



DOMAIN

TOPIC FOUR

# Network Security

24% of the exam · 9 lessons

The largest domain, and the most technical; models, ports, threats, cloud, design

# The largest domain on the exam

24%

of the exam — the biggest single share

9

lessons in this topic

~105

minutes

## Why this one is different

- Domains 1 to 3 were concepts; this is concrete technical detail
- Port numbers, layer numbers and protocol names must be recalled exactly
- No amount of reasoning recovers a forgotten port number

## So the method changes again

- Flashcards from day one — ports, layers, protocol pairs
- Ten minutes of drilling beats an hour of reading here
- Concepts still matter: cloud responsibility and segmentation reward understanding

# The nine lessons

1

## Networking fundamentals

What a network is, the OSI and TCP/IP models, and devices by layer

2

## Addressing and Wi-Fi

IPv4 and IPv6, MAC addresses, NAT, DHCP, DNS, wireless security

3

## Ports and protocols

Well-known ports, insecure-to-secure pairs, the TCP handshake

4

## Threats and attacks

Malware, denial of service, on-path, spoofing, social engineering

5

## Detection and prevention

Firewalls, IDS versus IPS, antimalware, SIEM, scanning

6

## Data centres and redundancy

Power, HVAC, fire suppression, redundancy, MOU and MOA

7

## Cloud

Characteristics, service models, deployment models, MSP, SLA

8

## Secure network design

Defence in depth, zero trust, NAC, DMZ, VLANs, microsegmentation, VPN

9

## Consolidation

Drills for the memorisation set, plus scenario practice

*Lessons 3 and 7 carry the most reliably tested content: the port pairs and the cloud responsibility split.*

# 4.1

## LESSON

# Networking Fundamentals

### OBJECTIVE

Describe what a network does, recite both reference models, and place common devices and protocols at the right layer.

- What a network is, and why the models exist
- The seven OSI layers and the four TCP/IP layers
- How the two models map onto each other
- Devices by layer: hub, switch, router, firewall

# Why there are reference models at all

**A network moves data between devices that were never designed together.**

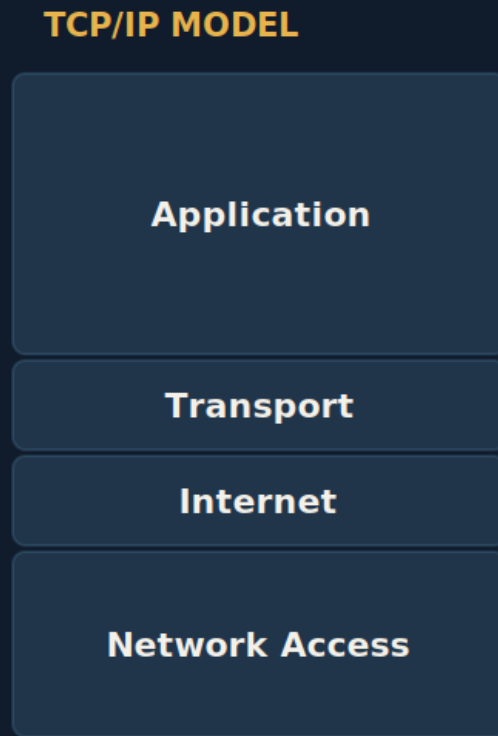
**The models are the agreement that makes that possible.**

- Each layer does one job and hands off to the next
- A layer can be replaced without rewriting the others — copper to fibre changes layer 1 only
- Troubleshooting works by layer: no link light is layer 1, no IP address is layer 3
- The exam uses layer numbers as shorthand, so the numbering has to be automatic

# Seven layers, and four

Seven layers on the left, four on the right. Know both, and know how they map.

| OSI MODEL |              |                            |
|-----------|--------------|----------------------------|
| 7         | Application  | HTTP, DNS, SMTP, FTP       |
| 6         | Presentation | Encoding, encryption, TLS  |
| 5         | Session      | Session setup and teardown |
| 4         | Transport    | TCP, UDP · ports           |
| 3         | Network      | IP, ICMP · routers         |
| 2         | Data Link    | MAC, Ethernet · switches   |
| 1         | Physical     | Cables, radio · hubs       |



Mnemonic bottom-up: Please Do Not Throw Sausage Pizza Away.

