriber listed in the certificate has not accepted it; or
 - the certificate has been revoked or suspended, unless such publication is for the purpose of verifying a digital signature created prior to such suspension or revocation
 - II. Any person who contravenes the provisions of sub-section (1) shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to one lakh rupees, or with both.
18. **Section 74 – Publication for fraudulent purpose:** Whoever knowingly creates, publishes or otherwise makes available a Electronic Signature Certificate for any fraudulent or unlawful purpose shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to one lakh rupees, or with both.
19. **Section 75 – Act to apply for offence or contraventions committed outside India**
- I. Subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), the provisions of this Act shall apply also to any offence or contravention committed outside India by any person irrespective of his nationality.
 - II. For the purposes of sub-section (1), this Act shall apply to an offence or contravention committed outside India by any person if the act or conduct constituting the offence or contravention involves a computer, computer system or computer network located in India.
20. **Section 77A – Compounding of Offences.**
- I. A Court of competent jurisdiction may compound offences other than offences for which the punishment for life or imprisonment for a term exceeding three years has been provided under this Act. Provided further that the Court shall not compound any offence where such offence affects the socio-economic conditions of the country or has been committed against a child below the age of 18 years or a woman.
 - II. The person accused of an offence under this act may file an application for compounding in the court in which offence is pending for trial and the provisions of section 265 B and 265C of Code of Criminal Procedures, 1973 shall apply.
21. **Section 77B – Offences with three years imprisonment to be cognizable** Notwithstanding anything contained in Criminal Procedure Code 1973, the offence punishable with imprisonment of three years and above shall be cognizable and the offence punishable with imprisonment of three years shall be bailable.
22. **Section 78 – Power to investigate offences** Notwithstanding anything contained in the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973, a police officer not below the rank of Inspector shall investigate any offence under this Act.

Liability of the internet service provider:

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Introduction

With the advent of the internet, there has become a parallel world in cyberspace where people connect, relate and communicate. The world of cyberspace is driven by data, data that is available to publish, use and disposal of the internet. Data spans across all kinds of content from written, textual, audio, video and other media and entertainment-related content to business-related content, all of these are accessed, used and consumed by the masses who put forward their trust and participate in this giant data exchange we call the cyber community. Needless to say, the trust comes on one end towards the genuine of data being projected and consumed, and more its authenticity is of utmost importance, on the other hand, the privacy of the people accessing the information, content and services offered is of utmost and crucial importance.

As the internet and digital consumption advanced through time, it became more and more crucial to bring in mechanisms to check and control the authenticity, security and privacy of data. From piracy to phishing to data leaks, tampering of information, misguiding and misleading information, fake imposters and all kinds of inauthentic content from conspiracy theories to online scams and scandal, imposters and fake porn, the internet were becoming a banet to mankind as much it was a boon in integrating the world into one big giant community. But just like society, cyberspace also had its perils with authenticity and infringement of data being the determinant source of all problems.

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What is an ISP?

Let us look at cyberspace as the digital form of the world, wherein real-world road, air and rail networks were the access to travel, offered by the respective states and their governments, the network access to people on cyberspace to surf was brought about by the ISP's, the internet service providers. In the simplest terms, to be an intermediary is to be like a conduit for the passage of any information/communication. They act like aggregators between those who wanted to generate and spread information and those who wanted to consume information. Needless to say, when the time came where the dubious and inauthentic information had become an nuisance for global peace, economy, trade, etc. There was a need to regulate and control the information on the internet, and since it was difficult to keep track of individuals worldwide, it was done through the source that acted as a medium to aggregate this connectivity, the ISP's, the internet service providers.

The issue of online copyright infringement liability for the ISP's thus became prevalent since the use of the internet started to expand rapidly. The imperative question that arises here is to what extent are ISPs responsible for the third party material put on the internet by users of their facilities?

Because of the hurdles and constraints on keeping track and catching hold of individuals on a worldwide level, because of geo-cultural, geopolitical and simply inability of copyright and intellectual property owners to seek infringement damages against those who misappropriate their intellectual or digital properties, the internet service providers have become an accessible mule to address this problem, namely since they allow the internet or data pirates to exist, for which reason the content owners find it righteous to sue the ISP's for their data infringement because the ISP's naturally are in a position to control and secure the internet through plausible policing.

In this paper, we explore the role of the ISP's communication on the internet, their various approaches for determining the liability of the ISP's for eg. the horizontal approach, the non-horizontal approach and explain the liability of ISPs for copyright infringement under the [Copyright Act, 1957](#), and the [Information Technology Act, 2000](#).

ISP's role in communication on the internet

ISP is the gateway or an aggregator that provides the network infrastructure, in common parlance, a bandwidth (road network) which gives people access to navigate through the world wide web and access data and information on one end, and on the other, they give hosting and website building and others such services for the supply of data and content. Other than ISP's various parties are involved in offering solutions for creating, storing, hosting, delivering and accessing information and content from the content creator to the content consumers such as blogging sites, cloud platforms, hosting servers, database servers, etc. at the end of the day all the information gets stored in a server and is accessed from that server through the internet. In common parlance, the server is an address where one seeks to access their information through the highway and road network which is provided by the ISP through the internet and bandwidth, to be able to navigate and access the information stored on these servers. The various intermediaries that host, store, process data and data services are all connected to the content providers on one end and the consumer on the other through the ISP's which are the road network that enable the transport of information and people (albeit virtually) between one point to another.

The website host deploys servers where FTP's, file transfer protocols are deployed for storing, accessing and transporting files, website hosting is done on these servers. These days cloud computing offers remote storage of data that can be accessed on multiple points. Upon storage, on such servers and cloud servers, this data gets available to anybody with an internet connection and the address to the server location. An access provider on the other hand provides access to the internet. In the process, all this is happening through the network infrastructure of the internet service provider, ISP. This network infrastructure transports this data to the designated consumer. ISP's are aggregators who create access and network to transport information exchange.

Liability of internet service provider

The liability for copyright infringement rests on three theories; direct, vicarious and contributory infringement. Direct infringement occurs when a person violates any exclusive right of the copyright owner. Vicarious liability arises when a person fails to prevent infringement when he can and has a right to do so and is indirectly benefited by such infringement.

In the United States, one of the Acts which provides liability for the ISP is the Digital Millennium Copyright Act, 1998. This Act governs the liability of the internet sites and ISPs for the copyright infringement of its user. It provides a mechanism for copyright owners to force site owners and ISPs to remove infringing material.

The following elements are part of the regime under the DMCA:

- 1) The online service provider [hereinafter OSP] must have a designated agent to receive notices and it must use a public portion of its Web site for receipt of notices;
- 2) The OSP must notify the U.S. Copyright Office of the agent's identity and the Copyright Office will also maintain electronic and hard copy registries of Web site agents.

Various approaches to determine the liability of internet service providers

The scope of an ISP's liability extends to the branch of law pertaining and relating to the content and subject matter in question. It could be private or personal, criminal, tort, intellectual property like copyright, trademark, patent, etc., competition law, consumer protection, etc. and thus the liability of the ISP's has been burning, constantly evolving and expanding. These have been done broadly through two approaches:

1. Horizontal approach

Which covers not just copyright infringement but all other areas and branches of law, where the liability of ISP arises directly and it raises fixed liabilities irrespective of the content and extent of the illegality of the content.

2. Non-horizontal approach

The potential of the liability is determined by the provisions and jurisdictions of the law. In this approach, the statutes determine the extent of liability, in which a case of defamation would be covered under defamation laws, copyright infringement would be covered under intellectual property rights law, harm to person, death and rape threats would be covered under IPC, etc.

Copyright is dealt with preserving the efforts and performance of the intellect. The concern of copyright is the protection of literary and artistic works. These consist of music, writings, the efforts of the fine arts, music, such as sculptures and paintings, technology-based works such as computer programs and electronic databases. The liability for copyright infringement rests on three theories - direct, vicarious and contributory infringement. Direct infringement occurs when a person violates any exclusive right of the copyright owner. Vicarious liability arises when a person fails to prevent infringement when he can and has a right to do so and is directly benefited by such infringement. These two theories are based on the strict liability principle and a person will be liable without any regard to his mental state or intention. Contributory liability arises when a person participates in the act of direct infringement and has knowledge of the infringing activity. The question arises as to which standard should be applied in order to fix the responsibility of service providers.



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Provisions under the Indian Copyright Act, 1957

The Indian Copyright Act is unable to protect the unauthorized distribution and use of work over the internet. Infringement over the internet and piracy poses a threat to creative works worldwide and thus the growth of the internet, e-commerce and the digital economy. The law related to ISP liability is vague and ambiguous in India. The Indian Copyright Act 1957, though amended in 1994 and 1997, doesn't cover or even mention copyright infringement and liability of ISPs regarding them.

The crux of copyright infringement according to the Act is that whether a person is gaining economic gains out of the infringement and in case of ISP liability, the ISPs are gaining any direct economic gains out of copyright infringement. Users however do pay ISPs for using internet services, but they usually get away with the excuse that they did not know their acts were in the violation of owners' copyrights. Moreover, Section 63 of the copyright Act, 1957 provides for a rebutment regarding to copyright infringements, but whether ISPs can be said to be abetting would again be a case to be settled in the court of law since ISPs clearly would state no intention as their basis to avoid legal liability.

These issues have been addressed in [Section 79](#) of the Information Technology Act, 2000.

Provisions under Information Technology Act, 2000

Chapter XII of the Act provides for issues regarding the liability of the service providers. The Act refers to ISPs as 'network service providers' and exempts them from their liability. Section 79 absolves the ISP's liability if they can prove they had no knowledge about the infringement or due diligence was exercised for prevention of such acts. The Indian position in liability of service providers for copyright infringement must be made more explicit. The Act must include sections that address the financial aspect of the transaction, and the relationship between an ISP and a third party, because this is vital to determining the identity of the violator. The American concept of contributory infringement can also be incorporated into the Indian Act so that if any person with knowledge of the infringing activity, induces, causes, or materially contributes to the infringing conduct of another, the person can be made liable.

In order to be exempt from liability, the Indian Act requires the service provider to exercise due diligence to prevent the commission of copyright infringement. The Act does not provide the meaning of the term due diligence. If due diligence means policing each and every aspect of the internet, it can lead to loss of privacy and can ultimately have a disastrous effect. There is a need for a consensus on the meaning of the term due diligence because the primary function of ISPs is to build the internet, not to play the role of a policeman. If the behaviour of an ISP is reasonable, then that ISP should not be held liable for each and every activity on the internet as has been held by the US courts.

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Various international scenarios

The WIPO Copyright Treaty, 1996 first caught international attention on copyrights. The treaties updated the Berne Convention by incorporating the existing TRIPS provisions in its folds and granted additional rights to the authors in the context of the internet. A new right referred to as the right of communication to the public was incorporated and the right of distribution was specifically spelt out. It also provided for legal remedies against the circumvention of technological measures used by the author to protect their work. Legal protection was also

granted to rights management information systems used by the authors while transmitting works in a digital environment. It was further made clear that mere provision of physical facilities for enabling or making a communication does not itself amount to communication with the meaning of this provision.

Since there was no agreement to treat both temporary and permanent reproduction as a part of reproduction rights in digital format, no specific provision was included in the WCT in this regard. It was the failure of the international community due to the pressure from interest groups to reach a definitive conclusion on the nature of the liability of service providers and users, that left the international law unsettled and it was left to the respective Nation State to introduce appropriate provisions in the domestic law to protect the interests of the owners. One of the first countries to legislate on the Treaty provisions was the US through its Digital Millennium Copyright Act (DMCA) that came into force in 1998. Before referring to the DMCA it is necessary to refer to some of the judicial pronouncements of US Courts on the issue. In *Playboy Enterprises v. Frena*, the court was called upon to determine the liability of the electronic Bulletin Board System (BBS) operator for the acts of users who had uploaded and downloaded the plaintiff's copyrighted photographs. The court found Frena liable for violating the plaintiff's right to publicly distribute and display copies of its work. The defendant contended that the had in fact removed the photographs from the BBS when he received the complaint and had since monitored the BBS to prevent additional photographs of Playboy from being uploaded.

Internet service providers being made liable to suit for copyright infringement on the internet

Frequently in copyright infringement suits being filed for a fraction of infringement on the internet most certainly involve the ISPs. The reason being that ISPs are far more in a superior position to police, track and take action in cases of piracy or infringement, than a nowner who will be rather completely unaware of the whereabouts of such infringement taking place, the ISPs would have the internet traffic data relating to such activities that show downloads of the infringed product. But ISPs are large business bodies or corporations with deep pockets and with concentrated market share, so it is almost difficult to seal likely outcomes since one infringement will result in causing many more.

Cyber Appellate Tribunal

The Information Technology Act, 2000 also provides for the establishment of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal. In this [article](#), we will look at the establishment, [composition](#), jurisdiction, powers, and procedures of a Cyber Appellate Tribunal.

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StudyofCyberCrimes

IntroductionofInformationTechnologyAct2000Part1

IntroductionofInformationTechnologyAct2000

EstablishmentofCyberAppellateTribunal(Section48)

1. TheCentralGovernmentnotifiesandestablishesappellatetribunalscalledCyberRegulationsAppellateTribunal.
2. TheCentralGovernmentalsospecifiesinthenotificationallthemattersandplaceswhichfallunderthejurisdictionoftheTribunal.

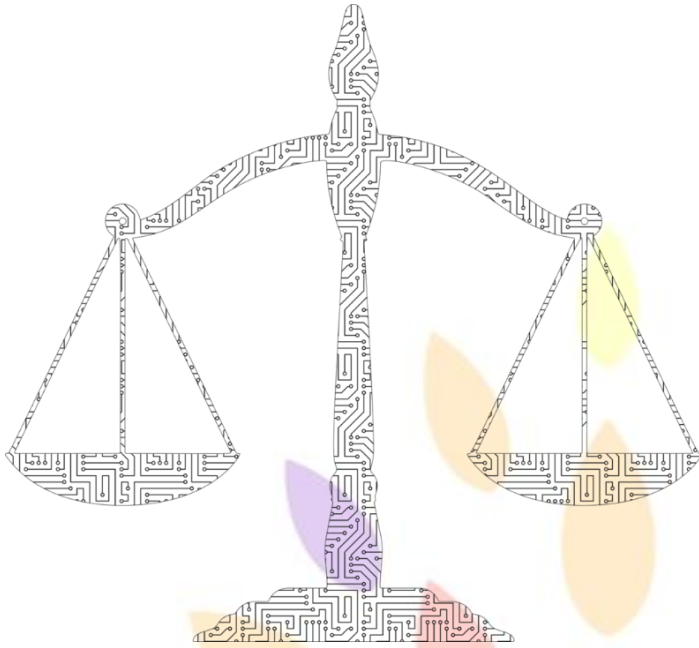
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- [ScopeofCyberLaws](#)
- [ElectronicRecordandE-Governance](#)
- [InformationTechnologyAct,2000](#)

ThecompositionofCyberAppellantTribunal(Section49)

TheCentralGovernmentappointsonlyonepersoninaTribunal—thePresidingOfficeroftheCyberAppellateTribunal.

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Source: Pixabay

The qualifications for appointment as Presiding Officer of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal (Section 50)

A person is considered qualified for the appointment as the Presiding Officer of a Tribunal if—

- a. He has the qualification of the Judge of a High Court
- b. He is or was the member of the Indian Legal [Service](#) and holds or has held a post in Grade I of that service for at least three years.

The Term of Office (Section 51)

The Term of Office of the Presiding Officer of a Cyber Appellate Tribunal is five years from the date of entering the office or until he attains the age of 65 years, whichever is earlier.

Filling up of vacancies (Section 53)

If for any reason other than temporary absence, there is a vacancy in the Tribunal, then the Central Government hires another person in accordance with the Act to fill the vacancy. Further, the proceedings continue before the Tribunal from the stage at which the vacancy is filled.

Resignation and removal (Section 54)

1. The Presiding Officer can resign from his office after submitting a notice in writing to the Central Government, provided:
 - a. he holds office until the expiry of three months from the date the Central Government receives such notice (unless the Government permits him to relinquish his office sooner), OR
 - b. he holds office till the appointment of a successor, OR
 - c. until the expiry of his office; whichever is earlier.
2. In case of proven misbehaviour or incapacity, the Central Government can pass an [order](#) to remove the Presiding Officer of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal. However, this is only after the Judge of the Supreme Court conducts an inquiry where the Presiding Officer is aware of the [charges](#) against him and has a reasonable opportunity to defend himself.
3. The Central Government can regulate the procedure for the [investigation](#) of misbehaviour or incapacity of the Presiding Officer.

Orders constituting Appellate Tribunal to be final and not to invalidate its proceedings (Section 55)

According to this section, no order of the Central Government appointing any person as the Presiding Officer of the Tribunal can be questioned in any manner. Further, no one can question any proceeding before a Cyber Appellate Tribunal in any manner merely on the grounds of any defect in the [Constitution](#) of the Tribunal.

Appeal to Cyber Appellate Tribunal (Section 57)

1. Subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), a person not satisfied with the Controller or Adjudicating Officer's order can appeal to the Cyber Appellate Tribunal having jurisdiction in the matter.
2. No appeal shall lie to the Cyber Appellate Tribunal from an order made by an adjudicating officer with the consent of the parties.
3. The person filing the appeal must do so within 25 days from the date of receipt of the order from the Controller or Adjudicating Officer. Further, he must accompany the appeal with the prescribed fees. However, if the Tribunal is satisfied with the reasons behind the delay of filing the appeal, then it may entertain it even after the expiry of 25 days.
4. On receiving an appeal under sub-section (1), the Tribunal gives an opportunity to all the parties to the appeal to state their points, before passing the order.
5. The Cyber Appellate Tribunal sends a copy of every order made to all the parties to the appeal and the concerned Controller or adjudicating officer.
6. The Tribunal tries to expeditiously deal with the appeals received under sub-section (1). It also tries to dispose of the appeal finally within six months of receiving it.

Procedure and powers of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal (Section 58)

1. The Code of Civil Procedure, 1908 does not bind the Cyber Appellate Tribunal. However, the principles of natural justice guide it and it is subject to other provisions of the Act. The Tribunal has power to regulate its own procedure.
2. In order to discharge its function efficiently, the Tribunal has the same powers as vested in a Civil Court under the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, while trying a suit in the following matters:
 - a. Summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person and examining him under oath
 - b. Ensuring the availability of the required documents or electronic records
 - c. Receiving evidence on affidavits
 - d. Issuing commissions for examining witnesses or documents
 - e. Reviewing its decisions
 - f. Dismissing an application for default or deciding it ex-parte, etc.
3. Every proceeding before the Cyber Appellate Tribunal is like a judicial proceeding within the meaning of sections 193 and 228 and for the purposes of section 196 of the Indian Penal Code. Further, the Tribunal is like a Civil Court for the purposes of section 195 and Chapter XXVI of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973.

Right to Legal Representation (Section 59)

The appellant can either appear in person or authorize one or more legal practitioners to present this case before the tribunal.

Limitation (Section 60)

The provisions of the Limitation Act, 1963, apply to the appeals made to the Tribunal.

Civil Court not to have jurisdiction (Section 61)

If the IT Act, 2000 empowers the adjudicating officer or the Cyber Appellate Tribunal for certain matters, then no Civil Court can entertain any suit or proceedings for the same.

Further, no court can grant an injunction on any action that a person takes in pursuance of any power that the Act confers upon him.

Appeal to High Court (Section 62)

Let's say that a person is not satisfied with the decision or order of the Tribunal. In such cases, he can file an appeal with the High Court. He must do so within 60 days of receiving the communication of the order/decision from the Tribunal.

The appeal can be on any factor law arising out of such an order. The High Court can extend the period by another 60 days if it feels that the appellant has a sufficient cause and reasons for the delay.

Compounding of contraventions (Section 63)

1. The Controller or any other officer that the head adjudicating authority may compound any contravention. Compounding is possible either before or after the institution of adjudication proceedings. This is subject to the conditions that the controller

orsuchotherofficeroorththeadjudicatingofficerspecifies.Provided,thesumdoesnotexceedthemaximumamountofpenaltythat theAct allows for the compounded contravention.

2. Nothing in sub-section (1) applies to a person who commits the same or similar contravention within a period of three years from the date on which his first contravention was compounded. Therefore, if the person commits a second contravention after the expiry period of three years from the date on which his first contravention was compounded, then this becomes his first contravention.
3. Once a contravention is compounded under sub-section (1), then no proceeding is possible against the person guilty of the compounded contravention.

Recovery of Penalty (Section 64)

If a penalty imposed under this Act is not paid, then the same is recovered as arrears of land revenue. Further, the license or digital signature certificate is suspended until the penalty is paid.

Penalties, Compensation and Procedure of Adjudication under IT Act, 2000

Introduction:

The Information Technology Act, 2000 was implemented on 17 May 2000 to provide legal recognition for electronic transactions and to promote e-commerce. It was subsequently amended with the passage of the Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008.

The following are the important objectives of The Information Technology Act, 2000:

1. Grant legal recognition for e-transactions.
2. Provide legal recognition of Digital Authentication Signatures.
3. Facilitate e-Data and information filing.
4. Enable Electronic data storage.
5. Grant acknowledgment for the preservation of books of accounts in electronic form.

Section 43 of The Information Technology Act, 2000

Penalty and compensation for damages to device, computer system (CS), or computer network (CNW) under Section 43. [1] This section states that if an individual executes any of the following prohibited actions, he shall be liable for the damages to the party concerned by paying compensation not exceeding 1 crore:

1. **Access without authority:** If access to or secure access to such device, computer system, or computer network.
2. **Downloading, copying, or extracting any data without authority:** If any data, computer database, or information is downloaded, copied, or extracted from any computer, computer system, or computer network.
3. **Injection of computer contaminant/virus:** If any computer contaminant or computer virus is imported or caused to be introduced into any computer, computer system, or computer network, even if information or data stored or stored in any removable memory device.
4. **Damage to a computer database:** If it damages or causes damage to any computer, computer system, or computer network, records, computer database, or other programs within that computer, computer system, or computer network.
5. **Disjuncture of the computer, computer system, or computer network:** If any disruption is caused to the specified computer resources.
6. **Denial of access:** If it refuses or triggers denial of access by any means to any person authorized to access any device, computer system, or computer network.
7. **Providing aid to facilitate access:** If any support is given to any person to enable access to a device, computer system, or computer network in violation of the provisions of this Act, the rules or regulations thereunder shall apply.
8. **Charging services to another person's account:** If they charge a person's services to another person's account through tampering with or manipulating some CS or CNW device.
9. **Destruction, deletion, or modification of information:** If it damages, deletes, or changes any information that exists in a computer resource or devalues its value or usefulness or affects it injuriously through any means whatsoever.
10. **Stealing, concealing, or damaging computer source code:** If it exploits, hides, damages or alters, or allows another person to steal, hide, damage, or modify any computer source code used for a computer resource intended to cause harm. [Inserted vide ITAA, 2008].

Explanation of the words used in compliance with section 43 [2]

1. **"Computer Contaminant"** means any variety of computer instructions which are designed (a) to alter, delete, capture, transmit data or program within a computer, a computer system, or a computer network; or (b) to capture illegally by any means the regular activity of a computer or a CNW.
2. **"Computer Database"** means the representation of data, information, facts, concepts, or instructions in text, images, audio, video that are prepared or prepared in a formalized manner or generated by a computer, computer system, or a computer network and intended for use in a computer, a CS or a CNW. [3]
3. **"Computer Virus"** means any computer instruction, information, data, or software that damages, destroys and diminishes, or adversely affects the output of a computer resource or attaches itself to another computer resource and operates when a program, data, or instruction is executed or any other event occurs in that computer resource.
4. **"Damage"** means the degradation, alteration, elimination, addition, modification, or reorganization of any computer resource by any means.
5. **"Computer Source Code"** means the listing in some type of programs, computer functions, design and layout, and software analysis of computer resources.

Compensation for failure to protect data [43A, Inserted vide ITAA, 2008]

This section provides that if an entity is negligent in carrying out and maintaining fair security practices and procedures, processing, handling, or handling any confidential personal data or information in a computer resource that it owns, manages, or operates, and thereby causes wrongful loss or benefit to any person, that entity shall be liable for damages by way of compensation. [4]

Explanation of the words used in Section 43A

1. **“Body Corporate”** means any company and involvement in a company, sole proprietorship, or other group of individuals engaged in commercial or professional activities.
2. **“Reasonable Security Practices and Procedures”** means security practices and procedures designed to protect such information from unauthorized access, harm, usage, alteration, exposure, or disruption as may be provided for in an agreement between the parties or as may be provided for in any law for the time being in effect and in the absence of any agreement or any law, such reasonable security as may be provided for in an agreement between the parties. [5]
3. **“Sensitive Personal Data or Information”** means confidential information as may be recommended by the Central Government in collaboration with such professional bodies or organizations as it may deem necessary. [6]

Penalty for failure to provide information, return report (Section 44)

This section provides for the following penalties to be imposed on a person who has to comply with certain legal obligations under this Act, the rules or regulations made thereunder:

1. Punishment for failure to include any paper, return or report to CCA or CA. For each such loss, he shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 1,50,000.
2. Penalty for failure to return or furnish records, books, or other documents within a defined time period. He shall be liable for a penalty not exceeding 5,000 for each day on which such failure continues.
3. Penalty for failure to maintain books of accounts or documents. He shall be liable for a penalty not exceeding 10,000 for each day on which the failure continues.

Penalty for contravention of rules or regulations (Section 45)

This section provides that if a person contravenes any of the rules or regulations imposed pursuant to this Act for which a penalty has been levied, the person concerned shall be liable to pay compensation not exceeding 25,000 to the affected person. [7]

Power to adjudicate (Section 46 in The Information Technology Act, 2000)

1. In order to decide, in accordance with this Chapter, whether a person has committed an infringement of any provision of this Act or of any law, regulation or order made thereunder which makes him liable to pay penalty or compensation, the Central Government shall, subject to the provisions of subsection (3), appoint any officer not less than the Director of the Government of India or an equivalent officer of the Government of the State to be an adjudicator for the conduct of an investigation in the manners specified by the Central Government. [8] (1A) The adjudicating officer named pursuant to subsection (1) shall exercise jurisdiction to adjudicate matters in which the claim for injury or damage does not exceed five crores: given that the jurisdiction in respect of the claim for injury or damage exceeding five crores is with the competent court.]
2. The adjudicator shall, after providing the person referred to in subsection (1) a fair opportunity to make representations in the matter and if he is satisfied, on such an examination, that the person has committed the violation, impose such penalty or grant such compensation as he considers necessary in accordance with the provisions of that section. [9]
3. No individual shall be authorized as an adjudicator unless he has such experience in the field of information technology and legal or judicial experience as may be prescribed by the Central Government.
4. Where more than one adjudicating officer is authorized, the Central Government shall by regulation, determine the matters and places in respect of which those officers shall exercise their jurisdiction.
5. Each adjudicator shall have the powers of a civil court bestowed on the Cyber Appellate Tribunal pursuant to subsection (2) of section 58, and-
 - (a) any proceedings until it shall be considered to be judicial proceedings within the scope of sections 193 and 228 of the Indian Penal Code (45 of 1860);
 - (b) shall be deemed to be a civil court for the purposes of sections 345 and 346 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (2 of 1974);
 - (c) shall be considered to be a civil court for the purposes of Order XXI of the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908 (5 of 1908).

Section 47 in The Information Technology Act, 2000

Factors to be taken into account by the adjudicating officer. - While determining the amount of compensation referred to in this Section, the adjudicating officer shall take due account of the following factors, namely:

1. the amount of unfair advantage obtained, wherever quantifiable, as a result of the default;
2. the sum of damages sustained by any individual as a result of the default;
3. the repetitive aspect of the default. [10]

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UNIT-3

Features of Patent Law (Indian Patent Act)

The history of inventions begin with the invention of wheels but patents (An exclusive right to owner to protect his invention and prohibits others from using it) were granted in the 15th Century only. Initially patents were granted for many common research and inventions it resulted in huge dissatisfaction among people and finally resulted in the formation of a legal procedure to protect invention and award it to deserving candidates, it is known as Patent Law or Patent Act. This law declared all the non-inventions illegal. The Patent Law was first introduced by Atateo of Venice in 1474. The first Patent Act of the U.S. Congress was passed on April 10, 1790, titled "An Act to promote the progress of useful Arts." The first patent was granted on July 31, 1790 to Samuel Hopkins for a method of producing potash (potassium carbonate).

The history of Patent law in India traces back to 1911 when the Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911 was passed. The present Patents Act, 1970 came into force in the year 1972, amending and consolidating the existing law relating to Patents in India. The Patents Act, 1970 was again modified by the Patents (Amendment) Act, 2005 and it was extended to all fields of technology including food, drugs, chemicals and microorganisms. After the amendment, the provisions relating to Exclusive Marketing Rights (EMRs) have been cancelled, and a provision for enabling grant of compulsory license has been introduced. The provisions concerning to pre-grant and post-grant opposition have been also introduced.

- **Both product and process patent provided**

- The Law permits to patent any invention that is new, useful to the society, has commercial application and inventive step. The patent is granted for product as well as process. Roche India Pvt Ltd, the Indian arm of Swiss drug maker **F Hoffmann La Roche**, got its first Patent in India for its biotech drug **Pegasys (Peinterferon alpha-2a)**. Patent for process was provided to "A process of making rare earth doped optical fibre"
- A mere admixture, method of agriculture or horticulture and plants and animals cannot be patented under this Act

- **Requirement for application**

- An application for patent should contain complete description of the invention (also known as patent specification).

- **Examination on request:**

- After filing the application for a patent, a request for examination is essential to be made for examination of the application by the Indian Patent Office.

- **Both pre-grant and post-grant opposition:**

- The patent can be opposed by any person within six months from the publication of the patent application. This is known as Pre grant opposition. The invention can be challenged even after it gets patent, but the opposition should come within 12 months from the publication of the grant of the patent.

- **Term of Patent**

- The term of patent in every category in India is twenty years from the date of filing the patent application. In case of applications filed through the Patent Cooperative Treaty (PCT), the term of twenty years begins from the international filing date.

- **Renewal Fee:**

- The patentee has to pay renewal fee to keep the patent alive.

- **Patent of Biological Material**

- If the invention uses a biological material which is new, it is essential to deposit the same in the International Depository Authority ("IDA") before filing of the application in India in order to supplement the description. Publication of applications after 18 months with facility for early publication.

- **Rights conferred on the Patentee:**

- The act gives exclusive rights to the patentee to manufacture, market, sell, assign and license his patent and at the same time prohibits others from doing so for a limited period of time. It also provides relief against infringement in the form of injunction and compensations.

- **Compulsory licensing:**

- The act also ensures that patentee doesn't misuse his rights and also that patents don't prevent the protection of public health and nutrition, by the way of Compulsory Licensing. Under section 84 of Indian Patent Act, compulsory licenses are granted

- To prevent the misuse of patent as monopoly
- To make provisions for commercial exploitation of the patent (If government feels that patent is not available to public at an affordable price, or reasonable requirements of public have not been satisfied.
- To take care of public health in India.

- **Assignment**

- The patentee can assign his rights to any other person. Assignment is available in three forms - legal assignment, equitable assignment and mortgages

TRADEMARK LAW:

The history of trademark law to the cyberspace can be associated with the creation of the World Wide Web (www) which certainly created a link of

trademark law with Internet domain name

disputes. And it has created a buzz among users as commercialization of the Internet medium. Thousands of businesses have established storefronts on the Internet to disseminate marketing literature, offer customer service, and sell goods and services online. Not surprisingly, due to this commercialization factor, there is an increasing relation between trademark law and domain names. As a consequence, the following dynamic growth of the World Wide Web has issued new challenges to the intellectual property consultants concerning trademark infringement. For trademark owners, internet is a profitable platform, but in certain cases, it turns out to be problematic in their business growth. These trademark owners often have to

deal with certain

mainName

domainnamedisputesinflictedbythethirdpartylikecybersquattingetcbutinIndia,wepersaydonothaveanyDo



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Protection Law so the cases relating to cyber squatting are decided under Trade Mark Act, 1999. Under the current law, section 292 provides for the protection of registered trademark and the protection for unregistered trademark has been provided in section 323. However, the act is silent on the protection for trademarks infringement in the cyberspace. The majority of domain name disputes seem to involve trademarks as it is submitted that the dispute arises with the registrar or use of the domain name

which infringes any legally recognized right, such as any trademark right, common law right in passing off, or any other right for that matter. A trademark law is territorial in nature but in the internet the global domain is the dispute involving bad faith registrations are typically resolved using the UDRP (Uniform Domain Name Dispute Resolution Policy) process which is developed by the ICANN. Under UDRP, WIPO happens to be the leading ICANN accredited domain name dispute resolution service provider which was established as a tool for promoting the protection, dissemination, and the use of intellectual property throughout the world.⁴ Since TRIPS agreement provides for only 1 Murugendra B. Tubake; US and Indian Trade Marks Law: A Comparison; PL February S-1

1 Introduction (2012).

2 Trademark Act, 1999, Intellectual Property Laws, Universal Law Publishing, (2015). 3 Ibid. 4 The Uniform Domain Name Dispute Resolution Policy and WIPO; © World Intellectual Property Organization, (2011). Open Access Journal available at jlsr.thelawbrigade.com 41 JOURNAL OF LEGAL STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY RIGHTS LAW REVIEW Volume 3 Issue 3 [June 2017] minimum standard so, there exist similarity upto some extent in the domestic laws and except these principles there are hardly any laws which are uniform, and as a result of which there exist

some

advantages and disadvantages of nation over other nations IP laws.

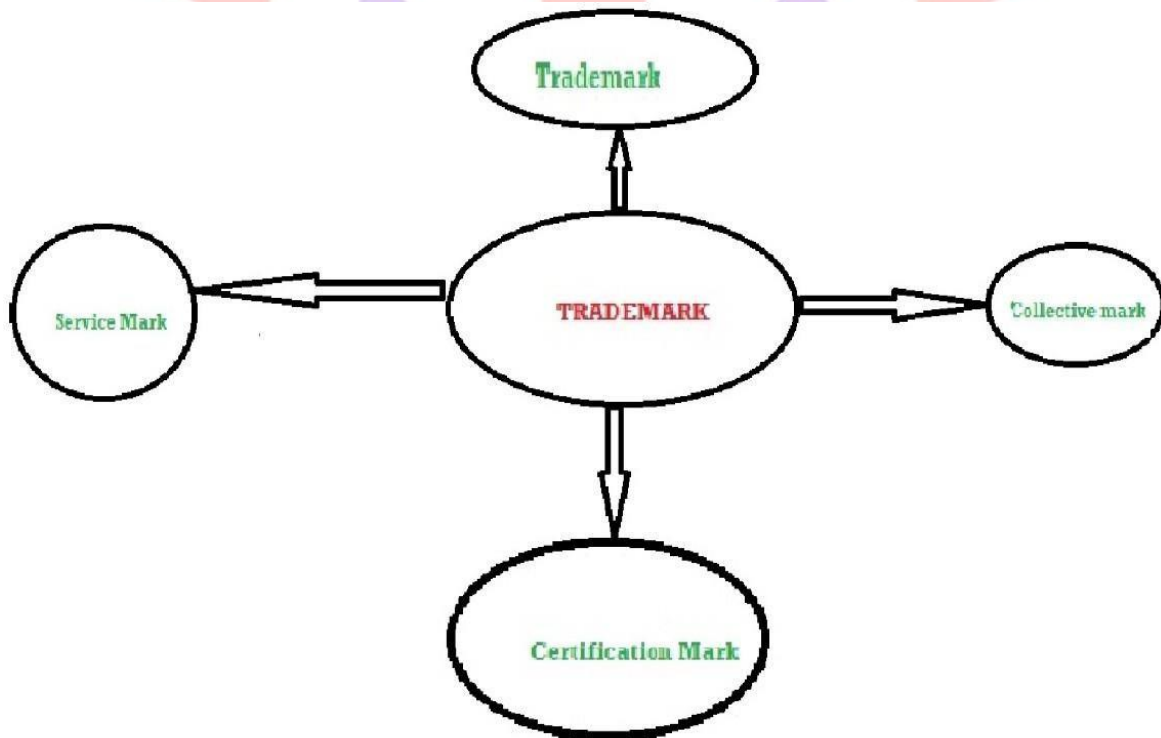
Trademarks

Trade marks are the marks that are external to the goods to make the public identify a certain quality and image related with that product or service. It is an important way of promoting goodwill of the company or organisation with its clients or customers.

It has a legal protection to prevent others from using it. Few examples of trademarks are Tata, godrej, IIM etc.

Types of Trademarks:

Trademarks can be classified into 4 types:



1. **Trademark** - It is a mark which includes any word, name, symbol, or any combination which is used in commerce to identify and differentiate the products of a manufacturer from products of others. In short, Trademark is a brand name.
2. **Service Mark** - It is a mark which includes any word, name, symbol, or any combination which is used in commerce to identify and differentiate the services provided by one provider from services provided by others. It is used in service business.
3. **Certification Mark** - It is a mark which includes any word, name, symbol, or any combination which is used in commerce by other persons with owner's consent and certifies them regional, material, mode of manufacture, or other characteristics of owner's goods.
4. **Collective Mark** - It is a mark which includes any word, name, symbol, or any combination which is used in commerce by members of an association or group or organization.

Advantages

The advantages of Trademarks are as follows:

of

Trademarks:

- It provides increased customer recognition to the brands.
- It provides legal protection to the company using a particular trademark.



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- It promotes the goodwill of the brand.
- It encourages participation from other brands through co-branding, brand extension.

Copyright:

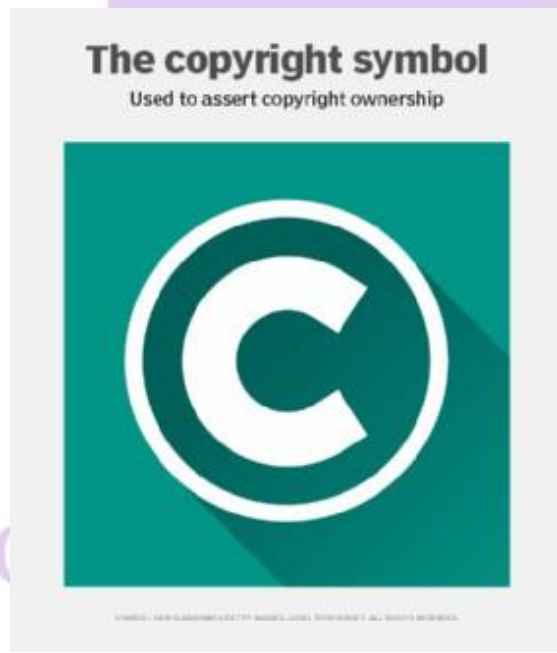
Copyright is a legal term describing ownership of control of the rights to the use and distribution of certain works of creative expression, including books, video, motion pictures, musical compositions and computer programs. Historically, copyright law has been enacted to balance the desire of culture to use and reuse creative works -- thus creating "derivative work" -- against the rights of authors of art, literature, music and the like to monetize their work by controlling who can make and sell copies of the work.

To strike this balance, the exclusivity of control is almost always restricted to a set period of years, after which a copyright-protected work reverts to the [public domain](#) and may be freely used.

Who is a copyright owner?

The copyright holder is often a company or corporation. If a work is created as a component of employment -- work for hire -- then the copyright for the work defaults to the employer.

Copyright ownership is bounded by the territory of the jurisdiction in which it has been granted -- copyright granted by the United States is valid only within that country, for example -- as well by certain specific exceptions. Much of international copyright law was brought into relative conformity with the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works -- usually referred to as the Berne Convention -- in 1886, with numerous subsequent revisions over the decades. The World Intellectual Property Organization Copyright Treaty -- also known as the WIPO Copyright Treaty or WCT -- was adopted in 1996 to cover information technology and the internet, elements not directly addressed in the Berne Convention.



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An important shift in copyright legislation that appeared in the Berne Convention was the move to make copyright protection automatic. In most countries today, creators do not need to register or apply for copyright protection of a work. Rather, the author of a work is immediately entitled to all copyrights of the work until those rights are explicitly disclaimed or the copyright expires.

Before 1989, United States law required the use of a copyright notice to assert that copyright was being claimed. The copyright symbol or the word *copyright* had to be placed somewhere within the protected work, along with the year the work was created or published.

What is the duration of copyright protection?

After a work's copyright expires, the work falls into the public domain and can be used at no cost and without restriction. The original copyright term was set at 14 years, with the option to renew for another 14 years. That term was doubled in 1831 to 28 years plus one 28-year renewal.

Disney Corp. is the best known of a group of powerful copyright holders that benefit from longer copyright protection terms. Disney has been a driving force to extend U.S. copyright protection for its iconic mouse and supported changes to copyright terms in the U.S., including the following:

- **Copyright Act of 1976**, which extended copyright protection to 75 years or the life of the author plus 50 years; and
- **Copyright Term Extension Act of 1998**, also called the Mickey Mouse Protection Act, which extended the term to 120 years or the life of the author plus 70 years.

Under current copyright law, Disney's copyright on the original version of Mickey Mouse portrayed in *Steamboat Willie* in 1928 is set to expire in 2024. However, subsequent versions of the Disney mascot, as well as most of Disney's other characters, will still be protected.

What is the duration of copyright protection under current law?

Under current law in the U.S., works created after Jan. 1, 1978, are afforded copyright protection for the life of the author plus an additional 70 years. For anonymous, [pseudonymous](#) and corporate-owned works, a copyright lasts 95 years from the year of its first publication or a term of 120 years from the year of its creation, whichever expires first.

Copyright duration and public domain

The notion of protecting publishers from unauthorized third-party sales of copies of their books dates back to the 1709 Statute of Anne in Britain, a law that gave publishers exclusive publishing rights for a fixed period, after which their work could be produced and sold by others. In

the United States, the first legislation along these lines appears in the U.S. Constitution, in Article I, Section 8, Clause 8, where the so-called Copyright Clause gives Congress the authority to enact laws "securing for limited Time to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries."

Both these laws, along with current copyright legislation worldwide, call for protected works to enter the public domain after the copyright law's stipulated term has passed. Works in the public domain may be used, copied and distributed with no restrictions under copyright law.

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7 ways to prevent software piracy

1. License keys
2. Antipiracy software
3. Print/copy restrictions
4. Streaming protections
5. Copyright symbol
6. Antipiracy incentives
7. Demo or trial version

SOURCE: MICHAEL COBB AND MIKE ROTHMAN
ART: VECTORMINE/ADOBE STOCK
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Including

copyright symbol in all website content can help defend against legal assertions of unintentional copyright infringement.

What are the exceptions to copyright?

