

## **Toward Metrics for Cyber Resilience**

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## Abstract

There is great interest in the topic of resilient cyber systems. However, much of the accompanying research is clouded by a lack of an appropriate definition of the term “resilience” and the challenges of measuring the actual resilience of a system. In this paper, we examine some of the lessons learned in defining resilience metrics and argue that such metrics are highly contextual, and that a general, quantitative set of metrics for resilience of cyber systems is impractical. Instead, we provide a set of considerations and guidelines for building metrics that are helpful for a particular system.

## Introduction

For some time now, the design of complex computational systems has been going through a philosophical shift, moving from a principle of robustness-centered design to a principle of more flexible and adaptive design. These systems are capable of surviving, reacting and recovering from external attacks and localized failures. This paradigm shift to a “fighting through design” philosophy is, in retrospect, unavoidable, as the limitations of proactive defense mechanism become clear.

It is now generally well accepted that systems inevitably will be attacked, often successfully, so they have to be designed to survive these attacks, and recover from their effects to restore and maintain desired availability and functionality.

While there is much good work in this area, real scientific progress has been hampered by the loose definition of “resilience” and (as a result) a lack of metrics in this space. As such systems become more accepted and deployed in different application domains, the need for a definition and metrics becomes of greatest importance, not only to establish common ground, but also to determine whether progress is occurring.

A previous publication (Bishop et al., 2011) focused on the definition of the term “resilience”, and how it relates to the concepts of “robustness” and “survivability”. It noted that resilience is multi-faceted. Although often discussed from the perspective of performance and availability (Heddaya & Helal, 1997, Carvalho et al., 2010), resilience also relates to different properties of the system such as confidentiality and integrity (Bishop et al., 2011).

In this paper we focus on resilience metrics. After a brief review of the terminology and definitions, we introduce some of the current proposals for measuring resilience. We then discuss some of the challenges and limitations associated with these proposals, highlighting some of the additional considerations that must be taken into account to adequately represent the *resilience of a system*.

## Defining our Terms

“Resilience” is challenging to define. The term refers to specific systems, tasks, outputs, and other conditions that vary between scenarios, which precludes the development of a universal metric that applies to all system in all situations. Just as different musicians cannot agree on the “best” rendition of a song, this existential definition of resilience has implications. In some disciplines such as ecology, the resilience of a system is defined as the time the system takes to recover to steady state conditions after a perturbation.

In computing, such a definition is unsatisfactory, partly due to the demands we place on our systems (the fitness of a system depends on not its endpoint, but on the path taken to get there) and partly due to the immaturity of computing recovery options. Biological ecosystems exist to reproduce—to continue to exist, essentially. Computing infrastructures typically have an external mission. If we define resilience to be just the recovery time, how do we factor in the differences in missions? This question, while difficult to answer, plays an important role in how we quantify and measure the resilience of a system.

## Considerations for Resilience Metrics

The considerations or resilience metrics that we explore in this section are particular to the context of cyber systems. Resilience of ecological systems, for example, rarely considers the magnitude of a response, focusing instead only on the time taken to return to pre-disturbance conditions.

Our notion of metrics is congruent with the extensive theory of measurement. As early as 1946, Stevens (Stevens, 1946) proposed different levels of measurement, ranging from nominal, the labelling of objects, to ratio, the use of more sophisticated statistical techniques to determine equality, rank order, equality of intervals and equality of ratios. Typically, we consider measurements to range from weak to strong, with the weakest being nominal, and progressing through ordinal, interval, and ratio.

We would like our measurements to be as useful as possible. When we refer to resilience, we need to ask what a system being “twice as resilient” as another actually means. If this cannot be expressed in terms that are meaningful, the idea of a ratio-based measurement may be impractical or not applicable to the topic of resilience.