# What each OSI layer actually does

## 7 Application

The protocols users and programs interact with — HTTP, DNS, SMTP, FTP.

## 6 Presentation

Translation, encoding, compression and encryption. TLS is commonly placed here.

## 5 Session

Establishing, managing and tearing down conversations between hosts.

## 4 Transport

End-to-end delivery. TCP and UDP live here, and so do PORT NUMBERS.

## 3 Network

Logical addressing and routing between networks. IP and ICMP; routers operate here.

## 2 Data Link

Local delivery on a single network segment. MAC addresses, Ethernet; switches operate here.

## 1 Physical

The actual signalling — cable, fibre, radio. Hubs and repeaters operate here.

*Ports at layer 4 and IP at layer 3 are the two placements the exam checks most often.*

# Devices by layer

## Hub — layer 1

- Repeats every frame to every port
- No intelligence, no filtering
- A security problem: every host sees all traffic. Obsolete for good reason

## Switch — layer 2

- Forwards by MAC address
- Sends traffic only to the intended port
- Supports VLANs, which is why segmentation is possible

## Router — layer 3

- Forwards between networks by IP address
- Makes path decisions
- The boundary device between networks

## Firewall — layer 3/4+

- Permits or blocks by rule
- Next-generation firewalls inspect up to layer 7
- Filters; it does not route as its main job

*Why the hub matters historically: it is the reason network sniffing was once trivial on any LAN.*

## 4.2

### LESSON

# Addressing and Wi-Fi

#### OBJECTIVE

Distinguish IPv4 from IPv6, explain what MAC addresses, NAT, DHCP and DNS do, and compare wireless security protocols.

- IPv4 and IPv6 formats and address sizes
- MAC addressing, and how it differs from IP
- NAT, DHCP and DNS — what each one solves
- WEP, WPA, WPA2, WPA3 and open networks

# IPv4 and IPv6

## IPv4

- 32 bits, written as four decimal octets: 192.168.1.10
- About 4.3 billion addresses — exhausted, hence NAT
- Private ranges: 10.0.0.0/8, 172.16.0.0/12, 192.168.0.0/16
- Loopback 127.0.0.1

## IPv6

- 128 bits, written as eight hexadecimal groups
- 2001:0db8:85a3::8a2e:0370:7334 — double colon compresses zeros
- Address space large enough that NAT is unnecessary
- Loopback ::1

## MAC addresses are different

- 48 bits, burned into the network interface, used for LOCAL delivery at layer 2. IP is logical and routable; MAC is physical and local. Both are used on every local transmission

# Three services that make addressing usable

## NAT

Network Address Translation. Many private internal addresses share one public address. Conserves IPv4 space and incidentally hides internal addressing, though it is not a security control in itself.

## DHCP

Assigns IP configuration automatically when a device joins. Ports 67 and 68. A rogue DHCP server is an attack — it can point victims at an attacker's gateway or DNS.

## DNS

Resolves names to addresses. Port 53. Poisoning DNS is an integrity attack that redirects users to attacker-controlled hosts while the address bar still looks right.

## ARP

Maps IP addresses to MAC addresses on the local segment. ARP spoofing enables on-path attacks inside a LAN.

*NAT is not a firewall. It is a commonly tested misconception.*

# Wireless security, oldest to newest

## The progression

- WEP — broken. Crackable in minutes. Never acceptable
- WPA — an interim fix, also now weak
- WPA2 — the long-standing baseline, using AES
- WPA3 — current, with stronger key exchange and protection for open networks

## Other wireless facts

- SSID is the network name; hiding it is not a security control
- MAC filtering is trivially bypassed by spoofing
- Open networks provide no encryption — anything unencrypted above is readable
- An evil twin is a rogue access point imitating a legitimate SSID
- Guest wireless should be segmented from the corporate network

## 4.3

### LESSON

# Ports and Protocols

#### OBJECTIVE

Recall common ports, name the secure counterpart of an insecure protocol, and describe the TCP handshake.