Note every expression of an idea may be copyright-protected. Copyright doesn't protect the following:

- product names;
- titles of works, such as book titles;
- names of businesses and organizations;
- pseudonyms, including computer hacker [nyms](#);
- slogans, catch phrases, mottos and short advertising phrases; and
- lists of ingredients, such as on product labels or as used in recipes.

Something on this list, such as product names, may be afforded protection under trademark law.

Fair use

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Even when a work is protected under copyright law, the law defines a category of exceptions. In these cases, copies of works may be used even when the copyright holder has otherwise restricted use.

[Fair use](#), known in some other international jurisdictions as *fair dealing*, is the judicial doctrine that permits the use of copyrighted materials

when the purpose serves the public interest.

The most common fair uses for copyrighted materials include the following:

- **Criticism and comment** fair uses allow reproduction of a copyrighted work for the purpose of criticizing or commenting on the work. It is in the public's interest to have access to critical reviews of works, and in considering these works, the critic may include short excerpts of a work in order to illustrate a point being made.
- **Parody** fair use is another common fair use, where part of the work is reproduced in a new work.
- **Educational** fair use permits use of materials in face-to-face teaching, for scholarship and for research.
- **Public good** fair use includes exceptions for allowing librarians to make Braille copies of books they own.
- **Noncommercial** fair use includes exceptions like the one that permits recording radio or television transmissions to watch in a noncommercial setting or making copies of works like [software](#) to avoid problems in the event of the original work being stolen, lost or damaged.

Conceptually, fair use is a refinement of the basic balance copyright strikes between author and civil interests.

It is important to note, though, that what counts as fair use is generally not well delineated in copyright laws around the world. In the U.S., the law lists four basic guidelines that courts may use in lawsuits where infringement is alleged:

1. **Commercial or noncommercial.** Is the purpose and character of the use primarily [nonprofit](#) and to further education, or is it for profit? Nonprofit, noncommercial educational uses are more likely to be considered fair use.
2. **Nature of the work.** Is the protected work a factual work, which is entitled to less protection, or is it a purely creative work? Factual works include facts that may be of public value, and since they are facts, they require less creative work to create.
3. **Amount and substantiality of the portion of the work used.** How much of the protected work is being used, and how central is it to the work? Uses of quotes and other short excerpts are more likely to be tolerated than uses of extensive portions of the work.
4. **Effect of the use upon the potential market for the work.** How likely is it that the use is intended to avoid paying for the work? For example, making a copy of a software program to install it on another [computer](#) is not fair use, while making a backup copy to avoid business disruption due to theft, loss or damage is usually considered a fair use.

In the world of popular music, the boundaries of fair use have been tested as a result of the use of samples, or short snippets of copyright-protected sound recordings in new works. Clear precedents have not been established because court decisions have taken unpredictable turns.

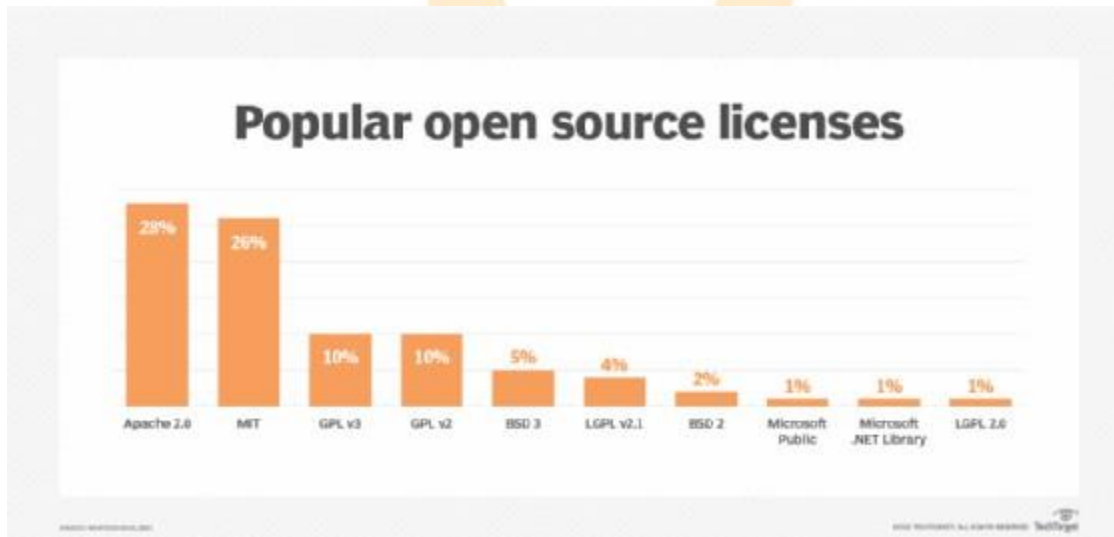
A 2005 decision in the 6th District Court in the U.S. held that copying even as few as three consecutive notes could constitute infringement. Other cases have revolved around whether permissions must be obtained for portions of a work that are sampled, for the underlying song or both. Commercial musicians can buy clearances to sample works, meaning that whether that sampling could be allowed under fair use provisions is simply not tested.

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Copyleft

An interesting exception of sorts to copyright is a concept originally championed by Richard Stallman and the [Free Software Foundation](#), which created [copyleft](#) as a means of effectively stripping most copyright restrictions from a work to allow free use, including copying of the material, while retaining control over how the material is shared.

Under the copyleft, derivative works created using that original work must also begin with copyleft protection. More broadly, this approach is known as *free licensing* and is considered a form of [open source](#) licensing.



Material published under open source licenses may be freely copied, modified, shared and distributed, as long as the original license is applied to the distributed material. When used for publishing software, the copyleft license also requires that [source code](#) be included or made available when modified software is published.

Creative Commons

In 2001, [Creative Commons](#), a nonprofit organization, was created to facilitate several kinds of legal sharing so that works could be freely reused but in contexts that are controlled by the copyright holder. Works covered under Creative Commons licenses are aggregated at [creativecommons.org](#).

Trademark Vs. Copyright Vs. Patent: What's The Difference?

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Entrepreneurs who own a trademark, copyright or patent for a product or technology have an advantage over their competitors. But the process for obtaining these intellectual property protections can be long and complicated. Before you start the process, it is important to learn about the differences between a trademark, copyright and patent. We'll walk you through how each can help protect your company's intellectual property, what exactly they protect and where you need to apply.

Definitions of Copyright, Trademark and Patent

Copyrights are registered by the U.S. Copyright Office at the Library of Congress while the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office will grant patents and register trademarks.

Here is a brief explanation of each type of intellectual property.

Trademark

A trademark can be a phrase, word or design that identifies your company and its goods or services. A trademark can help distinguish you from your competitors and prevent others from using your mark. There are state-level and federal-level trademarks, each with its own registration process.

Patent

A patent is a granted property right to the creator(s) of a new, unique and useful invention, discovery or process. Patents allow you to bar others from making, using or selling your invention. There are three main types of patents: utility, design and plant.

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Copyright

A copyright protects original works of authorship including songs, books, movies, articles and much more. The key is that the work must exist on a physical or digital medium, such as paper, film or a digital file. A copyright gives you the exclusive right to use a work in a variety of ways: you can reproduce it, sell or distribute copies, display it, perform it, or create other works based on your copyrighted work. Copyrights are automatic upon creation of the original work, but registration is recommended so that the copyright claim is part of the public record.

Advantages of Obtaining Copyright

A copyright is granted the moment you create an original work in a tangible or fixed form. It's automatic. But unregistered works may be difficult to prove in the case that someone else uses or steals your work. And you can only file a copyright infringement lawsuit if your copyright is registered. That's why we recommend registering your work with the U.S. Copyright Office to make your copyright claim public record.

Advantages of Receiving a Federal Trademark

Receiving a trademark means your competitors can not register the same, or a deceptively similar, trademark in the same class of goods or services where your trademark is registered. Registration creates a public record of your trademark ownership and it allows you to use the ® symbol, helping establish legitimacy and trust with your customers and ward off counterfeiters. A federal trademark also gives you additional ways to enforce the mark and paves the way for registering your mark in other countries.

Advantages of Having a Patent Approved

Innovations can take years to create and are often expensive. Receiving a patent ensures you'll have the opportunity to profit from your hard work. A patent means the inventions and any related processes cannot be copied, made or sold unless permission is given by the inventor.

Copyright Vs. Trademark Vs. Patent

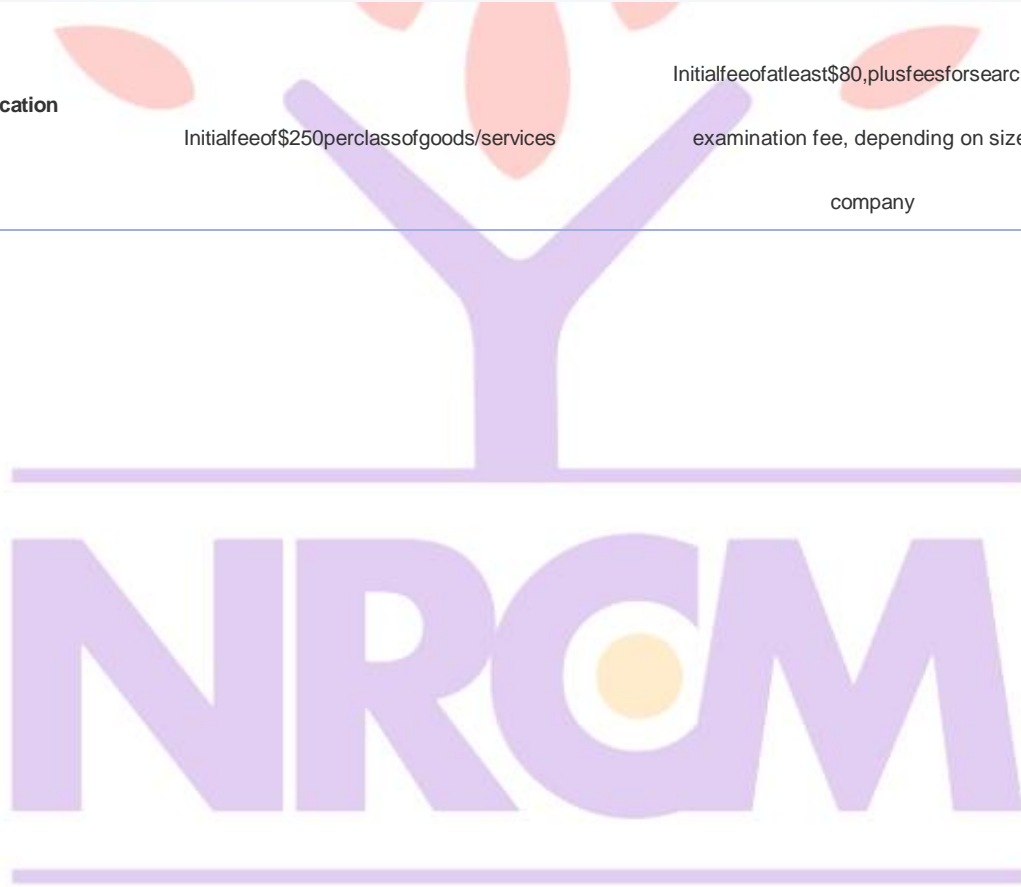
Here is a brief overview on how your company might use copyright, trademark or patent.

	Trademark	Patent
Definition	A trademark can be a phrase, word or design—oral or written—that describes what your company does or sells. Having a trademark can help separate you from your competitors.	A patent grants property rights to the creator(s) of a new, unique and useful invention, discovery or process. There are three types of patents: utility, design and



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	Trademark	Patent
Example	Name example: McDonald's Slogan example: I'm Lovin' It Logo example: The golden arches	The design of the iPhone; Blue Tooth data transferring technology; Keurig's K-Cup pod
Length of protection	Can last forever, but you must file periodic maintenance and renewal paperwork starting five years after registration	Typically 20 years
Application cost	Initial fee of \$250 per class of goods/services	Initial fee of at least \$80, plus fees for search and examination fee, depending on size of company



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How do copyrights work?

Copyright protects "original works of authorship including literary, dramatic, musical, and artistic works, such as poetry, novels, movies, songs, computer software, and architecture," [according](#) to the USPTO.

A work is automatically protected by copyright from the time it is complete. The author of the work can claim copyright protection by adding the copyright symbol (©) or the word *copyright* and their name and the year the work was created.

Creators can secure greater protection for their work by registering it with the U.S. Copyright Office. This requires submitting a copy of the work and a copyright registration fee; works can be registered online for as little as \$35, and groups of works, such as articles in a periodical, can be registered as well.

Copyright status is protected from the initial creation or registration.

How do trademarks work?

Trademark owners can register trademarks with the USPTO to protect their [brand](#), logo or slogan as it relates to their product. This provides confidence to consumers when buying a trademarked product, such as Coca-Cola® or The Happiest Place on Earth®.



NRCM

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Getting trademark registration is more complicated and more expensive than copyright. Application fees with the USPTO start at \$250 and may require trademark searches and other processes; applicants usually work with an attorney to complete the registration process.

Acceptance and registration of a trademark are not guaranteed, but once a trademark is registered, it must be actively used by the owner. Trademark protection can persist indefinitely if the owner continues to use it and renews the registration every 10 years.

How do patents work?

Governments grant patents to inventors to enable inventors to profit from their innovations. A patented invention must be novel, non-obvious, and useful, and if the USPTO determines that is the case, the inventor has an initial term of protection lasting up to 20 years.

Patents can be renewed. But they must be maintained by paying maintenance fees during the patent term, or else the patented invention loses patent protection.

The USPTO evaluates patent applications; the patent application process includes numerous fees, which depend on the type of patent and other factors. The process is best navigated with a patent attorney, who can assist in submitting the application and responding to additional requirements where needed.

How is digital rights management used for copyright control?

Digital expressions, such as [e-books](#) and music, are protected under copyright just as their traditional book and [compact disc](#) counterparts are. Controlling infringement and unauthorized reproduction of digital work is considerably more difficult than [hard-copy](#) products that require printing and physical distribution.

Copyright protects these works and can be used as the basis for lawsuits after the fact, but corporations have embraced the idea of using digital technologies to protect digital works.

There are two basic approaches used in typical digital rights management (DRM) products:

1. Individual copies of the digital product are [encrypted](#) and contain the [code](#) necessary to protect their use. The protections used to prevent unauthorized duplication of commercially distributed [digital videodiscs](#) are examples of this and rely on safeguards built into DVD players to prevent the use of pirated copies.

2. A centralized rights management [server](#) checks authorizations at time of use and locks or unlocks digital copies accordingly.

This allows finer-grained control and better overall use accounting but requires an internet connection before each use.

There are, in some DRM systems, additional controls enforced. Books read in the Amazon Kindle ecosystem, for instance, can be highlighted within the context of the present copy, but copying text displayed in a Kindle reader to the [clipboard](#) of the [operating system](#) isn't allowed.

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This DRM-

imposed restriction on cutting and pasting is, critics have noted, a restriction that goes beyond the rights provided under copyright law, where that cutting and pasting might well fall into the realm of fair use. Not being able to make backup copies of DVDs is another case where use of a work is allowed under copyright but may be prohibited by the DRM system a corporation has opted to use.

Digital Millennium Copyright Act of 1998

The Digital Millennium Copyright Act ([DMCA](#)) of 1998 includes a stipulation that makes it a criminal offense to [reverse-engineer](#) DRM systems, even if the aim is to take actions that are allowed under that same copyright law. Manufacturers of goods, such as farm tractors and cars, that one wouldn't normally associate with copyright protections have asserted that the DMCA reverse-engineering provision applies to software used in [embedded systems](#) within their products. Thus, third-party attempts to understand those systems are criminal offenses, not because of copyright infringement, but simply because reverse research on the workings of DRM systems is illegal.

A number of prosecutions and threatened legal actions have been mounted since the DMCA was enacted. A partial list of these is maintained by the Electronic Frontier Foundation.

Fair use for security research

In October 2016, the Library of Congress temporarily authorized security researchers who were "acting in good faith" to conduct some kinds of research on consumer devices so long as the research did not violate other laws, such as the [Computer Fraud and Abuse Act](#).

There is a four-part test for whether any given research falls under the exemption:

1. The computer program must be lawfully acquired.
2. The action taken must be "solely for the purpose of good-faith security research."
3. The research must take place after Oct. 28, 2016.
4. While not technically a requirement, the authorization implies that responsible disclosure is an important element in establishing that the work was done in good faith.

Good faith is circularly defined as being "solely for the purposes of good-faith testing" but is also explained to mean the work can't be done "in a manner that facilitates copyright infringement."

Only research conducted with primarily consumer-oriented products fall under this authorization.

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See [ways to protect intellectual property and trade secrets, secure against insider threats and best practices](#).

This was last updated in December 2021

Continue Reading About copyright

- [How to prevent software piracy](#)
- [The future of open source licenses is changing](#)
- [5 common open source software licenses you need to know](#)
- [5 factors for using open source code in proprietary software](#)
- [U.S. Copyright Office: Registering a work](#)

Related Terms

governance, risk and compliance (GRC)

Governance, risk and compliance (GRC) refers to an organization's strategy for handling the interdependencies among the following... [See completed definition](#)

risk avoidance

Risk avoidance is the elimination of hazards, activities and exposures that can negatively affect an organization and its assets. [See complete definition](#)

total risk

Total risk is an assessment that identifies all the risk factors associated with pursuing a specific course of action. [See completed definition](#)

Is software protected by copyrights or patents?

Computer software or programs are instructions that are executed by a computer

Software is protected under copyright law and the inventions related to software are protected under patent law.

Source Code and Object Code

Computer software are instructions that forms source code and object code. Software takes a lot of skill, time, and labor to develop them, so it is natural that you want to protect all your hard work. Computer programs can be copied and used by unauthorized persons. Your actual software and apps source code may be protected under copyright law. The concepts and inventions related to software may be protected under patent law.

COPYRIGHT PROTECTIONS

Copyright Law defines computer programs as literary work, and as such is protectable under copyrights. For example, computer programs are sets of instructions expressed in words, codes, schemes or other forms, including a machine-readable medium, capable of causing a computer to perform a particular task or achieve a particular result. The words, codes, schemes, or other forms may be protected under Copyright law as creative works the same as a book, a movie, or a work of art (and often to the coder, the source code is a work of art).

Copyright protection extends for author's lifetime plus 70 years. For works made for hire, the term of the copyright is 95 years from first publication or 120 years from creation, whichever is shorter. Copyright protection is inherent at the time of creation and is automatically protected, and may appear to be attractive and free option to protect your software. Additionally, if you want to be able to definitively define the date you created your creative work, you can register your copyright with the Library of Congress.

It should be noted that copyright protects the expression of an idea and not the idea itself. Hence, in the case of software programs, it is the software program that is protected, and not the functionality of the software programs. Unless you only want to protect exactly how the source code is written, it may not be a good idea to rely solely on copyright law to protect software-related inventions. To protect the functionality of the software programs you should seek patent protection.

Patent Protections

In the United States software is patentable. Software patents are typically referred to as computer implemented processes. Software can be protected in the U.S. if it is unique and tied to a machine. Most importantly, for software to be patentable, the software needs to offer some kind of identifiable improvement. Merely doing something that is known on a computer (like adding numbers together) is extremely unlikely to be patentable. For example, U.S. patent law excludes "abstract ideas", and this has been used to refuse some patent applications involving software.

In Europe, "computer programs as such" are excluded from patentability. The EPO holds that a program for a computer is not patentable if it does not have the potential to cause a "further technical effect" beyond the inherent technical interactions between hardware and software.

While source code may not be patentable, it does not mean that a software invention may not be patented. One way of determining whether a software invention will be considered a patentable subject matter or not, is by trying to judge whether the software invention offers a technical solution to a technical problem. The invention may be considered a patentable subject matter if the software invention offers a technical solution to a technical problem.

Advantages of Patents over Copyrights

A patent over a software invention can be used to prevent others from utilizing a certain algorithm without permission or to prevent others from creating software programs that perform patent protected functions.

In contrast, copyright law protects only a particular expression of an idea, i.e. copying of source code or a portion of it, and not the copying of the idea/functionality.

Accordingly, patents offer much broader protection.

There are significant differences in the protections offered by patent and copyright. Here is a summary of the differences in the protections offered by copyrights and patents for software.

Domain name disputes in cyberspace:

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- [ICANN'S UDRP](#)
- [Legislation governing domain name in India](#)
 - [Starbucks Corporation v. Mohanraj \(2009\)](#)
 - [Google Inc. v. Gulshan Khatri \(2017\)](#)
 - [Aqua Minerals Limited Vs. Mr. Pramod Borse & Anr \(2001\).](#)

Introduction

Today in the era of the internet and technology we go through various websites to look for something. The name of the person is very important for their identity and in the same way domain name for a company is very important. If someone uses a similar or confusing domain name of a company then it might create a big problem for a company in terms of profit and goodwill. After reading the article you will be able to understand the common issue which generally arises related to the domain name.

Domain name

A domain name is like the address or phone number of someone. It is a combination of various typographical characters which are used to describe a location online. Sometimes it is also called a [URL \(Uniform Resource Locator\)](#). A domain name is very important for any type of business that wants to sell its product online. Two organizations can never have the same domain names for example [www.facebook.com](#), [www.yahoo.com](#), etc. In this example

- World Wide Web (www) means that the site is linked with the world wide web.

- [.COM](#) is a type of TLD (Top Level Domain). It tells us the service behind the domain name. The most common [Top-level domains](#) which you have seen generally in the websites are (.com, .org, .net) These are some general TLDs that don't require any web service to meet any particular criteria. But after seeing some TLDs you will be able to know the service they provide for example (.edu). It is only used for educational purposes on websites. Some TLDs for example (.us, .in, .fr) are the local TLDs that are supported to indicate the resources of the particular country. Some TLDs like (.gov) show that operated by the government and only government departments can use such types of domains.

The maximum length is 63 characters but most are around 2-3. It can be special as well as Latin characters also.

Types of domain name disputes

As known, acquiring a domain name for a particular organization is very important if that organization wants to operate its business online also. Domain name disputes are of various types like cyber squatters, typosquatting, domain name warehousing, cyber twin, reverse domain name hijacking.

Cybersquatting

[Cybersquatting](#) can also be referred to as domain squatting. Cybersquatting is a practice in which a person registers a domain name that resembles a well-known organization without authorization to gain some profit. Domain registrants buy the domain name with a malafide intention that harms the goodwill and reputation of the company. This is mainly done to gain some profit by selling the domain name to the owner of the original trademark or service. Sometimes a person registers the name and expects that he will sell the domain name in the future to the highest bid.

Typosquatting

A typosquatter refers to a person who registers a domain name with common typos of the company's primary domain name to shift the traffic from the main website to its website. Let's understand this by taking an example to suppose a person registers a domain with the name [www.faceook.com](#) which is created to shift the people from the original site [www.facebook.com](#). This practice is also known as "URL hijacking" or sometimes "web address hacking." A person takes advantage of common typing mistakes which people make while entering any URL.

Cybertwin

Cyber twin refers to when the domain name holder and the person challenging the domain have a legitimate claim to a domain name. In the case before WIPO arbitration and mediation centre name [Indian Farmers Fertiliser Cooperation Ltd v. International Foodstuffs Co. \(2018\)](#), the issue was related to the domain name [iffco.com](#). In this particular case, the defendant was using the domain name in good faith. The complainant had a legitimate interest in the domain, which was related to [iffco.com](#). The complainant stated that the defendant was diverting the traffic. The arbitration centre dismissed the case and said that both parties had a legitimate interest and the complainant had failed to prove that the defendant was using the domain name in bad faith.

Domain name warehousing

Domain name warehousing is holding the expired domain instead of releasing back to the public for buying. A person contains a certain domain from being registered and hopes to sell to the previous owner or new owner at a much higher price than the market price. They may try to negotiate to sell at a higher price.

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Reversedomainnamehijacking

RDNH stands for [Reversedomainnamehijacking](#) (RDNH) is an attempt by the trademark holder in bad faith to take control of a domain name from another who is having a legitimate interest in the name. According to the [Rules 15\(e\) of Uniform Domain-Name Disputes Resolution Policy \(UDRP\)](#), it has been stated that when any complainant is brought in bad faith which is primary to harass the domain name registrant, then the panel can decide that the complaint is brought in bad faith and constitutes an abuse of administrative proceeding. Reversedomainnamehijacking is mostly enacted by large corporations and individuals, in defence of their rightful trademark or for preventing libel or slander.

ICANN'S UDRP

As we all know, the internet, which we know today, began as the network known as ARPANET (Advanced Research Projects Agency Network, experimental computer network). [Internet Assigned Numbers Authority \("IANA"\)](#) managed the internet by assigning the computer to the internet as an address. Somebody else there was the expansion of the internet Network Solutions, Inc (NSI), which was the private company that received the right to assign the domain address. One of the [ICANN's](#) first substantive acts was the adoption of UDRP, which had three main objectives:

1. Eliminate the jurisdiction and the problem of the conflicting law related to all internet disputes.
2. Reduce the cost of bringing suits against the cybersquatters.
3. Apply an extremely restricted set of circumstances only to the egregious cases.

As UDRP incorporates all registration agreements for .org, .com, .net. If anyone wants to file a suit in UNDP, it is very simple. Firstly the complaint must be filed in one of the alternative dispute resolution bodies which are approved by the ICANN. The respondent gets a 20-day timeline to file a reply, after which a three-member committee is formed in which the plaintiff has to prove three elements:

1. That the disputed domain name is similar or confusing
2. That the respondent is not having any legitimate interest in the domain
3. That the respondent registered the domain name in bad faith.

There is a major advantage of using ICANN's UDRP to resolve domain name disputes is that it has a fast preceding. Most of the decisions of UDRP are handed down within 45 days of the complaint being filed. Giving quick decisions is the primary reason for using UDRP.

Legislation governing domain name in India

There is no specific law related to the domain name in India, but domain name cases are decided under the [Trade Marks Act, 1999](#).

Starbucks Corporation v. Mohanraj (2009)

This [case](#) was related to the domain name in which domain [www.Starbucks.co.in](#) was very similar to the complainant [www.starbucks.in](#). It is contended by the complainant that the response is not having any legitimate interest in the domain name and using it in bad faith.

While the respondents stated that at the time of registration the registrar (.in) did not ask for any document to show for registration of trade and also said before the court that the complainant had neglected the domain name dispute for four years and .co.in was available for use before .in extension was released. In response to the argument given by the respondent, the company stated that the mere fact that at the time of registering the domain with the name [www.starbucks.co.in](#) the .in registry did not ask anything did not bestow upon him any absolute right to use the said domain. The complainant also stated before the arbitrator that he has traded considerably the bonafide right to use the registered trademark Starbucks and the respondent is not having any legitimate interest in the said domain.

The learned arbitrator, after hearing the arguments of both the complainant and respondent, held that the disputed domain name is very similar and confusing to the complainant, and they had the right to the trademark. While answering the question of legitimate interest, it was held by the arbitrator that the respondent did not provide any positive and cogent reasons to prove a legitimate interest in the said domain.

neither provided any evidence for same therefore respondent had got the domain name registered in bad faith and held that domain name to be transferred to the complainant (Starbucks).

Google Inc. v. Gulshan Khatri (2017)

In this particular [case](#), a complaint was filed to challenge the registration of the domain name "googlee.in". In the complaint, it was stated that the respondent domain name is conceptually, visually identical to the complainant domain name and the respondent tries to ride on the goodwill of the complainant which is built over the years. It was contended by the complainant that the respondent domain name "googlee.in" appeared immediately connected with the complainant. It was also contended that the domain name is used for the search engine and would likely perceive the mind of the public and going to create confusion in the mind of the public. The respondent registered the domain in the year 2007 while the complainant domain name "[google.in](#)" was registered and serving the market way back from the year 1997.

The arbitrator in the present case stated the domain name "googlee.in" was identical to the prior registered domain name and directed the registry to cancel the said domain name and transfer the said domain in favour of the complainant.

Aqua Minerals Limited Vs. Mr. Pramod Borse & Anr (2001)

In this particular [case](#), the Hon'ble High Court of Delhi ruled that unless and until a person is having a credible explanation as to why he choose a specific name for registering a domain or for that purpose as a trading name that already existed in the market for a long time and had established its outstanding reputation and goodwill there is no other inference to be drawn than that the said person wanted to trade in the name of the trade name he had picked up for registration or as a domain name because of its being an incorporated name with huge reputation and goodwill which is achieved at after incurring the huge cost and which is involved in the advertisement of the company.

[Electronic Database and its Protection:](#)

Importance of Data Protection and Privacy Policies in Cyber Law

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Introduction

These days a term data protection has become synonymous with the rights of the citizens which are guaranteed by the state. With the beginning of the 21st century, there has been a sharp increase in the development of technology, which subsequently has become an integral part of human life. Today, these technologies have connected to the day to day life of a human being in such a way that, these technologies holds important data related to a user. That's why data protection has become so relevant in safeguarding the interest of an individual.

This data related to an individual can also be collected by the websites. We will look into these concepts in detail.

Importance of data protection in cyber law

With steady development in the Artificial Intelligence (AI) many software applications like Facebook, Google etc. have developed which not only collect and store the personal data of the user but can also further process the data for any other purpose. In the year 2018, the case of Cambridge Analytica has raised the eyes of many states over the protection of personal data of their citizens. There are about 80 countries around the world who had implemented various privacy policies like GDPR (General Data Protection Regulation) in European Council,

Brazil internet Act, 2014 in Brazil, Personal Information Protection and Electronic Data Act (PIPEDA) in Canada, etc. to protect their citizen's personal data.

This huge number of countries apparently reflects the concern of many states over the security of their citizen's personal data. The implementation of various legislations around the world, therefore, includes data protection as one of the branches in cyber law.

Data Protection under General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR)

In recent time, GDPR was implemented by the European Council (EU) in 2018 and comes as one of the stringent legislation to protect the personal data of the people of the European Union. This regulation has proved as a major development in the field of privacy law. With the implementation of this regulation, there has been a major impact on the big tech companies like Google, Facebook etc, and also on many e-commerce sites. This regulation has certainly set new jurisprudence in the space of cyber law. With the implementation of GDPR, the whole domain of privacy rights has gone to the next level. Let's discuss some of its features briefly which has put this regulation far way more ahead with the other regulations around the world.

- **Right to erasure**^[1] – under GDPR, the data subjects have the right to erase their data, having stored with any data controller or processor.
- **Right to data portability**^[2] – under GDPR, the data subjects have the right to port their personal data concerning himself/themselves to one data controller or processor to another.

Data Protection under Indian law

In India, till now there is no exclusive law pertaining to the rights of an individual's privacy. Only there is Information Technology Act, 2000, which deals with cyber crimes and provides remedies against the violation of the act. The act contains few provisions related to the individual's privacy but they are not exhaustive in nature.

Under **section 43A of the Information Technology Act, 2000**^[3], a body corporate who is possessing, dealing or handling any sensitive personal data or information of an individual, and is negligent in implementing and maintaining reasonable security practices in protecting the data and results in wrongful loss or wrongful gain to any person, then such body corporate may be held liable to pay damages to the person so affected. It is important to note that there is no maximum limit specified in the act for the compensation that can be claimed by the affected party in such circumstances.

Information Technology (Reasonable Security Practices and Procedures and Sensitive Personal Data or Information) Rules, 2011 deals with the protection of "Sensitive personal data or information of a person", which includes the personal information relating to:

- Passwords;
- Financial information such as bank account or creditor debit card or other payment instrument details;
- Sexual orientation;
- Medical records and history; and
- Biometric information.

Under **section 72A of the Information Technology Act, 2000**^[4], disclosure of information, knowingly and intentionally, without the consent of the person concerned and in breach of the lawful contract has been also made punishable with imprisonment for a term extending to three years and fine extending to Rs 5,00,000.

Under **Section 69 of the Act**^[5], which is an exception to the general rule of maintenance of privacy and secrecy of the information, provides that where the Government is satisfied that it is necessary for the interest of:

- the sovereignty or integrity of India,
- defence of India,
- security of the State,
- friendly relations with foreign States,

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- public order,
- for preventing incitement to the commission of any cognizable offence relating to above, or
- for the investigation of any offence.

Penalty for the Breach of Confidentiality and Privacy under the act

Section 72 of the Information Technology Act, 2000 doesn't specify the provision relating to the breach of privacy by the data processor but talks about a circumstance under which any person who, in pursuance of any of the powers conferred under the IT Act Rules or Regulations made thereunder, has secured access to any electronic record, book, register, correspondence, information, document or other material without the consent of the person concerned, discloses such material to any other person, such person shall be punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years, or with fine which may extend to Rs 1,00,000 or with both.

Future legislation related to data protection in India

In the near future, it might be possible that India will have exclusive legislation related to Protection of personal data of an individual in India. In 2017, the central government had appointed Justice BNSrikrishna Committee and this committee had released a white paper on Data Protection law in India. In 2018, the central government had presented the personal data protection bill in the parliament but subsequently, this bill was replaced by the personal data protection bill, 2019.

It is evident from the draft of the above-mentioned bill that, the bill has been formulated on the basic principles, which were incorporated by the EU General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR). As it becomes necessary to create a balance between the rights of the citizens and the right to practice a trade and economic activities by an entity.

What is a privacy policy?

A privacy policy is a legal document that discloses the way a party gathers, uses, discloses, and manages a customer or client's data. It fulfills a legal requirement to protect a customer or client's privacy^[6].

Such a privacy policy must provide the following^[7]:

1. clearly and easily accessible statements of its practices and policies;
2. clearly state the type of personal and sensitive personal data or information collected by the business;
3. purpose of collection and usage of such information;
4. about disclosure of information including sensitive personal data or information collected; and
5. Reasonable security practices and procedures adopted by it.

Elements of a privacy policy

The following are the main elements which shall be consisted of a privacy policy, areas follows:

1. **Consent:** The most crucial component of a privacy policy is 'consent'. In this regard, the Supreme Court in *K.S. Puttuswamy*^[8] has made important observations.
2. **Purpose of information collected.**
3. **Disclosure of information.**
4. **Security practices.**

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IT Act and Civil Procedure Code:

From the privacy of your personal data stored with Aadhar to your online movie booking. From your child's Instagram posts to your demat share trading account. From the legality of drone to Uber tracking your movements.....cyberlaw governs your entire world. You are affected by cyber law if you use digital technologies – apps, email, social media, smartphones, online banking, online shopping, etc.

This guide covers Indian cyber law. If you are looking for global cyber laws, see [The Ultimate Guide to Global Cyber Laws](#).

The primary source of cyber law in India is the **Information Technology Act, 2000**

(IT Act) that came into force on 17th October 2000. The cyber law ecosystem in India consists of the IT Act (as amended from time to time) and its allied Acts, Orders, Guidelines, Regulations, and Rules.

In India, cyber laws are primarily under the governance of the

[Ministry of Electronics & Information Technology](#), Government of India. The **Indian Penal Code** (as amended by the Information Technology Act) penalizes several cybercrimes. These include forgery of electronic records, cyber frauds, destroying electronic evidence, etc.

Digital Evidence is to be collected and proven in court as per the provisions of the **Indian Evidence Act** (as amended by the Information Technology Act).

In the case of bank records, the provisions of the **Bankers' Book Evidence Act** (as amended by the Information Technology Act) are relevant. Investigation and adjudication of cybercrimes is done in accordance with the provisions of the

Code of Criminal Procedure, Civil Procedure Code, and the **Information Technology**

Act. The Information Technology Act also amended the **Reserve Bank of India Act** paving the way for digital payments.

[Diploma in Cyber Law](#)

Looking to build your expertise in the cyber laws of India? Check out the [Diploma in Cyber Law](#) conducted by ASCL jointly with Government Law College Mumbai.

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[1. The Need for Cyber Law](#)

Is there a need for a separate field of law to cover cyberspace? Isn't conventional law adequate to cover cyberspace?

Let us consider cases where so-called **conventional crimes are carried out using computers** or the Internet as a tool. Consider cases of spread of pornographic material, criminal threats delivered via email, websites that defame someone or spread racial hatred, etc. In all these cases, the computer is merely incidental to the crime. Distributing pamphlets promoting racial enmity is in essence similar to putting up a website promoting such ill feelings.

Of course, it can be argued that when technology is used to commit such crimes, the effect and spread of the crime increases enormously. Printing and distributing pamphlets even in one locality is a time-consuming and expensive task while putting up a globally accessible website is very easy.

In such cases, it can be argued that conventional law can handle cyber cases. The Government can simply impose a stricter liability (by way of imprisonment and fines) if the crime is committed using certain specified technologies. A simplified example would be stating that spreading pornography by electronic means should be punished more severely than spreading pornography by conventional means.

As long as we are dealing with such issues, conventional law would be adequate. The challenges emerge when we deal with more complex issues such as **'theft of data'**. Under conventional law, theft relates to "movable property being taken out of the possession of someone".

The General Clauses Act defines **movable property** as "property of every description, except immovable property". The same law defines **immovable property** as "land, benefits to arise out of land, and things attached to the earth, or permanently fastened to anything attached to the earth". Using these definitions, we can say that the computer is movable property.

Let us examine how such a law would apply to a scenario where **data is 'stolen'**. Consider my personal computer on which I have stored some information. Let us presume that some unauthorized person picks up my computer and takes it away without my permission. Has he committed theft? The elements to consider are whether some movable property has been taken out of the possession of someone. The computer is movable property and I am the legal owner entitled to possess it. The thief has dishonestly taken his movable property out of my possession. It is theft.

Now consider that some unauthorized person simply **copies the data** from my computer onto his pen drive. Would this be theft? Presuming that the intangible data is movable property, the concept of theft would still not apply as the possession of the data has not been taken from me. I still have the 'original' data on the computer under my control. The 'thief' simply has a 'copy' of that data. In the digital world, the copy and the original are indistinguishable in almost every case. Consider another illustration on the issue of '**possession**' of data. I use the email account rohasnagpal@gmail.com for personal communication. Naturally, a lot of emails, images, documents etc are sent and received by me using this account. The first question is, who 'possesses' this email account? Is it me because I have the username and password needed to 'login' and view the emails? Or is it Google Inc because the emails are stored on their computers? Another question would arise if some unauthorized person obtains my password. Can it be said that now that person is also in possession of my emails because he has the password to 'login' and view the emails?

Another legal challenge emerges because of the '**mobility**' of data. Let us consider an example of international trade in the conventional world. Sameer purchases steel from a factory in China, uses the steel to manufacture nails in a factory in India and then sells the nails to a trader in the USA. The various Governments can easily regulate and impose taxes at various stages of this business process. Now consider that Sameer has shifted to an 'online' business. He sits in his house in Pune (India) and uses his computer to create pirated versions of expensive software. He then sells this pirated software through a website (hosted on a server located in Russia). People from all over the world can visit Sameer's website and purchase the pirated software. Sameer collects the money using a PayPal account that is linked to his bank account in a tax haven country like the Cayman Islands.

It would be extremely difficult for any Government to trace Sameer's activities.

It is for these and other complexities that conventional law is unfit to handle issues relating to cyberspace. This brings in the need for a separate branch of law to tackle cyberspace.

2. What does cyber law cover?

Cyber Law is the legal and regulatory framework relating to

1. Artificial Intelligence
2. Bitcoin & other crypto-currencies
3. Cloud computing
4. Cryptography/Export
5. Cyber Crime Investigation and Forensics
6. Cyber Insurance
7. Cyber security and incident response
8. Cyber Terrorism & Warfare
9. Data breaches and data privacy
10. Digital Evidence
11. Digital payments, credit, debit & cash cards, mobile wallets, net banking, UPI
12. Domain name disputes
13. E-commerce
14. E-governance, E-courts & E-tenders
15. Electronic & Digital Signatures
16. Electronic contracts
17. Electronic voting machines
18. Extradition of cyber criminals
19. Hacking, malware, ransomware, and other cybercrimes,
20. Information Technology Law Compliance
21. Intermediaries like Internet Service Providers (ISPs), Social Media Platforms, Email services, video streaming services

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22. Internet of Things
23. Online education
24. Online gambling & gaming, and pharmacies
25. Online share trading, banking, and tax filing
26. Software licenses
27. Spam, hate speech and trolling
28. Telemedicine
29. Torrents, dark web, P2P networks, and file-sharing
30. Video conferencing

3. Information Technology Act

The major issues addressed by the IT Act relate to:

1. electronic records
2. establishing of authorities
3. Certifying Authorities
4. cybercrimes
5. administrative issues
6. amendments

The Information Technology Act does not apply to:

1. a negotiable instrument (other than a cheque),
2. a power-of-attorney,
3. a trust,
4. a will
5. any contract for the sale or conveyance of immovable property or any interest in such property
6. any such class of documents or transactions as may be notified by the Central Government in the Official Gazette.

bercrimes under

Chapter 9 of the IT Act comes under the jurisdiction of **Adjudicating Officers**. Appeals from orders of the Adjudicating Officers lie to the **Cyber Appellate Tribunal** and appeals from the orders of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal lie to the **High Court**. Other cybercrimes come under the jurisdiction of the **criminal courts**.

Case law is the law that is established through the decisions of the courts and other officials. Case law assumes even greater significance when the wording of a particular law is ambiguous. The interpretation of the Court helps clarify the real objective and meaning of such laws.

In India, courts are bound by decisions of higher courts in the hierarchy. The apex court in India is the **Supreme Court**. Article 141 of the Constitution of India states that "the law declared by the Supreme Court shall be binding on all courts within the territory of India".

The hierarchy of courts is further enshrined in the **Code of Civil Procedure, 1908** and the **Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973**. The chief responsibility of Adjudicating Officers (AO) under the IT Act is to adjudicate on cases under section 43, 44 and 45 of the IT Act, e.g., unauthorized access, unauthorized copying of data, spread of viruses, denial of service attacks, computer manipulations etc.

Certifying Authorities, the **Controller** and other officers/agencies established under the Act and other government agencies like CERT-IND are required to promptly assist the AO.

Appeals against the orders of AO and the Controller lie with the **Cyber Appellate Tribunal**. The primary role of the Controller of Certifying Authorities (CCA) is to regulate the working of the **Certifying Authorities (CA)**. ACA is a business organization that issues digital signature certificates to subscribers. This sets the base for the development of electronic commerce and governance in India.

The CCA also has investigation powers u/s 28 of the IT Act. The CCA can also direct a person to decrypt information under his control. If such a person refuses to comply with the CCA directions he faces 7 years imprisonment u/s 69 of the IT Act.

The investigation of cybercrimes covered by the **Indian Penal Code** is done by the **police**. For cybercrimes covered by the IT Act, investigation can be done by an officer not below the rank of a Inspector of police. According to section 2(h) of the Code of Criminal Procedure, "investigation" includes all the proceedings under this Code for the collection of evidence conducted by a police officer or by any person (other than a Magistrate) who is authorised by a Magistrate in this regard.

Section 28 of the Information Technology Act empowers the following to investigate any contravention of the Act and allied rules and regulations: (1) the Controller (2) any officer authorised by the Controller.