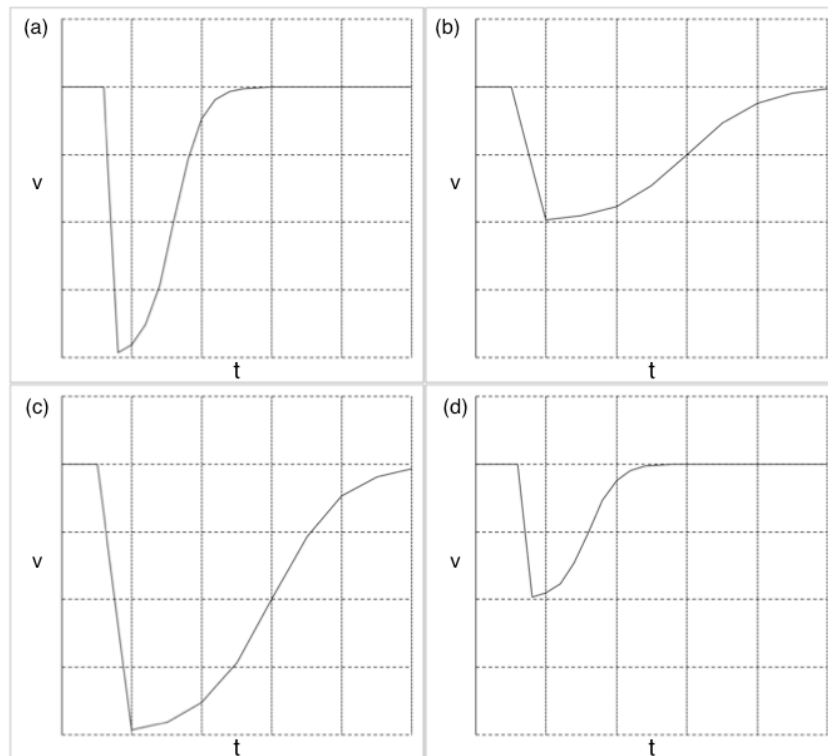
A *measurement* is a representation of a quantity. It is *not* the quantity being measured, and this is an important distinction. A measurement provides insight into the attribute under inspection.

This section proposes several guidelines for constructing metrics that are appropriate for a particular system, given our definitional ambiguity. Each consideration is described and then explored on an informal discussion.

### Guideline A: All near-term metrics for resilience are likely to be ordinal

Engineers and scientists like to be able to assign numbers to things. “This GPU can carry out 1.1 teraflops—3 times as many as a CPU” is a meaningful statement that reveals something concrete about the systems under comparison. It is 1-dimensional, because it compares only computation speed. But resilience is not a 1-dimensional quantity.

Measuring the resilience of a system requires “rolling up” a time series  $f(t)$  into a single number. Different system inputs produce different time series; loss of dimensionality creates a many-to-one mapping and, consequentially, a loss of information in the translation. Furthermore, the behavior (and recovery) of the system will vary depending on the failure or perturbation. For simple cases with a given set of possible outputs, it is typically possible to claim that one output is more desirable than another. This provides an ordinal metric.



**Figure 1: Examples of a system response to an external perturbation**

Let us consider a very simple system as an example. We will use this example throughout the paper to illustrate a system that is, at least at its core, very straightforward to analyse.

Consider a generator tasked to produce a certain voltage  $v$ . The system uses direct current (DC), so that we do not have to consider issues related to phase and timing; instead, we have a single scalar value that represents the system at any particular time. At time  $t_1$ , the system undergoes a perturbation of arbitrary origin. Figure 1 shows four possible graphs for the system response.

In panel (b) of the graph, the response curve is similar to that in (a) except that the magnitude of the response is greater for all values of  $t$ . We can thus argue that (a) represents a more resilient system than (b), but cannot really say how much more resilient until we consider the system in a given operational context. Also, panel (c) is similar to panel (a) except that the recovery happens more slowly. Panel (d) simply illustrates that curves may be unexpected and take arbitrary shapes—any measurement scheme must account for this possibility. Measuring the lowest point and time to recovery does not adequately characterize these curves. Similarly, the change in the area under the curve due to the perturbation, as proposed in (Wei & Ji, 2010), is only a partial measure of resilience.

Of course, we can measure quantities related to resilience. Time to recovery, for example, is a numerical measure of a single aspect of resilience (Ives, 1995). Composing the measures of different aspects in order to reason about resilience itself is where our sense of ordinality originates.

Even with our simple example it is fairly easy to argue, by observation, that at least in vacuo, the system represented by Figure 1(a) is more resilient than those represented by Figures 1(b), 1(c) and 1(d). Recovery follows the same trend, it just happens more quickly. Even here, though, things are not quite that simple, and we will revisit these graphs in Guideline H.

### **Guideline B: Resilience measurements are particular to a particular perturbation**

Different perturbations will cause different system responses. The failure and subsequent recovery of function of a particular part of a system is likely to lead to very different output patterns. This inherent notion of events in resilience has been noted not only in the security domain but also in the areas of organizational (Westrum, 2006) and systems resilience (Sugden, 2001). In all cases, the concept relates to the challenge or disruption affecting the normal operation of the system.

Thus, when measuring resilience, we are actually measuring each individual perturbation and its different magnitudes, and providing an ordering that may be unique to a particular set of conditions. For example, one system might be resilient with respect to temperature increases of 5, 10, or 15 degrees Celsius, returning to steady state output after each temperature change. However, the same system may fail completely (that is, have no resilience whatsoever) in the event of a flood. For any system that we are likely to care about, there will be sufficient complexity that the resilience of the system will vary as a function of the type and magnitude of the perturbation. Determining the “best” system in this case will require an understanding of the disruptions that could occur in practice and of the users’ tolerance of them. Capturing this numerically will be difficult.