- Port ranges and what they mean
- TCP versus UDP
- The insecure-to-secure protocol pairs
- SYN, SYN-ACK, ACK — and the attack that abuses it

# Two transport protocols, different bargains

## TCP

- Connection-oriented — a handshake first
- Reliable: acknowledges, retransmits, orders packets
- Slower and heavier
- Used where correctness matters: web, email, file transfer

## UDP

- Connectionless — just send
- No acknowledgement, no retransmission, no ordering
- Fast and light
- Used where timeliness beats completeness: DNS lookups, VoIP, streaming, DHCP

## Port ranges

- Well-known 0–1023 · registered 1024–49151 · dynamic or ephemeral 49152–65535. A service listening on a well-known port is doing something standard

# Learn these as pairs

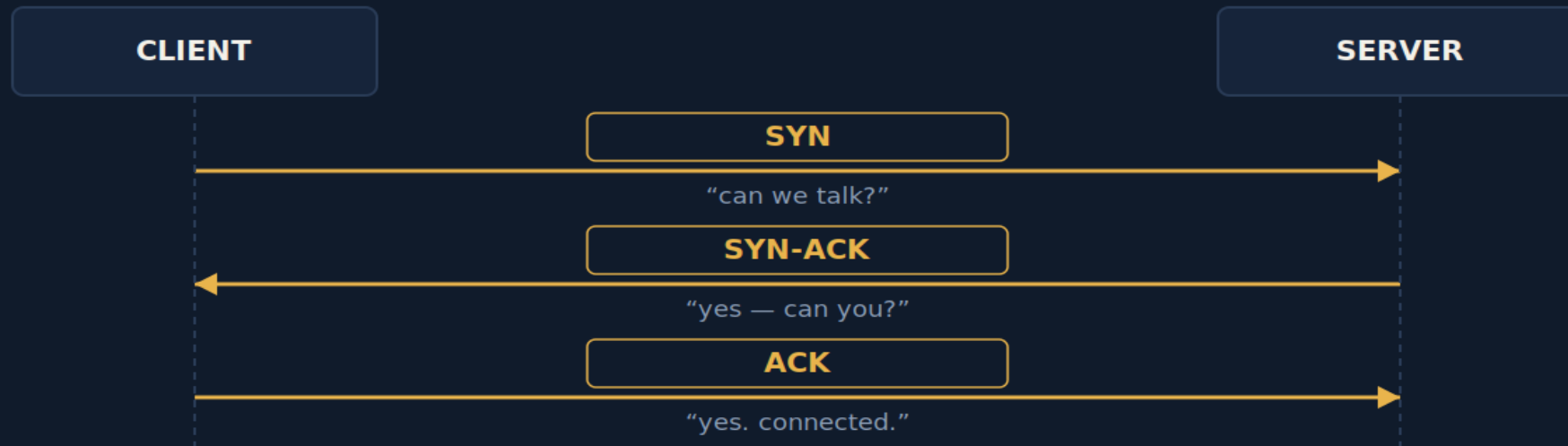
Learn these as PAIRS. The exam asks for the secure counterpart.

| INSECURE  |           |   | SECURE COUNTERPART |              |
|-----------|-----------|---|--------------------|--------------|
| FTP       | 20 / 21   | - | SFTP / FTPS        | 22 / 989-990 |
| Telnet    | 23        | - | SSH                | 22           |
| SMTP      | 25        | - | SMTPS              | 465 / 587    |
| DNS       | 53        | - | DNS over TLS       | 853          |
| HTTP      | 80        | - | HTTPS              | 443          |
| POP3      | 110       | - | POP3S              | 995          |
| IMAP      | 143       | - | IMAPS              | 993          |
| LDAP      | 389       | - | LDAPS              | 636          |
| SNMP v1/2 | 161 / 162 | - | SNMP v3            | 161 / 162    |

Also: RDP 3389 · SMB 445 · DHCP 67/68 · Kerberos 88. Ranges: well-known 0–1023, registered 1024–49151, dynamic 49152–65535.

# Three packets, and one attack

Three packets to open a TCP connection. One attack abuses the middle step.



## **SYN flood**

The attacker sends SYN and never sends the final ACK.

The server holds half-open connections until it exhausts resources — a denial-of-service attack.