Additionally, section 78 of the Information Technology Act empowers a police officer not below the rank of Inspector to investigate offences under the Act. Offences are defined under Chapter XI of the Act.

Additionally, rule 4(i) of the

Information Technology (Qualification and Experience of Adjudicating Officers and Manner of Holding Enquiry) Rules, 2003 authorizes the Adjudicating Officer to get a matter or report investigated from an officer in the Office of Controller or CERT-IND or from the concerned Deputy Superintendent of Police [Inspector], to ascertain more facts and whether prima facie there is a case for adjudicating on the matter or not.

Additionally, section 80 of the Information Technology Act provides a special power to police officers not below the rank of an Inspector of Police and to other Government officers authorised by the Central Government. Such authorised persons can enter and search any public place. Public places include cyber cafes, hotels, shops etc accessible to the public.

Additionally, they can arrest without warrant any person found in such a public place who is reasonably suspected of:

1. having committed an offence under the Act,
2. committing an offence under the Act,
3. being about to commit any offence under the Act.

4. Chronology of the Indian Cyber Law 2000

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The primary source of cyber law in India is the **Information Technology Act, 2000** (IT Act) which came into force on 17th October 2000. The primary purpose of the Information Technology Act is to provide legal recognition to electronic commerce and

to facilitate filing of electronic records with the Government. The Information Technology Act also penalizes various cyber crimes and provides strict punishments (imprisonment terms up to 10 years and compensation up to crores of rupees).

The **Indian Penal Code** (as amended by the Information Technology Act) penalizes several cyber crimes. These include forgery of electronic records, cyber frauds, destroying electronic evidence etc.

Digital Evidence is to be collected and proven in court as per the provisions of the Indian Evidence Act (as amended by the Information Technology Act).

In case of bank records, the provisions of the **Bankers' Book Evidence Act** (as amended by the Information Technology Act) are relevant. In investigation and adjudication of cyber crimes is done in accordance with the provisions of the **Code of Criminal Procedure, Civil Procedure Code** and the **Information Technology Act**.

The **Reserve Bank of India Act** was also amended by the Information Technology Act.

On 17th October 2000, the **Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000** also came into force.

These rules prescribe the eligibility, appointment and working of Certifying Authorities. These rules also lay down the technical standards, procedures and security methods to be used by a Certifying Authority.

The **Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal (Procedure) Rules, 2000** also came into force on 17th October 2000.

These rules prescribe the appointment and working of the Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal whose primary role is to hear appeals against orders of the Adjudicating Officers.

2001

Information Technology (Certifying Authority) Regulations, 2001 came into force on 9th July 2001. They provide further technical standards and procedures to be used by a Certifying Authority. Two important guidelines relating to Certifying Authorities were issued. The first are the Guidelines for submission of application for license to operate as a Certifying Authority under the Information Technology Act. These guidelines were issued on 9th July 2001.

2002

An **Executive Order** dated 12th September 2002 contained instructions relating to provision of the Act with regard to protected systems and application for the issue of a Digital Signature Certificate.

Next were the

Guidelines for submission of certificates and certification revocation list to the Controller of Certifying Authorities for publishing in National Repository of Digital Certificates. These were issued on 16th December 2002.

Minor errors in the Act were rectified by the **Information Technology (Removal of Difficulties) Order, 2002** which was passed on 19th September 2002.

The Information Technology Act was amended by the **Negotiable Instruments (Amendments and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 2002**. This introduced the concept of electronic cheques and truncated cheques.

Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal (Salaries, Allowances and Condition of Service of other Officers and Employees) Rules, 2002 were passed. This provides for the nature and categories of officers and employees of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal and their scales of pay. Further, the Rules also provide for the regulation of the conditions of service of officers and employees of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal in the matter of pay, allowances, leave, joining time, provident fund, age of superannuation, pension and retirement benefits, medical facilities, conduct, disciplinary matters and other conditions.

2003

On 17th March 2003, the **Information Technology (Qualification and Experience of Adjudicating Officers and Manner of Holding Enquiry) Rules, 2003** were passed. These rules prescribe the qualifications required for Adjudicating Officers. Their chief responsibility under the IT Act is to adjudicate cases such as unauthorized access, unauthorized copying of data, spread of viruses, denial of service attacks, disruption of computers, computer manipulation etc. These rules also prescribe the manner and mode of inquiry and adjudication by these officers.

The appointment of adjudicating officers to decide the fate of multi-crore cyber crime cases in India was the result of the **Public Interest Litigation (PIL) filed by students of Asian School of Cyber Laws (ASCL)**. The Government had not appointed Adjudicating Officers or the Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal for almost 2 years after the passage of the IT Act. This prompted ASCL students to file a Public Interest Litigation (PIL) in the Bombay High Court asking for a speedy appointment of Adjudicating officers.

The Bombay High Court, in its order dated 9th October 2002, directed the Central Government to announce the appointment of adjudicating officers in the public media to make people aware of the appointments. The

division bench of the Mumbai High Court

consisting of Hon'ble Justice A.P. Shah and Hon'ble Justice Ranjana Desai also ordered that the Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal be constituted within a reasonable time frame.

Following this, the Central

Government passed an order dated 23rd March 2003 appointing the "Secretary of Department of Information Technology of each of the States or of Union Territories" of India as the adjudicating officers.

The Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal (Salary, Allowances and other Terms and Conditions of Service of Presiding Officer) Rules, 2003 prescribe the salary, allowances and other

terms for the Presiding Officer of the Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal. **Information Technology (Other Powers of Civil Court Vested in Cyber Appellate Tribunal) Rules 2003** provided some additional powers to the Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal.

Also relevant are the **Information Technology (Other Standards) Rules, 2003**. An important order relating to blocking of websites was passed on 27th February, 2003. Under this, Computer Emergency Response Team (CERT-IND) can instruct Department of Telecommunications (DOT) to block a website. **The Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000** were amended. **The Chhattisgarh Citizen Service (Electronic Governance) Rules, 2003** were passed for effective implementation of e-governance services.

2004

Information Technology (Use of Electronic Records and Digital Signatures) Rules, 2004 have provided the necessary legal framework for filing of documents with the Government as well as issue of licenses by the Government. It also provides for payment and receipt of fees in relation to Government bodies.

The Information Technology (Security Procedure) Rules, 2004 came into force on 29th October 2004. They prescribe provisions relating to secure digital signatures and secure electronic records.

The Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000 were amended.

The Gujarat Information Technology Rules, 2004 were passed in order to regulate cyber cafes in the State of Gujarat. The Rules provide for maintenance of log register by cyber cafe owners, the responsibilities of cyber cafe owners, etc.

The Information Technology (Karnataka) Rules, 2004 were issued in order to regulate cyber cafes in the State of Karnataka. The Rules provide for maintenance of log register by cyber cafe owners, the responsibilities of cyber cafe owners, etc.

2006

The Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000 were amended. **2007**

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The Rajasthan Cyber Cafe Rules, 2007 were passed with a view to regulate cyber cafes in Rajasthan. The Rules provide for maintenance of log register by cyber cafe owners, the responsibilities of cyber cafe owners, etc. **2009**

The Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008, which came into force on 27th October, 2009 has made sweeping changes to the Information Technology Act. The following rules have also come into force on 27th October, 2009:

1. **Information Technology (Procedure and Safeguards for Interception, Monitoring and Decryption of Information) Rules, 2009.**
2. **Information Technology (Procedure and Safeguard for Monitoring and Collecting Traffic Data or Information) Rules, 2009.**
3. **Information Technology (Procedure and Safeguards for Blocking for Access of Information by Public) Rules, 2009.**
4. **The Cyber Appellate Tribunal (Salary, Allowances and Other Terms and Conditions of Service of Chairperson and Members) Rules, 2009.**
5. **Cyber Appellate Tribunal (Procedure for Investigation of Misbehaviour or Incapacity of Chairperson and Members) Rules, 2009.**

The Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000 were amended. **2010**

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The Kerala Information Technology (Electronic Delivery of Services) Rules, 2010 passed to improve delivery of e-services by the Government. **2011**

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Information Technology (Reasonable security practices and procedures and sensitive personal data or information) Rules, 2011 passed. These rules define sensitive personal data or information and form the crux of India's data privacy law. Clarification on **Information Technology (Reasonable security practices and procedures and sensitive personal data or information) Rules, 2011** were also issued.

Information Technology (Intermediaries guidelines) Rules, 2011 passed. These rules explain the due diligence to be observed by intermediaries.

Information Technology (Electronic Service Delivery) Rules, 2011 passed. These rules relate to the system of Electronic Service Delivery by the Government.

Information Technology (Guidelines for Cyber Cafe) Rules, 2011 passed. This provides for registration of cyber cafes, maintenance of log register, identification of user, etc.

The Andhra Pradesh Information Technology (Electronic Service Delivery) Rules, 2011 were issued to improve delivery of e-services by the Government.

The Madhya Pradesh Information Technology (Regulation of Electronic Delivery of Citizen Services and Appointment of Service Provider) Rules, 2011 were passed to regulate the electronic delivery of citizen services, appointment of service provider and for the purpose of effective implementation of e-governance services.

2013

Clarification on **The Information Technology (Intermediary Guidelines) Rules, 2011** issued. According to it, intermediaries should have a publicly accessible and published grievance redressal process by which complaints can be lodged. It also clarifies the words "...shall act within thirty-six hours." as mentioned in sub-rule (4) of Rule 3.

Information Technology (National Critical Information Infrastructure Protection Centre and Manner of Performing Functions and Duties) Rules, 2013 came into force. They lay down the functions and duties of the National Critical Information Infrastructure Protection Centre. **Information Technology (The Indian Computer Emergency Response Team and Manner of Performing Functions and Duties) Rules, 2013** came into force. They lay down the detailed functions, responsibilities and services of the Indian Computer Emergency Response Team.

Information Technology (Salary, Allowances and Terms and Conditions of Service of the Director General, Indian Computer Emergency Response Team) Rules, 2012 were passed on 24th January 2013 regulating the qualifications, experience and other terms and conditions of service of the Director General, Indian Computer Emergency Response Team.

Information Technology (Recognition of Foreign Certifying Authorities Operating under a Regulatory Authority) Regulations, 2013 came into force in order to regulate the conduct of Foreign Certifying Authorities in India operating under a regulatory authority.

Information Technology (Recognition of Foreign Certifying Authorities not Operating under a Regulatory Authority) Regulations, 2013 came into force in order to regulate the conduct of Foreign Certifying Authorities in India not operating under a regulatory authority.

2015

Unique Identification Authority of India (UIDAI) facilities, Information Assets, Logistics Infrastructure and Dependencies declared a protected systems under section 70 of the Information Technology Act.

Digital Signature (End Entity) Rules, 2015 came into force. They deal with long term valid digital signatures. **Information Technology (Security Procedure) Amendments Rules, 2015** came into force. They make minor amendments to the Information Technology (Security Procedure) Rules, 2004.

Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Amendment Rules, 2015 came into force. They make amendments to Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000.

2016

Indian Computer Emergency Response Team authorised to monitor and collect traffic data or information generated, transmitted, received or stored in any computer resource. **Electronic Signature or Electronic Authentication Technique and Procedure Rules, 2016** passed. The delay down the manner in which the information is authenticated by means of digital signatures.

Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) (Amendment) Rules, 2016 passed. These rules made a slight correction to the Information Technology (Certifying Authorities) Rules, 2000.

Cyber Appellate Tribunal (Powers and Functions of the Chairperson) Rules, 2016 passed. These rules lay down the powers and functions of the Chairperson of the Cyber Appellate Tribunal.

Advisory on Functioning of Matrimonial Websites in accordance with the Information Technology Act, 2000 and Rules issued. According to this advisory, "There have been instances where users of matrimonial websites falsify their marital status, age, height, personality, health, social and economic status. In most of the cases victims are women who fall prey to these fraudsters after getting introduced through fake profiles on matrimonial portal". This advisory has been issued to strengthen protective measures for all users of such websites.

Aadhar (Targeted Delivery of Financial

and other Subsidies, Benefits and Services) Act, 2016 came into force on 26th March 2016. Through this legislation, the government plans to target delivery of subsidies and services by assigning unique identity number to individuals residing in India.

Information Technology (Preservation and Retention of Information by Intermediaries Providing Digital Locker Facilities) Rules, 2016 were passed for the preservation and retention of information by intermediaries providing Digital Locker Facilities.

2017

The Government Open Data License National Data Sharing and Accessibility Policy was announced on 10th February, 2017.

2018

On 22nd May, 2018, the **Information Technology (Information Security Practices and Procedures for Protected System) Rules, 2018** came into force. These rules prescribe information security practices and procedures for protected systems.

On 20th December, 2018, the following Security and Intelligence Agencies were authorised for the purposes of interception, monitoring and decryption of any information generated, transmitted, received or stored in any computer resource under the Information Technology Act:

1. Intelligence Bureau;
2. Narcotics Control Bureau;
3. Enforcement Directorate;
4. Central Board of Direct Taxes;
5. Directorate of Revenue Intelligence;
6. Central Bureau of Investigation;
7. National Investigation Agency;
8. Cabinet Secretariat (RAW);
9. Directorate of Signal Intelligence (For service areas of Jammu & Kashmir, North-East and Assam only);
10. Commissioner of Police, Delhi.

2019

The Central Government notified the Regional Forensic Science Laboratory, Northern Range, Dharamshala, District-Kangra (Himachal Pradesh), as Examiner of Electronic Evidence within India, with the following scope:

1. Computer (Media) Forensics excluding Floppy Disk Drive;
2. Mobile Devices Forensics.

IT Act and Criminal Procedural Code:

Defining "Cyber Crimes"

The term "cyber-crimes" is not defined in any statute or rule book. The word "cyber" is slang for anything relating to computers, information technology, internet and virtual reality. Therefore, it stands to reason that "cyber-crimes" are offences relating to computers, information technology, internet and virtual reality.

One finds laws that penalise cyber-crimes in a number of statutes and even in regulations framed by various regulators. The Information Technology Act, 2000 ("IT Act") and the Indian Penal Code, 1860 ("IPC") penalise a number of cyber-crimes and unsurprisingly, there are many provisions in the IPC and the IT Act that overlap with each other.

Parallel Provisions in the IPC and IT Act

Many of the cyber-crimes penalised by the IPC and the IT Act have the same ingredients and even nomenclature. Here are a few examples:

Hacking and Data Theft: Sections 43 and 66 of the IT Act penalise a number of activities ranging from hacking into a computer network, data theft, introducing and spreading viruses through computer networks, damaging computers or computer networks or computer programmes, disrupting any computer or computer system or computer network, denying an authorised person access to a computer or computer network, damaging or destroying information residing in a computer etc. The maximum punishment for the above offences is imprisonment of up to 3 (three) years or a fine of Rs. 5,00,000 (Rupees five lac) or both.

Section 378 of the IPC relating to "theft" of movable property will apply to the theft of any data, online or otherwise, since section 22 of the IPC states that the words "movable property" are intended to include corporeal property of every description, except land and things attached to the earth or permanently fastened to anything which is attached to the earth. The maximum punishment for theft under section 378 of the IPC is imprisonment of up to 3 (three) years or a fine or both.

It may be argued that the word "corporeal" which means 'physical' or 'material' would exclude digital properties from the ambit of the aforesaid section 378 of the IPC. The counter argument would be that the drafters intended to cover properties of every description, except land and things attached to the earth or permanently fastened to anything which is attached to the earth.

Section 424 of the IPC states that "*whoever dishonestly or fraudulently conceals or removes any property of himself or any other person, or dishonestly or fraudulently assists in the concealment or removal thereof, or dishonestly releases any demand or claim to which he is entitled, shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 2 (two) years, or with fine, or with both.*" This aforementioned section will also apply to data theft. The maximum punishment under section 424 is imprisonment of up to 2 (two) years or a fine or both.

Section 425 of the IPC deals with mischief and states that "*whoever with intent to cause, or knowing that he is likely to cause, wrongful loss or damage to the public or to any person, causes the destruction of any property, or any such change in any property or in the situation thereof as destroys or diminishes its value or utility, or affects it injuriously, commits mischief*".

Needless to say, damaging computer systems and even denying access to a computer system will fall within the aforesaid section 425 of the IPC. The maximum punishment for mischief as per section 426 of the IPC is imprisonment of up to 3 (three) months or a fine or both.

Receipt of stolen property: Section 66B of the IT Act prescribes punishment for dishonestly receiving any stolen computer resource or communication device. This section requires that the person receiving the stolen property ought to have done so dishonestly or should have reason to believe that it was stolen property. The punishment for this offence under Section 66B of the IT Act is imprisonment of up to 3 (three) years or a fine of up to Rs. 1,00,000 (Rupees one lac) or both.

Section 411 of the IPC too prescribes punishment for dishonestly receiving stolen property and is worded in a manner that is almost identical to section 66B of the IT Act. The punishment under section 411 of the IPC is imprisonment of either description for a term of up to 3 (three) years, or with fine, or with both. Please note that the only difference in the prescribed punishments is that under the IPC, there is no maximum cap on the fine.

Identity theft and cheating by personation: Section 66C of the IT Act prescribes punishment for identity theft and provides that anyone who fraudulently or dishonestly makes use of the electronic signature, password or any other unique identification feature of any other person shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 3 (three) years and shall also be liable to fine which may extend to Rs. 1,00,000 (Rupees one lac).

Section 66D of the IT Act prescribes punishment for 'cheating by personation by using computer resource' and provides that any person who by means of any communication device or computer resource cheats by personation, shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 3 (three) years and shall also be liable to fine which may extend to Rs. 1,00,000 (Rupees one lac).

Section 419 of the IPC also prescribes punishment for 'cheating by personation' and provides that any person who cheats by personation shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 3 (three) years or with a fine or with both. A person is said to be guilty of 'cheating by personation' if such person cheats by pretending to be some other person, or by knowingly substituting one person for another, or representing that he or any other person is a person other than he or such other person really is.

The provisions of sections 463, 465 and 468 of the IPC dealing with forgery and "forgery for the purpose of cheating", may also be applicable in case of identity theft. Section 468 of the IPC prescribes punishment for forgery for the purpose of cheating and provides a punishment of imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 7 (seven) years and also a fine. Forgery has been defined in section 463 of the IPC to mean the making of a false document or part thereof with the intent to cause damage or injury, to the public or to any person, or to support any claim or title, or to cause any person to part with property, or to enter into any express or implied contract, or with intent to commit fraud or that fraud may be committed.

In this context, reference may also be made to section 420 of the IPC that provides that any person who cheats and thereby dishonestly induces the person deceived to deliver any property to any person, or to make, alter or destroy the whole or any part of a valuable security, or anything which is signed or sealed, and which is capable of being converted into a valuable security shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 7 (seven) years, and shall also be liable to fine.

The only difference between the punishments prescribed under sections 66C and 66D of the IT Act and section 419 of the IPC is that there is no maximum cap on the fine prescribed under the IPC. However, the punishment under section 468 is much higher in that the imprisonment may extend to 7 (seven) years. Further, whilst the IT Act contemplates both the imposition of a fine and imprisonment, the IPC uses the word 'or' indicating that the offence could be punished with imprisonment or by imposing a fine. Most importantly, the fundamental distinction between the IPC and the IT Act in relation to the offence of identity theft is that the latter requires the offence to be committed with the help of a computer resource.

Obscenity: Sections 67, 67A and 67B of the IT Act prescribe punishment for publishing or transmitting, in electronic form: (i) obscene material; (ii) material containing sexually explicit act, etc.; and (iii) material depicting children in sexually explicit act, etc. respectively. The punishment prescribed for an offence under section 67 of the IT Act is, on the first conviction, imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 3 (three) years, to be accompanied by a fine which may extend to Rs. 5,00,000 (Rupees five lac), and in the event of a second or subsequent conviction, imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 5 (five) years, to be accompanied by a fine which may extend to Rs. 10,00,000 (Rupees ten lac). The punishment prescribed for offences under sections 67A and 67B of the IT Act is on first conviction, imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 5 (five) years, to be accompanied by a fine which may extend to Rs. 10,00,000 (Rupees ten lac) and in the event of a second or subsequent conviction, imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 7 (seven) years and also with fine which may extend to Rs. 10,00,000 (Rupees ten lac).

The provisions of sections 292 and 294 of the IPC would also be applicable for offences of the nature described under sections 67, 67A and 67B of the IT Act. Section 292 of the IPC provides that any person who, inter alia, sells, distributes, publicly exhibits or in any manner puts into circulation or has in his possession any obscene book, pamphlet, paper, drawing, painting, representation or figure or any other obscene object whatsoever shall be punishable on a first conviction with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 2 (two) years, and with fine which may extend to Rs. 2,000 (Rupees two thousand) and, in the event of a second or subsequent conviction, with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 5 (five) years, to be accompanied by a fine which may extend to Rs. 5,000 (Rupees five thousand).

Section 294 of the IPC provides that any person who, to the annoyance of others, does any obscene act in any public place, or sings, recites or utters any obscene song, ballad or words, in or near any public place, shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 3 (three) months, or with fine, or with both.

Cyber-crimes not provided for in the IPC
The following cyber-crimes penalised by the IT Act do not have an equivalent in the IPC.

Section 43(h) of the IT Act: Section 43(h) read with section 66 of the IT Act penalises an individual who charges the services availed of by a person on the account of another person by tampering with or manipulating any computer, computer system, or computer network. A person who tampers with the computer system of an electricity supplier and causes his neighbour to pay for his electricity consumption would fall under the aforesaid section 43(h) of the IT Act for which there is no equivalent provision in the IPC.

Section 65 of the IT Act: Section 65 of the IT Act prescribes punishment for tampering with computer source documents and provides that any person who knowingly or intentionally conceals, destroys or alters or intentionally or knowingly causes another to conceal, destroy, or alter any computer source code (i.e. a listing of programmes, computer commands, design and layout and programme analysis of computer resource in any form) used for a computer, computer programme, computer system or computer network, when the computer source code is required to be kept or maintained by law for the time being in force, shall be punishable with imprisonment for up to 3 (three) years or with a fine which may extend to Rs. 3,00,000 (Rupees three lac) or with both.

To a certain extent, section 409 of the IPC overlaps with section 65 of the IT Act. Section 409 of the IPC provides that any person who is in any manner entrusted with property, or with any dominion over property in his capacity as a public servant or in the way of his business as a banker, merchant, factor, broker, attorney or agent, commits a criminal breach of trust in respect of that property, shall be punished with imprisonment for life or with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to 10 (ten) years, and shall also be liable to a fine. However, section 65 of the IT Act does not require that the person who tampers with or damages or destroys computer source documents should have been entrusted with such source code. Under section 409 of the IPC, a criminal breach of trust should have been committed by someone to whom the property was entrusted.

Violation of privacy: Section 66E of the IT Act prescribes punishment for violation of privacy and provides that any person who intentionally or knowingly captures, publishes or transmits the image of a private area of any person without his or her consent, under circumstances violating the privacy of that person, shall be punished with imprisonment which may extend to 3 (three) years or with fine not exceeding Rs. 2,00,000 (Rupees two lac) or with both.

There is no provision in the IPC that mirrors Section 66E of the IT Act, though sections 292 and 509 of the IPC do cover this offence partially.

Section 292 of the IPC has been discussed above. Section 509 of the IPC provides that if any person intending to insult the modesty of any woman, utters any word, makes any sound or gesture, or exhibits any object, intending that such word or sound shall be heard, or that such gesture or object shall be seen, by such woman, or intrudes upon the privacy of such woman, such person shall be punished with simple imprisonment for a term which may extend to 1 (one) year, or with fine, or with both. Unlike section 66E of the IT Act which applies to victims of both genders, section 509 of the IPC applies only if the victim is a woman.

Section 67C of the IT Act: Section 67C of the IT Act requires an 'intermediary' to preserve and retain such information as may be specified for such duration and in such manner and format as the Central Government may prescribe. This section further provides that any intermediary who intentionally or knowingly contravenes this requirement shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 3 (three) years and also liable to a fine. An 'intermediary' with respect to any particular electronic record, has been defined in the IT Act to mean any person who on behalf of another person receives, stores or transmits that record or provides any service with respect to that record and includes telecom service providers, network service providers, internet service providers, web-hosting service providers, search engines, online payment sites, online-auction sites, online-market places and cyber cafes. There is no corresponding provision in the IPC.

Cyber terrorism: Section 66F of the IT Act prescribes punishment for cyber terrorism. Whoever, with intent to threaten the unity, integrity, security or sovereignty of India or to strike terror in the people or any section of the people, denies or causes the denial of access to any person authorized to access a computer resource, or attempts to penetrate or access a computer resource without authorisation or exceeding authorised access, or introduces or causes the introduction of any computer contaminant, and by means of such conduct causes or is likely to cause death or injuries to persons or damage to or destruction of property or disruption or knowing that it is likely to cause damage or disruption of supplies or services essential to the life of the community or adversely affect critical information infrastructure, is guilty of 'cyber terrorism'. Whoever knowingly or intentionally penetrates or accesses a computer resource without authorisation or exceeding authorised access, and by means of such conduct obtains access to information, data or computer database that is restricted for reasons for the security of the State or foreign relations, or any restricted information, data or computer database, with reasons to believe that such information, data or computer database so obtained may be used to cause or likely to cause injury to the interests of the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the State, friendly relations with foreign States, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an offence, or to the advantage of any foreign nation, group of individuals or otherwise, is also guilty of 'cyber terrorism'.

Whoever commits or conspires to commit cyber terrorism shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to imprisonment for life.

There is no provision in the IPC that mirrors section 66F of the IT Act, though section 121 of the IPC (waging, or attempting to wage war, or abetting waging of war, against the Government of India) does cover this offence partially.

Whether Compoundable, Cognizable and Bailable

Section 77A of the IT Act provides that, subject to certain exceptions, all offences under the IT Act for which the punishment is imprisonment for a term of 3 (three) years or less, are compoundable. The provisions of sections 265B and 265C of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 ("CrPC") shall apply with respect to such compounding.

Section 77B of the IT Act provides that notwithstanding anything contained in the CrPC, all offences punishable with imprisonment of 3 (three) years and above under the IT Act shall be cognizable and all offences punishable with imprisonment of 3 (three) years or less shall be bailable.

Most of the cyber-crimes covered under the IT Act are punishable with imprisonment of 3 (three) years or less. The cyber-crimes which are punishable with imprisonment of more than 3 (three) years are:

- publishing or transmitting obscene material in electronic form under section 67 of the IT Act;
- publishing or transmitting of material containing sexually explicit act, etc., in electronic form under section 67A of the IT Act;
- publishing or transmitting of material depicting children in sexually explicit act, etc., in electronic form under section 67B of the IT Act; and
- cyber terrorism under section 66F of the IT Act.

All of the cyber-crimes under the IPC are bailable other than offences under section 420 (*cheating and dishonestly inducing delivery of property*), section 468 (*forgery for the purpose of cheating*), section 411 (*dishonestly receiving stolen property*), section 378 (*theft*) and section 409 (*criminal breach of trust by public servant, or by banker, merchant or agent*), which are non-bailable.

Offences under sections 463 and 465 (*forgery*), sections 425 and 426 (*mischief*), section 468 (*forgery for the purpose of cheating*), section 469 (*forgery for the purpose of harming reputation*) and section 292 (*sale, etc., of obscene books, etc.*) of the IPC are non-compoundable offences while offences under sections 378 and 379 (*theft*), 420 (*cheating and dishonestly inducing delivery of property*), sections 425 and 426 (*mischief when the only loss or damage caused is loss or damage to a private person*), section 509 (*word, gesture or act intended to insult the modesty of a woman*), section 411 (*Dishonestly receiving stolen property*) and section 419 (*Punishment for cheating by personation*) of the IPC are compoundable offences. Of these, offences under sections 420 and 509 can be compounded only with the permission of the court. Most of the cyber-crimes under the IPC are cognizable other than the offences under sections 425 and 426 (*mischief*) and sections 463 and 465 (*forgery*) which are non-cognizable.

The overlap between the provisions of the IPC and the IT Act may sometimes lead to an anomalous situation wherein certain offences are bailable under the IPC and not under the IT Act and vice versa and certain offences are compoundable under the IPC and not under the IT Act and vice versa. For instance, in case of hacking and data theft, offences under sections 43 and 66 of the IT Act that are bailable and compoundable while offences under section 378 of the IPC are non-bailable and offences under section 425 of the IPC are non-compoundable. Further, in case of the offence of receipt of stolen property, the offence under section 66B of the IT Act is bailable while the offence under section 411 of the IPC is non-bailable. Similarly, in case of the offence of identity theft and cheating by personation, the offences under sections 66C and 66D of the IT Act are compoundable and bailable while the offences under sections 463, 465 and 468 of the IPC are non-compoundable and the offences under sections 468 and 420 of the IPC are non-bailable. Finally, in case of obscenity, the offences under sections 67, 67A and 67B of the IT Act are non-bailable while the offences under section 292 and 294 of the IPC are bailable. This issue has been dealt with by the Bombay High Court in the case of *Gagan Harsh Sharma v. The State of Maharashtra*² (discussed below) wherein offences under sections 408 and 420 of the IPC that are non-bailable and cannot be compounded other than

with the permission of the court were in conflict with offences under sections 43, 65 and 66 of the IT Act that are bailable and compoundable.

Conflict between the IPC and the IT Act: Case Law

In the case of *Sharat Babu Digumarti v. Government of NCT of Delhi*³, the conflict between provisions of the IPC and the IT Act came to the fore. In this case, on November 27, 2004, an obscene video had been listed for sale on baazee.com ("Bazee"). The listing was intentionally made under the category 'Books and Magazines' and sub-category 'ebooks' in order to avoid its detection by the filters installed by Baazee. A few copies were sold before the listing was deactivated. Later Delhi police's crime branch charge-sheeted Avinash Bajaj, Bazee's managing director and Sharat Digumarti, Bazee's manager. The company Bazee was not arraigned as an accused and this helped Avinash Bajaj get off the hook since it was held that, vicarious liability could not be fastened on Avinash Bajaj under either section 292 of the IPC or section 67 of the IT Act when Avinash's employer Bazee itself was not an accused. Later changes under section 67 of the IT Act and section 294 of IPC against Sharat Digumarti were also dropped, but the charges under section 292 of the IPC were retained. The Supreme Court then considered if, after the charges under section 67 of the IT Act was dropped, a charge under section 292 of the IPC could be sustained. The Supreme Court quashed the proceedings against Sharat Digumarti and ruled that if an offence involves an electronic record, the IT Act alone would apply since such was the legislative intent. It is a settled principle of interpretation that special laws would prevail over general laws and later laws would prevail over prior legislation. Further, section 81 of the IT Act states that the provisions of the IT Act shall have effect notwithstanding anything inconsistent therewith contained in any other law for the time being in force.

In the case of *Gagan Harsh Sharma v. The State of Maharashtra*⁴, certain individuals were accused of theft of data and software from their employer and charged under sections 408 and 420 of the IPC and also under sections 43, 65 and 66 of the IT Act. All of these sections, other than section 408 of the IPC, have been discussed above. Section 408 of the IPC deals with criminal breach of trust by clerk or servant and states that "whoever, being a clerk or servant or employed as a clerk or servant, and being in any manner entrusted in such capacity with property, or with any dominion over property, commits criminal breach of trust in respect of that property, shall be punished with imprisonment of either description for a term which may extend to seven years, and shall also be liable to fine".

Offences under sections 408 and 420 of the IPC are non-bailable and cannot be compounded other than with the permission of the court. Offences under sections 43, 65 and 66 of the IT Act are bailable and compoundable. Therefore, the petitioners pleaded that the charges against them under the IPC be dropped and the charges against them under the IT Act be investigated and pursued. It was further argued that if the Supreme Court's ruling in *Sharat Babu Digumarti* were to be followed, the petitioners could only be charged under the IT Act and not under the IPC, for offences arising out of the same actions.

The Bombay High Court upheld the contentions of the petitioners and ruled that the charges against them under the IPC be dropped.

A Suitable Home for Cyber Offences

We currently have a situation where a number of offences are penalised by both the IPC and the IT Act, even though the ingredients of both offences are the same. There are subtle differences in punishments under these statutes, especially in aspects like whether the offence is bailable or compoundable or cognizable. An offence such as obscenity may take place through different types of media, both online or offline. However, it could result in unfairness if 2 (two) different statutes apply to the same offence on the basis of the media used.

The sum and substance of the Supreme Court's ruling in the *Sharat Babu Digumarti* case is that no individual may be charged under the IPC for an offence arising out of certain acts or omissions if the IT Act could also be applied to the same acts or omissions. Though we are in full agreement with the Supreme Court's ruling, it is our contention that all cyber offences ought to be housed in the IPC and not in the IT Act. The "cyber" component of an offence is not sufficient reason for differential treatment of sub-categories of the offence. Even though the Supreme Court's ruling in the *Sharat Babu Digumarti* case has ensured that no individual may be charged under the IPC for an offence arising out of certain acts or omissions if the IT Act could also be applied to the same acts or omissions, it is a fact that offences such as theft and obscenity will be punished differently if they involve a 'cyber' element. Currently, an individual who distributes a hard copy book containing obscene materials will be punished under the IPC whilst an individual who distributes obscene materials through the internet will be punished under the IT Act, though the underlying offence is the same. A person who steals a car will be punished under the IPC whilst an individual who indulges in theft of online data will be punished under the IT Act.

Theft is theft, irrespective of whether the stolen property is digital or physical. Obscenity transmitted through the internet should be treated at par with obscenity which is transmitted offline.

IPC's treatment of stalking

The legislature's treatment of the offence of "stalking", accomplished through the insertion of new section 354D in the IPC through the Criminal Law (Amendment) Act, 2013⁵, is a case in point. Section 354D penalises the offence of "stalking" whether it has a cyber component or not. If a man follows a woman and contacts, or attempts to contact, such woman of his personal interaction repeatedly despite a clear indication of disinterest by such woman, it amounts to stalking. If a man monitors the use by a woman of the internet, email or any other form of electronic communication, it will also result in the offence of stalking. There are a few exemptions to this offence of stalking, and all the defences apply irrespective of whether the stalking is cyber stalking or not. The punishment prescribed for stalking by Section 354D of the IPC does not discriminate on the basis of the presence or absence of the "cyber" component.

Amendments to the IPC to cover cyber-crimes

The Indian legislature has from time to time, made a number of amendments to the IPC, to specifically cover cyber-crimes. Some of the important amendments are as follows:

- a. a new section 29A was created to define "electronic record" by linking it with the definition given in the IT Act⁶;
- b. a new sub-section (3) was inserted in section 4 of the IPC (relating to the extension of the IPC to extra territorial offences) that states that the provisions of the IPC shall be applicable to any person in any place "without and beyond India", committing an offence targeting a computer resource located in India⁷;

- c. in sections 118 and 119 of the IPC (that deal with the concealment of a design to commit an offence punishable with death or imprisonment for life and a public servant concealing a design to commit an offence which it is his duty to prevent, respectively), the words "voluntarily conceals by any act or omission or by the use of encryption or any other information hiding tool, the existence of a design" were inserted before the words "to commit such offence or makes any representation which he knows to be false respecting such design"⁸;
- d. in section 464 of the IPC (which penalises the making of a false document), the phrase "digital signature" was replaced with the phrase "electronic signature" in all places. This section was also amended to include the making of false electronic records and affixing electronic signatures under its ambit and the phrase "affixing electronic signature" was given the same meaning as it has under the IT Act⁹;
- e. "electronic record" was included within the ambit of sections 164, 172, 173, 175, 192, 204, 463, 466, 468, 469, 470, 471, 474 and 476 of the IPC that earlier only provided for "documents", "books", "paper", "writing" or "records", as the case may be;
- f. in section 466 of the IPC (which deals with forgery of court records or of public registers), the term "register" was defined to include any list, data or record of any entries maintained in an "electronic form", as defined in section 2(1)(r) of the IT Act¹⁰; and
- g. a new section 354D was inserted in the IPC that introduces the offence of cyberstalking, which has been discussed above.

Bad and ill-thought out drafting

Article 14 of the Constitution of India, 1950 ("Constitution") states that the States shall not deny to any person equality before the law or the equal protection of the laws within the territory of India. It is not our contention that the current state of affairs results in a pervasive violation of Article 14 of the Constitution even though it has created an unhappy state of affairs. The legislature does have the freedom to make specific laws for specific matters or situations. However, the docking of cyber-crimes in the IT Act does not appear to have been well thought through.

When the IT Act was enacted, its focus was on putting in place technology law fundamentals like digital signatures, providing legal recognition for electronic documents and the like. Its preamble stated that its objective was to "provide legal recognition for transactions carried out by means of electronic data interchange and other means of electronic communication, commonly referred to as 'electronic commerce', which involve the use of alternatives to paper-based methods of communication and storage of information, to facilitate electronic filing of documents with the Government agencies and further to amend the Indian Penal Code, the Indian Evidence Act, 1872, the Bankers' Books Evidence Act, 1891 and the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934 and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto."¹¹

Even though the IT Act penalised cyber-crimes with a broad brush through sections 43, 66 and 67, it was only in 2008 that the IT Act was amended¹² and provisions were made for specific cyber-crimes such as sending offensive messages through communication servers, dishonestly receiving a stolen computer resource or communication device, identity theft, violation of privacy, cyber terrorism etc. through sections 66A to 66F and sections 67A to 67C. These amendments stick out like an unwieldy appendage.

Therefore, it is submitted that all cyber offences in the IT Act ought to be repealed and the IPC be suitably modified (to cover all of the cyber-crimes, including those currently covered under the IT Act) at the earliest possible convenience of the legislature.

Relevant Sections of Indian Evidence Act:

Amendments related to the Evidence Act were contained in Sec. 92 and the Second Schedule of the IT Act, 2000. Pursuant to the enactment of the Information Technology (amendment) Act, 2008, Sec. 92 was deleted and the provisions with regard to the Indian Evidence Act were mentioned in Part IV of the amendment Act.

1) Amendment of Sec. 3-

In section 3 relating to interpretation clause, in the paragraph appearing at the end, for the words "digital signature" and "Digital Signature Certificate", the words "Electronic signature" and "Electronic Signature Certificate" shall be respectively substituted.

2) Insertion of new Sec. 45A - Opinion of Examiner of Electronic Evidence - 45A:

When in a proceeding, the Court has to form an opinion on any matter relating to any information transmitted or stored in any computer resource or any other electronic or digital form, the opinion of the Examiner of Electronic Evidence referred to in section 79A of the Information Technology Act, 2000, is a relevant fact. Explanation: For the purposes of this section, an Examiner of Electronic Evidence shall be an expert

3) Amendment of Sec. 47A-

In section 47A,-

(i) for the words "digital signature", the words "electronic signature" shall be substituted; (ii) for the words "Digital Signature Certificate", the words "Electronic Signature Certificate" shall be substituted.

4) Amendment of Sec. 67A-

In section 67A, - for the words "digital signature", the words "electronic signature" shall be substituted.

5) Amendment of Sec. 85A-

In section 85A, for the words "digital signature", wherever they occur, the words "electronic signature" shall be substituted.

6) Amendment of Sec. 85B-

In section 85B, - for the words "digital signature", wherever they occur, the words "electronic signature" shall be substituted.

7) Amendment of Sec. 85C-

In section 85C, for the words "Digital Signature Certificate", the words "Electronic Signature Certificate" shall be substituted.

8) Amendment of Sec. 90A-

In section 90A, the words "digital signature", at both places where they occur, the words "electronic signature" shall be substituted.

Relevant Sections of Reserve Bank of India Act:

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Introduction

Maintaining records is an integral and essential part of the banking institutions. For instance, a customer wants to deposit ₹10,000 in a bank. He deposits the amount with a banker who acknowledges the deposit with a receipt. The banker will then make proper entry of the same in a ledger book or an account book. Later, the customer claims that he deposited ₹15,000 in the bank but only ₹10,000 were credited in his account. In this case, the banker will have appropriate records to verify it. The bank can verify that only ₹10,000 were deposited by the customer. If any legal proceedings are initiated against the bank, it can produce a certified copy of the record. [The Bankers' Books Evidence Act, 1891](#) provides the law with respect to bankers' books and what are the certified copies of the bank records.

Historical overview

Records have been maintained in banking institutions since their inception. The procedure of maintaining records is integral for such establishments. These records are usually maintained in ledger books, account books, etc. These are called bankers' books. The Bankers' Books Evidence Bill was passed by the legislature on 1st October 1891. The main objective of this Act was to make the provisions of [the English Bankers' Books Evidence Act, 1879](#) in India.

In England, this law was brought into force to amend the Law of Evidence with respect to bankers' books. According to this Act, in all legal proceedings, a copy of any entry in the bankers' books such as transactions, accounts shall be treated as a prima facie evidence of such entry.

This Act has been amended by [the Information Technology Act, 2000](#) with the advent of computer systems which are now being used to maintain records in banking institutions rather than on paper.

Importance of this Act

[The Bankers' Books Evidence Act 1891](#) provides guidelines to banking institutions about legal proceedings relating to banking records. This is an Act which was brought into force to amend the Law of Evidence with respect to banking records. In every bank, bookkeeping or recording of transactions is recorded in bank books such as ledger books, registers, account books, and other books used in ordinary courses of business. If there is any discrepancy of these banking records, it will amount to a violation under this Act. Any banking institution or any company that carries out a banking function is bound by this Act if any legal proceeding is initiated against them.

Definitions

[Section 2](#) of the Act defines the following:

- **Company:** Under this Act, a company refers to any company which is defined under [Section 3 of the Companies Act 1956](#) including any foreign company defined under [Section 591](#) of the same Act.
- **Corporation:** Any body corporate established by any law for the time being in force in India is a corporation. It includes the Reserve Bank of India, the State Bank of India and any subsidiary bank as defined in [the State Bank of India \(Subsidiary Banks\) Act 1959](#).
- **Bank/Banker:** According to this Act any company/corporation carrying on the business of banking is a bank or banker. Further, it includes any post office savings bank, any money order office and any partnership/ individual to whom the provisions of this Act have been extended.
- **Bankers' Books:** These refer to ledger books, account books, day books, cash books and other books used in the ordinary course of business of a bank. These records can be kept in a written form or they can be stored in microfilm, magnetic tape or any other form of mechanical or electronic data retrieval mechanism. They may be kept on site or at an off-site location such as a backup or disaster recovery site.
- **Legal proceedings:** Under this Act, legal processing means any proceeding or inquiry under which evidence is given or may be given. It includes arbitration, any investigation/inquiry under [the Criminal Procedure Code, 1973](#) or any other law which is in force for the collection of evidence by a police officer or any other person authorised to do the same by a magistrate or any existing law.
- **The Court:** Under this Act, the court refers to the person(s) before whom the legal proceedings are held.
- **Judge:** A Judge under this Act means a Judge of a High Court Division.
- **Trial:** It refers to any hearing before the Court where evidence is taken.
- **Certified Copy:**
 - With respect to written records, a certified copy means a copy of an entry in the bankers' book with a certificate written at the foot of such copy. It certifies that it is a true copy of the entry and it is contained in ordinary books of banks, made in the ordinary course of business and the concerned book is still in the custody of the bank. A copy can also be obtained mechanically or by any other process that itself ensures the accuracy of the copy, in this case, a certificate to that effect is also required. In certain cases, where the book from which such copy was prepared is destroyed in the usual course of business of the bank, a certificate to that effect is also required. These certificates have to be dated and subscribed either by the principal accountant or the manager of the bank with his name and official title.
 - When the books of records are stored as data in floppy, disk, tape or any other electromagnetic data storage device then the printout of such data or copy of such printout along with statements certified in accordance with [Section 2A](#) is a certified copy.
 - Certified copy also includes the printout of any entry that is stored in microfilm, magnetic tape or any other form of mechanical or electronic data retrieval mechanism that itself ensures the accuracy of such printout as a copy of the entry and containing certificates in accordance with [Section 2A](#).