### **Guideline C: Resilience metrics are deeply dependent on the boundary drawn around the system**

Rarely does considering the resilience of a single piece of a larger system in isolation make sense. Our example above (see Figure 1) considered a generator in isolation. If we increase the scope of that system to include what the generator powers, our determination of its resilience changes. Consider, for example, a generator that is powering a series of incandescent bulbs. Such a system is still usable when the voltage sags—the lights may dim, but still provide adequate lighting. In contrast, a generator powering a computing device will fail in its mission when the voltage sags below a critical value—the computer is either working or it is not.

Let us extend our example by providing support for a battery backup. When the generator output sags, the batteries can provide power for a certain number of kWh. For this system, the total power shortfall drives the failure—that is, it does not matter if the generator output drops to zero as long as it returns to functionality before the batteries are exhausted. Continuing to expand our view, suppose the batteries can run long enough for a human to intervene and install a new generator. The electronic system is not in itself resilient—it does not repair itself or recover—but the system *as a whole* is resilient (just not autonomically so).

The boundaries we draw around the “system” are critical in considering resilience. They must be carefully thought through and well defined. By changing the boundaries, a system that we considered not to be resilient may in fact be resilient, and *vice versa*. Any metrics we use to measure resilience are specific to a particular system boundary.

Perhaps the most fundamental distinction we can draw concerns human input discriminating between those systems with autonomic recovery, and those requiring some level of manual intervention. Determining which type of system we are exploring is critical to our choice of metric. In the case of an autonomic recovery, we expect the system to handle perturbations without human input. By considering humans as part of the system, *all* systems are in some sense resilient because the imagination and understanding of people provide an almost infinite pool of resources from which to rebuild the system. Conversely, for many real world systems, human intervention is a very real part of the larger system, and a resilience mechanism that provides adequate performance until humans can intervene is sufficient.

### **Guideline D: There is no universal way to combine multiple scenarios meaningfully to produce a “global” resilience ordering**

As touched on above, any attempt to distil multiple measures of resilience into an “overall” measure of the system is fraught with problems. The different magnitudes of each class of disruption may have very different behaviours.

Attempting to unify the resulting curves into something that adequately represents the system is deeply contextual. Furthermore, when considering systems that need to be resilient to attack, any metric must take into consideration that a skilled attacker will attack the system at its weakest point. Attempting to reduce different aspects of resilience to a simple scalar loses so much information that we believe such a reduction to be ill-advised.

### **Guideline E: The ordinal ranking of a system could be different for each customer or application**

The system requirements drive our ordinal ranking of resilience. Turning once again to our generator example, we can imagine two different sets of requirements. One customer may require the generator to maintain a certain minimum voltage at all times. Thus, any drop of voltage below this critical value makes the system as a whole not resilient even if the generator itself recovers. But another customer may care about the total time the voltage sags below its assigned value. If this sag lasts longer than a certain period of time, the system fails. So in this case, even if the generator capacity recovers, the system as a whole has failed.

This leads to two observations. First, the systems are no longer the same. External dependencies beyond the generator itself make the systems different, even though the generation component is the same. Second, the same behaviour of the generator can be “good” for some customers and “bad” for others. Thus, we cannot treat the customer requirements as a black box. The resilience of the generation system itself matters less than the resilience of the system it supports. The customer requirements must drive our metrics for resilience; they are not tied to a single component.

### **Guideline F: Metrics for cyber systems are different than those of their physical counterparts**

When we consider cyber operations—especially when we must account for the presence of a malicious adversary intent on damaging the system—we must think about systemic resilience differently than when thinking about random failure.

When dealing with random errors, it is possible to determine with some degree of surety the probability of the different failure modes of the system. As such, it is possible to consider the probability of different trajectories the system might take.

But, when we apply this reasoning to *non-random* failure such as an attacker might cause, a different picture emerges. A simple example is helpful. Assume we have 10 vulnerable web servers, and we patch 9 of them. We might conclude that, because we have repaired 90% of the machines, our risk has diminished dramatically. Alas, when facing an adversary, this is incorrect. Should the attacker identify the weak server, the site as a whole will be penetrated—so patching 9 web servers does not make the system as a whole 9 times more secure.

Thus, when dealing with an adversary, resilience needs to be viewed in terms of attacker capability and cost.