## 4.4

### LESSON

# Threats and Attacks

#### OBJECTIVE

Identify types of network threat and attack from a description, and distinguish the malware families.

- The malware families and how they differ
- Denial of service and distributed denial of service
- On-path, spoofing, sniffing and replay
- Social engineering and the human attack surface

# The malware families

**Virus**

Attaches to a file or program and needs a user action to spread. Requires a host.

**Worm**

Self-propagating — spreads across a network with no user action. The distinction from a virus is examinable.

**Trojan**

Disguised as something legitimate. The user installs it willingly, believing it is useful.

**Ransomware**

Encrypts data and demands payment. Primarily an availability attack; a breach only if data is also taken.

**Rootkit**

Hides its own presence, often at a deep system level, to maintain persistent access.

**Spyware**

Covertly gathers information — keystrokes, browsing, credentials.

**Logic bomb**

Dormant code that triggers on a condition — a date, or a user record disappearing from payroll.

*Virus needs a host and a user; a worm needs neither. That single line answers most malware questions.*

# Attacks against the network itself

## DoS

One source overwhelms a target so legitimate users cannot reach it. An availability attack.

## DDoS

The same, from many sources at once — usually a botnet. Far harder to filter because the traffic looks distributed and ordinary.

## On-path (MITM)

The attacker positions between two parties, able to read and alter traffic. Enabled by ARP spoofing, rogue access points or DNS poisoning.

## Spoofing

Falsifying a source — IP, MAC, email sender, caller ID — to appear as someone else.

## Sniffing

Passive capture of traffic. Effective against anything unencrypted, which is why the insecure protocols matter.

## Replay

Capturing valid traffic and resending it to repeat an action. Countered by timestamps, sequence numbers and nonces.

## Side-channel

Inferring secrets from physical characteristics — timing, power draw, electromagnetic emission — rather than by breaking the algorithm.

*Also: zero-day (no patch exists), APT (a persistent, resourced intruder), botnet (the compromised fleet used to launch DDoS).*

# Social engineering is a network threat

## The delivery methods

- Phishing — mass email
- Spear phishing — targeted at an individual
- Whaling — targeted at an executive
- Vishing — by voice call
- Smishing — by SMS
- Pretexting — inventing a scenario to justify the request

## Why it works

- Urgency and authority short-circuit judgement
- It bypasses every technical control at once
- One credential can be worth more than any exploit
- It scales cheaply — cost per attempt is near zero

## What actually helps

- Awareness training, repeated and measured (Domain 5)
- Multi-factor authentication, so a stolen password is insufficient
- Verification procedures for payment and access changes
- A culture where challenging a request is safe

*Phishing is the most common initial access route in real incidents, which is why it appears across three domains.*