Important sections and significance

Section 2

[Section 2A](#) It provides that certain certificates shall be accompanied with the printout or copy of printout referred in [Section 2\(8\)](#). They are:

- Certificate by the principal accountant of the branch manager stating that it is:
 - A printout of the entry or
 - A copy of such printout
- Certificate by a person in charge of the computer system containing a brief description of the computer system along with the following:
 - Particulars of safeguards adopted by the system to ensure that only authorised persons have entered the data or performed any other information.

- Particulars of safeguards adopted to ensure prevention and detection of an unauthorised change of data.
- Particulars of safeguards available to retrieve lost data due to reasons such as systematic failure.
- Particulars of the manner in which data is transferred from the system to any removable media such as floppy, disc, tape, or any other electromagnetic data storage device.
- Particulars of the mode of verification ensuring the accurate transfer of such data to the removable media.
- Particulars of the mode of identification of such data storage device
- Particulars of arrangement for custody and storage of such devices
- Particulars of the safeguard to prevent and detect tampering with the system
- Any other factor which can certify the accuracy and integrity of the system. According to Section 2A(c), a certificate is required from the person in charge of the computer system that the computer operated properly at the material time as to the best of his knowledge and that he was provided with relevant data. It further certifies that the printout correctly represents or is derived from the relevant data.

Section 3

Section 3 states the power of the State Government to extend the provisions of this Act. The State Government can extend the provisions of this Act to be applied to the books of any partnership or individual carrying on the business of the banker within territories that fall under its administration. The State government can do so by notification in the official gazette and it can also rescind such notification.

Section 4

Section 4 specifies certain matters which require the production of original entry for proper investigation. According to this section, a certified copy of an entry in a banker's book shall be a prima facie evidence of the existence of such entry. The certified copy shall be admitted as evidence of matters, transactions and accounts recorded in every case. The certified copy shall be admissible to the same extent as an original copy is admissible.

Section 5

Section 5 states that in legal proceedings to which the bank is not a party, unless the court judge makes an order for a special cause, the officer of the bank should not be compelled to either produce bankers' books for proving any content or appear as a witness for proving matters, transactions, and accounts recorded.

Section 6

Section 6(1) provides the provision of inspection of books by the order of the court or the judge. The court or judge may order:

- A party to a legal proceeding to be at liberty to inspect and take copies of entries in a banker's book for purposes of such proceeding or
- The bank to prepare and produce certified copies of all such entries within a specific time accompanied by a certificate dated and prescribed in the prescribed manner, stating that no other is found in the books of the bank relating to the matter in an issue of the proceeding.

According to Section 6(2), the court may also order under Section 5 or Section 6 of the Act with or without summoning the bank which shall be served on the bank three days before the same is required to be obeyed excluding bank holidays unless otherwise directed by the court or judge.

According to [Section 6\(3\)](#), before the expiry of limited time for the obedience of the aforementioned order, the bank may at any time either offer to produce the books of the bank at the trial; or give notice of their intention to show cause against the concerned order which shall not be enforced without any further order.

Section 7

According to [Section 7\(1\)](#), the costs of the application to the court or judge for the purpose of the Act and the cost of anything done or to be done under the order of court or judge, made for the purpose of the Act shall be at the discretion of such court or judge. The court or judge may also order such costs to be paid by the bank to any party in case they have been incurred by any improper delay or fault of the bank.

According to [Section 7\(2\)](#), such order of payment of costs to or by the bank shall be enforced only if the bank is a party to the proceedings.

According to [Section 7\(3\)](#) under Section 7, any order on application to the Court of Civil Judicature awarding costs may be executed as if it were a decree for money passed by itself. However, nothing in Section 7(3) shall be construed to derogate from the power which is possessed by the court or judge making an order for enforcement of the directions relating to the payment of costs.

Section 8

According to [Section 8](#) in the application of sections 5, 6 and 7 the investigation or inquiry under [the Criminal Procedure Code, 1973](#) or any other law which is in force for the collection of evidence by a police officer or any other person authorised to do the same by a magistrate or any existing law, the order of the court or judge referred in sections 5, 6, and 7 shall be construed as referring to an order made by officers of rank Superintendent of Police or above as specified by the appropriate government. Here the appropriate government refers to the government which employs the police officer or any other person conducting the investigation or inquiry.

Amendments

[The Information Technology Act, 2000](#) amended the definition of bankers' books in the Bankers' Books Evidence Act, 1891. The following changes were made by this Act:

- Amendment in [Section 2\(3\)](#): Earlier the definition of bankers' books only contained ledgers, daybooks, cash books, accounts books as well as other books used in the ordinary course of business in a bank. After the amendment, it includes records stored in microfilm, magnetic tape or any other form of mechanical or electronic data retrieval mechanism.
- [Section 2\(8\)\(b\)](#): This sub-clause was added to the definition of a certified copy which includes a printout of any entry that is stored in microfilm, magnetic tape or any other form of mechanical or electronic data retrieval mechanism that itself ensures the accuracy of such printout as a copy of the entry
- [Section 2A](#): This section was added to deal with certification requirements for admissibility of a certified copy in the printout form. It provides which certificates shall be required by the person in charge of the computer system.

Recent judgements

[Om Prakash v. Central Bureau of Investigation](#): In this case, it was held that Section 65B of the Indian Evidence Act is pari materia to [Section 2A](#) of the Bankers' Books Evidence Act. Therefore they should be construed together. Moreover in [Anvar P.V v. P.K. Basheer and Ors](#), it was observed that a special law will always prevail over general law. This implies that even though there is a provision ([Section 65B](#)) of the Indian Evidence Act, the provision that deals specifically with the admissibility of banking records in electronic form are [Section 2A](#) of the Bankers' Books Evidence Act. Thus, following the principle of 'generalia specialibus' [Section 2A](#) will be preferred over [Section 65 B](#) with respect to dealing with banking records in electronic form.

[Sonu@Amar v. State Of Haryana](#): In this case, it was observed that the test to determine an objection pertaining to the admissibility of banking records should be allowed or not depend on whether or not the

defect in question could be cured at the stage of marking the document and the party tendering evidence could have resorted to the regular mode of proof.

Radheshyam G. Garg v. Safiya bai Ibrahim Lightwalla: In this case, it was observed that when an agent of a bank signs a certificate validating the record to be a true copy of the original, maintained in the usual course of business and kept in the bank's custody then the court should not focus on all the conditions provided under [Section 2\(8\)](#) of the Act and take a hyper-technical approach. The conditions provided under [Section 2\(8\)](#) of the Act are directory and not mandatory.

Relevant Sections of Indian Penal Code (1860):

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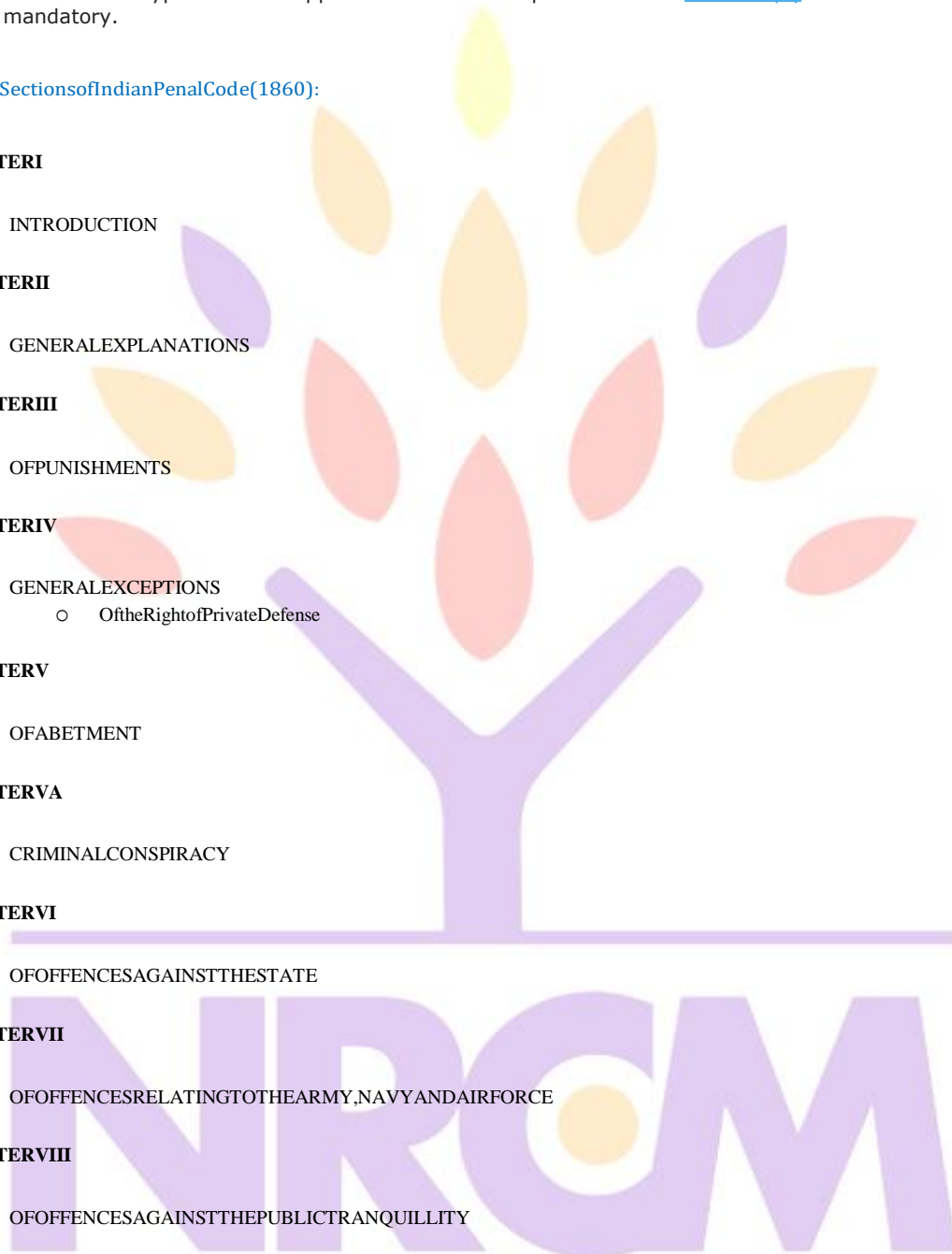
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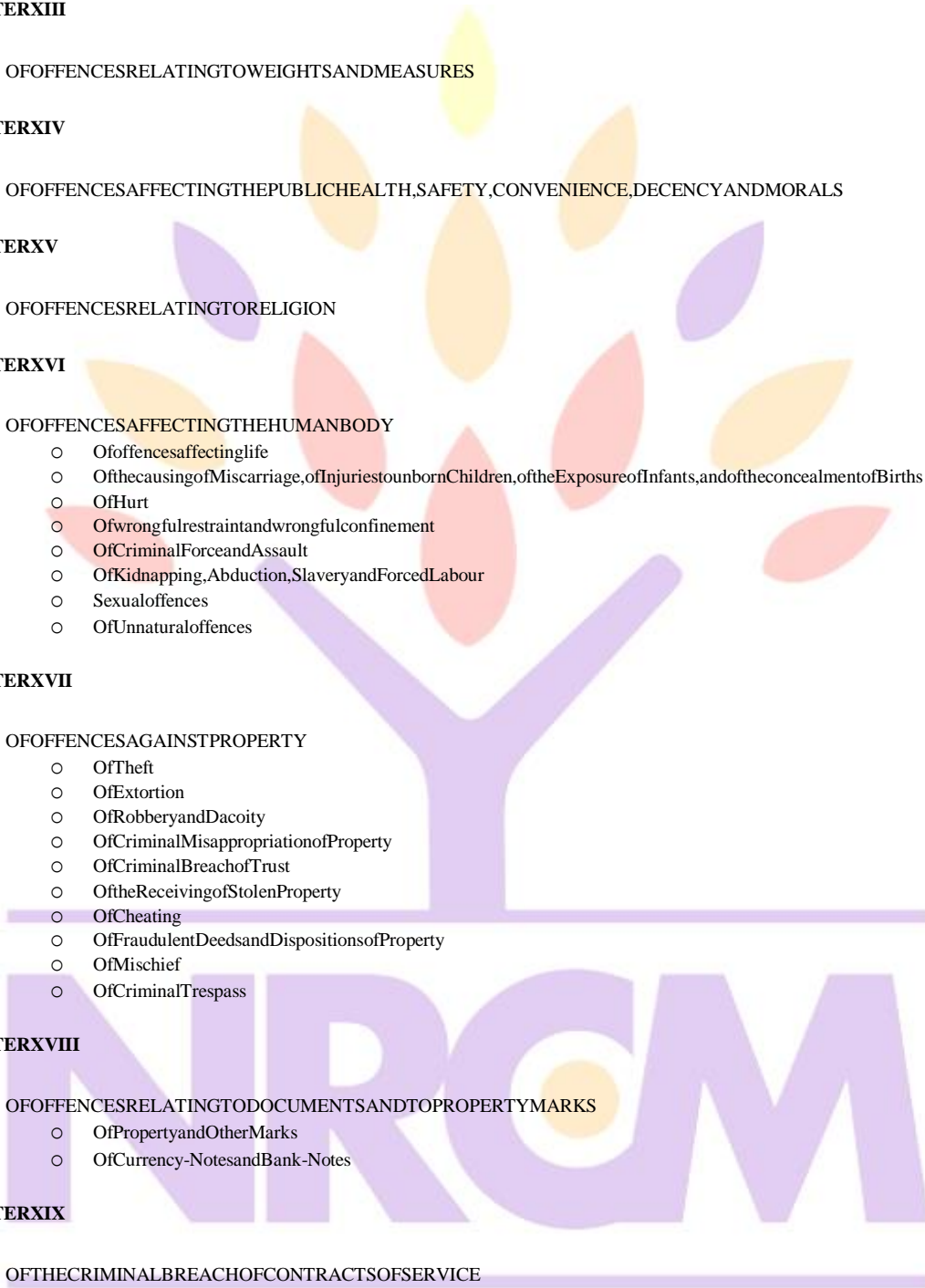
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Relevant Sections of Reserve Bank of India Act:

MASTER DIRECTIONS

 (261kb)

Master Direction on Digital Payment Security Controls

February 18, 2021

The Chairman/ Managing Director/ Chief
Executive Officer All Scheduled
Commercial Banks
excluding RRBs/Small Finance Banks/Payments Banks/Credit Card issuing NBFCs.

Madam/Dear Sir,

Master Direction on Digital Payment Security Controls

Please refer to para II (7) of the Statement on Developmental and Regulatory Policies of the Bi-monthly Monetary Policy Statement for 2020-21 dated December 4, 2020 ([extract given below](#)). The [Master Direction](#) provides necessary guidelines for the regulated entities to set up a robust governance structure and implement common minimum standards of security controls for digital payment products and services.

Yours faithfully,

(T.K.
Chief General Manager

Rajan)

Digital Payment Security Controls

Going by the pre-eminent role being played by digital payments systems in India, RBI gives highest importance to these security controls around it. Now it is proposed to issue Reserve Bank of India (Digital Payment Security Controls) Directions 2020, for regulated entities to set up a robust governance structure for such systems and implement common minimum standards of security controls for channels like internet, mobile banking, card payments, among others. While the guidelines will be technology and platform agnostic, it will create an enhanced and enabling environment for customer to use digital payment products in more safe and secure manner. Necessary guidelines will be issued separately.

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Master Direction on Digital Payment Security Controls INTRODUCTION

In exercise of the powers conferred by the Banking Regulation Act, 1949, the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934 and Payment and Settlement Systems Act, 2007, the Reserve Bank, being satisfied that it is necessary and expedient in the public interest to do so, hereby, issues the directions hereinafter specified.

CHAPTER – I PRELIMINARY

1. Short Title and Commencement

- These directions shall be called the Reserve Bank of India (Digital Payment Security Controls) directions, 2021.
- These directions shall come into effect six months from the day they are placed on the official website of the Reserve Bank of India (RBI). However, in respect of instructions already issued either by Department of Payment and Settlement Systems (DPSS), Department of Regulation (DoR) or Department of Supervision (DoS) of RBI including those to select Regulated Entities (REs), by way of circular or advisory, the timeline would be with immediate effect or as per the timeline already prescribed.

2. Applicability

The provisions of these directions shall apply to the following Regulated Entities (REs):

- Scheduled Commercial Banks (excluding Regional Rural Banks);
- Small Finance Banks;

- c. Payments Banks; and
- d. Credit card issuing NBFCs.

3. Definitions

All expressions unless defined herein shall have the same meaning as have been assigned to them under the Banking Regulation Act, 1949, Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934, Payment and Settlement Systems Act, 2007 or Information Technology Act, 2000/ Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008 and Rules made thereunder, any statutory modification or re-enactment thereof or as used in commercial parlance, as the case may be.

CHAPTER – II GENERAL CONTROLS

Governance and Management of Security Risks

4. REs shall formulate a policy for digital payment products and services with the approval of their Board. The contours of the policy, while discussing the parameters of any “new product” including its alignment with the overall business strategy and inherent risk of the product, risk management/ mitigation measures, compliance with regulatory instructions, customer experience, etc., should explicitly discuss about payment security requirements from Functionality, Security and Performance (FSP) angles such as:

- a. Necessary control to protect the confidentiality of customer data and integrity of data and processes associated with the digital product/ services offered;
- b. Availability of requisite infrastructure e.g. human resources, technology, etc. with necessary backup;
- c. Assurance that the payment product is built in a secure manner offering robust performance ensuring safety, consistency and rolled out after necessary testing for achieving desired FSP;
- d. Capacity building and expansion with scalability (to meet the growth for efficient transaction processing);
- e. Minimal customer service disruption with high availability of systems/channels (to have minimal technical declines);
- f. Efficient and effective dispute resolution mechanism and handling of customer grievance; and
- g. Adequate and appropriate review mechanism followed by swift corrective action, in case any one of the above requirements is hampered or having high potential to get hampered.

The Board and Senior Management shall be responsible for implementation of this policy. The policy shall be reviewed periodically, at least on a yearly basis. REs may formulate this policy separately for its different digital products or include the same as part of their overall product policy. Further, the policy documents should require that every digital payment product/ services offered addresses the mechanisms, clear definition of starting point, critical inter-mittent stages/ points and end point in the digital payment cycle, security aspects, validation till the digital payment is settled, clear pictorial representation of digital path and exception handling. In addition, signing off of the above requirements, mechanism for carrying out User Acceptance Tests (UAT) in multiple stages before rollout, sign off from multiple stakeholders (post UAT) and data archival requirements shall also be taken into account. The need for an external assessment of the entire process including the logic, build and security aspect of the application(s) supporting the digital products should be clearly articulated.

5. REs shall incorporate appropriate processes into their governance and risk management programs for identifying, analysing, monitoring and managing the specific risks, including compliance risk and fraud risk, associated with the portfolio of digital payment products and services on a continual basis and in a holistic manner. The Board/ Senior Management of REs shall have appropriate performance monitoring systems/ key performance indicators for assessing whether the product or service offered through digital payment channels meet operational and security norms.

6. As part of this process, the REs shall define product-level limits on the level of acceptable security risk, document specific security objectives and performance criteria including quantitative benchmarks for evaluating the success of the security built into the digital payment product or service, periodically compare actual results with projections and qualitative benchmark to detect and address adversets or concerns in a timely manner and modify the business plan/ strategy involving the product, when appropriate, based on the security performance of the product or service.

7. REs shall have trained resources with necessary expertise to manage the digital payment infrastructure. Wherever the REs are dependent on third party service providers, adequate oversight and controls for monitoring the activities of the third party personnel, in line with RBI guidelines on outsourcing, shall be put in place.

8. REs shall conduct risk assessments with regard to the safety and security of digital payment products and associated processes and services as well as suitability and appropriateness of the same vis-a-vis the target users, both prior to establishing the service(s) and regularly thereafter. The risk assessment should take into account –

- a. The technology stack and solutions used;
- b. Known vulnerabilities at each of the touch points of the digital product and the remedial action taken by the entity;
- c. Dependence on third party service providers and oversight over such providers;
- d. Risk arising out of integration of digital payment platform with other systems both internal and external to the RE, including core systems and systems of payment systems operators, etc.;
- e. The customer experience, convenience and technology adoption required to use such products;
- f. Reconciliation process;
- g. Interoperability aspects;
- h. Data storage, security and privacy protection as per extant laws/instructions;
- i. Operational risk including fraud risk;
- j. Business continuity and service availability;

- k. Compliance with extant cybersecurity requirements; and
- l. Compatibility aspects.

Such assessment shall cover the surrounding ecosystem as well. The assessment of risks shall address the need to protect and secure payment data¹ and evaluate the resilience of systems. The internal Risk and Control Self-Assessment (RCSA) exercise shall cover the risks (inherent) & controls vis-à-vis the probability and impact of threats to arrive at residual risk. In such an exercise, it is imperative for REs to maintain database of all systems and applications storing customer data in the payment ecosystem and compliance with applicable PCI standards in each of the systems (notwithstanding mandatory requirements of certification/ standard accreditation).

9. REs shall evaluate the risks associated with the chosen technology platforms, application architecture, both on the server and client side. Further, REs should undertake a review of the risk scenarios and existing security measures based on incidents affecting their services, before any major change to the infrastructure or procedures is made or, when, any new threats are identified through risk monitoring activities. Further, unused or unwanted features of the platform should be closely controlled to minimise risk.

10. REs shall develop sound internal control systems and take into account the operational risk before offering digital payment products and related services. This would include ensuring that adequate safeguards are in place to protect integrity of data, customer confidentiality and security of data.

11. REs shall ensure that the digital payment architecture is robust and scalable, commensurate with the transaction volumes and customer growth. The IT strategy of the RE shall ensure that a robust capacity management plan is in place to meet evolving demand. REs shall also put in place review mechanism of IT/IT Security architecture and technology platform overhauls on a periodic basis based on Board-approved policy.

12. REs shall have necessary capacity, systems and procedures in place to periodically test the backed-up data, application pertaining to digital products to ensure recovery without loss of transactions or audit trails. These facilities should be tested at least on a half-yearly basis for digital payment products and services.

Other Generic Security Controls

13. The communication protocol in the digital payment channels (especially over Internet) shall adhere to a secure standard. An appropriate level of encryption and security shall be implemented in the digital payment ecosystem.

14. Web applications providing the digital payment products and services should not store sensitive information in HTML hidden fields, cookies, or any other client-side storage to avoid any compromise in the integrity of the data.

15. REs shall implement Web Application Firewall (WAF) solution and DDoS mitigation techniques to secure the digital payment products and services offered over Internet.

16. The key length (for symmetric/ asymmetric encryption, hashing), algorithms (for encryption, signing, exchange of keys, creation of message digest, random number generators), cipher suites, digital certificates and applicable protocols used in transmission channels, processing of data, authentication purpose, shall be strong, adopting internationally accepted and published standards that are not deprecated/ demonstrated to be insecure/ vulnerable and the configurations involved in implementing such controls are in general, compliant with extant instructions and the law of the land.

17. REs shall renew their digital certificates used in digital payment ecosystem well in time.

18. The mobile application² and internet banking applications should have effective logging and monitoring capabilities to track user activity, security changes and identify anomalous behaviour and transactions.

Application Security Life Cycle (ASLC)

19. REs shall implement multi-tier application architecture, segregating application, database and presentation layer in the digital payment products and services.

20. REs shall follow a 'secure by design' approach in the development of digital payment products and services. REs shall ensure that digital payment applications are inherently more secure by embedding security within their development lifecycle.

21. REs shall explicitly define security objectives (including protection of customer information/ data) during (a) requirements gathering, (b) designing, (c) development, (d) testing including source code review, (e) implementation, maintenance & monitoring and (f) decommissioning phases of the digital payment applications.

22. REs (including those partnering with other entities to co-brand/ co-develop applications) shall adopt and incorporate a threat modelling approach during application lifecycle management into their policies, processes, guidelines and procedures.

23. For digital payment applications that are licensed by a third party vendor, REs shall have an escrow arrangement for the source code to ensure continuity of services in case the vendor defaults or is unable to provide services.

24. REs shall conduct security testing including review of source code, Vulnerability Assessment (VA) and Penetration Testing (PT) of their digital payment applications to assure that the application is secure for putting through transactions while preserving confidentiality and integrity of the data that is stored and transmitted. Such testing should invariably cover compliance with various standards like OWASP. If the source code is not owned by the RE, then, in such cases, the RE shall obtain a certificate from the application developer stating that the application is free of known vulnerabilities, malwares and any covert channels in the code. In this context,

- a. The VA shall be conducted at least on a half-yearly basis; PT shall be conducted at least on a yearly basis. In addition, VA/PT shall be conducted as and when any new IT Infrastructure or digital payment application is introduced or when any major change is performed in application or infrastructure;
- b. Testing related to review of source code/ certification shall be conducted/ obtained. This shall continue on a yearly basis, if changes/ upgrades have been made to the application during the year;
- c. Testing/ Certifications should broadly address the objective that the product/ version/ module(s) function only in a manner that it is intended to do, is developed as per the best secure design/ coding practices and standards, addressing known flaws/ threats due to insecure coding; and
- d. Penal provisions shall be included by the RE into third-party contractual arrangements for any non-compliance by the application provider.

25. REs may also run automated VA scanning tools to automatically scan all systems on the network that are critical, public facing or store customer sensitive data on a continuous/ more frequent basis.

26. REs shall compare the results from earlier vulnerability scans to verify/ascertain that vulnerabilities are addressed either by patching, implementing a compensating control, or documenting and accepting the residual risk with necessary approval and that there is no recurrence of the known vulnerabilities. The identified vulnerabilities should be fixed in a time-bound manner.

27. REs shall ensure that all vulnerability scanning is performed in an authenticated mode either with agents running locally on the system to analyse the security configuration or with remote scanners that are given administrative rights on the system being tested.³

28. REs shall verify and thoroughly test the functionality (to validate whether the system meets the functional requirements/specifications) and security controls of payment products and services before its launch/ moving to the production environment.

29. REs shall institute a mechanism to actively monitor for the non-genuine/unauthorised/malicious applications (with similar name/features) on popular app-stores and the Web and respond accordingly to bring them down.

30. The server at the RE's end should have adequate checks and balances to ensure that no transaction is carried out through non-genuine/unauthorised digital payment products/applications and the authentication process is robust, secure and centralised.

31. These security controls for digital payment applications must focus on how these applications handle, store and protect payment data. The APIs for secured data storage and communication have to be implemented and used correctly in order to be effective. REs shall refer to standard ss such as OWASP-MASVS, OWASP-ASVS and other relevant OWASP standards, security and data protection guidelines in ISO

12812, threat catalogues and guides developed by NIST (including for Bluetooth and LTE security), for application security and other protection measures. Such testing has to necessarily verify for vulnerabilities including, but not limited to OWASP/OWASP Mobile Top 10, application security guidelines/ requirements developed/ shared by operating system providers/ OEMs.

32. REs shall redact/mask customer information such as account numbers/card numbers/ other sensitive information when transmitted via SMS/ e-mails.

Authentication Framework

33. In view of the proliferation of cyber-attacks and their potential consequences, REs should implement, except where explicitly permitted/ relaxed, multi-factor authentication for payments through electronic modes and fund transfers, including cash withdrawals from ATMs/ micro-ATMs/ business correspondents, through digital payment applications. At least one of the authentication methodologies should be generally dynamic or non-replicable. [e.g., Use of One Time Password, mobile devices (device binding and SIM), biometric/ PKI/ hardware tokens, EMV chip card (for Card Present Transactions) with server-side verification could be termed either in dynamic or non-replicable methodologies.].

34. REs may also adopt adaptive authentication to select the right authentication factors depending on risk assessment, user risk profile and behaviour. Properly designed and implemented multi-factor authentication methods are more reliable and stronger fraud deterrents and are more difficult to compromise. The key objectives of multi-factor authentication are to protect the confidentiality of payment data as well as enhance confidence in digital payment by combating various cyber-attack mechanisms like phishing, key logging, spyware/malware and other internet-based fraud targeted at REs and their customers. In this regard,

- a. The implementation of appropriate authentication methodologies should be based on an assessment of the risk posed by the RE's digital payment products and services. The risks should be evaluated in light of the type of customer (e.g., retail/corporate/commercial); the customer transactional requirements/pattern (e.g., bill payment, fund transfer), the sensitivity of customer information and the volume, value of transactions involved.
- b. Beyond the technology factor, the success of a particular authentication method depends on appropriate policies, procedures, and controls. An effective authentication method should take into consideration customer acceptance, ease of use, reliable performance, scalability to accommodate growth, customer profile, location, transaction, etc., and interoperability with other systems.
- c. To enhance online processing security, multi factor authentication and alerts (like SMS, e-mail, etc.) should be applied in respect of all payment transactions (including debits and credits), creation of new account linkages (addition/modification/deletion of beneficiaries), changing account details or revision of fund transfer limits. In devising these security features, REs should take into account their efficacy and differing customer preferences for additional online protection.
- d. The alerts and OTPs received by the customer for online transactions shall identify the merchant name, wherever applicable, rather than the payment aggregator through which the transaction was effected.
- e. As an integral part of the multi factor authentication architecture, REs should also implement appropriate measures to minimise exposure to a middle man attack which is more commonly known as a man-in-the-middle attack (MITM), man-in-the-browser (MITB) attacker or man-in-the-application attack. This is to ensure, among other things, that the data in transit is secured and the transactions are authenticated only by genuine/ authorised source/ process.
- f. An authenticated session, together with its encryption protocol, should remain intact throughout the interaction with the customer. Else, in the event of interference or in case the customer closes the application, the session should be terminated, and the affected transactions resolved or reversed out. The customer should be promptly notified about the status of the transaction by email, SMS or through other means.

35. REs should set down the maximum number of failed log-in or authentication attempts after which access to the digital payment product/ service is blocked. They should have a secure procedure in place to re-activate the access to blocked product/ service. The customer shall be notified for failed log-in or authentication attempts.

Fraud Risk Management

36. The REs shall document and implement the configuration aspects for identifying suspicious transactional behaviour in respect of rules, preventive, detective types of controls, mechanism to alert the customers in case of failed authentication, timeframe for the same, etc.

37. System alerts shall be parameterised and monitored in terms of various applicable parameters. Such parameters, as applicable could be: transaction velocity (e.g., fund transfers, cash withdrawals, payments through electronic modes, etc.) in a short period, more so in the accounts of customers who've never used mobile app/internet banking/car device (depending upon the type of pa

ymentchannel), high risk merchant categorycodes (MCC) parameters, counterfeit card parameters (Stringof Invalid CVV/
PINsindicates anaccount generation attack), new account parameters (excessive activity on a new account), time zones, geo-
locations,IPaddressorigin(inrespectofunusualpatterns,prohibitedzones/rogueIPs),behaviouralbiometrics,transactionoriginationfrompointof



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compromise, transactions to mobile wallets/mobile numbers/VPAs on whom vishing fraud or other types of frauds is/are registered/recorded, declined transactions, transactions with no approval code, etc.

38. Fraud analysis shall be conducted to identify the reason for fraud occurrence and determine mechanisms to prevent such frauds.

39. The staff, especially in the fraud control function, shall be educated about frauds and trained in the following skills and areas of expertise:

- a. Fraud control tools and their usage;
- b. Investigative techniques and procedures;
- c. Cardholder and merchant education techniques to prevent fraud;
- d. Scheme/Card operating regulations;
- e. Data processing and analysis and liaising or communicating with law enforcement agencies; and
- f. The requisite skills required to (i) set and update appropriate rules, (ii) monitor the exception thrown based on the rules on a continuous basis and take necessary actions promptly, (iii) communicate/escalate wherever required to appropriate authorities, and (iv) differentiate false positives from the rest.

40. REs shall maintain updated contact details of service providers, intermediaries, external agencies and other stakeholders (including other REs) for coordination in incident response. REs shall put in place a mechanism with the stakeholders to update such contact details. REs shall also formulate specific SOPs to handle incidents related to payment ecosystem to mitigate the loss either to the customer or RE.

Reconciliation Mechanism

41. A real time/near-real time (not later than 24 hours from the time of receipt of settlement file(s)) reconciliation framework for all digital payment transactions between RE and all other stakeholders such as payments system operators, business correspondents, card networks, payments system processors, payment aggregators, payment gateways, third party technology service providers, other participants, etc., shall be put in place for better detection and prevention of suspicious transactions. A mechanism shall be introduced to monitor the implementation and effectiveness of such framework.

Customer Protection, Awareness and Grievance Redressal Mechanism

42. REs shall incorporate secure, safe and responsible usage guidelines and training materials for end users within the digital payment applications. They shall also make it mandatory (i.e.

not providing any option to circumvent/avoid the material) for the consumer to go through secure usage guidelines (even in the consumer's preferred language) while obtaining and recording confirmation during the onboarding procedure in the first instance and first use after each update of the digital payment application or after major updates to secure and safe usage guidelines.

43. REs shall mention/incorporate a section on the digital payment application clearly specifying the process and procedure (with forms/contact information, etc.) to lodge consumer grievances. A mechanism to keep this information periodically updated shall also be put in place. The reporting facility on the applications shall provide an option for registering a grievance. Customer dispute handling, reporting and resolution procedures, including the expected timelines for the RE's response should be clearly defined.

44. REs shall adhere to extant instructions⁴, updated from time to time, to put in place system/s for online dispute resolution for resolving disputes and grievances of customers pertaining to digital payments.

45. REs shall educate customers about the need to maintain the physical and logical security of their devices accessing digital payment products and services including recommending secure/regular installation of operating system and application updates, downloading applications only from authorised sources, having anti-malware/anti-virus applications on devices, etc.

46. REs shall ensure that its customers are provided information about the risks, benefits and liabilities of using digital payment products and its related services before they subscribe to them. Customers shall also be informed clearly and precisely on their rights, obligations and responsibilities on matters relating to digital payments, and, any problems that may arise from its service unavailability, processing errors and security breaches. The terms and conditions including customer privacy and security policy applying to digital payment products and services shall be readily available to customers within the product. All digital channels are to be offered on express willingness of customers and shall not be bundled without their knowledge.

47. Whenever new operating features or functions, particularly those relating to security, integrity and authentication, are introduced to online delivery channels, clear and effective communication followed by sufficient instructions to properly utilise such new features should be provided to the customers.

48. REs may continuously create public awareness on the types of threats and attacks used against the consumers while using digital payment products and precautionary measures to safeguard against the same. Customers shall be cautioned against commonly known threats in recent times like phishing, vishing, reverse-phishing, remote access of mobile devices and educated to secure and safeguard their account details, credentials, PIN, card details, devices, etc.

49. REs shall provide digital payment products and services, to a customer only after his option based on specific written or authenticated electronic requisition along with a positive acknowledgement of the terms and conditions.

50. REs should provide a mechanism on their mobile and internet banking application for their customers to, with necessary authentication, identify/mark a transaction as fraudulent for seamless and immediate notification to his RE. On such notification by the customer, the REs may endeavour to build the capability for seamless/instant reporting of fraudulent transactions to the corresponding beneficiary/counterparty's RE; vice-versa have mechanism to receive such fraudulent transactions reported from other REs. The objective of this mechanism is to accelerate early detection and enable the banking/payment system to trace the transaction trail and mitigate the loss to the defrauded customer at the earliest possible time.

Chapter III

INTERNET BANKING SECURITY CONTROLS

In addition to the controls prescribed in [Chapter II](#), the following instructions are applicable to REs offering/intending to offer internet banking facility to their customers:

51. Internet banking websites are vulnerable to authentication related brute force attacks/ application layer Denial of Service(DoS)attacks. Based on the RE's individual risk/ vulnerability assessment on authentication-related attacks such as brute force/ DoSattacks,REs shall implement additional levels of authentication to internet bankingwebsite such asadaptive authentication, strongCAPTCHA(preferably with anti-bot features) with server-side validation, etc., in order to plug this vulnerability and prevent itsexploitation.Appropriate measures shall be taken to prevent DNS cache poisoning attacks and for secure handling of cookies.Virtual keyboard option should be made available.

52. An online session shall be automatically terminated after a fixed period of inactivity.

53. Secure delivery of password for login purpose shall be ensured. The password generated and dispatched by the RE should be valid for a limited period from the date of its creation. If the password is generated and dispatched by the RE, then, the user shall be compulsorily required to change the password, on the first login.

54. When the internet banking application is accessed through external websites (eg: in case of payment of taxes, e-commerce transactions, etc.), the procedure for authentication and the appearance/look and feel of the RE's internet banking sites should be made uniform as far as possible.

Chapter IV

MOBILE PAYMENTS APPLICATION SECURITY CONTROLS

In addition to the controls prescribed in [Chapter II](#), the following instructions are applicable to the RE offering/intending to offer mobile banking/ mobile payments facility to their customers through mobile application:

55. On detection of any anomalies or exceptions for which the mobile application was not programmed, the customers shall be directed to remove the current copy/instance of the application and proceed with installation of a new copy/instance of the application. RE shall be able to verify the version of the mobile application before the transactions are enabled.

56. Specific Controls for mobile applications include:

- a. Device policy enforcement (allowing app installation/execution after baseline requirements are met);
- b. Application secured download/install;
- c. Deactivating older application versions in a phased but time bound manner (not exceeding six months from the date of release of newer version) i.e., maintaining only one version (excluding the overlap period while phasing out older version) of the mobile application on a platform/ operating system;
- d. Storage of customer data;
- e. Device or application encryption;
- f. Ensuring minimal data collection/app permissions;
- g. Applications sandbox/containerisation;
- h. Ability to identify remote access applications (to the extent possible) and prohibit login access to the mobile application, as a matter of precaution; and
- i. Code obfuscation.

57. RE may consider to perform validation on the security and compatibility condition of the device/operating system and the mobile application to ensure that activities relating to the account are put through the mobile application in a safe and secure manner.

58. RE may explore the feasibility of implementing a code that checks if the device is rooted/jailbroken prior to the installation of the mobile application and disallow the mobile application to install/ function if the phone is rooted/ jailbroken.

59. Checksum of current active version of applications shall be hosted on public platforms so that users can verify the same.

60. RE shall ensure device binding of mobile application⁵.

61. Considering that the additional factor of authentication and mobile application may reside on the same mobile device in the case of mobile banking, mobile payments, REs may consider implementing alternatives to SMS-based OTP authentication mechanisms.

62. The mobile applications should require re-authentication whenever the device or application remains unused for a designated period and each time the user launches the application. Applications must be able to identify new network connections or connections from unsecured networks like unsecured Wi-Fi connections and must implement appropriate authentication/ checks/ measures to perform transactions under those circumstances.

63. The mobile applications should not store/retain sensitive personal/consumer authentication information such as user IDs, passwords, keys, hashes, hard coded references on the device and the application should securely wipe any sensitive customer information from memory when the customer/ user exits the application.

64. RE shall ensure that the mobile application limit the writing of sensitive information into 'temp' files. The sensitive information written in such files must be suitably encrypted/ masked/ hashed and stored securely.

65. RE may consider designing anti-malware capabilities into their mobile applications.

66. RE shall ensure that the usage of raw (visible) SQL queries in mobile application to fetch or updated data from databases is avoided. Mobile applications should be secured from SQL injection type of vulnerabilities. Sensitive information should be written to the database in an encrypted form. Web content, as part of the mobile application's layout, should not be loaded if errors are detected during SSL/TLS negotiation. Certificate errors on account of the certificate not being signed by a recognised certificate authority; expiry/revocation of the certificate must be displayed to the user.

Chapter V

CARD PAYMENTS SECURITY

In addition to the controls prescribed in [Chapter II](#), the following instructions are applicable to the RE offering/intending to issue cards (credit/ debit/ prepaid) (physical or virtual) to their customers:

67. REs shall follow various payment card standards (over and above PCI-DSS and PA-DSS⁶) as per Payment Card Industry (PCI) prescriptions for comprehensive payment card security as per applicability/ readiness of updated versions of the standards such as –

- a. PCI-PIN (secure management, processing, and transmission of personal identification number (PIN) data);
- b. PCI-PTS (security approval framework addresses the logical and/or physical protection of cardholder and other sensitive data at point of interaction (POI) devices and hardware security modules (HSMs);
- c. PCI-HSM (securing cardholder authentication applications and processes including key generation, key injection, PIN verification, secure encryption algorithm, etc.); and
- d. PCI-P2PE (security standard that requires payment card information to be encrypted instantly upon its initial swipe and then securely transferred directly to the payment processor).

68. REs should ensure that terminals installed at the merchants for capturing card details for payments or otherwise are validated against the PCI-P2PE program to use PCI-approved P2PE solutions; PoS terminals with PIN entry installed at the merchants for capturing card payments (including the double swipe terminals) are approved by the PCI-PTS program.

69. Acquirers shall secure their card payment infrastructure (Unique Key Per Terminal – UKPT or Derived Unique Key Per Transaction – DUKPT/ Terminal Line Encryption – TLE).

70. These security controls to be implemented at HSM are:

- a. The HSM should have logging enabled, the logs must themselves be tamper proof;
- b. HSM can become a single point of failure. This needs to be mitigated by ‘clustering’ for high availability and ensure secure backups;
- c. Access to the HSM should be controlled through Access Control Lists (ACLs);
- d. Separate ACLs should be maintained for each individual application to ensure application level isolation;
- e. All access to HSM should be managed and monitored using a robust Privileged Identity and Access Management solution;
- f. Decryption and validation of keys, PINs should be done at HSM;
- g. Card PIN generation and printing should be directly at system connected HSM;
- h. CVV generation and validation should be done at HSM;
- i. Ensure HSM is implemented with secure PIN block format with control to disable outputting PIN block in weaker format;
- j. Secure key management for HSMs (such as LMKs, etc.); and
- k. Security of the physical keys of the HSM devices should be properly maintained.