## **Guideline G: Considering just the system output is not a sufficient picture of resilience**

When reasoning about resilience, it is important to measure the ability of the system to withstand further attacks (Mendonca, 2008). For example, consider a system composed of  $n$  redundant generators. When a generator fails for any reason, it can be replaced by one of the other generators; conceivably, this could happen without any significant degradation of quality of service. However, after the failure, the system is not as resilient as it was previously. This “capacity” of the system to recover from subsequent failures is an important part of determining systemic resilience and is not necessarily captured by the output of the system until it actually fails. As such, an important part of measuring the system’s resilience is the cost in terms of its effect on the ability of the system to recover from subsequent failures or attacks.

## **Guideline H: Measuring resilience alone is usually not what we want**

How we define “robustness” and “resilience” has strong implications when we try to compare the resilience of two systems. In particular, the sense that robustness is related to the system’s rigidity, and the sense that resilience is related to recovery, can lead to some counter-intuitive conclusions if we attempt to measure resilience alone.

Consider the system producing the graphs in Figure 1. Imagine a system that is not affected (in terms of output) by any event or disturbance—that is, the system essentially continues unperturbed by the attack or failure. Technically, this system displays robustness, but has not demonstrated resilience to a particular attack. Thus, one could argue that it could be less resilient than a system that is perturbed by, but recovers from, the same kind of event. In this scenario, measuring resilience may not make sense, at least from the perspective of recovery to an attack (as defined in (Bishop et al., 2011)). An isolated measure of resilience may not be meaningful without a given context, and associated indicators of robustness of the system.

## **Future Work**

One of the challenges with a metric that provides an ordinal scale is that we can say, for a certain set of circumstances, that System A is more resilient than System B, but we cannot say how much better. This is particularly important when considering the cost-benefit ratio of System A compared to that of System B. If, in practice, System A provides an infinitesimal improvement over System B, its value may not be much higher than System B’s. Conversely, if “more resilient” means that A will survive and recover and B will not, the value of System A over B is potentially very high.

Our sense is that there is no universal way of quantifying these differences. The “correct” approach is one that takes into account the relative costs and likelihood of failure. This is further complicated when systems need to be resilient to attack as well as random failure or perturbation. For such a system, an approach that provides generally good performance but fails utterly in one particular attack scenario should be weighed by its worst-case performance coupled with the cost to the attacker in terms of resources, sophistication, or exploitability. For example, if a system fails catastrophically when a certain number can be predicted but the chances of successful prediction are low—say  $2^{64}$  to 1—the failure, despite its severity, might not be very important in practice.

Perhaps the solution is to identify a nuanced set of definitions for resilience that brings context and other external factors into account. Simplifying the definition to describe a single dimension of the property (for example, the system recovery time) may provide a single comfortable metric, but will certainly fail to grasp the full meaning of resilience. If instead, resilience is considered as a multi-

faceted property of the system, it may require a more complex description and a set of nuanced metrics, but will better represent the different system perspectives, and operational contexts.

The relative lack of test scenarios for resilience is an area ripe for exploration. Given that the resilience of the system is so sensitive to the scenario under consideration, standardized scenarios being available for different problem spaces would allow the direct and *reproducible* comparison of different approaches to survivability (and robustness, and resilience...) using different techniques. Without this, much of the work in resilient systems is open to criticism on the grounds that careful (or even random) selection of the scenario and requirements can lead to very different conclusions. Any funding agency interested in this space should carefully consider this point; even in our simple examples, two identical component behaviours can have different implications based on the design of the system as a whole.

## **Conclusion**

In this paper, we have examined the concept of resilience as it applies to cyber systems. Our conclusion is that the development of an overarching set of metrics that can adequately measure resilience in all, or even most, systems is, for the foreseeable future, impractical. Resilience is very much about the requirements of the system, and different inputs can and will produce different systemic behaviour. Any “simple” measure of resilience obscures much detail, and is likely to be counterproductive.

In recognition of this, we have described several issues to be considered when attempting to measure the resilience of simple system (a simplified power generator). We do not claim this group of issues to be universal or comprehensive, but it at least allows us to begin reasoning about both how to demonstrate resilience in experiments, and how to best compare different routes toward resilient systems. Despite the challenges inherent in measuring resilience, the problem is an important one, and its lack of a clear or partial solution restricts progress in the field of cyber resilience in general.

The complexity and nuances of resilience in real world systems are a major challenge in the development not only of resilient systems but also in allowing us to compare the actual behaviour of systems. This complexity rises quickly in the face of an adversary who will attempt to exploit the system in different ways. Our intuition tells us that funding agencies that have an interest in the design of resilient systems will need to provide unambiguous and shareable scenarios that allow the direct comparison of different techniques. These scenarios are a critical component of the definition of both “resilience” and of the actual system under consideration.

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