## 4.5

### LESSON

# Detection and Prevention

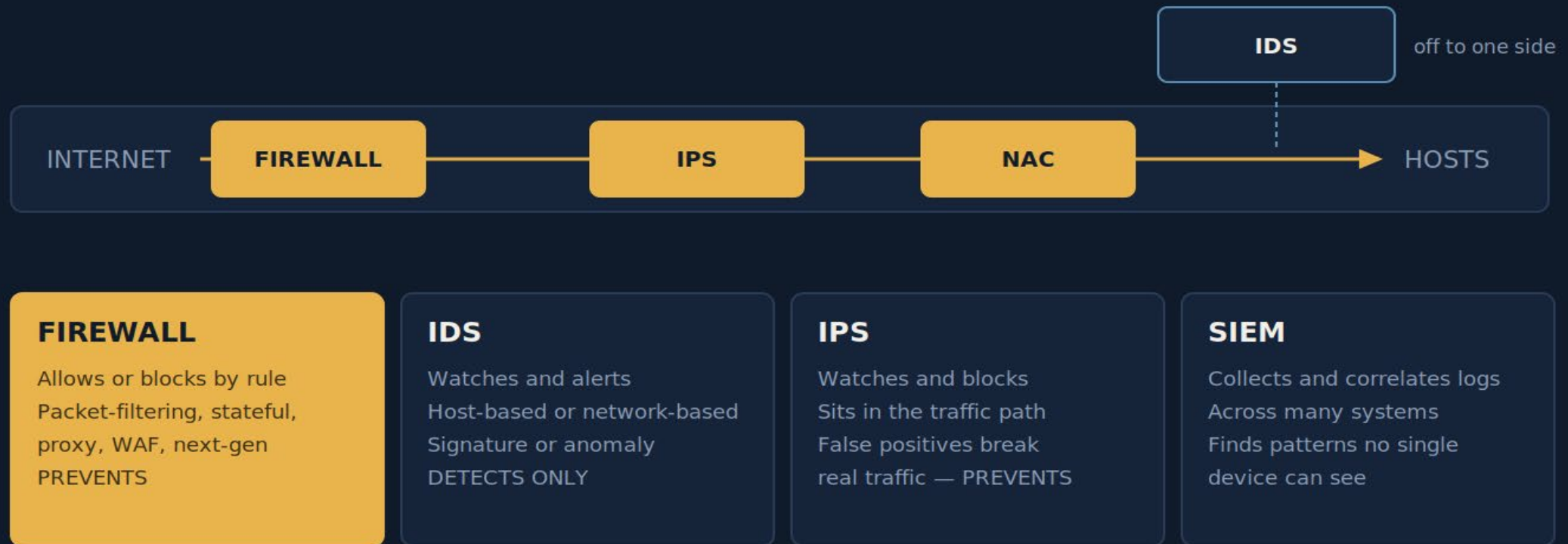
#### OBJECTIVE

Describe the common tools used to identify and prevent threats, and state precisely what distinguishes an IDS from an IPS.

- Firewall types, from packet-filtering to next-generation
- IDS versus IPS — the tested distinction
- Host-based versus network-based, signature versus anomaly
- Antimalware, scanning, SIEM and honeypots

# Where each tool sits

Where each tool sits, and what it actually does.



The tested distinction: IDS detects and alerts. IPS detects and blocks. That is the whole difference.

# Firewall types, simplest to most capable

## Packet-filtering

Decides per packet on source, destination, port and protocol. Fast, stateless, and blind to context.

## Stateful inspection

Tracks connection state, so it can tell a legitimate reply from an unsolicited packet. The practical baseline.

## Proxy

Terminates the connection and makes its own on the client's behalf. Can inspect content; adds latency.

## WAF

Web application firewall. Inspects HTTP specifically for application attacks such as injection and cross-site scripting.

## Next-generation

Stateful inspection plus application awareness, user identity and integrated threat intelligence.

*A firewall enforces a rule set. It cannot stop an attack that arrives over a permitted port in permitted traffic.*

# Two axes to classify detection

## Where it sits

- HIDS — host-based: watches one system, sees encrypted traffic after decryption and local file changes
- NIDS — network-based: watches a segment, sees traffic between hosts but not inside encryption

## How it decides

- Signature-based: matches known patterns. Accurate on known threats, blind to novel ones
- Anomaly or behaviour-based: flags deviation from a learned baseline. Can catch novel attacks; produces more false positives

## Why the combination matters

- A signature-based NIDS is blind to a zero-day inside TLS. This is exactly the gap host-based and anomaly-based tools are deployed to cover

# The rest of the toolkit

## Antimalware

- Signature and behaviour detection on endpoints
- Requires current definitions
- Scheduled and on-access scanning

## Scanning

- Vulnerability scans find known weaknesses
- Port scans reveal what is listening
- Penetration testing goes further — authorised exploitation

## SIEM

- Aggregates and correlates logs from many sources
- Finds patterns no single device can see
- Only as good as the logs it receives

## Honeypot

- A deliberately exposed decoy
- Any interaction with it is suspicious by definition
- A honeynet is a network of them

*Note the pattern: none of these is preventive on its own. They inform decisions and shorten detection time.*

## 4.6

### LESSON

# Data Centres and Redundancy

## OBJECTIVE

Identify common data centre terminology and explain how redundancy is achieved at each level.