71. REs shall implement the following for improving the security posture of the ATM:

- a. Implement security measures such as BIOS password, disabling USB ports, disabling auto-run facility, applying the latest patches of operating system and other softwares, terminal security solution, time-based admin access, etc;
- b. Implement anti-skimming and whitelisting solution; and
- c. Upgrade all the ATMs with supported versions of operating system. Use of ATM that have unsupported operating systems shall be prohibited.

72. REs shall ensure robust surveillance/monitoring of card transactions (especially overseas cash withdrawals) and setting up of rules and limits commensurate with their risk appetites. REs shall take up with the card network and/ or ATM network as the case may be, to put in place transaction limits at Card, BIN as well as at the RE level. Such limits shall be mandatorily set at the card network switch itself. Limits could be mandated both for domestic as well as international transactions separately. REs shall put in place transaction control mechanisms with necessary caps (restrictions on transactions), if any of the limits set as per the requirements is breached. A periodic review mechanism of such limits set as per the risk appetite of the RE shall be put in place as per the Board-

approved policy. REs shall institute a mechanism to monitor breaches, if any, on a 24x7 basis, including weekends, long holidays and put in place a robust incident response mechanism to mitigate the fraud loss, on account of suspicious transactions, if any. REs shall ensure that card details of the customers are not stored in plaintext at the RE and its vendor(s) locations, systems and applications. REs shall also ensure that the processing of card details in readable format is performed in a secure manner to strictly avoid data leakage of sensitive customer information.

73. REs that use card data scanning tool to identify unencrypted (cleartext) payment card data in their ecosystem especially during audits shall adhere to the following safety measures:

- a. Any tool (procured by/ from a third-party) for the purpose of scanning of unencrypted card data should first be tested in a test environment to understand the scope and impact of the tool's capabilities;
- b. The scanning tool should be installed only in the RE's premises on their devices;
- c. Card data scanning should not be done remotely;
- d. The discovered data, if any, must preferably reside in the scanning tool. Exportable card data must be appropriately masked. (No data, even masked, must be taken out of the RE's premises/ infrastructure); and
- e. Limited access to service provider to conduct the scan or analyse the data, if at all, must be provided only on the RE's devices.

Acronyms

ACL

Access Control List



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BIN	BankIdentificationNumber
BIOS	BasicInput/OutputSystem
CAPTCHA	CompletelyAutomatedPublicTuringtesttotellComputersandHumansApart
CVV	CardVerificationValue
DDoS	DistributedDenialofService
DNS	DomainNameServer
DoR	DepartmentofRegulation
DoS	DepartmentofSupervision
DPSS	DepartmentofPaymentandSettlementSystems
DUKPT	DerivedUniqueKeyperTransaction
EMV	Europay,Mastercard,andVisa
FSP	Functionality,SecurityandPerformance
HSM	HardwareSecurityModule
HTML	HyperTextMarkupLanguage
IP	InternetProtocol
IT	InformationTechnology
IVR	InteractiveVoiceResponse
LMK	LocalMasterKey
MCC	MerchantCategoryCode
MITB	Man-in-TheBrowserattack
MITM	Man-In-the-Middleattack
NIST	NationalInstituteofStandardsandTechnology
OEM	OriginalEquipmentManufacturer
OTP	OneTimePassword
OWASP	OpenWebApplicationSecurityProject
OWASP-ASVS	OpenWebApplicationSecurityProject–ApplicationSecurityVerificationStandard
OWASP-MASVS	OpenWebApplicationSecurityProject–MobileApplicationSecurityVerificationStandard
PA-DSS	PaymentApplicationDataSecurityStandard
PCI	PaymentCardIndustry
PCI-DSS	PaymentCardIndustry-DataSecurityStandard
PCI-HSM	PaymentCardIndustry-HardwareSecurityModule
PCI-P2PE	PaymentCardIndustry-PointtoPointEncryption
PCI-PTS	PaymentCardIndustry-PINTransactionSecurity
PIN	PersonalIdentificationNumber
PKI	PublicKeyInfrastructure
PoS	PointofSale
PT	PenetrationTesting
RBI	ReserveBankofIndia
RCSA	RiskControlSelf-Assessment
REs	RegulatedEntities
SIM	SubscriberIdentificationModule
SOP	StandardOperatingProcedure
SQL	StructuredQueryLanguage
SSL	SecureSocketLayer
TLE	TerminalLineEncryption
TLS	TransportLayerSecurity
UAT	UserAcceptanceTest
UKPT	UniqueKeyPerterminal
USB	UniversalSerialBus
VA	VulnerabilityAssessment
VPA	VirtualPaymentAddress
WAF	WebApplicationFirewall

¹customerdata;customerandbeneficiaryaccountdetails;paymentcredentials;transactiondata;

²Mobilebanking,mobilepaymentapplicationsoftheregulatedentities

³SANSCriticalSecurityControls

⁴[RBI/2020-21/21DPSS.CO.PDNo.116/02.12.004/2020-21circulardatedAugust6,2020](#)on'OnlineDisputeResolution (ODR) System for Digital Payments'

⁵The device binding should be preferably implemented through a combination of hardware, software and service information.Incase,theREallowsmultipledevicestoberegistered,then,(a)theusermustbenotifiedofeverynewdeviceregistration on multiple channels such as registered mobile number, email or phone call and (b) in relation to the mobile application,RE must maintain a record of all registered devices, providing the user a facility to disable a registered device.

⁶PCISecureSoftwareStandard,aPCIstandardwithinPCISoftwareSecurityFramework(SSF)willreplacePA-DSSasthe primary standard for securing payment software in 2022. (ref: PCI security standards website)

1. [1.Cybercrime](#)
2. [2.CybersecurityLaws](#)
3. [3.PreventingAttacks](#)
4. [4.SpecificSectors](#)
5. [5.CorporateGovernance](#)
6. [6.Litigation](#)
7. [7.Insurance](#)
8. [8.InvestigatoryandPolicePowers](#)

[1.Cybercrime](#)

1.1 Would any of the following activities constitute a criminal or administrative offence in your jurisdiction? If so, please provide details of the offence, the maximum penalties available, and any examples of prosecutions in your jurisdiction:

Hacking (i.e. unauthorised access)

Hacking is a criminal offence in India and may also lead to civil liabilities.

Section 43 of the Information Technology Act, 2000 (the "IT Act") proscribes, in respect of a computer, computer system, computer network or computer resource: unauthorised access; unauthorised downloads, copies or extraction of any data, information or computer database; introduction of "computer contaminants" or viruses; assistance of any person in order to facilitate access in contravention to the IT Act; and any manipulation or tampering that causes services availed by one person to be charged to another.

Prior to amendments to the IT Act in 2008, section 66 of said Act specifically defined hacking as the destruction, deletion or alteration of any information residing in a computer resource, or the diminishment of the value or utility of a computer resource, or a transaction that affects a computer resource injuriously. These actions are now within the purview of section 43 of the IT Act as

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amended in 2008, which no longer makes specific reference to the term "hacking" but otherwise retains the language of the former section 66. Finally, section 43 as amended also proscribes the stealing, concealment, destruction or alteration (or causing any person to do any of the foregoing) of any computer source code used for a computer resource with an intention to cause damage.

Those found guilty of offences under section 43 shall be punishable by imprisonment for a term of up to three years, a fine of INR 500,000, or both.

Denial-of-service attacks

Denial-of-service (DoS) attacks are also punishable under section 43 of the IT Act. Any person, who, without permission of the owner of a computer, computer system or computer network disrupts or causes disruption of said computer, computer system or computer network, and/or denies or causes the denial of access to any person authorised to access any computer, computer system or computer network by any means, is punishable under sections 43(e) and (f). As indicated previously, contravention of the provisions of section 43 is punishable by imprisonment for a term of up to three years, a fine of INR 500,000, or both.

Phishing

The statute does not make explicit reference to phishing. However, in *National Association of Software and Services Companies v. Ajay Sood* 2005 (30) PTC 437 (Del), the Delhi High Court defined phishing as "...a form of internet fraud..." involving a deliberate misrepresentation or theft of identity in order to perpetrate the theft of data. Section 43 of the IT Act broadly covers actions within this definition, which may be categorised as phishing attacks, as indicated in previous answers. Penalties for contravention of section 43 have also been specified above.

In addition, section 66C of the Information Technology (Amendment) Act, 2008 (the "IT Amendment Act") states that whoever fraudulently or dishonestly makes use of the electronic signature, password or any other unique identification feature of any other person, shall be punished with imprisonment of up to three years, and will also be liable to a fine of up to INR 100,000. Section 66D of the IT Amendment Act prescribes the same penalties for whoever, by means of any communication device or computer resource cheats by personation.

Infection of IT systems with malware (including ransomware, spyware, worms, trojans and viruses)

Section 43 of the IT Act makes it an offence for a person, without the permission of the owner of a computer, computer system, or computer network, to introduce or cause to be introduced any computer contaminant or computer virus into said computer, computer system or computer network.

The explanation to section 43 defines "computer contaminant" as "any set of computer instructions that are designed –

- (a) To modify, destroy, record, transmit, data or programme residing within a computer, computer system or computer network; or
- (b) By any means to usurp the normal operation of the computer, computer system or computer network”.

The explanation defines “computer virus” as “any computer instruction, information, data or programme that destroys, damages, degrades or adversely affects the performance of a computer resource or attaches itself to another computer resource and operates when a programme, data or instruction is executed or some other event takes place in that computer resource”. Penalties for the contravention of section 43 are indicated above.

Distribution, sale or offering for sale of hardware, software or other tools used to commit cybercrime

The IT Act does not contain clauses directly referring to distribution, sale or offering for sale of tools for use in the commission of cybercrime.

However, various provisions of section 43 penalise, in respect of a computer, computer system or computer network, a person who: secures unauthorised access; causes computer contaminants and/or viruses to be introduced; causes damage; causes disruption; and/or causes the denial of access of any authorised persons. Additionally, section 43(g) proscribes the provision of any assistance to any person to facilitate access to a computer, computer system or computer network in contravention of the IT Act. Penalties for the contravention of section 43 are indicated above.

In addition, section 84B of the IT Amendment Act also proscribes the abetment of any offence under the IT Act or the IT Amendment Act. The statute states that if no express provision is made for the punishment of such abetment, the penalty thereon will be the punishment provided by the Act for the offence itself.

Possession or use of hardware, software or other tools used to commit cybercrime

The IT Act does not contain clauses directly referring to possession of tools for use in the commission of cybercrime. See the answer under the heading “Distribution, sale or offering for sale...” above.

Section 66B of the IT Amendment Act states that whoever dishonestly receives or retains any stolen computer resource or communication device knowing or having reason to believe the same to be a stolen computer resource or communication device shall be punished with imprisonment of up to three years, a fine of up to INR 100,000, or both.

Identity theft or identity fraud (e.g. in connection with access devices)

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See the answer under the heading "Phishing" above.

Electronic theft (e.g. breach of confidence by a current or former employee, or criminal copyright infringement)

See the answer under the heading "Hacking" above.

Unsolicited penetration testing (i.e. the exploitation of an IT system without the permission of its ownertodetermineitsvulnerabilities and weak points)

In addition to the offences discussed in the answer under the heading "Hacking" above, simply securing unauthorised access to a computer, computer system, computer network or computer resource is punishable under section 43. This is punishable as indicated in previous answers. However, the IT Act does not make specific reference to penetration testing.

Any other activity that adversely affects or threatens the security, confidentiality, integrity or availability of any IT system, infrastructure, communications network, device or data

Section 66F of the IT Amendment Act defines and penalises cyber terrorism. The provision states as follows:

"(1) Whoever—

(A) with intent to threaten the unity, integrity, security or sovereignty of India or to strike terror in the people or any section of the people by—

- (i) denying or causing the denial of access to any person authorised to access computer resource; or
- (ii) attempting to penetrate or access a computer resource without authorisation or exceeding authorised access; or
- (iii) introducing or causing to introduce any computer contaminant,

and by means of such conduct causes or is likely to cause death or injury to

persons or damage to or destruction of property or disrupts or knowing that it is likely to cause damage or

disruption of supplies or services essential to the life of the community or adversely affect the critical information infrastructure specified under section 70; or

(B) knowingly or intentionally penetrates or accesses a computer resource without authorisation or exceeding

authorised access, and by means of such conduct obtains access to information, data or computer database that is restricted for reasons of

security.

of the State or foreign relations; or any restricted information, data or computer database, with reasons to believe that such information, data or computer database so obtained may be used to cause or likely to cause injury to the interests of the sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the State, friendly relations with foreign States, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an offence, or to the advantage of any foreign nation, group of individuals or otherwise, commits the offence of cyber terrorism.

(2) Whoever commits or conspires to commit cyber terrorism shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to imprisonment for life."

1.2 Do any of the above-mentioned offences have extraterritorial application?

All provisions of the IT Act and IT Amendment Act apply to offences or contraventions outside the territories of India by any person, if such offence or contravention should involve a computer, computer system or computer network located in India.

1.3 Are there any factors that might mitigate any penalty or otherwise constitute an exception to any of the above-mentioned offences (e.g. where the offence involves "ethical hacking", with no intent to cause damage or make a financial gain)?

No, there are not.

2. Cybersecurity Laws

2.1 Applicable Laws: Please cite any Applicable Laws in your jurisdiction applicable to cybersecurity, including laws applicable to the monitoring, detection, prevention, mitigation and management of Incidents. This may include, for example, data protection and privacy laws, intellectual property laws, confidentiality laws, information security laws, and import/export controls, among others.

1. The IT Act and the Information Technology (Amendment) Act 2008

The IT Act contains provisions for the protection of electronic data. The IT Act penalises 'cyber contraventions' (section 43(a)-(h)) and 'cyber offences' (sections 63-74).

The IT Act was originally passed to provide a legal framework for

commerce activity and sanctions for computer misuse, but now also addresses data protection and cybersecurity concerns.

2. The Information Technology Rules (the IT Rules)

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The IT Rules focus on and regulate specific areas of the collection, transfer and processing of data, and include the following:

- The Information Technology (Reasonable Security Practices and Procedures and Sensitive Personal Data or Information) Rules, which require entities holding users' sensitive personal information to maintain certain specified security standards;
- The Information Technology (Guidelines for Intermediaries and Digital Media Ethics Code) Rules, 2021, which prohibit content of a specific nature on the internet, and govern the role of intermediaries, including social media intermediaries, in keeping personal data of their users safe online;
- The Information Technology (Guidelines for CyberCafe) Rules, which require cybercafés to register with a registration agency and maintain a log of users' identities and their internet usage; and
- The Information Technology (Electronic Service Delivery) Rules, which allow the Government to specify that certain services, such as applications, certificates and licences, be delivered electronically.

Proposed specific data protection legislation in the

form of the Personal Data Protection Bill 2019 had been tabled in Parliament for deliberation in late 2020, and then again in 2021. It was then withdrawn by the Government in early August 2022 and is being re-worked in view of concerns that it was too broad. However, in addition to the legislation described above, enforcement may also sometimes occur on the basis of the Copyright Act, 1957. Depending on the circumstances, other legislation, such as the Indian Penal Code, 1860, the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973, the Indian Telegraph Act, 1885, the Companies Act, 1956 and the Consumer Protection Act, 1986, may also sometimes apply.

In particular, the Indian Penal Code contains provisions covering most aspects of criminal laws, for instance, in respect of theft, fraud, identity theft and intentional causation of damage, which may, broadly speaking, apply to cyber offences. It is worth noting that the IT Act 2000 contains a *non-obstante* clause in section 81, stating that provisions of any other statute that may be inconsistent with those of the IT Act are overridden by the IT Act. However, the IT Amendment Act clarifies that this does not restrict any person from exercising any rights conferred under the Copyright Act, 1957, or the Patents Act, 1970.

2.2 Critical or essential infrastructure and services: Are there any cybersecurity requirements under Applicable Laws (in addition to those outlined above) applicable specifically to critical infrastructure, operators of essential services, or similar, in your jurisdiction?

There are no industry- or sector-specific statutes making direct reference to cybersecurity requirements for operators of essential services or critical infrastructure. However, various national and industry bodies, some of which are established and empowered by statute, oversee cyber-hygiene and maintain industry standards.

The Data Security Council of India (DSCI) is a not-for-profit body established by the National Association of Software and Services Companies (NASSCOM), which develops and publishes best practices, standards and initiatives in cybersecurity.

The Reserve Bank of India (RBI) has issued a comprehensive Cyber Security Framework for all scheduled commercial banks (private, foreign and nationalised banks which are listed in the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934). The framework requires

minimum standards and norms for banks and non-banking finance companies, and other lenders and payment services.



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Similarly, the Indian Medical Council issues guidelines for the protection and security of health and medical data and ethical practices by physicians and medical services providers and oversees adherence thereto.

2.3 Security measures: Are organisations required under Applicable Law to take measures to monitor, detect, prevent or mitigate Incidents? If so, please describe what measures are required to be taken.

The IT Act requires all data processors, controllers and handlers to be bound by obligations of transparency, have a lawful basis for the processing of data and adhere to purpose limitation and data retention requirements. The legislation does not prescribe specific measures to be taken for monitoring, detection, prevention or mitigation of Incidents. However, the Information Technology (Reasonable Security Practices and Procedures and Sensitive Personal Data or Information) Rules state the following in section 8:

Reasonable Security Practices and Procedures –

1. A body corporate or a person on its behalf shall be considered to have complied with reasonable security practices and procedures, if they have implemented such security practices and standards and have a comprehensive documented information security programme and information security policies that contain managerial, technical, operational and physical security control measures that are commensurate with the information assets being protected with the nature of business. In the event of an information security breach, the body corporate or a person on its behalf shall be required to demonstrate, as and when called upon to do so by the agency mandated under the law, that they have implemented security control measures as per their documented information security programme and information security policies.
2. The international standard IS/ISO/IEC 27001 on "Information Technology – Security Techniques – Information Security Management System – Requirements" is one such standard referred to in sub-rule (1).
3. Any industry association or an entity formed by such an association, whose members are self-regulating by following other than IS/ISO/IEC codes of best practices for data protection as per sub-rule (1), shall get its codes of best practices duly approved and notified by the central government for effective implementation.
4. The body corporate or a person on its behalf who have implemented either the IS/ISO/IEC 27001 standard or the codes of best practices for data protection as approved and notified under sub-rule (3) shall be deemed to have complied with reasonable security practices and procedures provided that such standard or the codes of best practices have been certified or audited on a regular basis by entities through an independent auditor, duly approved by the central government. The audit of reasonable security practices and procedures shall be carried out by an auditor at least once a year or as and when the body corporate or a person on its behalf undertakes significant upgradation of its process and computer resource.

2.4 Reporting to authorities: Are organisations required under Applicable Laws, or otherwise expected by a regulatory or other authority, to report information related to Incidents or potential Incidents (including cyber threat in information, such as malware signatures, network vulnerabilities and other technical characteristics identifying a cyber attack or attack methodology) to a regulatory or other authority in your jurisdiction? If so, please provide details of: (a) the circumstance in which this reporting obligation is triggered; (b) the regulatory or other authority to which the information is required to be reported; (c) the nature and scope of information that is required to be reported; and (d) whether any defences or exemptions exist by which the organisation might prevent publication of that information.

The Information Technology (The Indian Computer Emergency Response Team and Manner of Performing Functions and Duties) Rules, 2013 (the CERT-In Rules) provide for the functioning of CERT-In (see the answer to question 2.6 below).



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entityaffectedbycybersecurityIncidentmay reporttheIncidenttoCert-In.



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The Annexure to the Rules identifies certain Incidents that shall be mandatorily reported to Cert-In as soon as possible. These are as follows:

- targeted scanning/probing of critical networks/systems;
- compromise of critical systems/information;
- unauthorised access of IT systems/data;
- defacement of website or intrusion into a website and unauthorised changes such as inserting malicious code, links to external websites, etc.;
- malicious code attacks such as spreading viruses/worms/Trojans/botnets/spyware;
- attacks on servers such as databases, mail, and DNS, and network devices such as routers;
- identity theft, spoofing and phishing attacks;
- DoS and Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) attacks;
- attacks on critical infrastructure, SCADA systems and wireless networks; and
- attacks on applications such as e-governance, e-commerce, etc.

Rule 12 also requires service providers, intermediaries, data centres and bodies corporate to report cybersecurity Incidents to CERT-In within a reasonable time in order to facilitate timely action. The Cert-In website provides methods and formats for reporting cybersecurity Incidents and provides information on vulnerability reporting and Incident response procedures.

Under rule 3(1)(l) of the Information Technology (Guidelines for Intermediaries and Digital Media Ethics Code) Rules, 2021, all intermediaries shall also report cybersecurity Incidents and share related information with CERT-In in accordance with the CERT-In Rules.

2.5 Reporting to affected individuals or third parties: Are organisations required under Applicable Laws, or otherwise expected by a regulatory or other authority, to report information related to Incidents or potential Incidents to any affected individuals? If so, please provide details of: (a) the circumstance in which this reporting obligation is triggered; and (b) the nature and scope of information that is required to be reported.

The legislation mandates only reporting Incidents to the relevant authorities. There are no obligations to voluntarily report Incidents to affected individuals or third parties.

However, individuals/third parties have the ability to access information with regard to their own data at any time. Rule 5(6) of the Information Technology (Reasonable Security Practices and Procedures and Sensitive Personal Data or Information) Rules mandates that the body corporate or any person on its behalf must permit data principals to review any information they may have provided to an organisation or body corporate that is processing said data.

The Personal Data Protection Bill 2019, which was tabled in Parliament as of December 2019 but has now been withdrawn by the Government for further amendment, would have broadened the scope of this right for data principals. The Bill provided the data principal with the option to obtain from the data fiduciary in a clear and concise manner, confirmation of whether its personal data is being (or has been) processed and a brief summary of processing activities. Arguably, when this information is solicited, the

organisation in question would have been obligated to include any information with regard to an Incident if it directly affects the individual requesting this information. The Bill stated that the data principal shall also have the right to access in one place the identities of the data fiduciaries with whom their personal data has been shared, along with the categories of such personal data.

2.6 Responsible authority(ies): Please provide details of the regulator(s) or authority(ies) responsible for the above-mentioned requirements.

Under section 70B of the IT Amendment Act, the Indian Government has constituted the Indian Computer Emergency Response Team (CERT-In). CERT-In is a national nodal agency responding to computer security Incidents as and when they occur. The Ministry of Electronics and Information Technology specifies the functions of the agency as follows:

- collection, analysis and dissemination of information on cybersecurity Incidents;
- forecast and alert of cybersecurity Incidents;
- emergency measures for handling cybersecurity Incidents;
- coordination of cybersecurity Incident response activities; and
- issuance of guidelines, advisories, vulnerability notes and white papers relating to information security practices, procedures, prevention, response to and reporting of cybersecurity Incidents.

The Ministry of Electronics and Information Technology established the Cyber Regulations Appellate Tribunal (CRAT) in October 2006 under section 48(1) of the IT Act. The IT Amendment Act renamed the tribunal the Cyber Appellate Tribunal (CAT). Pursuant to the IT Act, any person aggrieved by an order made by the Controller of Certifying Authorities or by an adjudicating officer under this Act may prefer an appeal before the CAT. The CAT is headed by a chairperson who is appointed by the central government by notification, as provided under section 49 of the IT Act 2000. Before the IT Amendment Act, the chairperson was known as the presiding officer. Provisions have been made in the amended Act for the CAT to comprise each chairperson and such a number of other members as the central government may notify or appoint.

2.7 Penalties: What are the penalties for not complying with the above-mentioned requirements?

Section 70B(7) of the IT Amendment Act states that any service provider, intermediaries, data centres, body corporate or person who fails to provide the information called for or to comply with the directions of CERT-In under section 70B(6) shall be punishable with imprisonment for up to one year or a fine of INR 100,000, or both. However, this provision applies only to non-compliance with specific requests for information by CERT-In under section 70B(6) of the IT Amendment Act.

Section 44(b) of the IT Act states that if a person who is required to furnish information under this Act or rules or regulations made thereunder fails to do so, he shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding INR 150,000 for each failure. This section also states that if a person who is required to furnish information fails to do so within a time period specified by the Authority, he shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding INR 5,000 for each day of delay until the failure continues.

Section 45 of the IT Act also provides for a residual penalty. Whoever contravenes any rules or regulations under the IT Act, for the contravention of which no specific penalty has been provided, shall be liable to pay compensation not exceeding INR 25,000 to the affected party, or a penalty not exceeding INR 25,000.

2.8 Enforcement: Please cite any specific examples of enforcement action taken in cases of non-compliance with the above-mentioned requirements.

The most recent examples of enforcement are sector-specific. For instance, in July 2021, the RBI recently imposed a monetary penalty of INR 50 million on Axis Bank, which is one of India's largest private banks, for the contravention of provisions of its cyber security framework. Earlier that same month, the RBI had imposed a penalty of INR 2.5 million on Punjab & Sindh Bank (an nationalised bank) for similar contraventions, after the bank reported a few cyber incidents to the RBI in May.

3. Preventing Attacks

3.1 Are organisations permitted to use any of the following measures to protect their IT systems in your jurisdiction (including to detect and deflect incidents on their IT systems)? Beacons (i.e. imperceptible, remotely hosted graphics inserted into content to trigger a contact with a remote server that will reveal the IP address of a computer that is viewing such content)

As indicated at question 2.3 above, all bodies corporate and other data fiduciaries are required to follow reasonable security practices and procedures to protect their systems. However, the legislation does not specifically refer to measures that may be taken to protect systems against incidents.

Honeypots (i.e. digital traps designed to trick cyber threat actors into taking action against a synthetic network, thereby allowing an organisation to detect and counteract attempts to attack its network without causing any damage to the organisation's real network or data)

See the answer under the heading "Beacons" above.

Sinkholes (i.e. measures to

direct malicious traffic away from an organisation's own IP addresses and servers, commonly used to prevent DDoS attacks)

See the answer under the heading "Beacons" above.

3.2 Are organisations permitted to monitor or intercept electronic communications on their networks (e.g. email and internet usage of employees) in order to prevent or mitigate the impact of cyberattacks?

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See the answers under question 3.1 above.

3.3 Does your jurisdiction restrict the import or export of technology (e.g. encryption software and hardware) designed to prevent or mitigate the impact of cyber attacks?

Not specifically. Indian laws do provide for export controls with respect to certain surveillance technologies. Additionally, under the Foreign Trade (Development and Regulation) Act No. 22 of 1992, the Directorate General of Foreign Trade (DGFT) defines items on the Indian Tariff Classification List and licenses the import and export of these items. The DGFT also maintains a separate list known as the Special Chemicals, Organisms, Materials, Equipment and Technologies (SCOMET) List, category 7 of which includes electronics, computers and information technology, including information security. However, category 7 does not explicitly define encryption software and/or hardware.

4. Specific Sectors

4.1 Does market practice with respect to information security vary across different business sectors in your jurisdiction? Please include details of any common deviations from the strict legal requirements under Applicable Law.

Yes, it does. As there is no comprehensive cybersecurity legislation in India, practices vary based on sector- and industry-specific norms, the details of which are beyond the scope of this chapter. However, all entities must adhere to the provision of the IT Act and various Rules promulgated under the Act, as well as the various other statutes specified in previous answers.

4.2 Excluding the requirements outlined at 2.2 in relation to the operation of essential services and critical infrastructure, are there any specific legal requirements in relation to cybersecurity applicable to organisations in specific sectors (e.g. financial services or telecommunications)?

The RBI prescribes rules and guidelines for entities within the financial services sector. The Insurance Regulatory and Development Authority prescribes similar rules for insurance companies. The Unified License Agreement requires all telecom companies to report Incidents to the Department of Telecommunications. Various other sector-specific rules exist, but a complete discussion of these rules is beyond the scope of this chapter.

5. Corporate Governance

5.1 In what circumstances, if any, might a failure by a company (whether listed or private) to prevent, mitigate, manage or respond to an Incident amount to a breach of directors' or officers' duties in your jurisdiction?

The IT Act and Rules do not explicitly address the issue of breach of directors' or officers' duties. However, section 85 of the IT Act does require that in the event of contravention of provisions of the Act, every person who was in charge of and was responsible to the company for the conduct of its business (including a director and any officer) at the time of the contravention shall be guilty of said contravention, shall be liable to be proceeded against, and shall be punished accordingly. The only exception to this is if said person(s) can prove that the contravention took place without their knowledge, or that they exercised due diligence to prevent it.

The Companies (Management and Administration) Rules, 2014, which were framed under the Companies Act, 2013, also require that the board of a company shall appoint a person in the company responsible for the management, maintenance and security of electronic records. Any failure by such person to do so would result in a breach of their duties of care under the law.

5.2 Are companies (whether listed or private) required under Applicable Law to: (a) designate a CISO (or equivalent); (b) establish a written incident response plan or policy; (c) conduct periodic cyber risk assessments, including for third party vendors; and (d) perform penetration tests or vulnerability assessments?

There is no specific requirement for the designation of a Chief Information Security Officer. However, Rule 5(9) of the IT Rules mandates that all discrepancies or grievances reported to data controllers must be addressed in a timely manner. Corporate entities must designate grievance officers for this purpose, and the names and details of said officers must be published on the website of the body corporate. The grievance officer must redress respective grievances within a month from the date of receipt of said grievances.

The Information Technology (Guidelines for Intermediaries and Digital Media Ethics Code) Rules, 2021 require the appointment of a Grievance Redressal Officer by all intermediaries, including social media intermediaries. The Rules also require that grievance redressal mechanisms be available to all users of social media intermediaries and be prominently published. Finally, the Rules prescribe specific timelines within which relevant action must be taken.

All remaining obligations for companies are described in sections 2 and 3 above.

5.3 Are companies (whether listed or private) subject to any specific disclosure requirements (other than those mentioned in section 2) in relation to cybersecurity risks or incidents (e.g. to listing authorities, the market or otherwise in their annual reports)?

No, they are not.

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6. Litigation

6.1 Please provide details of any civil or other private actions that may be brought in relation to any Incident and the elements of that action that would need to be met.

Please see the answers in sections 1 and 2 above. No specific private remedies are available, but the IT Act and Rules make statutory remedies available to affected persons. Civil actions may be brought under section 43 of the IT Act, as discussed above.

6.2 Please cite any specific examples of published civil or other private actions that have been brought in your jurisdiction in relation to Incidents.

As at August 2022, no Indian companies have been penalised for data breach since the drafting of the IT Act 2000. Cybersecurity Incidents have been reported to have impacted 52% of all organisations in India over this past year. Major Incidents include the compromise of passport details of 4.5 million passengers of Air India due to a data breach at the systems of airline data service provider SITA, and the order detail of 180 million customers of Domino's Pizza. The COVID-19 test results of at least 1,500 Indian citizens also found their way online due to an attack on a government website.

6.3 Is there any potential liability in tort (or equivalent legal theory) in relation to failure to prevent an Incident (e.g. negligence)?

India has relatively young tort laws, and the incidence of litigation in this context is fairly low. However, in theory, persons affected by a cybersecurity Incident and suffering damages due to non-compliance of a body corporate with prevailing laws may have a negligence and/or professional negligence claim against said body corporate.

7. Insurance

7.1 Are organisations permitted to take out insurance against Incidents in your jurisdiction?

Yes, they are. Cybersecurity insurance is not particularly common in this jurisdiction, but recent years have seen the concept pick up in popularity in certain sectors, including banking and information technology.

7.2 Are there any regulatory limitations to insurance coverage against specific types of loss, such as business interruption, system failures, cyber extortion or digital asset restoration? If so, are there any legal limits placed on what the insurance policy can cover?

There is no general legislation on the subject. Regulatory limitations on coverage, if any, are sector-specific.

8.1 Please provide details of any investigatory powers of law enforcement or other authorities under Applicable Laws in your jurisdiction (e.g. anti-terrorism laws) that may be relied upon to investigate an Incident.

In addition to the powers of CERT-In discussed in question 2.6 above, the agency may call for information from bodies corporate, data service providers, intermediaries and so on, as indicated in question 2.7 above. The IT Act also envisages a CAT in chapter X, which is not bound by the Indian Code of Civil Procedure, 1908 (CPC) and instead is at liberty to regulate its own procedures, limited only by the principles of natural justice and the IT Act itself. The CAT has the powers of a civil court under the CPC and, while trying a suit, such powers shall include:

- summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person and examining them under oath;
- requiring the discovery and production of documents or electronic records;
- requiring evidence on affidavits;
- issuing commissions for the examination of witnesses or documents;
- reviewing its decisions;
- dismissing an application for default or deciding it *ex parte*; and
- any other matters as may be prescribed.

In addition, section 80 of the IT Act provides the police with the discretion to enter a public place and search and arrest without a warrant any person found therein who is reasonably suspected of having committed, or of committing, or of being about to commit an offence under the IT Act.

8.2 Are there any requirements under Applicable Laws for organisations to implement backdoors in their IT systems for law enforcement authorities or to provide law enforcement authorities with encryption keys?

Section 69 of the IT Act states that if the Controller of Certifying Authorities is satisfied that it is necessary or expedient to do so in the interests of: the sovereignty or integrity of India; the security of the State; friendly relations with foreign States; public order; or preventing incitement of the commission of any cognizable offence, for reasons to be recorded in writing, by order, any agency of the Government is to be directed to intercept any information transmitted through any computer resource. In such an event, the subscriber or person in charge of said computer resources shall, when called upon by the appropriate agency, extend all facilities and technical assistance to decrypt the information. The Act states that any failure to do so will result in imprisonment of up to seven years.

[Alternative Dispute Resolution:](#)

[Online ADR - An Avenue for Resolving Disputes in Cyberspace](#)

I. The Development of ADR

Alternative Dispute Resolution ('ADR') is evidently not a new phenomenon. Societies have been developing informal and non-adversarial processes for centuries to resolve disputes. As a matter of fact, archaeologists have discovered evidence that ADR processes were used in ancient civilisations particularly in Egypt, Mesopotamia and Assyria. [1] To-

date, one of the earliest recorded mediations occurred over four thousand years ago in the ancient society of Mesopotamia. It was discovered that the then Sumerian ruler used a mediation process to help avert war and subsequently developed an agreement in a dispute over land. [2]

There are many examples where ADR processes were developed in traditional societies as a mechanism to resolve disputes. The Bushmen of Kalahari, native people of Namibia and Botswana, developed sophisticated systems in order to resolve disputes arising that avoid physical harm and the courts. William Ury held that "when a serious problem comes up everyone sits down – all the men, all the women – and they talk, and they talk and they talk. Each person has a chance to have his or her say. It may take two or three days. This open and inclusive process continues until the dispute is literally talked out." [3] In China, since the Western Zhou Dynasty approximately two thousand years ago, the post of a mediator has been included in all governmental administration. Today, it is estimated that there are 950,000 mediation committees in China, with at least six million mediators. The said committees handle between ten to twenty million cases annually, ranging from family disputes to minor property disputes. Similarly, in India there has also been a long tradition of using ADR as a tool to resolve disputes. The most adopted and used method of dispute resolution, 'panchayat', came into existence somewhat 2500 years ago and was widely used to resolve both commercial and non-commercial disputes. In the western world, the development of ADR can be traced to the ancient Greeks. A public arbitrator position was introduced by the city-state around 400 B.C as the Athenian courts became overcrowded.

Today, ADR is popular in many jurisdictions no longer as an alternative form of dispute resolution, but rather as a primary mechanism. ADR has flourished to the point where it has been suggested that the adjectives should be dropped altogether and that 'dispute resolution' should be used to describe the modern range of dispute resolution methods and choices. [4] The two most common forms of

ADR in this era consist of mediation and arbitration.

II. What is Online ADR?

Online ADR is also vastly referred to as ODR. It uses alternative dispute resolution processes to resolve a claim or dispute. ODR is dispute resolution that "takes advantage of the Internet, a resource that extends what we can do, where we can do it, and when we can do it." [5] It must be

noted that ODR is not just simply an online version of ADR – rather, the former comprises many unique aspects, from both the technological and process perspectives. ODR is relatively new in the ADR continuum, given that the first article on the topic only appeared in law journals in 1996. This article will discuss whether ODR is an avenue for resolving disputes in cyberspace.

One of the most insightful writers on ODR has commented "in essence, legal dispute resolution is complex and highly sophisticated form of information management and processing. For this reason, it lends itself to the use of sophisticated information technology." [6] ODR has

ADR primarily focuses on moving dispute resolution away from the conventional litigation and court-based decision-making process. This process is further propagated by designing cyberspace as the forum to adopt traditional offline ADR processes such as mediation and arbitration. Despite ODR being the alternative to offline methods of ADR, it is much more than just electronic ADR. ODR is regarded as a multi-disciplinary enterprise which provides secure and confidential dispute resolution processes. Commercial online dispute resolution services have been offered since 1999, with most ODR facilitators being based in the United States. Over the years, ODR providers globally have steadily increased.

In January 2000, for the first time, parties located in the four corners of the globe successfully resolved international legal disputes completely online. There were no meetings between the parties, but there was an exchange of documents, comments and evidence, which were produced under the vigilante eye of an appointed arbitrator located in a different country. This dispute – concerning domain names – was arbitrated under the dispute resolution policy and rules of the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN), and was administered by Resolution – the primary organisation providing a complete online resolution service relating to domain name disputes. Today, the usage of Internet as a venue to resolve a particular dispute is becoming mainstream, although it still raises a few questions.

III. The Internet

Previously, the technical skills and experience required to operate a computer communications software or equipment was far beyond the capabilities of a non-specialist. However, in the present day, even extremely sophisticated and advanced information technology is easily accessible to non-specialist users. The Internet itself is a global connection of interconnected computer networks, and the World Wide Web was designed specifically to facilitate the society's accessibility to information.

The growth of Internet has been exponential. As early as 1994, it was estimated that there were 15 million users online, approximately below one percent of the global population. Presently, there are approximately 3.5 billion users online accounting for over forty percent of the global population.^[7]

The leading factor causing the development of ODR is e-commerce, covering both elements – business-to-business (B2B) and business-to-consumer (B2C). The Census Bureau of the Department of Commerce of the United States in November 2016 released that the estimate of the United States retail e-commerce sales for the third quarter of 2016 itself sums up to \$101.3 billion.^[8] Due to this large amount of transactions, e-commerce requires an effective and efficient system of dispute resolution that allows a trader to maintain consumer confidence, as the traditional institutions that create trust are absent.

IV. Online Mediation

Online mediation is the most frequently used mechanism of ODR for the simple reason of there being few, if any, legal or process



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restrictions on mediation. Most, if not all, ODR providers offer mediation for any dispute that is perceived as 'amenable to mediation'. This covers the entire spectrum of e-commerce disputes to employment, insurance disputes and personal injury matters.

The mode of communications used in an ODR includes e-mail, fax, telephone, and of course web-based communication such as chat, instant messaging, online conferencing, web-posting and video conferencing. The fact that there has been a significant increase in the quality of video technology over the recent years combined with the advancement in Internet speed will directly amount to the growth and importance of ODR.

A mediation process, whether conducted online or offline, is a confidential process on a non-prejudicial basis. These conditions are required as pre-requisites in order to facilitate open communication and disclosure of information by parties to achieve a sustainable resolution covering each party's needs and interest. However, it is crucial to take into account that the protection of electronic communications from any form of accidental disclosure is not covered by general statements specifying confidentiality. Further, a specific policy on this crucial issue is also absent on almost all ODR provider websites.

V. Online Arbitration

Online arbitration is available for all sorts of disputes whether arising online or offline. It is most commonly utilised in disputes arising from commercial matters and online activity. Over fifty percent of ODR providers offer online arbitration as an available service. Further, the American Arbitration Society (AAA) provides for arbitration services under various institutional rules and its supplementary procedures for online arbitration permits for arbitration processes to be conducted online. As of 2006, 3,000 out of 160,000 arbitration cases which were handled by AAA were conducted on a digital basis.^[9] This shows that there is acceptance to online arbitration by society and the numbers are growing on a rapid scale. This is a significant fact illustrating that online arbitration maintains the level of formality required.

Additionally, the ADR Institute of Canada National Arbitration Rules provides that an arbitration by means of electronic communication, and a part or all of the arbitration may be conducted by telephone, e-mail, Internet, or any other electronic communication if the parties agree.^[10] An express provision in the rules of the World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) Arbitration and Mediation Centre – who offers arbitration and mediation focusing on intellectual property and commercial disputes, including domain named disputes – allows for parties to opt for an online process. To the contrary, the International Chamber of Commerce International Court of Arbitration situated in Paris and the London Court of International Arbitration provide arbitration services but do not at the moment have specific ODR rules.

Similarly, the Hong Kong International Arbitration Centre offers international arbitration and its rules governing electronic transactions permits for the resolution of e-commerce disputes.

Similar to offline ADR, online ADR allows the neutral to first adapt the process to address the particular needs of



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the disputants.^[11] Additionally, there are also advantages to resolving disputes over the Internet. "The process will allow for greater



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flexibility, more creative solutions and quicker decisions".^[12]

Traditional ADR and cyber ADR both provide substantial savings when compared to litigation, which is extremely costly. As a matter of fact, ODR is a more feasible option in comparison to offline ADR for disputants who are unable to afford travelling long distance or for those involved in

commercial disputes for low monetary value.^[13] More often than not, online disputes arise between individuals from great distances, where at least one party will be required to travel the distance if the offline mode of ADR is relied upon.

Therefore, with the existence of ODR, parties can now participate in an ADR process from their respective preferred location and this simultaneously reduces cost and travelling time. There is also no need for the parties to incur additional cost for their charges in booking a neutral facility in order to conduct the respective ADR process.

There are also significant benefits that stem from the very nature of e-mail mode of communications. E-mails, listservs and web postings can be written, responded and posted at any time making online mediation much more convenient. The traditional mediation process requires scheduling where by it is absolutely necessary to arrange the time and venue for a meeting and frequently, this requires time to possess some difficulties. On the contrary, online mediation allows for the parties to participate in the mediation process when they are available and at convenient times.^[14]

Another crucial advantage of online mediation is that the amount of idle time that the disputants experience is significantly reduced because unlike conventional mediation, the mediator can devote time to one party without wasting the time of the other party, who would otherwise sit around waiting for the next mediation stage. As Jim Melamed stated, "Experienced mediators are well aware of the benefits of asynchrony. This is a big part of the reason many mediators 'caucus' with participants. Mediators want to slow the process down and assist participants in crafting more capable contributions. This concept of slowing the process down and allowing participants to safely craft their contributions is at the heart of caucusing. Surely, the Internet works capably as an extension of individual party caucus and is remarkably convenient and affordable. Internet communication takes less time to read and clients do not hear the professional fee meter clicking. When the Internet is utilised for caucus, the 'non-caucusing participant' does not need to sit in the waiting room or library reading *Time* magazine or grow resentful at being ignored."^[15]

It may also be argued that more thoughtful, well-crafted contributions are a direct result of the ability of the parties to edit messages prior to sending them. Also, many online mediation mechanisms are available all day, every day of the year. Therefore, disputants can proceed to negotiate and commence their mediation process immediately.

It is also important to note that participants in the ODR process can access expertise that would not otherwise be available locally, which has a direct potential benefit for the people in areas where skilled or specialised dispute resolution assistance is not available or limited. Further, ODR minimises jurisdictional issues and also works as a good tool for security where one party wants to take their location secret for

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reexample, where there is a record of domestic violence between the parties.

VII. Challenges in Online ADR



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Whilst using cyberspace as a platform to resolve disputes has many advantages, i.e. faster and cheaper resolution, there are typically a number of drawbacks that need to be considered.

Due to the borderless nature of the Internet, online ADR faces issues concerning enforcement; enforcing the agreement to conduct an ADR proceeding and enforcement of the actual award. When a contract is entered into between the parties online, it is created in an electronic form. The issue arising from that fact is that in many jurisdictions, as well as on the international plane, ADR agreements must be in writing in order for them to be recognised. In the United States, the Federal Arbitration Act and the New York Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards of 1958 requires agreements to be in writing. That clearly implies that for any person living in the United States, an ADR agreement included in an electronic format may not be recognised. However, it has been suggested that the term 'in writing' should be interpreted to include electronic agreements. Nonetheless, there has been no decision to date on that matter, thus leaving such agreements as void.

Even if the matter above is met and a decision is achieved, that particular decision will then need to be enforced by a particular state. The issue here is the choice of law to be adopted. Naturally, the agreement itself may provide a provision expressing the choice of law rule. Despite that fact, rules for discovery and evidence differ greatly between jurisdictions and procedural differences might also be an issue. More importantly, the key element to be noted is that a particular state may refuse to enforce any awards obtained in a jurisdiction which has procedures which are in conflict with the particular state legal framework.

Additionally, among the ever-present issues in the cyber world is security. Safe and reliable communication between counsel and client, between the court and a party, or even in between the parties is absolutely required for online ADR to work. Security of communication is a major concern in the cyber world. Taking into account the fact that new encryption technologies are constantly created and updated, every encryption can eventually be broken. One such technique where unauthorized access is commonly gained is 'spoofing' where the unauthorized person assumes the identity of an existing authorized user to access confidential information. Sniffer packages are easily available online and may be used to intercept and manipulate particular data. A more secured mechanism would be the use of closed systems, which are screened from the Internet. In other words, close systems used dedicated private lines to transmit communications. Therefore, it is arguable that the Internet poses a higher level of threats to confidential information when compared to a face-to-face communication during a conventional ADR process.

Another challenge faced by online ADR is the element of trust on the very basis that in all human relations whether commercial or private, trust plays an important role. Therefore, one does not know the personalities of the neutrals or worse, what to expect from the provider. If the parties decide to proceed nonetheless, the lack of trust between the parties might cause a negative atmosphere, causing less willingness to compromise on the disputed matter.

Conventional ADR involves a triangle, i.e. the parties and the presence of a neutral. [16] The online ADR process introduces a fourth party, which is the technology that works with the neutral. The fourth party does not replace the existence or position of the neutral and it is not

of equal influence, but rather functions as an ally, collaborator and partner. [17] In other words, the fourth party is essentially a more sophisticated version of a pen and pencil. Appropriate use of technology in the present day of changes is critical to any successful ODR process. One of the biggest challenges in building and running an online dispute resolution process is to balance and integrate the human and the automated dimensions of the cyber world.

VIII. Best Practices

Smartly designed online ADR systems can enable superior outcomes, much higher quality services, and greater engagement between the neutral and the disputants. An ADR process will not be used, or be successful, until and unless it is capable of facilitating access and participation, and more importantly offers value to its users. [18] Online ADR initiatives were derived from governments, industry, consumer associations and dispute resolution providers. Suggested best practices of ODR have been developed by various groups including the American Bar Association Task Force on E-commerce and ADR [19], Consumers International, the National Alternative Dispute Resolution Advisory Council (Australia), and the Working Group on Electronic Commerce and Consumers (Canada). [20]

Best practices of ODR suggested by these groups include; independence, transparency, availability, affordability, effectiveness and voluntary participation. Some guidelines further suggested that, "While formal training is not required, they [the service providers] should be familiar with basic legal concepts." [21] Additionally, guidelines also suggested that an online dispute resolution system shall also include ensuring the necessary level of security, and storing information only for so long as it is required in order to achieve the purpose for which it was collected. The destruction of data shall be irreversible.

IX. Online ADR Effectiveness

At present, there are millions of online transactions and as a direct result there are a significant number of disputes. Annually millions of cases are handled across eBay and PayPal platforms in more than 16 different languages which clearly indicates the need for an online dispute avenue.

Many are in the view that online ADR makes most sense typically in cases where legal costs would exceed what could be recovered. However, many large organisations, particularly insurance companies, find that online ADR saves them money even in big-money cases on the basis that cases can be handled data

much faster speed. As an example, Cybersettle, an online dispute service provider, focuses on

online insurance claims. Cybersettle states that it "...expedites settlement by eliminating egos and posturing. Both sides get to the bottom line quickly and confidentially, knowing that their

figures will not be revealed to the opposition. Even if parties do not settle online through Cybersettle, the dispute can settle shortly thereafter through traditional negotiations, or with the assistance of our telephone facilitators

because Cybersettle moves parties closer to resolution." [22]

ranging in between 60 percent to 85 percent. [\[23\]](#) One study in relation to the effectiveness of online ADR particularly mediation



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conducted in 2001, opined that "...with a commitment to process, proper organisation and an experienced mediator, neither the nature of the dispute nor its characteristics would change the potential of the online process to achieve a final and mutually acceptable resolution where that is the goal of the process." [24].

Online Dispute Resolution (ODR):

Online Dispute Resolution is the resolution of disputes, particularly small and medium-value cases, using digital technology and techniques of [Alternate Dispute Resolution](#) (ADR), such as negotiation, mediation, and arbitration.

Why is it in news?

In June 2020, [NITI Aayog](#), in association with Agami and Omidyar Network India, brought together the key stakeholders in a virtual meeting for advancing Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) in India. Senior judges of the Supreme Court, secretaries from key government ministries, leaders of the industry, legal experts and general counsels of leading enterprises participated in it.

Considering the ongoing [COVID-19](#) pandemic, on April 10, 2021, a handbook on ODR, developed by Agami and Omidyar India, in association with NITI Aayog and with the support of ICICIBank, Ashoka Innovators for the Public, Trilegal, Dalberg, Dvara and NIPFP was released.

This is an important topic from the perspective of the upcoming [IAS Exam](#) and questions based on the same may be asked in the preliminary examination. Candidates can refer to the background, origin, objectives and impact of ODR.

Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) – Origin & Background

The origins of ODR can be traced to the evolution of the Internet in the 1990s, which increased online transactions, and thereby disputes related to such transactions.

Broadly, ODR's development across the world can be divided into three phases, with each phase benefiting from the subsequent innovations in [Information Communication and Technology](#) (ICT). Discussed below are the three phases:

- **First Phase: eBay's experiment leads the way**
 - The first initiatives on ODR projects were launched in 1996 in the University of Massachusetts and the University of Maryland
 - With the development of e-commerce, a robust system was required for operating commercial activities on the internet. ODR offered a solution to this problem
 - In 1999, eBay started a pilot project to provide online mediation facilities for disputes arising between buyers and sellers on its platform
 - By 2010, eBay was handling over sixty million disputes per year through its ODR platform
- **Second Phase: Boom of ODR start-ups**
 - The success of this model and the rapid growth of the internet kick-started the evolution of ODR and led to the boom of ODR platforms. There were up to 21 new ODR programs that were launched in the year 1999
 - Only a few successful platforms such as Cybersettle, Smartsettle and the Mediation Room were able to make a remarkable impact in the dispute resolution ecosystem
- **Third Phase: Adoption by the Government and Judiciary**
 - The success of a few of the private ODR platforms drew the interest of government towards this emerging addition to the dispute resolution ecosystem

Online Dispute Resolution in India

The United Nations Commission on International Trade Law (UNCITRAL) adopted the UNCITRAL Model Law on International Commercial Arbitration in 1985 and the UNCITRAL Conciliation Rules in 1980. In the context of international commercial relations, this Model Law has been recommended by the [United Nations General Assembly \(UNGA\)](#).

India incorporated these uniform principles of ADR in the [Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 1996](#).

In the context of India, given below is the timeline for ODR development in India:

2006	National Internet Exchange of India adopted '.IN' domain name Dispute Resolution Policy (INDRP) which provided the ODR
2011	Chennai hosted the 10th Annual International Forum on ODR
2017	Ministry of Law and Justice issued a statement to urge Government agencies to resolve disputes through online arbitration
2018	Ministry of MSME launched SAMADHAAN Portal to address delays of payment disputes involving Micro and Small enterprises
2019	E-ADR Challenge was launched to identify and support ODR start-ups
2020	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The government of India launched the Vivaadse Vishwas Scheme for the efficient resolution of tax disputes through ODR• Vidhi Centre for Legal Policy published a report on mainstreaming ODR in India• NITIAayog established a committee under the Chairmanship of Justice (Retd.) A.K. Sikri to broad-base the use of ODR in India• Chhatisgarh conducted the first virtual Lok Adalat and provided conciliation services• Department-related Parliamentary Standing Committee on Personnel, Public Grievances, Law and Justice, in their report called for introduction of technology in the arbitration and conciliation process

ODR in India & COVID-19

During the ongoing Covid-19 pandemic, the target is to look into Covid-related disputes (most notably in lending, credit, property, commerce and retail) through ODR, which is an important part of the economic revival.

It will set in motion the use of technology toward efficient and affordable access to justice, especially in post-pandemic times.

Also, read [Coronavirus & Digital Solutions: RSTV-Big Picture](#)

Benefits of ODR

- **Cost-Effective** – ODR has the potential to reduce legal costs. First, by way of reduced time for resolution and second, by doing away with the need for legal advice in the select category of cases
- **Convenient and quick dispute resolution** – ODR eliminates the need for travel and synchronisation of schedules
- **Increased access to justice** – As part of India's commitment and leadership to attain [Sustainable Development Goals](#) adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2015, India is committed to ensuring equal access to justice for all. Since ODR tools such as online

negotiation and mediation are premised on mutually arriving at an agreement, they make the dispute resolution process less adversarial and complicated for the parties

- **Removes unconscious bias**—ODR processes lessenthe unconscious bias of the neutral while resolving disputes
- Exploring the massive potential of Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) can **enhance the Ease of Doing Business** in India.

Current Status of Dispute Resolution

- Although we have observed a rise in the ranking of Ease of Doing Business, we have a lot more room to cover in Enforcing Contracts.
- We are ranked 163rd in contract enforcement which is a marginal improvement from the 186th rank in 2015 and 173rd in 2016.
- We also fare poorly in time taken (4 yrs) and cost (more than 30% of project cost) for these obligations.
- We have also acquired a reputation for being arbitration-unfriendly as per the Srikrishna Committee (2017) report.

Advantage of Technology in ODR

- It reduces the burden on the courts and saves time.
- It is cost-effective and provides effective resolutions.
- Using advanced technologies such as blockchain, natural language processing, artificial intelligence, and machine learning will be a game changer in the coming years.
- Corporates and private players are already using ODR to resolve disputes in lakhs of value.
- Govt. institutions such as the [NPCI](#), and the Reserve Bank of India have led the way by incorporating ODR mechanisms into several of their initiatives.

Challenges of ODR

- **Digital literacy**—ODR requires a basic level of digital literacy as a prerequisite. In India, digital literacy often varies across age, ethnicity and geography. This digital divide needs to be addressed to ensure that ODR is adopted by society at large and not remain limited to urban areas
- **Digital infrastructure**—Broad base adoption of ODR will require essential technology infrastructure across the country
- **Lack of trust in ODR services**—A lot of people in the country do not trust the emerging technology which is a major challenge for the people of India
- **Privacy and confidentiality concerns**—Greater integration of technology and reduced face-to-face interactions create new challenges for privacy and confidentiality, especially in dispute resolution

Examples from around the world

- A small country like Singapore, started its Singapore International Arbitration Centre in the 1990s when India was opening up for foreign investment.
- Since then, it has emerged as a global arbitration hub which is exemplified by its top spot in 'Enforcing Contracts'.
- Ironically, Indian companies are among its top clients.

Way Forward: Although the amendments along with judicial decisions in recent years have put India on the right path, we need to incentivise the use of ODR as a default dispute resolution tool. With rising online transactions, fast-tracking enforcement of ODR is the need of the hour. As NITI Aayog claims that India is uniquely positioned to emerge as the epicentre for the developments in ODR, we need to solve the issues of funding, infrastructure and public policy support to make it happen.

UPSC aspirants can also read about their in-depth RSTV—Big Picture discussions about [Coronavirus & Impact on the Economy](#) at the linked article.

Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) [UPSC Notes]:-

Frequently Asked Questions about Online Dispute Resolution

Q1

What is Court-Related Online Dispute Resolution?

Court-related Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) is a public-facing digital space in which parties can convene to resolve their dispute or case.

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Three essential components differentiate court-related ODR from other forms of technology-supported dispute resolution Q2

What is the purpose of online dispute resolution?

The primary purpose of ODR is to allow the parties to resolve their dispute with the use of electronic technology. It may occur in "realtime" or in a roll-in an asynchronous manner, depending on the rules of the ODR Provider, as well as the wishes of the parties.

Get familiar with the [UPSC Syllabus](#) for the prelims and main examination for the upcoming Civil Services Exam at the linked article.

For the latest exam updates, study material and preparation tips, candidates can turn to BYJU'S for assistance.



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UNIT-4

Electronic Business and legal issues:

Evolution and development in E-commerce:

In this article, you'll explore the evolution of hacking and cybersecurity. Share When [ENIAC](#), the first modern computer, was brought online in 1945, [cybersecurity](#) wasn't a word you could find in the dictionary. The only way to interact with the building-sized computers of the era was to be physically present, so virtual threats weren't a risk, and access control was a matter of physical security.

Cybersecurity developed as a distinct field throughout the 1960s and 70s and exploded into the public consciousness in the late 1980s, after a series of events that highlighted just how dangerous a lack of security could be. Continuing to grow throughout the 90s, cybersecurity is now a core part of modern life. Let's explore the brief history of this field!

Origins

When you hear the word "[hacker](#)", you probably think of a mysterious individual sitting alone in a dark room, watching information scroll by on multiple windows as they conduct nefarious deeds.

The media often takes creative liberties when depicting hackers. It may surprise you to learn that the origin of the 'modern hacker' was a counter culture of people tinkering with technology or finding new ways of sharing information. Hacking is not innately tied to breaking into computers. In fact, an early instance of hacking in 1963 involved hacking a phone system to make long-distance calls for free. Hacking is the act of working within the confines of a system to produce unintended behavior. That behavior ranges from cracking passwords to [saving a spaceship's air system using spare parts](#).

The 1960's

The more connected we are, the more important cybersecurity is, and the widespread adoption of time-sharing in the 60s was a big increase in connectivity. Computers of the era were expensive and bulky; timesharing let multiple people use a single large computer at the same time, which meant that precautions were needed to prevent unauthorized access to files and to the computer itself. Computing time was expensive in those days! The solution of protecting accounts with passwords has persisted to modern times.

The 1970's

The creation of [ARPANET](#), the earliest form of the internet, gave hackers a lot to think about and explore. ARPANET was a testing ground for new technologies, and the hacker and technical communities busied themselves with developing and prototyping new technologies, including email. There were a few adventures into the development of malware (short for malicious software), including Creeper and Reaper, the first computer worms, but these were academic exercises more than anything else.

I' M THE CREEPER: CATCH ME IF YOU CAN

The message you would have seen if you received a visit from Creeper!

In this era of rapid development and experimentation, the security of the technology being developed was not a concern. The widespread view of ARPANET as a cooperative academic endeavor and the absence of well-established best practices meant that the motivation and means to design secure systems and software were limited. However, people were starting to think about security. A 1975 paper titled [The Protection of Information in Computer Systems](#) presented principles and concepts that would become critical to cybersecurity in the future.

The 1980's

The 1980s were a chaotic time; the Internet was formed in 1983, and the adoption of the Internet Protocol Suite by ARPANET and other networks added more potential targets and attackers to the mix. The first "real" malware emerged during this time, as did the public panic around The Cold War. Tools and techniques developed during this era would become common in modern cybersecurity; dictionary attacks used stolen lists of passwords and exploited weak default credentials, while decoy computer systems trapped attackers.

The late 80's gave two major events.

- The first was the discovery that a hacker working for the KGB gained access to sensitive documents from the U.S. military.

- Thesecondwasthecreationoftheworld'strulyseriouspieceofmalware:the [MorrisWorm](#).Itwasoriginallywrittento map the sizeoftheinternet but quickly grew out ofcontrol,chokingcomputerswith multiple copies ofitself, andcloggingthe network as it kept replicating.

Theseincidencesexploitedunsecureddefaultsettings;defaultpasswordslike“admin”ensuredasystemorpieceofsoftwarewas easilyexploitable.

The1990's

The 1990s are widely considered to be the era of viruses. Computers that connected to the internet became more common in householdsandthisincreased access. Thisled to unskilled *script kiddies*— individuals who download a piece of code andrun it withouthavingtowriteanycodethemselves.Theycanusethatcodetolaunchattackstheydon'tunderstandinordertovandalizeordestroy targets for fun.

Theunfocused,scatteredattacksoftheeraledtotheriseoftheanti-malwareindustry,evolvingfromacuriositytoacorepartof moderncybersecurity.Cybersecurity,asawhole,startedtobetakenmuchmoreseriously.Largecompaniesmadepublicpushes to improvethesecurityoftheirproducts.Householdcomputerswereoftentargetedbytherampantmalwareoftheera, demonstrating the consequences of poor cybersecurity to their owners.

The2000's

Moreandmoredatabecamedigitized—particularlymonetarytransactions.Asthescriptkiddiesofthe90sgrewupandgained more experience, the scale of threats shifted, and attackers started having larger targets beyond vandalism and destruction. Credit-card breaches, hacktivism, and holding corporations' systems for ransom became increasingly common, as malicious hackers realized there was real money to be made from cybercrime.

Hundredsofmillionsofsetsofcreditcarddatawerebreachedoverthecourseofthedecade.

The threats of data breaches and ransomware attacks forced large businesses to improve their cybersecurity programs. Being hackedwasnolongerjustamatterofvandalism;itcouldleadtoextendeddowntime,lossofcustomerloyalty,lawsuits,andfines from regulatory bodies.

The2010's

During the 2010s, the scale of threats continued to grow: Attacks by nation-states increased in frequency, and they carried out infiltration and surveillance campaigns and deployed cyberweapons to attack strategic objectives. Malicious hacker groups targeted major corporations and government organizations, stealing data and launching ransomware attacks, and the growing number of smart devices in circulation gave these groups an entirely new type of target.

The most dangerousofthese newthreat actorsare known asAPTs: [AdvancedPersistentThreats](#). Oftenfundedbynation-states, APTspossessresourcesanddeterminationfarbeyondwhatsmallerthreatactorsmighthaveaccessto.Whilelesser threatactors mightbecapableoflaunchingcyberattacksagainstatarget,APTsarecapableofrunningentirecyber-campaigns,attemptingto infiltrate their target across multiple domains simultaneously.

Large-scale cybersecurity incidents became more and more common: [WannaCry](#)and[NotPetya](#)caused global damage, the (Equifax) and[Yahoo!](#)breaches revealed hundreds of millions of pieces of personal information, and countless companies and organizations were hit by ransomware attacks, bringing their operations grinding to a halt.

Thepresent

Withtheworldasconnectedasitis,cybersecurityisaboutprotectingpeopleasmuchasitisaboutprotectingcomputers.People arefallible,and,likecomputers,wehavevulnerabilitiesthatcanbeexploited:Emotionalmanipulationandsocialengineeringarepowerful tools, used by hackers to gain access to secure systems. Many of the systems we rely on run on computers, and the stakes for protecting them have never been higher. Attacks on those computers can disrupt transportation, power, economy, healthcare, communication, and even lives.

With computers so integratedinto our lives, it's crucial that we protect them. In cybersecurity, we mustlearn from our mistakes, applying the lessons learned in the past to prevent attacks in the future. This is the domain of security researchers and ethical hackers:Finding and fixing vulnerabilities beforethey canbeexploited,and helping to makeus and our computers as safeas

possible.

Growing Aspects of Cyber Security in E-Commerce:

The world is witnessing a transition from in-store shopping to online shopping. E-commerce (Electronic commerce) giants such as Amazon, Alibaba, eBay etc. are leading the way towards this change. Much technological advancement are being made to ease the life of mankind with online shopping being the most notable. E-commerce is known to be a powerful instrument for transformation of business that gives companies the opportunity to upgrade their supply chain operations, improve their network, as well as provide better services to both customers and suppliers. Applying the techniques of online shopping that yield such advantages may not be possible without the presence of a well-organized approach to E-commerce security. E-commerce organizations such as Amazon and Alibaba have also been using such techniques to ensure data protection. The most common of them all is the One Time Password (OTP), which is sent to a user when they make payments online for identity verification. On the other hand, Alibaba uses a unique Key Management System (KSM) which is a fully managed service that helps customers create, delete, and manage encryption keys to protect data. This system provides availability, reliability and elasticity alongside security and compliance. The paper also explore the importance of different security algorithms in Ecommerce domain.

paper vs paperless contracts E-Commerce models- B2B and B2C:

How do B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts affect your liability?

If you run an online business, you need to understand how different types of e-commerce contracts affect your liability. Whether you sell to consumers or other businesses, your contracts can protect you from legal disputes, or expose you to unwanted risks. In this article, we will explain the main differences between B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts, and how to create effective and enforceable agreements for your online transactions.

What are B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts?

B2C and B2B are abbreviations for business-to-consumer and business-to-business e-commerce. B2C e-commerce refers to online transactions where a business sells goods or services directly to individual consumers. B2B e-commerce refers to online transactions where a business sells goods or services to another business. B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts are the legal agreements that govern these transactions. They can be written, oral, or implied by the conduct of the parties.

Why are B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts important?

B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts are important because they define the rights and obligations of the parties, and the remedies in case of breach. They also affect the liability of the parties for any damages, losses, or claims that may arise from the online transactions. For example, a B2C e-commerce contract may include terms such as delivery, warranty, refund, privacy, and dispute resolution. A B2B e-commerce contract may include terms such as payment, delivery, quality, intellectual property, and indemnification.

How do B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts differ?

B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts differ in several ways. First, B2C e-commerce contracts are subject to more consumer protection laws and regulations than B2B e-commerce contracts. These laws and regulations aim to protect consumers from unfair, deceptive, or abusive practices by businesses. For example, a B2C e-commerce contract must comply with the Federal Trade Commission Act, the Electronic Signatures in Global and National Commerce Act, and the Consumer Review Fairness Act in the US. A B2B e-commerce contract may not be subject to these laws and regulations, or may have more flexibility to negotiate the terms.

Second, B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts have different levels of complexity and customization. B2C e-commerce contracts are usually standardized and simple, as they are designed for mass-market transactions. They often use clickwrap or browsewrap methods to obtain the consent of the consumers. These methods involve clicking a button or browsing a website to indicate acceptance of the terms and conditions. B2B e-commerce contracts are usually more complex and customized, as they are designed for specific transactions. They often use contract templates or negotiation processes to obtain the consent of the businesses. These methods involve signing a document or exchanging emails to indicate acceptance of the terms and conditions.

Third, B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts have different implications for liability. B2C e-commerce contracts tend to limit the liability of the businesses and favor the consumers. They often include clauses such as disclaimers, limitations of liability, and arbitration agreements. These clauses aim to reduce the exposure of the businesses to lawsuits, damages, or penalties. B2B e-commerce contracts tend to allocate the liability of the parties according to their respective roles and responsibilities. They often include clauses such as representations, warranties, indemnities, and liquidated damages. These clauses aim to ensure the performance of the parties and compensate for any breaches or losses.

How to create effective and enforceable B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts?

Creating effective and enforceable B2C and B2B e-commerce contracts requires following some best practices. Firstly, you need to know your target market and legal obligations, as different laws may apply to online transactions depending on whether you

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sell to consumers or businesses. Additionally, you need to consider the jurisdiction and choice of law of your contracts if you sell across borders or states. Secondly, it is important to use clear and concise language and structure in your contracts so that they are easy to read and understand. You should avoid using jargon, legalese, or ambiguous terms that may cause confusion or disputes. Moreover, it is essential to provide adequate notice and consent by making your contracts visible and accessible before customers enter into online transactions. Furthermore, you should obtain their explicit and informed consent to the terms and conditions of your contracts using clickwrap, browserwrap, or email confirmation. Lastly, you should review and update your contracts regularly as they should reflect the current state of your online business and changing needs of customers. You should also monitor changes in laws that affect online transactions to ensure validity and enforceability of your contracts.

Esecurity:

What is the point of cybersecurity?

The question might seem basic, but it touches on one of the most important issues facing companies around the world. Indeed, this question is so critical because — despite repeated attempts to shore up digital systems over the last few decades — cybersecurity risks remain rampant.

In 2022 alone, a total of 4,100 publicly disclosed data breaches occurred, comprising some 22 billion records that were exposed. All this despite the fact that organizations around the world spent a record-breaking \$150 billion on cybersecurity in 2021.

Software itself is changing, too. The rise of artificial intelligence in general, and generative AI in particular, is fundamentally altering the way companies use software. The increasing use of AI is, in turn, making software's attacks surfaces more complicated and software itself more vulnerable.

How, then, should companies go about securing their software and data?

The answer is not that cybersecurity is a pointless endeavor — far from it. Instead, what companies aim to achieve from their security programs must evolve, just as the way that companies' use of data and software has evolved. It is past time for their cybersecurity efforts to change, too.

Managing Cyber Risk

More specifically, companies can adapt to the growing insecurities of the digital world by making three changes to the way they go about shoring up their software:

3 Ways Companies Can Improve Their Cybersecurity

First, cybersecurity programs must no longer have the avoidance of failures as their overarching aim.

Software systems, AI, and the data they all rely upon are so complex and brittle that failure is in fact a feature of these systems, not a bug. Because AI systems themselves are inherently probabilistic, for example, AI is guaranteed to be wrong at times — ideally, however, just less so than humans. The same holds true for software systems, not because they are probabilistic, but because as their complexity increases, so too do their vulnerabilities. For this reason, cybersecurity programs must shift their focus from attempting to *prevent* incidents to *detecting and responding* to failures when they do inevitably occur.

Adopting so-called zero trust architectures, which are premised on the assumption that all systems can or will be compromised by adversaries, is one of many ways to recognize and respond to these risks. The U.S. government even has a zero trust strategy, which it's implementing across departments and agencies. But the adoption of zero trust architectures is just one of many changes that need to occur on the way to accepting failures in software systems. Companies must also invest more in their incident response programs, red team their software and AI for multiple types of failures by simulating potential attacks, bolster in-house incident response planning for traditional software and AI systems, and more.

Second, companies must also expand their definition of "failure" for software systems and data to encompass more than just security risks.

Digital failures are no longer simply security related, but instead now involve a host of other potential harms, ranging from performance errors to privacy issues, discrimination, and more. Indeed, with the rapid adoption of AI, the definition of a security incident is itself no longer clear.

The weights (the trained "knowledge" stored in a model) for Meta's generative AI model LLaMA, for example, were leaked to the public in March, giving any user the ability to run the multi-billion-parameter model on their laptop. The leak may have started as a security incident, but it also gave rise to new intellectual property concerns over who has the right to use the AI model (IP theft) and undermined the privacy of the data the model was trained on (knowing the model's parameters can help to recreate its training data and therefore violate privacy). And now that it's freely accessible, the model can be used more widely to create and spread disinformation. Put simply, it no longer takes an adversary to compromise the integrity or availability of software systems; changing data, complex interdependencies, and unintended uses for AI systems can give rise to failures all on their own.

Cybersecurity programs cannot therefore be relegated to only focusing on security failures; this will, in practice, make information security teams less effective over time as the scope of software failures grows. Instead, cybersecurity programs must form a part of broader efforts focused on overall risk management — assessing how failures can occur and managing them, regardless of whether the failure was generated by an adversary or not.

This, in turn, means that information security and risk management teams must include personnel with a wide range of expertise beyond security alone. Privacy experts, lawyers, data engineers, and others all have key roles to play in protecting software and data from new and evolving threats.

Third, monitoring for failures must be one of the highest-priority efforts for all cybersecurity teams.

This is, sadly, not currently the case. Last year, for example, it took companies an average of 277 days, or roughly 9 months, to identify and contain a breach. And it's all too common for organizations to learn about breaches and vulnerabilities in their systems not from their own security programs, but through third parties. The current reliance on outsiders for detection is itself a tacit admission that companies are not doing all they should to understand when and how their software is failing.

What this means in practice is that every software system and every database needs a corresponding monitoring plan and metrics for potential failures. Indeed, this approach is already gaining traction in the world of risk management for AI systems. The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), for example, released its AI Risk Management Framework (AIRMF) earlier this year, which explicitly recommends that organizations map potential harms an AI system can generate and develop corresponding plans to measure and manage each harm. (Full disclosure: I received a grant from NIST to support the development of the AIRMF.) Applying this best practice to software systems and databases is a large and indirect way to prepare for failures in the real world.

This does not mean, however, that third parties cannot play an important role in detecting incidents. Quite the contrary: Third parties have an important part to play in detecting failures. Activities like “bug bounties,” in which rewards are offered in exchange for detecting risks, are a proven way to incentivize risk detection, as are clear ways for consumers or users to communicate failures when they occur. Overall, however, third parties cannot continue to play the primary role in detecting digital failures.

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Are the above recommendations enough? Surely not.

For cybersecurity programs to keep pace with the growing range of risks created by software systems, there is much more work to be done. More resources, for example, are needed at all stages of the data and software life cycle, from monitoring the integrity of data over time to ensuring security is not an afterthought through processes such as DevSecOps, a method that integrates security throughout the development lifecycle, and more. As the use of AI grows, data science programs will need to invest more resources in risk management as well.

For now, however, failures are increasingly a core feature of all digital systems, as companies keep learning the hard way. Cybersecurity programs must acknowledge this reality in practice, if not simply because it is already in fact a reality.

Application area in Cybersecurity:

1. Top 10 Important Applications of Cyber Security
2. Benefits of Cyber Security
3. Different Types of Cyber Security Threats
4. Why Do Businesses Need Cybersecurity?
5. Final Thoughts
6. Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs)

View All



A growing amount of information is becoming digital and accessible through wireless and wired digital communication networks in addition to the pervasive internet. One of the primary reasons is the rapidly changing technological landscape and the fact that software adoption is steadily rising across numerous industries, including finance, government, military, retail, hospitals,

education, and energy, to name a few. Since cybercriminals value all extremely sensitive information greatly, it is crucial to safeguard it using robust applications of cybersecurity.

Cybersecurity is defending sensitive data and important systems from online threats. [Cybersecurity](#) measures, sometimes referred to as information technology (IT) security, are intended as counterattacks to threats, whether they come from inside or outside of an organization. Several organizations ensure their employees undergo training for the same. Although the [Cybersecurity course duration](#) may vary, employees get an opportunity to build expertise in the subject and reduce cyberattack possibilities.

Top 10 Important Applications of Cyber Security

[Cybersecurity](#) threats change over time, and it is important for organizations to counter these threats. Intruders adjust by creating new tools and tactics to undermine security when new protections are developed to counter more recent attacks. Your organization's cybersecurity is only as strong as its weakest link. To safeguard your data and systems, it's crucial to have a collection of cybersecurity tools and techniques at your disposal. Below are a few important applications of cybersecurity-

1. Network Security Surveillance

Continuous network monitoring is the practice of looking for indications of harmful or intrusive behavior. It is often used in conjunction with other security tools like firewalls, antivirus software, and IDPs. Monitoring for network security may be done manually or automatically using the software.

2. Identification and Access Control (IAM)

The management has control over which individual can access which section of the data. Usually, the management regulates who has access to data, networks, and computer systems. Here is where [cybersecurity](#) comes into the picture by identifying users and executing an access control. Various [cybersecurity applications](#) ensure IAM across an organization. IAM may be implemented in both software and hardware, and it often makes use of role-based access control (RBAC) to limit access to certain system components.

Managers can manage who has access to what, when they can access it, and for how long, thanks to solution providers like Okta.

3. Software Security

Applications that are crucial to company operations are protected by application security. It contains controls like code signing and application whitelisting and may assist in unifying your security rules with things like file-sharing rights and multi-factor authentication. With the application of AI in [cybersecurity](#), software security is bound to increase.

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4. Risk Management

Risk management, data integrity, security awareness training, and risk analysis are all covered by [cybersecurity](#). The evaluation of risks and the control of the harm that may be done as a result of these risks are important components of [risk management](#). The security of sensitive information is another issue covered by data security.

5. Planning for disaster recovery and business continuity

Data recovery enables organizations to continue working in the event of data loss, assaults, or calamities. By regularly backing up data and spending money on a system that will enable corporate activities to continue, this application offers models or techniques that may help firms manage with severe data loss. Thus, this application of cybersecurity ensures business continuity.

6. Physical Security

System locks, intrusion detection systems, alarms, surveillance systems, and data-destruction systems are a few examples of physical security measures. These allow organizations to secure their IT infrastructure.

7. Compliance and Investigations

[Cybersecurity](#) is helpful during the examination of suspicious situations. Additionally, it helps you keep and adhere to regulations.

8. Security During Software Development

The software aids in detecting software flaws when they are being developed and ensuring that regulations and standards are followed. Cybersecurity tools thoroughly test, scan, and analyze the software to identify any bugs, openings, or weaknesses that hackers or competing businesses might exploit.

9. Security Against DDoS

Cybersecurity aids in providing a mitigation solution to deal with DDoS. It redirects traffic to other cloud-based servers and resolves the issue.

10. Protecting Critical Systems

Cybersecurity aids in preventing assault on huge servers linked to wide-area networks. It upholds industry-standard, strict safety standards for users to abide by cybersecurity precautions to secure the devices. It keeps track of all apps in real time and routinely evaluates the network security, servers, and users themselves.

Benefits of Cyber Security

There are several [advantages of using cybersecurity](#). Below are a few of them-



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1. Safeguards The Reputation Of Your Company

Data breaches often damage your company's image. Every business in the market is vying for the client's confidence above all else. Hence, a significant data leak might reduce the client's faith in you. Building a safe system and taking all necessary steps are essential for preventing such disastrous incidents.

[Cybersecurity](#) applications enable you to handle authentication using network security and cloud security technologies.

Individuals pursuing the [best Ethical Hacking course online](#) will develop the skill to identify loopholes in the system and safeguard their company's data.

2. Shields Personal Information

Personal information is one of the most critical assets in the digital era. A cybersecurity app makes it difficult for a virus to extract or corrupt information within the system.

3. Enables Workers To Do So Securely

Every organization's staff is continuously at risk of a possible cyber-attack if the company doesn't have the best cybersecurity apps.

4. Facilitates Remote Work

The gig economy and remote workers now require businesses to join Zoom conversations and sync all of their processes and data. In such a scenario, cybersecurity tools and effective IT support options can safeguard your home WiFi and block hackers from monitoring or tracking the data of your employees. It functions as a centralized system that effectively secures your data.

5. Improved Data Management

Businesses with streamlined [cybersecurity](#) may simplify and modify any information, from sensitive customer data to individual employee data. The applications improve privacy, and operational effectiveness may be increased. Across the [Knowledge Hut cybersecurity course duration](#), the professionals will be able to understand the application of cybersecurity in real life and how to utilize cybersecurity software for data management. For the next step, check out our [guide on how to get into Cyber Security](#) here.

Different Types of Cyber Security Threats

Three types of attacks countered by [cybersecurity](#) are:

- Cybercrime comprises lone individuals or organizations that attack systems for harm or financial advantage.
- Information collection for political purposes is a common component of cyberattacks.
- Cyberterrorism aims to compromise electronic systems to elicit fear or panic.

Below are some of the most common cybersecurity threats -

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1. Viruses
2. DDoS
3. Malware
4. Worms
5. Trojan
6. Phishing
7. [Social engineering](#)
8. Ransomware
9. [SQL Injection](#)

Why Do Businesses Need Cybersecurity?

Therecent high-profile security breaches of companies like Equifax, Yahoo, and the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), which lost extremely sensitive user data and suffered irreparable damage to its finances and reputation, indicate the alarming need for sound cybersecurity strategies. Hence, it is integral to ensure your company has the necessary [cybersecurity tools](#) and techniques in place.

An IBM estimate from 2021 shows that cybercrimes cost firms \$4.24 million on average. By 2025, it is predicted that cybercrime will cost \$10.5 trillion annually.

Many businesses overlook the [need for cybersecurity](#) and become targets of attacks. Because they don't consider the required expenditures, so they don't even adopt the most fundamental security measures.

In contrast, many firms throughout the globe that are aware of their cyber defense have employed technology to leverage quickly expanding technological standards to become more resistant than ever.

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Final Thoughts

The fight against cybersecurity is never-ending. Soon, there won't be a conclusive answer to the issue. The complexity of IT systems, the intrinsic nature of information technology (IT), and human fallibility in forming judgment about what activities and information are safe or hazardous from a cybersecurity viewpoint are the primary causes of [cybersecurity challenges](#).

There are no magic solutions or even combinations of solutions (cybersecurity applications) that will "fix the issue" permanently since none of these variables is anticipated to alter shortly.

Innovation creates new IT applications. However, it also creates new opportunities for criminals, terrorists, and other adversaries

to operate. As a result, improving a system's cybersecurity posture must be seen as a continuous effort rather than something that can be completed once and then ignored.

Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs)

1. What are the five benefits of using Cybersecurity Applications?

There are several advantages to using cybersecurity applications. Below are a few of them:

- Safeguard the reputation of your company
- Shields Personal Information
- Enables workers to do so securely
- Facilitates Remote Work
- Improved Data Management

2. What are examples of cybersecurity?

Network

security examples include firewalls that prevent illegal access to a network and antivirus. Antispyware software and VPNs (Virtual Private Networks) are other examples used for secure remote access.

3. What is an application security example?

Hardware, software, and processes that detect or reduce security vulnerabilities fall under application security. For example, hardware application security features of a router that blocks Internet users from reading a computer's IP address.

4. How does cybersecurity work?

All of the computers, networks, and software that a corporation uses are protected by various levels of cybersecurity. The company, its people, its processes, and its technology must all be intended to operate in unison to provide a united defense against prospective cyberattacks.

When cybersecurity systems are working effectively, they can identify, look into, and fix any systemic flaws or vulnerabilities before a hacker or malicious software can take advantage of them.

5. Which app is best for cybersecurity?

The market has several applications for cyber security. Avast is one of the best cybersecurity apps for securing your device from viruses and other dangers. An effective free antivirus called Avast will alert you when malware and adware have been installed and are invading your privacy.

Law Key Issues on Cyberspace Taxation Dr. PRADEEP K.P. 24 February 2011 21 min read Share Bookmark Paper presented in International Cyberlaw Seminar on Cyberspace Usages and Disputes, Kochi, Kerala, India. Cyberspace is a virtual trading shop, where income is generated, sale and purchase are transacted, service to clients and entertainment and luxuries to the customers are offered. Considering the enormous scope for commercial activities, it can be a meadow of taxation giving a wider scope to the State to generate public revenue.

1. Introduction Tax is a mandatory imposition by the sovereign without any guarantee of special benefits. The imposition of tax is a constitutional function. Such an imposition may be either upon person or property or privileges or occupations or enjoyments of the people. Obviously, the primary implication and object of taxation is to raise money for the purpose of the Government, by means of contribution from individual persons. While levying a tax, the State, to some extent, brings in measures to regulate the business activity or the consumption of a commodity or service or even accumulation of wealth in the hands of a few. Neutrality is an essential precept of taxation which proposes that economically similar income should be taxed similarly.

Thus the taxation principles that apply to the conventional taxation events should also apply to, in the same spirit and force, in the cross-border transactions connected to cyberspace. Is not cyberspace, adaptable to the taxing power of the sovereign? This is a debatable question in the current scenario. The e-space has a vital role in the contemporary society and mainly e-commerce presents enormous challenges to the international tax regime, which focuses on territorial and personal bases of tax jurisdiction.

2. Scope for Taxation in Cyberspace E-commerce is one of the latest contributions of technological growth. E-commerce consists of the buying, selling, marketing and servicing of products or services over the computer networks. Originally, internet facilitated commercial transactions, including sale, electronically. It was, usually, for limited purpose, by using technology like Electronic Data Interchange, to send the commercial documents

like purchase orders or invoices electronically, in the course of sale of goods. But, it has developed from a mere means of communication to a mode of carrying the real commercial activity itself. Of course, Income generated by an e-service provider or an e-commerce man is taxable under the direct taxation, Income Tax Act. The creation or development of software can be a point of taxation under the excise law. Software can be developed and installed by sharing the computer or server, even by a remote access, through a team viewers solution. Transfer of rights, either under lease or under a sale, in the course of e-commerce business can be taxed under user or consumption tax or sales and value added tax. A service provider is liable to pay tax under the service tax regime for his turnover derived from the service, which he has done in the cyberspace. The ongoing development in information technology facilitates sale and purchase of goods and services over the World Wide Web via secure servers, specially designed for confidential ordering data keeping customer protection, and with the help of e-shopping cards and with the electronic payment services, like credit and debit cards.

Any product that can be digitalised is amenable to sale and delivery, electronically. This would include books, newspapers, CDs, motion pictures, photographs, airline and movie tickets, and video and sound recordings. Even the saleable commodities like patent, designs and trademarks, which are digitally convertible can also be the object of electronic commerce, whether in the form of a total transfer or in the form of a partial transfer of rights. E-commerce has a vital role in the areas of entertainment industry. A wonderful movie having international recognition can be downloaded and seen through websites by paying charges. Any books attained worldwide popularity can be read in a website by viewers by paying charges, all over the world. A newly introduced song of an admired pop singer can be accessed and stored by his admirers around the world, through the browsing and downloading. While watching such a movie or reading such a book or listening such a song, certainly transfer of information takes place, either as a sale, or as a service.