- Power, cooling and environmental control
- Fire detection and suppression
- Redundancy: components, systems, sites
- MOU and MOA

# What a data centre has to solve

## Power

- UPS — bridges seconds to minutes
- Generator — bridges hours to days
- Dual feeds from separate substations
- A UPS without a generator only buys time to shut down cleanly

## Cooling and environment

- HVAC to hold temperature and humidity
- Hot and cold aisle containment
- Humidity matters both ways: too low causes static, too high causes condensation
- Cooling failure takes a room offline as surely as power loss

## Fire

- Detection: smoke, heat, flame sensors
- Suppression: wet pipe, dry pipe, pre-action, deluge
- Clean agent or gas systems suppress without water damage
- Pre-action needs two triggers — reduces accidental discharge

*Life safety outranks equipment. Fire suppression design must permit people to leave first.*

# Redundancy at four levels

## Component

RAID for disks, dual power supplies, teamed network interfaces. Survives one part failing.

## System

Clustering and failover — a second server takes over. Often described as N+1: one spare beyond what is needed.

## Connectivity

Two internet providers, ideally with physically separate cable routes. Two providers on one duct is one point of failure.

## Site

A second facility, geographically separated. The hot, warm and cold sites from Domain 2.

*The recurring principle: redundancy only helps if the redundant part does not share the failure. Correlated risk again.*

# MOU and MOA

## The two terms

- MOU — Memorandum of Understanding. A statement of intent to cooperate. Broad, and typically not legally binding
- MOA — Memorandum of Agreement. More specific, setting out responsibilities and often obligations. Closer to a contract

## Where they appear

- Shared facility arrangements
- Mutual aid between organisations
- Reciprocal recovery sites (Domain 2)
- Data-sharing between partners or agencies
- Compare with an SLA, which commits to measurable service levels and is contractual

# 4.7

## LESSON

# Cloud

### OBJECTIVE

Recognise cloud service terminology, state who is responsible for what under each service model, and distinguish the deployment models.

- The five defining characteristics
- IaaS, PaaS and SaaS, and the responsibility split
- Public, private, hybrid and community
- MSP and SLA

# Five characteristics that define cloud

- 1 On-demand self-service** You provision resources yourself, without a human on the provider's side.
- 2 Broad network access** Reachable over the network from standard devices.
- 3 Resource pooling** Multi-tenancy — your workloads share physical infrastructure with other customers.
- 4 Rapid elasticity** Capacity scales up and down quickly, in principle automatically.
- 5 Measured service** Usage is metered and billed accordingly — the pay-for-what-you-use model.

*Resource pooling is the one with security consequences: multi-tenancy means isolation is the provider's job and your risk.*

# Who is responsible for what

Who patches the operating system? The answer changes with the service model.

|                       | On-premises | IaaS     | PaaS     | SaaS     |
|-----------------------|-------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Data & access         | YOU         | YOU      | YOU      | YOU      |
| Application           | YOU         | YOU      | YOU      | PROVIDER |
| Runtime / middleware  | YOU         | YOU      | YOU      | PROVIDER |
| Operating system      | YOU         | YOU      | PROVIDER | PROVIDER |
| Virtualisation        | YOU         | PROVIDER | PROVIDER | PROVIDER |
| Servers & storage     | YOU         | PROVIDER | PROVIDER | PROVIDER |
| Networking & facility | YOU         | PROVIDER | PROVIDER | PROVIDER |

The higher the service model, the less you manage — and the less you control.

Data and access are ALWAYS yours. No service model transfers responsibility for who you let in.

*Data and access are always yours. No service model transfers responsibility for who you let in.*

# Four deployment models

## The four

- Public — shared infrastructure, any customer. Cheapest, least control
- Private — dedicated to one organisation, on-premises or hosted. Most control, most cost
- Hybrid — a deliberate combination, often sensitive workloads private and burst capacity public
- Community — shared by organisations with common requirements, such as a group of health providers

## Two more terms

- MSP — Managed Service Provider. A third party operating part of your IT. You retain accountability; they take operational responsibility
- SLA — Service-Level Agreement. Commits to measurable levels: uptime, response times, restoration times. This is where cloud promises become enforceable
- An SLA without penalties is a statement of intent

# Cloud moves responsibility, not accountability

**You can outsource the operation.**

**You cannot outsource being answerable for it.**

- A provider breach is still your breach as far as your customers and regulator are concerned
- This is the same point as transference in Domain 1 — the whole risk never moves
- Which is why due diligence, contract terms and SLAs matter as security controls
- And why data classification (Domain 5) has to happen before you decide what may go to cloud