3. Issues in Cyberspace Taxation. Like any other legal systems, there are challenges, inevitable in the field of cyberspace taxation also. Such tax challenges are unique throughout the world, evidently in gaining jurisdiction to set the rules, to judge and enforce the municipal taxation laws to the cyberspace. There are other areas which raise cross-border legal issues like, conflicts in applying different principles of law. In international taxation, income earned from the economic activity by a resident of one country in the territory of another country can be subject to levy of tax on income in both the countries. The home state justifies in levying tax on the basis of residence rule, however the host state may impose the tax on the basis of source rule. 3(i). Jurisdictional Issues in E-commerce When e-commerce enables transaction of sale and services, across borders there is unavoidable ambiguity regarding jurisdiction and the applicable tax law. Parties to a cyber-generated contract may be located in different jurisdictions which may have serious implications in the interpretation and enforcement of the law. Is it the municipal law of the country or the law of other party having foreign jurisdiction that covers the field? The traditional rules of private international law state that the jurisdiction of a country extends only to individuals who are within the country or to the transactions and events that occur within the natural boundary of the country [1].

2. There are some important principles governing these issues. 3(i)(a). Theory of Minimum Contacts The theory of minimum contacts would mean that even if a person is not physically present in a country, he can be proceeded in that foreign court as long as his website has minimum contacts with that country. This general law has a universal application. Normally a service provider may insert appropriate choice of law in the online contracts, including specification of the jurisdiction to which the parties to the contract would be subject to and such clauses are binding upon the parties [2]. 3(i)(b). Source and Residence Principles. The principles of source or residence govern the jurisdiction of taxing subject, apparently, indirect taxation. As per this principle, the income is subject to tax where the income is sourced or the subject has the residence. However in taxing of E-commerce, application of the principles may hit the regional balances, at least in cases where a major portion of goods are sourced in one region and largely consumed in another region. In cases of countries, which are having vital monopoly on software and other digital exports, the application of source principles in E-commerce sale will definitely result in regional imbalance, if the sales are not attributable through a permanent establishment in the other country. The principle of residence is also inapplicable in certain areas of taxation that taxes on E-commerce sales, since majority of e-commerce service providers exist in cyberspace only. Of course, in such cases the residence of such sellers can be attributable to the location of the server that hosts the home website of the seller. 3(i)(c). Concept of Permanent Establishment. The concept of 'Permanent Establishment' suggests that if the activity passes the permanent establishment in the source country, that country would have the primary right to tax the activity. The permanent establishment is defined in the OECD Model Tax Convention to mean, the fixed place of business through which the business of an enterprise is wholly or partly carried on. It may be a place of management, a branch, an office, a factory or a workshop. Where a person is acting on behalf of an enterprise and has habitually exercised an authority to conclude the contracts in the name of such enterprise, it is deemed that such enterprises shall have a permanent establishment in such place. However if a broker, general commission agent or any other agent of an independent status is acting in the ordinary course of their business, it cannot be said that the enterprise is having a permanent establishment in such place, merely for the reason that business is carried through such persons. When a foreigner leaves the management of his domestic share portfolio with a stock broker in a country, such agency will not constitute a permanent establishment. Thus a website hosted on a server owned by a domestic independent agent like an ISP (Internet Service Provider), would not constitute a permanent establishment. A vendor's homepage on the internet and the access of the internet provided to that homepage do not give rise to a permanent establishment, since the vendor does not have control over any of the appliances necessary for data transmission, in a country. A different version is that a web page is likely to constitute a permanent establishment in the country where the host computer resides. It is because a web page can have a physical presence, as it is made from binary or digital code and is housed on a magnetic surface, usually a disk of some kind. Such a binary code is viewable using a computer and communication device. 3(i)(d). Theory of Physical Presence. The primary determinative and widely accepted factor regarding exigibility of tax on cyberspace e-commerce is the physical presence

of seller or service provider in the customer's state. For determining whether seller or service provider has physical presence, or a level of activity, the significant tests are that either the entity must be owning or renting property in that state or having a warehouse or a fulfilment house that maintains inventory for seller in that state or having employees in that state or promoting his business in that state through something like a trade show. The Courts in the United States maintain a sensible legal outlook in this regard. According to them when the seller or service provider has no activity in the location, but merely a web presence, it would not bring them within the state's jurisdiction to proceed against the seller. In *National Bellas Hess, Inc.'s case* [3], the U.S. Supreme Court has held that the sellers could be required to pay user taxes only in the states where they have maintained a certain level of physical presence. This was a major hit on the state's power to tax on the inter-state mail order or catalogue sales. Later the U.S. Supreme Court in *Quill's case* [4] has held that it is for the Congress to decide the scope of nexus theory to protect the interest of State's revenue, though.

3(ii). Issues in Identification of Parties Identity of parties to a contract is one of the keen issues to be resolved while performing e-contracts. Unlike communications of offer and acceptance through postal means, in internet communications, it is not possible to locate the exact place of the parties, in the first instance. It can be possible only through decoding of protocol addresses and through other technological solutions, which are time consuming and highly technical. Transactions on the internet, particularly consumer-related transactions, resulting in sale or service contracts, often occur between parties who have no pre-existing relationship, which may raise concerns of the person's identity with respect to issues of the person's capacity, authority and legitimacy to enter into a contract.

3. 3(iii). Relative Issues of E-Commerce Taxation The physical supervision over the movement of goods or service are some of the prime concerns in taxing e-commerce. In e-commerce, the majority of sales or service are relating to intangible goods that are without the need to provide tangible personal property to the customer; sale and service can be effected through transfer of intangible properties. 3(iii)(a). Administration of Tax In the traditional system of trading, with respect to the main street-retailers, the administration of tax is easier. The tax on sale or service is, of course, an indirect tax and it is the primary duty of the trader or service provider to collect and remit the tax to the State ex-chequer. However, the e-commerce business man may not be obliged to comply with such statutory requirements in the absence of regular supervision of his business. The role of consumption tax, in relation to tangible properties, is significant in such situations. The liability, in such cases can be fastened on the importer or the person who consumes the goods. In cases of electronics supply of intangible goods, domestically, there is not much difference, as the domestic dealer has an obligation to collect the tax and such trader is subject to tax audits also. But difficulty may arise when the trader destroys his back-up. In cases of electronic supply of intangible goods by a foreign supplier, such supplies satisfy the requirement of import sale and the tax can be levied on the importer, who consumes such goods. Such use is usual, when the seller is incapable of taxing the sale, because he has no nexus with the destination state. It is an undisputed fact that E-commerce is having a dramatic impact on almost all aspects of business. It has opened a global market with global suppliers across the nations. Though regulatory measures were introduced to regulate and protect the issues of intellectual property rights in the field of cyberspace, the law on tax administration is not yet fully developed. The consequence is that the technologically advanced and high earnings society, who builds e-commerce as a parallel market, is out of tax administration. So either the concept of sale tax should further be modified to cover the field or the taxation jurisprudence should advance further by developing alternative devices to fill the gap. When an e-commerce service provider projects certain information to its customers, through the website, by charging money through credit card payments, and the customer only explores such information to their mind or even writing down it into their notebooks, can it be said that any transfer of goods are effected between the web site owners and customer. Furthermore, a mere download may create a virtual recycle bin with unnecessary downloads in temporary internet folders or cookies, a temporary storage, which the person really did not intend. In fact, whether the taxman can tax such downloads, naming it as sale or service or under the guise of deemed income arising from it. It is as if software is hosted in a client's computer from a remote programming terminal located in a faraway place to constitute transfer of intangible goods through communication devices. It is the law that even if it is not recorded in tangible media, but only passed through a deputing personal, there is transfer of property in goods exigible to the sales tax. A momentary service of passing of information, which is a valuable intangible property, can thus be treated as sale for the purpose of taxation. The taxing authorities are seriously thinking to curb this situation of tax avoidance in like transactions. While taxing a commodity, as an article of merchandise, there must be an incidence of tax, i.e., the sale. It is not that the commodity is subjected to tax, but it transfers as a sale which is subjected to tax. In imposing the sales tax, one of the difficulties, which confront the Taxman, lies in the selection of the point of time at which the tax shall be attached and become due. In the case of an ordinary retail sale for cash across the counter of shop, the stages of agreement, appropriation of the goods to the contract, delivery, payment of the price and passing of the property are all practically simultaneous [5]. On the other hand, in transactions like E-commerce, which are more complicated in nature, it is difficult to find out these stages independently. 3(iii)(b). Situs of Business When the act of sale or service is the subject of taxation, the place of such event has relevance. There must be a situs of sale or service. Sale consists of a number of ingredients, such as existence of goods which form the subject matter of the sale, a bargain or contract of mutual consent, which, when executed will result in passing of the property in the goods for a price, the payment or a promise to pay the price and the passing of title [6].

4. When all of it takes place simultaneously, there is no difficulty to ascertain the place of sale. When one or more ingredients take place at different places, it is difficult to find out the situs of sale. In e-shopping, the situs of sale is not certain. Goods can be ordered from one place, payment can be effected from another place and the goods can be accessed from a place other than the above two. There are cumulative incidents taking place to finalize the sale of the goods. Can there be levy of sales tax in all places? When the sale

one place to another, it is easy to find out the physical transfer of goods by way of delivery. It is not possible to adopt this principle, when intangible properties are transacted through the cyberspace. 3(iii)(c). Culmination of Contract A binding contract is constituted by acceptance of an offer. The acceptance must be reaching the seller at the time the contract is completed. During electronic offer and acceptance a number of questions will arise. Can a mere action of downloading be considered as the acceptance? The user may discard a surfed material, visuals, or writings. A click on the options in the website cannot be a full acceptance of the information, though a seller anticipates the placing an offer through the website. Without the use of encryption technology, the reliability and acceptability of email, is an added difficulty. In systems in which electronic messages are sent, over communication networks, it is certainly possible for someone to prepare and transmit an E-mail message or an acceptance and to make it appear that it came from someone other than the true maker. When authenticity of generation of messages, itself, is doubtful, it is not easy to deal with the taxing subject for taxation, on the basis of such mail orders.

electronic payments: Have you ever wondered what's involved in credit card processing? Every credit card transaction involves four parties: The customer making the purchase, the merchant receiving payment for the purchase, the bank the merchant processor uses for credit card processing services (acquiring bank), the bank that issued the customer's credit card (issuing bank).

How Does Credit Card Processing Work?

Acquiring banks (also called merchant banks) contract with merchants to operate accounts that allow the merchants to accept credit card payments. Acquiring banks deposit funds for credit card purchases into merchants' accounts. They also furnish merchants with credit card processing software and equipments such as a merchant processor, credit card reader and terminal, as well as providing customer service, promotional materials and other credit card processing services.

Any merchant who wishes to accept credit card payments must have a merchant processor account. A merchant account is an unsecured line of credit that pays a merchant for customer purchases. The payment is actually a loan to the merchant's account from that merchant's acquiring bank. In other words, the acquiring bank loans money to the merchant to cover the cost of customers' credit card transactions.

After a credit card transaction is complete, the merchant will have less money than the original transaction amount because both the issuing bank and the acquiring bank will charge the merchant fees for their services. These fees include a percentage of each transaction, and the higher the transaction amount, the higher the fee. The merchant may also be charged fixed fees for each transaction by the issuing bank and the acquiring bank.

What You Need to Know About Credit Card Processing:

If you want to set up a merchant account for credit card processing, you probably wonder about the credit card fees you will be charged. The most important determinant of how high your fees will be is the type of business you are in. Certain businesses are more likely than others to suffer payment disputes and chargebacks, so their transactions are considered riskier by issuing and acquiring banks. Businesses with these riskier transactions are therefore charged higher fees to offset the risk of chargebacks.

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Chargebacks are what happens when a customer successfully disputes a credit card fee transaction with your business. The safest transactions, as far as the issuing and acquiring banks are concerned, take place when the cardholder swipes his or her own card in the credit card reader and signs the receipt to pay for goods that are inexpensive and not likely to generate complaints. Restaurants, gas stations and car rental agencies all fall into this category, and because their chargeback risk is low, they pay less in fees for credit card processing transactions.

The risk of a chargeback is highest when transactions are completed via the Internet or by phone. The risk is even higher if the transactions are expensive, involve shipping and the business is one that is subject to complaints. The bottom line is that when a merchant applies for credit card processing services, the business the merchant is engaged in figures significantly in the fees that the merchant will be charged.

Who Needs Credit Card Processing Companies?

Any merchant, whether doing business in a physical location like a retail store, a virtual location like an online website, or by phone or mail order needs credit card processing services if they wish to serve all potential customers and remain competitive.

Although you, as a merchant, will pay a certain price for credit card processing services, the bottom line is that you can't really be successful in your business without it. However, due to the variability in pricing for credit card processing services, you can shop around for the best deal. Just be sure that any quotes you receive include all the rates and fees you will be charged.

Leaders is one of the best credit card processing services in the industry. It's been around for 20 years, and its parent company is the reputable Paysafe Group Subsidiary. Leaders gives businesses a lot of reasons to love it, including some of the best credit card processing rates in the industry. We're talking about rates that start at just 0.15%. Plus, Leaders has a 98% approval rating. So, businesses having a hard time getting the green flag will find Leaders' process refreshing. What's more, Leaders offers a solid \$500 Assurance guarantee. This states that if the company can't save you money within the first 6 months of your contract, you'll be awarded \$500 in compensation. Leaders works with the reliable Clover point of sales system, and it also integrates with QuickBooks. New SMBs will appreciate the helpful glossary of terms and 24/7/365 customer service for troubleshooting any issues. Additionally, Leaders offers value-added services such as business cash advances, loyalty programs, gift cards, check guarantee services, and point of sales systems.

Paysafe is a comprehensive payments solution that is transforming how businesses handle transactions. It accepts global payments in 17 currencies, including credit cards, debit cards, digital wallets, POS systems, cash cards, and installment payments. The scale-based pricing starts at 15% for low volume, 3.9% per volume, and 9.5% for high volume. There's also a fixed fee of 1.5 euros per transaction. Paysafe offers various services, including online, digital wallet, and in-

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person payments, and additional benefits like POS systems, receipt management, and currency conversion. This makes it a versatile choice for businesses of all sizes and types.

Paysafe offers several tools to assist businesses with their in-store payment processing. One of the notable equipment offerings is Paysafe's Android tablet POS (Point of Sale) system, which facilitates on-the-spot payment acceptance. This POS system, combined with Paysafe's sophisticated in-store payment structure, allows businesses to provide their customers with various payment options, including installment payments and mobile purchasing. For detailed pricing, contact Paysafe directly for a tailored quote.

Merchant One is a credit card payment processing company that offers solutions to small and large businesses in various industries. The company partners with Clover to resell its state-of-the-art POS systems, provides its customers with free training on using them, and services the hardware in-house. This ensures a high-quality user experience. While Merchant One has excellent reviews on Trustpilot, several complaints indicate issues with customer service, billing, and contract terms. Nevertheless, Merchant One's dedicated managers will respond to queries and guide you on setting up your account and processing transactions.

Why we chose Merchant One - We chose Merchant One because it's able to process both POS and mobile phone credit card payments.

Our experience - We liked that Merchant One provides a dedicated account manager and offers lower card payment processing fees than some of its rivals.

Supply Chain:

Overview

- [NIST Cybersecurity SCRM Fact Sheet \(05/12/22\)](#)
- NIST updates [Cybersecurity Supply Chain Risk Management Practices for Systems and Organizations](#) guidance in NIST SP 800-161r1, which also helps fulfill NIST's responsibilities under E.O. 14028. (05/05/22)
- See the [comments received](#) from 132 organizations and individuals in response to a recent RFI (2/22/22) on [Evaluating and Improving NIST Cybersecurity Resources: The Cybersecurity Framework and Cybersecurity Supply Chain Risk Management](#)

Information, communications, and operational technology (ICT/OT) users rely on a complex, globally distributed, and interconnected supply chain ecosystem to provide highly refined, cost-effective, and reusable solutions. This ecosystem is composed of various entities with multiple tiers of outsourcing, diverse distribution routes, assorted technologies, laws, policies, procedures, and practices, all of which interact to design, manufacture, distribute, deploy, use, maintain, dispose of, and otherwise manage products and services. These aspects of the supply chain include IT, OT, Communications, Internet of Things (IoT), and Industrial IoT.

The NIST Cybersecurity Supply Chain Risk Management (C-SCRM) program helps organizations to manage the increasing risk of supply chain compromise related to cybersecurity, whether intentional or unintentional. The factors that allow for low-cost, interoperability, rapid innovation, a variety of product features, and other benefits also increase the risk of a compromise to the supply chain, which may result in risks to the end user. Managing cybersecurity risks in supply chains requires ensuring the integrity, security, quality and resilience of the supply chain and its products and services. Risks may include insertion of counterfeit, unauthorized production, tampering, theft, insertion of malicious software and hardware, as well as poor manufacturing and development practices in the cybersecurity-related elements of the supply chain.

C-SCRM involves identifying, assessing, and mitigating the risks associated with the distributed and interconnected nature of ICT/OT products and services supply chains. It covers the entire lifecycle of a system (including design, development, distribution, deployment, acquisition, maintenance, and destruction). NIST conducts research, provides resources, and convenes stakeholders to assist organizations in managing these risks.

Two new NIST efforts relate to the May 12, 2021 [Executive Order 14028, Improving the Nation's Cybersecurity](#), and a [National Initiative for Improving Cybersecurity in Supply Chains](#).

NIST Approach

NIST is responsible for developing reliable and practical standards, guidelines, tests, and metrics to help protect non-national security federal information and communications infrastructure. Private sector and other government organizations also rely heavily on these NIST-produced resources. That includes organizations developing or using information, communications, and operational technologies which depend upon complex, globally distributed and interconnected supply chains.

Since 2008, NIST has conducted research and collaborated with a large number and variety of stakeholders to produce information resources which help organizations with their C-SCRM. By statute, federal agencies must use NIST's C-SCRM and other cybersecurity standards and guidelines to protect non-national security federal information and communications infrastructure. [The SECURE Technology Act](#) and [FASCRule](#) gave NIST specific authority to develop C-SCRM guidelines. NIST also is a member of the Federal Acquisition Security Council (FASC).

NIST has given several grants to conduct research in this area as well as to develop a web-based risk assessment and collaboration tool.

Managing cybersecurity risk in supply chains requires ensuring the integrity, security, quality, and resilience of the supply chain and its products and services. NIST focuses on:

- **Foundational practices:** C-SCRM lies at the intersection of information security and supply chain management. Existing supply chain and cybersecurity practices provide a foundation for building an effective risk management program.
- **Enterprise-wide practices:** Effective C-SCRM is an enterprise-wide activity that involves each tier (Organization, Mission/Business Processes, and Information Systems) and is implemented throughout the system development life cycle.
- **Risk management processes:** C-SCRM should be implemented as part of overall risk management activities. That involves identifying and assessing applicable risks and determining appropriate response actions, developing a C-SCRM Strategy and Implementation Plan to document selected response actions, and monitoring performance against that plan.
 - **Risk:** Cybersecurity-related supply chain risk is associated with a lack of visibility into, understanding of, and control over many of the processes and decisions involved in the development and delivery of cyber products and services.
 - **Threats and Vulnerabilities:** Effectively managing cybersecurity risks in supply chains requires a comprehensive view of threats and vulnerabilities. Threats can be either "adversarial" (e.g., tampering, counterfeits) or "non-adversarial" (e.g., poor quality, natural disasters). Vulnerabilities may be "internal" (e.g., organizational procedures) or "external" (e.g., part of an organization's supply chain).
- **Critical systems:** Cost-effective supply chain risk mitigation requires organizations to identify those systems/components that are most vulnerable and will cause the largest organizational impact if compromised.

Electronic Data Interchange (EDI):

- [Read](#)
- [Discuss](#)
- [Courses](#)

Electronic Data Interchange is a technique for computer to computer exchange of business documents in a standard electronic format between business partners or companies. Companies use EDI systems for exchanging business information automatically by computer systems as transactions without paper and hence minimizes or completely eliminates the human intervention. Electronic data interchange is generally used for B2B transactions.

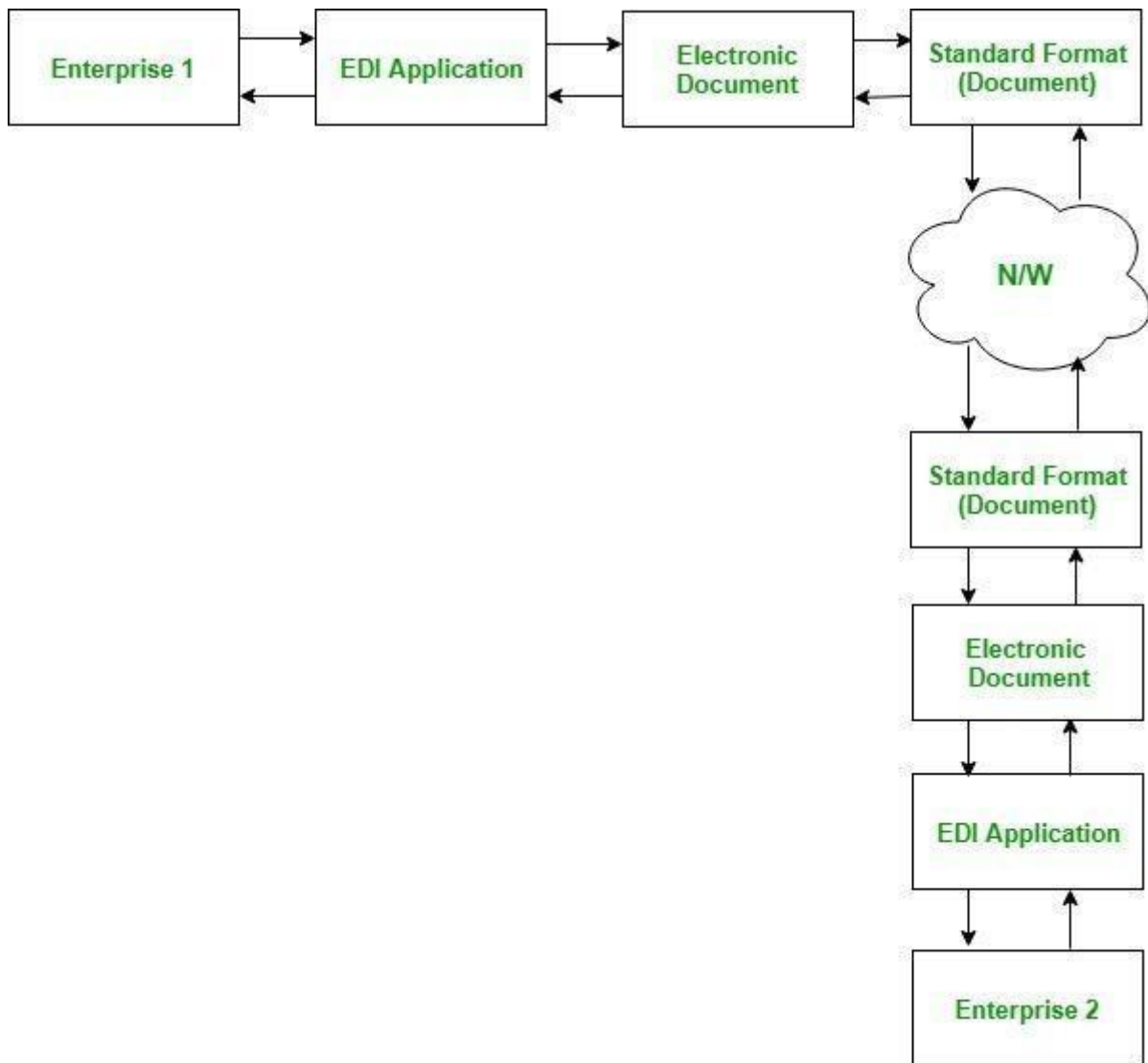
Common EDI documents:

1. Shipping requests
2. Invoice
3. Acknowledgement
4. Purchase order

EDI system:

The logo for NRCM (National Risk and Cyber Management) features the letters 'NRCM' in a large, bold, purple font. The letter 'O' is stylized with a yellow sun-like circle in the center. Above the letters is a purple graphic of a tree with several yellow and orange leaves. Below the letters is a thick purple horizontal line.

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Both the enterprises have EDI applications installed in their systems. Enterprise 1 uses its EDI application to generate an EDI document that it wants to share with the other enterprise. The format of this EDI document must be the standard format that has been decided by the two enterprises for sharing EDI documents during their deals. This document is shared with the other enterprise over the network. The document is received by the Enterprise 2 in the standard format on the EDI application. This is how the two enterprises exchange business documents electronically and minimize or eliminate the human interventions.

Advantages:

- As it is a direct computer-to-computer transaction system, it is high speed.
- Due to reduced human intervention, it is very accurate.
- Simple to use.
- Highly secure.
- Reduction in paperwork.
- Cost effective.

What is EDI (Electronic Data Interchange)?

• [Read](#)

• [Discuss](#)

• [Courses](#)

Introduction:

Electronic Data Interchange (EDI) is a computer-to-computer exchange of business documents in a standard electronic format between two or more trading partners. It enables companies to exchange information electronically in a structured format, eliminating the need for manual data entry and reducing the cost and time associated with paper-based transactions.

EDI was first introduced in the 1960s as a way for companies to exchange business documents electronically. Over time, the standardization of EDI formats and protocols has enabled businesses to integrate their internal systems with those of their trading partners, improving efficiency and reducing errors.

EDI transactions can include purchase orders, invoices, shipping notices, and other business documents. The EDI standard defines the format and content of these documents, ensuring that they are easily interpreted by both the sender and the receiver.

EDI has become an important part of many businesses, particularly those in the supply chain and logistics industries. It allows for faster and more accurate processing of transactions, leading to improved customer satisfaction and increased profits.

It is the world of the Internet, knowingly or unknowingly, everyone is attached to the internet and is dependent on the internet. Today, almost all the work is done through the Internet. Digital India is one example of how everything is going to be done through the internet in the upcoming years, not only in the upcoming years, even right now, most of the exchange of communication is done with the help of the internet, whether it is chatting on WhatsApp with friends or sending important information through the email, all the work and communication is mostly done through the net.

What is E-Commerce?

E-Commerce stands for Electronic commerce, which means buying or selling goods through the Internet. The biggest advantage of E-Commerce in this era is Time Savings, not only that as a customer, one major advantage is that the customer receives a lot of discounts on the products they want to buy.

In terms of business, a business man not only can expand the market all over the country but also all around the world. Businesses also do not need to put too much effort into Branding.

One major thing that comes to play its role in E-

Commerce is communicating professionally. Let's learn about this in further detail, Electronic Data Interchange (EDI)

Electronic Data Interchange (EDI) is a computer-to-computer exchange of business documents in a standard electronic format between two or more trading partners. It enables companies to exchange information electronically in a structured format, eliminating the need for manual data entry and reducing the cost and time associated with paper-based transactions.

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Imagine writing a letter to your friend while communicating every time, Can not imagine right? Since today humans live in a new era where they can very easily communicate through the internet. Now, imagine the same case with businesses, where communication and exchange of very important documents are constantly required, doing this the old way, it will take forever for the messages to reach the other party, but also the documents will pile up as there is a lot of information that is needed to be stored and kept. It is a tedious and cumbersome process indeed, this is where EDI plays its role.

Electronic Data Exchange is the direct exchange of data and important business documents through the Internet and in a very professional manner. Two different companies sitting at the extreme corners of the world can very easily interchange information or documents (like a sales order, shipping notices, invoices, etc) with the help of EDI.

EDI Documents:

The most common documents exchanged via EDI are:

- Invoices
- Purchase Orders
- Financial Information letters
- Transaction Bills
- Shipping requests and notifications
- Acknowledgment and feedback
- Transcripts
- Claims
- Business Correspondence letters

EDI Users:

- Central and state government agencies
- Industry
- Banking
- Retailing
- Manufacturing
- Insurance
- Healthcare
- Automotive
- Electronics
- Grocery
- Transportation

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History of EDI

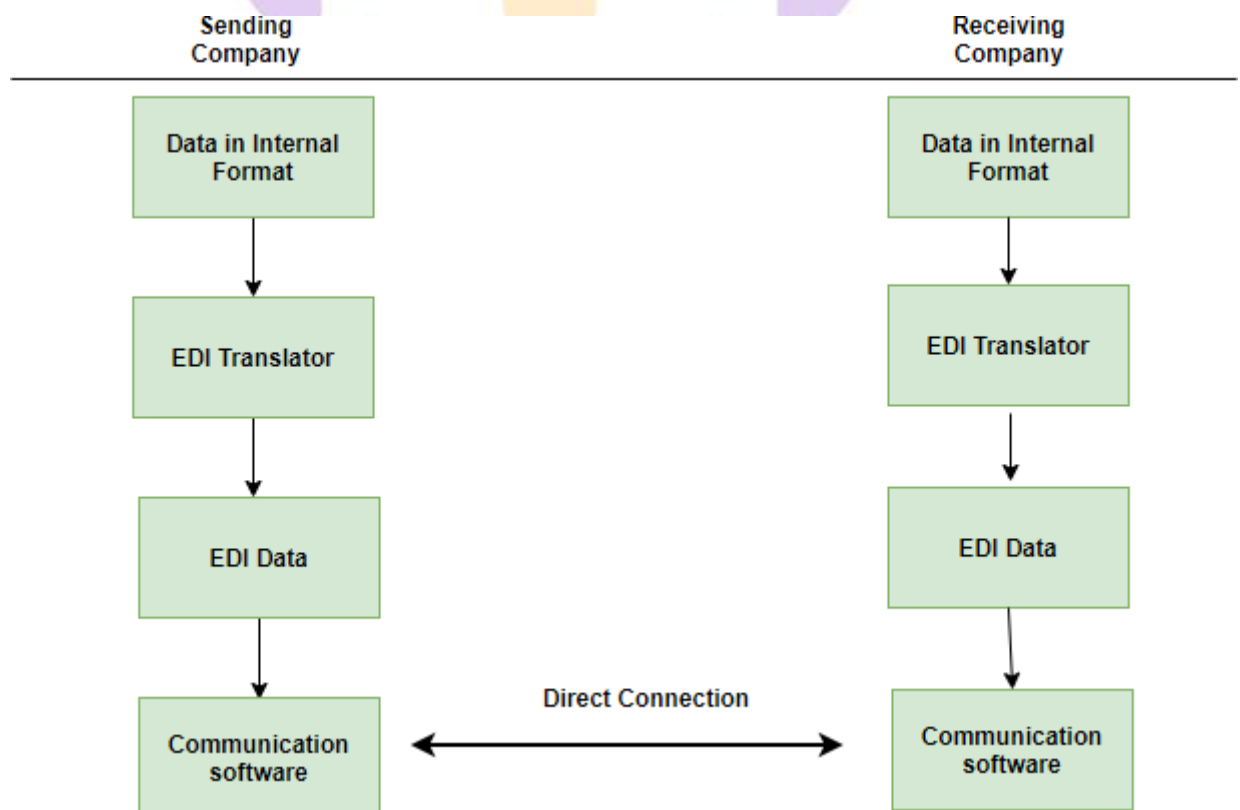
Edward Guilbert is

known to be the father of electronic data exchange, introduced EDI back in the 1960s in the supply chains. The US Transportation industry implemented EDI for better communication among different companies. In 1985, the UN created EDIFACT EDI for better reach of Global technology. Approximately 12000 companies started using EDI in the US. The US grocery and automobile industry very swiftly accepted EDI due to the easy process and standard form of data exchange. In today's time, with following EDI's compliance, the big and major companies are using EDI for their communication among businesses.

Examples of EDI include Purchase orders, invoices, shipping statuses, payment information, and so on. How EDI works

?

The data or the information that one company sends the other first gets prepared to be sent, then the information/document is translated into EDI format. The document is then connected and transmitted to the other business, the connection is direct and point to point.



Uses of EDI:

EDI is widely used in various industries for exchanging business documents electronically. Some of the common uses of EDI are:

- **Order Processing:** EDI allows companies to exchange purchase orders and sales orders electronically, eliminating the need for manual data entry and reducing errors.
- **Invoicing:** EDI can be used to exchange invoices electronically, reducing the time and cost associated with paper-based invoicing.
- **Shipping and Receiving:** EDI can be used to exchange shipping notices and receiving documents, enabling companies to track the movement of goods in real-time.
- **Inventory Management:** EDI can be used to exchange inventory information, enabling companies to manage their inventory levels more effectively.
- **Supply Chain Management:** EDI is used extensively in the supply chain management process, enabling companies to exchange information with their suppliers, distributors, and customers.
- **Healthcare:** EDI is used in the healthcare industry to exchange patient data, claims, and other healthcare-related information between healthcare providers, insurance companies, and government agencies.
- **Financial Transactions:** EDI can be used to exchange financial transactions such as payment advice and remittance advice, reducing the time and cost associated with manual payment processing.

Advantages of EDI:

There are several advantages to Electronic Data Interchange:

- **The paper usage is reduced:** The expense of storing, printing, recycling, reduces up to the maximum amount due to the EDI.

- **SpeedIncreases:**Thebestadvantageistheincreaseinthespeedofthe datainterchange.Witheverythinggoingonline, the speed of the information transfer increases exponentially.



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- **Security:** By following the Protocols and the standard rules, the security of all the important documents is always secure and safe.
- **Information accuracy:** Since the information exchanged is based on standards agreed by the sender and receiver both, the correct information is always transferred regardless of where they belong to.
- **Less Cost:** With very less errors, fast response time, everything becoming automated, and no use of paper, the cost automatically reduces.

Disadvantages of EDI:

- The initial setup of the EDI is very Time-consuming.
- EDI standards keep on changing after some amount of time.
- A very systematic and proper backup is required as the entire data relies on EDI.
- The setup and maintenance of the EDI is very Expensive.

CYBERSECURITY MARKET SIZE & SHARE ANALYSIS - GROWTH TRENDS & FORECASTS (2023-2028):

The report covers Global Cybersecurity Market Growth and is Segmented by Product Type (Solutions (Application Security, Cloud Security, Consumer Security Software, Data Security, Identity and Access Management, Infrastructure Protection, Integrated Risk Management, Network Security Equipment), Services (Professional, Managed)), by Deployment (On-premise, Cloud), by End-user Industry (BFSI, Healthcare, Aerospace and Defense, IT and Telecommunication, Government, Retail, Manufacturing), by Geography (North America (United States, Canada), Europe (United Kingdom, Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Netherlands, Nordic Region, Poland, Russia), Asia-Pacific (China, South Korea, Japan, India, Singapore, Malaysia, Australia, Indonesia), and Rest of the World (Latin America (Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, Argentina), Middle East and Africa (GCC (Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Rest of GCC), Africa (South Africa, Egypt, Morocco))). The market sizes and forecasts are provided in terms of value in USD for all the above segment.

Cybersecurity Market Size:

Study Period	2018-2028
Base Year For Estimation	2022
CAGR	11.44%
Fastest Growing Market	Asia-Pacific
Largest Market	North America
Market Concentration	Low

Cybersecurity Market Analysis

The Cybersecurity Market size is estimated at USD 182.86 billion in 2023, and is expected to reach USD 314.28 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 11.44% during the forecast period.

Cybersecurity protects the network, information, and personal data from cyberattacks. The trends of BYOD, AI, IoT, and machine learning in cybersecurity are rapidly growing. For instance, machine learning offers advantages in outlier detection, which benefits cybersecurity.

- The cybersecurity industry ecosystem comprises several regional clusters of cybersecurity firms contributing to global market dynamics. In the current market scenario, the cybersecurity industry operates in three distinct mega-clusters: the San Francisco Bay Area (SFBA), Metropolitan Washington, DC, and Israel.

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- The three cybersecurity mega-clusters share two essential characteristics. The first is that the startup and high-tech innovation culture is a significant growth driver for all three ecosystems. SFBA and Israel have thriving startup ecosystems with a substantial associated flow of risk capital. They are heavily focused on products, while Washington exhibits a higher proportion of service-based firms (in Washington, only 11% of cybersecurity firms are focused solely on products). The second characteristic is the link between human capital and national security.
- Ransomware attacks have ravaged many state and local public sector agencies. In some cases, entire local governments were forced to declare an emergency due to massive leaks of sensitive data and loss of services. For instance, in June 2021, JBS Foods, the world's leading meatpacking enterprise, declared that it had paid a USD 11 million ransom to REvil ransomware threat actors following a cyberattack that forced the company to shut down production at several sites worldwide, including its production facilities in United States, Australia, and Canada.
- One of the major causes of growing cyberattacks is the lack of skilled cybersecurity personnel in each industry. The number of experienced cybersecurity professionals, especially in Europe, Asia-Pacific, Latin America, and Middle-East are low compared to the need for security professionals to handle cyber threats for financial institutes, government organizations, and private sector/industrial businesses.
- Due to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, countries worldwide have implemented preventive measures. With schools being closed and communities being asked to stay at home, multiple organizations have found a way to enable their employees to work from their homes. This has, thus, resulting in a rise in the adoption of video communication platforms.

[Cybersecurity Market Statistics](#)

Cybersecurity Market growth is not evenly distributed across regions. The US, China, Germany, the UK, and Japan are the largest country markets for Cybersecurity, however, many smaller country market segments are expected to register much higher growth compared to these giants. For example, Japan is one of the top five Cybersecurity Markets but lags behind emerging economies such as India and Brazil in terms of future growth.

[United States Cybersecurity Market Size](#)

The cybersecurity market revenue in the United States was valued at USD 73.41 billion in 2023. It is expected to reach USD 108.31 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 8.09% during the forecast period (2023-2028). This can be attributed to the increasing frequency and sophistication of cyber-attacks in the country. Moreover, the growing regulatory requirement leads many organizations to adopt and invest in cybersecurity solutions, as many industries in the United States are subject to regulations, which require the organization to implement.

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United States Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CAGR
UnitedStatesCybersecurityMarketSize	USD73.41billion	USD108.31billion	8.09%

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[United Kingdom Cybersecurity Market Size](#)

The cybersecurity services market size in the United Kingdom was valued at USD 14.24 billion in 2023. It is expected to reach USD 23.37 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 10.42% during the forecast period (2023-2028). The market is growing due to the increased rate of cybercrimes and the focus on developing new solutions to tackle them. With the growing 5G and total fiber broadband networks in the country, the government, in collaboration with telecommunication companies, is taking initiatives to tackle cyberattacks and improve security standards and practices across the UK telecom sector.

United Kingdom Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

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	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CAGR(2023-2028)
UnitedKingdomCybersecurityMarketSize	USD14.24billion	USD23.37billion	10.42%

[GermanyCybersecurityMarketSize](#)

The cybersecurity market in Germany was valued at USD 10.24 billion in 2023, and it is anticipated to reach a value of USD 17.54 billion by 2028, registering a CAGR of 11.36% during the forecasted period (2023-2028). This growth can be associated with the country's strong and diversified cybersecurity ecosystem, a wide spectrum of established enterprises, startups, research organizations, and universities dedicated to cybersecurity, and supportive government policies, such as the National Cybersecurity Strategy and the Cybersecurity Act.

Germany Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CAGR(2023-2028)
GermanyCybersecurityMarketSize	USD10.24billion	USD17.54billion	11.36%

[ChinaCybersecurityMarketSize](#)

The cybersecurity market revenue in China was valued at USD 15.58 billion in 2023. It is expected to reach USD 40.94 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 21.31% during the forecast period (2023-2028). The market growth can be attributed to increasing cyberattacks and the rising adoption of public cloud computing leading to more enterprises re-allocating their business systems to cloud platforms.

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China Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CGR(2023-2028)
ChinaCybersecurityMarketSize	USD15.58billion	USD40.94billion	23.31%

[IndiaCybersecurityMarketSize](#)

The cybersecurity market revenue in India was valued at USD 3.97 billion in 2023. It is expected to reach USD 9.21 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 18.33% during the forecast period (2023-2028). An exponential rise in the exchange of personal data and currency transactions due to digitalization initiatives has resulted in the need for resilient cybersecurity solutions and services in the country.

India Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CAGR(2023-2028)
IndiaCybersecurityMarketSize	USD3.97billion	USD9.21billion	18.33%

[JapanCybersecurityMarketSize](#)

The cybersecurity market revenue in Japan was valued at USD 1.81 billion in 2023. It is expected to reach USD 3.17 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 11.89% during the forecast period (2023-2028). The country's cybersecurity market is gaining interest from Japanese enterprises and the government at a rapid pace. The rise in cyberattacks on Japanese organizations prompts the government to establish new strategies, legislation, and facilities.

Japan Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CAGR(2023-2028)
JapanCybersecurityMarketSize	USD1.81billion	USD3.17billion	11.89%

[BrazilCybersecurityMarketSize](#)

The cybersecurity market revenue in Brazil was valued at USD 3.03 billion in 2023. It is expected to reach USD 4.95 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 10.30% during the forecast period (2023-2028). The market is being driven by increasing investments by Brazilian fintech and government interventions in improving the overall cybersecurity infrastructure.

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Brazil Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CAGR(2023-2028)
BrazilCybersecurityMarketSize	USD3.03billion	USD4.95billion	10.30%

[UnitedArabEmiratesCybersecurityMarketSize](#)

The cybersecurity market revenue in the United Arab Emirates was valued at USD 0.52 billion in 2023. It is expected to reach USD 0.95 billion by 2028, growing at a CAGR of 12.72% during the forecast period (2023-2028). The market is being driven by an increasing focus on a digital economy, government initiatives, and increased interest from global and local vendors.

United Arab Emirates Cybersecurity Market Size, Revenue in USD Billion



Source: Mordor Intelligence

	2023MarketSize	2028MarketSize	CAGR(2023-2028)
UnitedArabEmiratesCybersecurityMarketSize	USD0.52billion	USD0.95billion	12.72%

[Get 10-year market sized data by segments and in-depth analysis on specific countries. Contact us now.](#)

Cybersecurity Market Trends

The Cloud Segment to Witness Significant Growth

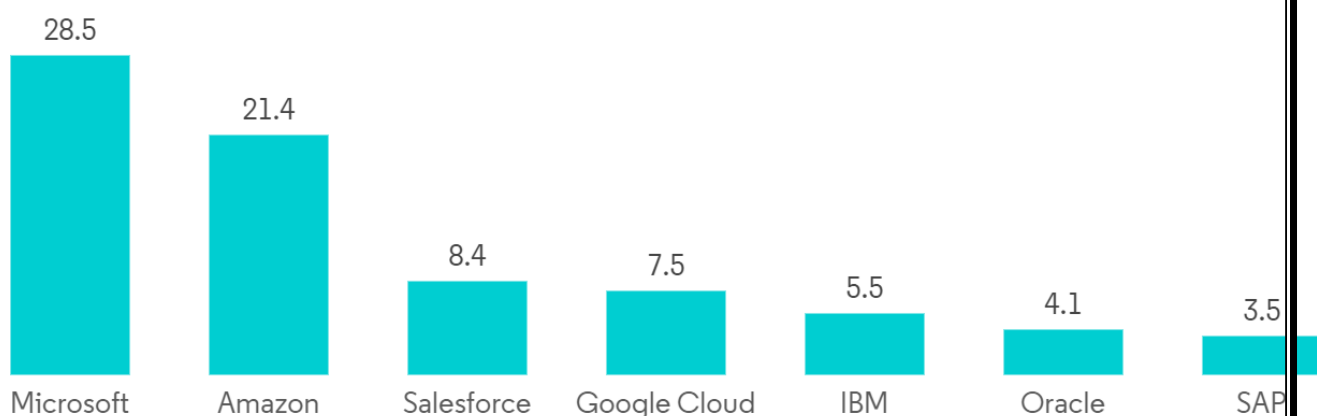
- The increasing realization among enterprises about the importance of saving money and resources by moving their data to the cloud instead of building and maintaining new data storage drives the demand for cloud-based solutions. Owing to multiple benefits, cloud platforms and ecosystems are anticipated to serve as a launchpad for the explosion in the pace and scale of digital innovation over the next few years.
- Cloud-based solutions also benefit from lower capital expenditure requirements, making them much more compelling. Deploying cloud-based services can significantly reduce the Capex requirements as companies need not invest in hardware components. Cloud solutions also enable better prediction of the cost of an application, and companies don't incur much upfront cost to incorporate the technology. Also, the hardware and IT support savings make cloud-based solutions much more affordable.
- Companies that are considering moving from on-premise software to cloud-based solutions are primarily checking the potential solutions for their key security features, including standards compliance and intrusion prevention and detection.
- In October 2022, Google Cloud declared a significant expansion of its trusted cloud ecosystem. It highlighted new integrations and offerings with more than twenty partners, focusing on enabling greater data sovereignty controls, supporting Zero Trust models, unifying identity management, and improving endpoint security for global businesses.
- Cloud technology provides organizations with the flexibility they need to increase and decrease their bandwidth with the needs of their operations. This approach can cut costs and give businesses an edge over the competition.