4.8

LESSON

# Secure Network Design

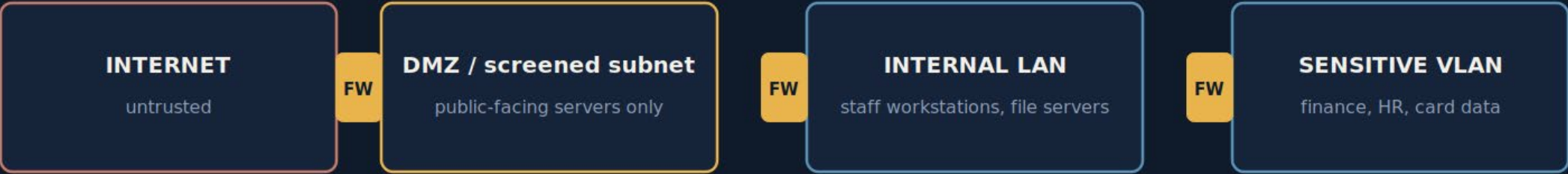
## OBJECTIVE

Identify secure network design terminology and choose an appropriate design control for a described requirement.

- Defence in depth applied to networks
- Zero trust, and what it replaces
- Network access control
- DMZ, VLANs, microsegmentation, IoT separation, VPN

# Limit how far an intruder can move

Segmentation limits how far an intruder can move once inside.



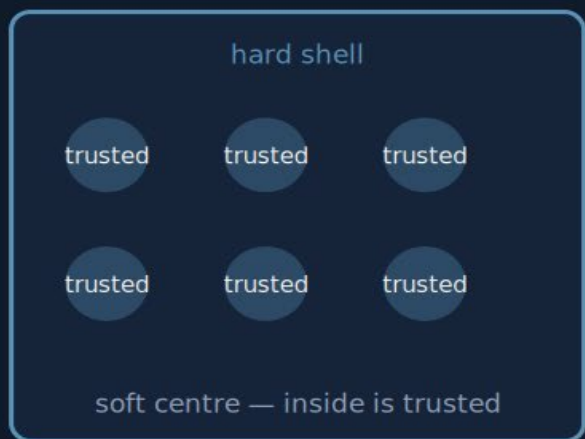
A firewall between every zone. Traffic is filtered at each boundary, not just at the edge.

|                              |                                                                                               |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>VLAN</b>                  | Logical separation on shared switches — groups devices regardless of location                 |
| <b>DMZ / screened subnet</b> | Hosts that must be reachable from the internet, isolated from the LAN                         |
| <b>Microsegmentation</b>     | Per-workload isolation — each server its own zone                                             |
| <b>IoT / OT segmentation</b> | Cameras, sensors and industrial kit on their own network; they cannot be patched like servers |
| <b>VPN</b>                   | An encrypted tunnel across an untrusted network — extends the boundary. does not remove it    |

# Two mental models

Two mental models. The second assumes the first has already failed.

## TRADITIONAL PERIMETER



## ZERO TRUST



- Verify explicitly — every request, every time
- Assume breach — design as if an attacker is already inside
- Least privilege — the smallest access that works
- Microsegmentation — contain what a compromise can reach

# Network Access Control

## What it does

- Decides whether a device may join the network at all
- Authenticates the device, commonly with 802.1X
- Checks posture: patch level, antimalware present, configuration compliant
- Places the device in an appropriate segment based on the result

## Why organisations deploy it

- Contractor and personal devices arriving on the network
- Guest access that must not reach internal systems
- Quarantining non-compliant devices instead of refusing them outright
- It is the control that answers "an unknown laptop was plugged into a meeting-room port"

# Design terminology to recall precisely

## DMZ

Also screened subnet. A segment for hosts that must be reachable from the internet, isolated so a compromise there does not reach the internal network.

## VLAN

Logical segmentation on shared switching. Groups devices by function rather than physical location.

## Microsegmentation

Isolation at the individual workload level — each server effectively its own zone. The practical mechanism behind zero trust.

## VPN

An encrypted tunnel across an untrusted network. Extends the trusted boundary; it does not remove the need for controls inside it.