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Top-10 Cloud Vendors, by Revenue, in USD Billions, Global, 2023



Source: [cloudwars.co](https://www.cloudwars.co)

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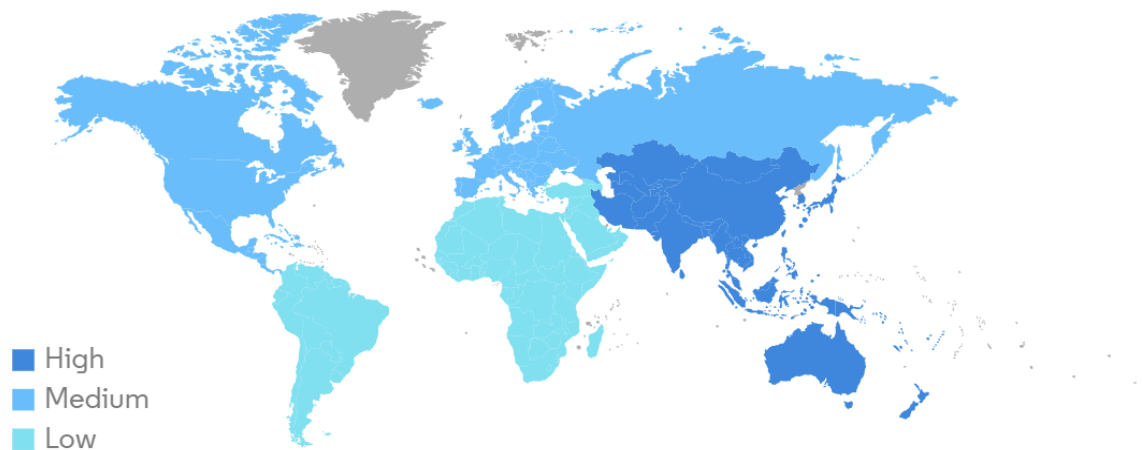
North America is Expected to Hold Major Market Share

- Cybersecurity has become an increasingly important area of focus in the United States in recent years due to the growing number of cyber threats and attacks that organizations and individuals face. According to the Identity Theft Resource Center, the number of data compromises and individuals impacted in the United States in 2022 was 1,802 and 422.14 million, respectively.
- The increasing frequency and sophistication of cyber-attacks are driving the adoption of cybersecurity solutions in the United States. Moreover, the growing regulatory requirements lead many organizations to adopt and invest in cybersecurity solutions, as many industries in the United States are subject to regulations such as HIPPA, GDPR, and PCI DSS.
- Education, the public sector, universities, healthcare, and municipalities were among the major sectors affected by cyber-attacks in terms of data breaches and ransomware in the United States in 2022. There has been significant investment in cybersecurity research and development in the United States. The United States government is allocating a large number of funds. For instance, in April 2022, the United States Department of Energy (DOE) announced that it would invest USD 12 million in six new research, development, and demonstration (RD&D) projects to develop innovative cybersecurity technology to ensure that energy delivery systems are designed, installed, operated, and maintained to survive and recover quickly from cyberattacks.
- In Canada, cybercrime is rapidly gaining traction, and the impact is increasing alarmingly. According to the Ministry for Government Digital Transformation, Quebec, around 3,992 provincial government websites, including those related to health, education, and public administration, can be at risk.

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- In order to support the development of a strong national cybersecurity ecosystem, the Minister of Innovation, Science and Industry announced that the National Cybersecurity Consortium (NCC) received up to USD 80 million to lead the Cyber Security Innovation Network (CSIN) in February 2022. This funding was crucial to foster a strong national cybersecurity ecosystem in Canada and position the country as a global leader in cybersecurity.

Cybersecurity Market - Growth Rate by Region



Source: Mordor Intelligence

[To understand geography trends, Download Sample Report](#)

Cybersecurity Industry Overview

The cybersecurity market comprises several global and regional players vying for attention in a fairly contested market space. Although the market poses high barriers to entry for new players, several new entrants have been able to gain traction. CrowdStrike Holdings Inc., Check Point Software Technologies Ltd, Cisco Systems Inc., Cyberark Software Ltd, and Dell Technologies Inc. are major players in the market.

- In February 2023, Check Point Software Technologies Ltd announced the introduction of Check Point Horizon XDR/XPR, a cooperative cybersecurity solution. It effectively protects organizations against developing cyber threats by smartly correlating data and trying to thwart attacks across all vectors, reducing the impact of threats and making it simple for supervisors and analysts to comprehend and respond to incidents.
- In December 2022, CrowdStrike announced the development of the CrowdStrike Falcon platform to give the sector's finest adversary-driven external attack surface management (EASM) solution for better adversary intelligence and real-time internet access detection. CrowdStrike Falcon Surface, a standalone module featuring abilities from the recent acquisition of Reposify, was announced as part of the platform update.

Cybersecurity Market Leaders

1. CrowdStrike Holdings, Inc.
2. Check Point Software Technologies Ltd

3. CiscoSystemsInc.
4. CyberArkSoftwareLtd
5. DellTechnologiesInc.

CybersecurityMarketNews

- InMarch2023,CrowdStrikeandDellTechnologiesannouncedanewpartnershipagreementtoprovide enterprises with seamless and affordable products to help them avoid, detect, and respond to cyber-attacks. Thepartnershipincludesfocusedservicesforcompaniesofallsizes.Duetothewnewstrategicalliance, organizations can manage cyber threats and safeguard their cloud workloads, endpoints, identities, and data.
- InMarch2023,InfinityGlobalServices,acomprehensivesecuritysolutionthatcanenablebusinessesofallsizes toprotecttheirsystems,fromthecloudtothenetworktotheendpoint,waspresentedbyCheckPointSoftware Technologies Ltd. The new service is expected to increase Check Point's end-to-end security offerings across thirty categories, enabling businesses to develop and improve their cybersecurity procedures and systems and show their level of cyber resilience.

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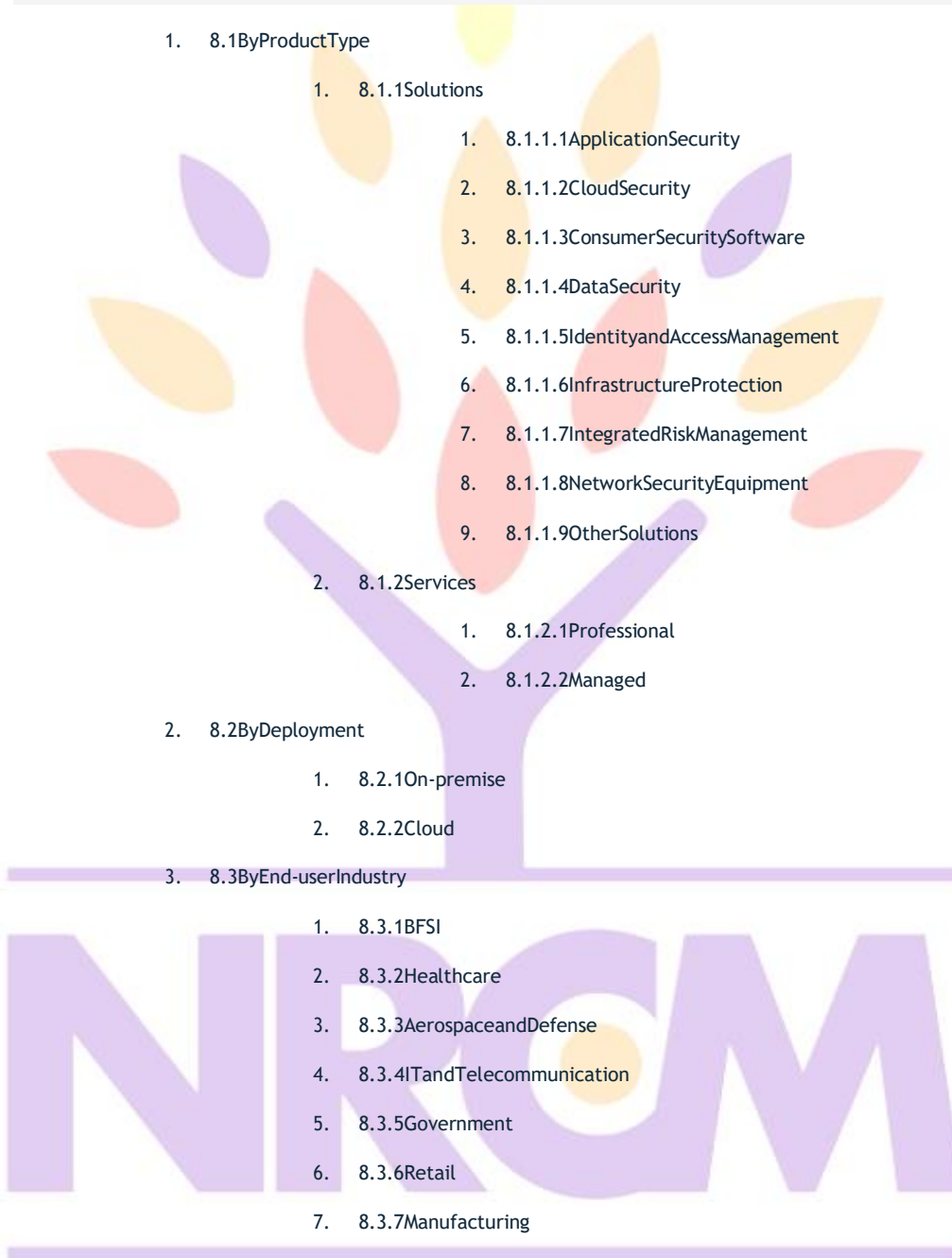
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EmergingTrendsInCybersecurity:

Theever-expandingdigitalfootprintofmodernorganizationsdrivesthisyear'stopcybersecuritytrends.

Securityandriskexecutivesfaceacriticaljuncture,asthedigitalfootprintoforganizationsexpandsandcentralizedcybersecurity control becomes obsolete.

Hybridworkanddigitalbusinessprocessesinthecloudhaveintroducednewrisks.Atthesametime, sophisticatedransomware,attacksontechnologicalsupplychainanddeeplyembeddedvulnerabilitieshaveexposed technologygapsandskillshortages.

"Thesedisruptions don'texistin isolation;theyhaveacompoundeffect,"says PeterFirstbrook,VPAnalystatGartner."To address therisks,CISOs needto transitiontheirrolesfromtechnologists whopreventbreachestocorporatestrategistswho managecyber risk."

Thosewhounderstandtheseseventrends willbebetterabletoaddressnewrisksandelevatetheirrole, butitrequiresreframingthe security practice and rethinking technology, as well as preparing to respond to new threats.

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Top Trends in Cybersecurity, 2022

01



Attack surface expansion

02



Identity system defense

03



Digital supply chain risk

04



Vendor consolidation

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Cybersecurity mesh

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Distributed decisions

07



Beyond awareness

gartner.com

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Gartner

Trend No. 1: Attack surface expansion

Currently, 60% of knowledge workers are remote, and at least 18% will not return to the office. These changes in the way we work, together with greater use of public cloud, highly connected supply chains and use of [cyber-physical systems](#) have exposed new and challenging attack "surfaces."

This leaves organizations more vulnerable to attack. Gartner recommends security leaders look beyond traditional approaches to security monitoring, detection and response to manage a wider set of risks.

Trend No. 2: Identity system defense

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Identity systems are coming under sustained attack. Misuse of [credentials](#) is now a primary method that attackers use to access systems and achieve their goals. For example, in the [SolarWinds breach](#) attackers used a supplier's privileged access to infiltrate the target network.

Gartner uses the term identity threat detection and response (ITDR) to describe a collection of tools and processes to defend identity systems. In the longer term, more consolidated solutions will emerge.

Trend No. 3: Digital supply chain risk

Gartner predicts that by 2025, 45% of organizations worldwide will have experienced attacks on their software supply chains, a three-fold increase from 2021.

Security and risk management leaders need to partner with other departments to prioritize [digital supply chain risk](#) and put pressure on suppliers to demonstrate security best practices.

Trend No. 4: Vendor consolidation

Security products are converging. Vendors are consolidating security functions into single platforms and introducing pricing and licensing options to make packaged solutions more attractive.

While it may introduce new challenges such as reduced negotiating power and potential single points of failure, Gartner sees consolidation as a welcome trend that should reduce complexity, cut costs and improve efficiency, leading to better overall security.

Trend No. 5: Cybersecurity mesh

The [cybersecurity mesh](#) is a modern conceptual approach to security architecture that enables the distributed enterprise to deploy and integrate security to assets, whether they're on premises, in data centers or in the cloud.

Gartner predicts that by 2024, organizations adopting a cybersecurity mesh architecture will reduce the financial impact of individual security incidents by an average of 90%.

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Trend No. 6: Distributed decisions

Executive leaders need a fast and agile cybersecurity function to support digital business priorities. However, as more aspects of the business are digitalized, the job is becoming too big for a centralized CISO role. Leading organizations are building the office of the CISO to enable distributed cyber judgment.

The CISO and the centralized function will continue to set policy, while cybersecurity leaders are placed in different parts of the organization to decentralize security decisions.

Trend No. 7: Beyond awareness

Human error continues to feature in most data breaches, showing that traditional approaches to [security awareness training](#) are ineffective. Progressive organizations are moving beyond outdated compliance-based awareness campaigns and investing in holistic behavior and culture change programs designed to provoke more secure ways of working.

In short:

- Rethink the security technology stack to address sophisticated new threats.
- Push cybersecurity decision making out to the business units to improve your security posture.
- Evolve and reframe the security practice to better manage cyber risk.



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UNIT-5

Case Study On Cyber Crimes Harassment Via E-Mails:

How To Stop Harassing Emails:

You open your inbox, and there it is again. Another email from your harasser. Whether it's an ex-partner, a disgruntled customer, or someone you've never even met, harassment via email is a real problem that can have a serious impact on your emotional well-being. So, you must be wondering, "how do I stop harassing emails" read on to find out.

Table of Contents:

- [What is Email Harassment?](#)
- [Is Sending Harassing Emails a Crime?](#)
- [How To Stop Harassing Emails](#)
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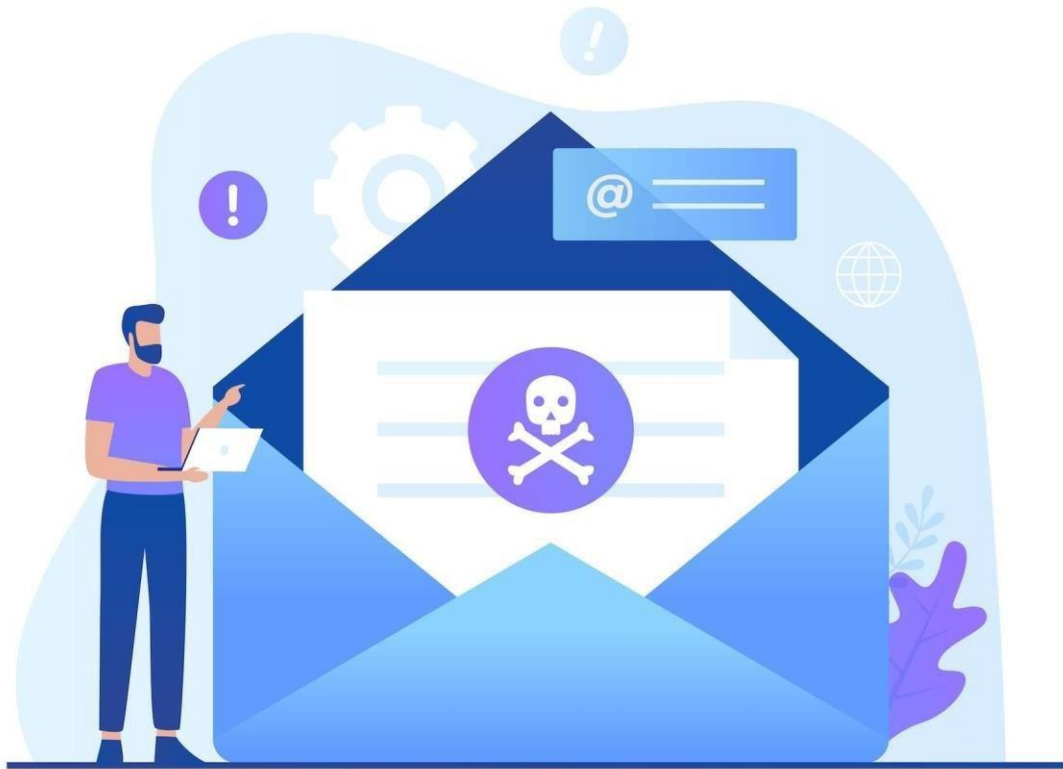


What is Email Harassment?

Email harassment is a type of online harassment that involves sending unwanted, threatening, or offensive emails to someone else. This type of harassment can be particularly difficult to deal with because it can be hard to know who the harasser is and where they are located. Additionally, email harassment can be very upsetting and cause the victim a great deal of stress.

Is Sending Harassing Emails a Crime?

Yes, email harassment is a type of cybercrime and it is considered a form of [cyberstalking](#). Depending on the severity of the harassment, someone who acts on email harassment can be charged with a misdemeanor which carries jail time (often up to a year), and fines, or a felony that carries up to 5 or even 10 years of prison time.



EMAIL VIRUS

How To Stop Harassing Emails

1. Block the sender's email address. This will stop them from being able to email you directly. To do this in Gmail, click the three dots next to the sender's name and select "Block." In Outlook, click the "..." next to the sender's name and select "Block."
2. Report the abuse to your email service provider. If you're using Gmail, you can report abuse by clicking the three dots next to the sender's name and selecting "Report spam." In Outlook, click the "..." next to the sender's name and select "Report as junk." Doing this will help prevent future abuse by flagging the sender as a spammer.
3. Create a filter. A filter is a set of rules that tells your email service how to handle certain types of emails. For example, you can create a filter that automatically deletes all emails from a particular sender or that moves all emails with certain keywords to a specific folder. To create a filter in Gmail, click the three dots next to the

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sender's name and select "Filter messages like these." In Outlook, click the "..." next to the sender's name and select "Create rule."

4. Set up two-factor authentication. Two-factor authentication is an extra layer of security that requires you to enter a code in addition to your password when logging in to your email account. This makes it much more difficult for someone to hack into your account and send harassing emails in your name. To set up two-factor authentication in Gmail, go to your account settings and select "Security." In Outlook, go to your account settings and select "Advanced security settings."
5. Keep evidence of the abuse. If you decide to take legal action against your abuser, having documentation of the harassment can be helpful. Save any abusive emails you receive in a safe place so that you can access them if needed. You should also keep track of any other communications you have with your abuser, such as text messages or social media posts. Keeping track of this information can be time-consuming, but it may be helpful if you decide to pursue legal action against your abuser down the road.

Email Spoofing (Online A Method Of Sending E-Mail Using A False Name Or E-Mail Address To Make It Appear That The E-Mail Comes From Somebody Other Than The True Sender):

What is email spoofing? A complete guide

- Clare Stouffer
- August 31, 2023 4 min read

Have you ever read an email and wondered if it truly came from the listed sender? If so, it may be email spoofing. To

learn more about email spoofing, follow this guide.

Email spoofing definition

Email spoofing is a practice used in scams and phishing attacks to deceive people into believing the message came from a known or trusted source.

Have you ever opened an email from someone you know only to be unsure if it was them who wrote the message?

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Whether it seems like a [spam email](#) or they asked you a personal question they already know the answer to, it's possible the sender may not be who they appear to be.

How, you ask? The answer is email spoofing.

Email Spoofing Explained



Email spoofing is a practice used in scams and phishing attacks to **deceive people into believing the message came from a known or trusted source.**

Email spoofing is a practice used in scams and [phishing attacks](#) to deceive people into believing the message came from a known or trusted source. [Cybercriminals](#) use this technique hoping that the recipient will not notice and engage with the message as if it's a legitimate email.

But before you start second-guessing every email you've ever received, read through this complete guide where we'll cover how email spoofing works, what it looks like, and how you can protect yourself from it.

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How does email spoofing work? + 3 types of email spoofs

In simple terms, the goal of email spoofing is to make the recipient believe the email is coming from someone they can trust. Then the attacker exploits that trust, whether they use it for phishing, spreading different [types of malware](#), or tarnishing the sender's reputation. To help you understand how email spoofing works, here are three different ways an email spoofer may try to trick you.

Display name spoofing

Display name spoofing is an example of spoofing email headers where only the sender's display name is falsified. With this type of email spoofing, the email address itself will not match the display name attached to the email. For example, you may get an email that says it is coming from your boss, but after opening the message, you notice that the sender's email address does not match your boss's.

This is possible if a cybercriminal creates a new email address under your boss's name. Because the email itself is legitimate, this type of spoofed email might bypass any spam filters, therefore easily making it into your inbox.

Legitimate domain spoofing

Legitimate domain spoofing is a much more believable email spoofing example. In this case, both the display name and the sender's address will be fake. Cybercriminals can do this by taking advantage of Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP), which is an email protocol used for sending messages.

During normal email communications, your email client (Gmail, Outlook, etc.) will automatically enter the sender's address whenever an email is sent. In the event of email spoofing, the attacker can manipulate this information, making it seem as if the email is coming from someone else. Because SMTP does not provide a way to authenticate email addresses, the scammer can manually change the "To," "From," and "Reply To" fields when sending spoofing emails.

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Look-alike domain spoofing

Another example of email spoofing is the use of look-alike domains. An example of a spoofed domain is "amaz0n.com." In this specific scenario, the spoofer created a domain attempting to impersonate "amazon.com." At first glance, you may not notice that the "o" has been replaced with a "0."

This technique can be effective if you don't pay close attention to the spoofed email header, especially if the contents of the email look legitimate. Because of this, it's important to always pay close attention to the sender's details before engaging with an email.

Plus: What's the difference between email spoofing vs. phishing?

At first glance, email spoofing may sound a lot like phishing, and in some cases, the two do involve each other. But these two cybersecurity threats are different. Phishing is another type of [cyberattack](#) utilized by cybercriminals to try and lure sensitive information from you. This can take place over text, email, social media, or on the phone (an attack also known as [vishing](#)).

No matter where this attack takes place, the main goal of phishing is to access your personal information for fraudulent activities such as [identity theft](#). Email address spoofing may play a crucial role in these attacks, allowing the cybercriminal to appear as if they are somebody else.

But phishing isn't the only reason a cybercriminal may use email spoofing to their advantage. Let's look at some other reasons for email spoofing.



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Why Is Email Spoofing Used?



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Reasons for email spoofing

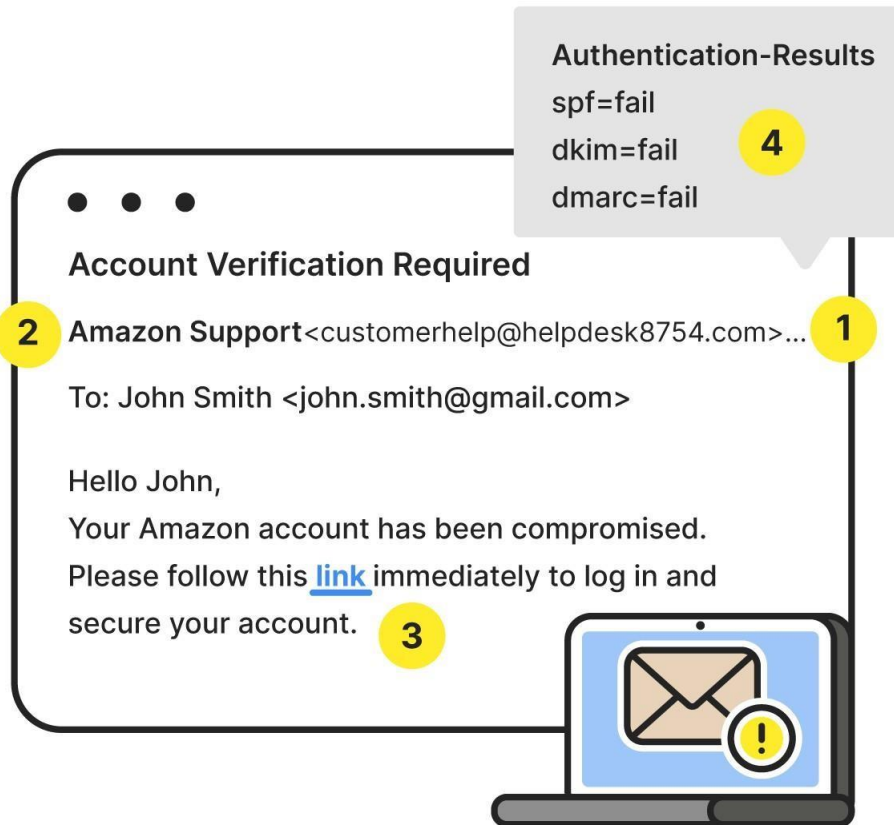
While email spoofing is often used for phishing attacks, there are many other reasons a cybercriminal might try spoofing an email address, including:

- **Anonymity:** Email spoofing can help conceal the sender's identity, allowing them to carry out attacks without fear of the recipient knowing who they truly are.
- **Bypassing spam filters:** Most email providers have built-in spam filters that can help filter out a lot of spam emails. By utilizing email spoofing, an attacker may be able to sneak into your inbox.
- **Impersonating a trusted individual or organization:** Similar to [catfishing](#), email spoofing may be used to impersonate someone you know or a trusted organization in hopes that you'll disclose personal information they wouldn't be able to access otherwise.
- **Identity theft:** Some spoofed email messages are designed to trick you into giving up login credentials or other personal identifying information, which could lead to identity theft.
- **Bypassing blocklists:** Like bypassing spam filters, email spoofing may be used to send a spoofed email to a recipient who they would otherwise be blocked from communicating with.
- **Spreading malware:** A spoofed email may contain malicious links with [malware](#), which could damage your device and put your cybersecurity at risk.
- **Man-in-the-middle (MITM) attacks:** In some cases, email spoofing is used to carry out MITM attacks, which also involve phishing. A common example of this is when an attacker impersonates your bank using a fake sender email address and website link.
- **Damaging the sender's reputation:** Because a spoofed message looks like it's coming from someone else, a cybercriminal could use the message to tarnish the sender's reputation by sending lies or rude messages.

As you can see, there are many reasons why a cybercriminal might use email spoofing to their advantage. But how does email spoofing work? How to spot a spoofed email.

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What Does a Spoofed Email Look Like?



1 Suspicious email address

2 Display name doesn't match address

3 Sense of urgency

4 Fails security protocols

Now that you know the different ways an email spoofer could try to impersonate another sender, you may be wondering how you can quickly spot a spoofed email.

Whenever you come across an email you're unsure about, keep an eye out for these warning signs.

- **Suspicious email address:** Be sure to check and make sure that the email domain matches the correct domain of whomever the sender is claiming to be. Also, keep a close eye out for typos or look-alike domains.
- **Display name doesn't match address:** Another hint of a spoofed email message is if the display name differs from the sender's email address. If it's someone you've spoken with before, check and see if the current sender's address matches the one used in previous communications.
- **Sense of urgency:** Because spoofed emails are often used for phishing or other types of cyberattacks, the sender may use [social engineering](#) tactics to create a sense of urgency, rushing you to respond or follow their instructions.

While it's possible that not every spoofing email will show these signs, carefully analyzing the sender's address and display name can help you catch some spoofed emails that may have made it to your inbox. Fortunately, most popular email providers have put additional security frameworks in place to help detect spoofed emails, including:

- **Sender Policy Framework (SPF):** SPF checks to see if the sender's [IP address](#) is associated with the email domain they are using when sending an email.
- **Domain Keys Identified Mail (DKIM):** DKIM works to verify that the email hasn't been altered between the sender's and recipient's servers.
- **Domain-based Message Authentication, Reporting, and Conformance (DMARC):** DMARC gives the sender the option to inform the recipient that the email is protected by SPF or DKIM.

Not only do these security measures help alert users of spam and spoofed emails, but they can be used to help verify if an email is legitimate. To learn how you can use these security protocols to check the legitimacy of a message, follow the following steps based on your email provider.

How to check SPF, DKIM, and DMARC status on Gmail:

1. View the email in question.
2. Click the three-dot icon in the top right corner of the email.
3. Select "Show original."

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4. Check and see if the email is marked "pass" or "fail" for each section.

How to check SPF, DKIM, and DMARC status on Outlook:

1. View the email in question.
2. Click the three-dot icon in the top right corner of the email.
3. Hover over "View" and then select "View message details."
4. Scroll through the details and view "Authentication-Results" to see if the email is marked "pass" or "fail" for each section.

How to check SPF, DKIM, and DMARC status on Yahoo Mail:

1. View the email in question.
2. Click the three-dot icon in the top right corner of the email.
3. Select "View raw message."
4. Scroll through the details and view "Authentication-Results" to see if the email is marked "pass" or "fail" for each section.

By taking these additional precautions, you can be sure that you're dealing with a legitimate sender, therefore reducing the risk of a spoofed email address going unnoticed.



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Email Spoofing Protection Tips



Watch for suspicious email addresses



Avoid clicking links and attachments



Run a search for related scams



Check for grammar and spelling errors



Safeguard your personal information



Use antivirus software

In addition to doing your best to identify a spoofed email before responding, there are precautions you can take to protect yourself from email spoofing. To help keep yourself Cyber Safe while using email, follow these protection tips:

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- **Watch for suspicious or unknown email addresses:** One of the first indicators of many spoofed emails is the use of a suspicious email address. In some cases, the email address could contain typos or replace letters with numbers.

- **Avoid clicking links and attachments:** Be sure to avoid clicking any links or attachments, as spoofed emails may contain links that can take you to [malicious websites](#) or expose you to malware.
- **Run a search for related scams:** If an email seems suspicious, copy and paste the contents of the email into a search engine. It's possible that the email has been sent to others before, and it may have been reported as a scam somewhere online.
- **Check for grammar and spelling errors:** In many cases, spoofed emails contain spelling and grammatical errors that a legitimate message would not.
- **Safeguard your personal information:** Always think twice before sharing any sort of personal information online. If you do, be sure to verify that you're sharing it with a reliable person or organization.
- **Use antivirus software:** [Antivirus software](#) can help protect your device from the dangers of emails spoofing like phishing, malware, and identity theft.

Now that you have a better understanding of email spoofing and how you can protect yourself against it, you can follow up, circle back, and send with confidence. Above all, it's important to always use common sense and be cautious, as there are other threats that can impact your [email security](#).

FAQs about email spoofing

Still have more questions? We've got answers. Read along to learn answers to these commonly asked questions about email spoofing.

What's the difference between a spoofed and a hacked account?

The difference between a spoofed and a [hacked email account](#) is that a hacked account means that the hacker has gained full access to your email account, allowing them to send legitimate messages from your address. In the event that your email address is spoofed, the [hacker](#) will only be attempting to make it look as if the message is coming from you, but they won't have access to your account.

Can email spoofing be traced?

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Generally speaking, yes, email spoofing can be traced. This is due to a security protocol known as Sender Policy Framework (SPF), which can locate the sender's IP address.

Can someone use my email address without me knowing it?

Unfortunately, there is no way to completely prevent cybercriminals from attempting to use your email address. However, there are precautions you can take to prevent a scammer from logging into your email account, such as using strong passwords and enabling [two-factor authentication](#).

Cyber Pornography (Exm. MMS):

Cyber-stalking:

What is cyberstalking?

Cyberstalking is a crime in which someone harasses or stalks a victim using electronic or digital means, such as social media, [email](#), instant messaging ([IM](#)), or messages posted to a [discussion group](#) or forum. Cyberstalker take advantage of the anonymity afforded by the internet to stalk or harass their victims, sometimes without being caught, punished or even detected.



The terms *cyberstalking* and [cyberbullying](#) are often used interchangeably. Cyberstalking, however, is actually a form of cyberbullying, which--along with [cybersquatting](#) and [cyberterrorism](#)--is among the growing number of computer- and internet-related crimes, collectively referred to as [cybercrime](#).

Although *cyberstalking* is a general term for online harassment, it can take many forms, including slander, defamation, false accusations, trolling and even outright threats. In many cases, especially when both the harasser and victim are individuals, the motive may be the following:

- monitor the victim's online--and, in some cases, offline--activities;
- track the victim's locations and follow them online or offline;

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- annoy the victim;
- intimidate, frighten, control or blackmail the victim;
- reveal private information about the victim, a practice known as *doxing*; or
- gather more information about the victim to steal their identity or perpetrate other real-world crimes, like theft or harassment.

Cyberstalkers often start small. In the beginning, they may send a few strange or somewhat unpleasant messages to their intended victim. Then, later, they may brush off these messages as funny, annoying or mildly weird and ignore them without taking any action.

Overtime, the messages may become systematic, sustained and repetitive and take on an increasingly intimidating or frightening tone.

Direct and indirect cyberstalking

Cyberstalking can be direct or indirect.

Perpetrators may directly email their victims or flood their inboxes with emails. Or they may harass them through IM, voicemail, texting or other forms of electronic communications. They may use technology to surveil or follow their victims or continuously view their pages -- often without their knowledge.

Sometimes, cyberstalkers may send obscene, vulgar or offensive comments, social media follower or friend requests, or even outright threats. The stalkers may either attack the victims, which may distress them, or cause them to fear for their safety and well-being. They may also attack their victims' family or friends to expand their sphere of stalking influence.

In indirect cyberstalking attacks, perpetrators may damage the victim's device. They may do this by infecting it with [ransomware](#) to lock their files and then forcing them to pay a ransom for unlocking them. Or they may install [a virus](#) or [keystroke logger](#) that monitors the victim's digital behavior and/or steals data from the device.

A particular type of spyware called [stalkerware](#) can run on a victim's internet-enabled digital device and collect the user's actions on these devices, including emails, text messages, photographs and keystrokes.

In other indirect attacks, perpetrators may post false or malicious information about their victims online to damage their social standing or professional reputations -- a form of *cybersmearing* -- or set up a fake social media or forum account in their victims' names to impersonate them and post online material on their behalf.

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Cyberstalking: Victims and criminals

Often, cyberstalkers pursue their victims over a sustained period. An overwhelming majority of cyberstalkers are men, while victims are usually women. However, cyberstalking cases where women were the perpetrators are not unheard of.

For instance, following the 2006 Megan Meier suicide case in Missouri, a female cyberstalker was indicted and convicted in 2008 of violating the [Computer Fraud and Abuse Act](#). Occasionally, men have been victims in some cyberstalking cases.

Victims of cyberstalking could be individuals -- mature adults, young adults and children are all susceptible -- or groups, organizations or even governments. According to the [Federal Bureau of Investigation](#), children and adults are particularly vulnerable to one particular type of cyberstalking: *sextortion*.

This is when a stalker threatens a victim with the release of private or sensitive information unless the latter can meet the former's demands for sexual favors, nude photos, etc.

Consequences of cyberstalking

As part of a cyberstalking campaign, a stalker may harass a victim with content that's simply annoying or inappropriate and more of a nuisance than anything else. In more serious cases, victims may have to contend with content that's disturbing, traumatizing or threatening. They may face severe forms of online harassment, including sexual harassment and physical threats.

In almost every cyberstalking case, victims feel annoyed at best and fearful at worst. Confusion, anger and anxiety are common among victims. Some may also experience insomnia or suffer from physical ailments, like headaches, acid reflux or stomach ulcers, or mental ailments, like depression or [post-traumatic stress disorder](#). In extreme cases, they may become suicidal.

Is cyberstalking a crime?

Cyberstalking is a crime in many countries, including the United States. However, legislation to prevent cyberstalking and to punish apprehended cyberstalkers varies from country to country and, in the case of the U.S., even from state to state.

California was the first U.S. state to pass cyberstalking law in 1999. Other U.S. states with at least some kind of cyberstalking legislation include the following:

- Alabama
- New York
- Illinois
- Hawaii
- Arizona
- Texas

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- Florida

Missouri's anti-cyberstalking law, meant to criminalize the use of the internet to harass someone, was written after the aforementioned Megan Meier case.

Since 2000, U.S. federal law specifically addresses cyberstalking under the Violence Against Women Act. The punishment for cyberstalking ranges from monetary fines to time in prison.

Other countries that have anti-cyberstalking legislation in place include the following:

- Australia
- Canada
- Philippines
- India
- Pakistan
- Nigeria
- Singapore
- South Africa

In the U.K., cyberharassment is a prosecutable crime under the Protection from Harassment Act 1997 or the Malicious Communications Act 1988. Some countries like Singapore also have laws to prosecute internet trolls.

The practice of doxing, the online publication of a user's personal and identifying data, is considered a violation of Article 8 of the European Convention on Human Rights.

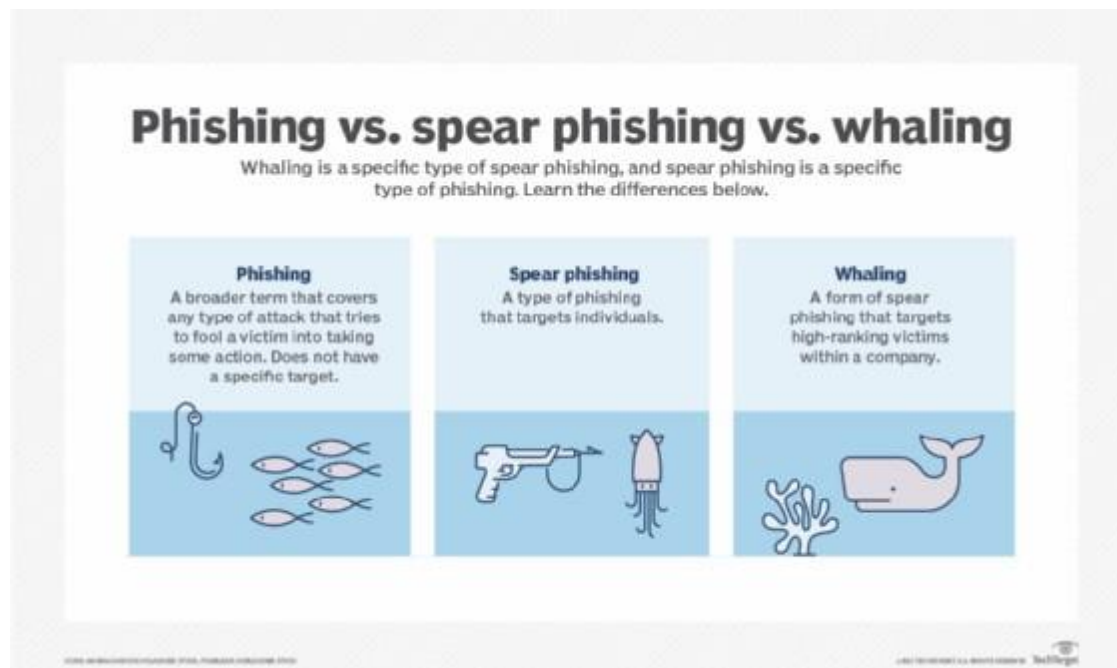
How to guard against cyberstalking

Individuals can guard against cyberstalking without losing their online independence. One strategy is to stay as anonymous as possible. Of course, complete anonymity is almost impossible on the internet nowadays, so the next best thing is to keep a profile, especially on social media.

Rather than having an identifiable and traceable online presence, use nicknames and/or gender-neutral names when possible. Avoid posting personal details, such as your email address, home address, phone number or workplace details, online, where anyone can easily access them and use them to cyberstalk. Also, guard photographs, and make sure all private information, like vacation plans, photos and posts, are visible only to trusted individuals.

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Use a primary email account only for communicating with known/trusted people, and set up an anonymous email account for all other communications. Install email spam filters to minimize spam and the possibility of email-based [phishing](#) or cyberstalking attacks.



Other ways to guard against cyberstalking include the following:

- update all software to prevent information leaks;
- mask your [Internet Protocol address](#) with a [virtual private network](#);
- strengthen privacy settings on social media;
- strengthen all devices with strong passwords or, better, use [multifactor authentication](#);
- avoid using public [Wi-Fi](#) networks;
- send private information via private messages, not by posting on public forums;
- safeguard mobile devices by using password protection and never leave devices unattended;
- disable [geolocation](#) settings on devices;
- install antivirus software on devices to detect malicious software;
- always log out of all accounts at the end of a session; and
- beware of installing apps that ask to access your personal information.

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Multifactor authentication

- Time
- Location
- Something you have
- Something you are
- Something you know



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Multifactor authentication requires, as the name indicates, using multiple factors to authenticate identity. These could include something you know (say, a password), something you have (say, a smartphone) or something you are (say, biometrics-- fingerprints, face ID, etc.).

What to do if cyberstalked

Should an individual become the victim of a cyberstalker, it's important to take immediate action.

The most effective course of action is to report the offender to their internet service provider ([ISP](#)). Should that option be ineffective, they should change their ISP and all online names.

Block the person, even if these messages are not yet threatening. Also, report them to the platform, especially if they're harassing, stalking or threatening. Most social media platforms make it easy to report abusive behavior. These include [Facebook](#), [Twitter](#) and [LinkedIn](#).

If the stalking has become threatening or frightening, save evidence, and contact law enforcement. Also, minimize the amount of information that's available online and/or increase the amount of faked decoy information about you to mislead cyberstalkers.

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