## IoT / OT segmentation

Cameras, sensors and industrial equipment on their own network, because they often cannot be patched, hardened or monitored like servers.

*A VPN protects data in transit. It does nothing about what the connected device does once inside.*

4.9

LESSON

# Consolidation

## OBJECTIVE

Recall the port pairs and layer numbers cold, and select an appropriate control for a described network requirement.

- Port and layer drills
- Threat identification drill
- Control selection drill
- The memorisation set and common traps

# Port and layer recall

**Telnet, and its secure replacement**

23 → SSH on 22

**HTTP, and its secure counterpart**

80 → HTTPS on 443

**IMAP, and its secure counterpart**

143 → IMAPS on 993

**LDAP, and its secure counterpart**

389 → LDAPS on 636

**Which OSI layer has port numbers?**

Layer 4 — Transport

**Which OSI layer do routers work at?**

Layer 3 — Network

**Which OSI layer do switches work at?**

Layer 2 — Data Link

**DNS, RDP and SMB port numbers**

53, 3389, 445

*Cover the amber answers. These must be instant — no reasoning recovers a forgotten port number.*

# Name the threat

**Spreads across the network with no user action**

Worm

**Attacker reads and alters traffic between two parties**

On-path / man-in-the-middle

**Disguised as legitimate software the user installs**

Trojan

**Valid captured traffic is sent again to repeat an action**

Replay attack

**Dormant code triggered by a future condition**

Logic bomb

**Half-open connections exhaust the server**

SYN flood

**Thousands of sources flood a site at once**

DDoS — usually a botnet

**Secrets inferred from timing or power draw**

Side-channel attack

# Choose the design control

**Web servers must be internet-reachable safely**

DMZ / screened subnet

**Cameras cannot be patched or hardened**

IoT segmentation on a separate network

**Unknown laptop plugged into a meeting room port**

NAC with posture checking

**One compromised server reaches every other**

Microsegmentation

**Finance traffic must not mix with general staff**

VLAN segmentation

**Remote work made the perimeter meaningless**

Zero trust architecture

**Staff need office access from home**

VPN — plus MFA

**Need to know an intrusion happened, not block it**

IDS — detects and alerts only

*Note the last one. If a question says detect but not block, IPS is the wrong answer.*

# Produce these, don't just recognise them

## Numbers

- OSI 7 layers, in order, both directions
- TCP/IP 4 layers and the mapping
- IPv4 = 32 bits, IPv6 = 128 bits
- MAC = 48 bits
- Ranges: 0–1023, 1024–49151, 49152–65535
- Port pairs: 23/22, 80/443, 25/465, 110/995, 143/993, 389/636, 21/22, 53, 445, 3389

## Distinctions

- IDS detects · IPS blocks
- Virus needs a host · worm does not
- DoS one source · DDoS many
- TCP reliable · UDP fast
- HIDS one host · NIDS a segment
- Signature known · anomaly novel
- MOU intent · MOA agreement · SLA measurable

## Cloud and design

- Five characteristics: self-service, broad access, pooling, elasticity, measured
- IaaS you patch the OS · PaaS and SaaS the provider does
- Data and access always yours
- Public, private, hybrid, community
- DMZ, VLAN, microsegmentation, VPN, NAC, zero trust

*Three flashcard decks, not one. Numbers need daily drilling; distinctions need a single clear sentence each.*

# Where marks get lost

## IPS when it says detect

- If the requirement is to know about it, not stop it, the answer is IDS
- Read the verb in the question

## NAT as security

- NAT conserves addresses and obscures internal addressing
- It is not a firewall and not an access control

## Hiding the SSID

- Not a security control — trivially discovered
- Same for MAC filtering, which spoofing defeats

## Cloud transfers risk

- It transfers operation, not accountability
- Data and access responsibility never moves

*And: assuming a VPN secures the endpoint. It secures the tunnel. A compromised laptop on a VPN is a compromised laptop inside your network.*

Next: Domain 5

# Security Operations

18% of the exam. Data security and encryption, system hardening, configuration management, security policies, and awareness training.

*Before you move on: can you give the secure counterpart and port for Telnet, HTTP, IMAP and LDAP without hesitating, and say in one sentence what separates an IDS from an IPS?*